



1 Article

2 Generation of domains for the Equine 3 Musculoskeletal Rehabilitation Outcome Score: 4 Development by Expert Consensus

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9 **Simple Summary:** Within rehabilitation, measurements taken before, during and after treatments
10 are used to judge patient progress and the effectiveness of prescribed treatments. To know which
11 measurements to use for a given health conditions, practitioners must have knowledge of what
12 should be measured, which measurement tools are available and accurate, alongside what they
13 intend to measure. Composite outcome measures (OMs) are tools which use grouped
14 measurement tests to monitor patient progress; they have been tested for a variety of human and
15 canine conditions but none have been designed or tested for use in physical rehabilitation in horses.
16 This study asked leading equine veterinarians, physiotherapists and researchers which measures
17 should be included in an OM for use in the rehabilitation of horses. Using a process to evaluate
18 agreement, ten areas of measurement were included in the final model: lameness, pain at rest, pain
19 during exercise, behaviour during exercise, muscular symmetry, performance/functional capacity,
20 behaviour at rest, palpation, balance and proprioception. Existing reliable tests used to measure
21 these areas were evaluated and potential new measures discussed and now should be taken forward
22 to testing as a composite outcome score to see if they are effective in measuring effectiveness of
23 treatment.

24 **Abstract:** Outcome measures (OM) are a requirement of professional practice standards in human
25 and canine physiotherapy practice for measurement of health status. Measures such as pain and
26 functional capacity of specific regions are used to track treatment impact and can be used to develop
27 optimal management strategies. To achieve comparable patient care in equine physiotherapy, OMs
28 must be incorporated into practice, however no reliable and valid OMs exist for equine
29 rehabilitation. This study utilised the experience and opinion of a panel of experts working in the
30 equine rehabilitation sphere to gain consensus on the core areas (domains) to be included in a model,
31 to lead to an OM scale for horses undergoing rehabilitation. The Delphi method and content validity
32 ratio testing was used to determine agreement with domains reaching the critical value required for
33 inclusion. The expert panel agreed ten domains to be included in the OM scale: lameness, pain at
34 rest, pain during exercise, behaviour during exercise, muscular symmetry, performance/functional
35 capacity, behaviour at rest, palpation, balance and proprioception. An OM with these domains
36 would provide a holistic objective assessment tool which could be used by equine rehabilitation
37 professionals in clinical practice.

38 **Keywords:** Equine; Physiotherapy; Outcome Measures; Rehabilitation; Delphi method

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40

41 1. Introduction

42 Physiotherapy is recommended for a number of equine musculoskeletal conditions such as
43 overriding dorsal spinous processes and thoracolumbosacral pain, soft tissue injuries such as
44 ligament and tendon injuries and osteoarthritis [1,2]. However, the degree of detail regarding the
45 specific physiotherapy interventions, such as for treatments including manual therapy [3],
46 electrotherapy [1] or exercise therapy [4,5], either individually or in combination, varies between
47 publications ranging from trials, often with low subject numbers to clinical review papers. As a result
48 equine physiotherapists use this information in combination with their experience and clinical
49 reasoning to select treatment interventions they consider effective [6]. For example, in rehabilitation
50 plans for overriding dorsal spinous processes, exercises to encourage ventral flexion to separate the
51 spinous processes [7] are used in combination with exercises to strengthen the deeper 'core' stability
52 muscle *multifidus* [8]. For thoracolumbosacral pain, electrotherapy in the form of neuromuscular
53 electrical stimulation [7,9] or manual therapy [10,11] are commonly applied. However due to
54 variation in practitioners experience, and the distinct nature of each patient, there are no standardised
55 practice guidelines for equine rehabilitation. This lack of standardisation places increased emphasis
56 on the physiotherapists' ability to assess each horse's progress to ensure they meet their duty of care
57 to the patient despite the current lack of an evidence base to support this decision making [12].

58 A common feature in published studies that include physiotherapy techniques, is a lack of
59 objectivity when reporting on the outcome (where outcome is defined as '*any identified result arising*
60 *from exposure to a causal factor or a health intervention*') [13]. Within human orthopaedic research,
61 Chiarotto et al. [14] suggested that outcomes are inconsistently measured and reported across trials
62 of health interventions for low back pain in humans [14]. Similarly, in equine research subjective
63 outcomes (e.g. decisions on success based on horse-owner survey) are reported after surgery for over-
64 riding dorsal spinous processes [7,15,16] and the treatment of sacro-iliac disease [17]. The lack of
65 outcome measurement reduces the ability to compare findings between studies and potentially
66 encourages selective reporting of favourable outcomes [14]. This will impact ongoing practice and
67 *may* result in confirmation bias when assessing subsequent outcomes, thus placing the patient at risk
68 of lack of progress, or worse still deterioration of their situation. Given the duty of care that a
69 physiotherapist has with their patient, this remains an important issue. In human research, to reduce
70 the heterogeneity of outcome measures (OMs) in clinical trials, there are agreed minimum sets of
71 outcomes that should be measured by clinicians and reported for a particular health condition [14].
72 These specific measurement tools or techniques are known as outcome measures and a grouping of
73 OMs can be used to form a composite outcome score that can then be used to assess the short- and
74 long-term effect of rehabilitation for the patient [18].

