Research Article

Evaluation of Analgesia Effect after Ultrasound-Guided Laparoscopic Renal Surgery

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Kidney surgery involves placing the kidney in the iliac fossa of the lower abdomen on the right or left side. Studies have found that most kidney patients experience moderate to severe pain after surgery. The stress response caused by postoperative pain, especially visceral pain, not only aggravates the patient’s pain and irritability and aggravates the original complications but may also harm the early recovery of renal function and affect the survival of the kidney. Therefore, adequate postoperative analgesia for renal patients is essential. This paper combines ultrasound-guided laparoscopic technology to improve the postoperative analgesia effect of renal surgery and compares the data with experimental research methods. Through experimental research, it can be seen that the method proposed in this article has a certain effect, and ultrasound-guided laparoscopic technology can be used in follow-up clinical research to improve the analgesic effect of renal surgery.

1. Introduction

Postoperative pain is dominated by acute pain. Appropriate therapy of postoperative acute pain may not only increase patients’ happiness with physicians, but it can also have a significant impact on their prognosis. On the other hand, poorly managed postoperative acute pain may lead to chronic pain, obstructing the recovery of postoperative respiratory, circulatory, and other organ functions and complicating perioperative care [1]. The mechanism of postoperative pain is as follows. On the one hand, due to the noxious stimulation of tissue cells during the surgical operation, a large amount of inflammatory pain-causing substances are released from the damaged tissue, which triggers inflammatory reactions such as tissue edema. On the other hand, a series of noxious stimuli leads to increased sensitivity of nerve cells, increased response intensity to painful stimuli, and decreased pain threshold [2].

Thoracic paravertebral nerve block is traditionally performed using anatomical landmarks, and a resistance loss or pressure monitoring placement approach is utilized to evaluate whether the puncture needle is in the correct location. This treatment has a limited success rate and is prone to significant consequences, such as nerve and blood vessel injury. In recent years, as ultrasound technology has advanced, the use of ultrasound to perform nerve blocks has become a hot topic in clinical practice. Compared to other imaging methods, ultrasound offers the benefits of no X-ray exposure, lightweight, rapidity, and precision [3]. The use of a high-frequency ultrasonic probe is necessary to provide a clear view of the nerves. The low-frequency probe has better penetration but worse resolution than the high-frequency probe. As a result, multiple probe frequencies (5.14 MHz) are required depending on the location of the nerve block and the patient’s body type, and the 5.10 MHz probe is often used for most nerve blocks to provide excellent resolution and penetration. On the other hand, nerve fibers must be located in an anatomical area that is somewhat shallow. When using traditional methods to implement PVB, there are complications such as pneumothorax, general spinal anesthesia, local anesthetic poisoning, and nerve damage. Moreover, studies have shown that the failure rate of nerve block in patients with unclear or mutated anatomical landmarks can be as high as 20%. The
visualization and real-time of ultrasound technology can greatly reduce the incidence of complications and improve the success rate of puncture [4].

The best therapy for stomach discomfort is radical renal gastric medication combined with laparoscopic surgery. It may greatly minimize trauma, discomfort in life, and treatment time when compared to open kidney extraction surgery and laparoscopic renal root treatment time, which appear during surgical kidney extraction. The patient will continue to experience agony. Multiple intravenous analgesia pumps (intravenous analgesia, PCIA) are already employed in clinical practice to reduce pain and discomfort; however, widespread opioid usage will result in side effects such as vomiting and respiratory hypoxia [5]. Transversus abdominis plane block (transverse abdominal muscle plane block, PB) is a novel kind of nerve transmission from the earth’s abdominal wall that may successfully address postoperative pain, although its analgesic impact and performance are clear, according to studies [6].

