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1 **Science in brief: Highlights from the biomechanics and physiotherapy**

2 **abstracts at ICEEP**

3 Dr Sarah Jane Hobbs^{1*}

¹ Centre for Applied Sport and Exercise Sciences, University of Central Lancashire, Preston, UK.

*** Corresponding Author:**

Dr Sarah Jane Hobbs, Centre for Applied Sport and Exercise Sciences, University of Central Lancashire, Darwin Building 201, Preston, PR1 2HE, UK.

Tel: +44 1772 893328

E-mail: sjhobbs1@uclan.ac.uk

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5 Although human observations of equine locomotion are as old as our relationship with the
6 horse, today's scientists still have much to learn about horse-human interactions. Two
7 approaches are commonly used to study equine biomechanics and both were evident in
8 abstracts presented at the International Conference on Equine Exercise Physiology (ICEEP)
9 2014. One approach is to use simplified methods of measurement and analysis that provide
10 simple but meaningful objective information that can ultimately be used by the clinician or
11 practitioner. Alternatively, more complex equipment and techniques may be used to provide
12 detailed structural and functional information that directly measure or infer loading on the
13 equine musculoskeletal system. Whichever methods are used it is important that they are
14 reliable and robust, and that the errors and limitations of the measurement system are fully
15 recognized when interpreting data. In his keynote speech, Professor Rene Van Weeren
16 proposed that the biomechanical techniques available to scientists today provide a gateway
17 towards a better understanding of the horse-rider interaction that must ultimately improve
18 equine welfare whilst maintaining peak performance. The abstracts presented in this review
19 therefore cover key topics that are relevant to welfare and performance; lameness and
20 asymmetry, locomotion and sports performance, a focus on the axial system, and the foot.

21

22 **Lameness and asymmetry**

23 The subtleties of pathological low grade lameness compared to asymmetries that result from
24 other causes including mechanical asymmetries, laterality, asymmetric posture, muscular
25 imbalances, the task involved, such as circling, and the horse-human interaction was a key
26 topic of interest. The studies presented enhanced current knowledge of kinetic, kinematic and
27 postural asymmetries, which at times rejected long held anecdotal assumptions and
28 undoubtedly will lead to improvements in clinical examination and diagnosis over time.

29

30 Two studies investigated the effect of side-handling, as leading from the left is often
31 implicated in relation to asymmetric movement and loading patterns. Head and pelvis
32 movement symmetry was not found to be influenced by the side from which a horse was led,
33 provided the horses had a consistent head carriage and minimum of 27 strides were used in
34 the analysis [1]. Using a pressure plate with a smaller number of repeats over two data
35 collection sessions no significant differences were found peak vertical force or vertical
36 impulse with the handler on the left compared to the right [2]. Both studies therefore
37 confirmed that side-handling can be discounted as a cause of asymmetry during lameness
38 assessments.

39

40 Other aspects of current clinical practice were investigated in relation to subjective and
41 objective quantification of lameness. An objective evaluation of pelvic symmetry before and
42 after diagnostic analgesia in the hindlimb of lame horses was performed to determine which
43 parameters changed most consistently between horses [3]. Movement amplitude between left
44 and right tuber coxae changed consistently. Although this was not as sensitive as the
45 difference in upward movement between left and right tuber coxae, it was considered easier
46 to perceive in a lameness examination, so was considered the objective measurement of
47 choice to compliment subjective assessment. The anecdotal link between tail deviation and
48 lameness was also explored [4]. 87.2% of the horses, which included both sound and lame
49 horses, showed some degree of tail deviation. Due to the high proportion of horses with a tail
50 deviation and the variability in postural angle between horses, no significant relationship
51 between tail carriage and lameness was identified. Tail deviation should therefore not be
52 considered an indicator for lameness.

53

54 Examination of the lame horse often extends beyond straight line motion on a flat surface and
55 can include inclines, declines or circles to further investigate the origin of lameness. In
56 relation to slopes, declines were found to increase longitudinal breaking force and maximal
57 vertical force in the forelimb, whereas inclines increased propulsive force [5]. The demands
58 on the superficial digital flexor tendon may therefore be greater on declines whereas the
59 demands on the deep digital flexor tendon may be greater on inclines.