75 OMs have been developed for use in human practice for the measurement of health status and
76 include measures of pain and functional capacity in specific regions, used to track impact of treatment
77 and thus the development of optimal management strategies [19]. For sport injuries, the Victorian
78 Institute of Sport Assessment Scales for patella tendinosis and achilles tendinopathy, and the
79 Copenhagen Hip and Groin Outcome Score are examples of OMs that have been generated to score
80 pain, symptoms and physical function [20-22]. For dogs, outcomes can be measured with the Helsinki
81 Chronic Pain Index, the Canine Brief Pain Index or the Finnish neurological function testing battery
82 for dogs named the FINFUN [23-25]. These examples of composite OMs for humans and dogs have
83 face validity, have undergone reliability and validity testing, and are used in clinical practice,
84 however no composite OMs have been developed for equine physical rehabilitation.

85 To achieve comparable professional practice standards in equine physiotherapy, OMs must be
86 incorporated into practice [6]. To date, a few equine specific OMs, that measure a single factor in
87 clinical practice (referred to as objective markers (OBJM)), have been subject to reliability testing but
88 there are no composite equine OMs. OBJMs include the use of pressure algometry [26,27], manual
89 palpation scoring [28,29], posture/muscle size measurement from photographs [30], muscle
90 dimension measurement using a flexicurve ruler [31], range of joint motion using a universal
91 goniometer [32,33] and evaluation of pain-related behaviour [34]. Despite these studies, the use of

92 OBJM in clinical practice is sparse and clinicians report this being due to the lack of available,
93 validated and reliable OBJMs [6], suggesting a lack of awareness to the available evidence.. In a recent
94 survey, equine physiotherapists stressed that OBJMs and OMs need to be simple to use, inexpensive
95 and relevant to the cases they see [6]. It is unknown which domains clinicians working in the equine
96 rehabilitation industry would consider valuable to measure and how these could be combined to
97 generate a composite outcome score specific and relevant for the cases practitioners work with. The
98 aim of this study was to determine which domains should be measured within equine
99 musculoskeletal rehabilitation, to develop a globally useful composite outcome score.

100

101 2. Materials and Methods

102 The methodology was guided by international best practice guidelines for the development of
103 patient reported outcome measures [35] and involved iterative stages using a mixed methods
104 approach that involved a literature review [36] and expert input. The Delphi method of gathering
105 data was used to gain a convergence of opinion from the invited selection of veterinarians,
106 physiotherapists and equine researchers located world-wide. The Delphi method, which is an
107 accepted method for achieving convergence of opinion, was selected as a technique using group
108 communication from a panel of experts [37]. Using this method, the panel members are able to review
109 and revise their responses in the stages of the process [38] and the controlled feedback process
110 provides anonymity to the respondents, which may be a factor in group based discussions [37].

111

112 2.1 Delphi step 1

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114 Via email, 35 subject matter specialists, based in Europe and the United States were invited to
115 participant in the study based on their expertise in equine rehabilitation. These included: ten equine
116 veterinary surgeons with greater than 10 years clinical experience, all of whom are published in
117 equine musculoskeletal health and behaviour research; fifteen UK Chartered Physiotherapists
118 (Association of Chartered Physiotherapists in Animal Therapy, category A members) with greater
119 than 10 years equine practice experience; and ten equine research professionals, with an interest in
120 equine musculoskeletal rehabilitation and performance working in equine higher education
121 institutes. Consent by participants, to be included in the Delphi process, was gained via response to
122 the first email in step one, which also confirmed responses would be compiled anonymously.

123

124

125 Once invited to participate each expert was asked to reply with confirmation that they wished
126 to be included in further rounds of the process and asked to suggest domains to be included. The
127 term domain was defined as an area of measurement that could be included within an OM for equine
128 musculoskeletal rehabilitation.

129

130 At this stage the number of survey rounds was not fixed and was to be determined by the degree
131 of consensus within the panel of experts. We did, however, expect there to be between three and five
132 rounds with the last providing a final opportunity for the experts to revise their judgments [37].

