2020 SAGES ORAL

Robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy may ofer improved oncologic outcomes over open surgery: a propensity‑matched single‑institution study

Maria Baimas-George¹ · Michael Watson¹ · Keith J. Murphy¹ · David Iannitti¹ · Erin Baker¹ · Lee Ocuin¹ · **Dionisios Vrochides1 · John B. Martinie1,2**

Received: 12 December 2019 / Accepted: 10 April 2020 / Published online: 23 April 2020 © Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2020

Abstract

Background The robotic platform in pancreatic disease has gained popularity in the hepatobiliary community due to signifcant advantages it technically ofers over conventional open and laparoscopic techniques. Despite promising initial studies, there remains scant literature on operative and oncologic outcomes of robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy (RPD) for pancreatic adenocarcinoma.

Methods A retrospective review evaluated all RPD performed for pancreatic adenocarcinoma from 2008 to 2019 in a single tertiary institution. RPD cases were matched to open cases (OPD) by demographic and oncologic characteristics and outcomes compared using Mann–Whitney U test, log rank tests, and Kaplan–Meier methods.

Results Thirty-eight RPD cases were matched to 38 OPD. RPD had signifcantly higher lymph node (LN) yield (21.5 vs 13.5; *p*=0.0036) and no difference in operative time or estimated blood loss (EBL). RPD had significantly lower rate of delayed gastric emptying (DGE) (3% vs 32%; *p*=0.0009) but no diference in leaks, infections, hemorrhage, urinary retention ,or ileus. RPD had significantly shorter length of stay (LOS) (7.5 vs. 9; $p = 0.0209$). There were no differences in 30- or 90-day readmissions or 90-day mortality. There was an equivalent R0 resection rate and LN positivity ratio. There was a trend towards improved median overall survival in RPD (30.4 vs. 23.0 months; $p=0.1105$) and longer time to recurrence (402) vs. 284 days; $p=0.7471$). OPD had two times the local recurrent rate (16% vs. 8%) but no difference in distant recurrence. **Conclusions** While the feasibility and safety of RPD has been demonstrated, the impact on oncologic outcomes had yet to be investigated. We demonstrate that RPD not only ofers similar if not superior immediate post-operative beneft by decreasing DGE but more importantly may ofer improved oncologic outcomes. The signifcantly higher LN yield and decreased infammatory response demonstrated in robotic surgery may improve overall survival.

Keywords Pancreaticoduodenectomy · Pancreatic adenocarcinoma · Robotic · Minimally invasive · Hepatobiliary · Whipple

The operative management of oncologic pancreatic disease represents exciting prospects in modern surgery, while simultaneously being one of the most frustrating. The pancreaticoduodenectomy (PD) frst garnered attention in American literature in the mid-1930s as a two-stage

 \boxtimes John B. Martinie John.martinie@atriumhealth.org

² Division of Hepatopancreatobiliary Surgery, Carolinas Medical Center, Atrium Health, Charlotte, NC 28203, USA procedure [[1,](#page-4-0) [2\]](#page-4-1). It quickly morphed within 5 years to a single-stage procedure that has remained quite similar to its modern incarnation [[3\]](#page-4-2). Subsequent alternations or updates to the original procedure, such as the pylorus-preserving technique, the dunking anastomosis, and the use of novel energy devices, seem to represent variations in surgeon preference rather than real progress [[4](#page-4-3)[–7\]](#page-4-4). And despite these adaptions, PD remains one of the most complex operations of the alimentary track with sustained high perioperative morbidity and mortality [[8,](#page-4-5) [9\]](#page-4-6).

