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Tabor, Gillian

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1 Outcome measures and their importance for effective equine back pain rehabilitation

2 Gillian Tabor^{a*}

3 ^aHartpury University, Gloucester, GL19 3BE, UK

4 *Corresponding author gillian.tabor@hartpury.ac.uk

5 Abstract

6 Effective rehabilitation for equine back pain is required due to the frequency of dysfunction effecting
7 performance and welfare. Reliable and valid measures should be used establish a baseline in pain
8 and dysfunction levels, and used to monitor change during rehabilitation, as well as support future
9 research assessing the efficacy of treatment interventions. Such measures are collectively known as
10 outcome measures and can include specific objective markers of impairments such as reduced range
11 of motion, or pain on palpation. The aim of this narrative review is to discuss the options and tools
12 available to use as outcome measures in relation to the treatment and rehabilitation of back pain in
13 the horse. In this paper outcome measures critically discussed relate to conformation and standing
14 posture, muscle dimensions, palpation, range of motion, objective gait analysis, functional analysis,
15 owner reported outcome measures and pain scales. Recommendations are made to assist with
16 selection of a suitable outcome measure. In conclusion, complex laboratory-based analysis systems
17 are available to be gold-standard truly objective systems, although realism for clinical practitioners
18 working in the field limits their use. There is a requirement for new outcome measures that are not
19 subject to observer bias nor time or financially consuming, however it is possible to use those
20 available currently with assist in clinical decision making for the benefit of the horse.

21 Key words: objective measurement, horse, spinal dysfunction, physiotherapy

22

23 1. Introduction

24 Equine thoracolumbar pain is reported to occur frequently, influencing their welfare and affecting
25 athletic performance in ridden horses [1]. Combined data from multiple studies demonstrate that
26 impingement of the dorsal spinous process is the most common finding in horses with and without
27 clinical signs of back pain, with most pathology between the 14th thoracic and 2nd lumbar vertebrae
28 [2-6]. Clinical signs of back pain can vary, however presentations to veterinarians for examination
29 tend to be for behavioural change including overall poor performance, bucking or more subtle
30 changed to the way the horse feels when ridden, resistance to saddling and vague, ill-defined
31 lameness [4, 6-10]. On physical examination, there may be epaxial muscle spasm, atrophy and
32 weakness, tenderness on palpation of the spinous processes and hypomobility of the thoracic spine,
33 such as reduced flexion, extension, and lateral movement [9]. Clinically both hypo-and hyper-
34 responsiveness can be appreciated in the musculature, often varying with chronicity and whilst there
35 may be hypomobility as a response to hypertonic epaxial muscles, there may be exaggerated
36 responses in a horse with an acutely painful thoracolumbar region.

37

38 As well as thoracolumbar osseous pathology, back pain can arise from primary issues such as poor
39 saddle fit causing muscle pain [11], or secondary to pathology elsewhere in the horse, causing
40 lameness, alteration of spinal kinematics and subsequent back pain [8]. Horses may present with

41 clinical signs of both lameness and back pain and to understand this relationship further Landman *et*
42 *al.* [8] studied a group of horses presented with orthopaedic problems (n=805) and a control group
43 of horses undergoing pre-purchase examination that were considered free from problems (n=399).
44 Whilst mild lameness was found in 19.5% of the control population, nearly 80% of the horses
45 undergoing orthopaedic assessment were lame and 74.2% of those presenting with back pain were
46 lame. This relationship has been studied in vivo showing that horses with induced back pain had
47 altered spinal kinematics when in walk and trot on a treadmill, with the caudal thoracic region being
48 more extended at both gaits [12]. In horses with induced lameness there was an alteration to the
49 thoracolumbar range of motion pattern suggested to be the horse's method to reduce loading the
50 lame limb by moving the centre of gravity [13,14]. Changes to spinal and limb kinematics in the
51 presence of lameness or back pain respectively, as well as the imaging data showing presence of
52 pathology with or without clinical signs highlight the complexity of interpreting clinical signs.
53 Therefore, a combination of clinical examination and diagnostic aids such as nerve blocks and
54 diagnostic imaging is often needed to identify the cause of the pain [15,16]. However, even with
55 clinical examination and diagnostic imaging modalities, the underlying aetiology of back pain is often
56 poorly defined [17]. Limitations to appreciating the aetiology, and thus diagnosis can be a result of
57 underestimating co-existing osseous pathologies such as dorsal spinous process impingement,
58 articular process remodelling, facet ankylosis or sacroiliac disease [18,19].

