

1     **Long-Term Outcome Following Lateral Foraminotomy as Treatment for Canine**  
2                                     **Degenerative Lumbosacral Stenosis**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Lateral foraminotomy has been described as an effective surgical treatment for foraminal  
22 stenosis in the treatment of degenerative Lumbosacral Stenosis (DLSS) in dogs. Clinical  
23 records were reviewed from 45 dogs which had undergone lateral foraminotomy at the  
24 lumbosacral junction either alone or in combination with decompressive midline dorsal  
25 laminectomy. Short-term outcome at 6 weeks was assessed by the surgeon to be good  
26 (11.1%) or excellent (88.9%) in all 45 cases. Long-term outcome beyond 6 months for  
27 lumbosacral syndrome was assessed by the owner as excellent in all 34 cases for which  
28 follow up was available despite recurrence in 5 cases. Recurrence of clinical signs was  
29 not related to re-establishment of foraminal compression at the surgical site when  
30 assessed on repeat MRI imaging and was managed by either contralateral foraminotomy  
31 in 1 case or conservative management with excellent response.

32 This study confirms lateral foraminotomy as an effective procedure in the management  
33 of DLSS affected dogs suffering from foraminal stenosis and demonstrates that initial  
34 good short-term results are maintained long-term despite some treatable recurrences.  
35 Lateral foraminotomy is an effective procedure when used appropriately in DLSS with  
36 foraminal stenosis either alone or in combination with midline dorsal laminectomy.

37

38

## 39 **Introduction**

40 Degenerative Lumbosacral Stenosis (DLSS) is an acquired multifactorial condition  
41 involving various osseous and soft-tissue alterations, alongside suspected instability of  
42 the L7-S1 intervertebral disc. Clinical signs of neurological dysfunction are thought to  
43 arise from progressive compression or inflammation of the cauda equina and L7 nerves,  
44 secondary to stenosis of the vertebral canal and or intervertebral foramina (De Risio and  
45 others 2001, Gödde and Steffen 2007, Jeffery and others 2014). Diagnosis of DLSS can  
46 be challenging as it relies on the exclusion of orthopaedic, muscular and neuromuscular  
47 conditions; a compatible clinical history and advanced imaging investigations (Janssens  
48 and others 2000, De Risio and others 2001, Suwankong and others 2008, Meij and  
49 Bergknut 2010, Jeffery and others 2014).

50 Several non-surgical treatment modalities have been reported in DLSS including  
51 conservative management (Denny and others 1982, Ness 1994, De Decker and others  
52 2014) or epidural steroid injection (Janssens and others 2009). Although improvement of  
53 clinical signs was described in these studies, more favourable response rates are reported  
54 following surgical treatment, with improvement in 67% to 97% of cases (Danielsson and  
55 Sjöström 1999, Janssens and others 2000, Jones and others 2000, De Risio and others  
56 2001, Linn and others 2003, Gödde and Steffen 2007, Suwankong and others 2008,  
57 Hankin and others 2012, Smolders and others 2012, Golini and others 2014). Surgical  
58 techniques applied to DLSS are either based on stabilisation of the articular components  
59 to reduce dynamic pathology (Slocum and Devine 1986, Méheust 2000, Hankin and  
60 others 2012, Smolders and others 2012, Golini and others 2014), or decompression of  
61 neural structures (Danielsson and Sjöström 1999, Jones and others 2000, De Risio and  
62 others 2001, Linn and others 2003, Janssens and others 2000, Suwankong and others  
63 2008, Rapp and others 2017). Decompression has mainly focussed on dorsal vertebral

64 canal decompression via dorsal laminectomy with or without concurrent discectomy.

