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### Abstract

A portal vein aneurysm (PVA) is abnormal focal dilation of the portal vein and is defined as a portal vein diameter exceeding 19 mm in cirrhotic patients and 15 mm in a normal liver. A PVA as an abnormality of the portal venous system was first reported in 1956 by Barzilai and Kleckner. A review from 2015 entitled "Portal vein aneurysm: What to know" considered fewer than 200 cases. In the last seven years, there has been an increase in the number of PVAs diagnosed thanks to routine abdominal imaging. The aim of this review is to provide a comprehensive update of the situation regarding PVAs, including aetiology, epidemiology and clinical assessment, along with an evaluation of advanced multimodal imaging features of aneurysms and management approaches.

**Key words:** aneurysm, portal vein, abdominal imaging, treatment, follow-up

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## Core tip

Portal vein aneurysms are rare vascular abnormalities, representing 3% of all venous aneurysms in the human body, and they are not well understood. They can be congenital or acquired, located mainly at the level of confluence, main trunk, branches and bifurcation. In this review, analysing available literature data, novelties in all aspects of these visceral venous abnormalities are presented (including aetiology, epidemiology, clinical assessment, imaging and treatment).

## Introduction to PVAs

A portal vein aneurysm (PVA) is a focal saccular abnormality or fusiform dilatation of the portal venous system, and it is defined as a portal vein (PV) diameter exceeding 19 mm in cirrhotic patients and 15 mm in a normal liver. PVAs are rare vascular abnormalities, representing 3% of all venous aneurysms in the human body, and they are not well understood [1–7].

Douglass et al. studied 92 autopsies and reported that the diameter of the PV was between 0.64 mm and 12.1 mm in patients without cirrhosis and those without portal hypertension [8]. In 1976, Doust et al. conducted a vascular study of 53 patients to assess the size of the PV and underlying liver status through abdominal ultrasound, and they detected that the maximum calibre of the PV was 19 mm in cirrhotic patients and 15 mm in patients with normal livers. Hence, a portal vein diameter of >20 mm is universally regarded as the threshold for diagnosis of a PVA [9].

In a retrospective study by Koc et al., involving 4186 patients who had undergone routine abdominal contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT), the prevalence of PVAs was 0.43% [10]. The location of a PVA can be extrahepatic or intrahepatic. Extrahepatic PVAs often occur in the main trunk of the PV, the splenomesenteric confluence at the level of the PV bifurcation, the main branches of the PV, the splenic vein (SV) and the superior mesenteric vein (SMV). A study by Doust et al. characterized intrahepatic PVAs as having a diameter measuring more than 7 mm in normal patients and 8.5 mm in cirrhotic patients [9]. PVAs as abnormalities of the portal venous system were first reported in 1956 by Barzilai and Kleckner [11]. A review from 2015 entitled “Portal vein aneurysm: What to know” considered 96 reports and included 190 patients [1].

Aiming to clarify novelty as regards these visceral vascular abnormalities, we performed a literature search of the PubMed database for all articles relating to PVAs between January 2015 and July 2022. We collected 57 reports, involving 62 patients with a PVA [3–7, 12–16, 19, 21–25, 27, 29–68]; we also found one retrospective study with 18 PVA patients [2], and three cases of PV pseudoaneurysms [69, 70, 71].

## Epidemiological characteristics

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Of the 62 patients in the review, 33 (53%) were male; the patients were between 1 (youngest) and 95 (oldest) years of age, and the mean patient age at diagnosis was 54.85 years ( $\pm 21.72$ ). The incidence of reported PVAs per year is shown in Figure 1.

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In terms of aetiology, the frequency of congenital PVAs was 29 (46.7%), and it was 17 (27.4%) for acquired PVAs. In 16 (25.8%) patients, the aetiology of the PVA was unclear. With regard to the location of PVAs, 27.41% were at the level of the splenomesenteric confluence; 19.35% were at the main trunk; 17.74% were at branches; 6.45% were at the PV bifurcation; 6.45% were at the SV; and 4.83% were at the SMV; 14.51% were classified as intrahepatic PVAs. A retrospective study by Ahmed et al. [2] included 18 patients (13 of whom were female (72.2%)), aged between 20 and 101 years, with an average age of 56 years.

