

Lumbar Spinal Stenosis

Diagnosis/Condition:	Spinal stenosis, Lumbar region Central lumbar stenosis, Lumbar Lateral Recess Stenosis
Discipline:	DC, ND
ICD-10 Codes:	M48.06
Origination Date:	2008
Review/Revised Date:	01/2024
Next Review Date:	01/2026

The general term “spinal stenosis” can be applied to a variety of pathologic conditions that can constrict the central spinal canal, the lateral recess, or the intervertebral foramen. Lumbar Central Stenosis (LCS) is narrowing of the central spinal canal that may be due to a variety of conditions and can involve the spinal cord (cauda equine). In contrast, Lumbar Lateral Recess stenosis (LLRS) is narrowing and possible nerve entrapment that occurs in the lateral aspects of the spinal canal. typically involves an individual nerve root. Causes of stenosis include congenital¹ (e.g. achondroplasia, ossification of the posterior longitudinal ligament (OPLL), Paget’s, or idiopathic) and acquired (e.g. DISH, degenerative). Of these, degenerative change is the most common. Compression can be caused by one or more of three mechanisms: disc protrusion or herniation, osteophytic or ligamentous overgrowth into the spinal canal or the foramina, and spondylolisthesis or some combination of these. Lumbar spinal stenosis (LSS) is particularly common in the 5th and 6th decade of life although it occurs occasionally in younger patients. An estimated 1.2 million individuals in the United States (U.S.) experience back or leg pain from stenosis. LSS is the most common cause of lumbar spine surgery in patients >60 years old.^{2,3}

Degenerative lumbar spinal stenosis describes a condition in which there is diminished space available for the neural and vascular elements in the lumbar spine secondary to degenerative changes in the spinal canal. When symptomatic, this causes a variable clinical syndrome of gluteal and/or lower extremity pain and/or fatigue which may occur with or without back pain.

Symptoms of LSS can range from none to severely disabling and the natural history of the condition is variable. Johnson, et. al. followed 32 untreated lumbar stenosis patients over 4 years and found 75% did not change, 10% worsened and 15% improved.⁴ Treatments vary from “watchful waiting” to aggressive spinal surgery.^{5,6} Rates of surgery in the Medicare population are increasing and there is evidence of 12-fold geographic variation in decision-making surrounding, types of surgery (e.g. decompression vs. fusion) chosen, and rates of surgery across the U.S. While surgery appears to produce better results in the short term, long-term results are similar among surgical and non-surgical patients. Conclusions from an 8-10 year follow up study “support a shared decision-making approach among physicians and patients when considering treatment options for lumbar spinal stenosis.”⁷ A Cochrane Collaboration

review in 2016 concluded that "... it should be noted that the rate of side effects ranged from 10% to 24% in surgical cases, and no side effects were reported for any conservative treatment. These findings suggest that clinicians should be very careful in informing patients about possible treatment options, especially given that conservative treatment options have resulted in no reported side effects."⁸ Another study (lacking a control group) showed little difference in physical function between patients who received surgical and non-surgical therapies.⁹

Subjective Findings and History

- Symptoms of pseudoclaudication (radiation of nerve pain down legs mimicking sensation of true claudication from peripheral vascular disease) are associated primarily with central lumbar stenosis. Neurogenic claudication has a predictive value of about 96% for central stenosis.
 - Pain improved with forward bending or sitting.
 - Pain worse with extended walking.
- Patients with purely lateral recess stenosis.
 - Usually do not develop symptoms of neurogenic claudication.
 - Typically have radicular symptoms in a specific dermatomal pattern.
 - Often have pain at rest, at night, and with the Valsalva maneuver.
 - Tend to be younger (mean age 41 years) than patients with central canal stenosis (mean age 65 years).
 - Variable degrees of mechanical low back pain are very common.
- Usually, > 60 years of age.
- Symptoms can be classified as mild, moderate, or severe.
- Pain may be felt in the low back, legs, or buttocks.
- The legs may feel fatigued, cramping or burning.
- Patients commonly walk with a broad-based "simian" gait; hunched over with the hips and knees bent, supported on a walker or shopping cart. Symptoms worsened or relieved on posture dependency could be evident of neurogenic claudication.
- Patients may experience frequent falling, clumsiness, numbness, tingling, and hot or cold feelings in the legs.
- Symptoms may be unilateral or bilateral, but not usually symmetrical.
- Nocturnal leg cramps are common in LCS patients.¹⁰

The presence of symptomatic LSS may increase the risk of spondylotic cervical cord compression.¹¹

Risk factor:¹²

- Age >40 years.
- Manual labor.
- Previous back surgery.
- Family history of back pain.

