



Erector Spinae plane Block for Analgesia in Kyphosis Surgeries

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ABSTRACT

Background: Kyphotic deformity can be caused by a variety of pathologic diseases. Nevertheless, if you notice acute angular kyphosis, it could be a sign of severe kyphosis that leads to sagittal imbalance and neurological changes over time. The type of surgery needed for kyphosis correction depends on the deformity of the patient's spine and the cause. A relatively recent regional anesthetic method, the Erector Spinae Plane (ESP) block can alleviate pain during surgery and other treatments, as well as control both short-term and long-term pain. We intended to provide an outline of regional anesthetic technique in Management of Post operative Pain for Patients undergoing Corrective Kyphosis Surgeries.

Conclusions: The procedure requires little to no sedation in the pre-operative holding room and is straightforward to provide to patients. You have two options for administering the ESP block: a single injection or a catheter for continuous infusion. In 2016, a patient with rib fractures and metastatic disease was the first to successfully undergo this operation; the block was utilized to alleviate thoracic neuropathic pain. Numerous other surgeries, such as lumbar fusions, percutaneous nephrolithotomies, thoracotomies, and Nuss procedures, have reported successful usage of the block since then.

Keywords: Erector Spinae plane Block; Post operative Pain; Kyphosis Surgeries

INTRODUCTION

A vast and superficial collection of muscles called the erector spinae originate from the erector spinae aponeurosis; they lay just below the thoracolumbar fascia (ESA). A typical aponeurosis, the ESA attaches proximally to the sacrum and the spinous

processes of the lumbar vertebrae and blends with the thoracolumbar fascia. On each side of the spinal column, between the superior aspect of the skull and the inferior aspect of the pelvis, are the erector spinae muscles. The three muscles that make them up have their fibers going vertically over the cervical,

thoracic, and lumbar areas. The spinalis, longissimus, and iliocostalis muscles are arranged from medial to lateral [1].

All throughout the body, you may find the fascia, which is a network of connective tissues that are soft, loose, fibrous, and filled with collagen. Human fascia over muscles consists of three layers: the surface fascia, the deeper, denser fascia, and the layers directly associated to the muscle itself (Epimysium, Perimysium, and Endomysium). The interfascial plane blocks aim to penetrate the deep fascia, which is multi-layered. Fascia is a pervasive membrane that transfers the stress produced by muscle contraction to nearby tissues; it runs the length of the body and is subject to basal tension. Nerves and blood vessels are protected by its sheaths. As a result of its separation from the underlying muscle by the epimysium and a layer of loose connective tissue, the deep fascia functions independently [2]. The erector spinae is a complicated muscle that is encased in fascia and has three distinct belly parts that distribute across the lumbar, thoracic, and cervical regions. Thoracic and lumbar muscles are enveloped by the thoracolumbar fascia. It is fastened medially to the thoracic vertebral spindles and laterally to the rib angles. The three layers of the thoracolumbar fascia—the posterior, middle, and anterior—are linked at various positions in the lumbar region [3]. There are three muscles in the upper thoracic region that are in the same plane as the ESP block. The posterior (most superficial) one is the trapezius, the middle one is the rhomboid major, and the anterior one is the erector spinae (deeper). You can spot them all the way to the hyperechoic transverse processes' tips by looking superficially [4]. A complicated combination of three muscles—the Iliocostalis, the Longissimus, and the Spinalis—makes up the erector spinae muscle, according to anatomy. These muscles originate on the spinous processes, ribs, and transverse processes of the spine and insert into those structures. As a tapering column of muscle, the erector spinae muscle rises from the sacrum and lumbar

spinous processes, attaches to the thoracic and cervical vertebrae, and continues upward. The thoracolumbar fascia, a retinaculum that stretches from the sacrum to the base of the head, encases it [5].

