Research Article

Application of Laparoscopy Combined with Enhanced Recovery after Surgery (ERAS) in Acute Intestinal Obstruction and Analysis of Prognostic Factors: A Retrospective Cohort Study

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Objective. A retrospective cohort study was carried out to research the effect of stent combined with laparoscopy combined with enhanced recovery after surgery (ERAS) in the operation of acute intestinal obstruction and to explore and analyze the prognostic factors. Methods. During February 2019 to April 2021, sixty patients with acute intestinal obstruction cured in our hospital were enrolled. Randomly assigned control group patients (n = 50) were divided into the research group and control group patients. The control group accepted stent combined with laparoscopic therapeutic, and the research group accepted stent combined with laparoscopic therapeutic based on ERAS. The general data, operative index, Short Form 36 (SF-36) score, visual analogue scale (VAS) score, procalcitonin (PCT), CRP, prealbumin (PA) index, curative effect, and incidence of complications were investigated. Results. No difference was found in age, gender, or type of disease among the general population (P > 0.05). A lower amount of blood was lost during the operation, less anal exhaustion was experienced by the research group, and a shorter hospital stay and lower hospitalization cost was experienced in the research group compared to the control group (P < 0.05). There exhibited no remarkable difference in SF-36 score and VAS score before operation, but after operation, the VAS score lessened, the SF-36 score augmented, while the VAS score was lower, and the SF-36 score in the research group was higher (P < 0.05). There existed no remarkable difference in the indexes of PCT, CRP, and PA index before operation, but after operation, the levels of PCT and CRP lessened as well as the level of PA augmented, and the levels of PCT and CRP were lower, while the level of PA in the research group was higher. In terms of the clinical efficacy, the effective rate of the research group (98.00%) was higher compared to the control (86.00%) (P < 0.05). The main postoperative complications were pulmonary infection and incision infection. One case of incision infection occurred in the research group and the probability of postoperative complications was 2.00%. In the control group, there were 3 cases of pulmonary infection, 0 cases of perforation, and 4 cases of incision infection, and the probability of postoperative complications was 14.00%. The prevalence in the research group was remarkably lower (P < 0.05). Conclusion. Compared with the traditional concept of surgical therapeutic, it can more effectively reduce stress reaction, relieve postoperative pain, promote the recovery of postoperative gastrointestinal function as soon as possible, and reduce postoperative complications, which is worth to explore the application in the therapeutic of acute abdomen.

1. Introduction

Acute intestinal obstruction defines a group of clinical symptoms induced by a variety of causes, which is characterized by intestinal content obstruction [1]. It is one of the most common acute abdomens in emergency surgery. Literature shows that the number of patients accounts for 20% of emergency surgery patients. The proportion of emergency surgical patients reached 3.1%. It ranks third among the common causes of death in patients undergoing emergency surgery and second only to complex peptic ulcers and aortic aneurysms and has a high level of morbidity and mortality in high-income and low-and middle-income countries. Despite 20 years of improvement, nothing has changed remarkably [1]. How to optimize the perioperative clinical management measures to reduce surgical trauma, promote
the early recovery of postoperative gastrointestinal function, accelerate the process of rehabilitation, and reduce mortality has always been a difficult problem for surgeons to solve [1]. The emergence of the concept of ERAS provides a new opportunity to solve the above problems. It takes reducing the physical and psychological stress reaction of perioperative patients as the core content and takes a number of perioperative management measures to reduce postoperative complications, shorten hospital stay, and accelerate postoperative rehabilitation. This effect has been confirmed in the perioperative therapeutic research of many surgical majors at home and abroad.

The concept of ERAS was first put forward by the Danish scholar Kehlet [2] in 1997, which represents the application of a series of effective therapeutic measures proved by evidence-based medicine to cure the disease in the perioperative period, so as to reduce the physical and psychological stress reaction of patients, finally reduce the incidence of complications, accelerate the recovery of patients, shorten the time of hospitalization, reduce the rate of readmission, and reduce the hospitalization expenses of patients and the burden of society and family simultaneously [3]. Its application measures are very different from the traditional perioperative management methods, and its main contents include [3] the following: (1) preoperative patient education and nutritional status assessment; (2) preoperative intestinal preparation and oral carbohydrates; (3) prophylactic use of antibiotics; (4) avoid the placement of nasogastric tube, urinary catheter, and abdominal drainage tube as far as possible; (5) optimize anesthetic regimens and drugs; (6) avoid intraoperative hypothermia; (7) minimally invasive surgery as far as possible; (8) optimize fluid support therapy; (9) postoperative pain management; (10) early postoperative rehabilitation exercise and enteral nutrition [2, 4]. ERAS is not a single clinical intervention, but the use of preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative multifaceted, multimode therapeutic measures to reduce the occurrence of stress reaction and speed up the postoperative rehabilitation process of patients. The clinical effect of ERAS regimen in a variety of operations has been verified. A number of randomized controlled trials and case-control studies have confirmed that the application of ERAS regimen in surgery is safe and effective. It can promote the functional recovery of patients and reduce the occurrence of postoperative complications, so as to shorten postoperative hospital stay and reduce medical expenses [4].

