

## **Equine Rehabilitation: A Review of Trunk and Hind Limb Muscle Activity and Exercise Selection**

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# 1 Equine rehabilitation: A review of trunk and hindlimb muscle activity and exercise selection

## 2 Abstract

3 Exercise therapy is a key component in rehabilitation in both human and equine physiotherapy,  
4 however in relation to the equine athlete only limited evidence is available for the use of exercises  
5 in rehabilitation. The aim of this review is to analyse studies that have evaluated trunk and  
6 hindlimb muscle activation and therefore provide an evidence base for the selection of exercises.  
7 Isolating activity to specific muscle groups or positioning to preferentially activate specific muscles  
8 is challenging for physiotherapists in horses, however surface electromyography (EMG) data of  
9 muscular activity during locomotion could be applied to support selection of rehabilitation  
10 exercises employed for this goal. The literature consistently reports the positive effect of  
11 increasing speed and slope on activity of longissimus dorsi, gluteus medius, tensor fascia latae,  
12 biceps femoris, vastus lateralis and the abdominal muscles. However, there is still a lack of  
13 investigation into muscular activity during movements used for rehabilitation, despite exercises  
14 using training aids, poles and stretches being reported as therapeutic and strengthening. The  
15 use of EMG within the current studies does suggest relative patterns of muscle activity may be  
16 useful in comparing activity of one exercise to another and are worthy of further investigation in  
17 relation to rehabilitation exercise.

18

19 Keywords: horse, exercise, physiotherapy, rehabilitation, muscle, electromyography

## 20 1.0 Introduction

21 Exercise therapy is a key component in rehabilitation in both human and equine physiotherapy,  
22 however in relation to the equine athlete only limited evidence is available for the use of exercises  
23 in rehabilitation. Commonly, musculoskeletal pathologies in the horse, for instance those in the  
24 hindquarters or the thoracolumbar spine, are managed post medical or surgical intervention with  
25 a protocol that is based on clinical experience of the physiotherapist implementing the exercises.  
26 Anecdotally certain pathologies in the horse have clinical signs of local muscle wastage reported,  
27 for instance atrophy of the thoracolumbar epaxial muscles has been noted in the presence of  
28 overriding dorsal spinous processes (DSP), 'kissing spines' [1] and in the presences of  
29 thoracolumbar pain [2]. The presence of muscle pathology supports physiotherapist involvement  
30 in equine rehabilitation regimes. Sacro-iliac joint (SIJ) region pain is another example of a  
31 condition that contributes to poor performance and/or lameness in horses [3]. Atrophy of the

32 gluteus medius muscle (GM) overlying the lumbar region and the ilial wing is referred to as a  
33 clinical sign of SIJ region pain [4] and muscle bulk changes are thought to be asymmetric due to  
34 the presence of asymmetric pathology. Clinical examination of 296 horses with sacroiliac region  
35 pain, found 28% had concurrent poor thoracolumbar musculature, which was reported to occur  
36 quickly within a few weeks of initial injury [4]. Back pain has also been reported to alter spinal  
37 kinematics [5] which is also likely due to a functional change in muscle activation which will require  
38 treatment to promote normal function.

39 Reduced strength and poor muscle endurance has been linked to a higher incidence of lower  
40 back pain and to lower extremity injuries in humans [6], yet this relationship has not been  
41 investigated in horses to date. As muscle activity reduces there will be an associated reduction  
42 in muscle size, which will have an effect on strength and muscle activation, negatively influencing  
43 performance. One of the goals of rehabilitation following injuries such as these, is to restore  
44 normal muscle activation and therefore restore function to ultimately increase performance of both  
45 the local musculoskeletal region and the horse as a whole.