Nerves in the neck, chest, and lower back supply the spinalis muscles via their lateral branches of the posterior rami. Like the spinalis muscles, the longissimus muscles are innervated in a similar fashion. Lateral branches of the neighbouring spinal nerves' posterior rami also innervate them. Similar to the other sets of erector spinae muscles, the iliocostalis muscles are innervated by the lateral branches of the posterior rami of the spinal neurons that originate in the cervical, thoracic, and lumbar regions of the spine [6]. In order to move and stabilise the spinal column, the erector spinae muscles—which include the iliocostalis, longissimus, and spinalis muscles—are essential. A number of motions and changes in posture involve these muscles. Spinal extension and ipsilateral lateral flexion are the primary tasks of the iliocostalis muscle, which is comprised of the iliocostalis lumborum, iliocostalis thoracis, and iliocostalis cervicis divisions. The spinal column is either arched backward, which is called extension, or bent to the side of the body, which is called ipsilateral lateral flexion. Assisting with these motions, the iliocostalis muscle helps keep the spine stable and the body in proper posture. Spinal extension and lateral flexion are primarily accomplished by the longissimus muscle, which is composed of the longissimus thoracis, longissimus cervicis, and longissimus capitis divisions. While ipsilateral lateral flexion means to bend the spine to the same side of the body, extension is to put the spine into a more upright or extended position. Ipsilateral head rotation is also assisted by the longissimus capitis muscle [7; 8].

The primary function of the spinalis muscle, which is composed of the spinalis thoracis, spinalis cervicis, and spinalis capitis divisions, is to extend and flex the cervical and thoracic parts of the spine. Lateral flexion

is the opposite of extension, which is straightening or arching the spine rearward. All of these motions are made possible by the spinalis muscles, which also help keep the spine stable and flexible. The erector spinae muscles work together on both sides of the body to pull the spine back, which helps maintain an upright and stretched position. While doing things like standing or walking, they aid with alignment and gravitational resistance. Bending the spine to one side is made possible by unilaterally contracting these muscles, which cause ipsilateral lateral flexion [9].

Major surgical operations, such as corrective spine surgeries for kyphosis and scoliosis, are frequently associated with significant perioperative pain. Common in adults, failed back surgery syndrome (also known as post-lumbar surgery syndrome) is characterized by neuropathic pain following spine surgery [10].

A complicated and subjective sensation, pain arises when the nervous system detects, transmits, and modulates harmful inputs. Acute postoperative pain affects the patient's recovery and entire experience, making it a significant fear for the majority of patients. Bad pain management might cause unintended consequences and unhappy patients. In order to diagnose and treat different types of pain, it is crucial to understand the processes and routes of pain. Understanding, assessing, and successfully treating acute pain is, thus, crucial. Multiple factors, including the pain's likely origin, allow for its categorization: nociceptive pain, which arises when noxious stimuli stimulate nociceptors, neuropathic pain, which results from failure of the nervous system, and psychogenic pain. Acute, convalescent, and chronic pain, as well as its physiologic, nociceptive, and neuropathic causes, clinical context (such as postoperative, cancer-related, neuropathic, and degenerative pain), and site (somatic, visceral, and referred pain) are all factors to consider [11]. "Pain of recent beginning and probably limited duration" is the definition of acute pain. It is typically

associated with injury or sickness in a measurable way, both in terms of time and causation. It has been proposed that acute pain can transform into chronic pain around 12 weeks or when the discomfort is no longer attributed to the original injury [11].

Surgical trauma causes inflammation and the beginning of an afferent neural barrage, both of which contribute to the postoperative pain that patients experience. The unpleasant sensory, emotional, and mental experiences that accompany the autonomic, endocrine-metabolic, physiological, and behavioural reactions brought on by surgical trauma make up this constellation. There are two types of pain that patients may experience after surgery: somatic pain and visceral pain. Consequently, for the best results during epidural analgesia for abdominal procedures, it is necessary to target both the afferent visceral innervations and the abdominal wall innervations. The ventral rami of the seventh through twelfth intercostal nerves supply the segmental dermatomal distribution of the abdominal wall's innervations via their anterior and lateral cutaneous branches (T7-T12)[12].

Management of postoperative pain: The most important thing to remember when dealing with pain after surgery is to take preventative measures. A worsening of postoperative pain may occur as a consequence of central or peripheral sensitization. So, in the short run, post-procedure or post-traumatic pain may be lessened and recovery time may be shortened if analgesic treatment does not lead to changed central processing. Potential long-term advantages include alleviation of chronic pain, enhanced rehabilitation, and greater life satisfaction for the patient [13].