65 Foraminal stenosis is a frequent finding in DLSS being reported in 68-84% of cases  
66 (Mayhew and others 2002, Rapp and others 2017). Identification of foraminal stenosis on  
67 radiographs has been described as a negative prognostic factor following surgery (Linn  
68 and others 2003), however this was not confirmed in advanced imaging studies with CT  
69 or MRI (Jones and others 2000, Mayhew and others 2002). Traditionally decompression  
70 of the intervertebral foramina has been performed alongside L7-S1 dorsal laminectomy,  
71 through both dorsal and medial approaches, by means of extending the laminectomy  
72 (Danielsson and Sjöström 1999, Jones and others 2000, De Risio and others 2001, Linn  
73 and others 2003, Suwankong and others 2008). However, extension of the laminectomy  
74 results in limited access to lateralised foraminal compressions, increased risk of articular  
75 facet fractures, and increased instability of the lumbosacral joint (Moens and Runyon  
76 2002, Gödde and Steffen 2007, Jeffery and others 2014, Rapp and others 2017).

77 Alternative surgical approaches to the L7-S1 intervertebral foramina have been reported.  
78 Endoscopy-assisted foraminotomy was performed through a dorsal mini-laminectomy  
79 (Wood and others 2004) in clinically normal dogs and a cadaver study tested the  
80 feasibility of a transiliac approach to the foramen (Carozzo and others 2008). In 2007,  
81 Gödde and Steffen described a lateral approach to foraminotomy that could be performed  
82 bilaterally as a stand-alone procedure or in combination with a partial dorsal laminectomy  
83 of L7-S1. They reported 20 dogs, with only mild intra-operative complications and  
84 subsequent clinical improvement in 95% of cases with no recurrence of clinical signs  
85 (Gödde and Steffen 2007), however no long-term follow up studies have been reported.

86

87 This retrospective case series reviews the short and long-term outcome in a larger cohort

88 of patients who underwent lateral foraminotomy in the treatment of lumbosacral  
89 foraminal stenosis.

90

## 91 **Material and Methods**

### 92 **Animals**

93 Medical records of dogs undergoing lateral lumbosacral foraminotomy presented to the  
94 neurology service at Dovecote Veterinary Hospital between May 2012 and January 2017  
95 were reviewed. Cases were included when presented with clinical signs compatible with  
96 a lumbosacral neurolocalisation, when magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) evidence of  
97 foraminal stenosis was found, and unilateral or bilateral foraminotomy was performed  
98 either alone or in combination with midline dorsal laminectomy. Dogs were excluded if  
99 there was evidence of a concomitant relevant orthopaedic, neoplastic or inflammatory  
100 disease. Further to this, all cases in which a herniated disc extrusion was identified were  
101 excluded, as this is a clinically distinct pathology from DLSS.

102 Signalment and clinical information on presentation was recorded, including any previous  
103 treatment for DLSS. Dogs were classified as pet dogs or working dogs, a category which  
104 included agility dogs. Clinical signs consistent with a lumbosacral neurolocalisation  
105 consisted of lumbosacral pain, reluctance to climb stairs, jump or rise from sitting,  
106 lameness, and neurologic deficits (i.e. reduced flexor withdrawal, proprioceptive deficits,  
107 nerve root signature/toe touching, tail paresis, absent perineal reflex).

108 Dogs were further classified into pre-surgical groups according to severity of clinical and  
109 neurological signs (Table 1) using a modified scoring system (Danielsson and Sjöström  
110 1999, Gödde and Steffen 2007). The nomenclature “lateral foraminotomy” was used  
111 throughout this study, referring to the lateral foraminotomy approach and technique

112 described elsewhere (Gödde and Steffen 2007).