59 Following examination, diagnostic procedures and subsequent intervention the horse needs to be
60 guided through a rehabilitation process to maximise function. In a recent survey of equine
61 veterinarians in the United States, half recommended rehabilitation before surgery and two-thirds
62 recommended rehabilitation after surgery, plus 82% reported that the clinical signs of back pain had
63 improved with rehabilitation alone [20]. Therefore, rehabilitation is recommended to optimise
64 function and welfare whether the goal is elite competition, leisure activities or for it to be unriden
65 but 'field-sound'. A thorough understanding of the pathogenesis of back pain is essential to inform
66 decision making during rehabilitation [21]. Plus knowledge of functional requirements for the
67 expected outcome to inform goal setting is also important, as rehabilitation for a horse that
68 competes in international eventing are different to a horse that is ridden on trails/hacked short
69 distances. Irrespective of the intended outcome, to be able to judge effectiveness of back pain
70 rehabilitation, measurement of factors that are influenced by the condition and subsequent
71 intervention should be used [22]. Progressing through rehabilitation can be judged subjectively on
72 the horse's ability to complete functional task such a tolerance to being ridden, in terms of
73 behavioural aspects, or more quantitative constructs such as the number of raised poles the horse
74 can successfully travel over before knocking them. Subjectively signs of improvement may be
75 determined through observed posture changes and size or shape of the epaxial muscles, however
76 subjective assessments may not be reliable.

77

78 Observer bias is inherent and a risk to the reliability in recording measurements and changes as a
79 result of interventions and thus the truth of the effects of treatment [23]. Scientists, and
80 practitioners often have strong expectations about the outcome of an experiment, even if they are
81 not consciously aware of them [24] which means effects can be exaggerated especially if positive
82 outcomes are desired. To reduce systematic discrepancy, masking observers and including a
83 matched placebo intervention in research studies reduces risk of bias. However, in clinical practice
84 robust randomised controlled studies are not undertaken within daily practice. Therefore, it is

85 important to recognise the challenge in employing measurement outcomes and the potential for an
86 observer to be influenced by bias [24] and measures that are objective should be used [25]. Ideally,
87 reliable and valid measures should establish a baseline in pain and dysfunction levels, and used to
88 monitor change during rehabilitation, as well as support future research assessing the efficacy of
89 treatment interventions. Such measures are collectively known as outcome measures and can
90 include specific objective markers of impairments such as reduced range of motion, or pain on
91 palpation.

92

93 In human medicine outcome measures are frequently employed to gauge treatment effectiveness
94 and efficiency [26]. Use of the Victorian Institute of Sport assessment outcome measure (VISA-OM)
95 for the common over-use injuries of patellar and Achilles tendinopathy, has allowed authors to
96 review studies comparing two exercise approaches to their management [27]. The VISA-OM scores
97 symptoms, simple tests of function and the ability to play sport using a visual analogue scale from 0-
98 10 [28,29] and has been used successfully to show differences in exercise programmes with different
99 loading dosages. Searching for equivalents in the equine sector of tendon injuries finds no equine
100 version of the VISA-OM symptom or functional scoring methods, despite the frequency of these
101 injuries and requirement for assessing rehabilitation techniques. Monitoring of recovery from
102 tendon injury in horses is commonly performed with repeated diagnostic ultrasound and lameness
103 examinations [30]. In terms of monitoring the severity of back pain there is scope to evaluate
104 specific individual physical impairments such as posture, range of motion, response to palpation and
105 as well as global factors such as quality of gait or functional status. Examples of condition specific
106 measures used in human practice, known as patient-reported outcome measures, are the Roland-
107 Morris Questionnaire or the Oswestry Low Back Pain Disability Index which consists of 10 items: pain
108 intensity, personal care, lifting, walking, sitting, standing, sleeping, sex life, social life and travelling
109 [26]. Gathering data such as these in equine practice requires a person to report as a proxy for the
110 horse. Whilst therefore not fulfilling the full definition of a patient reported outcome measure, one
111 specifically designed and validated outcome measure for equine musculoskeletal conditions, with
112 strategies in place to limit observer bias, would allow the evaluation of rehabilitation methods.

113

114 In comparison to horses, it is possible to assess outcomes in dogs undergoing rehabilitation using
115 validated scoring systems. The Canine Brief Pain Inventory is an owner-completed questionnaire
116 containing questions on severity of pain and how pain interferes with the dog's activities. This
117 measure can evaluate changes on pain scores in dogs with osteoarthritis treated with medication or
118 a placebo [31]. In the Finnish canine neurological function testing battery, which assesses functional
119 activities, 11 tasks are scored from 0 to 4, with a maximum sum-score of 44 reflecting dogs with
120 normal motor function [32]. This canine score is not intended for use to assess function in dogs with
121 orthopaedic pathologies however these examples from canine outcome measures show that there is
122 a range of methods that can be used for scoring, and therefore it is apparent that it would be
123 valuable for a potential scoring system for equine rehabilitation to be developed.