An alternative theory proposes rebranding the practise of administering pain medication to patients before, during, and after surgery as "preventive analgesia," with the goal of reducing the risk of central sensitization [14]. To avoid the onset of chronic pain is the main objective of preventative analgesia. In theory, this happens because it blocks the dorsal horn's N-methyl D-aspartate (NMDA)

receptors, which are involved in the processes that can cause chronic pain: wind-up, facilitation, central sensitization, expansion of receptive fields, and long-term potentiation [15].

A successful preventive analgesia strategy requires strict adherence to three guidelines: (1) analgesia depth sufficient to block all nociceptive input during surgery; (2) analgesic technique comprehensive enough to encompass the entire surgical field; and (3) analgesia duration encompassing both the surgical and postsurgical periods. Due to pre-existing nervous system sensitization, patients with chronic pain may not experience as much relief from these approaches [16].

Erector Spinae plane Block: For both short-term and long-term pain relief during surgery or other medical operations, a relatively novel regional anaesthetic method called the Erector Spinae Plane (ESP) block can be utilised. The procedure requires little to no sedation in the pre-operative holding room and is straightforward to provide to patients. You have two options for administering the ESP block: a single injection or a catheter for continuous infusion. In 2016, the first successful report of this treatment came from a patient who had rib fractures and metastatic rib disease; the patient's thoracic neuropathic pain was managed with the block [17]. The Nuss surgery, thoracotomies, percutaneous nephrolithotomies, lumbar fusions, and ventral hernia repairs are only a few of the many surgeries that have reportedly benefited from the block's usage since then [18].

Indications and Choice of Level: Epidural and paravertebral blocks have seen a decline in usage due to the rise of ESP blocks for upper and lower thoracic procedures. More patients may be able to get regional analgesia if the risks connected with interfascial blocks are less severe, which strengthens the case. Although epidural analgesia is still commonly utilized for large abdominal surgeries, practices are shifting away from them due to improved recovery measures; therefore, interfascial plane blocks could be a viable option. When used to give regional analgesia,

the ESP block can be used for a number of surgical procedures in the abdominal, thoracic, and anterior regions. Acute and chronic pain disorders can also be managed with its help [19]. In addition, the analgesic effects of the ESP block applied to the uppermost portions of the thoracic spine (T1–T2) may extend to the roots of the cervical nerves, relieving discomfort in the shoulder. Typically, a level between T2 and T5 is used for thoracic purposes, and a level between T7 and T10 is used for abdominal or pelvic indications. Instead of depending on the local anaesthetic to spread enough, it is advised to conduct the ESP block at a spinal level that matches the surgical incision in the chest or abdomen [20].

Contraindications: It is absolutely forbidden to do an ESP block if the patient refuses or if there is an infection at the injection site in the paraspinal region. There are no hard and fast rules, but anticoagulation is obviously not a good idea when it comes to ESP blocks. Concerning paraspinal blocks and anticoagulation, the most current 2018 ASRA consensus statement is silent [21].

Mechanism of Action of the ESP Block: Currently, three potential pathways exist for the analgesic effects of ESP injection of local anaesthetic. The first is that the local anaesthetic may enter the spinal nerves' and the epidural and paravertebral spaces via openings in the connective tissues that cross over neighbouring ribs and transverse processes. This "Intertransverse tissue complex" consists of various structures, such as the superior costotransverse ligament, the Intertransverse and costotransverse ligaments, the levatorcostarum and rotator costarum muscles, and the Paravertebral space, which is typically reached by penetrating the superior costotransverse ligament. It is possible for injectate to flow anteriorly into the Paravertebral space via the dorsal rami and associated arteries, which pass this barrier. From there, it can extend laterally into the intercostal space and medially into the epidural region. This has been proven in MRI scans of both living people and recently

