

## **A comparison of protraction-retraction of the distal limb during treadmill and water treadmill walking in horses**

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1 **Original Article**

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3 **A comparison of protraction-retraction of the distal limb during**  
4 **treadmill and water treadmill walking in horses.**

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31 **Abstract**

32 The amount of protraction-retraction of the limbs during water treadmill walking has  
33 implications for postural and muscular development of horses undertaking this exercise  
34 for training and rehabilitation purposes. The objective of this study was to compare  
35 protraction-retraction of both forelimbs (FL) and hind limbs (HL) during dry treadmill (DT)  
36 and water treadmill (WT) exercise at the typical walking speed of each as used in practice.  
37 Inertial motion sensors attached to the metacarpal/metatarsal bones were used to  
38 compare maximal protraction ( $PRO_{MAX}$ ), retraction ( $RET_{MAX}$ ) and total protraction-  
39 retraction range of movement (ROM) across five walking conditions: DT at 1.6 m/s; and  
40 WT at 0.8 m/s at four water depths, hoof depth ( $WT_{HOOF}$ ), fetlock depth ( $WT_{FET}$ ), hock  
41 depth ( $WT_{HOCK}$ ) and stifle depth ( $WT_{STIFLE}$ ).

42 FL ROM was lowest at  $WT_{STIFLE}$  and significantly lower than DT ( $P<0.001$ ). HL ROM was  
43 highest at  $WT_{STIFLE}$  and significantly greater than DT ( $P<0.001$ ). FL  $PRO_{MAX}$  was  
44 significantly lower at  $WT_{HOCK}$  ( $P=0.001$ ) and  $WT_{STIFLE}$  ( $P<0.001$ ) than DT. HL  $RET_{MAX}$  was  
45 higher at  $WT_{HOCK}$  ( $P=0.001$ ) than on DT and was significantly greater at  $WT_{STIFLE}$  and  
46  $WT_{HOCK}$  than  $WT_{FET}$  ( $P<0.001$  and  $P=0.001$  respectively).

47 Walking slowly (0.8 m/s) on a water treadmill reduces forelimb protraction-retraction ROM  
48 and increases hind limb protraction-retraction ROM when compared with walking at  
49 normal speed (1.6 m/s) on a dry treadmill. The potential for forelimb protraction to be  
50 decreased and hind limb retraction to be increased should be taken into account when  
51 designing training and rehabilitation programmes using this exercise modality.

52

53 *Keywords:* Water treadmill; Rehabilitation; Distal limb; Kinematics; Inertial Motion  
54 Sensor

55

## 56 **1.0: Introduction**

57 Water treadmill exercise is a common modality within training and rehabilitation  
58 programmes of horses. For the successful use of water treadmill exercise in both of these  
59 applications, it is necessary to understand the effects of water depth and belt speed on  
60 the physiology and biomechanics of the horse. Water treadmills are currently used to  
61 exercise horses from different disciplines that have a variety of physiological and  
62 biomechanical demands. The development of an evidence base regarding the effects of  
63 water treadmill exercise will enable informed decisions regarding the use of water  
64 treadmills for any given application. When considering using a water treadmill for  
65 rehabilitation of horses with limb and/or back pathology, it is essential to understand the  
66 effect of water walking on the movement pattern of the horse in order to construct an  
67 effective rehabilitation programme and avoid exercise that may exacerbate injury or  
68 promote poor movement patterns.

69 Previous studies [1-2] have compared limb kinematics of walking on a water treadmill in  
70 either low water depths (or no water) to walking in higher depths (up to the level of the  
71 stifle joint). Increasing water depth has been shown to bring about a decrease in stride  
72 frequency compared with the baseline condition (hoof depth) when horses walk on a  
73 water treadmill at 0.9 m/s [1]. At the same belt speed, Mendez-Angulo et al. [2] showed  
74 an increase in the range of movement for distal limb joints in water depths level with the  
75 fetlock, tarsal and stifle joints compared with the baseline condition, primarily due to  
76 increases in the range in flexion. Horses adopt differing gait strategies when walking in  
77 water dependent upon water depth. Water is more viscous than air resulting in a greater  
78 drag force acting on the limbs in comparison to overland walking. The drag force  
79 experienced by the moving limb is increased in proportion to the velocity of the limb  
80 squared and in proportion to the water depth [3].