### 113 **Advanced Imaging**

114 All dogs underwent MRI under general anaesthesia using a low field 0.25 Tesla (T)  
115 permanent magnet (Esaote VetMR Grande, Genova, Italy). MRI was performed in dogs  
116 in lateral recumbency in a neutral position, using a dedicated DPA spinal coil. Imaging  
117 studies included a minimum of T2-weighted (T2W) sagittal and transverse images and  
118 dorsal short tau inversion recovery (STIR) images. MRI scans were assessed by board-  
119 certified neurologists (ML, MT). Foraminal stenosis was determined when one or more  
120 of the following findings were found: (1) complete loss of fat signal or only a minimal  
121 rim of fat signal left in the foraminal zone in parasagittal or transverse T2W images  
122 (Gödde and Steffen 2007) (Figure 1), (2) presence of a compressive asymmetric  
123 intervertebral disc protrusion on transverse T2W images at the level of the intervertebral  
124 foramina. The presence of an ipsilateral hyperintense L7 nerve root on transverse T2W  
125 images and dorsal STIR (Figure 2) supported a diagnosis of foraminal stenosis, although  
126 this was not used as a definitive criterion. Vertebral canal stenosis was defined by the  
127 presence of over 25% of lumbosacral vertebral canal attenuation on midsagittal images  
128 (Jones and others 2000, Gödde and Steffen 2007). Subsequent lumbosacral MRI studies  
129 were retrieved when available, and compared with pre-operative MRI studies.  
130 Comparison focused on assessment of subjective evidence of recurrence of foraminal  
131 stenosis and nerve root swelling. Foraminal stenosis and nerve root swelling were  
132 evaluated as described above. Pre-operative presence of nerve swelling was described.  
133 Duration of clinical signs in these cases was also reported.

### 134 **Surgical procedures**

135 Evidence of foraminal stenosis at the level of the lumbosacral junction on MRI was seen  
136 as an indication for a lateral foraminotomy (unilateral or bilateral). Vertebral canal

137 stenosis on MRI was an indication for performing a concurrent dorsal laminectomy.  
138 Surgical procedures were performed by two different board-certified neurologists (ML,  
139 MT). Information on intra and post-operative surgical complications was retrieved.  
140 Following surgery, dogs were discharged with instructions of cage rest for 4 to 6 weeks,  
141 rehabilitation and concurrent pain-relief as required. Dogs would then be allowed to  
142 gradually resume regular exercise and routine.

### 143 **Outcome and recurrence**

144 Short-term outcome was acquired from postoperative consultations with a board-certified  
145 neurologist performed at 6 weeks and within the initial 6 months following surgery.  
146 Following this period of time, long-term outcome was obtained through telephonic  
147 interviews with the owners or, in case of relapse, subsequent consultation data was  
148 utilised.

149 Outcome was considered (1) excellent if complete resolution of clinical signs was present  
150 at follow-up consultations or the owner considered the dog to be clinically normal (2)  
151 good if there was substantial but incomplete improvement in clinical signs or the owner  
152 considered the dog to have some recurrent episodes of pain or lameness (3) poor if the  
153 dog did not improve after surgery or deteriorated further (De Risio and others 2001,  
154 Gödde and Steffen 2007).

155 Recurrence of clinical signs attributable to DLSS was determined and information on  
156 initial neurological classification, interval from surgery to recurrence and outcome post-  
157 recurrence was retrieved. Treatment post-recurrence was divided into three: repeated  
158 surgery, unrelated surgery and non-surgical. Repeated surgery included cases where re-  
159 intervention of previously operated site was performed. Unrelated surgery included cases  
160 where a new surgery of an unrelated surgical site was performed. Non-surgical included

161 cases where new surgery was not performed. Further details on specific cases were  
162 reported when considered relevant to the scope of the study.

## 163 **Results**

### 164 *Included animals*

165 45 dogs were identified which had undergone lateral foraminotomy. Breed distribution  
166 was German Shepherd Dog (n=8), Border Collie (7), Crossbreed (6), Cocker Spaniel (5),  
167 Dalmatian (4), Labrador Retriever (3), Boxer (3), Rottweiler (2), German Short-Haired  
168 Pointer (2), Belgian Malinois, Gordon Setter, Golden Retriever, Lurcher and Weimaraner  
169 (1 for each). 27 males and 18 females were identified with a mean age of 74.71 months  
170 (median 76, 34 - 156). Mean duration of clinical signs before surgery was of 6.88 months  
171 (median 6; 0.75 - 30). The severity group allocation of cases before surgery was: mild  
172 (n=26), moderate (n=16) or severe (n=3) (Table 1). Eleven (24.4%) were working or  
173 agility dogs.