124

125 The aim of this narrative review is to discuss the options and tools available to use as outcome
126 measures in relation to the treatment and rehabilitation of back pain in the horse.

127

128 2. Conformation and standing posture

129 Subjective assessment of posture is discussed as part of a physiotherapy assessment [33] especially
130 in relation to back pain where an extended, lordotic posture has been noted in horses with back pain
131 and impingement dorsal spinous processes [4,12]. Increased extension closes the space between the
132 spinous processes which also this occurs when the head and neck are held high [34] and manually
133 facilitated flexion significantly increased the interspinous spaces in the thoracic spine [9]. Vertebral
134 problems have also been associated with changes in neck posture [35]. This perceived increase in
135 extension could be due to osseous pathology or due to increased tension (spasm) in the epaxial
136 muscle *longissimus dorsi* [36] which does further suggest that the adaption to the position of the
137 equine spine due to pain is reflected in a change in posture.

138 Posture relates to the arrangement of the body parts and can alter; however equine assessment also
139 includes evaluation of confirmation [37]. Objective measurement of skeletal conformation can be
140 obtained from standing horses by measurement of segment lengths and joint angles. Historically it has
141 been perceived that horses with shorter backs have a higher incidence of osseous disorder such as
142 impinging dorsal spinous processes, with long backed horses more prone to soft tissue injuries [3]. This
143 is supported by Johnston et al who reported that show jumpers had shorter lumbar spines compared
144 with dressage horses. Yet it cannot be established if the difference in incidence rates of over-riding
145 dorsal spinous processes between jumping and dressage horses is a result of the difference in lumbar
146 conformation or sporting discipline. There is now further ambiguity regarding back length and over-
147 riding dorsal spinous processes with more recent studies suggesting that longer backs are at risk of
148 back pain and osseous pathology. Takeyama and Sasaki [39] found that horses with longer back length,
149 and a greater ratio of caudal to cranial thoracic length had greater muscle hardness which was directly
150 correlated with osseous changes. Pathology could be a result of the higher extension forces that longer
151 backs are exposed to [40], increasing risk of impingement, articular process joint osteoarthritis and
152 increasing the demand on the epaxial and hypaxial muscles to resist gravitational extension forces.

153 Despite the reference to posture changes in horses with back pain the ability to measure the complex
154 three-dimensional shape change that occurs in the thoracolumbar region of the horse remains
155 challenging. Two-dimensional sagittal plane measures have been shown to have excellent short-term
156 intra-rater reliability in groups of clinically normal horses using total thoracolumbar angle but have not
157 been evaluated for reliability or validity longitudinally [41]. Subsequently more complex geometric
158 morphometrics have shown differences in postures of horses kept under natural conditions to those
159 in riding schools [42] and immediate posture changes following lunging with selected lunging aids [43].
160 It would be valuable to use either or both measures to track changes in posture longitudinally with
161 respect to rehabilitation of back pain.

162 Short term change in posture has been documented after completion of dynamic mobilisation
163 exercises in which the horse moved through spinal positions, in standing, by following a food bait.
164 Shakeshaft and Tabor [44] used a flexible curve ruler, adapted with attachment to a spirit level to
165 ensure reliability of measurements, to show that the thoracic region of the horse was less lordotic
166 immediately and one hour after the exercises. The spinal contours can be objectively measured with
167 a tool or via analysis of photographs, however the ensuring that the standing position the horse is
168 consistent between repeated measurements is critical [41]. A square stance is commonly described
169 as when the head and neck are in a neutral position and the metatarsus is perpendicular to the ground.
170 Positioning the horses' limbs via stepping forward and back, or handler placement, and using positive
171 and negative reinforcement cues via equipment worn by the horse has been used in studies assessing

172 posture and conformation [41, 45-46] however it is important to note that a self-selected non square
173 stance may be a method of achieving stability and should be noted as part of the clinical evaluation
174 [47].