In addition to being important for specific health background, characteristics and dignity of acid-base balance and hemoglobin level, it also has the filtration and removal of original drugs and toxins. As a result, the patient’s paralysis and paralysis become weaker, and the risk of poisoning-related adverse reactions will also increase, which will cause damage to the recovery of renal function. Furthermore, there are several therapeutic reasons why viewers may or may not return to the show. A major element in a difficult pregnancy is the presence of pain. In order to reduce pain, it is extremely possible that it will create unpleasant pain, which will have a negative impact on patients’ quality of life, medical expenditures, and the rate at which patients’ postoperative analgesia returns to normal. Effective side effect analgesia after renal surgery is dependent on preonset circumstances of uremia patients and physiological effects of medications on the damaged renal function of patients. It has not yet entirely recovered, and hypoglycemia, among other factors, might jeopardise the return of functions and restrict therapeutic analgesia alternatives. This article combines ultrasound-guided laparoscopy to study the postoperative analgesia effect of renal surgery, which provides a theoretical reference for subsequent renal postoperative analgesia.

2. Related Work

Laparoscopy has steadily grown and replaced a number of conventional surgical approaches, giving new assistance for a variety of conditions, thanks to extensive promotion of the idea of minimally invasive surgery. Retroperitoneal laparoscopic radical nephrectomy has become a popular surgical treatment for patients with kidney cancer because of its benefits such as little trauma, good operative vision, and speedy patient recovery [7]. After all, surgery is an intrusive procedure. The noxious irritation and inflammatory reaction caused by postoperative tissue damage can cause acute postoperative pain and increase patient discomfort and medical expenses. Therefore, optimizing the patient’s analgesia mode and alleviating postoperative pain are the key to promoting rapid recovery of patients [8]. At present, combined analgesia technology is a commonly used analgesia program. It is the key to improving the patient’s postoperative recovery by blocking the input of pain stimuli and transmitting pain signals. Ultrasound-guided quadratus lumborum block is a very accurate and precise method of minimally invasive block, and it mainly finds the quadratus lumborum muscle under the guidance of ultrasound equipment and performs ultrasound-guided puncture operations from this site. It can effectively organize noxious stimulation of sensory nerve and sympathetic nerve transmission from the anterior side of the abdominal wall and avoid the formation of peripheral and central sensitization. Moreover, it can prevent the patient from experiencing pain and paresthesia during the operation, reduce the stress response during the operation, and ensure the safety of the patient’s operation. In addition, it can also relieve postoperative pain and related complications of patients, promote rapid rehabilitation of patients, promote rapid recovery of patients, reduce medical burden of patients, and improve patient satisfaction with efficacy [9].

Inadequate postoperative analgesia may cause postoperative stress, trouble with early activities, lack of sleep, and other issues, all of which can degrade the quality of recovery. Furthermore, one of the key variables in the development of chronic pain is significant postoperative pain. It is clear that active and effective postoperative analgesia has significant therapeutic implications. Traditional analgesia is primarily based on opioid analgesics, but it is prone to adverse reactions such as postoperative nausea and vomiting, urinary retention, intestinal obstruction, and respiratory depression, all of which result in patients’ spending more time in the hospital and taking longer to recover. To get the optimum analgesic effect, multimodal analgesia (MMA) combines the use of a range of analgesic medicines and treatments with various mechanisms of action. It is the most effective analgesic technique for reducing adverse drug or procedure responses [10].

ICAPR defines pain as “an unpleasant sensation and emotional experience associated to existing or prospective tissue injury.” Inflammatory and neuropathic pain are clinically classified as two distinct types of pain based on the source of the pain. This complicates pain therapy because of the many processes of pain, which causes it to show in distinct clinical conditions in different ways. The body’s stress reaction is triggered by postoperative pain, which manifests itself swiftly and strongly. Mental and bodily symptoms accompany the condition at the same time. Postoperative complications and patient dissatisfaction might result if it is not addressed quickly and effectively. Induce postoperative chronic pain and adequate postoperative analgesia may help patients recover after surgery [11]. Incision pain, inflammatory pain, and visceral pain are the most common types of perioperative pain. For analgesia to be effective, it is necessary to use many drugs and methods, and at the same time, there are no evident side effects [12]. If analgesia is administered according to the kind and cause of pain, postoperative analgesia sometimes necessitates the use of two or more medicines and procedures to provide
the desired analgesic effect and increase patients’ quality of life and satisfaction. MMA is an analgesic approach that combines analgesic medications with multiple mechanisms of action or a mixture of different analgesic ways to maximize the analgesic impact while reducing the quantity of a single analgesic agent used after surgery to minimize unwanted effects. Literature [13] indicates that MMA may benefit patients and highlight the completeness and appropriateness of analgesic management. At present, MMA or preventive analgesia is recommended for effective and comprehensive postoperative analgesia and prevention of chronic pain. MMA is a new concept of modern analgesia, which can strengthen the analgesic effect, reduce the occurrence of adverse reactions, and accelerate postoperative recovery. MMA is the development trend of postoperative analgesia research [14].