174

### 175 **Pre-operative treatments**

176 Three dogs had previously undergone dorsal laminectomy with concurrent unilateral  
177 extension at 16, 17 and 60 months prior to lateral foraminotomy. Long term response to  
178 surgery was considered inadequate and lateral foraminotomy was performed ipsilaterally  
179 in all 3 cases. One further dog had received an epidural steroid injection with a transient  
180 2 weeks' improvement in clinical signs, whilst the remaining 41 dogs (91.1%) had  
181 previously shown inadequate response to systemic conservative therapy with rest and  
182 analgesia.

183

### 184 **Surgical procedures and complications**



185 Unilateral lateral foraminotomy was performed in 11 dogs (24.4%), alone in 7 dogs and  
186 in combination with dorsal laminectomy in 4 dogs. Bilateral lateral foraminotomy was  
187 performed in 34 dogs (75.6%), alone in 8 dogs and with concurrent dorsal laminectomy  
188 in 26 dogs. None of the dogs underwent concurrent lumbosacral discectomy. Mild  
189 haemorrhage from abnormal vascular supply to the articular facet joint was reported as  
190 an intraoperative complication in 1 case.. Postoperative complications were present in 12  
191 dogs and included subcutaneous seroma in 7 dogs (15.6%), suspected wound infection  
192 responsive to broad-spectrum antibiotic course in 2 dogs and increased pain within the  
193 first 4 weeks in 3 dogs. Suspected wound infection was not confirmed with culture and  
194 sensitivity tests. All of these complications were resolved within 4 weeks following  
195 surgery.

196

#### 197 **Short-term outcome**

198 Short-term outcome information was available for all patients and was considered good  
199 in 5 cases (11.1%) and excellent in the remaining 40 cases (88.9%).

200

#### 201 **Long-term outcome**

202 Long-term outcome was available in 34 cases (75.5%) with a mean follow-up time of  
203 22.9 months (median 18; 8-54). Poor long-term neurological outcome was reported in  
204 one 10-year-old male German Shepherd Dog which having initially responded well to  
205 lateral foraminotomy, subsequently developed progressive ataxia and paraparesis. Based  
206 on the clinical presentation, age, breed and normal spinal MRI findings a presumptive  
207 diagnosis of degenerative myelopathy (DM) was suspected. All 33 remaining cases were  
208 reported by the owner to have an excellent long-term outcome.

209

210 Recurrence of clinical signs was identified in 5 dogs (11.1%) and occurred in a mean of  
211 10 months after surgery (median 8; 4-22). Initial neurological classification of these cases  
212 was mild (n=2), moderate (2) and severe (1), and all had a repeat MRI scan performed at  
213 a mean of 11.8 months following foraminotomy (median 9, 8-22). One of these dogs was  
214 the German Shepherd suspected to have developed DM. Re-establishment of foraminal  
215 compression at the surgical site was not demonstrated in any of the remaining 4 dogs  
216 (Figure 3). Nerve root swelling which had been identified on pre-surgical MRI, was also  
217 present in subsequent imaging of 4 cases (Figure 3). When nerve root swelling was not  
218 present on pre-surgical MRI this was also not identified on subsequent imaging (1 case).

219

220 Treatment following recurrence was non-surgical in four cases and one case that on cross-  
221 sectional imaging had developed a contralateral foraminal stenosis underwent lateral  
222 foraminotomy of the newly affected site. Non-surgical treatment was conservative (3) or  
223 epidural steroid-injection (1). All five cases improved following treatment and their long-  
224 term outcome was considered excellent at a mean of 26.3 months' post-recurrence  
225 (median 27; 8-43).