133

134 2.2 Delphi step 2

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136 An email with a link to a questionnaire (SurveyMonkey, San Mateo, California, USA) was sent
137 out to those experts that responded positively to being included in the Delphi panel. This stage was
138 designed to assist selection of the domains that should be included in the final tool termed 'the equine
139 musculoskeletal rehabilitation outcome score (TEMROS)' with the option to suggest other areas that
140 could also be included. There were potentially a large range of domains that could be part of the
141 outcome score, thus to keep the outcome score practitioner friendly, valid and reliable, the number
142 of domains included needed to be limited by consensus of the Delphi panel. The experts were
provided with a list of domains collated from the response of the first email round. Within the

143 second questionnaire, each domain required the expert to mark whether the specific outcome was
144 essential, useful but not essential, not useful or if the expert was unsure if it should be included as an
145 area of measurement for the purpose of musculoskeletal assessment in a horse undergoing
146 rehabilitation [39,40].

147 148 2.3 Delphi step 3

149 From the responses gained, a content validation process was used to agree to include or discard
150 items listed as possible domains (Lawshe, 1975) with content validity ratio (CVR) and critical values
151 used to confirm the level of agreement that exceeds that of chance (figure 1) [40]. Perfect agreement
152 would result in +1 and perfect disagreement results in a CVR of -1. This process was used to identify
153 the domains to be included in TEMROS.

$$154 \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{CVR} = \frac{n_e - (N/2)}{N/2}$$

158 Figure 1: Lawshe's (1975) content validity ratio (CVR) where n_e is the number of essential
159 members and N is number of panel members [39].

160 161 2.4 Delphi step 4

162 The list of domains that met the agreement criteria were emailed to the panel of experts who
163 were invited to comment on the final selection.

164 3. Results

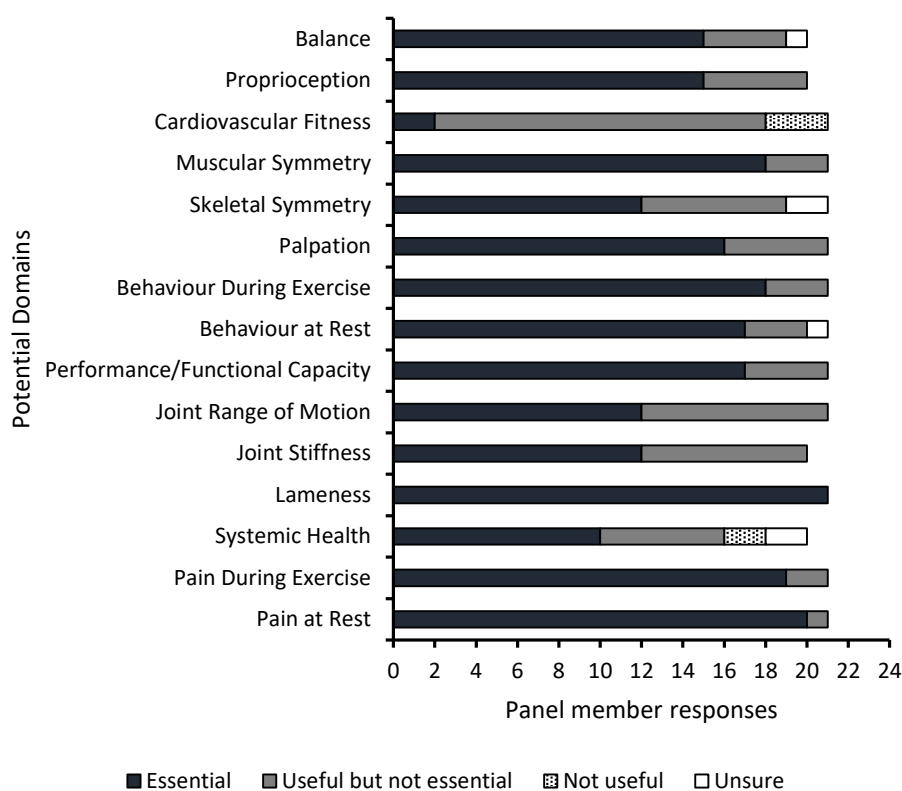
165 3.1 Delphi step 1

166 Seven veterinary surgeons, eleven ACPAT Physiotherapists and six equine industry experts
167 agreed to be included in the Delphi process and fifteen potential domains were suggested. These
168 fifteen domains were taken forwards to the questionnaire in step 2.