Objective Findings

- Diagnostic criteria include:
 - Loss of vibratory sensation in the lower extremities
 - Changes in static balance.¹³
 - A sensory or motor deficit occurs in about half of patients with symptomatic lumbar central stenosis; the specificity of this finding is about 80%. The deficit may occur bilaterally and in a polyradicular pattern.
 - Symptoms aggravated by standing and extension and often relieved with lumbar flexion.
 - Motor findings are typically mild, and functionally limiting weakness is uncommon.
 - The Romberg maneuver may reveal a wide-based gait and unsteadiness due to involvement of proprioceptive fibers in the posterior columns.
 - Patients may have muscle spasms and trigger points in the glutei and piriformis muscles.
 - There are no pathognomonic signs in LLRS.
 - Variable straight-leg tension signs.
 - Diminished reflexes in specific root distributions.
 - Assess for intersegmental and SIJ (sacroiliac joint) dysfunction.
 - Gait and lumbar extension loading tests are frequently used for assessment.¹⁴

Imaging

- Plain radiographs including dynamic flexion and extension studies allow the intervertebral foramen to be depicted, but findings must be correlated with the history and examination findings because false positives on x-ray are common.
- Plain radiographs are not routinely needed. Radiographs may show spondylolisthesis, the extent of disk-space narrowing, end-plate sclerosis, facet-joint hypertrophy, and foraminal osteophytes, suggesting foraminal stenosis. Clinical symptoms and plain radiographs results may not correlate.^{15,16}
- Electromyogram (EMG) or nerve conduction studies can identify damage to or irritation of the nerves and help determine location of nerve involvement.
- CT imaging allows better detection of bony encroachment on the lateral recess.
- Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) or computed tomography (CT) may confirm the presence of spinal stenosis, but up to 20% of patients > 60 years have positive imaging findings with no symptoms or signs of stenosis.¹⁷ The findings most suggestive of stenosis on MRI include a foramen of diminished size and a paucity of perineural fat surrounding the nerve root on T1-weighted images. Clinical symptoms and imaging results may not correlate.^{18,19}
- There is very little evidence that correlates the degree of narrowing of the lumbar spine with the presence or severity of the signs, symptoms, or conditions associated with stenosis.^{20,21}

Assessment

History and physical examination provide some evidence to make a presumptive diagnosis of symptomatic LSS but there is no single objective standard for identifying the condition. Most findings have modest discriminating ability, and positive imaging findings with symptoms is loosely associated.²²

Diagnosis and treatment decisions are often complex due to heterogeneity and lack of standard criteria for diagnosis. Certainly, ruling out the “**red flags**” for conditions such as cauda equina syndrome is crucial. In extreme cases, lumbar stenosis can cause this syndrome, which is characterized by neuromuscular dysfunction, and may result in permanent nerve damage. Cauda equina syndrome is a true surgical emergency and suspicion should be acted on immediately.

Symptoms of LSS overlap with several other conditions and the differential for LSS includes vascular claudication, mechanical and neurological causes of low back and lower extremity pain, peripheral neuropathies, osteoarthritis of the spine or hip, and trochanteric bursitis. Assess relative and absolute contraindications to spinal manipulation (e.g. spondylosis, advanced degenerative joint/disc disease (DJD/DDD)).

