

1 **Clinical Practice Guideline** **Functional Leg Length Assessment**

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3 **Date of Implementation:** **July 13, 2006**

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5 **Effective Date:** **January 29, 2026**

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7 **Product:** **Specialty**

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10 **GUIDELINES**

11 American Specialty Health – Specialty (ASH) considers functional leg length assessment
12 unproven for the purpose of validating subluxation (segmental joint dysfunction). It is not
13 established as having diagnostic utility. Due to the extent of variability in specificity and
14 reliability of observation (subjectivity), this procedure cannot be relied upon to definitively
15 diagnose mechanical dysfunction.

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17 **DESCRIPTION/BACKGROUND**

18 When a subject lies prone or supine, the feet are examined for the presence of a “short
19 leg” or alignment asymmetry. This *functional* leg length inequality (LLI) is in contrast to
20 *anatomical* leg-length inequality in which there are actual differences in the length and
21 geometry of the osseous structures of the lower extremity. The theory behind leg length
22 analysis is that various spinal misalignments (subluxations) or other biomechanical
23 disorders will manifest as changes in functional leg length.

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25 The most commonly used procedure involves the patient lying prone on the adjusting table.
26 After a series of movements and maneuvers designed to eliminate any false findings, and
27 after applying a slight cephalad pressure on the feet, the relative position of the patient’s
28 heels is compared. Additional maneuvers are typically performed, including flexing the
29 legs to 90 degrees, rotating the head, and applying pressure at various points on the spine
30 (challenges) while observing changes in LLI.

31
32 The evaluation of LLI is predicated upon the occurrence of changes in functional leg length
33 that result from pelvic distortions. The posterior rotation of the innominate bone at the
34 sacroiliac joint is believed to result in swinging the acetabulum superiorly relative to the
35 opposite acetabulum. The leg on the side of the superior acetabulum is thereby caused to
36 be functionally short. Other theories posit that muscular imbalances, rather than articular
37 dysfunction, result in a functionally short leg (Cooperstein & Gleberzon, 2004).

38
39 The evaluation of LLI is also used by some practitioners as an outcome measure. Upon the
40 administration of a particular corrective procedure, the leg lengths are re-checked and, if
41 the inequality has vanished, it is presumed that the underlying disorder has been resolved.

1 EVIDENCE REVIEW

2 There are several challenges to interpreting the scientific evidence on functional leg-length
3 assessment. The first is that there is no consensus on the method of analysis or on the
4 interpretation of results. Several different systems employ some variation of LLI testing;
5 each with their own interpretation of the results.

6
7 Additionally, there are three levels of scientific evidence necessary to evaluate this
8 procedure:

- 9 1. *Reliability* Can the same or different examiners obtain the same findings on repeated
10 measures of the same subject?
- 11 2. *Validity* Do the leg length differences found actually reflect real functional
12 differences in leg length?
- 13 3. *Clinical utility* Do the findings of functional leg length differences and the
14 subsequent therapeutic decisions that follow result in improved patient outcomes?

15 Reliability

16 The evidence on reliability is mixed. Cooperstein et al. has shown that when LLI is
17 artificially created for the purposes of evaluating testing procedures, a very high degree of
18 reliability can be achieved (Cooperstein, Morschhauser, Lisi, & Nick, 2003). However, the
19 evidence does not support the finding that it is possible to differentiate functional from
20 anatomic LLI. Other studies on intra- and inter-examiner reliability have found varying
21 degrees of concordance, but many of the positive results have been called in to question
22 over methodological and analytical deficiencies of the studies. Overall, the literature
23 suggests that it should be possible to achieve a reasonable level of reliability, although
24 inconsistencies in methods, training, and experience have not resulted in a reliable
25 procedure (Cooperstein & Lisi, 2000; Friberg, 1983; Gross, Burns, Chapman, Hudson,
26 Curtis, Lehmann, & Renner, 1998; Hoikka, Ylikoski, & Tallroth, 1989; Jansen &
27 Cooperstein, 1998; Knutson, 2005; Knutson, 2005; Rhodes, Mansfield, Bishop, & Smith,
28 1995; Soukka, Alaranta, Tallroth, & Heliovaara, 1991).