The technical stagnancy of the PD is made more salient by the progress witnessed in parallel aspects of nonoperative patient care. In recent decades, international

¹ Division of HPB Surgery, Department of General Surgery, Carolinas Medical Center, Charlotte, NC, USA

eforts have led to paradigm and practice- shifting achievements. Advances in critical care have dramatically lowered mortality, improved adjuvant chemotherapy regimens have increased survival after resection, implementation of enhanced recovery pathways have reduced length of stay (LOS) and costs, and employment of interventional radiology techniques have simplifed management of complications [[3,](#page-4-2) [10–](#page-4-7)[12\]](#page-4-8).

An avenue for potential operative progress and improvement of outcomes is the use of minimally invasive techniques. The laparoscopic PD approach emerged in 1994 as a viable option; however, its widespread application has been signifcantly limited due to the technical complexity and skill required [\[13\]](#page-4-9). It necessitates, among other procedural barriers, meticulous placement of suture needles into minute ductal structures followed by intracorporeal knot tying on delicate and often friable parenchyma. Mastering these operative steps requires quite advanced laparoscopic skills and is characterized by a notoriously steep learning curve [\[14](#page-4-10), [15](#page-4-11)]. Another minimally invasive platform that is becoming increasingly popular and altering the concept and perception of minimally invasive PD is the robotic approach. Robotic PD (RPD) surgery, by comparison to laparoscopy, ofers optical magnifcation, 3-D depth perception, augmented instrument articulation, and overall greater precision with suture targeting, allowing for a shorter learning curve [\[16](#page-4-12), [17](#page-5-0)].

Despite RPD coming to the forefront as an attractive and inclusive opportunity for minimally invasive PD, there is still debate over its perioperative beneft. Retrospective studies examining RPD versus open PD (OPD) outcomes have demonstrated equivalent or slightly improved post-operative morbidity with comparable or decreased rates of pancreatic fstula (POPF), decreased delayed gastric emptying (DGE), and decreased LOS [[18](#page-5-1)[–22](#page-5-2)]. Oncologic outcomes demonstrate decreased R1 resections with RPD, equivalent lymph node harvests, and comparable mortality rates [[18](#page-5-1)–[20](#page-5-3)]. Despite these promising initial studies, there is, in reality, scant literature on whether RPD operative benefts can positively affect oncologic outcomes. As such, this study seeks to evaluate the long-term oncologic efects of RPD versus OPD for pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma.

Materials and methods

A retrospective review of all patients who underwent RPD from 2008 to 2019 at a single-center tertiary institution was identifed using a prospectively maintained REDCap data repository. Inclusion criteria included adult patients (age≥18 years old) and a pathologic diagnosis of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. Exclusion criteria were conversion to an OPD. Appropriate RPD cases were matched to OPD cases by age, gender, body mass index (BMI), ASA classifcation, T stage, N stage, use of neoadjuvant chemotherapy, and use of adjuvant chemotherapy. Chart abstraction was used to record demographics, pre-operative characteristics such as T stage, N stage, and use of neoadjuvant chemotherapy, and intra-operative outcomes including EBL, operative time, and lymph node (LN) yield. Data were extracted directly from pathology reports for tumor size, margin status, and lymph node positivity ratio. Immediate postoperative complications were recorded including abscess, ileus, anastomotic leak, hemorrhage, DGE, POPF, urinary retention, and wound infection. Long term outcomes were documented including 30- and 90-day readmission, and adjuvant chemotherapy use. Evidence of recurrence, recurrence pattern, mortality, and last follow-up were recorded up until September 2019.

Outcomes defned as continuous variables were reported as median (range) within groups and student *t* tests and Mann–Whitney U tests of comparison were used to compare normally distributed variables between groups. Outcomes defned as categorical variables were reported as number (%) within groups. A chi-squared tests were employed to compare distribution between groups. Survival and recurrence were compared between RPD and OPD using log rank tests and Kaplan–Meier methods. A *p* value of ≤ 0.05 was considered statistically signifcant. This project was approved by the institutional review board and written consent was not required.

