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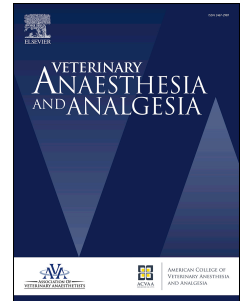
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FULL RESEARCH STUDY

Comparative study between lateral *versus* latero-ventral quadratus lumborum block for perioperative analgesia in canine laparoscopic ovariectomy

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Informed Consent Statement: By signing the informed consent, owner agreed that data from their animal can be used for the purpose of this study.

Data Availability Statement: The data presented in this study are available on request from the corresponding author.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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1 **Abstract**

2

3 **Objective** To compare the perioperative analgesic effect of lateral *versus* latero-ventral quadratus
4 lumborum block (QLB) in dogs undergoing laparoscopic ovariectomy.

5 **Study design** Randomised, blinded clinical study.

6 **Animals** A total of 15 client-owned female dogs undergoing laparoscopic ovariectomy.

7 **Methods** Animals were randomly assigned to receive a bilateral QLB, performed with 0.3 mL kg⁻¹
8 ropivacaine 0.5%, either with lateral [group L_{QLB} (*n* = 7)] or latero-ventral approach [group LV_{QLB}
9 (*n* = 7)]. Dogs were premedicated intramuscularly with methadone 0.2 mg kg⁻¹ and
10 dexmedetomidine 3 µg kg⁻¹. General anaesthesia was induced intravenously (IV) with propofol and
11 maintained with isoflurane. Cardiovascular and respiratory variables were continuously monitored
12 and recorded every 5 minutes during surgery. Fentanyl 3 µg kg⁻¹ was administered IV if there was a
13 20% increase in heart rate and/or mean arterial pressure from previous values recorded 5 minutes
14 before. Meloxicam 0.2 mg kg⁻¹ was administered IV to all dogs during recovery. The Short-Form of
15 the Glasgow Composite Pain Scale was used hourly for 8 hours post-QLB. Methadone 0.2 mg kg⁻¹
16 was administered IV when pain score was ≥ 6/24. A Chi-square test compared the number of dogs
17 requiring intraoperative rescue fentanyl. A Friedman test with a Dunn's *post hoc* was used to
18 evaluate the trend in postoperative pain scores within each group, and a Mann-Whitney test
19 compared scores between the groups at each time point; *p* < 0.05.

20 **Results** Significantly fewer dogs required intraoperative rescue fentanyl in group L_{QLB}, than in
21 group LV_{QLB}. No dog required postoperative rescue methadone and there were no significant
22 differences in pain scores.

23 **Conclusions and clinical relevance** Bilateral QLB performed with lateral approach reduced the
24 number of dogs requiring intraoperative rescue analgesia in comparison with the latero-ventral
25 approach. No differences were detected postoperatively, possibly due to the confounding effects of
26 methadone, dexmedetomidine, and meloxicam.

27

28 **Keywords** analgesia, dogs, inter-fascial plane block, laparoscopic surgery, ropivacaine, ultrasound-
29 guided locoregional anaesthesia.

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32 **Introduction**

33

34 The quadratus lumborum block (QLB) is an ultrasound (US)- guided inter-fascial plane (IFP) block
35 used to promote somatic and visceral analgesia to the abdomen (Garbin et al. 2020a, b; Alaman et
36 al. 2022; Viscasillas et al. 2021a, b; Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2022; Marchina-Gonçalves et al.
37 2023; Degani et al. 2023). It consists of the injection of local anaesthetic in the thoracolumbar
38 fascia surrounding the *quadratus lumborum* muscle, aiming to desensitise the ventral rami of the
39 spinal nerves (VRSNs) and the sympathetic trunk. Cadaver studies evaluated the spread of injectate
40 using different approaches (Garbin et al. 2020a, b; Alaman et al. 2022; Viscasillas et al. 2021a;
41 Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2022; Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2023). Garbin (2024) recently proposed
42 a nomenclature for their classification, based on the position of the needle tip during injection:
43 trans-muscular, when it is positioned between the *quadratus lumborum* and *psoas* muscles (Garbin
44 et al. 2020a, Viscasillas et al 2021a); dorsal, between the body of the first lumbar (L1) or second
45 lumbar (L2) vertebrae and the *quadratus lumborum* muscle (Alaman et al. 2022, Marchina-
46 Gonçalves et al. 2022); lateral, between the lateral aspect of the *quadratus lumborum muscle* and
47 the transverse process of L1 (Garbin et al. 2020b). Overall, the QLB resulted in a consistent
48 staining of the VRSNs between L1 and the third (L3) lumbar vertebrae, with maximal spreading
49 observed between the thirteenth thoracic (T13) and fourth lumbar (L4) vertebrae, as well as around
50 the sympathetic trunk between T13 and L3 (Garbin, 2024).

