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Ageing and degenerative changes of the intervertebral disc and their impact on spinal flexibility

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Abstract

Purpose Degeneration of the intervertebral disc is associated with various morphological changes of the disc itself and of the adjacent structures, such as reduction of the water content, collapse of the intervertebral space, disruption and tears, and osteophytes. These morphological changes of the disc are linked to alterations of the spine flexibility. This paper aims to review the literature about the ageing and degenerative changes of the intervertebral disc and their link with alterations in spinal biomechanics, with emphasis on flexibility.

Methods Narrative literature review.

Results Clinical instability of the motion segment, usually related to increased flexibility and hypothesized to be connected to early, mild disc degeneration and believed to be responsible for low back pain, was tested in numerous in vitro studies. Despite some disagreement in the findings, a trend toward spinal stiffening with the increasing degeneration was observed in most studies. Tests about tears and fissures showed inconsistent results, as well as for disc collapse and dehydration. Vertebral osteophytes were found to be effective in stabilizing the spine in bending motions.

Conclusions The literature suggests that the degenerative changes of the intervertebral disc and surrounding structures lead to subtle alteration of the mechanical properties of the functional spinal unit. A trend toward spinal stiffening with the increasing degeneration has been observed in most studies.

Keywords Disc degeneration · Biomechanics · Annular tears · Osteophytes · Disc collapse · Motion segment

Introduction

Degeneration of the intervertebral disc is associated with various morphological changes of the disc itself and of the adjacent structures, such as collapse of the intervertebral space, water and proteoglycan content reduction and damage and sclerosis of the vertebral endplates or osteophytosis [12, 76]. These changes have an influence on the biomechanics of the motion segment, which may exhibit abnormal mobility and loss of its mechanical properties, therefore having in turn an impact on the progression of the degenerative disease.

This paper reviews published studies on the biomechanics of intervertebral discs showing macroscopic changes due to degenerative disc disease, with special emphasis on the spinal flexibility. Following an introduction to the functional anatomy and biomechanics of the healthy disc, macroscopic degenerative changes are described with focus on their possible relevance to low back pain. Published studies on the biomechanical impact of the most important degenerative changes of the disc, i.e. tears and fissures, osteophytes, dehydration and collapse of
the intervertebral space, are also presented and discussed. Relevant topics not directly linked to the degeneration of the intervertebral disc (e.g. disc herniation and endplate lesions) were not included in the present paper. Furthermore, disc loading and its alteration due to degeneration were out of the scope of the present review, since they are covered in another paper in the same issue [48].

It should be noted that the reviewed biomechanical studies, being mainly based on the mechanical response of cadaveric specimens or numerical simulations, do not directly address the mechanisms of low back pain and have therefore little value in determining why disc degeneration may result in a painful condition, and why in some cases degenerated discs are asymptomatic.

Functional anatomy of the intervertebral disc

The intervertebral disc is a fibrocartilaginous joint connecting two adjacent vertebral bodies, which distributes loads to the osseous structures and allows for a certain degree of motion in different directions (Fig. 1) [75]. The central nucleus pulposus (NP) consists of a water-based gel-like substance rich in proteoglycans (approximately 250 μg/mg dry tissue weight [33]) and a small amount of collagen type II and elastin fibers [75]. The annulus fibrosus (AF) encloses the nucleus with a collagen type I-based concentric lamellar structure. Within each lamella, the collagen fibers are aligned approximately 30° with respect to the transverse plane of the vertebral endplates. The angle of collagen fibers also alternates with respect to the same plane between adjacent lamellae. Between lamellae, there are occasional radial connecting collagen bundles [60], but most of the lamellae are filled with a proteoglycan-rich gel. The intervertebral disc is connected to the vertebral bodies through the endplates, which consist of osseous and hyaline-cartilaginous layers [75]. The cartilaginous endplate covers only the NP and the inner AF; the collagen fibers of the outer AF anchor directly into the bone of the apophyseal ring [61]. The collagen fibers of the inner AF and the NP are contiguous with that in the cartilage endplate and can transmit considerable tensile loads to the osseous endplates [72]. Between the NP and the inner AF there is no distinct border; rather a slow transition between tissue type. This is often referred to as the transition zone [14, 73].

