



Enhanced Recovery After Emergency Colorectal Surgery

13

Meara Dean and R. Justin Davies

13.1 Background

ERAS programmes were first described for elective colorectal surgery [1] and have been validated in the elective setting, with benefits of reduced length of hospital stay, perioperative morbidity and mortality, healthcare costs [2] and improved patient satisfaction [3]. These benefits have been described in both open and laparoscopic colorectal surgery [4]. These programmes have also been shown to be feasible and effective in elderly patients undergoing colorectal surgery [5].

At the outset, these programmes aimed to reduce the variability of perioperative management, which was traditionally ad hoc, day by day decisions by the patients' surgical team, often based on the individual surgeons' experience. ERAS protocols were based on established practice guidelines and evidence-based literature. Varied interventions are usually provided in a "bundle", commencing in the weeks before elective surgery and continuing intraoperatively and in the postoperative period (see Table 13.1) [7].

As most programmes implement these varied interventions simultaneously, it is difficult to determine which components are the most beneficial. A retrospective review based on 8 years of experience with ERAS found that the strongest predictors of reduced hospital stay were early mobilisation, early oral nutrition, early removal of urinary catheter, early removal of epidural, lack of nasogastric tube and non-opioid analgesia [8]. ERAS interventions involve a multidisciplinary team including physicians, surgeons, nurses, physiotherapists and anaesthetists.

M. Dean (✉) · R. J. Davies
Cambridge Colorectal Unit, Addenbrooke's Hospital, Cambridge University Hospitals NHS
Foundation Trust, Cambridge, UK
e-mail: meara.dean@addenbrookes.nhs.uk

Table 13.1 Potential ERAS interventions for colon and rectal surgery^a

Pre-op	Intra-op	Post-op
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preadmission education and counselling (including milestones, discharge criteria) • Preoperative stoma education and marking • Preadmission optimisation • Preoperative nutrition: clear fluids <2 h pre-op, carbohydrate loading • Preoperative antibiotics • Consider mechanical bowel preparation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prevention of surgical site infection • Minimally invasive surgery where possible • Consider addition of regional anaesthesia, e.g. epidural/spinal for open surgery • Avoiding nasogastric tubes • Avoidance of intra-abdominal drain • Fluid management (avoiding volume excess) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early mobilisation • Immediate post-op diet • Ileus prevention • Consider gum chewing • Early discontinuation of IV fluids • Early removal of urinary catheter • Standardised venous thromboembolism prophylaxis • Multimodal, opioid-sparing pain control • Prevention of perioperative nausea and vomiting

^aBased on the 2017 ASCRS guidelines [6]

13.2 Reducing Surgical Trauma

Surgical trauma refers to both the effects of the systemic stress response and local tissue damage that occurs in response to surgery. The magnitude of this response is proportional to the severity of the surgical trauma and differs between open and laparoscopic surgery [9]. Longer operating times induce a larger peritoneal inflammatory response [10, 11]. ERAS interventions aim to minimise the stress response and improve the metabolic response to surgery.

13.2.1 Markers of Surgical Trauma

CRP is an acute phase reactant protein that increases during periods of inflammation and tissue damage. It is synthesised by hepatocytes upon stimulation with interleukin-6 (IL-6) [12]. The use of ERAS protocols is associated with decreased levels of CRP and IL-6 postoperatively [13]. A recent meta-analysis concluded the most likely intervention to account for this observation is the use of minimally invasive surgery, as there is convincing evidence that laparoscopic surgery is associated with decreased postoperative CRP [14]. A persistently elevated CRP beyond Day 5 and rising CRP on Day 3 may be predictive of infective complications and prolonged hospital stay after colorectal resection [15], including anastomotic leak [16]. Following on, CRP level may be a useful negatively predictive tool to facilitate early discharge following colorectal surgery [17].