51 The QLB can be challenging to perform, especially when deep injection targets are selected, such as
52 with the approaches described by Garbin et al. (2020a), Alaman et al. (2021) and Marchina-
53 Gonçalves et al. (2022). At this level, the vicinity of aorta, caudal vena cava, and abdominal organs
54 can pose some difficulties in performing the block. Recently, a novel latero-ventral approach for the
55 QLB has been described, in which the injection site is more superficial and away from important
56 anatomical structures (Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2023). According to the authors of that study, this
57 approach might be safer and easier to perform. However, the latero-ventral approach failed to

58 produce a consistent spread of injectate towards the sympathetic trunk, suggesting that it might not
59 provide visceral pain relief to the abdomen (Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2023).

60

61 According to the results of the latest systematic reviews and metanalysis published in human
62 medicine, it remains unclear whether the injection position of the needle affects the analgesic
63 efficacy of the QLB (Kim et al. 2020; Uppal et al. 2020; Korgvee et al. 2021). Furthermore, the
64 exact mechanism of action of the IFP blocks is still the subject of debate. Several authors
65 hypothesised that the analgesic effect of these locoregional anaesthesia techniques could be
66 produced not only by direct blockade of peripheral nerve fibres, but also by the systemic effect
67 secondary to the vascular absorption of local anaesthetic (Lönqvist et al. 2019, Chin et al. 2021).
68 Evidence demonstrating the analgesic efficacy of the QLB in dogs is described in one case-series
69 and one randomised clinical trial (RCT) (Viscasillas et al. 2021b; Degani et al. 2023). In a previous
70 study, the lateral approach described by Garbin et al. (2024) was found to be effective in reducing
71 the perioperative opioid consumption when compared with a systemic fentanyl-based protocol, in
72 female dogs undergoing laparoscopic ovariectomy (Degani et al. 2023). To the best of our
73 knowledge, studies comparing the analgesic effect of different approaches for the QLB in dogs
74 undergoing abdominal surgery are lacking in literature.

75 This RCT aimed to compare the perioperative analgesic efficacy of a bilateral QLB performed
76 using two different approaches (lateral or latero-ventral) in female dogs undergoing laparoscopic
77 ovariectomy. We hypothesised that the lateral approach would result in fewer dogs requiring
78 perioperative rescue analgesics in comparison with the latero-ventral approach.

79

80 **Materials and Methods**

81

82 This blinded RCT was approved by the Scientific Ethics Committee of the University of Teramo,
83 protocol number 2727 with the date 29/01/2024. The Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials

84 (CONSORT) guidelines have been followed (Schulz et al. 2010). By signing the informed consent
85 document, owners agreed to enrol their dog in the study. A total of 15 female dogs with an
86 American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) status I, undergoing laparoscopic ovariectomy, were
87 enrolled. Prior to anaesthesia, each dog underwent a complete physical examination, including body
88 condition score (BCS) on a nine-point scale evaluation (Laflamme 1997), and routine blood tests
89 screenings (haematology and serum biochemistry). Exclusion criteria included age of less than 6
90 months, aggressive behaviour, skin infection at the site of the QLB, and administration of
91 corticosteroids or non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) within 24 hours prior to surgery.

92

93 Preoperative management

94

95 Pain assessment was performed using the Short Form of the Glasgow Composite Measure Pain
96 Scale (SF-GCMPS) (Reid et al. 2007) on admission, to obtain baseline values. Premedication
97 consisted of an intramuscular injection of methadone 0.2 mg kg^{-1} (Semfortan 10 mg mL^{-1} , Eurovet
98 Animal Health, Bladel, the Netherlands) and dexmedetomidine $3 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ (Dextroquillan 0.5 mg mL^{-1} ,
99 Dextroquillan; Fatro, Bologna, Italy). Approximately 15 minutes later, a 20-gauge intravenous (IV)
100 catheter was aseptically inserted into one of the cephalic veins and lactated Ringer's (RL) solution
101 at $5 \text{ mL kg}^{-1} \text{ hour}^{-1}$ was initiated. After 5 minutes of pre-oxygenation by mask (SurgiVet Pet
102 Oxygen Masks, Tri-Med Medical Supplies, Plymouth, UK), general anaesthesia was induced with
103 propofol (Propovet 10 mg mL^{-1} , Zoetis, Rome, Italy) IV to effect, until endotracheal intubation
104 (Rusch, The Sheridan, NC, USA) was feasible. The endotracheal tube was connected to an
105 anaesthetic workstation (Fabius, Dräger, Italy) via a circle breathing system (Flextube,
106 Intersurgical, UK), and anaesthesia was maintained with isoflurane (Isoflo, Zoetis, Rome, Italy)
107 delivered in oxygen–air mixture with a fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO_2) of 60%.