81 Mooij et al. [4] found an increase in axial rotation of the pelvis as water depth increased  
82 from baseline up to a depth level with the carpal joints when horses walked at a belt speed  
83 of 0.8 m/s. The authors proposed that up to this depth, horses select a gait pattern of  
84 increased flexion of the distal limb joints to minimise the influence of drag (as observed  
85 by Mendez-Angulo et al. [2]). Once the water depth reached levels that were too high to  
86 be accommodated simply by distal limb flexion, the additional response was to increase  
87 what these authors described as 'pelvic' flexion, synonymous with increased lumbar  
88 flexion also seen by Nankervis et al. [5] in greater water depths.

89 Nankervis et al. [5] demonstrated an increase in total range of flexion-extension of the  
90 back and an increase in lumbar flexion as water depth increased up to the level of the  
91 stifle in a group of competition horses walking at a belt speed of 0.9 m/s. In Nankervis et  
92 al. [5] there was variation between horses in terms of the water depth at which peak pelvic  
93 vertical displacement was seen. In both Nankervis et al. [5] and Mooij et al. [4] there was  
94 evidence of horses adopting differing gait strategies dependent upon water depth.  
95 According to the bow and string model [6] lumbar flexion is brought about by increased  
96 hind limb protraction. If lumbar flexion during water walking is associated with increased  
97 hind limb protraction, this makes a good case for incorporating this type of exercise into  
98 the training programmes of horses such as dressage horses, which require this gait  
99 characteristic.

100 The effect of drag on the forelimb during water walking has been demonstrated by  
101 Tokuriki et al. [7]. In this study, electromyography was used to measure forelimb muscle  
102 activity in horses during water treadmill walking (at 1.34 m/s) and trotting (at 2.67 m/s) at  
103 a water depth of 1.2 m; walking overland (speed not stated) and swimming. Activity of  
104 *brachiocephalicus* was higher in walk and trot on the water treadmill than when walking  
105 overland, and the *extensor digitorum communis* showed more intense activity whilst  
106 walking and trotting in the water treadmill than when swimming. One of the potential  
107 perceived negative effects of water treadmill exercise is the propensity to ‘overdevelop’  
108 forelimb musculature and the tendency for horses to ‘pull’ with the forehand rather than  
109 ‘push’ with the hind limbs, a tendency which would increase with water depth and the  
110 concurrent increase in drag.

111 Studies reporting reduced stride frequency [1], increased distal limb joint flexion [2] and  
112 increased lumbar/pelvic flexion [4,5] with increasing water depth have all been at belt  
113 speeds significantly lower than those used by Tokuriki et al. [7]. Many more studies have  
114 been conducted on water treadmill exercise in humans than in horses, and the  
115 comfortable walking speed for a human walking on a water treadmill is approximately half  
116 that on an ordinary dry treadmill [8,9]. Increasing water depth at speeds < 1 m/s may  
117 induce increases in ranges of movement of the limb, but unless these are compared to  
118 overland walking or walking on a normal treadmill, we cannot draw conclusions about the  
119 preferred mode of exercise for any given training or rehabilitation scenario. The extent to  
120 which water treadmill exercise at a ‘slow walk’, i.e. < 1 m/s, decreases or increases limb  
121 protraction, retraction and total protraction-retraction range of movement when compared  
122 to walking at ‘normal’ speed is relevant when making decisions about whether to use  
123 water treadmill exercise within a rehabilitation programme or to simply walk the horse on  
124 an ordinary ‘dry’ treadmill/exercise it in hand.