Due to its specific structure, the IVD is capable to withstand high compressive loads. Proteoglycans synthesized by the NP cells, in particular aggrecan, are highly negatively charged. These fixed charges are electrically balanced by positive cations in the interstitial fluid. This higher concentration of cations gives the disc an osmotic pressure (Donnan equilibrium) with respect to the external environment and, thus, the capacity to attract and imbibe water [66]. Due to its high water content, low permeability and osmotic properties, the nucleus is, therefore, able to sustain high compressive forces [4]. The NP swelling pressure is balanced by the hydrostatic pressure, which is a result of the NP being contained by the endplates and the AF. Both at rest and under active loading, the pressure in the NP is balanced by tensile stresses in the AF, which limit bulging and avoid collapse of the disc under compression [75]. To withstand the other types of loading from daily activities, such as bending and shear in multiple directions, the unique lamellar structure of alternating collagen fibers in the AF is loaded primarily in tension, similar to the fiber reinforcement of a tire, when combined with an almost iso-volumetric NP core.

Finally, the endplates contribute to the even distribution of the pressure acting within the nucleus and tension in the annulus on the vertebral bodies [2]. The viscous fluid flows through the endplates, allowed by their permeable nature, and the viscoelastic stretching nature of collagen networks in the annulus allows the disc to dampen loads. Due to this fluid exchange, the IVD exhibits the creep and relaxation behavior under sustained loads typical of a damper, i.e. when subjected to the body weight for 4 h, a lumbar IVD expels 10–15 % of its water content through the endplates [1].

Ageing and degenerative changes of the intervertebral disc

The ageing intervertebral disc usually shows several changes in comparison to the young, healthy disc, even in asymptomatic subjects [28]. The boundary between
Physiologic disc ageing and degenerative disc disease is not always clear, since in most cases ageing and degenerative changes do not substantially differ. Disc degeneration has been defined as an accelerated ageing process including structural failure [4]. Nevertheless, purely physiological ageing changes such as water loss and thus the so-called “black disc” have been also referred to as disc degeneration [52], thus promoting confusion in the literature due to different definitions of disc degeneration. The following paragraphs are based on the aforementioned definition by Adams [4].

Cellular and matrix changes

In general, physiological ageing changes start in the endplates and then sequentially affect the nucleus and the annulus [4]. Cell density in the intervertebral disc starts to decrease during childhood [68]. The loss of cellularity leads to a decrease and fragmentation of the proteoglycan content [13], especially in the nucleus, and to a reduction of matrix turnover which, in turn, induces cross-linking of collagen fibrils that reduces the self-repairing capability of the disc [16, 59]. The loss in proteoglycan content is further worsened by a reduction in the per-cell synthesis rate, which is probably related to cell senescence [44]. These cellular and biochemical changes determine alterations in the extracellular matrix. During the whole ageing sequela, a progressive loss of the water fraction in the whole disc (due to the reduction of the proteoglycan content and, therefore, of the osmotic gradient) and a corresponding increase in the fibrotic tissue are generally observed [3, 4]. Within the nucleus pulposus, the water content was found to decrease from 5.8 gH2O/g dry weight at an age of 14 years (85% volume fraction) to 3.3 gH2O/g dry weight at age 91 years (75%) [66]. For the NP, primarily, a loss of proteoglycans was observed [7, 34]. For the AF, a change in water content, although to a more limited extent in comparison with the NP, as well as collagen content is observed during ageing [7]. The decrease in the proteoglycan content is linked to a reduction of the swelling pressure, for which values ranging from 0.19 MPa (age of 37 years) to 0.05 MPa (age of 91 years) were measured [66].