46 Electromyographic (EMG) studies with human subjects give physiotherapists strong supporting  
47 evidence for exercise prescription, for instance EMG activity of core trunk, hip and thigh muscles  
48 during nine specific exercises has been reported [6]. In relation to a pre-tested maximum  
49 voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC), data are presented to suggest which exercise can be used  
50 to target specific muscles. A clear example is the side-bridge exercise, which activated the GM  
51 greater than 45% MVIC, and lunge exercises which produced vastus medialis obliquus activation  
52 in the same range. These data are included in a systematic review where MVIC for GM and  
53 gluteus maximus are collated for 19 and 20 different exercises respectively [7]. The MVIC levels  
54 required to effectively stimulate muscle strength gains have been investigated, concluding that 40  
55 to 60% maximal neuromuscular activation is required to generate improvement [8].

56 MVIC cannot be measured in horses [9] therefore a measured EMG amplitude cannot be  
57 compared with maximal contraction to derive suggested levels of activation to result in strength  
58 gains, however EMG amplitude of one exercise compared with another, or the application of the  
59 MVC within an exercise can be used to contrast activity levels [10]. Anecdotally strength in horses  
60 is often subjectively determined by the ability to perform a required task and observed by looking  
61 at muscle size and left-right muscle symmetry. Isolating activity to specific muscle groups or  
62 positioning to preferentially activate specific muscles is challenging for physiotherapists in horses,  
63 however EMG data of muscular activity during locomotion could be applied to support selection  
64 of rehabilitation exercises employed for this goal [11].

65 Given the paucity of evidence which underpins equine physical therapy and rehabilitation exercise  
66 regimes, the aim of this review is to examine the evidence supporting selection of exercises for  
67 horses based on anatomical and biomechanical data as well as muscle recruitment patterns from  
68 surface electromyography studies.

69 To facilitate this a literature search was performed in Science Direct, Wiley Online databases and  
70 Google Scholar using the following keywords in various combinations: 'equine', 'horse',  
71 'rehabilitation', 'electromyography/EMG', 'muscle', 'longissimus dorsi', 'gluteal/gluteus medius',  
72 'hamstrings', 'biceps femoris', 'semitendinosus', 'semimembranosus', 'quadriceps', 'vastus  
73 lateralis' and in date range 1990 - 2016. The titles and abstracts of the retrieved studies were  
74 analysed and those not relevant were discarded (i.e. those relating to quantitative EMG/nerve  
75 conduction, involving species other than the horse or involving only muscles not in the trunk and  
76 hindlimbs). The reference lists of the selected articles were searched for additional references,  
77 resulting in sixteen papers being included in the final analysis.

## 78 2.0 Recruitment of trunk and hind limb muscles based on EMG data

79 EMG data for the main trunk and hindquarter muscles is presented including general function of  
80 the muscle, function during different gaits, as well as function during different speeds and  
81 slopes. Where known, each section contains the effects of training on the muscle described.

### 82 *2.1.1 Longissimus Dorsi*

83 The longissimus dorsi (LD), the largest of the epaxial muscles, contracts bilaterally during  
84 thoracolumbar extension and ipsilaterally during lateral flexion, and therefore is considered the  
85 most important extensor of the back [12]. Surface electromyography has been used to investigate  
86 activity of LD during gait [13,14,15]. In walk each LD has one peak of maximum activity per stride  
87 which occurred during the stance phase of the ipsilateral hind limb [15] whereas in trot there were  
88 two maxima, the first related to the push-off of the ipsilateral hind limb and a second at push-off  
89 of the contralateral hind limb [14]. LD activity peaks between early or mid-swing phase and the  
90 end of the swing phase of the leading hind limb in canter [16] and the exact timing of LD activity  
91 varies along the length of the muscle [17].