The ultrasound probe was inserted laterally on the anterior abdomen’s abdominal wall, where the three muscle layers may be easily recognized. Following the identification of the transversus abdominis plane, the probe was moved laterally and posteriorly and put on the iliac. The midaxillary line above the crest is at the same level as the crest itself. It is put in the ultrasound probe’s front plane. Ultrasound imaging enables the operator to observe clearly how the puncture needle enters the transverse abdominis plane via distinct muscles. Squirting some saline into the puncture site will show where the needle tip is, and the local anesthetic will spread as a result. The hypoechoic zone is plainly apparent as well. Anatomical abnormalities, particularly in obese people, may cause a false impression of breakthrough in the traditional route, according to literature [15]. As in other regional blockades, real-time observation of local anesthetic diffusion is a more reliable technique of judging. The anterior axillary approach is the name given to this procedure. Another ultrasound-guided procedure is described in literature [16]. Transversus abdominis plane block is method for upper abdominal surgery, called the subcostal approach. The puncture needle is perforated near the xiphoid process and then inserted downward and outside to inject the local anesthetic into the plane of the transverse abdominis muscle along the bottom margin of the costal arch. The lateral abdominal wall’s muscle layer must move to the aponeurosis near the midline, so the transversus abdominis plane is defined by different muscle layers. In some patients, the transversus abdominis muscle extends close to the midline, and the front of the transversus abdominis plane is the straight abdomen. In some patients, the transversus abdominis muscle does not extend to the injection site, so the plane between the rectus abdominis and the rectus abdominis sheath becomes the target plane. Krasnick et al. described the ultrasound-guided four-point single injection method, which combined the anterior axillary approach and subcostal approach techniques, in an attempt to provide a wider range of analgesia on both sides of the abdominal wall [17].

3. Methods and Information

Case selection criteria are as follows: ① The age of the patient is 18-75 years old. ② 18 < BMI < 28 kg/m². ③ ASA classification is I-II. ④ The patient has no severe visual or hearing impairment and can read text. Exclusion criteria are as follows: ① patients with severe heart, liver, lung, and renal insufficiency and need to be admitted to the ICU for continued treatment after surgery; ② patients with abnormal coagulation function; ③ patients with a history of allergy to anesthetics; ④ patients with a history of long-term drinking, chronic pain, or long-term use of psychotropics; ⑤ patients with scars, infections, or tumors at the puncture site; ⑥ patients with a history of malignant fever or family history; ⑦ patients who cannot cooperate with follow-up or have poor compliance; and ⑧ pregnant and lactating women. Rejection criteria are as follows: cases that have been included in the group but meet one of the following conditions should be rejected: ① patients who are misdiagnosed, ② patients who meet the exclusion criteria, ③ patients who seriously violate the test protocol and affect the observation of the study, ④ important data is lost or cannot be obtained, ⑤ the investigator decides that continuing the study is not good for the patient’s health, and ⑥ the subject can withdraw for any reason.

Randomization grouping method. The study used the SPSS3.0 statistical software to generate random numbers. Then, the patients were randomly divided into ropivacaine block combined with general anesthesia group (group A), ropivacaine+morphine block combined with general anesthesia group (group B), and placebo control group (group C) according to the ratio of 1 : 1 : 1. All three groups of patients received the same protocol of PCIA after operation [18].