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Our review also covered three patients (all male) with a PV pseudoaneurysm resulting from trauma.

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### Etiopathogenesis

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The aetiology of PVAs is not clear. Postulated origins include both congenital and acquired causes. It is well known that the main cause of acquired PVAs is chronic liver disease (cirrhosis and fibrosis) with portal hypertension. Long-standing portal hypertension causes intimal thickening with compensatory medial hypertrophy of the portal vein. Over time, medial hypertrophy is replaced by fibrous tissue, leading to weakening of the vein wall, thus making it susceptible to aneurysmal dilatation [12, 13]. However, the incidence of portal hypertension and PVAs is disproportionate, suggesting the existence of other contributory factors.

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Acquired PVAs can also be part of severe pancreatitis, likely to be due to leakage of digestive enzymes, causing localized inflammation of the PV. Other known aetiologies of acquired PVAs are malignancy and trauma [1].

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A pseudoaneurysm of the PV is defined as post-traumatic abnormal dilation of the portal venous system. It is a serious condition requiring an interventional approach; five cases were reported in the literature during the period of our review [71]. In relation to a new acquired aetiology of PVAs, the following conditions were noted: Budd-Chiari syndrome [14], splenomegaly in thalassaemia major [15] and giant splenic artery aneurysms [16]. Long-term cholelithiasis was also considered as a possible cause of PVAs [17]. Some PVAs are congenital. During gestation, three pairs of veins are developed; the cardinal veins, umbilical veins and vitelline veins. The PV, hepatic veins and part of the inferior cava vein (ICV) come from umbilical veins and vitelline veins. Generally, cranial segments of the left vitelline vein and caudal segments of the right vitelline vein regress during the foetal period, and the SV and SMV are derived from the left vitelline vein [18].

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Evidence supporting a congenital cause includes reported cases of *in utero* diagnosis of PVAs, evidence of PVAs in patients with histologically proven normal livers (particularly in children and young adults), normal portal venous pressure in the presence of a PVA, and the frequent stability of aneurysms at follow-up imaging. Theories for a congenital cause involve inherent weakness in the vessel wall or incomplete regression of the distal right primitive vitelline vein, leading to a vascular diverticulum that ultimately develops into an aneurysm. Congenital PVAs are usually incidentally diagnosed later in life (not in neonatal or paediatric age groups) when an abdominal ultrasound is carried out because of some other indication [4, 6, 19]. Burdall et al. evaluated the relation between trisomy 21 (Down's syndrome) and congenital vascular malformation of the liver in a study of 45 children, seven of whom had vascular malformation and two of whom had evidence of a PVA [20].

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### Clinical assessment of patients with a PVA, symptomatology and complications

The symptomatology of PVAs is controversial and poorly understood. According to the review article by Laurenzi et al. [1], 30% of patients with a PVA were asymptomatic, and 50% experienced non-specific abdominal pain. In our review, we found that up to 25% of patients were asymptomatic; for 15% of patients, the authors did not provide clear symptoms relating to the PVA, and approximately 30% of patients experienced non-specific abdominal pain. In patients with a PVA, the nature of non-specific abdominal pain should be clarified. The main question is whether low-pressure PVAs are truly the source of the pain; gastritis, duodenitis and cholecystitis, etc., should be ruled out. A retrospective study by Ahmed et al. [2] showed that in eight (44.4%) patients with abdominal pain, a PVA was actually the source of the pain in only one patient.

