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1 Endocrinopathic laminitis encompasses laminitis associated with insulin dysregulation (ID) linked to  
2 an underlying endocrine disease, namely equine metabolic syndrome (EMS) and/or pituitary pars  
3 intermedia dysfunction (PPID), or corticosteroid therapy. This form of laminitis has been the focus of  
4 a considerable amount of research effort recently and improving ways of making a definitive diagnosis  
5 has been a particular emphasis.

6

7 A diagnosis relies firstly on accurate recognition of the disease by owners, as this then prompts  
8 examination and treatment by a veterinarian and/or farrier. By conducting a cross-sectional study  
9 involving first opinion veterinary practices in the UK, Pollard et al [1] sought to establish whether cases  
10 of owner-suspected laminitis would be confirmed as laminitis by the attending veterinary surgeon. All  
11 owners-suspected laminitis cases were confirmed upon veterinary examination (n=51); however 45%  
12 of cases diagnosed as laminitis by a veterinary surgeon were not recognised as such by owners. This  
13 failure of laminitis recognition by owners highlights the need for evidence-based education to ensure  
14 early disease detection. It also validated inclusion of cases of owner-recognised laminitis in  
15 prospective and retrospective studies.

16

17 It is now universally agreed that insulin dysregulation (ID) is the key, central feature of equine  
18 metabolic syndrome (EMS). In addition, ID is a feature of the subset of animals with pituitary pars  
19 intermedia dysfunction (PPID) that develop laminitis. Equine ID manifests in three forms, namely basal  
20 hyperinsulinaemia, an excessive insulin response to oral carbohydrate and peripheral (tissue) insulin  
21 resistance. Thus, detection of ID is essential to identify animals at an increased risk of endocrinopathic  
22 laminitis. This in turn allows targeted implementation of preventative management strategies to  
23 reduce the risk of disease occurrence. A number of recent publications have sought to determine the  
24 ideal test to detect ID in clinical cases.

25

26 Basal hyperinsulinaemia can be detected by measuring circulating insulin concentrations. However,  
27 the sensitivity of measuring basal insulin concentrations alone to diagnose ID is low and a dynamic  
28 test is preferred. Dynamic tests will either detect an excessive insulin response to oral carbohydrate  
29 or peripheral (tissue) insulin resistance depending on the individual test. The oral glucose test (OGT),  
30 oral sugar test (OST) or a dietary meal challenge test can be used to identify an excessive insulin  
31 response to an oral carbohydrate, whilst the euglycaemia hyperinsulinaemic clamp (EHC), frequently  
32 sampled intravenous glucose tolerance test (FSIGTT), insulin tolerance test (ITT) and combined insulin  
33 glucose test (CGIT) are advocated to detect peripheral insulin resistance.

34

35 The oral glucose test was the first test to be promoted for the detection of ID; however, the  
36 repeatability of the test had not been reported. A recent study by de Laat and Sillence [2] revealed  
37 that the OGT is reasonably repeatable, that a post-glucose sampling point of either 90 or 120 minutes  
38 was acceptable and that an equivalent dose of dietary carbohydrate provided in the form of a  
39 commercial grain mixture (meal challenge test) was a viable and more palatable option for the test.

40

41 More recently, the OST, which uses corn syrup rather than glucose powder to stimulate an insulin  
42 response, has been proposed as a field test to identify ID that manifests as an excessive insulin  
43 response to oral carbohydrate. It is recommended that the OST be performed after an overnight fast,  
44 but fasting is often impractical in animals kept solely at pasture. Knowles et al [3] determined that for  
45 dichotomous interpretation (ID or not ID), similar results were obtained using cut-offs of serum insulin  
46 concentration  $>60 \mu\text{iu/ml}$  at 60 or 90 min post corn syrup if the test is performed in fasted animals  
47 and  $>51 \mu\text{iu/ml}$  at 30 or 60 min post corn syrup in animals maintained at pasture. Thus, fasting is not  
48 essential. However, at any single time point, within-subject coefficients of variation in fasted animals

49 were 40% and in animals maintained at pasture were 31%. Therefore, clinicians should beware of the  
50 limits of interpreting changes in absolute OST results. For example, following implementation of a  
51 weight loss program or initiation of a pharmacologic intervention, owing to poor repeatability, small  
52 changes in OST results should not be over-interpreted.

