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1 **1 Decision tree analysis of clinical data to aid diagnostic reasoning for equine laminitis: a**
2 **3 cross-sectional study.**
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Confidential: For Review Only

29 **Abstract**

30 The objective of this cross-sectional study was to compare the prevalence of selected clinical
31 signs in laminitis cases and non-laminitic but lame controls to evaluate their capability to
32 discriminate laminitis from other causes of lameness. Participating veterinary practitioners
33 completed a checklist of laminitis-associated clinical signs identified by literature review.
34 Cases were defined as horses/ponies with veterinary-diagnosed, clinically apparent laminitis;
35 controls were horses/ponies with any lameness other than laminitis. Associations were tested
36 by logistic regression with adjusted odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals, with
37 veterinary practice as an *a priori* fixed effect. Multivariable analysis using graphical
38 classification tree-based statistical models linked laminitis prevalence with specific
39 combinations of clinical signs. Data were collected for 588 cases and 201 controls. Five
40 clinical signs had a difference in prevalence of greater than +50%: 'reluctance to walk' (OR
41 4.4, 'short, stilted gait at walk' (OR 9.4), 'difficulty turning' (OR 16.9), 'shifting weight' (OR
42 17.7) and 'increased digital pulse' (OR 13.2) (all $P<0.001$). 'Bilateral forelimb lameness'
43 was the best discriminator; 92% of animals with this clinical sign had laminitis (OR 40.5,
44 $P<0.001$). If, in addition, horses/ponies had an 'increased digital pulse', 99% were identified
45 as laminitis. 'Presence of a flat/convex sole' also significantly enhanced clinical diagnosis
46 discrimination (OR 15.5, $P<0.001$). This is the first epidemiological laminitis study to use
47 decision-tree analysis, providing the first evidence-base for evaluating clinical signs to
48 differentially diagnose laminitis from other causes of lameness. Improved evaluation of the
49 clinical signs displayed by laminitic animals examined by first-opinion practitioners will lead
50 to equine welfare improvements.

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54 Introduction

55 Equine laminitis is a painful disease of the foot that affects equidae worldwide (Mellor and
56 others 2001; Wylie and others 2011). The insidious nature of the disease and potential for
57 unrelenting pain often necessitates euthanasia of the affected animal on welfare grounds
58 (Hunt 1993; Menzies-Gow and others 2010b). Effective diagnosis is necessary to allow
59 prompt instigation of palliative and therapeutic treatments, to maximise recovery prospects.

60 In equine medicine, 'laminitis' is used to describe animals presenting with pain localised to
61 the lamellar region of the foot, with or without concurrent solar pain under the distal margin
62 of the distal phalanx (Stashak 2002). There are no universally accepted gold-standard
63 techniques for the detection and quantification of the four stages of laminitis (Eustace 2010;
64 Herthel and Hood 1999; Hunt and Wharton 2010; Menzies-Gow and others 2010c; Swanson
65 1999). Acute laminitis arises with the development of clinical signs appreciable as changes
66 in the normal stance and gait of the animal (Baxter 1994; Coffman and Garner 1972;
67 Swanson 1999). Acute laminitis either progresses to the subacute form or to the chronic form
68 of the disease. The subacute stage can either persist, develop to chronic laminitis, or lead to
69 complete recovery. Development of chronic laminitis usually results in a cycle of recurrent
70 episodes (Hood 1999). The terminology used to describe chronic laminitis is extremely
71 variable (Parks and Mair 2009), but is often taken to describe progression from acute
72 laminitis to failure of the SADP resulting in dislocation of the DP following detachment of
73 the hoof wall (Grosenbaugh and others 1999).

74 Laminitis is necessarily commonly diagnosed solely on the presence of a combination of
75 characteristic clinical signs (Baxter 1994; Vinuela-Fernandez *et al.* 2011a). Diagnostic
76 challenges are compounded by the multifactorial aetiology of the disease, which can arise as
77 a consequence of systemic inflammatory disease, endocrine disease or abnormal weight/load
78 bearing which may initiate distinct pathophysiological processes as reviewed by Eades
79 (2010). However, the common feature of all cases of laminitis is the induction of

1 80 pathological changes within the SADP, resulting in overt foot pain and clinical signs related
2
3 81 to lameness (Baxter 1994; Budras and others 2009a; Budras and others 2009b).
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6 82 Despite the perceived importance there is remarkably little evidence-based data regarding the
7
8 83 clinical presentation of laminitis (Eustace 2010; Hunt and Wharton 2010; Mellor and others
9
10 84 2001; Wylie and others 2013a), adding to inherent difficulties in establishing accurate
11
12 85 diagnosis of laminitis due to the non-specific nature of clinical signs and the absence of
13
14 86 robust case definitions. Furthermore, there is no general agreement regarding standardised
15
16 87 criteria to diagnose laminitis or to classify affected animals based on the phase of disease
17
18 88 progression and/or disease aetiology (Parks and Mair 2009; Rohrbach and others 1995). The
19
20 89 debilitating consequences of laminitis do, however, require prompt veterinary intervention
21
22 90 and accurate diagnosis is therefore essential.
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25 91 All the factors outlined above complicate the overall challenge of diagnostic reasoning based
26
27 92 on clinical signs, presenting the veterinary clinician with a challenge to diagnose laminitis
28
29 93 differentially from other forms of orthopaedic disorder. Therefore, the aim of this study was
30
31 94 to compare the prevalence of selected clinical signs in laminitis and non-laminitis lameness
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33 95 cases in order to evaluate the capabilities of clinical signs to differentially diagnose laminitis
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35 96 from other causes of lameness. The study is presented considering recommendations
36
37 97 of the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational studies in Epidemiology
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39 98 (STROBE) statement (von Elm and others 2007).
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45 100 **Materials and Methods**