169 170 3.2 Delphi step 2

171 The questionnaire was returned by 21 of the 24 experts from step 1 and the data tabulated (Figure
172 2)

173



174
175 Figure 2: Expert opinion on domains to be included in an equine musculoskeletal outcome
176 score.
177

178 3.3 Delphi step 3

179 The critical number required for the proportion in agreement (considering the domain to be
180 essential) for a panel of 21 members according to Ayre and Scally [40] is 15 (71.4%), with a minimum
181 CVR critical value of 0.429 [40]. Therefore using content validity ratios the number of possible
182 domains for inclusion in TEMROS was reduced from 16 to 10. These were, with CVR values provided
183 in parentheses: lameness (1.00), pain at rest (0.91), pain during exercise (0.81), behaviour during
184 exercise (0.71), muscular symmetry (0.71), performance/functional capacity (0.62), behaviour at rest
185 (0.62), palpation (0.52), balance (0.50) and proprioception (0.50). The domains with CVR critical
186 values less than the required critical value were: joint stiffness (0.20), joint range of movement (0.14),
187 skeletal symmetry (0.14), systemic health (0.00) and cardiovascular fitness (-0.81).
188

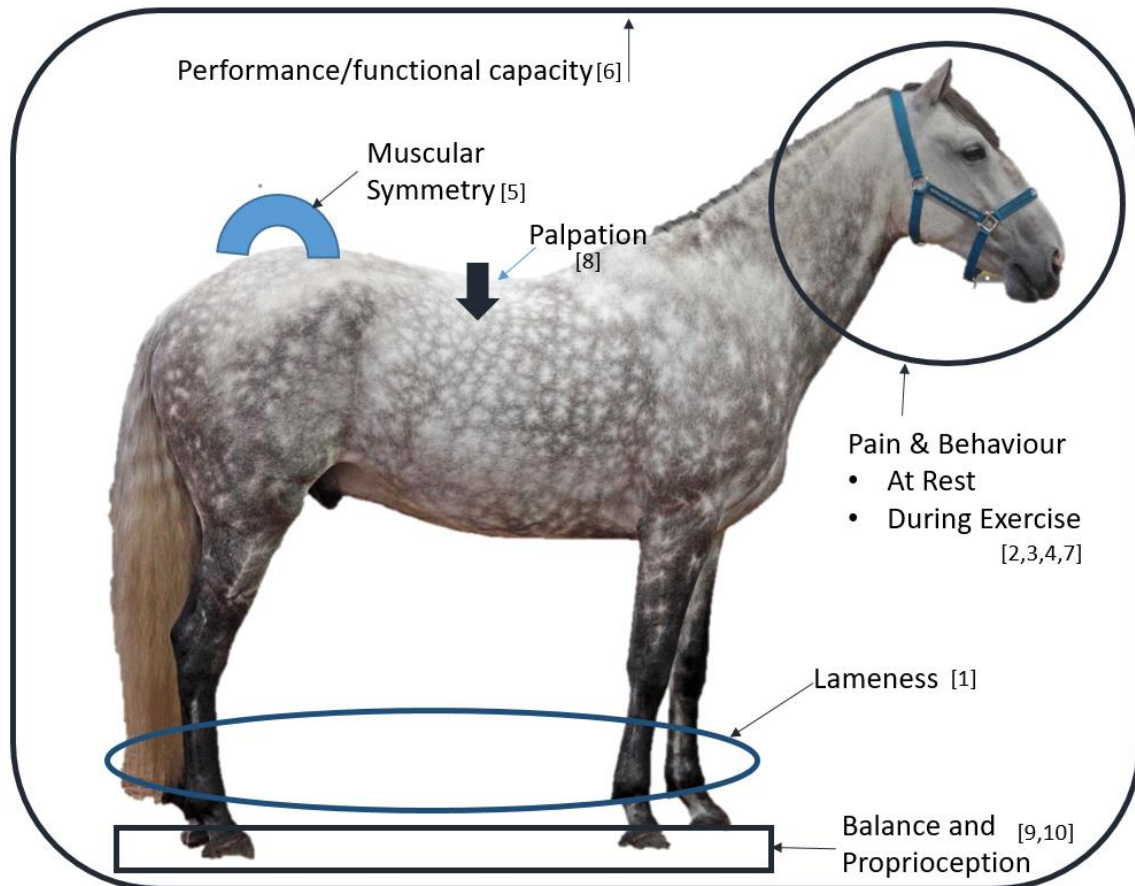
189 3.4 Delphi step 4

190 Seven panel members responded to the list of 10 domains positively and there were no further
191 domains proposed for inclusion. There were three comments that centred on domains that should
192 not be included. Three experts suggested that systemic health does not need to be measured within
193 an outcome score, as this should be a pre-requisite for undertaking a rehabilitation programme and
194 two mentioned cardio-vascular fitness measurement being outside the scope of a musculoskeletal
195 assessment tool.