Patient selection

Carolinas Medical Center (CMC) is a 1000-bed tertiary referral center with four fellowship trained hepatobiliary surgeons who perform over 120 PD cases per year. There is a random referral process through gastroenterology and oncology with cases evenly referred of which only two of the four surgeons offer RPD. Unlike other high-volume centers where all cases may be reviewed for an RPD approach, the internal dynamics of CMC's referral process and individual RVU productivity model prevent a similar systematic process. Therefore, regardless of complexity or perceived case difficulty, there is no methodical or concerted effort, implicit or otherwise, to streamline easier cases into the RPD pathway.

Results

Demographic and pre‑operative characteristics

Ninety-four RPD cases were identifed from a prospectively maintained data repository. Sixteen cases were converted to open and excluded; of these, nine cases were for pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Of the remaining RPD cases, only 38 cases were operated on for pancreatic adenocarcinoma and, thus, included in the analysis. These 38 RPD cases were matched to 38 OPD cases by age, gender, body mass index (BMI), ASA classifcation, pathologic T stage, pathologic N stage, use of neoadjuvant chemotherapy, and use of adjuvant chemotherapy (Table [1](#page-2-0)). The majority of patients were female (58%) and the median age was between 66 and 68 years old (range 38–84 years old). Most patients were ASA classifcation III and had a BMI in the mid-20 s. Less than a quarter of each cohort had neoadjuvant chemotherapy (18% OPD; 16% RPD) and 68% of both cohorts underwent adjuvant chemotherapy.

Perioperative outcomes

There was no significant difference in operative time between OPD and RPD (RPD: 392 min vs. OPD: 350; $p=0.1077$) (Table [1\)](#page-2-0). There was no significant difference in EBL between cohorts (RPD: 300 mL vs. OPD: 550;

Table 1 Patient demographics and operative outcomes from open and robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy cases for pancreatic adenocarcinoma

Characteristic	Open	Robotic	<i>p</i> value
\boldsymbol{N}	38	38	
Female	22(57.9)	22(57.9)	
Age in years	$68(42 - 81)$	$66(38-84)$	
ASA classification	$3(1-4)$	$3(1-4)$	0.6109
BMI	$25.7(15.8-44.8)$	24.7 (19.6-39.1)	
Neoadjuvant Chemo- therapy	7(18.4)	6(15.8)	0.7607
Adjuvant chemo- therapy	26 (68.4)	26(68.4)	
Operative variables			
Operative time (min)	$350(231-561)$	391.5 (206–518)	0.1077
EBL (mL)	550 (50-1800)	300 (50-3000)	0.0693
Lymph node yield	$13.5(6-47)$	$21.5(5-39)$	0.0036
LOS (days)	$9(5-31)$	$7.5(5-40)$	0.0209
30-day readmission	6(15.8)	6(15.8)	
90-day readmission	12(31.6)	11(28.9)	0.6837
90-day mortality	2(5.3)	1(2.6)	0.5558
Clavien-Dindo 30-day complications			
Bleed	3(10.7)	3(10.7)	
Delayed gastric emptying	12(31.6)	1(2.6)	0.0009
Ileus	2(5.3)	1(2.6)	0.5558
Urinary retention	1(2.6)	0(0.0)	0.3203
Anastomotic leak	1(2.6)	0(0.0)	0.3203
Pancreatic fistula	5(13.2)	4(10.5)	0.727
Wound infection	4(10.5)	2(5.3)	0.4039

Values reported as No. (%) or median (range)

 $p=0.0693$). The LN yield was significantly higher in RPD cases, yielding a median of 21.5 nodes versus 13.5 nodes in OPD ($p = 0.0036$). There were equivalent rates of postoperative bleed requiring transfusion in both cohorts (11%). There were additionally comparable rates of ileus, urinary retention, anastomotic leak, POPF, and wound infection. There was a signifcantly higher incidence of DGE in the OPD of nearly 30% (RPD: 3% vs. OPD: 32%; p=0.0009) and a signifcantly shorter LOS in the RPD cohort by about 1.5 days (RPD: 7.5 days vs. OPD: 9 days; *p*=0.0209). Thirty and 60-day readmission rates were not signifcantly diferent with both cohorts having a 6% 30-day readmission rate and a 11–12% 90-day readmission rate. Ninety-day mortality was comparable with only two patients from the OPD having a 90-day mortality and only one from the RPD cohort $(p=0.5558)$.