92

93 LD activity increases linearly with speed and the reduction in flexion-extension range of movement  
94 [18], therefore it can be inferred that LD activity is required to stabilise the vertebral column  
95 against increased dynamic forces. LD activity can be also related to the kinematics of the stride,  
96 whereby in trot the suspension phase to the stride cycle will require increased muscular activity

97 compared to the alternating periods of bipedal and tripedal support in walk [19]. LD activity during  
98 the stride effectively stiffens the spine, working eccentrically during thoracolumbar flexion and  
99 concentrically during thoracolumbar extension, onset and offset timing co-ordinated with  
100 abdominal muscle activity to oppose inertial forces of the visceral mass which increase with speed  
101 [13,18]. The activity of LD is also influenced by the horse walking and trotting on a slope, with  
102 later onset and offset, increased duration and intensity of activity noted on a slope of 6% compare  
103 with 0% [18]. This activity is suggested to be due to increased propulsion and energetic cost of  
104 travelling uphill. Extension of the intervertebral joints approximate the DSP [20] which is  
105 undesirable considering the frequent occurrence of impingement and overriding of the DSP in the  
106 horse [21]

107

108 The type of movement being performed will also affect LD recruitment. In horses walking a small  
109 circle EMG intensity of the inside LD was shown to be two to three times greater than the outer  
110 LD on a 15m diameter circle [22]. As circle diameter reduces it appears LD activity levels increase,  
111 with horses walking on a circle approximately 6m diameter recording inside LD activity five times  
112 greater than in the outside [23], therefore confirming the role of LD in lateral flexion.

113

114 In walk and trot, the unriden horse on a treadmill uses LD activity for stability rather than active  
115 back movement and it is postulated that the addition of the rider will increase extension [24], which  
116 may have an effect on the position of the DSPs [20]. The activity of LD in the ridden horse has  
117 not been reported although it could be suggested that the increase load in the thoracolumbar  
118 spine may have to be countered by increased activity of the muscles that flex the spine, such as  
119 the abdominals. However it could be hypothesised that if antagonist muscle activity was not  
120 effective at flexing the spine potentially approximation of the DSPs could have a deleterious effect  
121 on the thoracolumbar spine, increasing the risk of overriding DSP pathology.

122 LD activity with and without training aids has been investigated with EMG and the use of both  
123 side reins and Pessoa training aid resulted in a lower level of LD activation, potentially due to the  
124 reduced stride length at walk and trot in the training aids compared to a free walk which had a  
125 longer stride length [22]. To date activity of the abdominals in a horse working with training aids  
126 has not been measured.

127

128 *2.1.2 Abdominal Muscles*

129 The abdominal muscles of the horse lie on the ventral aspect of the trunk and are arranged in  
130 four layers with the external abdominal oblique (EAO) and rectus abdominis (RA) most superficial.  
131 RA and EAO activity has been measured at walk and trot on a treadmill, using surface EMG [25].  
132 Significant differences between the mean left and mean right muscle activities over the motion  
133 cycle at walk were seen in the six horses tested and in four of the six horses at trot. Between  
134 walk and trot muscle activity significant differences were found for EAO activity in all horses and  
135 for RA in 5 of the 6 horses. The authors presumed that the activity pattern of EAO and RA would  
136 be correlated to the gait of the horse although it appears that the activity of EAO can also be  
137 linked to the recruitment of the muscle associated with expiration [25]. Studies at canter, where  
138 breathing and motion cycles are coupled, would help further to investigate the recruitment of the  
139 EAO during gait. In walk and trot, RA was active on both sides simultaneously indicating that RA  
140 counteracts ventral spinal extension during the phase of the stride when the foot is in contact with  
141 the ground. An earlier study showed that overall RA percentage activity increased with speed as  
142 well as demonstrating a linear relationship between RA EMG activity and exercise on an  
143 increased slope from 0 to 6% [18]. Alongside LD, RA may be acting to provide greater spinal  
144 stiffness with increasing speeds which also may account for the increased EMG activity found  
145 [13,18] therefore to progressively recruit EAO and RA working the horse at trot and on an inline  
146 would facilitate more activity compared to walk and work on a level surface.