125 The objective of this study was to compare the ranges of movement of the limbs in  
126 protraction, retraction and total protraction-retraction range of movement during dry  
127 treadmill walking and water treadmill walking at the typical speed of each as used in  
128 practice. The angular rotation of the metacarpi/metatarsi within the sagittal plane,  
129 equating to protraction and retraction of the limb was compared across five different  
130 walking conditions: dry treadmill walking at 1.6 m/s (DT); and walking on a water treadmill  
131 at 0.8 m/s at four different water depths, hoof ( $WT_{HOOF}$ ), fetlock ( $WT_{FET}$ ), hock ( $WT_{HOCK}$ )  
132 and stifle ( $WT_{STIFLE}$ ).

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### 134 **1.1: Hypothesis**

135 Walking in  $WT_{STIFLE}$  at 0.8 m/s will result in a decrease in forelimb protraction and in  
136 increase in hind limb protraction when compared with DT at 1.6 m/s.

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### 140 **2.0: Materials and methods**

## 141 2.1: Horses

142 The study consisted of an experimental, within-subject repeated measured design to test  
143 the effect of walking condition (DT, WT<sub>HOOF</sub>, WT<sub>FET</sub>, WT<sub>HOCK</sub> and WT<sub>STIFLE</sub>) on the angular  
144 rotation of the metacarpal/metatarsal angles in the sagittal plane measured using an  
145 inertial motion sensor system (IMS). Eight riding horses (3 eventers, 1 dressage, 2 show  
146 jumpers and 2 general purpose) comprising 3 Warmbloods, 3 Warmblood x  
147 Thoroughbreds and 2 Thoroughbreds, mean age  $10 \pm 2.8$  years, mean height  $166.5 \pm 4$   
148 cm and weight ranging from 520 kg to 580 kg carried out WT exercise at 0.8 m/s and DT  
149 exercise at 1.6 m/s within the same session. All horses were fully acclimated to both DT  
150 [10] and WT [1, 11] prior to the study. The kinematic acclimation to water treadmill  
151 exercise, categorized as a stabilization of gait, has been established as requiring a  
152 minimum of four sessions [1]. For the purpose of this study, a minimum of four acclimating  
153 runs was required when selecting participants. All horses were judged sound by an  
154 experienced equine clinician when observed trotting on a straight line, on a firm surface.  
155 The study was approved by the University Centre Harpurys's Research Ethics Committee.

## 156 2.2: Protocol

157 The WT used in this study did not have clear sides, prohibiting the use of video or  
158 optoelectronic motion capture of the movement of the limbs. Inertial motion sensor (IMS)  
159 units (European Technology for Business Ltd) were used which had previously been  
160 compared to an optical based system and deemed suitable for the measurement of  
161 movement of the metacarpal/metatarsal bones in the sagittal plane [12]. Each horse was  
162 fitted with neoprene brushing boots to which the IMS units were attached. The IMS units  
163 were placed in resealable polythene pouches (Aquapac International Ltd. London) before  
164 taping securely in position on the lateral central aspect of each metacarpal/metatarsal.  
165 The same handler fitted the boots and the IMS to each horse to ensure standardization  
166 of placement of the IMS. Each sensor was then turned on and further secured on the  
167 horse's leg with tape to minimize movement between the sensor and the limb. All horses  
168 stood for a minimum of 10 seconds prior to move off, which was the time period necessary  
169 for calibration of the IMS as the sensors measure rotations relative to their initial  
170 orientation, with protraction being given by cranial rotation and retraction given by caudal  
171 rotation (see Figure 1). Protraction angles were assigned positive values and retraction  
172 angles negative values.

173 At time '0', IMS data collection was started by depressing the button on the unit. At the  
174 same time a stopwatch was started to record the time at which each walking condition  
175 was started (to within the nearest second). IMS collected metacarpal/metatarsal angle  
176 data continuously throughout data collection at a sampling frequency of 102.4 Hz. Horses  
177 were randomly assigned to one of two groups, Group A or Group B, which determined  
178 the order in which they would run through the data collection process. Group A completed  
179 WT exercise first followed by DT and Group B the opposite. Group A horses walked at  
180 four water depths in the order WT<sub>HOOF</sub>, WT<sub>FET</sub>, WT<sub>HOCK</sub> and WT<sub>STIFLE</sub>. Group B horses  
181 were put on the DT first, followed by the WT starting at WT<sub>STIFLE</sub>, WT<sub>HOCK</sub>, WT<sub>FET</sub> and  
182 finishing with WT<sub>HOOF</sub>. Transfer between the treadmills took no more than 5 minutes.  
183 Horses were held with a handler on the left hand side only on both treadmills. Before  
184 beginning either the increasing or decreasing water depth protocol, each horse underwent