13.2.2 General Measures to Reduce the Surgical Stress Response

A clear liquid diet up to 2 h before surgery is associated with a smaller gastric volume and higher gastric pH at the time of surgery and an improved sense of patient

wellbeing [18, 19]. Excessive provision or restriction of fluids can impair organ function and increase morbidity [20, 21], so close attention to appropriate fluid replacement is vital. Furthermore intravenous fluids should be ceased as soon as possible postoperatively to avoid fluid overload and resulting tissue oedema. Fluid type is also important, with the use of balanced chloride-restricted crystalloid solutions being preferred to normal saline to decrease the risk of hyperchloraemic metabolic acidosis [22]. Nasogastric tubes should be avoided where possible, as their routine use has been associated with delayed resumption of oral intake, without benefit in terms of prevention of nausea or vomiting or return of bowel function [23, 24]. Early removal of urinary catheters is preferable to reduce the risks of postoperative urinary tract infection and improve patient mobility [25]. While it can be assumed these measures would reduce surgical stress, there are few studies examining the effect of these individual ERAS components on the surgical stress response in colorectal surgery [14].

13.2.3 Operative Interventions to Reduce Surgical Trauma

“The cleaner and gentler the act of operation, the less the patient suffers, the smoother and quicker his convalescence (and) the more exquisite his healed wound.”

Lord Moynihan

The importance of minimising surgical trauma has been long recognised, and there are many time-honoured techniques that are described. In open and laparoscopic surgery, these include:

- Reducing unnecessary handling of tissues
- Minimising contamination
- Avoiding introduction of foreign material into the peritoneal cavity
- Avoiding tissue exposure to a dry environment
- Judicious use of heat-emitting devices to avoid thermal injury
- Avoiding tumour spillage
- Mobilisation of colon along bloodless planes

Laparoscopic colorectal resection has been shown to be beneficial in terms of quicker return of bowel function, less blood loss, reduced narcotic use, less postoperative pain, reduced length of hospital stay, reduced overall morbidity and improved short-term quality of life [26–31]. The laparoscopic approach has been associated with a shorter hospital stay and reduced postoperative mortality in emergency colorectal cancer resections [32].

Surgical techniques that can reduce surgical trauma in minimally invasive surgery include:

1. Insertion and removal of instruments under vision
2. Avoiding peritoneal injury during lavage
3. Using lower intra-abdominal pressure settings for pneumoperitoneum
4. Avoid gas leaks where possible
5. The use of wound protectors and non-traumatic retraction systems [33]

13.2.4 Surgical Trauma and Tumour Biology

Complex relationships exist between surgical trauma, inflammation and tumour biology in colorectal cancer progression, metastasis and survival. Growth factors and cytokines play an important role in normal tissue healing but also have an essential role in tumour recurrence and formation of metastases. The most potent factor for angiogenesis is vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), which has several subtypes [34]. VEGF-D promotes cancer spread via the lymphatic system, a crucial step in metastasis [35]. Serum VEGF is elevated after open and laparoscopic surgery and remains so for as long as 4 weeks postoperatively [36, 37].

These complex relationships remain unclear and require further investigation. However as the metastatic process can be enhanced by the surgical procedure itself, potential oncological advantage exists in using surgical techniques that minimise surgical trauma and its resultant immunological impact. This is especially important in colorectal cancer patients, who are prone to be immunosuppressed for a variety of reasons including age, nutritional status, recent neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy and the direct immunosuppressive effect of the tumour itself, which increases with stage of disease and is reversible after tumour resection [38–40].

13.3 ERAS Protocols in Emergency Colorectal Surgery

Data from the American College of Surgeons (ACS) National Surgical Quality Improvement Project (NSQIP) reported patients undergoing emergency colorectal resection had the worst outcomes of all emergency general surgical patients, with an overall 30-day morbidity of 46.74% [41]. The application of ERAS interventions to this patient group may improve outcomes. Furthermore, patients undergoing emergency abdominal surgery may benefit from additional evidence-based measures to improve outcomes. Expediting resuscitation, early identification of sepsis, early administration of antibiotics and admission to an intensive care environment postoperatively have been shown to reduce mortality in patients undergoing emergency laparotomy [42].