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51 102 Data were collected from two groups:

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54 103 *Group A*

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104 A convenience sample of five veterinary institutions (two referral centres, two large first-
105 opinion and referral equine hospitals and a first-opinion mixed practice) were visited and
106 invited to provide data for this study. In addition, veterinary practices (n=93) that were
107 interested in participating in a parallel epidemiological investigation of equine laminitis,
108 were contacted by telephone or email and invited to provide data on clinical signs of
109 lameness (of any origin) for the study reported here.

110 A literature review was conducted to identify previously suggested clinical signs of laminitis
111 and differential diagnoses. The resultant list was reviewed by expert equine clinicians in
112 selected referral hospitals and laminitis researchers, and a 'lameness reporting form' (LM)
113 (Supplementary Information Item 1) was designed to gather information on laminitis-relevant
114 clinical signs from both laminitic (cases) and non-laminitic lame (controls) horses.

115 Part one of the LM gathered case identifying information with five subsequent sections
116 recording whether clinical signs pertaining to the foot, stance and lameness irregularities
117 (clinical signs) were present, absent or had not been assessed. Part two of the LM allowed
118 practitioners to record their diagnosis as free text and to select specific diagnostic techniques
119 used to confirm the diagnosis from six tick-box options. A free-text comments section was
120 also included for any additional information pertinent to confirmation of the diagnosis.

121 Participating practitioners were asked to complete a LM for equine lameness of any origin
122 seen between February-April 2009, and January 2010-May 2011, with the second phase of
123 data collection initiated to increase numbers for analysis. Completed forms were returned by
124 post using supplied reply-paid envelopes. Upon arrival LMs were divided into two groups for
125 analysis: one group containing reported laminitis cases and another containing all animals for
126 which the primary cause of lameness was not laminitis (controls).

127 *Group B*

128 Following this development phase, a 'laminitis reporting form' (LRF) was finalised
129 (Supplementary Information Item 2) as previously described (Wylie and others 2013a). As

1 130 for the LM, the LRF consisted of five distinct sections on lameness, stance characteristics,
2
3 131 feet affected and observed laminitis-related acute and chronic clinical signs. Based on the
4
5 132 data collected from animals in Group A, some modifications to the form were made, hence
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7 133 for the purposes of this study only those clinical signs which were reported for both groups
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9 134 were compared. No further clinical data were recorded for the purposes of this study.
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13 136 A LRF was completed for any case of laminitis, defined as a horse or pony with veterinary-
14
15 137 diagnosed, clinically apparent laminitis (i.e. an active episode of laminitis), attended by one
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17 138 of the participating practitioners (Wylie and others 2013a). In animals with recurring
18
19 139 laminitis, an episode of veterinary-diagnosed active laminitis was defined as new if the
20
21 140 animal had returned to its previous/normal level of soundness and had not received analgesic
22
23 141 medication for 14 days or more between episodes (Wylie and others 2013a). However, for
24
25 142 the purposes of this study only the first episode of laminitis was included. Practices were
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27 143 asked to complete the LRF for all eligible cases occurring from May 2009 to April 2011.
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33 145 *Statistical analysis*