### 147 *2.1.3 Gluteus Medius*

148 The gluteal muscles of the horse, gluteus superficialis (GSP) and GM function to extend and  
149 abduct the hip joint. In trot GM is active during the second part of the swing phase [26],  
150 presumably to decelerate the limb in preparation for stance and during the first part of stance  
151 phase, retracting and stabilising the hind limb and during the second part of stance it contributes  
152 to propulsion [13]. In a study of seven mixed breed horses investigating pelvic limb anatomy, GM  
153 was the heaviest muscle in the gluteal region and estimated to be able to generate the highest  
154 force (therefore propulsion) based on its physiological cross section area (PCSA) [27]. In both  
155 Quarter horses and Arabs, GM was also found to have the largest mass and the greatest potential  
156 for isometric force production compared with other muscles in the hind limb although an  
157 interesting point to note was that GM in the Quarter Horse had greater muscle mass and PCSA  
158 than in Arabs of similar height and body mass. These features, which would increase the potential  
159 for acceleration of the horse's body mass, may be a result of both training and genetic  
160 predisposition [28]. Due to the size of GM and its potential for force production in the un-injured  
161 horse, any atrophy of this muscle would therefore have consequences to strength and function in

162 relation to hip extension and to a lesser extent the secondary function of the muscle to abduct the  
163 hip. As GM overlies the ilium and the lumbar spine, altered activity would potentially reduce the  
164 performance of the horse if normal function of these regions is compromised.

165 Gradient and speed have been shown to influence gluteal muscle recruitment and activity [26,29].  
166 A study investigating hind limb muscle activity concluded that an increase in treadmill speed and  
167 gradient increased the mean intensity of GM activity when measured by EMG in six adult welsh  
168 mountain ponies [29]. GM EMG intensity increased when walking on a 10% incline compared to  
169 horizontal locomotion. Trot also increased GM EMG activity; horses trotting on a horizontal  
170 treadmill at 2.6 to 3.0 m/s resulted in greater intensity of EMG signal compared with walking at  
171 1.4 to 3.0 m/s. Therefore to progressively recruit GM, based on these findings, sequentially  
172 increasing from a walk to trot on the horizontal and then walking up a gradient progressing to  
173 trotting up the same gradient, will have the effect of increasing muscle activity in the horse. GM  
174 activity has been reported to increase linearly with speed (3.5 – 6m/s) and with increases 3% and  
175 6% compared to horizontal for four riding school horses [26]. However walking on a 10% decline  
176 reduced GM EMG intensity even in relation to horizontal locomotion [29], therefore downhill  
177 slopes as part of a rehabilitation programme would not be advised to recruit GM. It should also  
178 be noted that with increasing speed of canter, there is increased flexion – extension at the  
179 lumbosacral joint [30]. This may require an alteration to GM activity although direct comparison,  
180 using EMG, of trot and canter, has not been made. With increasing speed, the flexion-extension  
181 movement of the back are reduced to increase spinal stiffness and it could be postulated that  
182 there would be greater activity of GM. However how speed effects the muscles overlying the  
183 lumbosacral region is an area for further study

184

#### 185 *2.1.4 Biceps Femoris*

186 Biceps femoris (BF) is the most lateral of the three muscles that are part of the hamstring muscle  
187 group, with a mass second in size to GM [27,28]. The function of the BF is multifaceted. During  
188 stance the BF extends and abducts the hip and during the swing phase of the stride it acts to flex  
189 the stifle and extend the hock. The estimated force created by BF, based on calculation of PCSA,  
190 is approximately 75% that of GM [27,28], however when the data for the three portions of the  
191 hamstrings are combined the total force is 140% of GM [27]. Given BF main function as a hip  
192 extensor, this would suggest it is capable of creating a large amount of propulsive force that  
193 accelerates the body forwards.