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Up to 10% of cases involve portal hypertension, gastrointestinal bleeding (varices) or symptoms related to compression of adjacent organs (abdominal swelling or jaundice) [1]. With a PVA, symptoms or complications such as portal hypertension and bleeding are possible. One thing that should be clarified is whether a PVA is a consequence of portal hypertension or whether the PVA is causing portal hypertension. Khan et al. found coexistence of a giant splenic artery aneurysm, portal hypertension without liver cirrhosis and a PVA at the level of bifurcation. In this case, the PVA and portal hypertension were presumed to be secondary to the pressure effect from the splenic artery aneurysm [16]. Güngör et al. presented an 11-month-old girl with a congenital PVA, and oesophageal and fundal varices with bleeding [21]. This was the only case in our review where PVA caused portal hypertension complications.

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Symptomatology has a close relation with morphology, size and location of the PVA. When it grows, there can be contact with the biliary tract, the ICV and duodenum, etc., and complications can arise from compression of these organs. Six patients in our review (9.67%) had compression complications, including four biliopathies [22, 23, 24, 25], one thrombosis in the ICV [7] and one intestinal obstruction [19].

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Laurenzi et al. reported PVA complications such as thrombosis (which happened in 20% of cases) and a rupture (which occurred twice) [1]. A recent retrospective study by Ahmed et al. [2] reported 18 patients with a PVA; 22.22% of patients had thrombosis, and no ruptures were reported. PVAs with acute portal vein thrombosis are reported in the literature as nearly always being symptomatic, with 91% of patients reporting abdominal pain, 53% reporting fever, and 38% presenting with ascites [26].

In our review, thrombosis occurred in 12 (19.35%) patients (six of whom were female), with a median age of 38.33 years. Abdominal pain was reported in 10 of 12 patients; in a one-year-old girl, the symptoms manifested as haematemesis and melena [21]; a 69-year-old female with a congenital PVA did not experience any symptoms [5]. In five patients, treatment was based on anticoagulation medication; seven patients underwent open surgery or invasive radiology procedures. In our review, a rupture as a complication of a PVA was not reported. Patients with a PVA have a series of laboratory tests, including complete blood count, inflammatory parameters, basic metabolic profile and liver function tests.

## Imaging

Increased use of abdominal cross-sectional imaging in recent years has led to a growing number of cases describing PVAs, and as such, proper handling of this lesion is increasingly relevant to both diagnostic and interventional radiologists. Evaluation of PVAs by multiple imaging modalities is important because a PVA can mimic solid, cystic or hypervascular abdominal masses [1–7].

Sonography assessments can be performed for differential diagnosis to determine whether anechoic areas or cysts at porta hepatis are PVAs, hepatic artery aneurysms or choledochal cysts. Abdominal ultrasound based on the greyscale of the PVA produces an anechoic structure with a “smoke effect” within, which simulates a natural contrast agent, determined by slowed venous flow (Figure 2a). Spectral Doppler sonography can reveal the presence of a monophasic, non-pulsatile venous flow pattern inside the aneurysm (Figure 2b). With colour Doppler sonography of a PVA, anechoic areas will be completely filled, looking like the Korean flag or a “yin-yang” sign. Hepatic artery aneurysms show a colour flow with arterial waveform, but choledochal cysts do not show such colour flow and are connected to biliary channels [6, 15].

Contrast-enhanced CT with angiography shows the filling of PVAs. On a CT and MRI scan, a PVA will appear as a well-defined contrast-enhanced focal saccular anomaly or fusiform dilatation of the portal venous system during the portal venous phase [4, 27].

In one case, CT angiography facilitated better assessment of the portal venous system, which contained some thin calcifications in the aneurysmal wall and the main portal trunk [13]. Iimuro et al. presented “computational fluid dynamics software”, analysing the haemodynamics of the portal venous system, including congenital saccular PVAs at the level of confluence. Turbulent flow was obvious in PVAs,

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and the wall shear stress against the upper-posterior part of the aneurysm wall was greater than in other parts of the aneurysm. In order to prevent the PVA from growing and avoid thrombosis or a rupture, an aneurysmectomy of the PVA was performed [28].

