

1 Effect of scan plane and arthrography on visibility and inter-observer agreement of  
2 the equine distal sesamoidean impar ligament on magnetic resonance images

3

4 Dagmar Berner <sup>a,b</sup>, Daniela Mader <sup>a</sup>, Claudia Groß <sup>a</sup> and Kerstin Gerlach<sup>a</sup>

5 <sup>a</sup> Department for Horses, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, University of Leipzig, An den  
6 Tierkliniken 21, 04103 Leipzig, Germany

7 <sup>b</sup> Equine Referral Hospital, Royal Veterinary College, University of London, Hawkshead  
8 Lane, Hatfield, Hertfordshire AL9 7TA, UK

9 Corresponding author: Dagmar Berner [dberner@rvc.ac.uk](mailto:dberner@rvc.ac.uk)

10

11 Declarations of interest: none.

12

13 Funding: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,  
14 commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

15

16 CRediT authorship contribution statement:

17 **Dagmar Berner:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Investigation,  
18 Resources, Writing-Original Draft, Writing-Review & Editing, Visualization, Supervision,  
19 Project Administration

20 **Daniela Mader:** Formal Analysis, Investigation, Resources, Writing-Review & Editing

21 **Claudia Gross:** Investigation, Resources, Writing- Review & Editing

22 **Kerstin Gerlach:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources, Writing-Original Draft,  
23 Writing- Review & Editing, Supervision

24

25

26

27 **Introduction:** In magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) examinations, moderate to severe  
28 changes of the distal sesamoidean impar ligament (DSIL) were found in horses with lameness  
29 localised to their feet. Histological abnormalities were detected more commonly in lame  
30 horses. Due to its heterogeneity and small thickness, evaluation of the DSIL in MRI can be  
31 challenging. The aim of the study was to determine the optimal sequence and the ideal  
32 transverse perpendicular angle for visualisation of the DSIL before and after arthrography of  
33 the distal interphalangeal joint (DIPJ).

34 **Material and methods:** Twenty-five cadaver forelimbs were examined with low-field MRI.  
35 Sagittal, frontal and three different angled transverse planes were obtained before and after  
36 arthrography of the DIPJ. All planes were acquired in T1w (weighted) Gradient Recall Echo  
37 (GRE), T2\*w GRE, T2w Fast Spin Echo (FSE), und Short Tau Inversion Recovery (STIR)  
38 FSE and visualisation of the DSIL was scored by two observers.

39 **Results:** Visualisation of the DSIL was best on sagittal T2w FSE and STIR FSE images. All  
40 transverse planes were inferior compared to sagittal sequences. After arthrography of the  
41 DIPJ, visualisation of the DSIL origin improved in sagittal T2w FSE sequences and  
42 agreement between observers increased for sagittal T2w FSE and STIR FSE images.

43 **Conclusion:** Sagittal T2w FSE and STIR FSE images allowed good visualisation of the DSIL  
44 in low field MRI. Visualisation of the DSIL did not improve for altered angled transverse  
45 sequences but increased with arthrography of the DIPJ. Subjective influence between  
46 different observers was found but decreased with DIPJ-arthrography.

47

48

49 **Keywords:** Horse; Foot; MRI; Ligament; Podotrochlear

50

51

52 **Introduction**

53 Since the introduction of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) for evaluation of the equine distal  
54 limb, accuracy of detection of abnormalities has increased especially within the palmar foot  
55 area. Considering the podotrochlear apparatus, abnormalities of the navicular bone itself as  
56 well as changes of surrounding soft tissue structures, such as the deep digital flexor tendon,  
57 navicular bursa, collateral sesamoidean ligaments and the distal sesamoidean impar ligament  
58 (DSIL) were frequently identified [1-7].

59

60 In horses with lameness localised to the foot, low and high-field examinations of the foot found  
61 changes of the DSIL in 6 to 81% of the cases [2, 4-9].

62 High-field MR images showed good agreement with histological examinations for mild findings  
63 of the DSIL in sound horses [10]. In horses with lameness localised to the foot, histological  
64 abnormalities of the DSIL were found to be more common in lame horses compared to controls  
65 [6, 11], but agreement of high-field MRI with histology was only fair with high sensitivity and  
66 moderate specificity [12].

67 The latter could be due to the heterogeneous appearance and small dimensions of the DSIL  
68 making its evaluation challenging [9, 13, 14]. Additionally, it was supposed that the DSIL is  
69 often visible in just one transverse image in low field MRI [15]. None of the previously  
70 published studies have investigated the optimal angulation for transverse images or overall  
71 best imaging plane for visualisation of the DSIL. Arthrography of the distal interphalangeal  
72 joint (DIPJ) and bursography of the navicular bursa improved visualisation of some structures  
73 of podotrochlear apparatus, but the DSIL was not investigated in these studies [16, 17].