194 Activity of BF when measured by EMG demonstrated increased mean intensity with velocity  
195 increasing from 1.4 to 3.0m/s and has also been shown to increase at walk and trot on a treadmill  
196 with 10% incline. In contrast GM and BF activity decreased when walking on a 10% decline with  
197 GM activity also reduced on the decline in trot when compared to horizontal which is suggested  
198 to be due to the passive nature of hip retraction on a downhill slope [29]. The BF reduction at trot  
199 was not significant and this may be due to the muscular activity required to eccentrically slow the  
200 rate of descent. BF activity measured on native ponies [29] has been repeated in thoroughbreds  
201 walking (1.6m/s) and trotting (3.5m/s) on a treadmill with five gradients (-6%, -3%, 0%, +3%, +6%)  
202 with similar increases in activity associated with increased incline and speed, and reduced GM  
203 and BF activity on the declined treadmill [31]. The recorded activity of BF is however dependant  
204 on the location of the EMG electrodes, due to the anatomy of the muscle and the activity of  
205 different portions of the muscle throughout the entire stride cycle [16]. To support selection of  
206 exercises to preferentially recruit BF more data are needed on the differences between activity in  
207 the different portions of the muscle. Consideration must also be given to the anatomical location  
208 of both GM and BF in the hindquarters which potentially could lead them to contribute to abduction  
209 of the hindlimb. Therefore an understanding of role of these muscles in turning and on circles  
210 would further assist in prescription of rehabilitation exercises.

211

### 212 *2.1.5 Tensor Fascia Lata*

213 The tensor fascia lata (TFL) flexes the hip and extend the stifle, with a small muscle volume  
214 relative to the proximal hind limb muscles due to substantial elastic portions, although the  
215 aponeurosis is estimated as being relatively stiff [27]. Activity of TFL begins in the middle of the  
216 stance phase and ceases in the early portion of the swing phase during walk and trot [16,26] to  
217 stabilise the stifle joint by tightening up the fascia lata around the joint. The functional role of TFL  
218 is highlighted when speed increases as mean activity and the duration of the activity during the  
219 stride increases and although activity increases with slope, TFL is less influence by the slope than  
220 GM [26].

### 221 *2.1.6 Quadriceps muscle group*

222 The quadriceps group of muscles comprises the rectus femoris, vastus medius, vastus  
223 intermedius and vastus lateralis (VL). The VL portion, which acts with an antigravity function [29]  
224 as a stifle extensor in combination vastus medius and intermedius, has been investigated in more  
225 detail via EMG due to its lateral position in the hindlimb. Volume and PSCA of VL is smaller than  
226 GM and BF [27,28] with its estimated force less than the more distal gastrocnemius, however it



227 is only one portion of the quadriceps muscles which, in combination, create higher force [27]. VL  
228 activity, when measured with increased velocity on a slope, showed increase EMG intensity on  
229 inclined and declined treadmill (+10% and -10%) but not on the horizontal, however this is  
230 suggested to be due to force being produced by muscles other than VL at this point [29]. A  
231 subsequent study did not show any significant difference of VL activity on a 6% incline or decline  
232 compare with horizontal [31] which may show the level of slope is more significant than previously  
233 thought, suggesting that to activate VL during rehabilitation a slope of at least 10% would be  
234 desirable.

235

## 236 *2.2 Muscle fibre type considerations*

237 The prescription of exercises may also be based on the muscle fibre type (MFT) of the skeletal  
238 muscle undergoing rehabilitation and the muscle fibre profile of the individual horse. LD, GM, PM  
239 and BF are mainly MFT II suggesting a locomotory role compared to the deeper epaxial muscles  
240 that have a higher type I proportion and therefore a suggested primary postural stabilising role  
241 important in core spinal stability [32]. GM has a heterogeneous sample of muscle fibre types with  
242 superficial parts expressing type IIX compared with deeper portions with more type I which may  
243 reflect a preferential dynamic role superficially with a postural function more proximally [33].  
244 Knowledge of MFT as well as and understanding the physiological demand of the exercise in  
245 relation to aerobic or anaerobic energy pathways could aid the exercise selected and the amount,  
246 speed and resistance of the exercises used. However more work needs to be undertaken on  
247 normal horses before being able to use these principles to underpin exercise selection for  
248 rehabilitative purposes.