60

61 Circular motion poses additional challenges in relation to lameness diagnosis, as circle
62 dependent movement patterns are evident and these can vary between horses. In one study [6]
63 inter- and intra-rater agreement of lame limb identification between equine practitioners was
64 evaluated from videos of sound and lame horses during lungeing. High inter-observer
65 variation was found, although agreement increased by 11% greater in when evaluating
66 forelimb compared to hindlimb lameness. To address this very problem, another study [7]
67 compared objective classification of lameness on the circle to the exact fore-/hindlimb(s)
68 scored lame subjectively, final diagnosis and objective classification on a straight line. The
69 study reported a high frequency of false positives in objective classification on a circle
70 compared to subjective evaluation, and objective measurements of asymmetry during circular
71 motion were not associated with baseline lameness. Subtle lameness may be detectable more
72 successfully using this technique once predictive values of circle dependent asymmetry are
73 determined, ensuring that circle size [8] and speed are taken into account.

74

75 Circle dependent asymmetries occur due to the change in locomotion requirements, which
76 include the production of centripetal force at the ground to make the turn. Centripetal force
77 can be produced by leaning inwards, which shifts the point of application of the ground
78 reaction force towards the centre of the circle [9]. This medio-lateral loading is borne by the

79 forelimbs in a proportion that is directly related to their greater support of the body mass
80 against gravity compared to the hindlimbs, but with no significant difference between inside
81 and outside limbs [10].

82

83 Speed and circle size influence the requirement for centripetal force production, but the point
84 of application of the ground reaction force was only found to move towards the centre of the
85 circle above walking speed [9]. At trot, the point of application of the ground reaction force
86 was reported to move by 19.8 ± 10 mm, producing a 3-times higher centripetal force, but
87 interestingly the amount of systematic movement asymmetry on the same sized circle was
88 comparable between walk and trot [11]. In another study [12] no significant differences in
89 predicted compared to measured body lean angles were found between trot and canter on two
90 different sized circle. In this study, horses leaned marginally less into the circle than predicted
91 and significant differences in body lean angle between horses and turn directions were found.
92 These studies provide evidence to suggest that centripetal force may not be the primary
93 variable responsible for movement asymmetry on the circle [11].

94

95 The effect of exercise on movement symmetry was explored in two different studies. The
96 first used a longitudinal approach, measuring the vertical head (forelimb) and pelvis
97 (hindlimb) movement of trotters that were in training fourteen times from yearlings to 3-year
98 olds. The horses were grouped according to when they qualified to race and it was found that
99 forelimb movement asymmetry was associated with delayed race qualification [13]. The
100 second study compared movement symmetry before and after endurance rides of 120–160
101 kilometres and found a significant decrease in post-ride symmetry of the trunk [14]. Long
102 term and/or endurance exercise may therefore result in asymmetric musculoskeletal
103 development, which may have a direct influence on performance. Understanding the extrinsic

104 and intrinsic factors that leads to asymmetric development during exercise will offer health,
105 welfare and performance benefits.

106

107 **Equine locomotion and sports performance**

108 Biomechanical studies of sports horses and race horses sit on one of the two sides of a
109 balancing scale. One side of the scale concerns the health and welfare of the horse, whilst the
110 other side considers performance. The scales must balance if we are to maintain health and
111 welfare without compromising performance. In balancing the scales we must therefore
112 understand the performance demands placed upon the horse and this section describes studies
113 that were presented on aspects of performance.