deceased ones[22]. Additionally, the dorsal rami encounter an obstruction when they ascend through the ESP's local anaesthetic lake. Thirdly, local anaesthetics can theoretically reach and anaesthetize lateral cutaneous nerve branches because the ESP is continuous laterally with the plane deep to the serratus anterior muscle and superficial to the ribs and intercostal muscles. Also, at low thoracic and lumbar levels, the ESP is also on the same plane as the erector spinae and Quadratus lumborum muscles, therefore it might work in the same way as the posterior Quadratus lumborum block [23]. According to the available cadaveric data, local anaesthetics can be delivered to the paravertebral space through the extracorporeal space (ESP). The only remaining question is the frequency and magnitude of this occurrence. Clinical effect studies are the best way to address this. Even though just a small amount of the local anaesthetic that is administered will reach the paravertebral and epidural spaces, it is possible that this will be enough to alleviate pain. Clinical data for the ESP block lend credence to this theory by suggesting that it acts on intercostal and ventral rami neurons as well as the lateral cutaneous branches. Small quantities of local anesthetic can obstruct tiny or unmyelinated nociceptive nerve fibers, which explains why sensory blockage surpasses the physically detectable extent of injectate dissemination even in thoracic paravertebral blocking [24].

TECHNIQUE

Preparation: A single injection or a catheter inserted for continuous infusion can be used to conduct the ESP block. Put in place regular patient monitoring after peri-procedural "time-out" and informed consent. Vasopressors and other resuscitation supplies, such as those for treating local anaesthetic toxicity, should be on hand, and intravenous access should be established. As is customary, the operator will wear sterile gear during the procedure, including a surgical cap, mask, sterile ultrasonic probe cover, and sterile gloves. Commonly, a linear probe between 7

and 12 MHz can do the trick. Curvilinear (2-6 MHz) is suggested for those with a high body mass index. Most commonly, a 22-gauge 50-100 mm needle is used (depending on body habitus). A standard epidural catheter or a perineural (through a needle or over a catheter) catheter might be chosen for implantation [25].

Procedure: The operator and patient should decide whether the patient is more comfortable positioned sitting up or lying down. If the patient is too sick to sit or lie down during the block procedure, or if the anaesthetic has already been administered, a lateral decubitus may be used instead. A longitudinal parasagittal technique is used to insert the ultrasonic probe at the desired level of the spine, about 3 cm lateral to the spinous process. To find the level, start at the first rib and count down from cephalad to caudad until you reach the one you want (Fig. 1). In order to find the matching transverse process, this level is followed medially. The transverse process, beginning with the 12th rib and counting cephaladward, could pinpoint the spot [26].

Differentiation from the rib is necessary for the transverse process at that level. The rib will be narrower and more semicircular in shape, in contrast to the wider, more superficial transverse process (Fig. 2). Alternately, the lamina, transverse process, and rib can be viewed laterally when one takes a transverse approach over the spinous process in the midline (Fig. 3). Once every structure has been observed, the probe is turned parasagittal so that the transverse process tip can be targeted [26].

Located in the upper/mid-thoracic region, the erector spinae, rhomboid major, and trapezius muscles are seen superficially to the transverse process tip. After lidocaine has been injected into the skin, carefully enter the needle into the deep (anterior) aspect of the erector spinae muscle. Make sure to insert the needle using an in-plane superior-to-inferior technique. When fluid is seen pulling the erector spinae muscle off the bony shadow of the transverse process, it confirms the

placement of the needle point (Fig. 4). The best plane for injection is inside the hyperechoic investing sheath, not deep to it, because any injection farther than that won't allow craniocaudal local anaesthetic to extend beyond that one Intertransverse region due to the tight connections between the sheath and the transverse processes. An incorrect picture, comparable to that seen with an interfacial injection, called lamination, is produced when the injection is made superficially to this fascial layer, within the muscle fibers (Fig. 5)[24].

To avoid intravascular injection, 20–30 mL of local anaesthetic is administered through the needle in 5-mL increments while aspiration is performed frequently. If you prefer a continuous method, thread the catheter through the needle while maintaining its tip at the surgically specified level; this should be done three to five centimetres beyond the needle tip and under direct eyesight. Begin a patient-controlled local anaesthetic infusion regimen after the catheter is securely in place. This regimen should consist of a background infusion of 8 mL/h of 0.2 percent Ropivacaine and a 5 mL bolus, with a lockout interval of 30 to 60 minutes [17].