Published studies exploring the use of ERAS in emergency surgery have adjusted common ERAS protocols, as not all interventions are possible or appropriate in more time critical situations. Depending on the urgency of surgery, preoperative education/counselling or medical optimisation may not be possible. Emergency surgical patients may experience a delay in diagnosis and/or resuscitation and may require large volume fluid resuscitation due to SIRS/sepsis-related hypotension. Many emergency surgical patients will have co-existing bowel obstruction or ileus, requiring prolonged preoperative fasting and/or nasogastric tube insertion. In this context early feeding is also not appropriate. Intraoperative findings of purulent or faeculent peritonitis may prompt the use of intra-abdominal drains or even laparoscopy with re-laparotomy. Patients having emergency colorectal surgery are more likely to have formation of a stoma, which is associated with higher rates of readmission [43]. Emergency surgery patients are more likely to be cared for in an

intensive care unit postoperatively, where many ERAS interventions may not be possible. Emergency surgery is more likely to occur after hours, when less staff are available to implement interventions.

13.3.1 Outcomes of ERAS Protocols in Emergency Colorectal Surgery

The evidence for the use of ERAS protocols in emergency colorectal surgery is limited to cohort studies with low patient numbers. Table 13.2 provides a summary of reporting outcomes in emergency colorectal surgery.

Retrospective cohort studies have assessed the use of ERAS in emergency surgery patients undergoing major abdominal surgery (colorectal resections, adhesiolysis, small bowel resection, Hartmann's procedure and appendicectomies [44, 46]), reporting equivalent outcomes compared to the pre-ERAS period and to elective patients.

The only study that exclusively examined emergency colon resection reported a reduced median length of hospital stay (ERAS (5.5 days, range 3–16) vs. the non-ERAS group (7.5 days, range 5–25)), a shorter time to first flatus (1.6 days vs. 2.8 days) and earlier resumption of normal diet (3.5 days vs. 5.5 days) [45]. Patients in this group were operated for the indication of colorectal cancer, and authors reported the interval from operation to initiation of adjuvant chemotherapy was significantly shorter in the ERAS group (37 days vs. 49 days) [45].

The risk calculator CR-POSSUM score has been used to predict the failure of ERAS in patients undergoing elective colorectal surgery [47]. It is likely patients undergoing emergency colorectal surgery have higher CR-POSSUM scores, which may be useful for assessing suitability for inclusion in ERAS programmes.

Ideally an evidence-based ERAS protocol tailored to the needs of patients having emergency colorectal surgery should be developed. In particular, evidence for diet strategy in emergency surgery requires adequately powered randomised controlled trials [48].

Table 13.2 Literature review: ERAS in emergency colorectal surgery

Author	Year	Country	Description	Outcome
Wisely [44]	2016	Australia	Retrospective cohort: 370 emergency abdominal surgeries (159 colorectal resections)	No change in outcomes including major and minor complications, unplanned readmission, length of stay or inpatient mortality
Lohsiriwat [45]	2014	Thailand	Case matched cohort: 20 ERAS compared with 40 conventional postoperative cares after emergency colorectal surgery	Reduced hospital stay and faster return of bowel function
Roulin [46]	2014	Switzerland	Prospective cohort: 28 urgent colectomies vs. 63 elective colectomies, all ERAS	Similar outcomes in emergency vs. elective setting

13.4 Implementing ERAS Protocols

Implementing ERAS programmes poses many challenges due to their complex, multicomponent structure. Barriers to implementation include patient-, staff- and organisation-related factors, in addition to limitations of resources (including financial, staffing, space restrictions and education). Quality evaluation and monitoring is a vital aspect of ERAS programmes, particularly at implementation.

As these programmes were implemented worldwide, early experience was assessed using qualitative process evaluations [49–51]. This has helped to identify enablers and also potential barriers to implementation (see Table 13.3). Knowledge of enablers and barriers at the planning stage can assist practitioners to develop strategies that address potential issues and so more effectively enable successful programme implementation.