196 4. Discussion

197 Using expert's experience and opinion, this study aimed to develop a consensus on the domains
198 to be included in a model for a composite outcome score for horses undergoing rehabilitation. These
199 data indicate that observational data (e.g. lameness and behaviour due to pain) and hands-on (e.g.
200 palpation on soft tissue) were considered essential for inclusion within a musculoskeletal OM. The
201 broad range of domains in this study's model suggests that an outcome score needs to contain a

202 variety of data. Indeed, this approach would provide a holistic view of the status of the horse
 203 undergoing therapy (figure 3).
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Figure 3: Ten domains for measurement, as agreed by the expert panel, to be included in outcome score for equine musculoskeletal rehabilitation. In order of highest agreement the domains (with number in square brackets) are: 1: lameness, 2: pain at rest, 3: pain during exercise, 4: behaviour during exercise, 5: muscular symmetry, 6: performance/functional capacity, 7: behaviour at rest, 8: palpation, 9: balance and 10: proprioception.

4.1 Lameness

The highest agreement across the panel was for the inclusion of a lameness measurement within TEMROS. In equine practice lameness is typically evaluated by observing movement asymmetry in trot, however this often presents a challenge especially in horses presenting with low grade lameness [41,42]. For gold standard detection and evaluation, force plates are recommended although these are not used outside the research environment and not practical for clinical assessment, therefore inertial sensor systems are useful where force plate analysis is not practical [43]. In practice, lameness assessment is commonly conducted by a visual gait assessment without technological equipment [41]. Visual assessment, without technological equipment, has been investigated for both intra- and inter-rater reliability. Keegan et al [42] studied the reliability of overground evaluation of lameness to determine if clinicians could agree on whether horses were lame and if so, which was the limb and score for the maximum level of lameness [42]. The American Association of Equine Practitioner (AAEP) scoring method was used, which is a 6 point scale where 0: Lameness not perceptible under any circumstances; 1: Lameness is difficult to observe and is not consistently apparent, regardless of circumstances (e.g. under saddle, circling, inclines, hard surface, etc.); 2: Lameness is difficult to observe at a walk or when trotting in a straight line but consistently apparent under certain circumstances (e.g. weight-carrying, circling, inclines, hard surface, etc.); 3: Lameness is consistently observable at a trot under all circumstances; 4: Lameness is obvious at a walk and 5: Lameness produces minimal weight bearing in motion and/or at rest or a complete inability to move

231 (<https://aaep.org/horsehealth/lameness-exams-evaluating-lame-horse>). Keegan and colleagues [42]
232 found that agreement of grading mild lameness was low (61.9%), although the agreement of lameness
233 being present in horses scored greater than 1.5 on the AAEP scale was higher (93.1%) [42]. In addition,
234 previous studies have shown lower agreement when practitioners assessed videos of lame horses
235 [44,45,46]. Therefore it is suggested that multiple evaluators should not be used to evaluate lameness.
236 In contrast to the AAEP score, one prominent equine veterinarian reported that too many horses with
237 different levels of lameness have to be graded 3 on the AAEP scale and therefore in practice they use
238 their own scale [47,48]. This recommended scale has 9 categories, where 0 = sound; 2 = mild; 4 =
239 moderate; 6 = severe; 8 = non-weight bearing. The marked difference is that the grading system is
240 applied in individual gaits and tests, for instance in a straight line or on a circle, to give a more
241 accurate picture of the lameness, as it is their consensus that 0-5 represents insufficient grades and
242 other systems using scores 0-10 consistent of too many options to be useable [47]. Whilst lameness
243 was the domain which achieved universal agreement (100%), hence it should be included, how
244 lameness evaluation is integrated remains challenging especially in the presence of bilateral
245 lameness, lameness occurring only with specific conditions such as under saddle or in the case of an
246 asymmetric gait that is due to morphology or laterality. The premise of an outcome score for
247 practitioners is that it should be easy to use in clinical practice, therefore although technology may
248 be increasingly available [49] whilst it is not yet in every practice or available to non-veterinary
249 practitioners, a categorical subjective score would need to be included in TEMROS. The exact choice
250 of grading system requires further study due to the absence of a universally accepted method that is
251 easy to define, repeatable and can take into account the range of clinical presentations of lameness
252 [47]. Until this is available physiotherapists should evaluate lameness individually, based on intra-
253 rater reliability of lameness assessment being more reliable than inter-rater and that agreement
254 between 'improvement' or 'worsening' in horses seen on multiple occasions is repeatable to use as
255 an indicator of improvement, irrespective of the absolute score [46].
256