Stent implantation is a common surgical method in clinic, which is mostly employed in the therapeutic of vascular diseases and biliary diseases. It has the advantages of less trauma, short operation time, and high safety. With the maturity of this technology, its application has been extended to more settings. For instance, stent implantation’s application in colorectal cancer with acute intestinal obstruction has been proved advantageous and effective [4, 5]. Stent implantation creates conditions for minimally invasive radical surgery by relieving intestinal obstruction without immediate emergency surgery. In this study, a retrospective cohort study was carried out to analyze the effect of stent combined with laparoscopy combined with ERAS in the operation of acute intestinal obstruction and to explore and analyze the prognostic factors.

2. Patients and Methods

2.1. Patient Clinical Data. During February 2019 to April 2021, sixty patients after operations for acute intestinal obstruction in our hospital were enrolled. The age of all patients in our study ranged from 32 to 75 years old. The patients were randomly assigned into the control and research group. There exhibited no remarkable difference in sex, age, and other general data (P > 0.05) (Table 1). An informed consent form was signed by all patients, and the study was approved by the Medical Ethics Association of our hospital.

Inclusion criteria were as follows: (1) the age ≥ 14 years old and ≤ 80 years old; (2) according to the preoperative symptoms and imaging findings, the patients with acute intestinal infarction were initially diagnosed and treated by emergency operation, and the diagnosis was confirmed during the operation.

Exclusion criteria were as follows: (1) age < 14 years old or > 80 years old, (2) unconscious patients, (3) patients with previous psychiatric history, difficult to communicate, and cooperate with therapeutic, (4) patients with shock and/or severe organ failure, (5) patients who died within 24 hours after admission, (6) pregnant women, (7) patients with severe spinal deformities who could not receive epidural anesthesia, and (8) patients with anesthetic ASA grade ≥ IV.

2.2. Treatment Methods. The control group received stent combined with laparoscopic therapeutic: stent implantation: first, the left colon and rectum obstruction was diagnosed according to the patient’s symptoms, signs, and CT images, and the possible location and length of colorectal obstruction stenosis were evaluated. Then, let the patient take the left recumbent position in the colonoscopy room, insert the electronic colonoscope from the anal entrance, examine the intestine retrograde in turn, and find the narrow orifice under the direct guidance of the colonoscope. The endoscopic clamp method is usually employed to insert the soft guide wire into the catheter, make it through the narrow section and insert it deeply, then replace the catheter along the soft guide wire and through the narrow section, withdraw the soft guide wire, replace the hard guide wire, and withdraw the catheter. After selecting a suitable stent, the conveyer containing the intestinal stent entered along the hard guide wire from the endoscopic clamp through the narrow segment under the monitoring of colonoscope, and the conveyer was fixed after the stent passed through the narrow section. While withdrawing the outer tube, the stent was immediately released and dilated in the narrow position. Pull out the guide wire and conveyer, observe that the stent expands well and a large number of fecal water samples are
discharged from the stent mouth, withdraw the colonoscope, immediately ask the patient about abdominal distension, abdominal pain, anal fecal discharge, etc., return to the ward after no special discomfort, and recheck abdominal CT film or abdominal upright film when necessary, after the obstruction is relieved. Laparoscopic therapeutic is as follows: adequate nutritional support and symptomatic therapeutic before operation to improve the nutrition and general health status of patients. Meanwhile, compound polyethylene glycol electrolyte powder was given orally for intestinal preparation one day before operation, and antibiotics were given 30 minutes before operation to prevent infection. Intravenous anesthesia was performed, and the corresponding examination was carried out before operation, with head and low foot high lithotomy position, tracheal intubation general anesthesia, operation hole according to the location of the focus, establishment of pneumoperitoneum, maintenance of abdominal pressure 12 mmHg, laparoscopic exploration, dissociation of the focus and mesentery, extraction of specimen tissue, intestinal anastomosis, and comprehensive intervention such as anti-infection and nutritional support after operation.