175 3. Muscle dimensions

176 A result of back pain reported in the literature is atrophy of the epaxial muscles [48] and therefore
177 measurement of changes in dimension during ongoing pathology or recovery during rehabilitation is
178 useful. In the laboratory or veterinary scenario, the gold standard measure of muscle size in the
179 standing horse the quantification of cross-sectional area by ultrasound imaging, which has excellent
180 intra-rater reliability when tested using blinded observers [49,50]. Ultrasound imaging has been
181 used to demonstrate changes in multifidus dimensions following exercise rehabilitation interventions
182 and whole body vibration [50-53]. Equipment, cost and preparation time are prohibitive to the
183 practitioner working in clinical practice, however a simple and inexpensive tool that can be used to
184 record epaxial region shape change is the flexible curve ruler which has been used to track change in
185 back dimensions longitudinally [54], the relationship between lameness and saddle slip [55] and
186 change as a result of a vibration therapy intervention [56]. In addition to the flexible curve ruler
187 thoracic profiles size measures extracted from a three-dimensional light-scanning tool has been
188 tested in a group of endurance horses, showing good-excellent inter-rater reliability [57]. Whilst
189 three-dimensional light-scans use equipment that is less expensive than an ultrasound imaging
190 machine and are non-contact thus not requiring clipping/shaving or a contact medium, they have yet
191 to be used to evaluate shape change as a result of rehabilitation.

192 Muscle scoring, a subjective and visual grading scale of muscle development, has also been shown to
193 have moderate to very good repeatability when used in combination with palpation and scored with
194 categorical scales. Walker et al [58] assessed 35 dressage horses and the muscle score was related to
195 the kinematics of the same horse when ridden, showing greater thoracic, abdominal, and
196 lumbosacral muscle scores were associated with larger lumbosacral flexion angle during stance and
197 swing, and smaller thoracolumbar flexion angle during swing phase in collected trot. A more recent
198 research study modified the muscle scoring template and developed a muscle atrophy scoring
199 system for horses [59], testing its use in horses with a wider range of ages, breeds and health status.
200 Inter-rater agreement using a scoring scale which ranged from 1 ("no atrophy", i.e., normal muscle
201 mass) to 4 ("severe atrophy"), with half scores permitted was shown to be good-to-excellent for the
202 neck, back and hind regions. Pallesen et al [60] also developed an equine muscle condition score,
203 which was tested on 25 thoroughbred horses, based on a-priori muscle mass values measured using
204 ultrasonography. In their system horses were given an overall score that best described the whole
205 horse after assessing seven areas including the back. Walker et al [58] and Herbst et al [59] used a
206 composite score for their grading, allowing for more evaluation of regions than Pallesen et al [60]
207 which is potentially more useful for a wider range of breeds and disciplines of the working horse. In
208 the context of muscle scoring for horses with back pain, particular attention is given to the
209 thoracolumbar region's profile, specifically where the region may exhibit a pronouncedly concave
210 profile. This is contrasted with the opposite end of the spectrum, a flat or convex shape which is an
211 indicator of desired muscle development.

212 A limitation to the use of external shape is that the total profile includes both muscle and adipose
213 tissue. Whilst Herbst et al [59] attempted to correct the score for this and Walker et al [58] suggest
214 completing a body condition score in addition to their muscle evaluation, both these scores and the

215 use of a flexible curve ruler cannot identify if changes in profile size are muscle change, adipose
216 tissue quantity change or a combination of both. Ultrasound imaging does allow measurement of
217 muscle but only when the whole border of the muscle can be visualised on the screen, such as the
218 multifidus muscle. Unfortunately, cross-sectional area change of the multifidus muscle does not
219 correspond to total external profile shape change [61] which limits ability to judge change in muscle
220 size of deep stabilising muscles such as multifidus, via external methods. Singular dimensions of the
221 longissimus dorsi muscle has been measured with ultrasound imaging, with Lindner et al [62] and
222 Abe et al [63] studying thickness which has been taken forward to studies investigating treatment
223 effects of pituitary pars intermedia dysfunction [64] and seasonal growth in young horses [65], but as
224 yet, not for changes as an effect of rehabilitation for back pain.

225 4. Palpation

226 To objectively measure the response to manual palpation over the back regions in a horse, as verbal
227 feedback is not obtainable, a tool needs to be used to provide feedback in a form that is recordable.
228 To evaluate the effects of extracorporeal shockwave and capacitive resistive electric transfer therapy
229 treatment on horses with thoracolumbar pain categorical scores have been used by Trager et al [66]
230 and Argüelles et al [67] respectively. Both studies used categories and a four-point scale to record
231 response to palpation over the spinous processes, palpation of the epaxial musculature and to
232 visually grade epaxial muscle atrophy. Each score is listed with guidance to the behavioural
233 response, level of muscle tone or amount of muscle loss but did not address variations in muscle
234 sensitivity within an individual muscle. Muscle tone is undefined, but if assumed to be the amount of
235 tension in the muscle at rest, this would relate to the muscle scored as soft or stiff according to the
236 scales. There are no reports of reliability testing for these scales however both studies used a single
237 examiner to test and record the scores with these scales [66,67].