Different strategies can be used to increase the effectiveness of introducing new interventions. These include audit and feedback, reminders, education workshops and meetings, opinion leaders and written educational material [52]. Of these, appointing opinion leaders or “local champions” is the most effective intervention [53]. Ideally identifying an opinion leader for each discipline (e.g. nursing, physiotherapy, anaesthesia and surgery) should be selected to lead implementation. Having a dedicated implementation team who are able to meet regularly is ideal, as is a dedicated ERAS nurse. Specialist nurses are vital to providing education (including presentations, in-services), perioperative care and postoperative evaluation [54]. Furthermore, engaging nursing staff is essential to enabling the successful and continued use of the pathways. In the era of electronic medical records, the use of patient care templates for orders (“order sets”) has assisted teams to establish ERAS protocols. An example is having the postoperative order set linked to the operation note, with specific orders for each ERAS intervention.

Audit and feedback is a vital component of implementation. Results of audit should be fed back to the team, along with any data regarding an individual hospital performance against benchmark data. To support efficient and successful implementation, measures need to be taken on a national or regional level to support caregivers to create necessary changes to improve healthcare provision.

Table 13.3 Enablers and barriers to ERAS implementation

Enablers	Barriers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good teamwork and communication • Consistency across the team • Stakeholder engagement • Normalisation of ERAS into everyday practice • Effective integration with existing systems • Audit and feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of communication and/or collaboration between departments • Need to change attitudes and behaviour • Limited resources • Limited access to stoma care nurses • Lack of patient support on discharge • Special needs of highly co-morbid patients

13.5 Conclusion

Reducing the morbidity and mortality of emergency surgery remains a key priority in general surgical practice. Early studies suggest ERAS is safe and feasible in the emergency colorectal surgery setting, with potential benefits when compared to conventional care. Further studies are required to better define these benefits and to determine the precise interventions that should be used in the emergency setting.

References

1. Kehlet H, Wilmore DW. Multimodal strategies to improve surgical outcome. *Am J Surg.* 2002;183:630–41.
2. Hjort Jakobsen D, Sonne E, Basse L, Bisgaard T, Kehlet H. Convalescence after colonic resection with fast track versus conventional care. *Scand J Surg.* 2002;93:24–8.
3. Thiele RH, Rea KM, Turrentine FE, Friel CM, Hassinger TE, McMurry TL, Goudreau BJ, Umaphathi BA, Kron IL, Sawyer RG, Hedrick TL. Standardization of care: impact of an enhanced recovery protocol on length of stay, complications, and direct costs after colorectal surgery. *J Am Coll Surg.* 2015;220:430–43.
4. Currie AC, Malietzis G, Jenkins JT, Yamada T, Ashrafiyan H, Athanasiou T, Okabayashi K, Kennedy RH. Network meta-analysis of protocol driven care and laparoscopic surgery for colorectal cancer. *Br J Surg.* 2016;103:1783–94.
5. Launay-Savary MV, Mathonnet M, Theissen A, Ostermann S, Raynaud-Simon A, Slim K. GRACE (Groupe francophone de Rehabilitation Amelioree apres Chirurgie). Are enhanced recovery programmes in colorectal surgery feasible and useful in the elderly? A systematic review of the literature. *J Visc Surg.* 2017;154(1):29–35.
6. Carmichael JC, Keller DS, Baldini G, Bordeianou L, Weiss E, Lee L, Boutros M, McClane J, Feldman LS, Steele SR. Clinical practice guidelines for enhanced recovery after colon and rectal surgery from the American Society of Colon and Rectal Surgeons and Society of American Gastrointestinal and Endoscopic Surgeons. *Dis Colon Rectum.* 2017;60(8):761–84.
7. Nygren J, Thacker J, Carli F, Fearon KC, Lobo DN, Ljungqvist O, Soop M, Ramirez J. Guidelines for perioperative care in elective rectal/pelvic surgery: enhanced recovery after surgery society recommendations. *Clin Nutr.* 2012;31:801–6.
8. Bakker N, Cakir H, Dooderman HJ, Houdijk AP. Eight years of experience with enhanced recovery after surgery in patients with colon cancer: impact of measures to improve adherence. *Surgery.* 2015;157(6):1130–6.
9. Baigrie RJ, Lamont PM, Kwiatkowski D, Dallman MJ, Morris PJ. Systemic cytokine response after major surgery. *Br J Surg.* 1992;79(8):757–60.
10. Badia JM, Whawell SA, Scott-Coombes DM, Abel PD, Williamson RC, Thompson JN. Peritoneal and systemic cytokine response to laparotomy. *Br J Surg.* 1996;83(3):347–8.
11. Sammour T, Kahokehr A, Chan S, Booth RJ, Hill AG. The humoral response after laparoscopic versus open colorectal surgery: a meta-analysis. *J Surg Res.* 2010;164(1):28–37.
12. Peppys MB, Hirschfield GM. C-reactive protein: a critical update. *J Clin Invest.* 2003;111:1805–12.
13. Mari G, Crippa J, Costanzi A, Mazzola M, Rossi M, Maggioni D. ERAS protocol reduces IL-6 secretion in colorectal laparoscopic surgery: results from a randomized clinical trial. *Surg Laparosc Endosc Percutan Tech.* 2016;26(6):444–8.
14. Watt DG, McSorley ST, Horgan PG, McMillan DC. Enhanced recovery after surgery: which components, if any, impact on the systemic inflammatory response