74 Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine the best plane and sequence as well as the  
75 optimal transverse angle for imaging the DISL in low-field MRI. Additionally, the influence of  
76 different observers and arthrography of the DIPJ on evaluation of the ligament was  
77 assessed. We hypothesized that transverse images in a specific plane and arthrography of  
78 the DIPJ would improve visualisation of the DSIL.

79

## 80 **Material and Methods**

81 Twenty-five front limbs of 13 horses were included in the study; nine horses were euthanized  
82 for a research project for different studies and not primarily for the current study (TV 96/13)  
83 and four horses were euthanized due to clinical reasons. Horses comprised of eight mares,  
84 three stallions and two geldings (age range from two to 26 years, median 15 years) of different  
85 breeds (three ponies, seven warmbloods, one draught horse and two Arabians).

86 Within six hours after euthanasia, limbs were disarticulated at the carpometacarpal joint and  
87 placed in a custom-made device to simulate a weight-bearing position. Examination was  
88 performed using a low-field MRI (Hallmarq EQ2 Scanner, Hallmarq Veterinary Imaging,  
89 Guildford, Surrey, Great Britain). The MRI-protocol consisted of sagittal, frontal and three  
90 different angled transvers images in T1w (weighted) Gradient Recall Echo (GRE), T2\*w GRE,  
91 T2w Fast Spin Echo (FSE), and Short Tau Inversion Recovery (STIR) FSE sequences before  
92 and after injection of fluid into the DIPJ (Tab 1). Frontal images were acquired parallel to the  
93 facies flexoria of the navicular bone (FF). The three different angles of the transverse planes  
94 were: perpendicular to the FF (plane 1), parallel to the origin of the DSIL (plane 2) and  
95 orientated on a tangent through the dorsodistal aspect of the navicular bone and the  
96 palmaroproximal aspect of the distal phalanx (plane 3) (Fig. 1). To avoid volume average  
97 artefacts, transverse images were carefully aligned between the distal aspect of the navicular  
98 bone and the palmar aspect of the distal phalanx, with one of the slices starting just distal to  
99 the navicular bone. After acquisition of the native scans, injection of the DIPJ with ten to 20 ml  
100 of fluid consisting of iodine-based contrast (Imeron 300, Fa. BIPSO GmbH, Singen, Germany)  
101 diluted 1:1 with saline was performed and the MRI protocol was repeated.

102 Evaluation of the MRI images was performed by two experienced radiologist (Associate of  
103 the European College of Veterinary Diagnostic Imaging (ECVDI) and resident ECVDI) using  
104 a DICOM viewer (Synedra View Personal, Synedra information technologies GmbH,  
105 Feldstraße 1/13, Innsbruck, Austria) using a four-grade modified scoring system [18]: A score  
106 of 0 was allocated if the DSIL was not visible. If the DSIL was poorly visualised, but  
107 detectable by its location and signal intensity a score of 1 was assigned. A score of 2

108 represented that the DSIL was clearly identified by its location, shape and signal intensity,  
109 but the margins were not clearly delineated. Score 3 indicated the DISL was well visualised  
110 and clearly delineated by location, shape, signal intensity, size and margins. Sequences  
111 were blinded and the ligament was divided in three zones, origin, body and insertion and  
112 each zone was graded separately before and after fluid application. The origin was defined  
113 as the distal aspect of the navicular bone including the proximal part of the ligament. The  
114 distal aspect of the ligament and the area of insertion of the ligament at the distal phalanx  
115 were graded as the insertional zone. For the body the main part of the ligament between the  
116 aforementioned areas was evaluated. The entire sequences in the specific plane and  
117 weighting were provided to the observers, which graded them independently once, unaware  
118 of the exact angle of the transverse images and the timepoint of acquisition (native vs after  
119 fluid application).

120

121 Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 22 (IBM Deutschland GmbH, Ehningen,  
122 Germany). For comparison of visibility grades between the different sequences and time-  
123 points Friedman tests were used and if differences were found further analysis of the four  
124 highest rated sequences was done using the Wilcoxon-Test . P values < 0.05 were  
125 considered significant. For inter-observer agreement, Kappa coefficients were calculated and  
126 assessed according to Landis and Koch [19].

127

128 **Results**

129 The DSIL could be visualised as a primarily hypointense band running from the palmarodistal  
130 aspect of the navicular bone to the facies flexoria of the distal phalanx (Fig 2). However, two  
131 synovial structures, dorsal the DIPJ and palmar the navicular bursa, surround the ligament  
132 and synovial invaginations of both penetrate the ligament resulting in its more heterogenous  
133 appearance.