Oncologic outcomes

As cohorts were matched by T stage, the pathologic tumor size was ultimately similar between cohorts (RPD: 30 mm vs. OPD: 29 mm; *p*=0.8233) (Table [2\)](#page-2-1). The grade of differentiation varied slightly between cohorts; there were signifcantly more moderately diferentiated tumors in the RPD cohort (RPD: 66% vs. OPD: 39%; *p*=0.0205) and signifcantly more poorly diferentiated tumors in the OPD

Table 2 Short and long-term oncologic outcomes from open and robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy cases for pancreatic adenocarcinoma

Oncologic outcomes	Open	Robotic	<i>p</i> value
Tumor size (mm)	$29(9 - 70)$	$30(4.8-60)$	0.8233
Pathologic T stage	$3(1-4)$	$3(1-4)$	
R ₁ resection	17(44.7)	16(42.1)	0.8170
Differentiation			
Grade 1	5(14)	4(11)	0.6582
Grade 2	14 (39)	25(66)	0.0205
Grade 3	17(47)	9(24)	0.0340
Lymphovascular inva- sion	18 (47)	27(71)	0.0477
Perineural invasion	19(51)	34 (89)	0.0003
Lymph node positivity ratio	$0.125(0-0.74)$	$0.102(0-0.625)$	0.1875
Median overall survival (mos)	23.0	30.4	0.1105
Recurrence pattern			
N	20(53)	15(39)	0.1706
Time to recurrence (days)	284 (70–1182)	$402(33-1049)$	0.7471
Local recurrence	6(16)	3(8)	0.2870
Distant recurrence	14 (37)	12(32)	0.6287

Values reported as No. (%) or median (range)

cohort (RPD: 24% vs. OPD: 47%; *p*=0.0340). There was no diference in the amount of well diferentiated tumors. The RPD cohort additionally had signifcantly more tumors with lymphovascular invasion (RPD: 71% vs. OPD: 47%; $p=0.0477$) and perineural invasion (RPD: 89% vs. OPD: 51%; $p = 0.0003$). There was an equivalent R1 resection rate of mid 40% in both cohorts ($p = 0.8170$). There were no diferences in LN positivity ration between cohorts. The RPD cohort had a longer median overall survival although this was not statistically signifcant (RPD: 30.4 vs. OPD: 23.0 months; $p = 0.1105$). There was also no statistical difference in time to recurrence (RPD: 402 vs. OPD: 284 days; $p=0.7471$; open cases had two times the local recurrence rate (RPD: 8% vs. OPD: 16%; *p*=0.2870). There was no diference in distant recurrence rates (RPD: 32% vs. OPD: $37\%; p=0.6287).$

Discussion

While the feasibility and safety of RPD has been well demonstrated, the impact on oncologic outcomes has yet to be thoroughly investigated. This study demonstrates that RPD offers similar, if not superior, immediate intra-operative and post-operative benefits but more importantly may offer improved oncologic outcomes. The signifcantly higher LN yield and decreased infammatory response of robotic surgery may increase time to recurrence and improve overall survival in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma.