The research group received stent combined with laparoscopic therapeutic combined with the concept of ERAS and stent combined with laparoscopic therapeutic with the control group, and the specific measures of ERAS were as follows: (1) taking the head nurse of the department as the group leader, according to the voluntary principle to select the backbone nurses of the department as the group members, to form the concept team of ERAS, and to obtain the support and cooperation of the relevant medical staff, and the researchers participated in the whole process. When there are problems that nurses cannot solve or need to optimize and improve the process in clinical practice, experts from relevant disciplines are invited to discuss and deal with them. (2) The team leader organizes thematic learning and regular training to train and assess the team members to ensure the ERAS strategy of the team members. Meanwhile, the head nurse organized centralized learning to train and assess the ERAS strategy of general practice nurses and obtained the recognition and support of other medical staff to ensure the homogeneity of the measures. (3) (i) Health education before operation, selective placement of tubes and intestinal preparation, fasting for 2 hours, and fasting for 10 hours before operation. (ii) Continuous monitoring of bispectral index (BIS), general anesthesia, preventive heat preservation, and goal-oriented fluid management (GDFT) during operation. During the operation, inflatable blankets, shoulder pads, infusion, and blood transfusion devices were employed to warm up to 2 hours before and after operation, and intraoperative washing saline was also preheated to reduce wound infection, cardiac complications, and the need for bleeding and blood transfusion. (iii) The patients in the same group were placed in the same ward in order to avoid the contamination of the two groups of patients. (4) after 6 hours of anesthesia, they could drink a small amount of water and eat early, and the programs of prophylactic analgesia and multimode analgesia were adopted.

2.3. Observation Index

2.3.1. General Information. Record the age, sex, type of disease, and other general information of all enrolled patients based on the relevant case data.

2.3.2. Operation-Related Index. Anal exhaust time, operation time, intraoperative blood loss, hospital stay, and hospital expense were recorded for each operation.

2.3.3. Pain Score and Quality of Life Evaluation Method. Pain scores were obtained before and after therapeutic intervention using VAS [6]: mark 10 equal parts of the paper 0-10 according to the degree of pain and then draw a straight line; according to the degree of pain, a value of 10 indicates that the pain is severe and unbearable, and the middle section indicates that the intensity increases as the value increases.

After nursing, the SF-36 Health Survey Scale [4] was used to assess quality of life, including emotional function, social function, body pain, and other 8 dimensions, a total of 36 items, each score of 0 to 6, take the average score, and a higher score indicates a better quality of life for the patient.

2.3.4. PCT, CRP, and PA Index. The PCT, CRP, and PA levels in serum were measured on the first day after surgery from fasting blood samples. A latex enhanced scatter immunoturbidimetry and Abbott C8000 automatic biochemical instrument were used to determine C-reactive protein levels.

2.3.5. Clinical Efficacy Evaluation. The effective and ineffective cases have been reported as follows:

| Group            | C group (n = 50) | R group (n = 50) | t / χ² | P     |
|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|-------|
| Age (years)      | 47.82 ± 3.34    | 47.41 ± 3.41    | 0.607  | 0.545 |
| Gender (male/female) | 25/25          | 21/29           | 0.644  | 0.545 |
| Disease type     |                 |                 |        |       |
| Intestinal volvulus | 8 (16.00)      | 10 (20.00)      |        |       |
| Intussusception  | 10 (20.00)      | 11 (22.00)      | 0.453  | 0.928 |
| Intestinal foreign body | 6 (12.00)    | 6 (12.00)       |        |       |
| Other            | 26 (52.00)      | 23 (46.00)      |        |       |

Table 1: Comparison of general data of patients.
Effective: clinical symptoms remarkably improved, and indicators returned to normal
Effective: clinical symptoms improved, and indicators roughly returned to normal
Ineffective: clinical symptoms did not improve, and indicators did not return to normal: the total effective rate = (number of effective cases ÷ number of effective cases)/total number of cases × 100%

2.3.6. Incidence of Complications. Statistics of the two groups of patients with postoperative complications includes pulmonary infection, perforation, and incision infection.