257 4.2 Pain assessment

258 Four domains selected related to the assessment of pain: pain at rest; behaviour at rest; pain
259 during exercise and behaviour during exercise. Whilst crucial to horse welfare, the recognition and
260 measurement of pain in horses is widely acknowledged to be difficult [50,51] due to pain levels
261 reported by an observer being subjective and open to bias [52]. Pain has been reported to change
262 facial expression in mice [53], rats [54] and more recently in horses via the horse grimace scale [50]
263 and the equine pain face [51]. Both these equine scales have been validated for recording pain at rest
264 by categorical scoring of facial expression and thus either could be used for the pain and behaviour
265 at rest domains within TEMROS. The use of pain assessment for chronic, longer term pain conditions
266 would have to be considered in the context of rehabilitation as this process takes longer than the
267 duration of pain evaluation in the trials. These scoring systems have been shown to have acceptable
268 inter-rater reliability for horses with acute pain. It would be of interest to know if veterinary
269 professionals score similarly to the non-trained carers of horses undergoing treatment. Whether
270 carers can objectively evaluate pain and not be altered by bias in either direction has not been
271 reported nevertheless it is important to ensure that accurate pain assessment leads to optimal pain
272 management throughout the whole course of treatment

273 Pain and behaviour during exercise could theoretically be integrated within TEMROS via
274 scoring of facial expressions [55] and whole-horse behaviours during in hand and groundwork, and
275 ridden work [56]. The level of activity that the horse was undertaking at the stage of rehabilitation
276 would have to be factored into the outcome score, as early phase programmes may prohibit ridden
277 activity, so pain and behaviour during handling tasks such as leading or ground work would need
278 to be considered. As well as the task and the environment the assessment occurs in, an additional
279 element that may alter horse's behaviour is the effect of the handler [57]. Therefore validity of pain
280 assessment via facial expressions or whole horse behaviours during in-hand and groundwork with a
281 handler, and in different locations such as an indoor arena or an outside location needs to be studied
282 further.

283 It is of significant importance to horse welfare that the signs of pain in horses, whether in the
284 stable or whilst being handled/ridden are considered during assessment. Evaluation of rehabilitation
285 progress would not be holistic without including monitoring of pain, therefore further studies are
286 required to test the application of pain assessment methods (e.g. Equine Pain face [51] or the
287 ethogram for the assessment of pain in ridden horses [56]), specifically to rehabilitation programmes.
288

289 4.3 Muscle symmetry

290 The need to evaluate muscle symmetry is apparent when considering pathologies such as those
291 in the region of the sacro-iliac joint, which may result in asymmetric atrophy of the overlying gluteus
292 medius muscle [58]. Thoracolumbosacral pain can result in thoracic epaxial muscle wastage [7,59]
293 which anecdotally may be lateralised and therefore asymmetric. Epaxial muscle size can be measured
294 with ultrasound imaging [8,60,61] but this method may not always be accessible due to cost and its
295 setting in veterinary or research laboratories. External muscle profile shape can be recorded with a
296 low cost piece of equipment called a flexicurve ruler and this has been shown to be repeatable in the
297 thoracic region [31] however the use of a flexicurve has not been reported on in other areas of the
298 muscular system. The repeatability of a muscle scoring system devised by the authors of a study to
299 investigate the relationship between thoracolumbar kinematics and muscle tone and tension in
300 dressage horses found moderate agreement between five assessors (0.60-0.79) [62]. It was suggested
301 that the muscle score could be used by physiotherapists to identify and monitor muscle development,
302 however the authors' note the scale was subjective and only applicable to dressage horses. Therefore
303 if this domain is to be included within TEMROS objective measures need to be further developed for
304 clinical practice and tested for reliability and validity for horses in all equestrian disciplines, to be
305 applicable to the possible range of horses undergoing rehabilitation.
306