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The diagnostic role of endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) was highlighted in congenital PVAs at the level of the splenomesenteric confluence. EUS confirmed the presence of anechoic lesions adjacent to the neck of the pancreas [29]. EUS as a diagnostic tool was also used for assessment of an intrahepatic aneurysmal portosystemic venous shunt [30].

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“Intraductal ultrasonography” (IDU) was used for the first time to identify an adjacent PVA as the cause of a common hepatic duct stricture, showing a lobulated hypoechoic mass containing a mobile echogenic substance, outside of the biliary tract, highly suggestive of a vascular lesion [24].

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### Management and treatment of PVAs

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Because of their rarity, the natural history of PVAs remains unclear, and the optimal strategy for management is controversial. Following diagnosis of a PVA, treatment will depend on the size, symptoms and location of the PVA, and comorbidities.

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If the PVA is asymptomatic (as in 30% of cases), it does not require any active treatment, and monitoring (a policy of “wait and see”) should be adopted [1]. While asymptomatic aneurysms smaller than 30 mm can be clinically observed, surgical intervention may be necessary in large asymptomatic aneurysms (>30 mm) [10]. The origin, morphology and symptomatology of a PVA, along with comorbidities and conservative treatment, are shown in Table 1.

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Where there is thrombosis due to a PVA, anticoagulation treatment should be considered. In a recently published case, a 10-year-old boy with PVA thrombosis was treated with enoxaparin. The thrombosis disappeared completely after 6 months [31]. In a case involving biliopathy, where the PVA comprised hepatic ducts, ursodeoxycholic acid was used to decrease the level of conjugated bilirubin [22].

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While, in some studies, a CT scan every 12 months was the preferred monitoring strategy, most published studies indicate that sonography is the preferred imaging technique for monitoring PVA growth, as it is relatively inexpensive and does not involve radiation exposure [32].

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### Open surgery approach

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If the PVA is growing and constricting adjacent organs, thrombosis occurs. Open surgery methods should therefore be considered in order to prevent potential rupture. An aneurysmectomy for fusiform aneurysms (aneurysm resection, followed by insertion of a synthetic or cadaveric graft as a replacement conduit) and an aneurysmorrhaphy for saccular aneurysms (normalizing the diameter of the portal vein,

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if the remaining venous wall is of good quality) are considered for symptomatic aneurysms and to prevent a negative PVA prognosis.

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The origin, morphology, PVA symptomatology and comorbidities as regards invasive treatment are shown in Table 2.

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Fleming et al. demonstrated the efficacy of open surgery (aneurysmectomy) in three cases (two patients with an autograft and one with ePTFE), and anti-aggregation/anticoagulants were considered. The two women with an autogenous graft remained asymptomatic at 85 and 65 months, respectively; the third woman with ePTFE got thrombosis during pregnancy. The same report also included an aneurysmorrhaphy as the chosen treatment in one woman with a PVA [33].

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Kim et al. presented a case with a PVA at the level of the main trunk, growing and with thrombosis complications. An aneurysm excision with an interposition bypass was successfully performed. The patient's postoperative recovery was rapid and uneventful, with normal portal flow revealed by colour Doppler ultrasonography and a contrast-enhanced CT scan [34].

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Khan et al. presented a case where splenomegaly, a giant splenic artery aneurysm and a PVA were found to coexist. The patient underwent a splenectomy and excision of the splenic artery aneurysm. It was determined that her PVA shrank considerably [16]. Das et al. presented a case with thalassaemia major, splenomegaly and a PVA. After a splenectomy (necessitated by the existence of hypersplenism), the PVA significantly reduced [15].

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Chadha et al. reported the case of a 66-year-old male with an acquired SV aneurysm and described novel use of a "Sundt external carotid endarterectomy shunt" as a temporary portacaval shunt to control portomesenteric hypertension, before transplantation of the liver [35]. A giant SV aneurysm 98 mm in size developed as a consequence of a splenectomy, an arteriovenous fistula and portal hypertension; this aneurysm was treated successfully with open surgery [36].