185 a 5-minute warm-up at hock depth. Water depth was set to a level just below the coronary  
186 band (for  $WT_{\text{HOOF}}$ ) and approximately level with the centre of rotation of each joint for  
187 fetlock ( $WT_{\text{FET}}$ ), hock ( $WT_{\text{HOCK}}$ ), and stifle ( $WT_{\text{STIFLE}}$ ) depths. Water temperature was 14  
188 ° C. Data were collected continuously and each horse spent four minutes in each walking  
189 condition.

### 190 2.3: Data Analysis

191 Data were downloaded from the inertial motion sensors using Pegasus Poseidon  
192 Software and analysed within Excel. Twenty strides of each walking condition from within  
193 the last minute of each four-minute recording period were used to calculate the mean and  
194 standard deviation of the stride duration, maximal protraction ( $PRO_{\text{MAX}}$ ) (in degrees) and  
195 retraction ( $RET_{\text{MAX}}$ ) (in degrees) of each limb (see Fig. 1). The sum of  $PRO_{\text{MAX}}$  and  
196  $RET_{\text{MAX}}$  gave the total ROM for each limb. Symmetry of ROM for contralateral limb pairs  
197 was expressed as (left forelimb (LF) ROM/right forelimb (RF) ROM and left hind limb  
198 (LH)/right hind limb (RH) ROM). Data for LF and RF, and LH and RH were combined to  
199 obtain a mean  $PRO_{\text{MAX}}$ ,  $RET_{\text{MAX}}$  and ROM for each forelimb and hind limb pair. The  
200 duration of protraction and retraction as a % of total stride duration was calculated for  
201 each limb and then left and right limbs combined as per the maximal protraction and  
202 retraction values. Angular velocity (°/sec) for each limb pair was given by the  
203  $PRO_{\text{MAX}}$ /protraction duration and  $RET_{\text{MAX}}$ /retraction duration.

204 Data were tested for normality using SPSS. A Shapiro-Wilks test confirmed that all  
205 variables ( $PRO_{\text{MAX}}$ ,  $RET_{\text{MAX}}$  and ROM) were normally distributed. The ROM of the left  
206 and right forelimbs, and left and right hind limbs were compared using *t*-tests. To test for  
207 the effect of walking condition on each variable, a series of one-way, repeated measures  
208 ANOVA were carried out and the level of statistical significance set at  $P < 0.05$ . In the event  
209 of a significant effect of walking condition, a Bonferroni post-hoc test was then applied to  
210 determine where the significance lay and the *P* value for these post-hoc tests was  
211 adjusted to take into account the number of pairwise comparisons (10), resulting in an  
212 adjusted *P* value of  $P < 0.005$ . Mann Whitney U tests were carried out to see if there was  
213 any effect of the order of exercise, by comparing both mean FL and HL ROMs, and the  
214 coefficient of variance ((s.d./mean) x 100) of FL and HL ROMs of Groups A and B (with  
215 significance level set at  $P = 0.05$ ).

## 216 3.0: Results

### 217 3.1: Symmetry of total ROM of contralateral limb pairs

218 Symmetry of LF and RF ranged from a group mean of  $0.97 \pm 0.07$  in  $WT_{\text{STIFLE}}$  to  $1.00 \pm$   
219  $0.05$  on both DT and  $WT_{\text{FET}}$ . Symmetry of LH and RH ranged from  $0.97 \pm 0.04$  on DT to  
220  $1.00 \pm 0.03$  in  $WT_{\text{FET}}$ . *T*-tests revealed no significant difference between the ROMs of  
221 contralateral limb pairs ( $P > 0.05$  for both FL and HL pairs in all water depths) and so  
222 thereafter data for limb pairs were combined to give a mean for each limb pair.