226

**227 Discussion**

228 The short-term clinical outcome in this cohort of patients was consistent with the findings  
229 of Gødde and Steffen in 2007 and is maintained long-term despite some episodes of  
230 recurrence. In previous studies reporting dorsal laminectomy decompression, a lack of  
231 improvement or worsening of clinical signs is reported to occur in about 15-30% of cases  
232 (Danielsson and Sjöström 1999, Janssens and others 2000, Jones and others 2000, De  
233 Risio and others 2001, Linn and others 2003, Suwankong and others 2008, Rapp and  
234 others 2017) with reports of failed surgery requiring re-intervention (Danielsson and  
235 Sjöström 1999, De Risio and others 2001, Moens and Runyon 2002). The improved  
236 results from lateral foraminotomy in this study and studies reporting presence of  
237 foraminal stenosis in 68-84% of DLSS cases (Mayhew and others 2002, Rapp and others  
238 2017) would suggest that foraminal stenosis with subsequent L7 nerve root pathology  
239 represents a significant pathology in DLSS that requires consideration when selecting  
240 surgical therapeutic options. Since lateral foraminotomy can address stenosis in the  
241 middle and/or exit foraminal zones as well as extra-foraminal stenosis (Gødde and Steffen  
242 2007, Carozzo and others 2008) it would appear that this more lateral pathology is  
243 significant in a proportion of cases. Unrecognised or untreated foraminal stenosis is an  
244 important cause of “failed back surgery syndrome”, well reported in human medicine  
245 (Fritsch and others 1996, Maher and Henderson 1999).

246

247 It has been postulated that failure in the majority of cases following decompression is  
248 related with an increased risk of articular facet fractures, instability and inappropriate  
249 foraminal stenosis decompression (Moens and Runyon 2002, Gødde and Steffen 2007,  
250 Jeffery and others 2014, Rapp and others 2017). Lateral foraminotomy has been  
251 increasingly performed since it was first described a decade ago (Gødde and Steffen 2007)

252 and allows for effective decompression of the neuroforamen. Besides the clearer and more  
253 direct access it provides, this surgery also offers the advantage that it can be used in  
254 combination with dorsal laminectomy without increasing instability. It is worth  
255 comparison with alternative techniques involving stabilisation that by reducing mobility  
256 and creating distraction at the L7-S1 articulation may work by a similar mechanism to  
257 effectively enlarge the foramina and reduce ongoing concussive insult to the L7 nerve  
258 within the foramina (Slocum and Devine 1986, Méheust 2000, Hankin and others 2012,  
259 Smolders and others 2012, Golini and others 2014). Stabilisation procedures carry post-  
260 operative risks of complication due to implant failure (Hankin and others 2012, Smolders  
261 and others 2012, Golini and others 2014).

262

263 Similar to previous reports the German Shepherd was the most affected breed in this study  
264 (Ness 1994, Danielsson and Sjöström 1999, De Risio and others 2001, Gödde and Steffen  
265 2007, Suwankong and others 2008). Interestingly Cocker Spaniels, a breed reported to  
266 present with caudal lumbar disc herniation (Cardy and others 2016), represented 8.8% of  
267 this population while being sparsely represented in previous DLSS reports (Slocum and  
268 Devine 1986, Danielsson and Sjöström 1999, Janssens and others 2000, Méheust 2000,  
269 De Risio and others 2001, Linn and others 2003, Suwankong and others 2008, Hankin  
270 and others 2012, Smolders and others 2012, Golini and others 2014, Rapp and others  
271 2017).

272

273 The majority of cases in this study underwent surgery following unsuccessful  
274 conservative treatment (91.1%). Interestingly three cases had previously undergone  
275 dorsal laminectomy. In these three cases foraminal stenosis had been identified at the time  
276 of diagnosis and the dorsal laminectomy had been extended unilaterally, in an attempt to

277 relieve the foramina. Dorsal laminectomy of these cases was performed at a time prior to  
278 lateral foraminotomy being offered in this institution. A further case presented with a  
279 transient response to epidural-steroid injection with recurrence. Since all of these cases  
280 had an excellent outcome following foraminotomy alone this supports the hypothesis that  
281 the clinical signs were due to neuroforaminal entrapment rather than vertebral canal  
282 stenosis.