238

239 The inter-rater reliability of palpation assessment using categorical scores have been tested by
240 Varcoe-Cocks *et al* [68] and Merrifield-Jones *et al* [69] where 6-point scales combining pain response
241 and evaluation of tone, have been shown to have no significant differences for reported on pain
242 between examiners. Therefore, as simple, no-cost methods of documenting graded response to
243 palpation, categorical scores more detailed than presence of pain yes/no are recommended to be
244 used by practitioners. Although inter-rater reliability has been evaluated for a single region in the
245 thoracolumbar epaxial musculature [69], further development of agreed definitions of palpation
246 responses, differences between anatomical locations and tissue quality is needed to avoid the
247 variations in interpretation of palpation seen between practitioners.

248

249 The most used mechanical tool is the pressure algometer which quantifies the mechanical
250 nociceptive threshold (MNT) using a tip of a known size, usually 1cm² and a calibrated scale that
251 measures force [70]. The pressure applied via the tool is stopped when there is a behavioural
252 response from the horse indicating pain/discomfort from the musculoskeletal structure it is applied
253 to. The resultant data, in units such as Newtons per cm² or kilograms per cm² can then be tracked
254 across periods of time. Based on the decline in MNTs in horse with experimentally induced back pain
255 there is a validity to using a pressure algometer to measure MNT responses [70,71]. A pressure
256 algometer has been used in several studies to evaluate the response to interventions, such as
257 chiropractic manipulation, elastic therapeutic tape and extracorporeal shockwave as well as
258 documenting values in ranges of horses such as racehorses with sacroiliac pain, warmbloods and

259 Icelandic horses [66,68,72-75]. Whilst the MNT level is provided on a quantitative scale it is
260 important to note that horses can become sensitized or habituated to the application of the pressure
261 algometer with all the above authors noting changes in repeated measures ranging from increasing
262 MNTs in 20-26% and decreasing in 6-23% of horses, [70,72,74], significantly lower readings in the
263 middle of two of four measures [68], differences in readings at different times of the day [74] and
264 differences following a control treatment application [73]. If using a pressure algometer it is critical
265 that a protocol is established regarding consistency of location tested, time of day the horses is being
266 measured, time of measurement relative to exercise speed of application and the number of
267 repeated measures on the same location that are used to inform the mean MNT.

268

269 The pressure algometer, used to measure MNT is considered to be a repeatable measure of pain
270 response, however a similar tool, applied to the soft tissues of the back region has been used to
271 quantify muscle tone. Wakeling et al [76] used a custom-made indenter that used a linear variable
272 displacement transducer to produce a voltage output when placed in the epaxial region due to
273 displacement of the spring. The output, in Newtons per metre, were used to record changes in
274 muscle tone following manipulative therapies. Whilst tone is mentioned in categorical scoring
275 systems for palpation, the objective device used by Wakeling et al [76] does not appear to have been
276 used in any further equine studies of back pain treatment.

277

278 5. Range of motion

279

280 Thoracolumbar range of motion is routinely assessed as part of evaluation of spinal function, and this
281 can be achieved in the standing horse by stimulating reflex muscular contractions to induce
282 movements as a response to the pressure [77,78]. Pressure on the ventral midline, known as the
283 pectoral, sternal or abdominal reflex is said to not only demonstrate range of motion of the
284 thoracic region but the ability of the horse to activate abdominal and trunk musculature, and with
285 dorsal pressure the pelvic rounding or croup reflex can assess more caudal regions of the spine [78].
286 Regular use of these reflex mobilisations are suggested to prevent loss of spinal motion. Although
287 there are no published reports of their longitudinal efficacy, they do induce a kinematic or postural
288 change, as well as activate the abdominal muscles, shown by Coll et al [79]. Measurement of
289 muscular activity requires specialist equipment and analysis, therefore is unlikely to be used in
290 clinical practice, however objectively measuring the change in available thoracolumbar movement as
291 a result of treatment or a rehabilitation programme range, via a method convenient to use by a sole
292 practitioner would be of value.