2.4. Statistical Analysis. Data processing was carried out using SPSS23.0 statistical software. The measurement data were presented as (x ± s). Multiple group comparisons were conducted using the group design t-test and the analysis of variance for multiple group comparisons. Dunnett t-test was employed for comparison with the control group. The counting data were presented in the number of cases and the percentage, \( \chi^2 \) test was adopted for comparison, and bilateral test was employed for all statistical tests.

3. Results

3.1. Comparison of General Data. First of all, we compared the general data, and there exhibited no difference in age, sex, type of disease, and other general data \((P > 0.05)\). All the data results are shown in Table 1.

3.2. Comparison of Operation-Related Indexes. Second, we compared the operation-related scores. The research group had shorter operation times, intraoperative blood losses, anal exhaustion times, hospital stays, and hospital expenses \((P < 0.05)\). All the data are shown in Table 2.

3.3. SF-36 Scoring and VAS Score Comparison. Next, we compared the SF-36 score and VAS score, and there exited no remarkable difference before operation, but after operation, the VAS score lessened, the SF-36 score augmented, while the VAS score was lower, and the SF-36 score of the research group was higher \((P < 0.05)\). All the results are shown in Table 3.

3.4. PCT, CRP, and PA Index Comparison. Then, we compared the indexes of PCT, CRP, and PA, and there exhibited no remarkable difference before operation, but after operation, the levels of PCT and CRP lessened, and the level of PA augmented, while the levels of PCT and CRP were lower, as well as the level of PA in the research group was higher \((P < 0.05)\). All the results are shown in Table 4.

3.5. Comparison of Clinical Efficacy. Next, we compared the clinical efficacy, and the effective rate of the research group \((98.00\%)\) was higher compared to the control \((86.00\%)\) \((P < 0.05)\). The results of all the data are shown in Table 5.

3.6. Comparison of the Probability of Postoperative Complications. Finally, we compared the probability of postoperative complications. Infections of the incision and pulmonary infection were the most common postoperative complications. The research group experienced one case of incision infection, and 2.00% of patients had postoperative complications. Three patients in the control group developed pulmonary infection, 0 patients perforated, 4 patients developed incision infection, and 14 patients developed complications after surgery. Compared with the control group, the postoperative complications in the research group were remarkably lower \((\chi^2 = 4.891, P < 0.05)\). All the results are shown in Table 6.

4. Discussion

Acute intestinal obstruction, in addition to typical digestive tract symptoms and functional disorders, is often accompanied by acid-based imbalance, water-electrolyte disturbance, infection, and other complications, which can lead to shock, kidney, lung, and other multiple organ dysfunction [7]. The disease has the characteristics of acute onset, rapid change of disease, various pathogenic factors, changeable operation methods, and serious physiological damage to the normal human body, and the case fatality rate is as high as 5%-10% [3]. The more common causes of acute intestinal obstruction include abdominal adhesions, tumors, and hernias [3]. One of the most common is abdominal adhesion, and abdominal adhesion induced by previous abdominal surgery is the main cause of small intestinal obstruction (SBO), accounting for 60% of the number of cases [7]; appendix, colorectal, hernia, and other lower abdominal surgery and gynecological pelvic surgery greatly increase the risk of adhesive SBO [8]. The clinical manifestations are typical abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, abdominal distension, and cessation of exhaust and defecation [2]. According to different pathogenesis, bowel sounds can be seen to be hyperactive or weakened by physical examination. Meanwhile, combined with the typical multiple stepped gas-liquid plane findings shown by abdominal X-ray or CT, a preliminary diagnosis can usually be made. The judgment of intestinal vascular disorders is a crucial link in the diagnosis. Patients with the following conditions should be highly suspected of strangulated intestinal obstruction: (1) abdominal pain is severe and persistent, and the symptoms of peritoneal irritation are obvious; (2) vomit or excretion is bloody; abdominal diagnostic puncture fluid extraction is bloody; (3) elevated blood phosphorus; (4) rapid progression of the disease, shock can occur in the early stage, and (5) asymmetrical abdominal distension and abdominal imaging examination showed isolated distended intestinal loop [9]. For noncomplex intestinal obstruction without intestinal ischemia, nonoperative therapeutic, including fluid resuscitation, nasogastric tube decompression, enema, and intestinal rest, is an important therapeutic at the initial stage of the disease, but in the process of conservative medical therapeutic, some patients can develop ischemic intestinal necrosis, while others have strangulated intestinal obstruction at the initial stage. For strangulated intestinal obstruction, emergency operation should be carried out as soon as possible to reduce or avoid intestinal necrosis. Some studies have shown that compared with patients who received surgical therapeutic on the day of admission, patients who
received surgical intervention 5 days after admission had a remarkable increase in the incidence of complications and postoperative hospitalization days [1]. Some scholars believe that if the surgical intervention is delayed for more than 24 hours, the risk of bowel resection will be greatly augmented, and if the symptoms are not alleviated within 96 hours, the risk will continue to increase [10]. Therefore, early diagnosis and surgical therapeutic are the key to improve the prognosis of acute intestinal obstruction and reduce complications and mortality [11]. In this study, a retrospective cohort study was conducted to analyze the effect of stent combined with laparoscopy combined with ERAS in the operation of acute intestinal obstruction and to explore and analyze the prognostic factors.