- following colorectal surgery?: A systematic review. *Medicine*. 2015;94(36):e1286. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MD00000000000001286>.
15. Lane JC, Wright S, Burch J, Kennedy RH, Jenkins JT. Early prediction of adverse events in enhanced recovery based upon the host systemic inflammatory response. *Colorectal Dis*. 2013;15(2):224–30.
 16. MacKay GJ, Molloy RG, O'Dwyer PJ. C-reactive protein as a predictor of postoperative infective complications following elective colorectal resection. *Colorectal Dis*. 2011;13:583–7.
 17. Reynolds IS, Boland MR, Reilly F, Deasy A, Majeed MH, Deasy J, Burke JP, McNamara DA. C-reactive protein as a predictor of anastomotic leak in the first week after anterior resection for rectal cancer. *Colorectal Dis*. 2017;19(9):812–8.
 18. McGrady EM, Macdonald AG. Effect of the preoperative administration of water on gastric volume and pH. *Br J Anaesth*. 1988;60(7):803–5.
 19. Read MS, Vaughan RS. Allowing pre-operative patients to drink: effects on patients' safety and comfort of unlimited oral water until 2 hours before anaesthesia. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand*. 1991;35(7):591–5.
 20. Chappell D, Jacob M, Hofmann-Kiefer K, Conzen P, Rehm M. A rational approach to perioperative uid management. *Anesthesiology*. 2008;109(4):723–40.
 21. Boland MR, Reynolds I, McCawley N, Galvin E, El-Masry S, Deasy J, McNamara DA. Liberal perioperative fluid administration is an independent risk factor for morbidity and is associated with longer hospital stay after rectal cancer surgery. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl*. 2017;99(2):113–6.
 22. Burdett E, Dushianthan A, Bennett-Guerrero E, Cro S, Gan TJ, Grocott MP, James MF, Mythen MG, O'Malley CM, Roche AM, Rowan K. Perioperative buffered versus non-buffered fluid administration for surgery in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2012;12:CD004089. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD004089.pub2>.
 23. Li K, Zhou Z, Chen Z, Zhang Y, Wang C. "Fast Track" nasogastric decompression of rectal cancer surgery. *Front Med*. 2011;5(3):306–9.
 24. Ortiz H, Armendariz P, Yarnoz C. Is early postoperative feeding feasible in elective colon and rectal surgery? *Int J Colorectal Dis*. 1996;11:119–21.
 25. Wald HL, Ma A, Bratzler DW, Kramer AM. Indwelling uri-nary catheter use in the postoperative period: analysis of the national surgical infection prevention project data. *Arch Surg*. 2008;143:551–7.
 26. Hewett PJ, Allardyce RA, Bagshaw PF, Frampton CM, Frizelle FA, Reiger NA, Smith JA, Solomon MJ, Stephens JH, Stevenson AR. Short-term outcomes of the Australasian randomized clinical study comparing laparoscopic and conventional open surgical treatments for colon cancer: the ALCCaS trial. *Ann Surg*. 2008;248:728–38.
 27. Veldkamp R, Kuhry E, Hop WC, Jeekel J, Kazemier G, Bonjer HJ, Haglind E, Pahlman L, Cuesta MA, Msika S, Morino M, Lacy AM, COLON Cancer Laparoscopic or Open Resection Study Group (COLOR). Laparoscopic surgery versus open surgery for colon cancer: short-term outcomes of a randomised trial. *Lancet Oncol*. 2005;6(7):477–84.
 28. Stage JG, Schulze S, Møller P, Overgaard H, Andersen M, Rebsdorf-Pedersen VB, Neilsen HJ. Prospective randomized study of laparoscopic versus open colonic resection for adenocarcinoma. *Br J Surg*. 1997;84(3):391–6.
 29. Weeks JC, Nelson H, Gelber S, Sargent D, Schroeder G. Clinical Outcomes of Surgical Therapy (COST) Study Group. Short-term quality-of-life outcomes following laparoscopic-assisted colectomy vs open colectomy for colon cancer: a randomized trial. *JAMA*. 2002;287:321–8.
 30. Schwenk W, Haase O, Neudecker J, Muller JM. Short term benefits for laparoscopic colorectal resection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2005;(3):CD003145.
 31. Kuhry E, Schwenk WF, Gaupset R, Romild U, Bonjer HJ. Long-term results of laparoscopic colorectal cancer resection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2008;(2):CD003432. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD003432.pub2>.
 32. Vallance AE, Keller DS, Hill J, Braun M, Kuryba A, van der Meulen J, Walker K, Chand M. Role of emergency laparoscopic colectomy for colorectal cancer: a population-based study in England. *Ann Surg*. 2018; <https://doi.org/10.1097/SLA.0000000000002752>.