## 249 *2.3 Limitations of EMG*

250 Intrinsic electrical interference from adjacent muscles may be present in the EMG signal and  
251 should be avoided [34,35]. The interference, known as cross-talk, occurs due to overlapping  
252 action potentials from multiple muscles or motor units, falling within an electrode's pickup zone  
253 [36]. Good experimental design should help to eliminate interference.

254 Surface electrodes provide a less invasive method and automatically record longer duration motor  
255 unit action potentials due to their increased surface area compared to indwelling electrodes, but  
256 by their nature will not record activity beyond the superficial layers of muscle [37,38]. In the horse  
257 it appears that fibres in the superficial compartment of skeletal muscles are organised to facilitate

258 short duration, rapid propulsive force production supported by a predominance of type IIA and IIX  
259 fibres, whilst the deeper compartment contains fibres which support longer duration, lower  
260 intensity activities such as postural support and constitute mainly type I fibres [32,39]. Therefore  
261 the use of surface EMG sensors could potentially create a bias for data to represent superficial  
262 fast twitch fibre activity rather than characterise total muscle activity, which should be considered  
263 in their interpretation.

264

## 265 2.4 Selection of exercises

266 The main aim of rehabilitation is to return the horse to its previous level of performance [40] and  
267 exercises are used to progressively improve proprioception, neuromuscular control and to load  
268 and strengthen musculoskeletal tissues. For muscular hypertrophy to occur exercise sessions  
269 must lead to fatigue and mild cellular damage, resulting in a short term adaptive response. This  
270 increased level of stress needs to continue throughout a training programme by increasing the  
271 loading - the 'overload principle', which when appropriately managed should lead to performance  
272 improvement [41]. However based on the amount of information available for exercises in horses,  
273 the level of exercise and therefore required loading on the muscular tissues is anecdotal at best.

274

275 The literature consistently reports the positive effect of increasing speed and slope on activity of  
276 LD, GM, TFL, BF, VL and the abdominal muscles [13-18,25,29,31] and this information can be  
277 taken forward when selecting exercises to recruit specific muscles. However caution should be  
278 exercised when attempting to compare muscle activity measured via EMG trials, as the data were  
279 obtained from different breeds of horse, laboratories and using different EMG equipment. Despite  
280 this the evidence base does support the following general principles. Overall LD activity is  
281 increased with increased speed [12,15,29,18], LD activity increases on an increasing slope  
282 [18,31] as well as ipsilaterally on a decreasing circle size [22,23] and GM activity also increases  
283 with speed and on an incline [18,29,31]. BF activity is increases with increasing slope [29,31] and  
284 VL activity increased on a 10% slope [29] but not on a 6% slope [31].

285

286 Initially exercises in straight lines and on a horizontal plane are often indicated in equine  
287 rehabilitation regimes, the exercise prescription will then often progress to include lunging on a  
288 circle. Currently, there is no information on how GM, BF, TFL or VL activate when the horse in on  
289 a circle. Asymmetric recruitment can be presumed due to the asymmetry of the gait when turning  
290 [42] however whether the muscles on the inside are active for longer during the stride cycle or

291 have a higher mean activity compared with the outside has not been investigated. During  
292 rehabilitation circular locomotion is suggested to be beneficial [22] as well as the use of training  
293 aids [43] yet as the precise effect of circular exercise on the locomotory muscles is unknown, the  
294 choice of circle size, gait and speed has to be pragmatic based on type and severity of injury as  
295 well as the goal of rehabilitation.