Table 2: Comparison of operation-related indexes (\(\bar{x} \pm s, n = 50\)).

| Grouping      | Operation time (min) | Intraoperative bleeding volume (ml) | Anal exhaust time (d) | Hospitalization time (d) | Hospitalization expenses (ten thousand yuan) |
|---------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| Control group | 173.91 ± 24.96       | 100.86 ± 4.10                     | 4.86 ± 1.44           | 12.85 ± 3.95             | 4.18 ± 0.56                                 |
| Research group| 146.96 ± 25.97       | 85.81 ± 9.55                      | 3.95 ± 1.22           | 8.48 ± 3.11              | 2.58 ± 0.41                                 |
| \(t\)         | 5.290                | 10.239                             | 3.409                 | 6.146                    | 16.301                                      |
| \(P\)         | \(\leq 0.001\)       | \(\leq 0.001\)                     | \(\leq 0.001\)        | \(\leq 0.001\)           | \(\leq 0.001\)                              |

Table 3: Comparison of SF-36 score and VAS score before and after operation (\(\bar{x} \pm s\), points, \(n = 50\)).

| Grouping      | SF-36 scoring Before operation | SF-36 scoring After operation | VAS scoring Before operation | VAS scoring After operation |
|---------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Control group | 75 ± 3.43                    | 78.52 ± 2.68                 | 7.55 ± 1.42                  | 5.52 ± 1.55                |
| Research group| 75.55 ± 3.64                 | 83.55 ± 2.52                 | 7.44 ± 1.41                  | 3.42 ± 0.67                |
| \(t\)         | 0.155                         | 9.668                        | 0.388                        | 8.793                      |
| \(P\)         | 0.876                         | \(\leq 0.001\)               | 0.698                        | \(\leq 0.001\)             |

Table 4: Comparison of PCT, CRP, and PA (\(\bar{x} \pm s\)).

| Grouping      | N  | PCT (\(\mu g/L\)) Before operation | PCT (\(\mu g/L\)) After operation | CRP (mg/L) Before operation | CRP (mg/L) After operation | PA (mg/L) Before operation | PA (mg/L) After operation |
|---------------|----|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| Control group | 50 | 66.83 ± 4.97                       | 48.91 ± 2.11^a                    | 36.84 ± 4.13                | 29.86 ± 3.21^a             | 168.93 ± 4.95             | 143.85 ± 4.81^a          |
| Research group| 50 | 66.82 ± 3.96                       | 26.81 ± 3.91^b                    | 36.90 ± 4.16                | 13.87 ± 5.93^b             | 168.92 ± 5.01             | 182.86 ± 4.91^b          |
| \(t\)         |    | 0.011                              | 35.172                            | 0.072                       | 16.767                     | 0.010                     | 40.131                   |
| \(P\)         |    | 0.991                              | \(\leq 0.001\)                    | 0.942                       | \(\leq 0.001\)             | 0.992                     | \(\leq 0.001\)           |

Note: the control group before and after operation, ^a\(P < 0.05\); the research group before and after operation, ^b\(P < 0.05\).