29 Validity

30 Are functional LLI findings real? Cooperstein et al. argues that in order for the pelvic
31 torsion to occur to a sufficient degree to produce a measurable LLI it would be necessary
32 to totally disrupt the symphysis pubis; if the sacro-iliac joint movement is occurring so as
33 to produce LLI, motion must also be occurring at the symphysis which could not occur
34 without significant structural damage (Cooperstein et al., 2003). Many would also argue
35 that there is not even sufficient potential sacro-iliac motion necessary to produce pelvic
36 torsion and thereby an LLI.
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40 There are also theoretical problems with a muscular-imbalance mechanism of LLI.
41 *If* muscular hypertonicity caused LLI in an unloaded position (prone or supine) and if the
42 pelvis itself remains in normal alignment, then upon assuming weight bearing position the

1 LLI must vanish; to do otherwise would require, ‘picking up one’s leg by the bootstraps.’
2 Knutson has concluded that at least in the unloaded position, it is likely that functional
3 LLIs do exist.

4 **Clinical Utility**

6 A review of the literature concluded that the prevalence of anatomic LLI (as identified on
7 x-ray) was 90% with a mean difference in length of 5.21 mm. The review concludes that
8 there is no likely clinical significance for these very small differences in leg-length
9 (Knutson, 2005; Knutson, 2005). It further concluded that anatomic LLI must reach 20 mm
10 (about ¾ in) to become clinically meaningful. However, there is essentially no information
11 indicating that functional LLI (if it exists) is associated with clinical back pain or other
12 complaints. There is also no evidence that therapy directed by findings of the Derifield leg
13 check, or any other similar procedure will improve clinical outcomes. (Please note that this
14 represents an absence of evidence, rather than evidence of ineffectiveness.) Despite the
15 above findings, Havran et al. (2016) presented an article on leg length discrepancy (LLD)
16 with an algorithm outlining approaches to diagnosis and management of LLD in older
17 adults, along with a representative clinical case. Using a modified Delphi approach, the
18 LLD evaluation and treatment algorithm was developed by a multidisciplinary expert panel
19 representing expertise in physical therapy, geriatric medicine, and physical medicine and
20 rehabilitation. The materials were subsequently refined through an iterative process of
21 input from a primary care provider panel comprised of VA and non-VA providers. Authors
22 believe that in older adults, LLD can be an important contributor to CLBP. They believe
23 that to promote a patient-centered approach, providers should consider evaluating for leg
24 length discrepancy when treating older adults with CLBP to help diminish pain and
25 disability, regardless of previous insufficient findings to support LLD as a cause of low
26 back pain.

28 Applebaum et al. (2021) completed an overview and spinal implications of leg length
29 discrepancy (LLD) in a narrative review. LLD occurs when the paired lower extremities
30 are unequal in length and can be etiologically classified as functional or structural. Length
31 differences are typically less than 10 mm and asymptomatic or easily compensated for by
32 the patient through self-lengthening or shortening of the lower extremities. LLD can be
33 assessed directly through tape measurements or indirectly through palpation of bony
34 landmarks, but poor validity and reliability of these measures exist. Imaging modalities,
35 specifically radiography, are more precise and help identify coexistent deformity. Once
36 LLD has been diagnosed, evaluation for potential adverse complications is necessary.
37 Discrepancies greater than 20 mm can alter biomechanics and loading patterns with
38 resultant functional limitations and musculoskeletal disorders, such as functional scoliosis.
39 Long-standing LLD and functional scoliosis often result in permanent degenerative
40 changes in the facet joints and intervertebral discs of the spine. Further understanding of
41 the contribution of LLD in the development of scoliosis and degenerative spine disease

1 will allow for more effective preventative treatment strategies and hasten return to
2 function. Use of LLD for diagnosis of subluxation is not appropriate.

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4 There are no safety concerns associated with the use of the procedure. There is the potential
5 risk of substitution harm if LLI tests are used in place of physical/neurological examination
6 techniques with demonstrated diagnostic utility.

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