All patients were fasted with water for 8 hours before the operation, and no preoperative medication was given. After entering the operating room, the patient was routinely established a peripheral venous channel, infused with a compound sodium chloride solution, and instilled and supplemented with fasting water at a rate of 8 mL/kg/h for the loss of body fluids. The patient was connected to a multifunctional ECG monitor to monitor heart rate (legs), non-invasive blood pressure (BP), electrocardiogram (ECG), and pulse oxygen saturation (SpO2). The patient underwent radial artery puncture and catheterization under local anesthesia with 1% lidocaine. At the same time, it is necessary to monitor continuous invasive arterial pressure and connect to Vigileo continuous cardiac output monitor for hemodynamic monitoring. Before general anesthesia induction, the three groups of patients were put under general anesthesia, and paraspinal space puncture on the affected side was conducted under ultrasound supervision. Before the nerve block, the patient was given oxygen and placed in a side-lying posture with the operative side up, the head bowed, and the knee bowed to completely expose the puncture site. We first determine the thoracic spinous process (T9 and T11 double puncture points) at the puncture site and use a desktop color Doppler ultrasound diagnostic apparatus with a high-frequency probe frequency (6.10 MHz). The probe is coated with ultrasonic couplant. A longitudinal section scanning approach is used to establish the location of the vertebral body, and then, a cross-sectional scanning method (the long axis of the ultrasonic probe is
2.0-2.5 cm apart) is used in order to clarify the puncture site (the long axis of the ultrasound probe is perpendicular to the spine). It is at this point in time that the ultrasound picture reveals the skin and paraspinal muscles, as well as transverse process, superior ligament of costotransverse process, and pleura. We used Aner Iodine to sterilise a 15 cm radius around the puncture site and 1 percent lidocaine for regional anesthetic after that. With the use of the ultrasonic in-plane puncture technique, a 10 cm long 22G lumbar puncture needle was used to pierce thoracic paravertebral space and puncture the intertransverse ligament beyond lamina lateral edge, and the needle was entered along the lateral edge of lamina. The whole puncture procedure should attempt to demonstrate the needle tip’s path. The drug may be given gently when the needle tip is in the correct location, and no blood or cerebrospinal fluid is drawn. In group A, 30 ml of 0.5 percent ropivacaine was administered via two puncture locations. 30 cc of 0.5 percent ropivacaine+1 mg morphine was injected into group B. A total of 30 meters of physiological saline was injected into group C. Each portion contains 15 ml of medication, with a total of 30 ml of medicine for each group of two puncture spots. Under ultrasound, a weak echo group formed by the increase of the lung tissue and the pleura can be seen, and the pleura can be seen to depress the lung tissue forward. 15-20 min after injection, it is necessary to confirm the level of anesthesia and determine the blocking effect [19].