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35 146 To increase the numbers for data analysis, Groups A and B were combined. Multiple
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37 147 different clinical signs were categorised (present, not present or not assessed) under the
38
39 148 following five sections:
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42 149 (1) Lameness: recumbency, refusal to move unless forced, reluctance to walk, lame at
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44 150 walk, lame at trot, short stilted gait at walk, short stilted gait at trot, difficulty turning
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47 151 (2) Stance: shifting weight, front feet placed in front of body, reluctance to lift foot
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50 152 (3) Feet affected: bilateral front feet, bilateral hind feet or all four feet
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53 153 (4) Acute clinical signs: increased digital pulse, increased hoof temperature, pain on sole
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1 155 (5) Chronic clinical signs: Coronary band swelling, coronary band depression, divergent
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3 156 growth rings, change in hoof wall angle, wall separation, flat/convex sole, widened
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5 157 white line, pink crescent dorsal to frog, sole prolapse
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8 158 Initial examination, coding of data and descriptive analyses were conducted using Microsoft
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10 159 Excel (Excel 2003, Microsoft). The prevalence (including corresponding 95% confidence
11
12 160 intervals [CI]) of each clinical sign, excluding records where the sign was not assessed, in
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14 161 both case and control animals and the between-group differences in prevalence of presence of
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16 162 clinical sign were determined. Associations between each clinical sign and case or control
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18 163 status were tested using logistic regression models reporting adjusted odds ratios (OR) taking
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20 164 into account veterinary practice as a fixed effect, with 95% confidence intervals (CI), and
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22 165 Wald test P-values. All analyses were conducted in R Statistical Package (version 3.1.2 ©
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24 166 2014 The R Foundation for Statistical Computing) using the ‘epicalc’ and ‘tree’ packages.
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26 167 Statistical significance was set at a value of $P < 0.05$.
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29 168 Multivariable analysis was carried out using a multi-factorial classification - tree-based
30
31 169 statistical models (hereafter ‘tree models’) (Clark and Pregibon 1997). This analytical
32
33 170 technique was chosen due to the unbalanced dataset with potentially different combinations
34
35 171 of factors present in different horses. The analysis consisted of determining a binary division
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37 172 of the clinical signs prevalence data (laminitis vs. non-laminitis lameness), such that there is
38
39 173 the largest difference in terms of prevalence of laminitis vs. non-laminitis lameness for those
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41 174 two subsets of data. One subset of animals with a specific clinical sign is first considered
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43 175 (e.g. those with ‘bilateral forelimb lameness’) and the binary division in terms of any of the
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45 176 other clinical signs resulting in the largest difference in prevalence of laminitis is determined.
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47 177 The other subset is then considered (e.g. those with no ‘bilateral forelimb lameness’) and
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49 178 again the clinical signs for which binary division gives the largest difference in prevalence of
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51 179 laminitis vs. non-laminitis lameness is determined. The different “branches” of the tree are
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53 180 independent of each other in terms of what binary partitions are presented. This binary
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55 181 partitioning is continued for smaller and smaller subsets of data until no differentiation in
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1 182 terms of prevalence is possible. The trees are then 'pruned' to exclude very small
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3 183 differentiations based on a few horses. The analysis is presented in graphical form allowing
4
5 184 easy comprehension of the grouping of clinical signs giving the largest differences in
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7 185 prevalence in the data. Univariable comparisons of the distribution of clinical signs for
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9 186 particular subsets identified in the trees were then carried out as per the association between
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11 187 clinical signs and case/controls status described above.
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14 188 Five separate preliminary tree models were produced for the following characteristics to
15
16 189 represent the features of clinically active laminitis recorded: i) lameness, ii) stance, iii) feet
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18 190 affected, iv) acute signs only and iv) acute and chronic signs. 'Lame at trot' and 'short stilted
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20 191 gait at trot' were excluded from the lameness tree model due to large numbers of missing data
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22 192 where these signs had not been assessed (missing for 55.0% and 49.4% of observations,
23
24 193 respectively).
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27 194 After consideration of the five preliminary trees, those variables identified in each
28
29 195 preliminary tree as being the greatest differentiators in terms of laminitis were analysed
30
31 196 together to form two combined tree models: (i) a combined model of lameness, stance
32
33 197 characteristics, feet affected and observed laminitis-related acute clinical signs to reflect
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35 198 active episodes of laminitis in horses with no evidence of chronic laminitis, and (ii) a
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37 199 combined model of lameness, stance characteristics, feet affected and observed laminitis-
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39 200 related acute and chronic clinical signs to reflect active episodes of laminitis in horses with
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41 201 evidence of previous SADP failure (chronic laminitis).
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46 47 203 **Results**

48 49 204 *Recruitment*

50 51 205 *Group A*

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206 All five veterinary establishments visited agreed to provide data for this study. In addition,
207 25 first-opinion veterinary practices agreed to participate, of which 14 (46.7%) contributed
208 data to the study. Lameness forms were provided for 238 unique horses/ponies: 89 (37.4%)
209 from referral practices and 149 (62.6%) from first-opinion practices. Thirty-seven animals
210 (15.5%) were diagnosed by veterinary practitioners as laminitis cases and 201 (84.5%) were
211 diagnosed with non-laminitis lameness. Other causes of lameness included, but were not
212 restricted to, proximal suspensory desmitis (n=40, 17.3%), foot abscesses (n=22, 9.5%) and
213 fractures (n=16, 6.9%). Overall, 73 (30.7%: CI 24.8, 36.5) Group A animals were diagnosed
214 on the basis of clinical signs without further diagnostic procedures (cases 32.4%: CI 17.3,
215 47.5, controls 30.3%: CI 24.0, 36.7) and 155 (65.1%: CI 59.1, 71.2) animals were diagnosed
216 using multiple diagnostic modalities (cases 62.2%: CI 46.5, 77.8, controls 65.7%: CI 59.1,
217 72.2). Stated diagnostic techniques used to investigate lameness in the laminitic cases
218 included clinical examination (94.6%: CI 87.3, 100), radiography (64.9%: CI 49.5, 80.2),
219 regional anaesthesia (nerve blocks) (13.5%: CI 2.5, 24.5), surgical/post-mortem findings
220 (13.5%: CI 2.5, 24.5) and blood testing for concurrent predisposing metabolic conditions
221 (8.1%: CI 0.01, 16.9).

222 **Group B**

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223 The recruitment of cases is described in detail in Wylie et al. (2013a). In brief, LRFs were
224 received for 551 unique horses/ponies from 30 first-opinion veterinary practices over the two-
225 year period.