### 223 3.2: $PRO_{\text{MAX}}$ , $RET_{\text{MAX}}$ and total ROM

224 All results are shown in Table 1. FL ROM was lowest at  $WT_{\text{STIFLE}}$  (significantly lower than  
225 DT,  $P < 0.001$ ) whilst HL ROM was highest at  $WT_{\text{STIFLE}}$  (significantly greater than DT,  
226  $P < 0.001$ ). FL  $PRO_{\text{MAX}}$  was lower in all WT conditions than DT, decreasing with increasing

227 water depth and was significantly lower at  $WT_{HOCK}$  ( $P=0.001$ ) and  $WT_{STIFLE}$  ( $P<0.001$ )  
228 than DT. HL  $PRO_{MAX}$  was higher when walking in water and increased with increasing  
229 water depth although there were no significant differences between any of the conditions  
230 ( $P>0.005$ ). HL  $RET_{MAX}$  was also higher when walking in water and was significantly  
231 greater at  $WT_{HOCK}$  ( $P=0.001$ ) than DT and was significantly greater at  $WT_{STIFLE}$  and  
232  $WT_{HOCK}$  than  $WT_{HOOF}$  ( $P<0.001$  and  $P=0.001$  respectively).

233

### 234 3.3: Protraction-retraction phase as % stride duration

235 See Table 2. As a % stride duration, forelimb protraction phase was significantly greater  
236 in  $WT_{STIFLE}$  water compared with  $WT_{FET}$  ( $P=0.004$ ) and  $WT_{HOOF}$  ( $P=0.002$ ) and  
237 significantly greater in  $WT_{HOCK}$  than in  $WT_{FET}$  ( $P=0.0001$ ),  $WT_{HOOF}$  ( $P=0.0001$ ) and DT  
238 ( $P=0.001$ ). No significant differences existed in either forelimb or hind limb protraction or  
239 retraction phases between  $WT_{FET}$  and DT ( $P<0.005$ ).

### 240 3.4: Angular velocity of forelimbs and hind limbs

241 Greater differences in angular velocities between walking conditions were seen in the  
242 forelimb compared with the hind limb (see Table 3). Angular velocity of the forelimb during  
243 protraction was significantly lower in  $WT_{STIFLE}$  than on DT ( $P=0.0001$ ), on  $WT_{HOOF}$   
244 ( $P=0.0001$ ) or  $WT_{FET}$  ( $P=0.005$ ), and significantly lower in  $WT_{HOCK}$  than on DT ( $P=0.0001$ )  
245 or on  $WT_{HOOF}$  ( $P=0.0001$ ), whilst hind limb angular velocity was relatively unchanged.

### 246 3.5: Effect of the order of exercise

247 Mann Whitney U tests found no significant difference between either FL ROM ( $P=0.602$ )  
248 or HL ROM ( $P=0.602$ ), nor between the coefficient of variance of FL ROM ( $P=0.465$ ) or  
249 HL ROM ( $P=0.754$ ) when Groups A and B were compared.

250

## 251 4.0: Discussion

252 This study has shown significant differences in peak protraction and retraction of the limbs  
253 during walking on a WT and walking on a DT when each are used at speeds typical of  
254 those used in practice. Walking in  $WT_{STIFLE}$  and  $WT_{HOCK}$  at 0.8 m/s reduced peak forelimb  
255 protraction and total ROM compared with walking on DT at 1.6 m/s and so part of the  
256 hypothesis is supported. There was no significant difference between peak forelimb  
257 protraction on DT at 1.6 m/s and  $WT_{HOOF}$  at 0.8 m/s, so the reduction in forelimb  
258 protraction is not explained by the reduction in speed alone. Peak forelimb protraction in  
259  $WT_{STIFLE}$  is approximately 60% of that on DT at 1.6 m/s and can be explained by the  
260 increase in drag with increasing water depth which retards the forward movement of the  
261 limb. Reduction in walking speed is often used to compensate for the increase in drag  
262 encountered during water treadmill walking [8,9]. This study has shown that despite a  
263 50% speed reduction, forelimb protraction is limited on a WT at 0.8 m/s when compared  
264 to a DT at 1.6 m/s.