Structural changes

In addition to—or perhaps because of—matrix content changes, the intervertebral disc also undergoes structural failure showing tears and clefts [69] (Fig. 2). Although these abnormalities may be related to each other, and gradually overlap the physiological ageing course [12], in most of the literature they are described and defined as degenerative disc disease [4, 76] and are, therefore, clearly distinct from natural ageing. An analysis of midsagittal sections of cadaveric specimens showed that more than 50% of intervertebral discs in the third and fourth decade of life exhibit annular tears and fissures [40]. Tears were shown to have different orientations and extents and are classified following the terminology shown in Fig. 3 (adapted from [69]). Concentric and radial tears were found to be frequent in young discs as well as in specimens harvested from elderly donors. However, studies showed that the presence of radial tears increases with ageing [28, 30]. Rim lesions and endplate separations had higher incidence in the 50–80 age group [69].

Changes to the endplate are also observed [52, 76]. During degeneration, the endplates calcify and become sclerotic [8, 57, 58]. Although the hypothesis of an endochondral ossification process in the cartilaginous endplate related to changes in load transfer from the NP to the AF is, as yet, unproven, it does have several biomechanical consequences; for example, significantly less flexible endplates that are prone to fracture, altered load transfer to vertebrae and reduced water and solute exchange between the disc and the vertebrae.

Disc height is generally not affected [10, 18] or even slightly increased [6] in the physiological ageing process, whereas collapse of the intervertebral space is common in pathological disc degeneration [46, 52, 64, 76].

Finally, formation of osteophytes around the margins of the vertebral bodies is a common observation associated with disc degeneration [52, 64, 76]. It has been estimated that 25% of subjects in their third decade and 90% in their sixth decade have at least one vertebral osteophyte [47]. Osteophytes are believed to be an adaptive remodeling process that stabilizes an unstable spine segment. This statement has been confirmed by in vivo experiments in rabbits in which osteophyte growth was observed in the adjacent vertebrae after artificial lesions in the anterior annulus fibrosus [43].

Discogenic pain

Degenerative disc disease is believed to be the major cause of mechanical or axial back pain [15, 42], defined as back pain determined by loss of integrity of the spinal structures. Degenerated discs with structural abnormalities have been found to be more strongly correlated with discogenic pain than the normal changes with age [17]. Severely degenerated discs, including collapsed, prolapsed discs and discs showing leaking radial tears, exhibited a higher penetration of nociceptive nerve fibers toward the nucleus center [17, 70, 71]; this phenomenon has been associated with increased back pain [22]. Endplate lesions and irregular endplate loading were also found to be correlated with back pain history [74]. In addition to this, due to the loss of
height, the vertebral bodies approach one another. Because the vertebral body is not only moving downwards but also backwards, in some cases the nerve root may be displaced cranially into a small space, close to the capsule joint, thus determining radicular pain [29]. Pain due to disc degeneration is usually exacerbated by specific body positions, e.g. sitting [36], and certain movements, for example twisting and lifting weights [11], because the facet impinges against the nerve root which leads to pain. Another important cause of axial back pain is facet joint osteoarthritis, which consists in the decrease of the thickness and regularity of the cartilage layer of the facet joints, also called apophyseal or zygoapophysial joints. Disc degeneration and facet joint osteoarthritis are commonly observed together in the same patient and spinal level [20, 26, 35] and a possible correlation between these two pathologies is currently debated [62].

**Biomechanics of the degenerated motion segment**

**Flexibility**

The aforementioned degenerative changes of the intervertebral disc are believed to be significantly correlated with alterations of the flexibility of the motion segment.
Kirkaldy-Willis and Farfan [38] hypothesized that the course of disc degeneration is characterized by three stages: temporary dysfunction, instability and stabilization. Instability was, therefore, connected to early, mild disc degeneration and believed to be the main factor responsible for low back pain. Other papers further developed the subject, e.g. providing a clear definition for spinal instability as an abnormal response to physiological loads, with reduced spinal stiffness and greater motion [55]. This rationale provided a basis for fusion techniques [19], with which the mobility of the spinal segment is eliminated. However, 10 years later, the first follow-up study reporting on a surgical implant that restricts the flexibility of the motion segment [25], but preserved some degree of possible motion, i.e. dynamic stabilization devices, was published. Since then, multiple devices were developed and are currently widely employed.