114

115 The most explosive capabilities of galloping horses were highlighted in a study comparing
116 Quarter Horse sprint races to Thoroughbred classic distance stakes races [15]. The average
117 stride rates for Quarter Horses were 25% greater than for Thoroughbreds (2.88 vs 2.34
118 strides/sec). When just considering the Thoroughbreds, these stride rates and associated
119 respiratory rates are quite remarkable. The higher values in Quarter Horses reported here may
120 have implications for skeletal and respiratory soundness, although further work is needed to
121 explore the capabilities of these horses. The effects of speed were investigated in more detail
122 in trotters [16]. As speed increased, vertical loading rate increased in both fore and hind
123 limbs. The relationship between speed and peak vertical force was greater in the hindlimbs,
124 although again both increased with speed and as stance duration decreased so did vertical
125 impulse. A greater increase in hindlimb peak force with an increase in speed has not
126 previously been reported and highlights the necessity of performing biomechanical
127 measurements under real training conditions. Changes in limb loading with speed will also
128 influence the combined centre of pressure (COP) location and therefore the pitching moments

129 about the centre of mass (COM) [17]. In particular, it was reported that divergence of the
130 COM from the COP creating a vertical force moment arm prior to midstance may aid in
131 accelerating the COM about the hind foot, thereby passively assisting hindlimb propulsion.
132 The control of stability, balance and locomotion efficiency for different breeds in different
133 gaits and at different speeds will develop a better understanding of the limits of capability in
134 the horse.

135

136 Jumping was the topic of interest of a number of studies that considered the demands placed
137 upon the horse and jumping technique. Forces measured during jumping confirmed the
138 difference in roles of the leading and trailing forelimbs during landing where the leading
139 forelimb plays a major part in the retardatory (load-absorption) phase, while trailing forelimb
140 is mainly involved in propulsion [18]. Increased lumbosacral and thoracocolumbar flexion
141 during take-off and flight were reported to be associated with altered limb kinematics on
142 landing, which may influence limb loading [19]. Neck, thoracic and lumbar motion
143 influenced subjective grading of the jumping technique, and although higher ratings were
144 only weakly related to longer take off distances [20], the probability of success in free
145 jumping increased with increasing take off distance [21]. Increased velocity was found to
146 reduce free jumping success and increasing the number of jumping efforts decreased take-off
147 and landing distances, and height of the forelimb, withers and croup over the fence [22].
148 Much work is still needed in this area to fully appreciate the demands on the horse, dependant
149 on capability, discipline, fence type, environmental factors and competition level.

150

151 One of the key environmental factors is the surface used in training and competition, and
152 studies relating to surfaces were presented by a number of authors. This included the
153 developments of the surface used for the Olympic Games in 2012 and how important water

154 management and sub-surface construction are to achieving functional properties that support
155 elite performance [23]. Rider perception of these properties could be considered as important
156 as the measurement of them, and when questioned in a survey, riders preferred a surface that
157 produced higher peak loads and greater traction values [24]. Although these functional
158 properties are likely to support a good performance they are also more likely to increase
159 musculoskeletal injury risk.

160

161 Several studies focussed on differences between surface types, which provide additional
162 information in relation to the horse-hoof-surface interaction. In a longitudinal study of two-
163 year-old Thoroughbred racehorses in training, turf and peat moss training surfaces caused an
164 increase in stride length [25]. Using a pressure mat, vertical force and pressure measurements
165 synonymous with damping decreased on a surface covered with 50 mm of sand/synthetic
166 material, while contact area increased when compared to being covered with a rubber mat.
167 [26]. A new design of instrumented horse shoe was used to explore surface reaction profiles
168 during gallop on a sand track compared to a grass track [27]. Surface penetration on sand was
169 found to be greater, and there was a difference in stiffness but not in damping between these
170 surfaces.

171

172 Also concerning different racing surfaces, forelimb hoof accelerations of galloping
173 Thoroughbreds on a dirt surface compared to a synthetic surface with greater shear strength
174 were recorded [28]. Peak dorsopalmar accelerations were 40% greater during landing on the
175 synthetic surface compared to a dirt surface and the grab phase was 32% shorter. In another
176 study [29] maximum loading rate on the synthetic surface was reported to be five times
177 greater than the dirt surface, which suggests a notable increase strain on the suspensory
178 apparatus. The findings of these two studies contrast previous findings of trotting horses on

179 all-weather waxed and crushed sand surfaces, suggesting that variability within surface
180 category may be large and should be considered in future studies.