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Male and female patients, both of whom had a congenital PVA and subsequent thrombosis complications, were treated with a hybrid operative repair, involving a transhepatic catheter thrombectomy, and their aneurysms were operated on in open surgery [25, 37].

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The limited number of PVAs that have been reported means that there are no clear indications for open surgery on PVAs. Koc et al. [10] studied the size of PVAs and concluded that aneurysms larger than 30 mm should be surgically treated with the aim of preventing thrombosis or rupture. On the other hand, a recently reported case of a patient with a congenital PVA 35 mm in size, with subsequent thrombosis complications, showed spontaneous resolution after 10 years [5].

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Sura et al. reported the case of an 80-year-old man who had open surgery on a 37-mm PVA at the level of the main trunk [38]. The reasons for PVA surgery were not postulated, but given the congenital origin,

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advanced age of the patient and absence of symptoms or thrombosis, it is our view that surgery was not the best treatment choice.

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### Interventional radiology procedures

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In cases where a PVA is a consequence of portal hypertension and/or coexists with life-threatening conditions (injuries), the high risk associated with open surgery methods means that interventional radiology procedures via a percutaneous approach, endovascular approach or, better still, an endoscopic approach should be considered [1, 2].

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### Percutaneous approach

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Shukla et al. successfully demonstrated percutaneous embolization of a saccular intrahepatic PVA and occlusion of the aneurysm, which prevented further growth or other clinical sequelae [39]. Shrivastava et al. presented the largest intrahepatic PVA and the first case where the endovascular technique was used for treatment of the same. Under sonography and fluoroscopy guidance, the PVA was directly punctured with an 18G needle and embolized with a Lipiodol-Glue combination [27].

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Juscafresa et al. reported the case of an elderly female treated for an acquired SV aneurysm 45 mm in size, through a transhepatic percutaneous approach, using a VIABAHN covered stent [40]. Marmor et al. presented the case of a patient with a congenital SV aneurysm 40 mm in size. Because the aneurysm was getting larger, it was treated with an expandable stent via a transhepatic approach [41].

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In one case, after liver transplantation necessitated by HCV cirrhosis, the patient subsequently developed an arterioportal fistula with an intrahepatic PVA. The first step of the treatment was transarterial embolization, and the second step was stent graft exclusion of the PVA. As there was leakage, the patient underwent liver re-transplantation [42]. Oguslu et al. demonstrated two techniques for treatment of an arterioportal fistula with a giant saccular PVA at the level of the left branch. After failure of an endovascular approach due to tortuosity and angulation of the celiac artery, access to the hepatic artery was obtained directly via a percutaneous transhepatic route, and the fistula site was embolized with an Amplatzer Vascular Plug II and coils [43].

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Our review covered three patients (all males) with a PV pseudoaneurysm, all of which were a consequence of abdominal trauma or injury. In a patient with a traumatic pseudoaneurysm at the level of the splenomesenteric confluence, Ierardi et al. demonstrated a novel management strategy with a percutaneous transhepatic self-expanding stent graft [69].

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A patient with a PV pseudoaneurysm at the level of the main trunk, resulting from invasive medical procedures (e.g., a percutaneous biopsy or endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography (ERCP)) to address lymphomatous infiltration of the pancreatic head (with symptoms of haemobilia), was treated using percutaneous transhepatic covered stenting [70].

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In the last case, involving a patient with a pseudoaneurysm of the portal venous system resulting from a motor vehicle collision, the patient was brought into the emergency department with diffuse abdominal pain and bowel shock. Unfortunately, the patient soon succumbed to his injuries [71].

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### Endovascular approach

Gaining access to the treatment zone can be challenging, and the target vessel may have tortuosity and elongation due to haemodynamic changes created by the hyperdynamic flow. Kimura et al. presented a case involving a hepatectomy (hepatocellular carcinoma), where the patient subsequently developed an arteriportal fistula with hepatofugal flow and a 40-mm-diameter PVA. After selective embolization of the anterior hepatic artery, the PVA disappeared, and portal flow was normalized [44].