The hypothesis of increased flexibility for early, mildly degenerated discs was tested in numerous in vitro studies. Some papers have reported an increment in spinal flexibility for mild degeneration [20, 41, 63] while other investigations have found either an increase in spinal stiffness with progressing degeneration [37, 45, 78] or a combination of both [50]. Tanaka et al. [63] found maximal flexibility in axial rotation in the lower lumbar spine for the grade III of the Thompson scale [64], whereas minimal changes in the spine motion were found in flexion–extension and lateral bending disc degeneration was correlated with decreased flexibility. These findings are in general good agreement with the widely cited study by Mimura et al. [45], which showed reduced flexibility in flexion–extension and lateral bending and higher flexibility in axial rotation. The most comprehensive study consisted of a retrospective analysis of a large database of in vitro results, including tests carried out on 203 motion segments harvested from 111 donors; it showed that spinal stiffness increased in flexion/extension and lateral bending from no to severe degeneration (Fig. 4) [37]. No changes in the range of motion were observed in axial rotation. However, some specific motion segments showed reduced stiffness for mild degeneration.

As a matter of facts, there is no evidence supporting a clear clinical significance of instability in the diagnosis and treatment of disc degeneration. These findings pose questions on the current indications of dynamic stabilization systems, which may be restricted to cases in which the instability is actually proven, e.g. with radiographic investigations or when decompression, and subsequent iatrogenic destabilization is necessary. It should be noted, however, that these findings were derived under different conditions and are therefore only partially comparable.

Neutral zone

A parameter frequently involved in the analysis of clinical instability is the neutral zone [51]. Based on the observation that patients suffering from low back pain had increased anteroposterior translation in the lumbar spine [24, 39], Panjabi redefined the concept of clinical instability based on the capability of the stabilization systems of the spine (passive structures, muscles, possible instrumentation) to restrain the neutral zone within the physiological limits. The evaluation of the neutral zone of spine specimens as an indicator of clinical instability was therefore a logical consequence and was therefore performed in a number of studies.
From early studies, consensus about an increase of the size of the neutral zone in all the three main directions for degenerated discs seemed to emerge [45, 51]. More recently, other studies either confirmed these trends [23] or showed no—or hardly any—change in its size between healthy and degenerated motion segments [63]. In the aforementioned retrospective paper about a wide number of degenerated specimens [37], an increase in the neutral zone was found only in axial rotation, and was not limited to mild degeneration, but progressed with the presence of severe degenerative changes (Fig. 4). However, the hypothesis that neutral zone may be more sensitive to the degree of disc degeneration in comparison with the range of motion [51] seems to be reasonable. The use of dynamic stabilization devices may therefore find a more solid justification as means to reduce the neutral zone rather than the range of motion.

**Influence of the specific degenerative changes on the motion segment biomechanics**

Disruptions and tears

The consequences and influence of the presence of tears on the biomechanics of the motion segment are still a debated research question that has been investigated in a few papers. It is generally believed that disc disruptions and tears are the main factors responsible for the clinical instability in mild degeneration, as hypothesized by Kirkaldy-Willis and Farfan [38]. This statement is not supported by available biomechanical studies, which are, however, not conclusive. Tanaka et al. [63], for example, showed increased flexibility of human spine segments exhibiting radial tears but other degenerative changes were also present in the investigated specimens, thus disguising the specific mechanical effect of tears. This topic was more specifically investigated in another in vitro study on 15 sheep non-degenerated lumbar motion segments in which concentric, radial tears and rim lesions were artificially created in fixed locations [65]. Rim lesions were the only type of disruptions that reduced the stiffness of the motion segment, especially in lateral bending and axial rotation. Concentric and radial tears had no effect on the joint stability, in terms of flexibility and neutral zone. However, all tears changed the hysteresis energy dissipation characteristics of the specimens, indicating that the stress distribution inside the intervertebral disc has been altered. The authors concluded that this alteration may lead to overloading of the other structures, i.e. ligaments and facet joints, thereby inducing a progression of the degeneration of the motion segment. In another study [56], rim lesions have been shown to have a negligible effect in determining the stresses inside the intervertebral disc when compared to endplate fractures.