181

182 Rider interaction with the horse mainly focussed on asymmetry in the rider and the potential
183 effects on performance. Trunk axial rotation, which has previously been reported in riders,
184 was linked to poor shoulder-in dressage scores and was thought to be due to the right hand
185 dominance of the riders tested [30]. Pelvic posture and motion control were the feature of two
186 studies [31,32]. Control of forward flexion and extension motion of the pelvis during
187 standing was measured in riders and this was compared to horse-rider synchronisation during
188 riding [31]. It was suggested that the ability to control pelvic motion may influence horse-
189 rider harmony. In another study, standing and sitting pelvic asymmetry was found to be
190 prevalent in riders and this was linked to pelvic asymmetry in the horse [32], although the
191 cause and effect relationship is undoubtedly complex and has yet to be substantially
192 evidenced.

193

194 **The neck, back and pelvis**

195 Good health of the axial system in the horse is essential for sustaining good performance.
196 Maintaining health in the neck, back and pelvis is however complex, as pathologies in these
197 structures may develop due to primary or secondary causes and neuromuscular activity may
198 be permanently compromised. Our understanding of the structures, pathologies, functional
199 deficits, neuromuscular response and influence of rehabilitation techniques are developing
200 [33-35], but we have much still to learn. Studies presented provided new information on the
201 axial system, but as *in-vivo* measurement still poses a number of issues the reliability of
202 several measurement techniques were also explored.

203

204 Intrinsic factors that increase the risk of injury and may be performance limiting include
205 morphological differences between horses. In a study exploring the link between sacroiliac
206 joint degeneration and back pain in Thoroughbred racehorses, a relationship between bone
207 formation and surface area of the joint was found, and back pain was associated with obvious
208 gross pathologies [36]. Interestingly, there was no relationship between bodyweight or age
209 and the surface area of the sacroiliac joint. In another study [37] muscle fibre type
210 distribution in m. psoas major and m. longissimus dorsi was found to vary with breed
211 (Quarter Horses versus Arabians). It was suggested that due to muscle fibre type distribution
212 the deep epaxial muscles mm. psoas minor and the diaphragm are most likely to have a
213 postural stabilization role compared to the hindlimb muscles, where type II and IIX were
214 more prevalent. New information on lamella band measurements of the nuchal ligament of
215 foetal foals in different head and neck positions was also presented [38]. This study found
216 lamella band width differences in different postures and suggested that extreme head and
217 neck positions may interfere with normal elastic energy storage in the nuchal ligament during
218 movement.

219

220 Manipulation of the head and neck was used *in-vivo* to investigate skin displacement in the
221 equine neck using radiopaque skin markers from C1 to C6 [39]. Significant differences of up
222 to 44 ± 14 mm between control and “nose to carpus” positions were found between actual
223 vertebral position and skin mounted marker positions. In another study assessing soft tissue
224 artefacts, motion of the ilium and sacrum during manual force application to the equine pelvis
225 were compared using bone fixated and skin mounted sensors [40]. A poor correlation was
226 reported suggesting that kinematics during external movement applied to the pelvis cannot be
227 predicted from skin-mounted sensors. Soft tissue artefacts, which include skin sliding and
228 muscle deformation should always be taken into consideration when using skin mounted

229 markers or sensors, as the movement of the soft tissues over the underlying bones can be
230 quite pronounced.