293

294 Interest in the available range of motion of the equine spine has been long standing with early
295 research measuring the motion of the thoracolumbar region during induced back movements [80].
296 The aims of Licka and Peham's study [80] were, to provide objectivity to the clinical assessment of
297 evaluating the ability and willingness to perform these spinal movements [3]. The mean range of
298 dorsoventral and lateroflexion movement, measured with three-dimensional kinematic analysis was
299 presented as percentage of the horse's height at the withers. Whilst objective, and documented
300 without bias, the value of this measure is limited due to low external validity with only ten horses
301 albeit of mixed breeding as well as the challenge to observe small difference in relative percentages
302 based on the height of the horse. Measurement of lumbosacral range of motion in the standing
303 horse during electrical stimulation and induced back movements was measured in a more recent

304 study evaluating the effects of the electrical stimulation [81]. Using three-dimensional kinematic
305 analysis the flexion-extension range of segments of the thoracolumbosacral region can be
306 documented however in a clinical setting these methods are not practical.

307

308 Categorical scoring of the observation of induced back movements has been used to evaluate the
309 outcome of therapeutic interventions. When testing the effects of a pulsed electromagnetic rug a
310 self-created scale was used that noted a physiological reaction being normal as a zero and positive or
311 negative for increased or decreased reactions (mild = +/- 1; moderate = +/- 2 and severe = +/- 3) [76].
312 Although there was no significant difference to this or the pressure algometry used, the authors do
313 discuss that this method of testing remains subjective and requires an experience examiner using a
314 standardised protocol. The effects of chiropractic care and low-level laser therapy were also
315 evaluated using a battery of tests including palpation and range of motion tests, using categorical
316 scoring [83]. Responses to sternal elevation and pelvic flexion reflexes were scores in a scale from 0
317 (Pronounced pain response, steps away/avoid applied pressure) to a maximum of 4 (≥ 3 cm with
318 elevation or pelvic flexion and ability to hold the position indefinitely). The authors do not describe
319 how the amplitude of movement was determined, or why the threshold of ≥ 3 cm with elevation or
320 pelvic flexion was selected. Therefore, it would be interesting to objectively compare vertical
321 displacement in horses of different breeds and confirmations, and those with and without back pain,
322 to determine if the average displacement range is appropriate to use in future range of motion
323 studies. Hypomobility leading to a reduced displacement is often reported however hypermobility
324 may also be observed in acutely sensitive and painful horses, or horse with atrophy and potentially
325 influence neuromotor control. Therefore, references ranges that take into account the quantity of
326 motion, palpation and muscle score are needed to established normative values, as well and
327 individual variation. However, as a scale for recording responses to tests of range of motion, to be
328 used without complex video motion analysis, these scales are an advantage over a minimal binary
329 can expected full range be achieved or not.

330

331 6. Objective gait analysis

332 Reliable assessment of gait by visual methods alone is known to present challenges [84] but with gait
333 being affected by back pain [12] and back movement affected by lameness [13,14], it is important
334 that some form of objective evaluation of the horse during locomotion be carried out during
335 rehabilitation. If measurement technology such as inertial motion sensors or markerless artificial
336 intelligence systems are available, these are recommended to be used as they can classify
337 asymmetry, limit observer bias and remove the limitations of the human eye to detect mild lameness
338 [85]. In the absence of available technology an ordinal grading scale can and is frequently used but
339 there must be acknowledgement of reduced inter-rater reliability, especially when used to assess
340 mild lameness [86], which may be the level of lameness present in horses undergoing rehabilitation.

341 During initial stage of rehabilitation, the horse may be on box rest, or restricted to walk [48] which
342 limits evaluation of lameness usually conducted at trot due to the clear association between
343 lameness and alterations for a range of gait parameters (see 84 for a review). However, during in-
344 hand walk several markers can be used both objectively and visually. Vertical displacement of the
345 head movement is also altered at walk after induction of forelimb lameness [87]. Therefore, head
346 movement during forelimb stepping in walk may be a feature to look out for if lameness and back

347 pain co-exist, which is common a feature of the symbiotic relationship explored by Landman et al [8].
348 Due to lowered muscle activity, thoracolumbar motion is larger at walk than at trot [88] therefore
349 observation of trunk movement could be graded, albeit subjectively. It is possible that future
350 technological developments will enable spinal motion assessment via marker less single camera
351 systems, similar to the systems that are comparable to three-dimensional motion capture for
352 lameness evaluation [89]. The potential for computer vision to detect changes in posture is promising
353 as systems are being developed to monitor animal movement and position, which although as
354 valuable for welfare assessment [90] the advances in technology could become accurate enough to
355 acquire equine kinematic data. In addition to immediate data acquisition, the reliability of the
356 measures gained between assessments is critical to being able to evaluate changes longitudinally.
357 Inertial motion sensors have demonstrated moderate intraclass correlation coefficients for weekly
358 repeat gait assessments when measuring asymmetry in thoroughbreds [91] However, with the
359 potential for more extensive use of this technology over longer periods, objective gait analysis may
360 prove valuable in tracking rehabilitation progress