296 To progressively recruit musculature there is evidence supporting use of inclines and increased  
297 speed. It should be noted that on the incline peak forces are greater in the hindlimb compared  
298 with on the level and a shift of weight distribution is seen from a forelimb/hindlimb ratio of  
299 57%/43% to 52%/48% [44]. Therefore consideration must be taken when prescribing exercise to  
300 increasing speed as there will be an increased ground reaction force which may require limitation  
301 if the rehabilitation is being conducted in the presence of a pathology, such as a tendon or bone  
302 injury that may be aggravated by this factor. No studies have evaluated the effect of a slope  
303 greater than 10%, therefore it should not be assumed that any benefits of a low slope correlate  
304 with the effects of increased gradient.

305 It is worthy to note that all the EMG data reported have been collected on un-injured horses, free  
306 from back pain and therefore further consideration must be given to muscle recruitment in horses  
307 that present with pain or unilateral injury. Neuromuscular control may be altered due to a primary  
308 muscle pathology, such as a muscle strain, or as a compensatory effect secondary to a distal  
309 injury. This consequence been demonstrated when comparing muscle activity of lame and  
310 nonlame horses where activity of GM and BF was increased during the ipsilateral stance phase  
311 in the nonlame limb in walk [45], to unload the lame limb. If this altered activity persists during  
312 rehabilitation of a horse with lameness this may result in increased incidence of muscle pain due  
313 to overuse. To prevent this undesired outcome of exercising lame horses this area requires more  
314 investigation to fully support implementation of further activities such as circles, slopes and  
315 specific gaits in rehabilitation protocols.

316 Whilst the kinematics of exercises often prescribed in rehabilitation have been studied, such as  
317 the use of ground poles [46,47], circles [42], the Pessoa lunge aid [22,43], baited stretches  
318 [48,49], tactile facilitation and weights added to the hindlimbs [50,51] and also the effect on muscle  
319 cross sectional area [52-4] there is still a lack of investigation into muscular activity during these  
320 movements. This is despite these types of activities being reported as therapeutic and  
321 strengthening exercises [54,55]. Inverse dynamic analysis has been used as an indirect method  
322 of assessing changes in activity of specific groups of muscles. Tactile facilitation of the pastern  
323 and coronet in the hindlimb increased net energy generation at the tarsal joint and therefore work

324 by the tarsal flexor musculature and the addition of weights to the hindlimb pasterns increased  
325 energy generation at the hip by the hip flexors [51]. Inverse dynamic analysis does not indicate  
326 the exact muscles that are involved however the requirement for an increase in activity of the  
327 tarsal and hip flexors may promote selection of these exercises for rehabilitation. A summary of  
328 these activities and the evidence for their inclusion in equine therapeutic and rehabilitation  
329 regimes is presented in the supplementary material.

330 Treadmills have also been suggested to be beneficial during rehabilitation due to the control of  
331 variables such as speed, direction and incline as well as water depth in water treadmills, effecting  
332 biomechanical and physiological parameters [56,57]. However their use in general rehabilitation  
333 is limited due to cost and availability thereby strengthening the likelihood that the majority of  
334 rehabilitation would occur during exercise both in hand and ridden. In all exercise paradigms,  
335 treadmill or non-treadmill, the outcome of rehabilitation needs to be measured to evidence the  
336 use of the selected technique.

337

### 338 3.0 Conclusion

339 The aim of this review was to analyse studies that have evaluated trunk and hindlimb muscle  
340 activation and therefore provide an evidence base for the selection of exercises. This information  
341 can be adapted when implementing a rehabilitation programme which should complement that  
342 adapted from human literature. Despite obvious difficulties with comparing activity levels to MVIC  
343 or MVC the use of EMG does suggest relative patterns of muscle activity may be useful in  
344 comparing activity of one exercise to another. Further data would support the practitioner in  
345 exercise selection to rehabilitate horses post injury or supporting training programmes in horses  
346 with an underlying pathology. This would be a step forward in supporting evidence based practice  
347 within rehabilitation.

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