134 Overall, anatomical visualisation was poor (Fig 3-5). The only sequences, where images  
135 were rated by both observers and in all locations as grade 3 in at least two limbs, were  
136 sagittal T2w FSE und STIR FSE. Grade 3 was allocated for at least one leg by observer A in  
137 transverse STIR FSE plane 1 at the origin and at the body and by observer B in sagittal  
138 T1w GRE sequence for all three locations. In all other sequences no limb received a grade 3.  
139 At each location and for each time point significant differences were found comparing all  
140 sequences using the Friedman test and the highest rated four sequences for each observer  
141 are stated below. The significances given are referring to the Wilcoxon test comparing only  
142 these four sequences.

143

144 1. Visualisation of the ligament in native images

145 **1.1 Origin (Fig 3)**

146 At the origin observer A graded sagittal T2w FSE sequences significantly better ( $p < 0.01$ )  
147 than all other sequences, with the exception of sagittal STIR FSE, which were evaluated as  
148 second-best sequence. Sagittal T2\*w GRE sequences were ranked tertiary followed by  
149 transversal T1w GRE in plane 2 and 3 as well as T2\*w GRE in plane 2. Sagittal STIR FSE  
150 images received the highest grades by observer B, followed by T2w FSE, T2\*w GRE and  
151 T1w GRE sagittal images, between these no significant differences were found.

152

153 **1.2 Body (Fig 4)**

154 For visualisation of the body, sagittal T2w FSE sequences were significantly better rated by  
155 observer A than other sequences, except sagittal STIR FSE images ( $p < 0.05$ ). The latter

156 was ranked better than transverse STIR FSE in plane 1 and sagittal T2\*w GRE images, but  
157 no significant difference were found. Observer B graded sagittal T2w FSE, followed by  
158 sagittal STIR FSE, T2\*w GRE und T1w GRE images, highest for the visualisation of the  
159 body. Significant differences were only detected between sagittal T2w FSE and T1w GRE  
160 images ( $p < 0.05$ )

161

### 162 **1.3 Insertion (Fig 5)**

163 At the insertion of the DSIL, observer A graded sagittal T2w FSE significantly better than  
164 other sequences but sagittal STIR FSE, which were rated second best ( $p < 0.05$ ). Transverse  
165 T1w GRE in plane 2 and 3 as well as transverse T2\*w GRE in plane 2 were ranked equally  
166 third. Sagittal STIR FSE images, followed by sagittal T2w FSE, T2\*w GRE und T1w GRE  
167 sequences were graded highest by observer B, but no significant differences were observed.

168

## 169 2. Comparison between native images and images after fluid application

170

### 171 **2.1 Origin (Fig 3)**

172 After injection of fluid in the DIPJ, observer A rated sagittal T2w FSE sequences superior to  
173 sagittal STIR FSE, sagittal T2\*w GRE and transverse T2\*w GRE in plane 1, for visualising  
174 the origin of the DSIL. Compared to the corresponding native sequences, all sequences were  
175 rated better with significant improvement noted in sagittal T2w FSE and T2\*w GRE images  
176 ( $p < 0.05$ ).

177 Just as for the native sequences, observer B graded sagittal T2w FSE images highest,  
178 followed by sagittal STIR FSE, T2\*w GRE and T1w GRE sequences. However, only  
179 T2w FSE sequences showed significant improvement ( $p < 0.05$ ).

180

### 181 **2.2 Body (Fig 4)**

182 According to the grading of observer A sagittal T2w FSE images were best for visualising the  
183 body of the DSIL after fluid injection. Sagittal STIR FSE sequences were ranked second

184 before transverse STIR FSE in plane 1 and sagittal T2\*w GRE images. Compared to native  
185 images mild but not significant improvement was found.

186 Observer B ranked sagittal T2w FSE images highest, followed by sagittal STIR FSE and  
187 T2\*w GRE and transverse T2\*w GRE in plane 2 sequences. All but the latter, were graded  
188 non-significantly lower than the native images.

189

### 190 **2.3 Insertion (Fig 5)**

191 For visualisation of the insertion of the DSIL, sagittal T2w FSE images were graded better  
192 than sagittal STIR FSE and T2\*w GRE sequences by observer A. Frontal T2w FSE and  
193 transverse T2\*w GRE in plane 2 images were ranked fourth. With exception of the latter, mild  
194 but non-significant improvement was observed compared to the native sequences.

195 The four best sequences of observer B corresponded to the native sequences but in different  
196 order, sagittal T2w FSE, T2\*w GRE, STIR FSE and T1w GRE images. All sequence but  
197 sagittal STIR FSE sequences showed mild but non-significant improvement.