226 *Clinical signs*

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227 The prevalence of the presence of each clinical sign in laminitis cases and non-laminitis lame
228 controls, excluding records where the sign was not assessed, and difference in prevalence
229 between the two groups are provided in Table 1. The overall prevalence of specific clinical
230 signs ranged from 2.7% (CI 1.5, 3.9) for 'sole prolapse' (number assessed = 706) to 85.0%
231 (CI 81.4, 88.7) for 'lame at trot' (number assessed = 367). The difference in prevalence

1 232 between cases and controls ranged from -14.1% for 'lame at trot' (sign more common in
2
3 233 controls) to +71.9% for 'short stilted gait at walk' (found more often in cases than controls).
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5 234 There were five clinical signs with a difference in prevalence of greater than +50%: three
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7 235 lameness-related signs ('reluctance to walk', 'short, stilted gait at walk' and 'difficulty
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9 236 turning'), one stance-related sign ('shifting weight') and one acute clinical sign ('increased
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11 237 digital pulse').

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14 238 The logistic regression results are provided in Table 2. For each clinical sign there was a
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16 239 statistically significant increase in the odds of occurrence in the laminitis (cases) group, with
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18 240 the exception of 'recumbent', 'lame at trot' and 'coronary band swelling' for which there was
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20 241 no significant difference ($P>0.05$). No odds ratio could be calculated for 'coronary band
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22 242 depression' or 'sole prolapse' because no animals in the control group showed these clinical
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24 243 signs.

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27 244 The preliminary tree models are provided in Supplementary Information Item 3.
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29 245 Consideration of the lameness tree identified the best discriminator as 'short stilted gait at
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31 246 walk'; 93.1% (CI 90.6, 95.5) of animals with that clinical sign had laminitis; 94.1% (CI 91.6,
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33 247 96.5) of animals with both 'short stilted gait at walk' and 'difficulty turning' had laminitis.
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35 248 Of the 219 animals that did not have a 'short stilted gait at walk', only 27.9% (CI 21.9, 33.8)
36
37 249 had laminitis – however, if they had 'difficulty turning' 59.7% (CI 48.0, 71.5) had laminitis.
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39 250 For animals where both these clinical signs were absent, if they were 'reluctant to walk'
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41 251 40.0% (CI 15.2, 64.8) had laminitis.

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44 252 The best discriminator in the stance tree was 'shifting weight'; 98.1% (CI 96.6, 99.6) of
45
46 253 animals with that clinical sign had laminitis. In animals that were not 'shifting weight', 'front
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48 254 feet placed in front of the body' identified 94.2% (CI 89.2, 99.1) as laminitis cases.

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51 255 In the 'acute clinical signs' tree, 91.0% (CI 88.5, 93.5) of animals with 'increased digital
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53 256 pulses' had laminitis, and 'pain on sole pressure' in the absence of 'increased digital pulses'
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55 257 identified 69.0% (CI 52.1, 85.8) as cases of laminitis.

1 258 The best discriminator in the 'acute and chronic clinical signs' tree was 'increased digital
2 pulses'; 91.0% (CI 88.4, 93.5) of animals with that clinical sign had laminitis, and the
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5 260 additional presence of 'divergent growth rings' identified 100% as laminitis cases.
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8 261 The tree diagram combining categories of clinical signs for acute laminitis with lameness,
9 stance and feet is provided in Figure 1. Presence of 'lameness in both forelimbs' was the best
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11 discriminator, with 93.1% (CI 90.7, 95.5) of animals with this clinical sign belonging to the
12 263
13 laminitis group. Additional presence of an 'increased digital pulse' improved diagnostic
14 264
15 accuracy to 99% (CI 97.9, 100) ($P<0.001$). A 'bilateral forelimb lameness' with no 'increase
16 265
17 in digital pulse', yet presence of a 'short stilted gait at walk' identified 100% of animals as
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19 laminitis cases, however statistical analysis of this sub-group and the presence of 'shifting
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21 weight' was not possible due to small numbers of animals with these signs. The presence of
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23 'pain on sole pressure' was not statistically associated with improved clinical discrimination
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26 (P=0.30).
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29 271 The overall tree diagram considering both acute and chronic laminitis clinical signs with
30 lameness, stance and feet is provided in Figure 2. Presence of 'lameness in both forelimbs'
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32 was again the best discriminator; 92% of animals with this clinical sign had laminitis
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34 (P<0.001). The additional presence of 'increased digital pulses' improved this to 99% of
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36 cases (P<0.001). Presence of a 'flat/convex sole' also provided improved clinical
37 275
38 discrimination (P=0.002). It was not possible to assess statistical significance for 'short
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40 stilted gait at walk', or 'shifting weight', again because of the small numbers of animals with
41 277
42 these signs.
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49 280 **Discussion**