53

54 For the OST, only a dose of 0.1 or 0.15 mL/kg bwt corn syrup has been evaluated previously [4]. Thus,  
55 Jocelyn et al (2018)[5] sought to determine the effect of varying the dose of corn syrup (0.15 vs 0.30  
56 vs 0.45 mL/kg bwt) on the insulin and glucose response to the OST and the test's ability to distinguish  
57 between ponies with a history of laminitis and those without. The insulin response following 0.15  
58 mL/kg bwt corn syrup was not significantly different from that following 0.3 mL/kg bwt at any time  
59 point. However, the insulin response following 0.45 mL/kg bwt corn syrup significantly differed from  
60 both lower doses at all time points apart from 0 min. The repeatability of the test was fair and there  
61 was no difference between the results obtained when the ponies were fasted for 6 hours or  
62 maintained at pasture prior to the test. Using the serum insulin concentration at 60 min, a cut-off  
63 value of 110  $\mu$ iu/ml (measured using a radioimmunoassay) was able to differentiate between  
64 previously laminitic and non-laminitic ponies. Thus, using a dose of 0.45ml/kg bwt corn syrup  
65 improves the ability of the OST to detect ID that manifests as an excessive insulin response to oral  
66 carbohydrate.

67

68 Whilst both the OGT and OST are advocated as tests suitable for the detection of ID, the two tests  
69 have not been directly compared. Smith et al [6] compared the two tests in horses (n=5) and ponies  
70 (n=8) of unknown insulin sensitivity. Using previously defined criteria of ID, the OGT identified 7/13  
71 animals as ID, whereas the OST identified 5/13 animals as ID. Thus, the OGT and OST agreed in 85% of  
72 equine subjects, but the results of the two tests are not comparable in all cases. Therefore, if repeated

73 tests are carried out, care should be taken to ensure that the same test is undertaken each time and  
74 that the two tests are not used interchangeably.

75

76 Finally, Bertin and de Laat [7] reviewed the different tests currently available to diagnose ID that  
77 manifests as peripheral (tissue) insulin resistance. An ideal test would be able to detect horses in the  
78 early stages of ID and would have a strong intrinsic value considering the many environmental and  
79 individual animal factors that have been shown to confound the results of any given test. The authors  
80 concluded that with respect to the possible tests advocated for the diagnosis of peripheral insulin  
81 resistance, fasting blood glucose concentration and proxies derived from glucose and insulin  
82 concentrations are poor diagnostic tests; that the euglycaemia hyperinsulinaemic clamp (EHC) and the  
83 frequently sampled intravenous glucose tolerance test (FSIGTT) were only suitable in the research  
84 setting; that the insulin tolerance test (ITT) is suitable for assessing tissue IR; and that the combined  
85 insulin glucose test (CGIT) requires further validation. In addition, it should be acknowledged that  
86 regardless of the test used, many factors of variation, such as breed, diet, fasting state or season, have  
87 been identified and could potentially confound the results of a specific test. Therefore, careful  
88 interpretation of the results of a given test in each individual situation is required to optimise the  
89 detection of horses at risk of laminitis.

90

91 When undertaking any test to detect any of the manifestations of ID, it should be remembered that a  
92 number of innate (breed, sex, adiposity, genetics) and environmental (diet, exercise) factors affect  
93 insulin dynamics in equids. Jacob et al [8] sought to evaluate the effect of age and dietary carbohydrate  
94 profile on insulin and glucose dynamics. The effect of adaptation to diets containing varying amounts  
95 of starch, fibre and sugar on the glucose and insulin dynamics in two breeds of healthy non obese  
96 adult and aged horses was determined using minimal model analysis of an insulin-modified frequently  
97 sampled intravenous glucose tolerance test (FSIGTT) as well as the glucose and insulin responses to

98 an OST and a dietary meal challenge test. The study found that the effect of age, breed and diet on  
99 glucose and insulin dynamics was variable depending on the assessment. The responses at the tissue  
100 level (FSIGTT) revealed that age influences the acute response insulin to glucose (AIRg), regardless of  
101 diet, whilst adaptation to starch and sugar improves tissue insulin sensitivity (SI) in both adult and  
102 aged horses. In contrast, at the enteral level (assessed using OST), minimal changes in glucose and  
103 insulin parameters due to dietary adaptation were detected. In contrast, the dietary meal challenge  
104 (a single meal of the diet) demonstrated enhanced postprandial hyperinsulinaemia in both adult and  
105 aged horses, following adaptation to both starch- and sugar-rich diets compared to the control and  
106 high fibre diets. Thus, this study highlights the need to consider age and diet when evaluating glucose  
107 and insulin dynamics using certain tests.