283

284 In this population, both short- and long-term improvement of clinical signs were  
285 identified, with a long-term complete resolution of clinical signs in 97.1% of cases. This  
286 percentage is the highest reported in surgical management of DLSS (Danielsson and  
287 Sjöström 1999, Janssens and others 2000, Jones and others 2000, De Risio and others  
288 2001, Linn and others 2003, Gödde and Steffen 2007, Suwankong and others 2008,  
289 Hankin and others 2012, Smolders and others 2012, Golini and others 2014) which is in  
290 accordance to previously reported excellent results of this technique (Gödde and Steffen  
291 2007). Being a retrospective study, long-term follow-up was based mainly on telephonic  
292 interviews with owners, which can have biased the results. However, the fact that a single  
293 case presented a poor outcome which was deemed unrelated to DLSS, reinforce the  
294 significance of these results, at least in comparison with previously reported stand-alone  
295 dorsal laminectomy outcomes.

296

297 Recurrence of clinical signs following surgical therapy for DLSS has been reported for  
298 dorsal decompression via a dorsal laminectomy requiring further surgical intervention  
299 (Danielsson and Sjöström 1999, De Risio and others 2001, Moens and Runyon 2002), but  
300 has not been previously reported following lateral foraminotomy (Gödde and Steffen  
301 2007). Recurrence in the current study was not shown to be related to reestablishment of

302 foraminal stenosis of the previously operated site on MRI and most cases were managed  
303 successfully with non-surgical measures. In the case where a second surgery was required  
304 this was at the contralateral foramen which had not been previously surgically  
305 decompressed. Evidence of contralateral foraminal stenosis was not present on the initial  
306 MRI study and previous reports suggest that MRI findings do not always correlate to  
307 intra-operative findings (Suwankong and others 2006). A contralateral foraminotomy  
308 resolved the clinical signs suggesting this was the result of progression of DLSS rather  
309 than surgical failure or failure to identify foraminal stenosis on initial MRI.

310

311 New bone formation following foraminotomy has been reported previously (Wood and  
312 others 2004) and this in conjunction with fibrous tissue generation could lead to a renewed  
313 foraminal stenosis with compression of the nerve root (Gödde and Steffen 2007).  
314 Subsequent advanced imaging in five dogs, performed at least 8 months following  
315 surgery, revealed that the foraminal enlargement that had been achieved by foraminotomy  
316 was maintained and that there was no evident spondylosis producing progressive stenosis.  
317 However, a larger cohort study with post-operative imaging would be required to confirm  
318 this.

319

320 The persistence of nerve enlargement identified in 4/5 dogs supports experimental studies  
321 documenting chronic irreversible nerve root swelling following entrapment in dogs  
322 (Yoshizawa and others 1995). Compression of the nerve root results in impaired venous  
323 and lymphatic drainage resulting in endoneurial oedema (Yoshizawa and others 1995).  
324 Interstitial and perivascular fibrosis then ensues contributing to irreversible nerve root  
325 enlargement (Lindahl and Rexed 1951). Despite persistent hypertrophy of the nerve root  
326 on MRI, the long-term outcome in all cases post-operatively was considered excellent.

327 A number of limitations exist in the current study. Data was collected retrospectively and  
328 therefore the population and procedures were not-standardised. However, a set of  
329 standardised procedures was adhered to in terms of medical note taking, advanced  
330 imaging, surgical management, hospitalisation and subsequent treatment making the data  
331 less prone to recall bias. Further to this, short-term follow-up information relied on the  
332 expertise of the same people that performed surgery potentiating clinician bias and long-  
333 term follow-up was based upon telephone interviews which are both subjective and prone  
334 to a caregiver placebo effect. The follow-up period is also variable and a much longer-  
335 term follow-up in all cases may have altered our outcome.