265 In this study, as in previous [1], stride duration increased with increasing water depth.  
266 Forelimb protraction time was also increased when walking in  $WT_{STIFLE}$  compared with



267 DT both in real terms and as a % stride duration. Not only is the range in protraction  
268 reduced, but there is also a significant decrease in angular velocity of the forelimb when  
269 walking in WT<sub>STIFLE</sub> at 0.8 m/s compared with DT at 1.6 m/s. It can be seen from Table 3  
270 that between DT and WT<sub>HOOF</sub>, angular velocity decreased from approximately 70°/sec to  
271 45°/sec (a 36% decrease). However, between WT<sub>HOOF</sub> and WT<sub>STIFLE</sub>, angular velocity  
272 decreased from 45°/sec to 23°/sec, a 50% decrease in angular velocity. Increasing water  
273 depth from hoof depth to stifle depth therefore has a more profound effect on forelimb  
274 angular velocity than a 50% reduction in belt speed.

275 The reduction in forelimb peak protraction and reduction in angular velocity suggests that  
276 either there is no compensatory action from the horse to offset the drag force, or that any  
277 additional muscle activity recruited to offset drag, is insufficient in its action. The increase  
278 in drag during WT walking has been seen to induce an increase in *brachiocephalicus*  
279 activity [7] compared with overground walking reflecting the role of *brachiocephalicus* as  
280 a major forelimb protractor. The horses in that study walked at a belt speed of 1.34 m/s;  
281 which would impose greater drag on the limbs than experienced at 0.8 m/s as per the  
282 current study. However, an increase in both amplitude and duration of *brachiocephalicus*  
283 activity with increasing water depth has also been observed where horses walked on a  
284 water treadmill at 0.9 m/s [13], but unfortunately no direct comparison with the  
285 *brachiocephalicus* activity on a DT at 1.6 m/s was made in this instance. Part of the  
286 rationale for the present study arose from concerns about WT exercise ‘overdeveloping’  
287 the musculature of the forehand of the horse, as water increases the load in protraction.  
288 The results relating to forelimb protraction in this study provide further evidence that these  
289 concerns are valid at least for water depths of hock level and above.

290 The musculature of the forelimb is optimized for support, having a greater role in weight  
291 bearing of the trunk than the hind limb [14] a role which is reflected in the volume and  
292 architecture of the extrinsic muscles of the forelimb [15]. The thoracic limb extrinsic  
293 muscles have limited scope for power production as the muscles are small compared with  
294 the total locomotor muscle mass, and are better suited to power absorption [15]. The  
295 forelimb therefore, has less scope to respond to an increased load in protraction than the  
296 hind limbs, the musculature of which are optimised for propulsion [16].

297 Hind limb protraction in WT<sub>STIFLE</sub> is not affected in the same way as the forelimb. This is  
298 not entirely surprising given the very different roles of the thoracic and pelvic limb in  
299 locomotion. Hind limb ROM is significantly greater in WT<sub>STIFLE</sub> than on DT at 1.6 m/s, with  
300 increases in both protraction and retraction in greater water depths. The second part of  
301 the hypothesis, that hind limb protraction would be greater in WT<sub>STIFLE</sub> than on a DT at  
302 1.6 m/s is not supported, despite the fact that the group mean HL PRO<sub>MAX</sub> is nearly 10°  
303 greater in WT<sub>STIFLE</sub> than on DT. The standard deviations of the peak hind limb protraction  
304 angles and peak hind limb retraction angles also increase with water depth; reflecting an  
305 increase in inter-horse variation in movement pattern as water depth increases. So whilst  
306 six of the eight horses in this study showed maximal protraction in WT<sub>STIFLE</sub>, this is not  
307 reflected in the statistical results since not all horses responded the same way. The fact  
308 that individual horses show peak HL PRO<sub>MAX</sub> at different depths (either WT<sub>HOOF</sub> or  
309 WT<sub>STIFLE</sub>) could reflect the ability of the individual horse to flex either the lumbopelvic  
310 region or any of the proximal hind limb joints. Horses unable to flex proximal hind limb  
311 joints and/or the lumbar/lumbosacral regions of the back due to conformation, stiffness or