109 Immediately after induction, dogs were connected to a multiparametric monitor (M3046-M2,
110 Philips, Italy) and the following physiological variables were continuously monitored and recorded
111 every 5 minutes, during anaesthesia: heart rate (HR), peripheral arterial haemoglobin saturation
112 (SpO_2), respiratory rate (f_R), and systolic, mean, and diastolic arterial blood pressures (SAP, MAP,
113 DAP), measured invasively via a 20-gauge peripheral catheter placed in one of the dorsal pedal
114 arteries. The end-expiratory carbon dioxide concentration ($PE'CO_2$) and the end-tidal isoflurane
115 concentration ($FE'Iso$) were monitored with an infrared gas analyzer (M3016 Measurement Server
116 Extension, Philips, Milan, Italy), that was calibrated in accordance with the manufacturer
117 instructions, before each anaesthesia. The hair on the abdomen and flank of each dog was clipped
118 and the skin was aseptically prepared. All dogs received a bilateral QLB with 0.3 mL kg^{-1} of
119 ropivacaine (Ropivacaine hydrochloride 10 mg mL^{-1} , Galenica Senese, Italy) 0.5% per side (3 mg
120 kg^{-1} in total). Dogs were randomly allocated into two groups using block randomization
121 (<https://www.random.org>, accessed in October 2023): dogs in group L_{QLB} received the QLB
122 performed as described by Garbin et al. (2020b), while dogs in group LV_{QLB} received the block
123 described by Marchina-Gonçalves et al. (2023). All blocks were performed by the same anaesthetist
124 (M.D.), equally trained in both techniques. A 100 mm insulated needle for nerve blocks
125 (Stimuplex, B Braun, Milan, Italy) and a 14 MHz high-frequency linear transducer (L7HD3VET;
126 Clarius Mobile Health, BC, Canada), connected to a touchscreen tablet (iPad Air, fifth generation;
127 Apple, CA, USA) were used. The anaesthetist in charge of intraoperative monitoring (A.P.), as well
128 as the surgeon (A.Bi) were blinded to group allocation. Time to perform the block, considered as
129 the interval between the start of the scanning and the end of injection, as well as time from the
130 block to starting of surgery, were recorded.

131

132 Intraoperative management

133

134 Dogs were moved to the operating room and volume-controlled ventilation was initiated to maintain
135 PE'CO₂ between 35 and 45 mmHg (4.6-5.9 kPa). All dogs were operated on by the same surgeon,
136 using a modified Hasson technique (Bianchi et al. 2021). FE'Iso was initially set at 1.3% and
137 decreased by 0.05% every 5 minutes. Isoflurane was reduced if HR and MAP remained within 20%
138 of baseline (Mosing et al. 2010; Tayari et al. 2022), and the surgical anaesthetic plane was
139 maintained (absence of palpebral reflex and voluntary movements, and mild jaw tone) (Grubb et al.
140 2020). Animals were positioned in dorsal recumbency, and a Trendelenburg position was applied.
141 Pneumoperitoneum was obtained by mechanical insufflation between 8 and 10 mmHg. During
142 surgery, dogs were laterally tilted to improve the visualisation of the ovaries. A 5-minute interval in
143 the surgical procedure followed, to ensure an eventual haemodynamic stabilisation and not to
144 interfere with the assessment of nociception. A 20% increase in HR and/or MAP from the previous
145 value recorded 5 minutes before was considered to be a sign of nociception and a bolus of 3 µg kg⁻¹
146 of fentanyl was administered IV. In case the variables were not restored within 5 minutes, fentanyl
147 infusion was started at an increasing rate between 2 and 10 µg kg⁻¹ hour⁻¹ until return to pre-
148 nociception values. The time of administration of fentanyl, if necessary, and the surgical phase
149 during which nociception was detected, were recorded. The following surgical phases of
150 laparoscopic ovariectomy were considered: P₁, skin incision and first port insertion; P₂, insufflation
151 of the abdomen; P₃, second port insertion; P₄, traction and cauterization of the first ovary; P₅,
152 traction and cauterization of the second ovary; P₆, deflation of pneumoperitoneum and extraction of
153 the trocars; P₇, suturing of the skin. In case of hypotension (MAP < 60 mmHg),
154 FE'Iso was reduced by 0.1%, every minute. If hypotension persisted despite FE'Iso of 0.8%, a bolus
155 of 10 mL kg⁻¹ of lactate Ringer's solution was administered over 10 minutes. If hypotension
156 persisted, noradrenaline (Noradrenaline sulfate, 2 mg mL⁻¹, Galenica Senese, Italy) infusion was
157 started at 0.05 µg kg⁻¹ minute⁻¹ and increased by 0.05 µg kg⁻¹ minute⁻¹ every 5 minutes until MAP ≥
158 60 mmHg. In presence of bradycardia (HR < 60 beats minute⁻¹) causing concurrent hypotension,
159 atropine 20 µg kg⁻¹ (Atropine sulfate 1 mg mL⁻¹, ATI, Italy) was administered IV. At the end of