Even with the literature showing equivalent if not better results with minimally invasive PD, it is still far from widespread acceptance. In a recent survey of six international associations for hepatobiliary surgery, less than one-third of surgeons said they would attempt minimally invasive PD and only 10% considered it superior to its open counterpart [\[23\]](#page-5-4). And although data exist that suggest inferiority when attempted at low-volume institutions; in experienced hands, minimally invasive PD is prudent and offers comparative advantages [[24\]](#page-5-5). A large series of laparoscopic PD demonstrated safety and adherence to oncologic principles and a retrospective meta-analysis of over 700 RPD cases demonstrated perioperative outcomes consistent with historical open standards [\[25](#page-5-6), [26](#page-5-7)]. These outcomes have been verifed by other cohort studies demonstrating decreased EBL and LOS [[19,](#page-5-8) [27](#page-5-9), [28](#page-5-10)].

This retrospective propensity-matched analysis contributes substantially to the current literature by demonstrating the equivalence to OPD as well as the benefts of RPD on patient outcomes. Our RPD median operative time of 392 min was not signifcantly diferent from OPD (Table [1](#page-2-0)). It remains on the lower end for reported RPD with most high-volume centers citing times between 444 and 718 min [[29\]](#page-5-11). The longer operative times demonstrated by other studies may be secondary to the extra setup and docking required or a lack of experience that may continue to improve with advances in the learning curve [[30](#page-5-12)]. Our median EBL for RPD of 300 cc is also well within range of reported averages and lower than our OPD EBL. This may be attributed to the amplifed view of smaller vessels, specifcally when dissecting out the superior mesenteric artery and vein from the uncinate process [[18,](#page-5-1) [20](#page-5-3), [21](#page-5-13)]. The post-operative morbidity of RPD was mostly equivalent to OPD with comparable rates of ileus, urinary retention, anastomotic leak, and wound infection. POPF rates were also similar, irrespective of approach. Further, there were no diferences in readmission rates (30- or 90-day) or in 90-day mortality between cohorts.

There was a signifcant decrease in DGE in the RPD cohort of nearly 30% (Table [1\)](#page-2-0). DGE while not life-threatening does have substantial clinical consequences including prolonged LOS, higher costs, readmission, overall discomfort, requirement of feeding tube, and delays in starting adjuvant therapies [\[31,](#page-5-14) [32](#page-5-15)]. Although there has been considerable study on primary DGE pathogenesis, it remains poorly understood. There are negative associations demonstrated with increased intra-abdominal infammation while robotic-sutured anastomoses decrease DGE incidence when compared with open stapled anastomoses [[33](#page-5-16), [34\]](#page-5-17). Our results further endorse the theory that DGE is infuenced by intra-abdominal infammation. As robotic techniques reduce invasive manipulation including skin incision size and tissue handling technique, there is a decreased subsequent infammatory stress response brought about by such surgical trauma [\[35,](#page-5-18) [36\]](#page-5-19). Of note, as our OPD gastrojejenal anastomoses are done in a hand-sewn manner, we can extrapolate that perhaps the decreased disturbance in hemostasis and blunted immune response resulting in decreased infammation in RPD cases is lessening post-operative DGE. Further study is clearly required as this is a speculative conclusion.

Our analysis demonstrates a trend towards improved long-term oncologic outcomes with RPD which has yet to be investigated in the literature. There was a signifcantly higher LN yield in RPD cases of 21.5 nodes vs. 13.5 nodes in OPD (Table [2\)](#page-2-1). LN harvest plays a strong prognostic role in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma with multiple studies showing that survival is independently predicted by total LN harvest [[37–](#page-5-20)[40\]](#page-5-21). Similar relationships have also been shown in ampullary adenocarcinoma [[41](#page-5-22)]. Our study demonstrated a trend towards decreased recurrence rates in the RPD cohort, with a diference of nearly 15% (RPD: 53% vs. OPD: 39%). When recurrence pattern was assessed, the local recurrence rate was twice as high in OPD cases (OPD: 16% vs. RPD: 8%) which may be explained by an inferior LN harvest and examination [[42](#page-5-23), [43](#page-5-24)]. Further, the median overall survival for RPD cases was over 7 months longer than OPD cases. Although this was not statistically signifcant, a type II error may be present due to the small sample size.