Plan

Most guidelines and treatment recommendations suggest a trial of non-surgical treatment before consideration of surgery. Due to the lack of clear diagnostic and treatment guidelines, patients and health care providers should engage in shared decision-making conversations that include full disclosure of evidence involving surgical and nonsurgical treatments for LSS. Symptomatic relief may include reducing nerve pain and psychosocial symptoms such as depression and isolation.²³ No clear benefits were observed with surgery versus non-surgical treatment.²⁴

Passive Care:

- Motivational interviewing.^{25,26}
- Steroid and lidocaine injections in the lumbar spine (epidural)^{27,28} to decrease inflammation and swelling.
- Pulsed radiofrequency (PRF).²⁹
- Manual therapy/individualized exercise consisting of spinal mobilization, stretches, and strength training.³⁰
- Spinal cord stimulation.³¹
- Acupuncture.^{32,33}
- Bilateral facet joint steroid injections with botulinum for severe cases of LSS was superior to transforaminal epidural steroid injections.³⁴
- GOLDIC therapy.³⁵
- Medications including gabapentin (Neurontin) and pregabalin (Lyrica).
- Pain medications, including opioids, are frequently prescribed for acute use. There are obvious concerns with long term use, and long term use may be counterproductive.

- A small RCT (n=54) suggests that a TCM herbal formula (Shao Yao Gan Cao Tang) may be effective against muscle cramps associated with CLS.³⁶
- Anti-inflammatory botanicals have shown benefit in other spinal and joint problems and may be used as supportive therapy.³⁷ Herbs such as willow bark tea (*Salix alba*), and topical wintergreen (*Gaultheria* spp) have anodyne effects. Nervine herbs such as hops (*humulus* spp), valerian, kava kava, and lavender can all be useful in reducing pain and promoting sleep in painful conditions.
- Multimodal program (soft tissue and neural mobilization, chiropractic spinal manipulation, lumbar flexion-distraction, and muscle stretching), structured home-based exercises, physiotherapy interventions, and instruction of self-management strategies.^{38,39,40,41}

Active Care:

- Exercises, e.g. “cat and camel”, “nerve flossing”.
- Tobacco cessation.⁴²
- Spinal stabilization and/or mobilization exercises, as necessary.
- Lifestyle modifications (diet, exercise, pedometer use, education).^{43,44}

Outcome Assessment Tools (OATs):

- Oswestry Disability Index (ODI). Available at our website www.chpgroup.com, behind the Provider Log-in under Clinical Tools and at: http://www.rehab.msu.edu/files/docs/Oswestry_Low_Back_Disability.pdf
- Visual Analog Scale (VAS). Quadruple VAS. Available at our website www.chpgroup.com, behind the Provider Log-in under Clinical Tools and at: http://www.chiro.org/LINKS/OUTCOME/Quadruple_VAS.pdf
- Short Form 12 (SF-12). Available at: <https://www.hss.edu/physician-files/huang/SF12-RCH.pdf>
- Core Outcome Measures Index (COMI). Available at: http://www.eurospine.org/cm_data/SSE_lowback_COMI_E.pdf
- Patient Specific Functional Scale. Available at: <http://www.aptsonc.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/11/Patient-Specific-Functional-Scale.pdf>
- Measure Yourself Medical Outcome Profile (MYMOP2). Available at our website www.chpgroup.com, behind the Provider Log-in under Clinical Tools and at: <https://doctormoroz.files.wordpress.com/2010/05/mymop-initial-profile.pdf>

Referral Criteria

- Failure to respond to treatment.
- Worsening neurological signs and symptoms, including loss of bowel and bladder control and loss of sexual function (cauda equina syndrome).

Resources for Clinicians

Lurie J, Tomkins-lane C. Management of lumbar spinal stenosis. *BMJ*. 2016;352:h6234.

Watters WC, Baisden J, Gilbert TJ, et al. Degenerative lumbar spinal stenosis: an evidence-based clinical guideline for the diagnosis and treatment of degenerative lumbar spinal stenosis. *Spine J*. 2008;8(2):305-10.

Resources for Patients

Medline Plus

<http://www.nlm.nih.gov/medlineplus/spinalstenosis.html>

<https://www.spine.org/Portals/o/assets/downloads/ResearchClinicalCare/Guidelines/LumbarStenosis.pdf>

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