160 surgery, administration of isoflurane was interrupted, and mechanical ventilation was stopped once
161 the dog returned to spontaneous breathing. Each animal was then moved to the recovery room and
162 tracheal extubation was performed when the swallowing reflex was restored. Duration of
163 anaesthesia and surgery were recorded. Meloxicam 0.2 mg kg⁻¹ (Meloxidolor 5 mg mL⁻¹; Le Vet
164 Beheer, the Netherlands) was administered IV during recovery to all dogs.

165

166 Postoperative management

167

168 An hour after extubation, pain assessment was started by a third investigator blinded to the group
169 allocation (L.D.M), using the SF-GCMPS. Evaluations were performed every hour up to 8 hours
170 starting from the QLB execution. In case of a score $\geq 6/24$, methadone 0.2 mg kg⁻¹ was
171 administered IV, and the postoperative pain monitoring for the purposes of this study was
172 interrupted. Time from the block to the first postoperative methadone administration, if necessary,
173 was recorded and compared between groups.

174

175 **Statistical Analysis**

176

177 The number of dogs enrolled in the study was based on the incidence of rescue analgesia
178 administration, using an online sample size calculator (ClinCalc.com). Considering an incidence of
179 rescue analgesia of 10% in group L_{QLB} (Viscasillas et al. 2021b) and a clinically significant
180 difference of a 70% between the two groups, the minimum number of animals per group was seven.
181 This calculation utilised an α of 0.05 and a power of 80%.

182 Data were analysed for distribution with a D'Agostino-Pearson test. Data were expressed as either
183 mean and standard deviation, or median and range for BCS and SF-GCMPS. A Student's T-test was
184 used to compare age, weight, duration of anaesthesia and surgery, and time from the block to
185 starting of surgery between groups. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) test for repeated data was

186 used to evaluate the trend within each group for HR, f_R , SAP, MAP, and FE' Iso. BCS was compared
187 between groups using a Mann-Whitney test. A Chi-square test was used to compare the number of
188 dogs requiring rescue fentanyl and vasoactive drugs between groups. A Friedman test with a
189 Dunn's *post hoc* was used to evaluate the trend in postoperative pain scores within each group,
190 while a Mann-Whitney test compared the scores between the two groups at each time point.
191 Statistical difference was considered significant for $p < 0.05$. Prism Version 6.0 (GraphPad
192 Software Inc., CA, USA) was used to analyse data.

193

194 **Results**

195

196 A total of 15 dogs were enrolled but 14 concluded the study uneventfully: one dog from group
197 LV_{QLB} was excluded because of conversion of the surgery into a laparotomic ovariectomy, due to
198 intraoperative haemorrhage. No significant statistical differences were found regarding
199 demographic data, duration of anaesthesia, and duration of surgery (Table 1). BCS was 5/9 (3–5) in
200 group L_{QLB} and 5.5/9 (4–8) in group LV_{QLB}. Time to perform the block was 170 ± 39 seconds in
201 group L_{QLB} and 165 ± 44 seconds in group LV_{QLB}, without statistically significant difference.
202 The intraoperative values of HR, MAP [Figs. 1(a), (b)], f_R , FE' Iso (Fig. 2) did not differ
203 significantly between the two groups. Bradycardia was recorded in 1/7 dogs in group LV_{QLB} which
204 was corrected with one bolus of $20 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ of atropine administered IV. No hypotension was
205 recorded in dogs included in this study.