Patients were given intravenous injections of propofol 1.5-2.5 mg/kg, fentanyl 2-4 μg/kg, and rocuronium 0.6 mg/kg for induction of anesthesia. After the patient’s eyelash reflex disappeared, the patient received oxygen-assisted breathing with a mask, followed by tracheal intubation 3-5 minutes later, and an anesthesia machine was connected to perform mechanical ventilation. During the operation, we adjust the tidal volume (VT) as needed to be 8-10 ml/kg, the inspiratory – expiratory ratio (I/E) = 1 : 2, the respiratory rate is 10-16 times/min, and the ETCO2 is maintained at about 35.45 mm Hg. During the operation, the patient was inhaled with a mixture of sevofluran (2.3%) /02/air (1 : 1) (sevofluran 1.O.1.3 MAC). Remifentanil was injected intravenously at 0.06-0.199/μg/min to maintain the depth of anesthesia, and rocuronium was given intermittently as needed to maintain muscle relaxation. If the mean arterial pressure falls below 20% of the preoperative basic value during the surgery, the patient will be given an intravenous injection of ephedrine 6 rag/time to boost the blood pressure. If the patient’s heart rate is fewer than 50 beats per minute, an intravenous dose of atropine 0.3 mg/time will be administered. After the procedure, the patient was given 4-8 mg of morphine and 6 mg of tropisetron, as well as stopping breathing sevofluran and pumping remifentanil. The oxygen flow was increased to 6-10L/min, and the patient was given 4-8 mg of morphine and 6 mg of tropisetron. After the operation, the patient was connected to an intravenous self-controlled analgesic pump. After the spontaneous breathing recovered, the patients were given atropine 0.02 mg/kg and neostigmine 0.04 mg/kg to antagonize the residual effects of muscle relaxants. After VT > 6 ml/kg, the patient was pulled out of the tracheal tube. Nerve blocking drug configuration: group A is 0.75% ropivacaine 75 mg+normal saline, and it is 15 ml in total; group B is 0.75% ropivacaine 75 mg+physiological saline, and it is 15 ml in total; group C is 15 ml of normal saline. The three groups of intravenous self-control analgesic pumps all use the same formula: 50 mg morphine + 12 mg tropisetron injection + 0.9%normal saline, totaling 150 ml. The injection volume of PCn is 3 ml, which contains 1 ml of morphine, and the lock interval is 15 min. There is no background infusion volume, and it can be infused for 24 to 48 hours.

**Analgesic use.** We recorded the total intraoperative use of remifentanil and the cumulative use of morphine at 1 h, 6 h, 12 h, 24 h, and 48 h after surgery.

Insufficient analgesia, blood vessel damage, pneumothorax, general spinal anesthesia, local anesthetic poisoning, and nerve injury were all reported in the three groups, as well as postoperative nausea, vomiting, chills, hypotension, respiratory depression, skin itching, skin rash, and other adverse reactions.

### 4. Result

Table 1 shows the comparison statistics of the intraoperative remifentanil dosage in the three groups.

Compared with group C, the cumulative amount of morphine at 1 h, 6 h, 12 h, 24 h, and 48 h after operation is significantly reduced in group A and group B \((P<0.001)\). The cumulative amount of morphine in group A is higher than that in group B, especially at 12 h, 24 h, and 48 h after surgery \((P<0.001)\), as shown in Tables 2–6.

### 5. Analysis and Discussion

Paravertebral nerve block is a new type of anesthesia and analgesia that has emerged in recent years. The analgesic effect is similar to that of epidural anesthesia, and the complication rate is low. It is an ideal postoperative analgesia method. Paravertebral nerve block refers to the use of a puncture needle to enter the paravertebral space through the lateral edge of the lamina, that is, the spinal nerve passes through the intervertebral foramen, and the local anesthetic is injected into the outer mouth of the intervertebral foramen. Anesthesia and pain relief during unilateral organ surgery may be achieved by using a local anesthetic that blocks the sympathetic and somatic nerves of many contiguous segments on one side of the injection site. There has been a lot of interest in the investigation of paravertebral nerve block because of its major benefits in clinical anesthesia. Because of this, the paravertebral nerve block was performed using ultrasonic imaging equipment. A randomized, double-blind clinical experiment was done on patients having elective retropitoneal renal surgery to investigate the analgesic efficacy of paravertebral nerve block during and after surgery in this paper. It also examines the influence of combination anesthesia on emergency reaction during these procedures and analyzes the safety of paravertebral nerve block [20].
Pain is induced by a noxious stimulus activating on noxious receptors on the periphery, which is converted into nerve impulses (noxious information) following energy conversion. After being relayed through the spinal cord, brainstem, and diencephalon, the appropriate sensory afferent route (noxious afferent pathway) enters the central nervous system and reaches the limbic system and cerebral cortex. After then, the integration of all levels of central centers produces the pain experience and pain response.