198

## 199 **3. Agreement between observers**

200

201 For evaluating the agreement between observers only the best four sequences of each were  
202 evaluated.

203

### 204 **3.1 Origin - native**

205 Comparing the scoring of both of observers, sagittal T1w GRE images were rated  
206 significantly higher by observer B and transverse T1w GRE plane 2 and 3 as well as  
207 transverse T2\*w GRE plane 2 higher by observer A ( $p < 0.001$ ).

208

### 209 **3.2 Body - native**

210 Observer B rated sagittal T1w GRE und T2\*w GRE images and observer A transverse  
211 STIR FSE plane 1 images significantly higher ( $p < 0.001$ ).

212

### 213 **3.3 Insertion - native**

214 At the insertion of the DSIL, observer B rated sagittal T1w GRE and T2\*w GRE sequences  
215 significantly higher ( $p < 0.001$ ). Transverse T1w GRE plane 2 and plane 3 were graded  
216 significantly higher ( $p < 0.001$ ) by observer A.

217

218 The overall two best sequences, sagittal T2w FSE und STIR FSE, showed fair agreement at  
219 all levels between both observers ( $\kappa = 0.29-0.38$ ), except for the origin in sagittal T2w FSE  
220 images, where only slight agreement was found ( $\kappa = 0.12$ ). (Tab 2). Agreement was excellent  
221 for transverse T2w FSE plane 3 ( $\kappa = 1.00$ ). For the other sequences, no agreement was found  
222 between both observers.

223

### 224 **4.1 Origin - After Injection of Fluid**

225 Sagittal T1w GRE images were graded significantly higher by observer B and transverse  
226 T2\*w GRE sequences were rated significantly better by observer A ( $p < 0.001$ ).

227

### 228 **4.2 Body- After Injection of Fluid**

229 Just as for the native images observer B rated sagittal T2\*w GRE images ( $p < 0.01$ ) and  
230 observer A transverse STIR FSE plane 1 sequences significantly higher ( $p < 0.001$ ).

231 Transverse T2\*w GRE plane 2 images were rated significantly higher by observer B  
232 ( $p < 0.001$ ).

233

### 234 **4.3 Insertion - After Injection of Fluid**

235 Sagittal T1w GRE and T2\*w GRE sequences were rated higher by observer B ( $p < 0.001$ )  
236 whereas observer A scored frontal T2w FSE images higher ( $p < 0.05$ )

237

238 After injection of fluid into the DIPJ, inter-observer agreement for the two highest graded  
239 sequences (sagittal T2w FSE and STIR FSE) was moderate for all levels in STIR FSE and

240 for the origin in T2w FSE images ( $\kappa= 0.41-0.50$ ). T2w FSE images showed substantial  
241 agreement for the body ( $\kappa= 0.62$ ) and fair agreement at the insertion of DSIL ( $\kappa= 0.31$ ). For  
242 these sequences, agreement was higher compared to native images (Tab 2). Agreement  
243 between observers was moderate for transverse T2w FSE plane 3 ( $\kappa= 0.75$ ) and decreased  
244 compared to plain images. For transverse T1w GRE plane 3 moderate ( $\kappa= 0.47$ ) and for  
245 transverse T2\*w GRE plane 1 fair agreement ( $\kappa= 0.38$ ) was observed. No further agreement  
246 was found between both observers for any other sequence.

247

248

## 249 **Discussion**

250 Anatomical visualisation of the DSIL was poor and, contrary to our hypothesis, only poor to fair  
251 for most transverse images. In sagittal T2w FSE and STIR FSE sequences visualisation was  
252 fair to good and better than in transverse or frontal images. Additionally, besides some of the  
253 transverse sequences inter-observer values were better in sagittal T2w FSE and STIR FSE.  
254 Interestingly, even rated low for visualisation, transverse T2w FSE plane 3 images showed  
255 substantial agreement between both observers before fluid injection. This agreement should  
256 interpreted with caution, as the visualisation was graded poor by both observers. Whilst this is  
257 in accordance to some studies [20, 21], other studies suggested frontal [22, 23] or transverse  
258 sequences [24] for the evaluation of the DSIL. However, in the current study frontal and  
259 transverse images were inferior compared to sagittal sequences and only included in the four  
260 best sequences by one observer after fluid injection. This could be due to the orientation of our  
261 images, which were parallel or perpendicular to the DSIL leading to including the ligament in  
262 only one slice. In high-field MRI, transverse images are recommended for optimal visualisation  
263 of the DSIL, however, increased slice thickness used in low-field MRI could have caused  
264 suboptimal visualisation of the DSIL in transverse images in the current study [14]. Due to the  
265 width of the slices used in the current study, not all parts of the ligament could be visualised in  
266 the frontal and transverse images. It should be noted, that the results of the current study in  
267 regards to visualisation of the ligament in these orientation are rather due to the physical