206

207 A significant difference between groups ($p = 0.02$) was detected regarding the number of dogs
208 requiring at least one bolus of rescue fentanyl, during the intraoperative period. One bolus of
209 fentanyl was administered to 2/7 dogs in group L_{QLB} and in 7/7 dogs in group LV_{QLB}. No dogs in
210 group L_{QLB} and LV_{QLB} required fentanyl infusion. Data regarding the distribution of intraoperative
211 rescue fentanyl administration in the two groups are summarised in the Table 2. No dogs required

212 rescue methadone during the 8 hours after the QLB was performed, and no differences were found
213 regarding postoperative pain scores between the two groups, and within each group at the different
214 time points (Fig. 3).

215

216 **Discussion**

217

218 In this study, a significantly smaller number of dogs receiving a QLB performed with the lateral
219 approach (Garbin et al. 2020b) required rescue analgesia during surgery, compared with those
220 receiving the latero-ventral approach (Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2023). Therefore, our initial
221 hypothesis was confirmed.

222

223 Surgical manipulation of the ovaries produced nociception in all dogs in group LV_{QLB}, and in none
224 of dogs in group L_{QLB}. The QLB performed with latero-ventral approach did not produce a
225 substantial spread of injectate to sympathetic trunk spread (Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2023),
226 responsible for the visceral innervation of the abdomen, while this occurred for the lateral approach
227 (Garbin et al. 2020b). We hypothesized that this difference in outcome was caused by the
228 thoracolumbar fascia surrounding the *quadratus lumborum* muscle, which might have prevented the
229 spread of solution towards the sympathetic trunk. Positioning the needle tip latero-ventrally to the
230 *quadratus lumborum* muscle, below the aponeurosis of the *transversus abdominis* muscle, does not
231 mean that the thoracolumbar fascia has been perforated. The results of our study suggest that the
232 direct blockade of nerves fibres from the sympathetic trunk could be involved in the abdominal
233 visceral analgesic effect of the QLB in dogs. However, the mechanism of action of this IFP block is
234 still unclear (Lönnqvist et al. 2019, Chin et al. 2021).

235

236 In the present study, 2/14 dogs (14.2%) required intraoperative rescue analgesia during P₁, P₂ and
237 P₃. In a previous RCT, 9/16 dogs (56.2%) receiving the same block experienced nociception during

238 the same surgery phases (Degani et al. 2023). This discrepancy can be attributable to the different
239 premedication protocol used in these studies (methadone 0.2 mg kg⁻¹ and dexmedetomidine 3 µg kg⁻¹
240 ¹ IM *versus* fentanyl 5 µg kg⁻¹ IV). The inclusion of an opioid and an α₂-adrenoceptor agonist in this
241 study aimed to replicate clinical practice. Combinations of analgesics and sedatives drugs are often
242 administered in premedication, in clinical settings.

243 The reported injectate volume for the QLB ranges between 0.3–0.6 mL kg⁻¹ per side (Garbin et al.
244 2020a, b; Alaman et al. 2022; Viscasillas et al. 2021b; Marchina-Gonçalves et al. 2022; Marchina-
245 Gonçalves et al. 2023). None of the approaches previously described produced a consistent cranial
246 dispersion of injectate towards the VRSNs between T9 and T13, regardless of the volume used.
247 Taking into account these findings, we decided to use 0.3 mL kg⁻¹ to avoid excessive dilution of the
248 ropivacaine concentration, which could have affected the quality and duration of the block (Tayari
249 et al. 2017; Degani et al. 2023).

250
251 The QLB performed with the latero-ventral approach could be considered as a variation of the
252 transversus abdominis plane (TAP) block, providing similar analgesic effect. Our results, compared
253 with those from previous studies, where the TAP block was evaluated in dogs submitted to
254 laparoscopic ovariectomy (Paolini et al. 2022; Espadas-González et al. 2022), seem to corroborate
255 this hypothesis. Despite controversy in literature regarding the efficacy of the TAP block on
256 visceral pain (Freitag et al. 2018; Paolini et al. 2022; Espadas-González et al. 2022), this technique
257 has been demonstrated in cadaver studies to stain only the VRSNs and their branches, involved in
258 the innervation of the abdominal wall (Castañeda-Herrera et al. 2017; Drozdzyńska et al. 2017;
259 Romano et al. 2021). Further RCTs are necessary, to compare the analgesic effect of QL and TAP
260 blocks in dogs undergoing abdominal surgery.