Electrical stimulation of a certain intensity (high frequency and low intensity) may be used to stimulate thick myelinated axons. The main idea of "transcutaneous electrical stimulation analgesia" is that it produces analgesia by limiting the inflow of tiny fibers in the same segment (TENS). The key cytological reason for their hyperalgesic behavior, according to current research, is the excitability alterations of primary sensory neurons produced by acute or chronic nerve damage, as well as the remodeling of synaptic connections between neurons in the spinal dorsal horn. In this study, ultrasound imaging technology was used to perform paravertebral nerve block on the affected side of patients undergoing elective retroperitoneal laparoscopic renal surgery. This article uses the SPSS13.0 statistical software to generate random numbers to randomly divide the subjects into three groups: ropivacaine block combined with general anesthesia group (group A), ropivacaine+morphine block combined with general anesthesia group (group B), and placebo control group (group C) [21]. All three groups of patients received the same protocol of intravenous

| Table 1: Comparison statistics of intraoperative remifentanil dosage in three groups. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No. | A | B | C | No. | A | B | C |
| 1 | 327.33 | 438.68 | 1409.73 | 16 | 566.52 | 513.62 | 1160.55 |
| 2 | 503.95 | 541.26 | 1426.46 | 17 | 335.26 | 156.19 | 1383.12 |
| 3 | 619.86 | 242.20 | 1250.79 | 18 | 498.60 | 192.14 | 1259.09 |
| 4 | 544.93 | 211.15 | 1445.88 | 19 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |
| 5 | 381.66 | 435.92 | 1396.11 | 20 | 608.09 | 605.26 | 1210.89 |
| 6 | 400.38 | 297.22 | 1231.41 | 21 | 597.73 | 323.04 | 1088.74 |
| 7 | 472.54 | 597.73 | 1248.61 | 22 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |
| 8 | 439.19 | 242.20 | 1250.79 | 23 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |

| Table 2: Cumulative amount of morphine at 1 h after operation. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No. | A | B | C | No. | A | B | C |
| 1 | 327.33 | 438.68 | 1409.73 | 16 | 566.52 | 513.62 | 1160.55 |
| 2 | 503.95 | 541.26 | 1426.46 | 17 | 335.26 | 156.19 | 1383.12 |
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| 8 | 439.19 | 242.20 | 1250.79 | 23 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |

| Table 3: Cumulative amount of morphine at 6 h after operation. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No. | A | B | C | No. | A | B | C |
| 1 | 327.33 | 438.68 | 1409.73 | 16 | 566.52 | 513.62 | 1160.55 |
| 2 | 503.95 | 541.26 | 1426.46 | 17 | 335.26 | 156.19 | 1383.12 |
| 3 | 619.86 | 242.20 | 1250.79 | 18 | 498.60 | 192.14 | 1259.09 |
| 4 | 544.93 | 211.15 | 1445.88 | 19 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |
| 5 | 381.66 | 435.92 | 1396.11 | 20 | 608.09 | 605.26 | 1210.89 |
| 6 | 400.38 | 297.22 | 1231.41 | 21 | 597.73 | 323.04 | 1088.74 |
| 7 | 472.54 | 597.73 | 1248.61 | 22 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |
| 8 | 439.19 | 242.20 | 1250.79 | 23 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |

| Table 4: Cumulative amount of morphine at 12 h after operation. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No. | A | B | C | No. | A | B | C |
| 1 | 327.33 | 438.68 | 1409.73 | 16 | 566.52 | 513.62 | 1160.55 |
| 2 | 503.95 | 541.26 | 1426.46 | 17 | 335.26 | 156.19 | 1383.12 |
| 3 | 619.86 | 242.20 | 1250.79 | 18 | 498.60 | 192.14 | 1259.09 |
| 4 | 544.93 | 211.15 | 1445.88 | 19 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |
| 5 | 381.66 | 435.92 | 1396.11 | 20 | 608.09 | 605.26 | 1210.89 |
| 6 | 400.38 | 297.22 | 1231.41 | 21 | 597.73 | 323.04 | 1088.74 |
| 7 | 472.54 | 597.73 | 1248.61 | 22 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |
| 8 | 439.19 | 242.20 | 1250.79 | 23 | 557.19 | 370.98 | 1451.56 |

Pain is induced by a noxious stimulus activating on noxious receptors on the periphery, which is converted into nerve impulses (noxious information) following energy conversion. After being relayed through the spinal cord, brainstem, and diencephalon, the appropriate sensory afferent route (noxious afferent pathway) enters the central nervous system and reaches the limbic system and cerebral cortex. After then, the integration of all levels of central centers produces the pain experience and pain response.