361 7. Thermography

362 Thermography is a tool to detect of infrared radiation, which can be directly correlated to blood flow.
363 Superficial body temperature increases result from alterations in local blood flow which can be due
364 to an active inflammatory processes and injuries of underlying tissues [92]. In a rehabilitation context
365 thermography could record local increase in temperature due to an inflammatory process but also
366 the presence of different pain degrees, evaluating the efficacy of the treatment [93]. von Schweinitz
367 [94] recommends not only looking for thermographic hot spots which indicate regions where
368 inflammation may be present, but also areas within chronic back pain cases involving cold regions at
369 the affected sites. In some muscle injuries, swelling and oedema in the affected area may be severe
370 enough to inhibit blood flow through the muscle, highlighting the importance of comparison
371 between right and left sides [92].

372 Despite reports of its value, for example in supporting diagnosis of thoracolumbar lesions in Quarter
373 Horses [95] and nonracing performance horses [94], limited studies into thermography as a
374 monitoring tool in horses undergoing rehabilitation have been published [93]. Challenges acquisition
375 of reliable thermographic images exist such as the influence of hair, its uniformity and its length,
376 airflow/drafts and the presence of sunlight creating erroneous heating of the skin [92,93,96]. To
377 enhance the value of thermography as a measure of rehabilitation progress, a rigorous protocol
378 should be adopted [96]. With more research to establish the reliability of thermography across all
379 equine applications there is potential for use as a screening or complementary test to guide further
380 diagnostic examinations and documenting evidence supporting the effects of various physical
381 therapies and rehabilitation techniques [94]

382 8. Functional evaluation

383 A more functional but potentially difficult area to assess validity of, is the capacity of the horse
384 undergoing rehabilitation to complete a task. During walking in early stages of rehabilitation or
385 when progressed to trotting, ground and raised poles are often suggested as part of a rehabilitation
386 programme [97]. When measured with electromyography, walking over poles have been shown to
387 increase the activity of *longissimus dorsi* and *rectus abdominus*, and trotting to increase *rectus*
388 *abdominus* activity [98]. The effect of increasing the hypaxial muscle activity, to induce flexion of the

389 thoracolumbar spine, supports the use of poles as part of rehabilitation for back pain. The limb
390 flexion range of motion during stepping over ground and raised poles, increases at the elbow, carpus,
391 metacarpus, stifle, hock and metatarsus [99,100], suggesting that range limb flexion could be a proxy
392 measure for core stabilisation, which is a desired outcome of rehabilitation [53]. Tracking ability to
393 change the amount of flexion to adapt to the obstacle, in this case a pole on the ground or raised
394 could be a used to monitor progress through rehabilitation.

395 There is very little reported regarding fatigue and the effect on movement in horses. In horses
396 progressing from durations of no work to fitness, or in horses already at higher levels of activity, it is
397 plausible that fatigue would influence quality of movement, neuromuscular control and potentially
398 pain levels. Before and after a 19-minute duration of water treadmill exercise at walk, at five water
399 depths, limb kinematics and poll/wither and pelvis displacement in six horses were analysed [88].
400 Whilst stride direction, fore/hindlimb protraction and retraction, and craniocaudal, mediolateral and
401 dorsoventral poll/wither and pelvis displacement were not altered there was a significantly greater
402 mediolateral oscillation of tarsus during the stance phase of the stride in all horses. Tarsal oscillation
403 may be a sign of reduced strength in the hindlimb stabilising musculature (Quadriceps and Biceps
404 Femoris) and potentially could predispose the horse to injury [101]. In clinical practice assessment of
405 tarsus oscillation could be achieved in real-time and graded as per Tranquille et al [102], who used an
406 ordinal scale with three categories of no oscillation, mild and severe to track change. Using a scoring
407 system to monitor features of gait such as tarsal oscillation or limb flexion during exercise with poles
408 and their change during a rehabilitation programme, is a step towards objectivity and a potential
409 method of reducing the risk of expectation bias. In respect to function of the spinal regions a scoring
410 system for, or an in the field method of objectively quantifying, thoracolumbosacral mobility during
411 gait would be an extremely valuable addition to the rehabilitation practitioner's measurement
412 toolkit.