261

262 The results regarding the postoperative period in this study are consistent with those from previous
263 research (Degani et al. 2023), in which the time to the first postoperative methadone administration

264 in dogs receiving the QLB with ropivacaine 0.5% was 10.2 ± 2.5 hours, even without any anti-
265 inflammatory drug administration. In that study, both approaches resulted in an opioid-free
266 postoperative period for at least 8 hours, despite differences were found in the intraoperative period
267 in terms of rescue fentanyl administered (Degani et al. 2023). However, it is possible that the
268 administration of meloxicam could have masked differences in postoperative analgesic effect
269 between the two approaches used in this study.

270 Studies in human medicine assessed whether there is indeed a difference in postoperative analgesic
271 effect related to the approach used to perform the QLB in humans. Kim et al. (2020) found that
272 targeting a more superficial injection point would result in lower postoperative pain scores. On the
273 other hand, evidence from Uppal et al. (2020) suggested that the trans-muscular approach might be
274 more effective compared with the posterior approach. However, Korgvee et al. (2021) found no
275 differences in their systematic review. To our knowledge, this study is the first in comparing the
276 analgesic effects of different QLB approaches in dogs undergoing abdominal surgery. Further
277 studies are thus needed to determine and compare the analgesic effect of different approaches for
278 the QLB in the canine species.

279
280 Although no statistically significant differences were found regarding intraoperative physiological
281 variables monitored during anaesthesia, some data are worthy of discussion. Even though no
282 differences in HR between groups, MAP in dogs in group LV_{QLB} was slightly lower than in those in
283 group L_{QLB} [Fig 1(b)]. In the authors' opinion, lower MAP was more likely to occur in group
284 LV_{QLB}, because a higher number of dogs required rescue fentanyl in this group (Table 2). Opioids
285 can produce enhancement of the parasympathetic tone and cause changes in cardiac output,
286 systemic vascular resistance, and blood pressure (Keating et al. 2013). However, it is important to
287 highlight that this study was not sufficiently powered to detect differences in these variables.

288

289 The present study has several limitations. Firstly, a small sample of dogs was included in this RCT.
290 Therefore, studies with larger numbers of animals are needed to confirm these results. Secondly,
291 dogs included in this study received a premedication consisting of an opioid and an α_2 -adrenoceptor
292 agonist, as well as a NSAID during recovery. It is quite likely the administration of these drugs
293 influenced the analgesic effect of the QLB and masked any postoperative difference between the
294 two approaches evaluated in this study. Furthermore, the possibility to assess postoperative pain for
295 8 hours after the QLB execution did not allow us to measure the exact duration of the postoperative
296 analgesic effect of the block and detect any difference between the two approaches. However,
297 postoperative hospitalisation is not always considered essential after laparoscopic ovariectomy
298 (Wormser & Runge, 2016). In our institutions, for instance, dogs are usually discharged between 8
299 and 12 hours after surgery. Finally, the same anaesthetist performed all blocks, possibly biasing the
300 results. As US-guided locoregional anaesthesia techniques are considered operator-dependent, it is
301 not possible to exclude that different results could have been obtained by involving multiple
302 operators with different levels of experience.

303

304 **Conclusions**

305

306 In conclusion, the QLB performed with the lateral approach is a valuable adjunct to a multimodal
307 analgesic protocol for dogs undergoing laparoscopic ovariectomy, as it reduces the need for
308 intraoperative rescue analgesia. Further research is needed to confirm the results of this study.