While robotic surgery may offer advantages, a constant concern across surgical felds is its fnancial impact and whether cost may be prohibitive. A study out of Italy demonstrated a signifcantly increased operative cost for robotic pancreatectomies when compared to open cases [\[44\]](#page-5-25). However, when total hospital costs, which include LOS and readmission, are investigated, there is no diference in cost between robotic and open surgery [\[18,](#page-5-1) [45](#page-5-26)[–47\]](#page-5-27). Of note, anecdotally there is a tendency for high-volume centers to routinely begin OPD cases with diagnostic laparoscopy. Incorporating the cost of even a brief laparoscopic evaluation may presumably further close the intra-operative cost gap between OPD and RPD. Ultimately, there appears to be a need for more comparative cost analyses before defnitive conclusions can be extrapolated [\[48](#page-5-28)]. Our center is currently investigating our costs between RPD and OPD and will be presenting the data shortly.

A key criticism and limitation of this study includes patient selection bias. The decision to employ a minimally invasive approach remains highly selective and, even at high-volume centers, is rarely protocolized. As mentioned, regardless of difficulty, there is no effort to direct uncomplicated cases to the RPD pathway. Referrals are random to each of the hepatobiliary surgeons with only half performing RPD. Further, we matched the RPD patients to OPD counterparts by demographic and oncologic characteristics; however, this is not infallible or equivalent to a randomized prospective approach. For instance, we were unable to match for grade of diferentiation. With the OPD cohort having more patients with grade 3 diferentiation, they may in fact have a population with worse biologic disease. Fortunately, there are active randomized prospective studies comparing RPD and OPD forthcoming [[49\]](#page-5-29). Finally, this is a very small sample size of only 38 patients per group. The risk of a type II error is high and thus, trends and non-signifcant results demonstrated in this manuscript may in fact be signifcant when a larger cohort is compared.

Conclusion

This propensity-matched retrospective cohort trial demonstrates that RPD is a safe and comparable alternative to OPD. Further, it may offer both post-operative and oncologic beneft by decreasing rates of DGE and improving LN harvest, which may afect recurrence and overall survival rates. As such, RPD can be an efective addition to the armamentarium of a modern hepatobiliary surgeon.

Funding No external funding source was used to conduct this study. All authors had complete access to the data that support the publication.

Compliance with ethical standards

Disclosures Dr. John Martinie serves as a proctor, course director, and speaker for Intuitive Surgical, Medtronic, and Ethicon. Drs. Maria Baimas-George, Michael Watson, Keith J Murphy, David Iannitti, Erin Baker, Lee Ocuin, and Dionisios Vrochides have no conficts of interests of fnancial ties to disclose.