268 limitation than due to poor contrast in the images. Decreasing the slice thickness could have  
269 led to better visualisation of the ligament, however, in the current study settings of the  
270 sequences were in accordance to clinical protocols to investigate the visualisation in routinely  
271 used images. Nevertheless, the influence of decreasing the slice thickness in low-field MRI on  
272 the visualisation of the DSIL needs further investigation and is still speculative. Increase of field  
273 strength leads to higher image resolution resulting in better perceptibility of smaller structures  
274 in high-field MRI [7, 14, 15, 24-26]. The values of the thickness of the DSIL are stated with only  
275 up to 4mm; its length has not been measured, but is considered short leading to visualisation  
276 on possibly only one image in transverse planes [15]. Due to reduction of volume average  
277 artefacts, acquiring transverse images perpendicular to the DSIL should improve their  
278 visualisation compared to oblique images [27 -29]. However, in the current study transverse  
279 sequences, independent of their angulation, were found to be inferior for the visualisation of  
280 the DSIL compared to sagittal images.

281  
282 Due to their lower signal to noise ratio compared to T1w GRE and T2\*w GRE sequences,  
283 higher slice thicknesses have to be used for acquisition of T2w FSE- und STIR FSE images,  
284 nevertheless the latter was still found to be better for visualisation of the DSIL. The DSIL is  
285 bordered by two synovial structures, the DIPJ and the navicular bursa, which show in these  
286 sequences hyperintense signal compared to the hypointense signal of the ligament itself  
287 resulting in increased contrast [14, 30]. Additionally, STIR FSE sequences were excellent to  
288 visualise adhesions between the DDFT and DSIL [31]. However, these sequences are prone  
289 to motion artefacts causing possible decreased image quality in live horses. On T1w GRE  
290 images, fluid as well as ligaments have a hypointense signal resulting in low contrast between  
291 the DSIL and the surrounding synovial structures. Therefore, despite their thinner slice  
292 thickness these sequences were found to be less useful for visualisation of the DSIL in the  
293 current study.

294

295 Distension of the DIPJ could lead to better delineation of the hypointense ligament from the  
296 fluid filled synovial pouch. Previous studies have shown delineation of structures of the  
297 podotrochlear apparatus increased with saline arthrography of the DIPJ and podotrochlear  
298 bursography, however, the DSIL was not investigated [16, 17]. In the current study, injection  
299 of fluid into the DIPJ resulted in mild improvement of the visualisation in some of the  
300 sequences, such as sagittal T2w FSE und T2\* GRE images. Nevertheless, observer B noted  
301 mild but non-significant reduction of visualisation of the body of DSIL in sagittal T1w GRE,  
302 T2w FSE and STIR FSE images as well as at the insertion in sagittal STIR FSE sequences.  
303 However, compared to native images inter-observer agreement was higher for saline  
304 arthrography of the DPJ, which could be due to better visualisation. This could lead to improved  
305 visualisation of the DISL in clinical cases with presence of DIPJ distension.

306

307 Gadolinium used as contrast agent in MRI improved visualisation of abnormalities including  
308 desmopathies of the DSIL after intravenous and intraarterial application [32, 33]. However, by  
309 using disarticulated limbs use of these application methods would have been challenging.  
310 Furthermore, the limbs were included in further studies evaluating the use of iodine-based  
311 contrast in assessing the soft tissue structures in computed tomography.

312

313 This study had some limitations. Evaluation of the images was done only for the visualisation  
314 of the DSIL and abnormalities were disregarded. However, the aim of the study was to  
315 investigate the visualisation of the DSIL comparing different sequences. The range of the age  
316 of the included horses was quite wide and no clinical examination was performed prior to  
317 euthanasia. In standing horses, pressure leads to compression of structures resulting in  
318 decreased visibility of some structures. Using limbs instead of live horses was one limitation  
319 of current study, however, by using a custom-made stand we were able to simulate closely the  
320 weight-bearing position. Additionally, only two observers graded the images and intra-observer  
321 agreement and therefore repeatability was not investigated.

322

323 In conclusion, on sagittal T2w FSE and STIR FSE sequences visualisation of the DSIL in  
324 low-field MRI was fair to good and better than in other sequences and poor to fair for most  
325 transverse sequences independent of their orientation. Therefore, the former should be used  
326 to evaluate the DSIL. Whilst no consistent improvement could be found for images with  
327 distension of the DIPJ, agreement between different observers was higher compared to  
328 native sequences and could improve visualisation of pathological changes of the DSIL.  
329 However, further studies evaluating this effect in detecting abnormalities of the DSIL are  
330 required.