309

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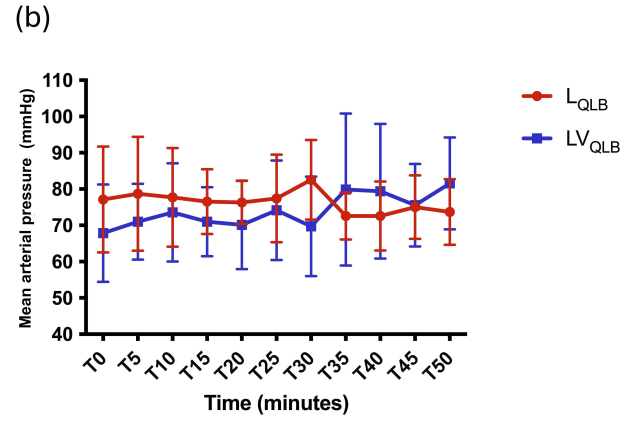
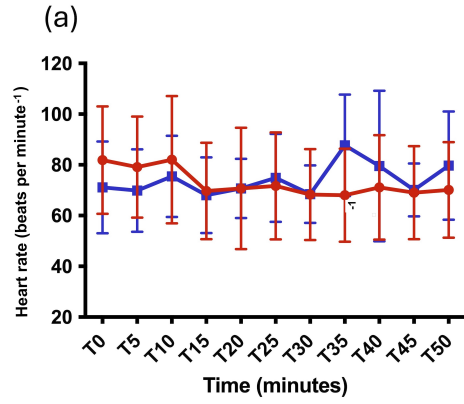
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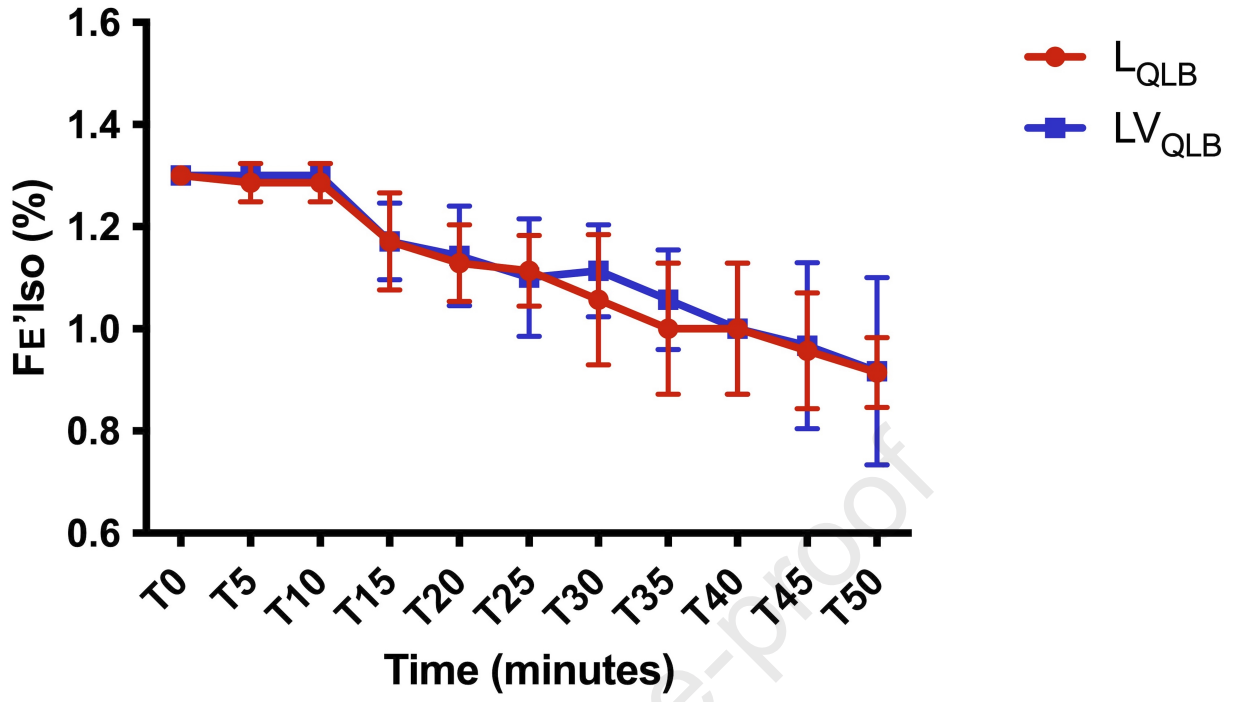
Table 1 Demographic data, duration of anaesthesia and surgery (minutes) and time from the block to the start of surgery (minutes) measured in the 14 dogs included in the study ($n = 7$ per group). L_{QLB}, lateral quadratus lumborum block; LV_{QLB}, latero-ventral quadratus lumborum block. Results are presented as mean and standard deviation.

Group	Age (months)	Weight (kg)	Duration anaesthesia (minutes)	Duration surgery (minutes)	Time from block to the starting of surgery (minutes)
L_{QLB}	19 ± 5	23 ± 8	108 ± 29	59 ± 24	27 ± 8
LV_{QLB}	21 ± 6	20 ± 7	112 ± 31	64 ± 24	27 ± 6

Table 2: Distribution of intraoperative rescue fentanyl boluses ($3 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$), during specific surgery phases in the two groups of dogs ($n = 7$ per group) receiving the quadratus lumborum block., either as a lateral quadratus lumborum block (L_{QLB}); or a latero-ventral quadratus lumborum block (LV_{QLB}); P₁, skin incision and first port insertion ; P₂, insufflation of the abdomen; P₃, second port insertion; P₄, traction and cauterization of the first ovary; P₅, traction and cauterization of the second ovary; P₆, deflation of pneumoperitoneum and extraction of the trocars; P₇, suturing the skin.