336 The MRI studies used for diagnosis were low-field and some authors may suggest that  
337 greater information could be achieved using high-field MRI. However, in human  
338 degenerative lumbar disease excellent agreement was found between high and low-field  
339 magnets, when comparing vertebral canal stenosis, lateral recess and exit foraminal  
340 stenosis as well as good agreement when assessing for spinal nerve compression (Lee and  
341 others 2015).

342 This is the largest reported population of dogs undergoing lateral foraminotomy following  
343 a previously reported procedure (Gödde and Steffen 2007). The results of this study  
344 further confirm that lateral foraminotomy is a safe and reliable technique that can be used  
345 to address DLSS affected dogs suffering from foraminal stenosis, leading to minimal  
346 intra-operative and post-operative complications when used either alone or in  
347 combination with dorsal laminectomy. Long-term clinical improvement was achieved in  
348 all cases despite some transient recurrences which responded to conservative therapy. It  
349 is our belief that neuroforaminal entrapment may be a common cause for failure of dorsal  
350 laminectomy in the subset of patients in which this has been reported. This study  
351 demonstrates the importance of achieving an accurate diagnosis for the site of ongoing

352 pathology in DLSS and that the lateral foraminotomy has a place in the repertoire of  
353 surgical approaches to DLSS which requires consideration when evidence of foraminal  
354 stenosis is present.

355

356 **Disclosure statement**

357 Authors disclose no conflict of interest.

358



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466 **Tables**

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 Table 1. Classification of Dogs According to Severity of Clinical and Neurological Signs
 

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## Group 1 (mild)

Lumbosacral pain

Reluctance to climb stairs, jump or raise up

Lameness

Muscle atrophy

No neurologic deficits

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 Group 2 (moderate)

Lumbosacral pain

Reluctance to climb stairs, jump or raise up

Lameness

Muscle atrophy

Moderate neurologic deficits (e.g. reduced flexor withdrawal, proprioceptive deficits, nerve root signature/toe touching)

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 Group 3 (severe)

Lumbosacral pain

Reluctance to climb stairs, jump or raise up

Lameness

Muscle atrophy

Severe neurologic deficits (e.g. tail paresis, absent perineal reflex)

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470

471 **Legends**

472

473 **Figure 1.** T2W parasagittal images of a dog with right unilateral foraminal stenosis.

474 White arrows indicate the intervertebral foramina. An almost complete fat signal loss is  
475 noticeable in the affected foramen (A). Foraminal stenosis can be observed more clearly  
476 when affected (A) and non-affected (B) foramina are compared.

477

478 **Figure 2.** T2W transverse (A) and dorsal STIR (B) images of a dog with right unilateral  
479 foraminal stenosis. Subjective nerve swelling on the affected site can be observed on  
480 both images, indicated by white arrows. Hyperintensity obtained on dorsal STIR (B) is  
481 notable when compared to contralateral unaffected foramen.

482

483 **Figure 3.** Pre-operative dorsal STIR (A1), T2W transverse (B1), T2W parasagittal (C1)  
484 and 22 months postoperative dorsal STIR (A2), T2W transverse (B2), T2W parasagittal  
485 (C2) of a dog with right unilateral foraminal stenosis. Right nerve root swelling is  
486 noticeably decreased 22 months following surgery (white arrows); however, it is still  
487 subjectively enlarged when compared with the contralateral nerve root. Right foraminal  
488 stenosis (white arrow) is clearly noticeable previously to surgery (B1) being resolved  
489 following surgery (B2). Lateral foraminotomy post-surgical borders are clearly  
490 identified (C2) with no evidence of reestablishment of stenosis. This patient underwent  
491 a right-sided lateral foraminotomy, with recurrence of clinical signs 22 months  
492 following surgery. Right foraminal stenosis was not proven to be re-established and  
493 following conservative management, complete resolution of clinical signs was achieved.