231

232 The capabilities of diagnostic imaging techniques were explored by several authors. The
233 locations of clinically important structures including the facet joints, spinal cord, cervical
234 nerve roots and intervertebral disks were identified using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)
235 and compared to contrast-enhanced computerised tomography (CT) imaging in one study
236 [41]. The CT images were able to depict all osseous borders, but MR images were found to
237 be superior for soft tissue structures. There may therefore be limitations in using contrast-
238 enhanced CT imaging when accurate diagnosis of cervical disease is required. The ability to
239 measure interspinous spaces using radiographs was presented by investigating X-ray beam
240 angle when imaging the equine back [42]. This study found differences of up to 2 mm in
241 spacing depending on the beam angle and suggested that this may result in incorrect
242 evaluation of interspinous spaces. Inter and intra-operator reliability and repeatability using
243 ultrasonography compared to MR imaging was investigated in the equine neck, as atrophy
244 and response to physiotherapy could be measured and monitored more cost-effectively using
245 ultrasound. It was suggested that ultrasonography could be used for cross sectional area
246 (CSA) measurement of *m. multifidus* and *m. longus colli* in the mid-cervical spine of the
247 horse, as the CSA of both muscles was larger in this region [43,44] .

248

249 Rehabilitation studies included a novel assessment of electromyographic (EMG) intensity and
250 duration of vastus lateralis and gastrocnemius lateralis when applying an increasing draft load
251 at walk [45]. Intensity and duration of activity was found to increase with increasing load
252 suggesting that a draft load could be utilised for strength training following injury or to
253 improve athletic performance. Water treadmill exercise is already used for rehabilitation

254 purposes, but one study investigated the effects of water depth on pelvic movement. A
255 significant increase in vertical displacement of the pelvis was found as water depth increased
256 without an increase in displacement symmetry [46]. New and improved methods of
257 rehabilitation together with intrinsic and extrinsic factors that increase injury risk should
258 continue to be the focus of scientific study, particularly as changes in the musculoskeletal
259 system can occur so rapidly [47, 48].

260

261 **The foot**

262 The internal and external morphology of the foot are as important today as they have ever
263 been and yet we still know relatively little about factors that influence growth, conformation
264 and function from the foal to the adult horse. This topic was addressed by a number of
265 authors who highlighted differences between foals and adult horses and functional
266 differences between horses, gaits and shoeing practices.

267

268 In relation to growth, hoof renewal in Thoroughbred foals was found to occur at twice the
269 speed given for mature horses [49]. In addition, external characteristics including the hoof
270 pastern axis and hoof angle, which are commonly used to assess dorsopalmar conformation in
271 adult horses cannot be used in foals [50]. It was found that the hoof wall integument and
272 distal phalanx were not parallel in foals and the hoof pastern axis and phalangeal axis were
273 not aligned. The cause of the non-alignment was reported to be widening of hoof integument
274 proximodistally and circumferential bone thickening of the distal phalanx.

275

276 In relation to function, one study used a high-speed fluoroscopy system to measure angles of
277 the distal interphalangeal joint (DIPJ) and the deep digital flexor tendon (DDFT) around the
278 navicular bone, and the moment arm of the DDFT [51]. Significant differences in the range

279 of motion during stance of the DIPJ between gaits, strides and horses were found, which may
280 result in altered stress distribution in the DDFT. In another study the functional consequences
281 of uneven feet in riding horses was explored, where unevenness was best determined by the
282 differences in dorsal hoof wall angle between forefeet [52]. In horses with uneven feet, larger
283 braking force, vertical force, vertical fetlock displacement and overall, a suppler limb spring
284 during loading were found in the flatter foot. The difference in peak vertical force may
285 indicate early, subclinical signs of lameness in the steeper foot, and the differences in
286 function suggest that altered stress patterns within the limb tissues are likely.

287

288 With respect to shoeing, Icelandic horses in competition are commonly shod with weighted
289 boots on excessively high and long hooves to enhance the expressiveness and regularity of
290 the tölt. Two studies reported upon the functional consequences of this shoeing practice.

291 Weight, particularly in combination with high and long hooves increased protraction height,
292 but only marginally increased limb peak forces [53]. However, high hooves with long toes
293 may have negative implications for the health of the palmar structures of the distal foot, as
294 the DIPJ moment increased significantly [54] and enhanced inertial forces during the swing
295 phase might stress internal distal limb structures [53].

296

297 Foot morphology and function should continue to be a research priority, as shoeing and
298 trimming practices can have such a large influence on soundness in the horse.

299

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