References

- 1. Whipple AO, Parsons WB, Mullins CR (1935) Treatment of carcinoma of the ampulla of Vater. Ann Surg 102(4):763–779
- 2. Schnelldorfer T, Sarr MG (2009) Alessandro Codivilla and the frst pancreatoduodenectomy. Arch Surg 144(12):1179–1184
- 3. Fernandez-del Castillo C et al (2012) Evolution of the Whipple procedure at the Massachusetts General Hospital. Surgery 152(3 Suppl 1):S56–63
- 4. Senda Y et al (2018) Randomized clinical trial of duct-to-mucosa versus invagination pancreaticojejunostomy after pancreatoduodenectomy. Br J Surg 105(1):48–57
- 5. Kennedy EP, Yeo CJ (2011) Dunking pancreaticojejunostomy versus duct-to-mucosa anastomosis. J Hepatobiliary Pancreat Sci 18(6):769–774
- 6. Diener MK et al (2017) Partial pancreatoduodenectomy versus duodenum-preserving pancreatic head resection in chronic pancreatitis: the multicentre, randomised, controlled, double-blind ChroPac trial. Lancet 390(10099):1027–1037
- 7. Keck T et al (2016) Pancreatogastrostomy versus pancreatojejunostomy for RECOnstruction after PANCreatoduodenectomy (RECOPANC, DRKS 00000767): perioperative and long-term results of a multicenter randomized controlled trial. Ann Surg 263(3):440–449
- 8. Winter JM et al (2006) 1423 pancreaticoduodenectomies for pancreatic cancer: a single-institution experience. J Gastrointest Surg 10(9):1199–1210 **discussion 1210-1**
- 9. Newhook TE et al (2015) Morbidity and mortality of pancreaticoduodenectomy for benign and premalignant pancreatic neoplasms. J Gastrointest Surg 19(6):1072–1077
- 10. Neoptolemos JP et al (2017) Comparison of adjuvant gemcitabine and capecitabine with gemcitabine monotherapy in patients with resected pancreatic cancer (ESPAC-4): a multicentre, open-label, randomised, phase 3 trial. Lancet 389(10073):1011–1024
- 11. Takagi K et al (2019) Efect of an enhanced recovery after surgery protocol in patients undergoing pancreaticoduodenectomy: a randomized controlled trial. Clin Nutr 38(1):174–181
- 12. Sohn TA et al (2003) Pancreaticoduodenectomy: role of interventional radiologists in managing patients and complications. J Gastrointest Surg 7(2):209–219
- 13. Gagner M, Pomp A (1994) Laparoscopic pylorus-preserving pancreatoduodenectomy. Surg Endosc 8(5):408–410
- 14. Patel B et al (2018) Laparoscopic pancreaticoduodenectomy in Brisbane, Australia: an initial experience. ANZ J Surg 88(5):E440–e444
- 15. Wang M et al (2016) Learning curve for laparoscopic pancreaticoduodenectomy: a CUSUM analysis. J Gastrointest Surg 20(5):924–935
- 16. Bodner J et al (2005) The da Vinci robotic system for general surgical applications: a critical interim appraisal. Swiss Med Wkly 135(45–46):674–678
- 17. Shyr BU et al (2018) Learning curves for robotic pancreatic surgery-from distal pancreatectomy to pancreaticoduodenectomy. Medicine (Baltimore) 97(45):e13000
- 18. Baker EH et al (2015) Robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy for pancreatic adenocarcinoma: role in 2014 and beyond. J Gastrointest Oncol 6(4):396–405
- 19. Chen S et al (2015) Robot-assisted laparoscopic versus open pancreaticoduodenectomy: a prospective, matched, mid-term followup study. Surg Endosc 29(12):3698–3711
- 20. Lai EC, Yang GP, Tang CN (2012) Robot-assisted laparoscopic pancreaticoduodenectomy versus open pancreaticoduodenectomy—a comparative study. Int J Surg 10(9):475–479
- 21. Zhou NX et al (2011) Outcomes of pancreatoduodenectomy with robotic surgery versus open surgery. Int J Med Robot 7(2):131–137
- 22. Boggi U et al (2016) Robotic-assisted pancreatic resections. World J Surg 40(10):2497–2506
- 23. van Hilst J et al (2017) Worldwide survey on opinions and use of minimally invasive pancreatic resection. HPB (Oxford) 19(3):190–204
- 24. de Rooij T et al (2016) Minimally invasive versus open pancreatoduodenectomy: systematic review and meta-analysis of comparative cohort and registry studies. Ann Surg 264(2):257–267
- 25. Wang M et al (2015) Laparoscopic pancreaticoduodenectomy: single-surgeon experience. Surg Endosc 29(12):3783–3794