307 4.4 Performance/functional capacity

308 Most tests of performance in horses have a strong physiological basis, such as standard exercise
309 tests which evaluate relative speed and heart rate or blood lactate levels [63,64]. The intensity of the
310 exercise effort in standard exercise tests, albeit submaximal, may not be appropriate for horses
311 undergoing rehabilitation. A test of performance and functional capacity would need to be at lower
312 exercise intensities and personalised to the stage of rehabilitation [65,66]. In human sports medicine
313 function performance tests are used to evaluate return to play status in footballers [67], muscle
314 strength and functional performance in recreational athletes following anterior cruciate ligament
315 reconstruction [68] as well as function in patients with patella tendinosis or achilles tendinopathy
316 [20,21]. Similarly, in dogs, functional tests are available such as the Canine Brief Pain Index and the
317 Helsinki Chronic Pain Index [23,54] which include questions on tasks such as how well the dog rises
318 to standing and willingness to walk or run. A functional score for dogs with neurological conditions
319 has been tested for inter-rater reliability by seven observers scoring tasks of progressive difficulty
320 such as standing up from lying, walking in turns or walking stairs [25]. The performance was graded
321 with a numeric score from 0, indicating the dog cannot perform the task to 4, which represented
322 normal motor function. No such scores exist in equine assessment but a simple battery of tests could
323 be devised that included movements such as flexion of the neck [69] and turning small circles [70].
324 Any such testing procedure would need to be subject to evaluation of face and content validity and
325 reliability testing similar to the neurological function tests for dogs devised by Boström et al [25].
326

327 4.5 Palpation

328 The panel agreed that palpation should be included in the proposed composite outcome score
329 and it was expected that manual palpation would be required as local assessment of soft tissues and
330 joint margins is commonly undertaken when assessing injury and pain [70]. Response to the manual
331 palpation can be evaluated in the form of the behavioural response and/or evaluation of localised
332 short-term change in the tissue being palpated, with a lower threshold to the onset of these responses
333 indicative of a higher level of pain arising from these soft tissues [26-28,71,72]. Pain sensitivity, as a
334 subjective experience, is individually variable in humans and based on complex physical and

335 psychological interactions [73]; similarly third-party assessment of pain in animals has found wide
336 intra-species variation exists as well as reported differences between species [74]. In horses, subjective
337 judgement of pain thresholds by manual palpation is commonplace [28], therefore the use of
338 quantitative tools to assess responses to palpation may be preferable to subjective pain assessment
339 because this allows rating of response with a force output. Pressure algometry (PA) uses a calibrated
340 pressure gauge to objectively record the threshold the onset of pain in the tissues it is applied on [77]
341 The PA has been used to evaluate chiropractic interventions for equine thoracolumbar pain [11] and
342 algometry measurements correlate with palpation scores ($r = -0.90$) [28]. However, reports that
343 repeated PA application can result in sensitivity or habituation to the PA tool [29,71] could limit their
344 validity in clinical practice. As an alternative, categorical scoring systems can be used to score
345 response to manual palpation and use of this form of reporting could be integrated into TEMROS
346 [9,27-29]. Merrifield-Jones et al [29] used a six-point score, where 0 is described as soft, low tone; 1 as
347 normal; 2 as increased muscle tone but painful; 3 as increased muscle tone and/or painful (slight
348 associated spasm on palpation, no associated movement; 4 painful (associated spasm on palpation
349 with associated local movement, i.e. pelvis tilt, extension response) and 5 as very painful (spasm plus
350 behavioural response to palpation, i.e. ears flat back, kicking). This score has shown excellent inter-
351 rater reliability on a small sample of ten riding school horses between three physiotherapists when
352 assessing epaxial soft tissue (ICC 0.09) [29]. The use of the PA tool, if practitioners were trained, could
353 provide objective data if habituation and sensitisation were considered but the use of a categorical
354 scale would provide a cost effective and convenient method of assessing response to palpation.

355

356 *4.6 Balance and Proprioception*

357 The final two domains that reached the minimal critical value for inclusion were balance and
358 proprioception. The first study to measure balance in horses investigated postural sway using force
359 platforms demonstrated that the standing horse has small movements of the centre of pressure
360 resulting from small adjustments of muscle tension, indicating the stability of the quiet standing
361 horse's centre of mass [75]. Whilst balance has not been measured in relation to musculoskeletal
362 injury, motion of the centre of pressure does increase with medical sedation administered
363 intravenously [76]. Signs of ataxia such as trembling, locking and unlocking of joints, weight shifts
364 and obvious swaying were observed and it could be theorized that injury to one component required
365 to maintain balance, such as sensory input, motor responses and cognitive processes [75] could have
366 similar effects. To further examine potential clinical signs from neurological deficits, in relation to
367 balance, twenty horses were blindfolded whilst stood on a force platform [77]. In these horses,
368 movement amount and velocity increased, and showed greater within-trial variability when horses
369 were blindfolded compared to their sighted measurements. Force platforms have been used as a
370 primary outcome variable to assess the effects of osteoarthritis, surgically induced into the carpal
371 joint in a group of 16 young horses [78]. Half of the cohort underwent an exercise regime on a water
372 treadmill from 15 days following the surgery, five days a week for a total on ten weeks. At
373 reassessment the horses that had been exercised on the water treadmill had significantly improved
374 static balance control compared to control group of horses with carpal joint osteoarthritis. It should
375 be noted that whilst these three force plate studies assessed postural sway during stance, gait involves
376 spinal reflexes that might respond differently to effect balance during locomotion [76] therefore the
377 results are limited as they cannot directly be translated to balance during gait.