108

109 Whilst ID is the central feature of endocrinopathic laminitis, there are other additional risk factors.  
110 Previous studies have evaluated a variety of risk factors in groups of animals after disease occurrence  
111 only and any differences detected may reflect the disease rather than a predisposition. Identifying risk  
112 factors prior to disease occurrence would allow the targeting of preventive management strategies.  
113 Potential risk factors other than ID that require investigation include obesity, inflammatory cytokines  
114 and markers of endothelial dysfunction. Therefore, a prospective cohort study was undertaken to  
115 investigate these risk factors in animals prior to disease occurrence [9]. Various phenotypic and  
116 metabolic markers were evaluated in a cohort of 446 animals with no history of laminitis. After 1, 2  
117 and 3 years, respectively, 18 (4.0%), 30 (6.7%) and 44 (9.9%) animals were reported to have had  
118 laminitis. Plasma adiponectin, and serum basal insulin and insulin post-dexamethasone  
119 concentrations were significantly associated with laminitis occurrence cumulatively after 1, 2 and 3  
120 years. Combinations of these biomarkers did not improve their predictive value and surprisingly, the  
121 development of laminitis was not associated with regional or generalised obesity, hyperleptinaemia  
122 or hypertriglyceridaemia. Thus, risk factors for future laminitis prior to disease occurrence include low

123 plasma adiponectin and high serum basal insulin or insulin post-dexamethasone concentrations. It is  
124 possible that measurement of these in animals could be used to identify animals at an increased risk  
125 of endocrinopathic laminitis before the disease occurs for the first time. Since the radioimmunoassay  
126 used in this prospective study to measure plasma total adiponectin concentrations is no longer valid,  
127 samples from this study were used to validate an immunoturbidimetric assay [10].

128

129 Finally, analysis of plasma adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) concentration aids diagnosis of  
130 pituitary pars intermedia dysfunction (PPID), the second endocrine disease associated with an  
131 increased risk of laminitis. Concentrations are most commonly measured using a validated  
132 chemiluminescent-immunoassay (CI). However, an automated immunofluorescence assay (IF) has  
133 newly been validated in the horse and comparison of the validated chemiluminescent-immunoassay  
134 (CI) and immunofluorescent (IF) assays was limited [11]. Thus, Knowles et al [12] sought to compare  
135 the assays using blood samples collected from a cohort of ponies in autumn (n=99) and spring (n=88)  
136 and additionally to assess assay cross-reactivity to ACTH fragments. The study found that the results  
137 obtained with the IF assay were proportional to, but lower than, those obtained using the CI assay,  
138 such that the results cannot be used interchangeably. However, using appropriate cut-off values  
139 specific to the assay, agreement for binary classification was good. A different relationship was found  
140 between ACTH concentration results generated by the two methods when measuring concentrations  
141 in samples collected from the same animals in the autumn compared with the spring. A probable  
142 explanation for this finding is cross-reactivity to or interference by a substance present in equine  
143 plasma at greater concentrations in the autumn than the spring, such as other POMC derived peptides.  
144 This was investigated by the addition of commercially available synthetic ACTH fragments to equine  
145 plasma samples. Cross-reactivity or interference was demonstrated with both assays, but the most  
146 marked effect was of corticotropin-like intermedia peptide (CLIP) on the CI assay. Thus, the authors  
147 concluded that a naturally occurring autumnal increase in endogenous CLIP production could be

148 responsible for the differences between ACTH assays in the present study. Finally, of the 88 ponies  
149 with both spring and autumn samples, 56 (64%) exceeded a published autumn CI threshold (>47  
150 pg/ml), of which 39 (70%) were below the equivalent threshold (<29 pg/ml) the following spring  
151 without treatment. Thus, clinicians should interpret the results of basal ACTH testing with caution and  
152 with reference to clinical signs and in horses that are diagnosed with PPID during the autumn, begin  
153 pergolide treatment and are then retested the following spring, clinicians should be very cautious  
154 before attributing a return of ACTH concentration to reference range to pergolide treatment.

155

156 In conclusion, these nine recent publications have highlighted a number of important advances in  
157 knowledge relating to the diagnosis of endocrinopathic laminitis. Firstly, there is a need for further  
158 evidence-based education to address the under-recognition of laminitis by owners. Secondly, the oral  
159 glucose test (OGT), the OST (OST) using a higher dose of corn syrup (0.45 ml/kg bwt) or a meal  
160 challenge test can all be used to detect an excessive insulin response to carbohydrate, but the tests  
161 do not always agree and have only fair repeatability. Thirdly, the insulin tolerance test (ITT) is the most  
162 suitable test currently available for assessing peripheral (tissue) insulin resistance and that regardless  
163 of the test used to detect ID, many factors of variation, such as breed, diet and age could potentially  
164 confound the results. Fourthly, whilst ID is the central feature of endocrinopathic laminitis, there are  
165 other additional risk factors including low circulating concentrations of the adipokine adiponectin.  
166 Measurement of these could be used to identify animals at an increased risk of endocrinopathic  
167 laminitis before the disease occurs for the first time. Finally, the results obtained using two assay  
168 available for the measurement of ACTH concentrations in animals suspected of having PPID are not  
169 interchangeable; ACTH fragments cross-react with the CI assay; and ACTH concentrations above the  
170 seasonally adjusted reference range in autumn frequently return to normal the following spring and  
171 should be interpreted with caution. All of these papers can be read in full in this special laminitis online  
172 edition.



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