- Kornaropoulos M et al (2017) Total robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy: a systematic review of the literature. Surg Endosc 31(11):4382–4392
- 27. Bao PQ, Mazirka PO, Watkins KT (2014) Retrospective comparison of robot-assisted minimally invasive versus open pancreaticoduodenectomy for periampullary neoplasms. J Gastrointest Surg 18(4):682–689
- 28. Chalikonda S, Aguilar-Saavedra JR, Walsh RM (2012) Laparoscopic robotic-assisted pancreaticoduodenectomy: a case-matched comparison with open resection. Surg Endosc 26(9):2397–2402
- 29. Dai R, Turley RS, Blazer DG (2016) Contemporary review of minimally invasive pancreaticoduodenectomy. World J Gastrointest Surg 8(12):784–791
- 30. Napoli N et al (2016) The learning curve in robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy. Dig Surg 33(4):299–307
- 31. Ahmad SA et al (2012) Factors infuencing readmission after pancreaticoduodenectomy: a multi-institutional study of 1302 patients. Ann Surg 256(3):529–537
- 32. Marsh Rde W et al (2015) Pancreatic cancer and FOLFIRINOX: a new era and new questions. Cancer Med 4(6):853–863
- 33. Park YC et al (2003) Factors infuencing delayed gastric emptying after pylorus-preserving pancreatoduodenectomy. J Am Coll Surg 196(6):859–865
- 34. Jung JP et al (2018) Use of video review to investigate technical factors that may be associated with delayed gastric emptying after pancreaticoduodenectomy. JAMA Surg 153(10):918–927
- 35. Zawadzki M et al (2017) Comparison of infammatory responses following robotic and open colorectal surgery: a prospective study. Int J Colorectal Dis 32(3):399–407
- 36. Shibata J et al (2015) Surgical stress response after colorectal resection: a comparison of robotic, laparoscopic, and open surgery. Tech Coloproctol 19(5):275–280
- 37. Basturk O et al (2015) Substaging of lymph node status in resected pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma has strong prognostic correlations: proposal for a revised N classifcation for TNM staging. Ann Surg Oncol 22(Suppl 3):S1187–S1195
- 38. Strobel O et al (2015) Pancreatic adenocarcinoma: number of positive nodes allows to distinguish several N categories. Ann Surg 261(5):961–969
- 39. La Torre M et al (2014) Prognostic assessment of diferent lymph node staging methods for pancreatic cancer with R0 resection: pN staging, lymph node ratio, log odds of positive lymph nodes. Pancreatology 14(4):289–294
- 40. Showalter TN et al (2011) The infuence of total nodes examined, number of positive nodes, and lymph node ratio on survival after surgical resection and adjuvant chemoradiation for pancreatic cancer: a secondary analysis of RTOG 9704. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 81(5):1328–1335
- 41. Chen SC et al (2015) The role of lymph nodes in predicting the prognosis of ampullary carcinoma after curative resection. World J Surg Oncol 13:224
- 42. Tsai HL et al (2007) The prognostic signifcance of total lymph node harvest in patients with T2–4N0M0 colorectal cancer. J Gastrointest Surg 11(5):660–665
- 43. Lee SR et al (2014) Lymph node ratio predicts local recurrence for periampullary tumours. ANZ J Surg 84(5):353–358
- 44. Boggi U et al (2013) Feasibility of robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy. Br J Surg 100(7):917–925
- 45. Cunningham KE et al (2016) A policy of omitting an intensive care unit stay after robotic pancreaticoduodenectomy is safe and cost-efective. J Surg Res 204(1):8–14
- 46. Barbash GI, Glied SA (2010) New technology and health care costs—the case of robot-assisted surgery. N Engl J Med 363(8):701–704
- 47. Mesleh MG et al (2013) Cost analysis of open and laparoscopic pancreaticoduodenectomy: a single institution comparison. Surg Endosc 27(12):4518–4523
- 48. Del Chiaro M, Segersvard R (2014) The state of the art of robotic pancreatectomy. Biomed Res Int 2014:920492
- 49. de Rooij T et al (2018) Minimally invasive versus open pancreatoduodenectomy (LEOPARD-2): study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. Trials 19(1):1

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.