Safety and Complications Associated with ESP block:The enormous margin of safety it offers in regard to major difficulties is one reason the ESP block is popular. The area to be inserted with the needle is not too deep and is far from any specific nerves, big blood arteries, the epidural space, or the pleura. Given the little risk of bleeding, hematoma development, and neural compression, we believe that the ESP block can be used to successfully treat anticoagulated patients if a substantial benefit is expected. Epidural space spread is a rare occurrence with the ESP block, accounting for only a tiny percentage of the overall dose injected. Hypotension and clinically substantial sympathectomy are hence highly improbable and not documented [27,28]. A readily discernible landmark, the transverse process serves as a safety net to avoid accidentally pushing the needle too far. These benefits are especially important to

keep in mind while dealing with juvenile patients, as epidural or paravertebral blocks require a high level of expertise and are typically administered under general anesthesia. One incident of pneumothorax shows that even with proper visibility and handling, needles can still cause harm [29]. Injecting high dosages of local anaesthetic into highly vascularized musculofacial tissues poses the greatest danger of systemic toxicity from the anaesthetic. The ESP block has not had any published pharmacokinetic studies, however it is anticipated to have a profile comparable to other fascial plane blocks such the rectus sheath block and the Transversus Abdominis plane. Peak plasma concentrations were shown to occur 30-45 minutes after injection, according to these blocks' studies, and can be reduced by adding epinephrine routinely. First, always adhere to the maximum recommended weight-based limits for the local anaesthetic dose. Second, always add epinephrine to the local anaesthetic solution. Third, always monitor vital signs for at least 30 minutes after the block. Lastly, always have resources available to manage any complications that may arise [24].

Additional research is required to determine safety and efficacy of regional anesthetic technique in Management of Post operative Pain for Patients undergoing Corrective Kyphosis Surgeries.

CONCLUSIONS

Erector Spinae plane Block patients with little to no sedation in the pre-operative holding area can undergo this procedure with ease. The ESP block can be administered with a single injection or continuously using a catheter. In 2016, the first successful report of this treatment came from a patient who had rib fractures and metastatic rib disease; the patient's thoracic neuropathic pain was managed with the block. Many other treatments have reported successful use of the block since then, including lumbar fusions, ventral hernia repairs, thoracotomies, percutaneous nephrolithotomies, and Nuss procedures.

Conflict of Interest: None.

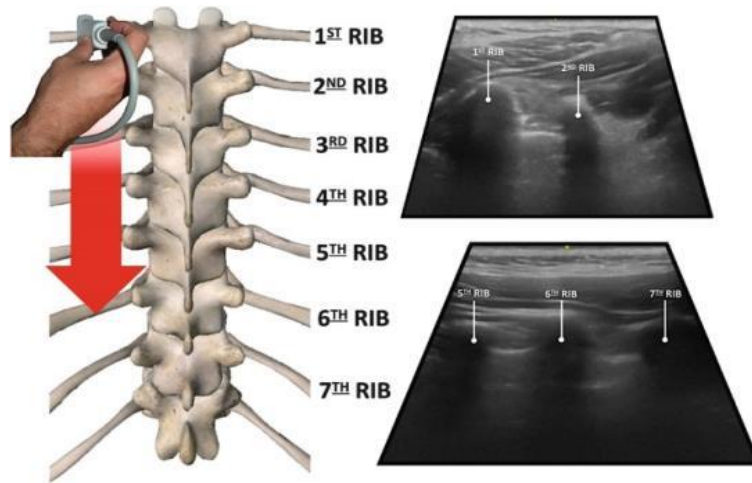


Figure (1): Process for the recognition of the level before the realization of the erector spinae plane block. [26].