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52 281 This is the first study comparing the prevalence of veterinary-recognised clinical signs in
53 282
54 laminitis and other causes of lameness to evaluate the capabilities of discrimination for
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56 differential diagnosis.
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1 284 A wide range of clinical signs were displayed by the laminitic cases, in agreement with
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3 285 previous reviews (Baxter 1994; Eustace 2010; Hunt and Wharton 2010; Swanson 1999).
4
5 286 There were no individual, or combinations of, clinical signs present in every case. The
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7 287 clinical signs that were considered to be the most useful on the basis of this work were three
8
9 288 features of lameness investigation ('reluctance to walk', 'short, stilted gait at walk' and
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11 289 'difficulty turning'), one feature of stance ('shifting weight') and an 'increased digital pulse'.
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13 290 All these signs had a difference in prevalence of over 50% between active laminitis cases
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15 291 (signs more prevalent) and non-laminitic lame horses (signs less prevalent). As the clinical
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17 292 details forms were designed to gather information on laminitis, it may be expected there was
18
19 293 a statistically significant difference in the distribution of many of the clinical signs between
20
21 294 laminitis cases and non-laminitis lameness controls. For the purposes of this study it was
22
23 295 considered important to focus only on the lameness-associated clinical signs for two main
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25 296 reasons. Firstly, because regardless of the underlying pathological process of laminitis, the
26
27 297 common feature of all cases of laminitis is the induction of pathological changes within the
28
29 298 SADP, resulting in overt foot pain and clinical signs related to lameness (Baxter 1994;
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31 299 Budras and others 2009a; Budras and others 2009b; Eades 2010), and as a consequence
32
33 300 previous epidemiological studies of laminitis have used only lameness-associated clinical
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35 301 signs as their case inclusion/exclusion criteria (Alford and others 2001; Dorn and others
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37 302 1975; Hood and others 1994; Menzies-Gow and others 2010a; Parsons and others 2007;
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39 303 Slater and others 1995). Secondly, to keep the amount of work required by the veterinary
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41 304 surgeons to a minimum to enhance compliance. Collection of data regarding systemic
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43 305 clinical signs would have increased the amount of work required by the participating
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45 306 veterinary practitioners, and it was considered that their presence would aid the diagnosis of
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47 307 the underlying, predisposing condition rather than laminitis directly. Nevertheless, it is
48
49 308 acknowledged that as part of the diagnostic process veterinarians will use the animal's history
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51 309 and other clinical features in making their diagnosis. As such, collection of additional clinical
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53 310 data in future studies would be useful to improve the current decision trees, as well as to
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55 311 generate further trees pertaining to, for example, signs of colic.

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312 Currently, visual assessment of lameness is a highly subjective process. Many kinetic and
313 kinematic methods for objectively assessing lameness have been reviewed previously (Hood
314 and others 2001; Keegan 2010), and it is possible that these may prove to be more reliable
315 than visual assessment alone in the future (Dyson 2011). Further evaluation of techniques to
316 evaluate stance and gait characteristics of lame animals may result in a more objective
317 method of diagnosing and/or scoring laminitis, as well as other reasons for lameness.
318 Recently developed techniques allow assessment of horse movement without impeding the
319 use of the animal, and may have a role in evidence-based assessment of lameness in horses in
320 veterinary practice in the future (Dyson 2011; Keegan 2010; Pfau and others 2007). There
321 was no statistically significant difference in prevalence of 'lameness at trot' between cases
322 and controls, and this variable was not included in the tree analysis due to large number of
323 laminitic cases that were not assessed at trot. The high level of missing data is likely to
324 reflect the appropriate reluctance of veterinary surgeons to trot suspect laminitis cases on
325 welfare grounds and so as not to exacerbate lamellar pathology, and the common use of
326 intrasynovial anaesthesia for diagnosis of other lamenesses commonly evaluated at the trot.

327 Two clinical signs – 'coronary band depression' and 'prolapsed sole' - were pathognomonic
328 for laminitis in this study, . were only found in 13.6% and 3.7% of cases, respectively. Both
329 these signs can indicate disease progression to chronic phase laminitis (i.e. SADP failure and
330 distal phalanx dislocation within the hoof); therefore these signs would not be expected to be
331 present in acute cases, unless they were also suffering from concurrent pathology such as
332 chronic seedy toe/white line disease or severe club feet (Kuwano and others 1999). These
333 results may help veterinary practitioners prioritise where to begin their clinical examination
334 of an active laminitis case, as primary inspection of the sole and coronary band would prevent
335 the animal undergoing lameness evaluation which could precipitate further SADP
336 damage/failure.

337 Two overall combined trees were generated to reflect the two clinical scenarios of active
338 laminitis, one consisting of clinical signs considered to occur in the acute phase of the

1 339 disease, and one that also contained data reflective of lamellar damage and displacement of
2
3 340 the SADP. In both scenarios, the presence of a bilateral lameness was the most useful
4
5 341 discriminator, followed by the presence of increased digital pulses. Whilst these clinical
6
7 342 presentations are not specific for laminitis, this work provides an evidence-base for case
8
9 343 diagnosis and future epidemiological case definitions.

11 344 This work did not provide evidence for some commonly cited clinical signs of diagnostic
12
13 345 importance. In particular, 'front feet in front of the body', taken to represent the classic
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15 346 'laminitis stance', was found in less than half of the diagnosed active laminitis cases, and did
16
17 347 not prove to be a useful discriminator. Therefore, despite much anecdotal publicity of this
18
19 348 visibly apparent clinical sign (Stashak 2002; Swanson 1999), veterinarians, researchers and
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21 349 owners should be careful to avoid relying on its presence for making a diagnosis of laminitis
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23 350 [40].