Electrical stimulation of a certain intensity (high frequency and low intensity) may be used to stimulate thick myelinated axons. The main idea of "transcutaneous electrical stimulation analgesia" is that it produces analgesia by limiting the inflow of tiny fibers in the same segment (TENS). The key cytological reason for their hyperalgesic behavior, according to current research, is the excitability alterations of primary sensory neurons produced by acute or chronic nerve damage, as well as the remodeling of synaptic connections between neurons in the spinal dorsal horn. In this study, ultrasound imaging technology was used to perform paravertebral nerve block on the affected side of patients undergoing elective retroperitoneal laparoscopic renal surgery. This article uses the SPSS13.0 statistical software to generate random numbers to randomly divide the subjects into three groups: ropivacaine block combined with general anesthesia group (group A), ropivacaine+morphine block combined with general anesthesia group (group B), and placebo control group (group C) [21]. All three groups of patients received the same protocol of intravenous
The paravertebral nerve block provides the optimal analgesic effect. As a result, it reduces both the length of the patient’s postoperative hospital stay and the length of the patient’s postoperative PACU stay, and it is well-received by both patients and surgeons. Multimodal analgesia relies on the paravertebral nerve block, which is now a standard part of the treatment. The anatomical structure of multilevel pain signal transduction pathways has a role in pain perception and afferent. To produce analgesia, local anesthetics are injected into the paravertebral region and drug infiltration is used to directly act on the intercostal nerve and its dorsal branch, connecting branch, and sympathetic nerve trunk. Local anesthetics may block the somatosensory innervation of a specific spinal nerve in the lumbar area once they diffuse into the lumbar plexus or reach the epidural space. The effect of local anesthetics on the sympathetic nerve trunk and connecting branches causes unilateral sympathetic nerve block with somatic block. A single analgesic technique or analgesic medicines are often used in traditional postoperative analgesia. However, owing to the drawbacks of using different analgesic medicines alone, such as high dose and adverse effect rates, current clinical practice recommends using multimodal analgesia for postoperative pain. To create a balanced analgesia strategy, multimodal analgesia refers to the combined use of analgesic modalities with distinct mechanisms of action and analgesic medications [22]. The underlying principle is to employ various ways and medications to block pain at various phases in order to minimize discomfort to the maximum degree possible. Damaged tissue cells stimulate the release routes of inflammatory mediators and arachidonic acid, which subsequently form prostaglandins and leukotrienes, according to the pain mechanism. These chemicals have an effect on nerve terminals in the peripheral nervous system. The nociceptor stimulus signal is then sent from the peripheral tissue to the cerebral cortex through the posterior root of the spinal cord. To cause pain, the signal travels through four stages: transduction, conduction, modulation, and perception. We employed a thoracic paravertebral nerve block to disrupt the conduction route of unpleasant sensations in patients undergoing retroperitoneal laparoscopic kidney surgery. The paravertebral nerve block was utilized in conjunction with PCIA multimodal analgesia in this investigation. It not only minimizes the amount of intraoperative anesthetics and postoperative analgesics used, but it also helps patients with acute postoperative pain. Furthermore, the patient’s VAS score was lower in the silent and coughing condition, indicating a clinical impact. It also minimizes the occurrence of drug-related adverse effects and does not enhance the occurrence of puncture complications. At the same time, the patient recovered well after the surgery, minimizing the time spent in the PACU and the length of time spent in the hospital following the operation and saving money on medical expenditures; thus, it is an analgesic program worth supporting.

**Data Availability**

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.
Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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