331

332

333

334 References

- 335 [1]. Murray RC, Schramme MC, Dyson SJ, Branch MV, Blunden TS. Magnetic resonance  
336 imaging characteristics of the foot in horses with palmar foot pain and control horses. *Vet*  
337 *Radiol Ultrasound* 2006;47:1–16.
- 338 [2]. Dyson S, Murray R. Magnetic resonance imaging evaluation of 264 horses with foot  
339 pain: The podotrochlear apparatus, deep digital flexor tendon and collateral ligaments of the  
340 distal interphalangeal joint. *Equine Vet J* 2007; 39: 340–343.
- 341 [3]. Dyson S, Murray R. Magnetic Resonance Imaging of the Equine Foot. *Clin Tech Equine*  
342 *Pract* 2007; 6: 46–61.
- 343 [4]. Sampson SN, Schneider RK, Gavin PR. Magnetic Resonance Imaging Findings in  
344 Horses with Recent and Chronic Bilateral Forelimb Lameness Diagnosed as Navicular  
345 Syndrome. Proceedings of the 54th annual convention of the American Association of Equine  
346 Practitioners, San Diego, USA;2008:pp. 419–434.
- 347 [5]. Sampson SN, Schneider RK, Gavin PR, Ho CP, Tucker RL, Charles EM. Magnetic  
348 resonance imaging findings in horses with recent onset navicular syndrome but without  
349 radiographic abnormalities. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound* 2009; 50: 339–346.
- 350 [6]. Sherlock C, Mair T, Blunden T. Deep erosions of the palmar aspect of the navicular  
351 bone diagnosed by standing magnetic resonance imaging. *Equine Vet J* 2008; 40: 684–692.
- 352 [7]. Gutierrez-Nibeyro SD, Werpy NM, White II NA. Standing low-field magnetic resonance  
353 imaging in horses with chronic foot pain. *Aust Vet J* 2012; 90: 75–83.
- 354 [8]. Dyson SJ, Murray R, Schramme MC. Lameness associated with foot pain: results of  
355 magnetic resonance imaging in 199 horses (January 2001-December 2003) and response to  
356 treatment. *Equine Vet J* 2005; 37: 113–121.
- 357 [9]. Stoeckl T, Schulze T, Brehm W, Gerlach K. Distribution of findings of bilateral magnetic  
358 resonance examinations of lame and sound forelimb hoof regions. *Pferdeheilkunde* 2013; 29:  
359 303–311.

- 360 [10]. Kottmeier LK, Seehusen F, Helweg M, Rohn K, Stadler P, Hellige M. High-field  
361 (3 Tesla) MRI of the navicular apparatus of sound horses shows good agreement to  
362 histopathology. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound* 2020;61:48-57.
- 363 [11]. Blunden A, Dyson S, Murray R, Schramme M. Histopathology in horses with chronic  
364 palmar foot pain and age-matched controls. Part 1: Navicular bone and related structures.  
365 *Equine Vet J* 2006; 38: 15–22.
- 366 [12]. Murray R, Blunden A, Schramme M, Dyson S. How does magnetic resonance imaging  
367 represent histological findings in the equine digit? *Vet. Radiol Ultrasound* 2006;47:17-31.
- 368 [13]. Werpy NM. Magnetic Resonance Imaging of the Equine Patient: A Comparison of High-  
369 and Low-Field Systems. *Clin Tech Equine Pract* 2007; 6: 37–45.
- 370 [14]. Murray RC, Mair TS, Sherlock CE, Blunden AS. Comparison of high-field and low-field  
371 magnetic resonance images of cadaver limbs of horses. *Vet Rec* 2009;165:281–288.
- 372 [15]. Dyson S, Pool R, Blunden T, Murray R. The distal sesamoidean impar ligament:  
373 Comparison between its appearance on magnetic resonance imaging and histology of the axial  
374 third of the ligament. *Equine Vet J* 2010; 42: 332–339.
- 375 [16]. Schramme M, Kerekes Z, Hunter S, Nagy K, Pease A. Improved identification of the  
376 palmar fibrocartilage of the navicular bone with saline magnetic resonance bursography. *Vet*  
377 *Radiol Ultrasound* 2009; 50: 606–614.
- 378 [17]. McGill SL, Gutierrez-Nibeyro SD, Schaeffer DJ, Hartman SK, O'Brien RT, Joslyn SK.  
379 Saline arthrography of the distal interphalangeal joint for low-field magnetic resonance imaging  
380 of the equine podotrochlear bursa: feasibility study. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound* 2015;56:417–424.
- 381 [18]. Agnello KA, Puchalski SM, Wisner ER, Schulz KS, Kapatkin ASMY. Effect of  
382 positioning, scan plane, and arthrography on visibility of periarticular canine shoulder soft  
383 tissue structures on magnetic resonance images. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound* 2008; 49: 529–539.
- 384 [19]. Landis JR, Koch GG. The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data.  
385 *Biometrics* 1977;33:159–174.