**Osteophytosis**

Few in vitro studies investigating the mechanical effects of vertebral osteophytes exist but the concept that osteophytes are an adaptive reaction to stabilize the motion of unstable spines, rather than a degenerative phenomenon, seems to be supported by the currently available data. Tanaka et al. [63] and Fujiwara et al. [20] showed that there is a stiffness increase in the degenerative degrees including osteophytosis. However, these studies cannot be considered conclusive in this regard due to the presence of other degenerative changes of the spine such as disc disruption and disc height collapse. A more specific in vitro investigation conducted on 20 human motion segments showed comparable results [5]. Vertebral osteophytes were found to stabilize the spine from 35 to 49 % in bending motions, and less effectively (15 %) in compression. The mechanical effect of osteophytes tended to increase with the size of the spurs.

**Matrix changes**

Disc degeneration compromises the capacity of the intervertebral disc to imbibe water and swell. As shown by Johannessen et al. for the NP [34] and Iatridis et al. [31, 32] and Gu et al. [27] for the AF, these changes affect the biomechanical behavior of the disc. Due to the reduction of the proteoglycan content in the NP, the swelling capacity of the NP tissue decreases significantly; at the same time, due to breakdown of collagen, the permeability of the tissue increases. Because of these changes, the water can be more easily squeezed out of the tissue and the NP tissue may not be as successful in withstanding high loads for a long period of time compared to a healthy NP. With regard to the AF, a disappearance of nonlinear behavior under compression, which can be explained by the change in water and collagen content [32], has been reported. Permeability of the AF tissue changes from a highly anisotropic behavior to a more uniform behavior, independent of the direction. Due to the stiffening of AF and the reduced load carrying capacity of the NP, the AF becomes the major load bearing component of the intervertebral disc [4].

The mechanical effect of these degenerative changes is not fully understood and scarcely investigated, although Zhao et al. [77] showed increased flexibility and neutral zone after dehydration of the NP in vitro by applying a sustained compressive load that caused a reduction of the disc height. This indicates that these changes lead to instability of the whole motion segment.
Collapse of the intervertebral space

Numerical models were used to assess the effect of the reduction of disc height as a consequence of dehydration. This approach allows for studying the effect of single degenerative parameters, keeping the other degenerative characteristics unaltered. Coherently with Tanaka et al. [63], Gallbusera et al. [21] found increased compressive and flexion-extension stiffness of the spinal segment with the decreasing disc height. These results were confirmed by a probabilistic numerical model targeted to the investigation of the effect of the anatomical variability of the spine [49].

Besides the biomechanics of the spine, the reduction in height of the disc directly effects the adjacent vertebras; it can lead to an increase of more than 50 % of the compressive force on the lumbar spine being resisted by the neural arch [54], while, at the same time, a reduction of force in the vertebral bodies could lead to bone mass loss due to unloading [53]. Such changes in loading pattern, as well as narrowing discs, are also associated with osteoarthritis in the apophyseal joints [20].

Conclusions

Biomechanical investigations do not provide insights about the mechanisms of low back pain, but have great value for the understanding of progression of disc degeneration and possible surgical treatments. The literature suggests that the degenerative changes of the intervertebral disc and surrounding structures lead to subtle alteration of the mechanical properties of the functional spinal unit. A trend toward spinal stiffening with increasing degeneration has been observed in most studies, although conclusive studies regarding some aspects are lacking. Evidence supporting a general increase of spinal instability with disc degeneration could not be found.

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Conflict of interest None.

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