27 351 The use of clinical recording forms based on evidence-based recommendations may help
28
29 352 veterinary practitioners structure their clinical examination of an active laminitis case.
30
31 353 However, in medical practice well-validated diagnostic algorithms tools are underused
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33 354 (Pearson and others 1994). For example, a simple predictor based on seven clinical signs for
34
35 355 ischaemia in humans was only used in 2.8% of cases (Corey and Merenstein 1987). The
36
37 356 clinical usefulness of developing such a technique would need to be established by a survey
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39 357 of first-opinion practitioners to decide whether such a tool would provide useful assistance in
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41 358 laminitis diagnosis in the field.

44 359 The limitations of this study include diagnosis by a number of different veterinary clinicians,
45
46 360 which may have different levels of experience. To take this into account veterinary practice
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48 361 was included in the generation of the odds ratio estimates, however, misclassification bias
49
50 362 may still occur, although this would have tended to shift the odds ratios towards non-
51
52 363 significant. Similarly, as it is not possible to obtain a definitive diagnosis of active laminitis
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54 364 in an observational epidemiological study there was the potential for misclassification of
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56 365 cases and controls. For this reason, veterinary recordings of the clinical signs observed was

1 366 used, as described in Wylie et al., (Wylie and others 2013a, b) and misclassification would
2
3 367 have again reduced the ability to detect significant differences rather than produce anomalous
4
5 368 significant differences. Inclusion of data in the tree models required the animals to have data
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7 369 for each included variable, resulting in smaller numbers of contributing individuals as the
8
9 370 trees became more complex. Consequently, although the variables retained high statistical
10
11 371 significance, smaller contributing sample sizes led to larger confidence intervals around
12
13 372 prevalence point estimates and the need therefore for some caution in their interpretation.
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16 373 It is acknowledged that there may be some bias in the data if veterinary practitioners did not
17
18 374 accurately detail the clinical signs which they observed and perhaps listed clinical signs that
19
20 375 they anticipated to reflect their diagnosis. Furthermore, it would be interesting to collect
21
22 376 greater numbers of control animals to conduct the analyses between specific control
23
24 377 lamenesses, such as forelimb foot pain only, to highlight more subtle differences between
25
26 378 presenting pathologies.
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28

29 379 In conclusion, separate clinical signs were compared between laminitis and non-laminitis
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31 380 cases of lameness, and no individual sign was present in every case of laminitis. The clinical
32
33 381 signs which best indicated a case of laminitis were characteristic of the chronic phase of the
34
35 382 disease only. Improved evaluation of the clinical signs displayed by laminitic animals
36
37 383 examined by first-opinion practitioners will lead to equine welfare improvements, as the best
38
39 384 recoveries occur in animals undergoing intensive treatment within several hours of the
40
41 385 appearance of the disease (Redden 1986). Future consensus on a basic disease definition may
42
43 386 permit future systematic review and meta-analysis of epidemiological investigations
44
45 387 collecting similar information in different locations worldwide.
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51 389 **Acknowledgements**
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Table 1: Prevalence and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for each clinical sign in both laminitis cases and non-laminitis lameness controls, excluding records where the sign was not assessed, and the percentage of horses that were assessed with corresponding difference in prevalence.

Clinical signs		Cases (n=588)					Controls (n=201)					Overall (n=789)		
		Present (n)	Absent (n)	Prevalence (%)	Lower limit CI (%)	Upper limit CI (%)	Present (n)	Absent (n)	Prevalence (%)	Lower limit CI (%)	Upper limit CI (%)	Number assessed	Percentage assessed (%)	Difference in prevalence (%)
Lameness	Recumbent	24	479	4.8	2.9	6.6	1	191	0.5	0.0	1.5	695	88.1	+4.3
	Refusal to move unless forced	148	361	29.1	25.1	33.0	14	180	7.2	3.6	10.9	703	89.1	+21.9
	Reluctance walk	395	155	71.8	68.1	75.6	38	157	19.5	13.9	25.1	745	94.4	+52.3
	Lame walk	409	95	81.2	77.7	84.6	76	122	38.4	31.6	45.2	702	89.0	+42.8
	Lame trot	152	42	78.4	72.6	84.2	160	13	92.5	88.6	96.4	367	46.5	-14.1
	Short stilted walk	446	66	87.1	84.2	90.0	29	162	15.2	10.1	20.3	703	89.1	+71.9
	Short stilted trot	125	55	69.4	62.7	76.2	53	119	30.8	23.9	37.7	352	44.6	+38.6
	Difficulty turning	456	47	90.7	88.1	93.2	52	137	27.5	21.2	33.9	692	87.7	+63.1
Stance	Shifting weight	316	256	55.2	51.2	59.3	7	188	3.6	1.0	6.2	767	97.2	+51.7
	Front feet in front	250	317	44.1	40.0	48.2	6	190	3.1	0.7	5.5	763	96.7	+41.0