Table 5: Comparison of therapeutic effects (n%).

| Grouping      | N  | Remarkable effect | Effective | Invalid | Total efficiency |
|---------------|----|-------------------|-----------|---------|------------------|
| Control group | 50 | 17 (34.00)         | 26 (52.00) | 7 (14.00) | 43 (86.00)       |
| Research group| 50 | 31 (62.00)         | 18 (36.00) | 1 (2.00) | 49 (98.00)       |
| \(\chi^2\)    |    | 4.891              |           |         |                  |
| \(P\)         |    | 0.026              |           |         |                  |

Table 6: Comparison of the incidence of complications (n%).

| Grouping      | N  | Piercing Pulmonary infection | Incision infection | Total efficiency |
|---------------|----|-------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| Control group | 50 | 0                             | 3 (6.00)          | 4 (8.00)        | 7 (14.00)       |
| Research group| 50 | 0                             | 0                  | 1 (2.00)        | 1 (2.00)        |
| \(\chi^2\)    |    | 4.891                         |                    |                 |                 |
| \(P\)         |    | 0.026                         |                    |                 |                 |

received surgical intervention 5 days after admission had a remarkable increase in the incidence of complications and postoperative hospitalization days [1]. Some scholars believe that if the surgical intervention is delayed for more than 24 hours, the risk of bowel resection will be greatly augmented, and if the symptoms are not alleviated within 96 hours, the risk will continue to increase [10]. Therefore, early diagnosis and surgical therapeutic are the key to improve the prognosis of acute intestinal obstruction and reduce complications and mortality [11]. In this study, a retrospective cohort study was conducted to analyze the effect of stent combined with laparoscopy combined with ERAS in the operation of acute intestinal obstruction and to explore and analyze the prognostic factors.

Since the use of laparoscopy in the therapeutic of acute intestinal obstruction in the early 1990s, after more than 20 years of continuous development of laparoscopic-related instruments and the improvement of laparoscopic surgical
techniques, laparoscopic radical resection of colon and rectum has become more mature with continuous improvement, and laparoscopic colorectal resection of various parts has been widely recognized [12]. Although there are many reports about laparoscopic therapeutic of acute intestinal obstruction, there are still differences in indications and contraindications. In terms of surgical indications, it is generally believed that laparoscopic surgery is basically the same as traditional open surgery, and with the continuous improvement of surgical instruments and laparoscopic technology, its indications are also expanding [10]. In addition, some studies have pointed out that laparoscopic radical colorectomy can dissect the third station lymph nodes in the root of mesenteric vessels and the anterior region of abdominal aorta. The contraindications for laparoscopic surgery for acute intestinal obstruction can be assigned into the following [12]: (1) those who cannot tolerate long-term pneumoperitoneum due to various serious diseases of the body themselves; (2) those who are prone to uncontrollable massive bleeding during the operation due to coagulation dysfunction; and (3) the operation is difficult and limited due to complex pathophysiological conditions, such as severe adhesion, pregnancy, intestinal obstruction, and pathological obesity [13]. However, because many important adjacent organs may be removed during the operation, the operation is difficult, and it is difficult to complete under laparoscopy; so, laparotomy is generally employed. However, laparotomy has great trauma to patients, late movement out of bed after operation, slow recovery of intestine and body as a whole, and many postoperative complications, which does not meet the requirements of rapid rehabilitation medicine [14]. How to optimize perioperative management measures to speed up the process of postoperative recovery has always been the focus of surgeons’ clinical research.

The ERAS concept is theoretically supported by evidence-based medicine. Through multidisciplinary and multimodal cooperation, it has subverted a series of traditional surgical treatment concepts, optimized a number of perioperative clinical management measures, and reduced perioperative stress. Patients to reduce postoperative complications, enhance patient prognosis, shorten hospital stay, and speed up postoperative recovery [15]. The concept was first put forward by Kehlet, a surgeon from the University of Copenhagen in Denmark in 1997, then a number of Nordic academic surgeons jointly established an ERAS research group in London in 2001, and finally, the ERAS Association was formally registered in Sweden in 2010 [16]. The concept of ERAS was first applied to elective colectomy, which remarkably shortened the length of stay of patients, then developed first in colorectal surgery and cardiovascular surgery, and gradually extended to many surgical subspecialty fields such as breast, plastic surgery, hepatobiliary, thoracic surgery, gynecology, neurosurgery, orthopaedics, and urology [17]. The concept was introduced into China by Academician Li Jieshou in 2007. It has been recognized by many disciplines such as surgery, anesthesia, and nursing and has been gradually popularized and applied [17]. In ERAS, the key factor to improve surgical prognosis is to reduce perioperative stress response [18]. Stress response is a complex and nonspecific defense response induced by external injury. Trauma activates the hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenocortical axis through the neuroendocrine system, releasing a large amount of stress hormones. Meanwhile, the human body produces local or systemic inflammatory response, releasing a large number of inflammatory cytokines [19]. Insulin resistance induced by hormone release and various inflammatory reactions is one of the main pathogenic factors affecting the prognosis of patients [19]. Factors that enhance perioperative stress response include pain, anxiety, tissue injury, intestinal obstruction, tachycardia and other hemodynamic disorders, cognitive impairment, hypoxia, insomnia, hypothermia, acidosis, hyperglycemia, and fibrinolysis, and there is evidence that preoperative disease states, such as cardiopulmonary disease, diabetes, obesity, and tumors, can reduce the body’s physiological reserve capacity and aggravate stress responses [19–21]. It has an adverse effect on postoperative rehabilitation [20]. Perioperative factors that can lead to insulin resistance include the following: (1) pain, (2) fasting water and hunger, and (3) bed rest and fatigue [21]. In view of the above pathogenic factors, under the guidance of ERAS, a variety of preoperative, intraoperative, and postoperative clinical management measures, including preoperative nonstrict fasting water, preoperative oral carbohydrate supplementation, intraoperative multimode analgesia, minimally invasive operation, intraoperative heat preservation, early oral feeding, and out-of-bed activities after operation, have been applied to the perioperative therapeutic of a variety of surgical patients, which has remarkably reduced stress reaction and accelerated rehabilitation [21].