413 A grading scale has been developed for assessment of function during movement and it could be
414 used for tracking achievement of any task, similar to scales previously validated for human and
415 canine function. The equine scale, designed through consensus with expert physiotherapists contains
416 five levels and descriptors starting with optimal, and progressing through good, mild movement
417 dysfunction, moderate movement dysfunction and severe movement dysfunction [103]. Whilst this
418 system is subject to further reliability and validity trials, in the absence of computer aided analysis of
419 gait or complex tasks like negotiating an obstacle, this grading scale is legitimate and logical step
420 towards more objective documentation. To improve goal orientated approaches to rehabilitation a
421 recommendation is to use a modified patient specific functional scale, either with an ordinal 0-10
422 score or the 0-5 scale reported above, individualised to the horse presenting with back pain, to
423 monitor effectiveness of interventions [104].

424 9. Owner reported outcome measures

425 Within the literature relating to surgery for impinging dorsal spinous processes, there are owner
426 reports gauging long term outcomes. Where standardised veterinary assessments of the horses
427 were not performed in the months following the surgery, owners were contacted by telephone
428 [10,15,48,105-109]. For obvious reasons neither the owners nor those conducting the telephone
429 interviews were blinded to the treatments and the range of follow-up timeframes were from six
430 months to six years, which challenges the validity of the results. In human clinical practice patient-
431 reported outcomes are used as a marker of effectiveness for many interventions, however an

432 acknowledged limitation of their use of recall bias. After a relatively short period of two weeks
433 following spinal injection Butt et al [110] patients showed significantly altered recollection of pain
434 levels when patients were asked about their pain levels pre- and four-hours following the treatment.
435 No studies appear to be published on recall bias, or validity of non-blinded reviews of outcome
436 following surgery for impinging dorsal spinous processes.

437 10. Pain scales

438 Evaluation of pain is a critical element of musculoskeletal assessment and there are a variety of
439 reliably tools that are available to record alteration in facial expressions [111,112] and ridden
440 behaviour [113] however these are not specific to back pain, or indeed musculoskeletal pain. Scales
441 for orthopaedic pain and subsequent change of behaviour have been designed, such as the equine
442 brief pain inventory for osteoarthritic horses [114] and the musculoskeletal pain scale [115] which
443 score discomfort based on demeanour, pain face, head/neck posture. limb posture, weight shifting
444 and bearing and lameness. Arguably to date there are no behavioural or functional outcome
445 measures of equine back pain that have been validated and published.

446 11. Recommendations

447 A gold standard outcome measure relevant to the context of this article will have been tested for
448 validity in horse with back pain, such as pressure algometry, flexible curve ruler and three-
449 dimensional kinematics (spinal and limb). If a valid measure is not available the next level of quality
450 is whether it is reliable in the context of horses with back pain, and then in clinically normal horses,
451 for example posture measurements from photographs.

452 If no outcome measure exists, it is sensible to create your own categorical scale which can be as
453 simple as mild, moderate and severe, or more complex with greater numbers of categories. Whilst
454 subjective and therefore still open to observer and expectation bias, by documenting scores beyond
455 a binary improved or not, there is more scope for being evaluative and reducing relying on memory
456 and recall bias.

457 To assist choosing the most optimal outcome measure for the horses with back pain undergoing
458 rehabilitation, the following questions can be used:

- 459 • Are you evaluating a single impairment factor or whole-horse dysfunction?
- 460 • Has the outcome measure been tested for validity in the clinical population you wish to use it
461 in?
- 462 • Has the outcome measure been tested for repeatability either within or between those
463 taken the measures (intra- and inter-rater reliability)?
- 464 • Does this outcome measure need equipment or facilities to be used, and do you have access
465 to those required?
- 466 • Will the owner or the practitioner be collecting the measurement?
- 467 • Is the horse restricted in their activity levels?

468

469 12. Conclusion

470 Both objective measurement of a horse in standing and during motion are important to gain a true
471 picture of the horse, and how the back is functioning, in horses undergoing treatment and
472 rehabilitation. Unfortunately, there are drawbacks to over-reliance on the commonly used subjective

473 visual examination, in the form of bias, leading to false positive or negative reporting of results.
474 Complex laboratory-based analysis systems are available to be gold-standard truly objective systems,
475 however realism for clinical practitioners working in the field limits their use. There is a requirement
476 for new outcome measures that are not time or financially consuming. Any outcome measure is
477 better than no outcome measure, and choosing those that reduces subjectivity can assist with
478 clinical decision making for the benefit of the horse.

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