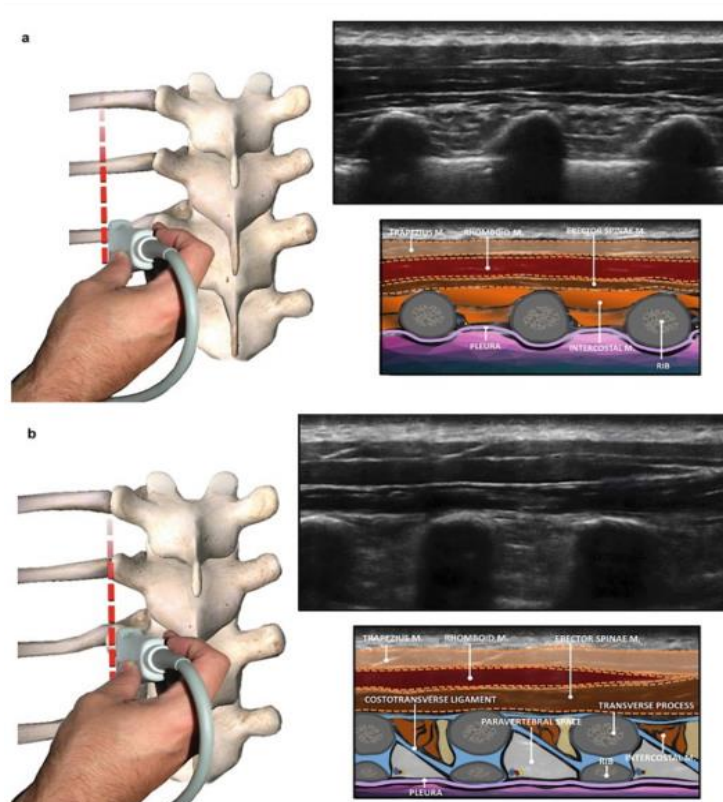


Figure (2): (a) Sonographic appearance of the rib. The rib is smaller, thinner, and semicircular in shape and deepens toward the posteromedial planes. (b) The transverse process is more superficial, wider, and square-shaped. The structures in the sonogram are indicated in the schematic diagram. [26].

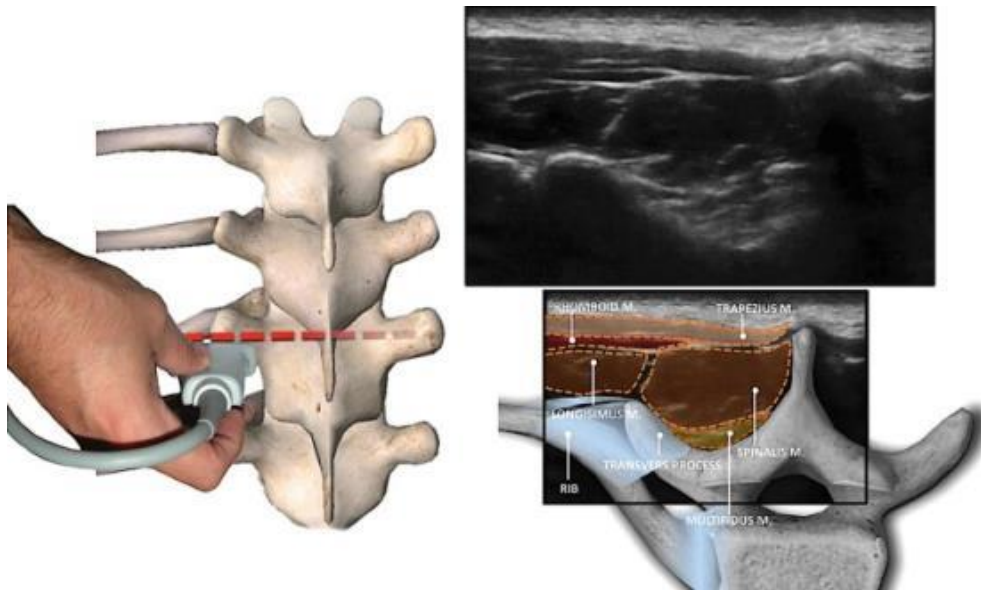


Figure (3): Transverse view of the spine. This approach can help to better characterize the structures and differentiate the transverse process from adjacent structures, such as the lamina and rib. Once the transverse process is identified, the transducer can be rotated 90° in a sagittal orientation to perform the block. [26].