This study combined with the results of this study led to shorter operation times, less intraoperative blood loss, shorter anal exhaustion times, shorter hospital stays, and lower hospital expenses in the research group (P < 0.05). There were lower VAS scores in the research group compared to the control group, higher SF-36 scores in the research group, and lower levels of PCT and CRP in the research group. The effective rate of the research group (98.00%) was higher compared to the control (86.00%) (P < 0.05). The main postoperative complications were pulmonary infection and incision infection. The probability of postoperative complications in the research group was lower. The analysis indicates that health education before operation can relieve patients’ negative emotions such as anxiety and tension, increase the compliance of the scheme, and promote the early recovery of patients after operation [22]. ERAS does not support preoperative mechanical intestinal preparation (MBP), and MBP has been shown to cause water and electrolyte imbalance in patients. Although preoperative routine fasting has been one of the indispensable steps in the early traditional surgical program, it aggravates the body stress response after operation [23]. The ERAS recommends that surgical patients can consume a high-carbohydrate clear drink before midnight and 2-3 hours before operation to reduce the occurrence of adverse reactions such as insulin resistance [24]. Body temperature is one of the vital indicators to measure the vital signs of patients, hypothermia will lead to delayed recovery of
anesthesia, lessened immune function, and augmented risk of infection, aggravated the stress response of patients, and seriously led to abnormal blood coagulation function [25]. The ERAS suggests that intraoperative heat preservation, the use of bedding inflatable insulation blankets, shoulder pads, infusion and blood transfusion devices to warm up to 2 hours before and after operation, and intraoperative irrigation of saline can also be prewarmed to reduce wound infection, cardiac complications, bleeding, and blood transfusion needs [26]. In perioperative fluid management, insufficient volume can lead to low perfusion of important organs. In traditional surgical schemes, in order to supplement the physiological needs of patients, fluid supply usually exceeds surgical loss, which not only delays the healing of wound and anastomosis but also seriously delays the recovery of gastrointestinal function, aggravates the burden of heart and lung, causes water and sodium retention, and delays the recovery of patients [27]. There is evidence that fluid therapy plays a very important role in ERAS, which can bring many benefits to patients, such as improving gastrointestinal motility, promoting wound healing, improving patient prognosis, shortening hospital stay, and reducing the incidence of complications [28]. The ERAS advocates the concept of goal-oriented fluid therapy (GDFT), and dynamic evaluation is carried out from time to time to meet the individualized requirements of volume therapy [29]. This study still has some shortcomings. Firstly, the quality of this study is limited due to the small sample size we included in the study. Secondly, this research is a single-center study, and our findings are subject to some degree of bias. Therefore, our results may differ from those of large-scale multicenter studies from other academic institutes. This research is still clinically remarkable, and further in-depth investigations will be carried out in the future.

In conclusion, compared with the traditional concept of surgical therapeutic, it can more effectively reduce stress reaction, relieve postoperative pain, promote the recovery of postoperative gastrointestinal function as soon as possible, and reduce postoperative complications, which is worth to explore the application in the therapeutic of acute abdomen.

Data Availability
The datasets used and analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest
The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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