33. Cheng KP, Roslani AC, Sehha N, Kueh JH, Law CW, Chong HY, Arumugam K. ALEXIS O-Ring wound retractor vs conventional wound protection for the prevention of surgical site infections in colorectal resections. *Colorectal Dis.* 2012;14(6):e346–51. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1/j.1463-1318.2012.02943>.
34. Hansen E, Wolff N, Knuechel R, Ruschoff J, Hofstaedter F, Taeger K. Tumor cells in blood shed from the surgical field. *Arch Surg.* 1995;130(4):387–93.
35. Kamezis T, Shayan R, Caesar C, Roufail S, Harris NC, Ardipradja K, Zhang YF, Williams SP, Farnsworth RH, Chai MG, Rupasinghe TW, Tull DL, Baldwin ME, Sloan EK, Fox SB, Achen MG, Stackler SA. VEGF-D promotes tumour metastasis by regulating prostaglandins produces by the collecting lymphatic endothelium. *Cancer Cell.* 2012;21:181–95.
36. Futami R, Miyashita M, Nomura T, Makino H, Matsutani T, Sasajima K, Tajiri T. Increased serum vascular endothelial growth factor following major surgical injury. *J Nippon Med Sch.* 2007;74(3):223–9.
37. Belizon A, Balik E, Horst P, Feingold D, Arnell T, Azarani T, Cekic V, Skitt R, Kumara S, Whelan RL. Persistent elevation of plasma vascular endothelial growth factor levels during the first month after minimally invasive colorectal resection. *Surg Endosc.* 2008;22(2):287–97.
38. Heriot AG, Marriott J, Cookson S, Kumar D, Dalgleish AG. Reduction in cytokine production in colorectal cancer patients: association with stage and reversal by resection. *Br J Cancer.* 2000;82(5):1009–12.
39. Galizia G, Lieto E, De Vita F, Romano C, Orditura M, Castellano P, Imperatore V, Infusino S, Catalano G, Pignatelli C. Circulating levels of interleukin 10 and interleukin 6 in gastric and colon cancer patients before and after surgery: relationship with radicality and outcome. *J Interferon Cytokine Res.* 2002;22(4):473–82.
40. Evans CFM, Galustian C, Bodman-Smith M, Dalgleish AG, Kumar D. The effect of colorectal cancer upon host peripheral immune cell function. *Colorectal Dis.* 2010;12(6):561–9.
41. Ingraham AM, Cohen ME, Bilimoria KY, Raval MV, Ko CY, Nathens AB, Hall BL. Comparison of 30 day outcomes after emergency general surgery procedures: potential for targeted improvement. *Surgery.* 2010;148(2):217–38.
42. Huddart S, Peden CJ, Swart M, McCormick B, Dickinson M, Mohammed MA, Quiney N, ELPQuiC Collaborator Group; ELPQuiC Collaborator Group. Use of a pathway quality improvement care bundle to reduce mortality after emergency laparotomy. *Br J Surg.* 2015;102(1):57–66.