386 [20]. Kleiter M, Kneissl S, Stanek C, Mayrhofer E, Baulain U, Deegen E. Evaluation of  
387 magnetic resonance imaging techniques in the equine digit. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound* 1999; 40:  
388 15–22.

389 [21]. Zubrod CJ, Barrett MF. Magnetic Resonance Imaging of Tendon and Ligament Injuries.  
390 *Clin Tech Equine Pract* 2007;6:217–229.

391 [22]. Mair TS, Kinns J, Jones RD, Bolas NM. Magnetic resonance imaging of the distal limb  
392 of the standing horse: technique and review of 40 cases of foot lameness. Proceedings of the  
393 49th annual convention of the American Association of Equine Practitioners; New Orleans,  
394 USA; 2003;pp. 29–41.

395 [23]. Mair TS, Kinns J, Jones RD, Bolas NM. Magnetic resonance imaging of the distal limb  
396 of the standing horse. *Equine Vet Educ* 2005;17:74–78.

397 [24]. Bolen G, Audigié F, Spriet M, Vandenberghe F, Busoni V. Qualitative Comparison of  
398 0.27T, 1.5T, and 3T Magnetic Resonance Images of the Normal Equine Foot. *J Equine Vet*  
399 *Sci* 2010; 30: 9–20.

400 [25]. Werpy NM. Imaging of the Distal Limb. Lameness and imaging - Proceedings of AAEP  
401 Focus on Lameness and Imaging Meeting, Fort Collins, USA;2007;p. 70–85.

402 [26]. Dyson S, Murray R, Schramme M, Blunden T. Current concepts of navicular disease.  
403 *Equine Vet Educ* 2011; 23: 27–39.

404 [27]. Schick F. The bases of magnetic resonance tomography. *Radiologe* 2005; 45: 69–88.

405 [28]. Olive J. Distal interphalangeal articular cartilage assessment using low-field magnetic  
406 resonance imaging. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound* 2010;51:259–266.

407 [29]. Werpy N. Understanding MRI reports: Finding the lesions on an MRI study to show  
408 your clients. *J Equine Vet Sci* 2012; 32: 674–679.

409 [30]. Busoni V, Snaps F, Trenteseaux J, Dondelinger RF. Magnetic resonance imaging of  
410 the palmar aspect of the equine podotrochlear apparatus: normal appearance. *Vet Radiol*  
411 *Ultrasound* 2004; 45: 198–204.

412 [31]. Holowinski ME, Solano M, Maranda L, García-López JM. Magnetic resonance imaging  
413 of navicular bursa adhesions. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound* 2012; 53: 566–572.

414 [32]. Judy CE, Saveraid TC, Rodgers EH, Rick MC, Herthel DJ. Characterization of Foot  
415 Lesions Using Contrast Enhanced Equine Orthopedic Magnetic Resonance Imaging.  
416 Proceedings of the 54th annual convention of the American Association of Equine  
417 Practitioners; San Diego, USA, 2008;p. 459.

418 [33]. Zani D, Rabbogliatti V, Ravasio G, Pettinato C, Giancamillo MD, Zani DD. Contrast  
419 enhanced magnetic resonance imaging of the foot in horses using intravenous versus regional  
420 intraarterial injection of gadolinium. *Open Vet J.* 2018;8(4):471–478. doi:10.4314/ovj.v8i4.19

421

422

423

424  
 425  
 426  
 427  
 428  
 429  
 430  
 431  
 432

**Table 1:** Details of the MRI sequences used for imaging of the distal sesamoidean impar ligament.

<b>Sequence and Orientation</b>	<b>TR (msec)</b>	<b>TE (msec)</b>	<b>Flip angle</b>	<b>Slice-thickness (mm)</b>	<b>FOV (mm)</b>	<b>Gap (mm)</b>	<b>Scan Time (min)</b>	<b>Matrix</b>
T1w GRE 3D	23	7	40	3	170x170	0	1:52	256 x 256
T2* GRE 3D	33	13	26	3	170x170	0	2:24	256 x 256
T2w FSE(2D)	2125	84	90	5	170x170	1	3:25	256 x 256
STIR FSE - (2D)	2910	27	90	5	170x170	1	3:18	256 x 256
STIR FSE (2D)	2700	27	90	5	170x170	1	3:18	256 x 256
STIR FSE + (2D)	3220	27	90	5	170x170	1	3:18	256 x 256

T1w: T1-weighted, T2w: T2-weighted; GRE: Gradient Recall Echo, FSE: Fast Spin Echo, STIR: Short Tau Inversion Recovery, 2D: two-dimensional, 3D: three-dimensional, TR: Repetition Time, TE: Echo Time, FOV: Field of View, msec: Millisecond; mm: Millimetre; min: Minute

433 **Table 2:** Observer- agreement (weighted Kappa) of the two best sequences before  
 434 and after fluid injection (Landis and Koch 1977): Bold numbers represent values after  
 435 fluid injection.