1															
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3															
4		Reluctance lift foot	300	269	52.7	48.6	56.8	24	169	12.4	7.8	17.1	762	96.6	+40.3
5	Feet Affected	Bilateral fore	538	44	92.4	90.3	94.6	32	152	17.4	11.9	22.9	766	97.1	+71.7
6		Bilateral hind	244	323	43.0	39.0	47.1	25	156	13.8	8.8	18.8	748	94.8	+28.3
7		All four feet	234	348	40.2	36.2	44.2	5	193	2.5	0.3	4.7	780	98.9	+39.5
8															
9	Acute	Increased digital pulse	520	50	91.2	88.9	93.6	45	150	23.1	17.2	29.0	765	97.0	+68.2
10		Increased hoof temperature	324	218	59.8	55.7	63.9	30	164	15.5	10.4	20.6	736	93.3	+44.3
11		Pain sole pressure	263	271	49.3	45.0	53.5	35	149	19.0	13.4	24.7	718	91.0	+30.2
12															
13	Chronic	Coronary band swelling	27	505	5.1	3.2	6.9	6	186	3.1	0.7	5.6	724	91.8	+2.0
14		Coronary band depression	73	462	13.6	10.7	16.6	0	192	0.0	0.0	0.0	727	92.1	+13.6
15		Divergent growth rings	148	378	28.1	24.3	32.0	3	190	1.6	0.0	3.3	719	91.1	+26.6
16		Change hoof wall angle	129	383	25.2	21.4	29.0	7	186	3.6	1.0	6.3	705	89.4	+21.6
17		Wall separation	71	445	13.8	10.8	16.7	2	184	1.1	0.0	2.6	702	89.0	+12.7
18		Flat/convex sole	232	291	44.4	40.1	48.6	9	180	4.8	1.7	7.8	712	90.2	+39.6
19		Widened white line	133	368	26.6	22.7	30.4	8	176	4.4	1.4	7.3	685	86.8	+22.2
20		Pink crescent	46	464	9.0	6.5	11.5	1	189	0.5	0.0	1.6	700	88.7	+8.5
21		Sole prolapse	19	498	3.7	2.1	5.3	0	189	0.0	0.0	0.0	706	89.5	+3.7
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499 Table 2: Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals (CI), with corresponding Wald *P*-values,
 500 for each clinical sign in laminitis cases compared to non-laminitis lameness controls. ORs are
 501 adjusted for the effect of veterinary practice.

Clinical Signs		Number	Adjusted Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	Wald P-value
Lameness	Recumbent	695	5.1	0.5, 51.4	0.17
	Refusal to move unless forced	703	3.5	1.6, 7.7	0.002
	Reluctance walk	745	4.4	2.2, 8.6	<0.001
	Lame walk	702	2.2	1.0, 4.7	0.04
	Lame trot	367	0.3	0.0, 2.6	0.29
	Short stilted walk	703	9.4	4.5, 19.6	<0.001
	Short stilted trot	352	3.9	1.6, 9.6	0.003
	Difficulty turning	692	16.9	7.0, 40.8	<0.001
Stance	Shifting weight	767	17.7	6.8, 45.6	<0.001
	Front feet in front	763	24.5	7.9, 75.9	<0.001
	Reluctance lift foot	762	4.0	1.9, 8.1	<0.001
Feet Affected	Bilateral fore	766	40.5	16.3, 100.9	<0.001
	Bilateral hind	748	21.3	7.7, 59.1	<0.001
	All four feet	780	96.3	22.1, 419.8	<0.001
Acute	Increased digital pulse	765	13.2	6.0, 29.3	<0.001
	Increased hoof temperature	736	5.7	2.8, 11.5	<0.001
	Pain sole pressure	718	2.7	1.4, 5.3	0.005
Chronic	Coronary band swelling	727	1.1	0.3, 3.9	0.88
	Coronary band depression	724	NA	NA	NA
	Divergent growth rings	719	96.3	17.1, 542.8	<0.001
	Change hoof wall angle	705	21.1	6.3, 71.0	<0.001
	Wall separation	702	58.5	5.1, 672.8	<0.001
	Flat/convex sole	712	15.5	5.9, 40.5	<0.001
	Widened white line	685	17.3	5.5, 54.5	<0.001
	Pink crescent	700	16.5	2.0, 136.5	0.009
Sole prolapse	706	NA	NA	NA	

1 502 Figure 1: Tree diagram of the occurrence of laminitis for combinations of lameness, stance,
2 503 feet affected, and acute laminitis clinical signs. Data were from 586 horses/ponies for which
3 504 information on each clinical sign was described, of which 74% had laminitis. The percentage
4 505 at the end of each branch are the occurrence rates of laminitis in those horses/ponies with that
5 506 particular combination of clinical signs, and the value in brackets the number of
6 507 horses/ponies of that particular combination of clinical signs.

9 508 Figure 2: Overall tree diagram of the occurrence of laminitis for combinations of lameness,
10 509 stance, feet affected, acute and chronic laminitis clinical signs. Data were from 551
11 510 horses/ponies for which information on each clinical sign was described, of which 72% had
12 511 laminitis. The percentage at the end of each branch are the occurrence rates of laminitis in
13 512 those horses/ponies with that particular combination of clinical signs, and the value in
14 513 brackets the number of horses/ponies of that particular combination of clinical signs.

17 514 Supplementary Information Item 1: Lameness reporting form (LM) used to investigate the
18 515 clinical signs of laminitis in Group A recruiting both cases and controls.