43. Shah PM, Johnston L, Sarosiek B, Harrigan A, Friel CM, Thiele RH, Hedrick TL. Reducing readmissions while shortening length of stay: the positive impact of an enhanced recovery protocol in colorectal surgery. *Dis Colon Rectum.* 2017;60(2):219–27.
44. Wisely JC, Barclay KL. Effects of an Enhanced Recovery After Surgery programme on emergency surgical patients. *ANZ J Surg.* 2016;86(11):883–8.
45. Lohsiriwat V. Enhanced recovery after surgery vs conventional care in emergency colorectal surgery. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2014;20(38):13950–5.
46. Roulin D, Blanc C, Muradbegovic M, Hahnloser D, Demartines N, Hubner M. Enhanced recovery pathway for urgent colectomy. *World J Surg.* 2014;38(8):2153–9.
47. Renz BW, Kasparek MS, Seeliger H, Worthley DL, Jauch KW, Kreis ME, Smith MJ, Mueller MH. The CR-POSSUM risk calculator predicts failure of enhanced recovery after colorectal surgery. *Acta Chir Belg.* 2015;115(1):20–6.
48. Le Guen M, Fessler J, Fischler M. Early oral feeding after emergency abdominal operations: another paradigm to be broken? *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care.* 2014;17(5):477–82.
49. Gotlib Conn L, McKenzie M, Pearsall EA, McLeod RS. Successful implementation of an enhanced recovery after surgery programme for elective colorectal surgery: a process evaluation of champions' experiences. *Implem Sci.* 2015;10:99. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13012-015-0289-y>.
50. Alawadi ZM, Leal I, Phatak UR, Flores-Gonzalez JR, Holihan JL, Karanjwala BE, Millas SG, Kao LS. Facilitators and barriers of implementing enhanced recovery in colorectal surgery at a safety net hospital: a provider and patient perspective. *Surgery.* 2016;159(3):700–12.

51. Pearsall EA, Meghji Z, Pitzul KB, Aarts MA, McKenzie M, McLeod RS, Okrainec A. A qualitative study to understand the barriers and enablers in implementing an Enhanced Recovery After Surgery programme. *Ann Surg.* 2014;261(1):92–6.
52. Feldman L, Delaney C, Ljungqvist, O, Carli F. 2015 The SAGES/ERAS® Society Manual of enhanced recovery programmes for gastrointestinal surgery. Springer, Cham. 978-3-319-20364-5.
53. Flodgren G, Parmelli E, Doumit G, Gattellari M, O'Brien MA, Grimshaw J, Eccles MP. Local opinion leaders: effects on professional practice and health care outcomes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2011;(8):CD000125. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD000125.pub4>.
54. Brady KM, Keller DS, Delaney CP. Successful implementation of an enhanced recovery pathway: the nurse's role. *AORN J.* 2015;102(5):469–81.