378

379 Proprioception, as a domain listed to be included in TEMROS, does not have any objective
380 measurement techniques reported for horses. However, postural stability relies on motor
381 components of the musculoskeletal system to maintain balance and this includes proprioceptive
382 information. Muscles induce joint motion and are also responsible to stabilising joints during motion
383 therefore proprioceptive feedback is crucial to balance control [75,78]. Impairment to sensory and
384 motor components, possibly due to joint injury, could affect postural control and if measured could
385 also provide a proxy for proprioceptive deficit, but understanding this relationship within the scope
386 of equine rehabilitation requires further analysis.

387

388 Force platforms could be used to measure balance and proprioceptive changes as a result of
389 therapeutic interventions, although laboratory-based equipment is required because equine force
390 platforms are not easily mobile. For clinical practice other methods to measure balance are
391 necessary. Exercises to challenge balance and activate the trunk core muscles have been suggested as
392 part of rehabilitation plans [79]. These exercises destabilise the horse by lifting a limb and inducing a
393 weight transference to the contra- or ipsi-lateral weight-bearing limbs, however they do not have any
394 form measurement to evaluate their effectiveness. A pressure mat that measures percentage weight
395 distribution between limbs is available for canine orthopaedic assessment [80] and if a similar
396 measurement method or a score system could be developed for horses then these positions could be
397 used as a form of balance evaluation.

398

399 4.7 Limitations to the study

400 The number of experts selected to participate was small and was carried out based on the criteria
401 (knowledge of research published and industry expertise) of the authors. This could present bias to
402 the panel however once formed, TEMROS could be presented to the wider equine community for
403 consideration and content validation. It would have been of benefit to have an understanding of the
404 rationale for inclusion [81] to allow retrospective analysis of domains chosen. The high levels of
405 agreement for the domains selected supports the consensus is based on common experience and
406 practice.

407

408 Although a wide literature search has been completed to map potential reliable and valid
409 measurement tools/tests to each domain it is possible that there are suitable tests/tools which were
410 not suggested for inclusion by the panel. An example is thermography which has been used to
411 measure surface temperature of racehorses' epaxial muscles in response to training [82]. Skin
412 temperature measurements have not been used to evaluate effects of rehabilitation intervention
413 however the reducing cost of thermography cameras may allow more horses to be imaged with this
414 non-invasive and non-ionizing modality, albeit following strict protocols for carrying out and
415 analysing results [83]. It should be noted that the choices of tests are evaluated in relation to those
416 considered practical and feasible to use *ex vivo*. To be valid as a measure of rehabilitation outcome,
417 each domain should have face validity which is a key factor in the development of an efficient OM is
418 for the score in the absence of any gold standard [13].

419

420 4.8 TEMROS - further development

421 A composite score integrating the above domains takes into account several behaviours and
422 physiological parameters by including scores for each specific parameter. There are domains that
423 have various scoring systems or measurement tools, such as lameness and palpation and the final
424 system/tool which require further testing to be validated. There are also domains where
425 measurement techniques have yet to be designed for or tested, for instance muscle symmetry and
426 proprioception, and therefore these areas need further development. Some of the parameters could
427 be weighted according to perceived significance or they could be graded equally [33] and evaluation
428 of this requires further development. However, TEMROS has the potential to provide a holistic
429 assessment which would be relevant to rehabilitation of injury, as the whole horse is undergoing the
430 rehabilitation not just the condition.

431

432 5. Conclusions

433 The Delphi methodology was successfully applied to attain consensus across the selected
434 international expert panel that there is a need for an outcome measure for equine rehabilitation and
435 agreement on the domains that such a measure should include. The expert panel agreed that
436 lameness, pain at rest, pain during exercise, behaviour during exercise, muscular symmetry,
437 performance/functional capacity, behaviour at rest, palpation, balance and proprioception should be

438 included. The challenge going forward is to combine measures for each of these domains that are
439 reliable, valid and easy to use in clinical practice. With reliably measured domains, and subsequent
440 validity testing, TEMROS could provide a composite score that has equine practitioner consensus
441 that could support clinical practice as well as substantiate treatment choices to improve horse welfare.

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