Group	Dog	Distribution of intraoperative rescue fentanyl boluses						
		P ₁	P ₂	P ₃	P ₄	P ₅	P ₆	P ₇
L_{QLB}	1		X					
	2							
	3		X					
	4							
	5							
	6							
	7							
LV_{QLB}	1				X	X		
	2					X		
	3				X	X		
	4					X		
	5					X		
	6				X			
	7						X	





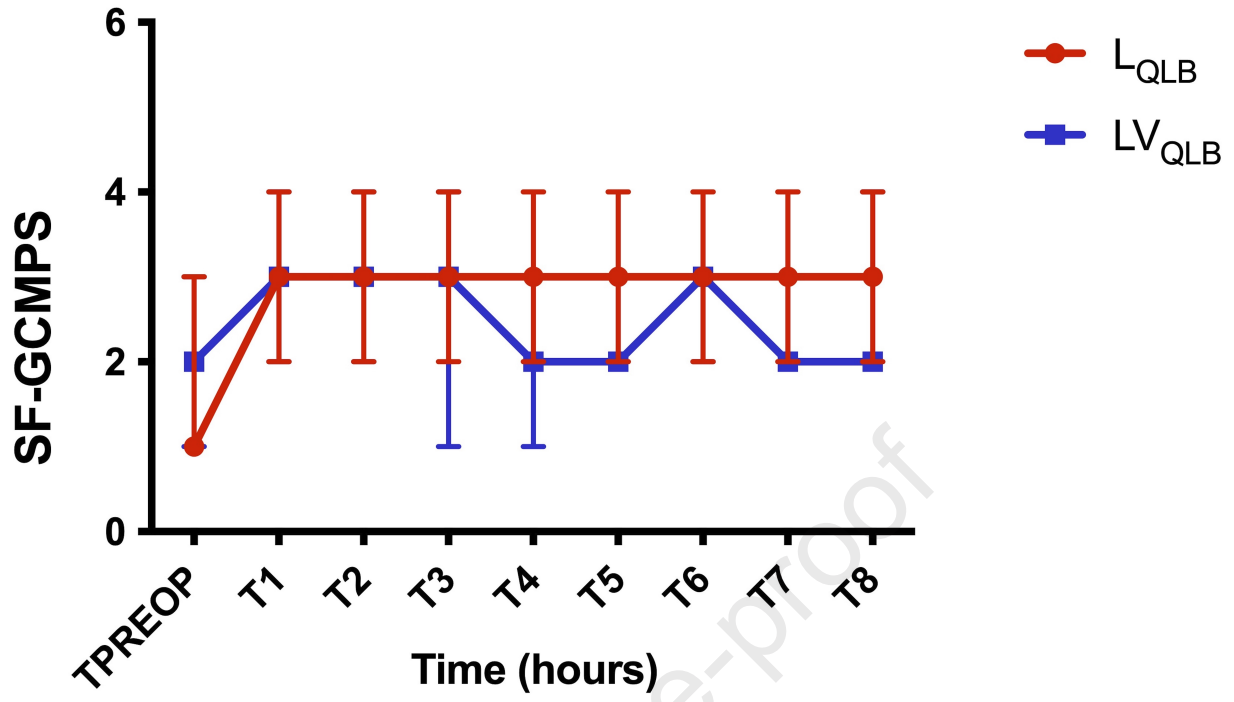


Figure legends

Figure 1 (a), Intraoperative heart rate, (beats minute⁻¹); **(b)**, intraoperative mean arterial blood pressure (mmHg) measured in the 15 dogs enrolled in the study. Dogs were randomly allocated to one of two groups: L_{QLB}, receiving the lateral quadratus lumborum block (QLB); group LV_{QLB}, receiving the latero-ventral QLB. Data are shown as mean and standard deviation.

Figure 2 Intraoperative end-tidal concentration of isoflurane (FE'Iso) measured in the 15 dogs enrolled in the study. Dogs were randomly allocated to one of two groups: L_{QLB}, receiving the lateral quadratus lumborum block (QLB); group LV_{QLB}, receiving the latero-ventral QLB. Data are shown as mean and standard deviation.

Figure 3 Preoperative (Tpreop) and postoperative pain scores using the short-form Glasgow Composite Measure Pain Scale (SF-GCMPS) at 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 hours after block execution in the 15 dogs enrolled in the study. Dogs were randomly allocated to one of two groups: L_{QLB}, receiving the lateral quadratus lumborum block (QLB); group LV_{QLB}, receiving the latero-ventral QLB. Data are shown as median and range.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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