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An endovascular approach includes creation of a transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt (TIPS). In patients with portal hypertension, an attempt may be made to decrease portal venous pressure in order to reduce the size of the aneurysm. Our review covered four patients with a PVA where the treatment of choice was a TIPS. Tsauo et al. presented a case involving a PVA resulting from portal hypertension associated with Budd-Chiari syndrome. For the first time, a TIPS was created without complications. The patient's abdominal pain completely ceased within two days, and she remained asymptomatic during the one-year follow-up [14]. Ding et al. presented a case with a PVA at the level of bifurcation, with comorbidities such as portal hypertension, liver cirrhosis and HBV chronica. A TIPS successfully decreased the patient's portal hypertension and reduced the size of the PVA from 53 x 76 mm to 23 x 25 mm. Two years later, a CT scan and digital subtraction angiography revealed that the aneurysm had disappeared. The patient remained asymptomatic for 72 months [45]. Dunlap et al. also used a TIPS successfully to treat a PVA resulting from portal hypertension and liver cirrhosis [46]. Kohlbrenner et al. demonstrated transhepatic pharmacomechanical thrombolysis of a large thrombosed PVA. This was followed by insertion of a TIPS, along with an additional trans-TIPS thrombectomy to improve sluggish portal outflow and prevent re-thrombosis. Nine months later, an MRI showed complete resolution of the thromb[47].

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### Endoscopic approach via ERCP

In older patients with a PVA and biliopathy and jaundice complications, ERCP with biliary stenting can be an appropriate treatment choice. In an 80-year-old male with liver cirrhosis and portal hypertension, an acquired PVA at the level of the left branch was found. The patient had developed biliopathy due to compression of the common bile duct; this complication was successfully treated endoscopically via ERCP with a biliary stent [23]. Sun et al. reported the case of an 85-year-old man with cholangitis complications from PVA-induced compression. Given the age of the patient, surgery was not considered, and instead an ERCP biliary stent was deployed several times [24].

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### Conclusion

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PVAs are rare morphological abnormalities of the portal venous system, accounting for 3% of all venous aneurysms in the human body. The number of reported PVAs across the world now stands at about 280; the 200 PVAs covered in the previous review published in 2015 [1], the 18 cases in the retrospective study [2] and the 62 PVAs in our review covering the last seven years. PVAs can be congenital or acquired, located mainly at the level of confluence, main trunk, branches and bifurcation. Up to 30% of patients can be asymptomatic, and non-specific abdominal pain should be investigated to exclude other pathological causes, such as cholecystitis or peptic ulcer disease, etc.

Thrombosis complications occur in approximately 19–23% of patients, and biliopathy occurs in approximately 4–6% of patients. Other complications can also arise from compression due to a PVA, including thrombosis of the ICV and intestinal obstruction. Diagnosis of a PVA is based on spectral and colour Doppler sonography, and CT and MRI imaging. EUS and IDU have also been used as a diagnostic tool.

If a PVA is asymptomatic, it does not require any active treatment, and monitoring (a policy of “wait and see”) should be adopted. The first choice for treatment of PVA thrombosis is anticoagulation medication. If the PVA is getting larger and compressing adjacent organs, thrombosis will occur, so to prevent a potential rupture, open surgery methods such as an aneurysmectomy or an aneurysmorrhaphy should be considered. Given the risk associated with open surgery methods, interventional radiology procedures via a percutaneous approach, endovascular approach or, better still, an endoscopic approach should be considered for cases where a PVA is a consequence of portal hypertension and/or coexists with life-threatening conditions (injuries).

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Date: December 20, 2022

Non-Native Speakers of English Editing Certificate for "*World Journal of Clinical Cases*"

I, MSc. MD Admir Kurtchajic the first and corresponding author of the Review article

titled "Portal Vein Aneurysm – etiology, multimodal imaging and current management",

declare that the authors of the present manuscript are non-native English speakers.

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Our second (revised version) of the manuscript has been reviewed for clarity by a native

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