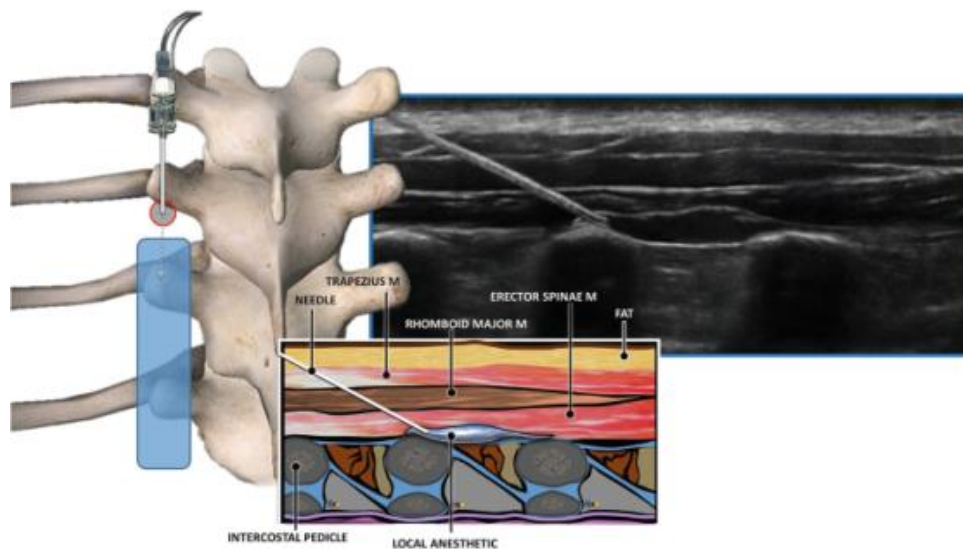


Figure (4): Needle insertion in ESP block [24].

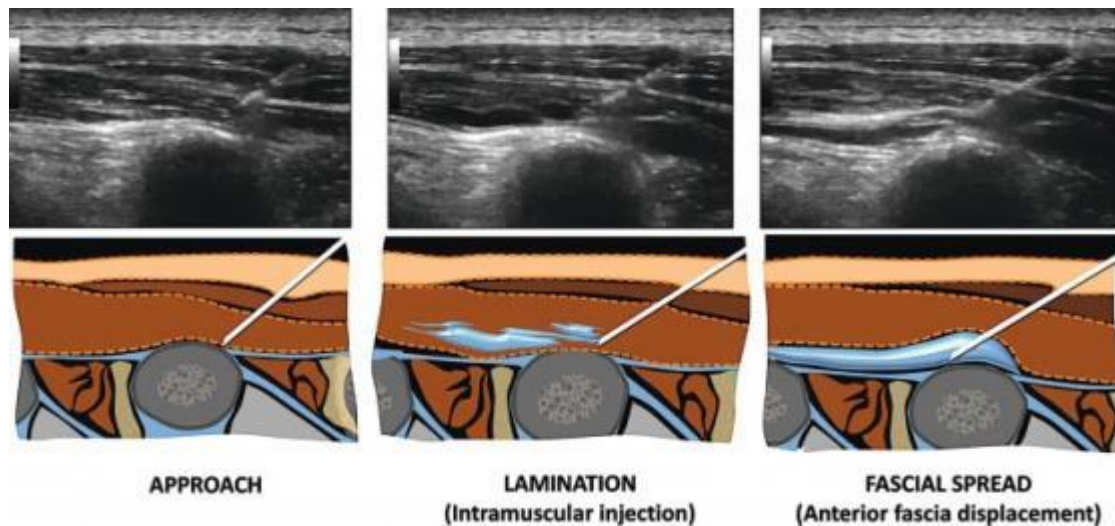


Figure (5): In a parasagittal approach, lamination mimics an interfascial spread, but the injectate is inside the muscle and needs needle repositioning. With a transverse approach, the needle placed intramuscularly results in circumferential spread, which is less likely to be confused with interfascial spread, but need needle repositioning. [24].

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FIGURE LEGEND

Figure (1): Process for the recognition of the level before the realization of the erector spinae plane block.

Figure (2): (a) Sonographic appearance of the rib, (b) The transverse process is more superficial, wider, and square-shaped.

Figure (3): Transverse view of the spine.

Figure (4): Needle insertion in ESP block.

Figure (5): In a parasagittal approach, lamination mimics an interfacial spread, but the injectate is inside the muscle and needs needle repositioning.

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