Sequence	Origin	Body	Insertion
Sag. T2w FSE native	0.12	0.36	0.29
<b>Sag. T2w FSE post</b>	<b>0.47</b>	<b>0.62</b>	<b>0.31</b>
Sag. STIR native	0.38	0.29	0.34
<b>Sag. STIR post</b>	<b>0.41</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>0.44</b>

436  
 437 Sag: Sagittal, T2w FSE: T2 weighted Fast Spin Echo; STIR: Short Tau Inversion  
 438 Recovery; post: after injection of fluid; <0: Poor agreement; 0-0,20 slight agreement;  
 439 0,21-0,40: fair agreement; 0,41-0,60: moderate agreement; 0,61-0,80: substantial  
 440 agreement; 0,81-1,00: almost perfect agreement.

441

442 Fig. 1: Sagittal T1weighted 3D Gradient Recall Echo magnetic resonance image of a  
443 hoof. The red lines indicate the three different transverse planes for imaging of the  
444 distal sesamoidean impar ligament. Plane 1: Orientated perpendicular to the facies  
445 flexoria of the navicular bone; Plane 2: Orientated parallel to the origin of the distal  
446 sesamoidean impar ligament; Plane 3: Tangent between the dorsodistal aspect of  
447 the navicular bone and the palmaroproximal aspect of the distal phalanx.

448

449

450 Fig 2: Sagittal images of one limb before (A-D) and after fluid injection (E-H), in T1weighted  
451 (w) Gradient Recall Echo (GRE) (A,E); T2\*w GRE (B,F), T2w Fast Spin Echo (FSE) (C,G) and  
452 Short Tau Inversion Recovery (STIR) FSE (D,H). In T1w GRE sequences, both observers  
453 graded the body with a score of 1 in native images and a score of 0 in images after fluid  
454 injection. The body was scored by both observers in native T2\*w GRE sequences with 1 and  
455 after fluid injection with grade 1 by observer a and grade 2 by observer B. Both observers  
456 graded the body in native T2w FSE and STIR images with a score of 2. After fluid injection  
457 both observers scored the T2w FSE sequences with a grade of 3, and the STIR sequences  
458 were graded by observer A as 3 and by observer B as 2.

459

460

461 Fig 3: Mean score of the different sequences for visualisation of the origin of the distal  
462 sesamoidean impar ligament in magnetic resonance imaging. T1: T1 weighted (w) Gradient  
463 Recall Echo (GRE); T2\*: T2\*w GRE, T2: T2w Fast Spin Echo and STIR: Short Tau Inversion  
464 Recovery. SAG: sagittal, FRO: frontal, TRA1: transverse plane 1, TRA2: transverse plane 2,  
465 TRA3: transverse plane 3, Obs: Observer. Native: before fluid injection, Post: after fluid  
466 injection

467

468

469 Fig 4: Mean score of the different sequences for visualisation of the body of the distal  
470 sesamoidean impar ligament in magnetic resonance imaging.. T1: T1 weighted (w) Gradient  
471 Recall Echo (GRE); T2\*: T2\*w GRE, T2: T2w Fast Spin Echo and STIR: Short Tau Inversion  
472 Recovery. SAG: sagittal, FRO: frontal, TRA1: transverse plane 1, TRA2: transverse plane 2,  
473 TRA3: transverse plane 3, Obs: Observer. Native: before fluid injection, Post: after fluid  
474 injection

475

476

477 Fig 5: Mean score of the different sequences for visualisation of the origin of the insertion  
478 sesamoidean impar ligament in magnetic resonance imaging.. T1: T1 weighted (w) Gradient  
479 Recall Echo (GRE); T2\*: T2\*w GRE, T2: T2w Fast Spin Echo and STIR: Short Tau Inversion  
480 Recovery. SAG: sagittal, FRO: frontal, TRA1: transverse plane 1, TRA2: transverse plane 2,  
481 TRA3: transverse plane 3, Obs: Observer. Native: before fluid injection, Post: after fluid  
482 injection

483