20 516 Supplementary Information Item 2: Laminitis reporting form (LRF) used to investigate the
21 517 clinical signs of laminitis in Group B recruiting cases only.

23 518 Supplementary Information Item 3: Preliminary Tree models of the occurrence of laminitis
24 519 for combinations of lameness, stance, feet affected, acute and chronic laminitis clinical signs.

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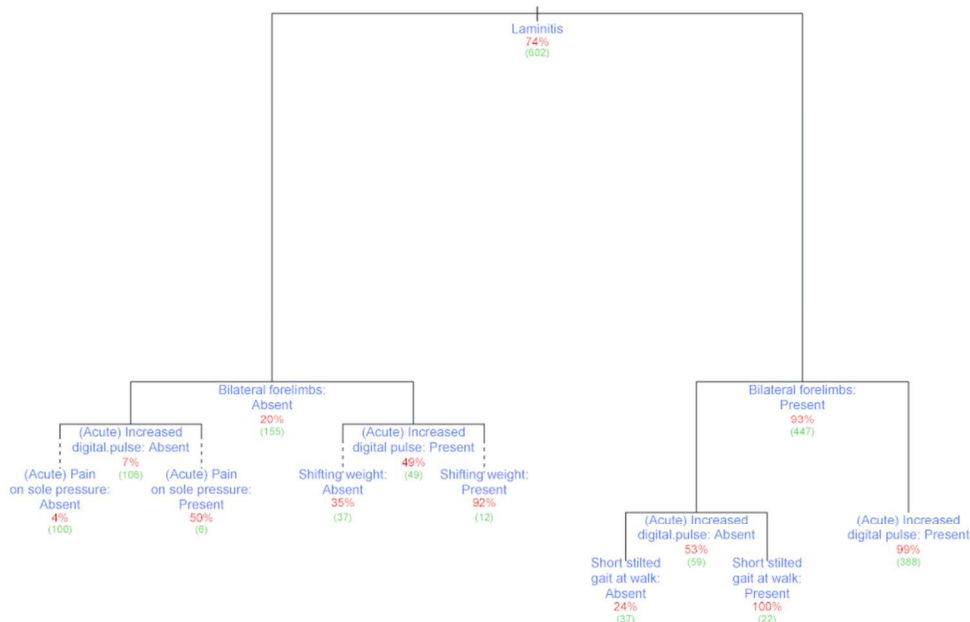


Figure 1: Tree diagram of the occurrence of laminitis for combinations of lameness, stance, feet affected, and acute laminitis clinical signs. Data were from 586 horses/ponies for which information on each clinical sign was described, of which 74% had laminitis. The percentage at the end of each branch are the occurrence rates of laminitis in those horses/ponies with that particular combination of clinical signs, and the value in brackets the number of horses/ponies of that particular combination of clinical signs.
85x53mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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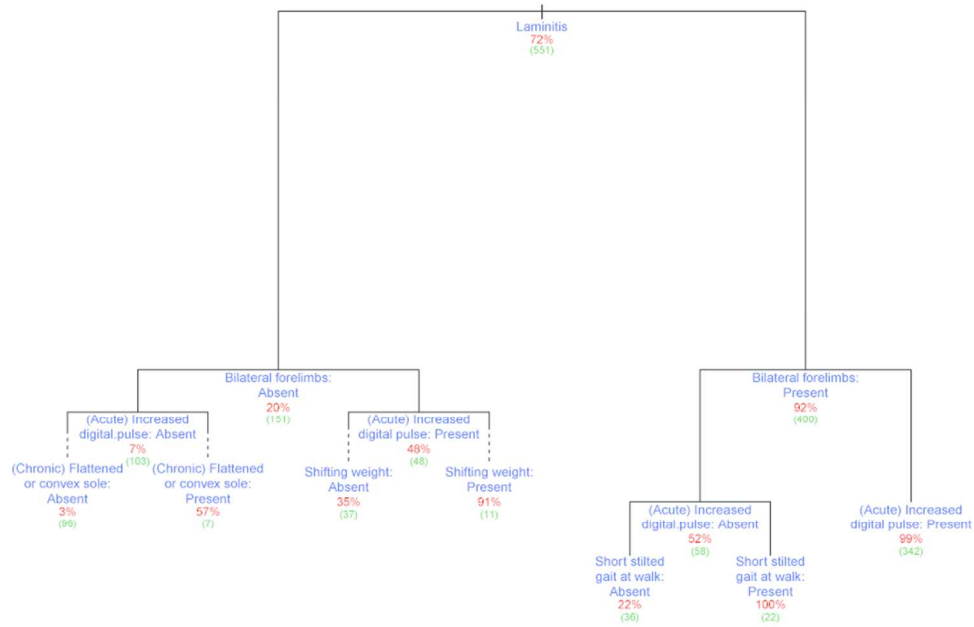


Figure 2: Overall tree diagram of the occurrence of laminitis for combinations of lameness, stance, feet affected, acute and chronic laminitis clinical signs. Data were from 551 horses/ponies for which information on each clinical sign was described, of which 72% had laminitis. The percentage at the end of each branch are the occurrence rates of laminitis in those horses/ponies with that particular combination of clinical signs, and the value in brackets the number of horses/ponies of that particular combination of clinical signs.
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