312 pathology will be less likely to increase HL protraction at increasing water depths and  
313 more likely to show increased HL retraction at increased water depth. Increased HL  
314 retraction could be counterproductive within rehabilitation following certain hind limb  
315 conditions, for example, proximal suspensory desmitis [17] or deep digital flexor tendon  
316 injuries [18]. In this study, peak HL retraction was significantly greater in WT<sub>HOCK</sub> than on  
317 the DT, and significantly greater in WT<sub>STIFLE</sub> than WT<sub>HOOF</sub>.

318 This study has shown that not all horses are able to continue to increase HL protraction  
319 when walking in water above the level of the hock, and there is increased HL retraction  
320 in high water compared with lower water. According to the bow and string model,  
321 increased hind limb retraction would lead to an increase in back extension. However,  
322 lumbar flexion (not extension) has previously been observed [5] in horses walking in stifle  
323 depth water when compared to horses walking in hoof depth. That study not only had a  
324 larger sample size (n=14) but used horses that were generally of a higher level,  
325 competition horses (largely show jumpers and dressage horses) than the horses in the  
326 present study, some of which were not used for competition at all. The present study, and  
327 others [xx] show inter-horse variability in hind limb movement patterns as water depth is  
328 increased; variability that may relate to the ability of an individual horse to flex the hind  
329 limbs, protract the hind limb, and to flex the lumbar/lumbosacral region of the spine. WT  
330 exercise clearly has the potential to induce responses which would be beneficial within  
331 many training and rehabilitation programmes, i.e. lumbar flexion and increased hind limb  
332 protraction-retraction ROM, but the potential for increases in HL retraction in water of  
333 hock depth and above should be noted, particularly when formulating rehabilitation  
334 programmes for horses with either hind limb injury, or back injury.

335 The findings of this study support the caution given by Mendez Angulo et al. [2], that  
336 protraction and retraction muscle action should be considered when deciding what depth  
337 to use to avoid injury or fatigue in horses that are not trained for exercise in water. Hip  
338 joint ROMs during WT exercise have not yet been measured in horses, but it is  
339 reasonable to hypothesise that peak hip joint extension would increase as water depth  
340 increased, as has been shown in humans. Miyoshi et al. [8] found increased hip joint  
341 extension moments during water walking in axilla water depth compared to walking  
342 overland.

343 Inertial motion sensors were used to quantify protraction-retraction movements of the  
344 distal limb as we were unable to use videography with our particular model of water  
345 treadmill. The actual values of peak protraction and retraction are greater than those  
346 typically reported for walk when protraction-retraction of the limb is measured using an  
347 optical method tracking markers on the scapula spine and hoof [19]. The values obtained  
348 using this method do however compare favourably with those seen by Roepstorff et al.  
349 [12] using the same system and with Hodson et al. [19] using a videographic technique  
350 to measure rotation of the metacarpals. The IMS itself alters the profile of the metacarpal  
351 and metatarsal, and will further contribute to the increase in drag once water was at hock  
352 depth and above; but every attempt was made to fit the aqua pack as close to the limb  
353 surface as possible, to minimise the increase in surface area presented to the water. Also  
354 the horses that went from WT to DT (Group A) had a wet boot on when walking on the  
355 DT as compared to Group B; this was one of the reasons for conducting the study as a  
356 cross-over, to minimise the influence of any difference in weight of the boot. Whilst

357 weighted boots of 700g have been shown to induce changes in hind limb kinematics (but  
358 not forelimb kinematics) [20] the increase in weight of the boot from dry to wet condition  
359 in this study was approximately 40 g and therefore highly unlikely to influence the  
360 kinematics of the limb.

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## 362 **5.0: Conclusions**

363 Walking slowly (0.8 m/s) on a water treadmill reduces forelimb protraction-retraction  
364 range of movement and increases hind limb protraction-retraction range of movement  
365 when compared with walking at normal speed (1.6 m/s) on a dry treadmill. The potential  
366 for forelimb protraction to be decreased, and hind limb retraction to be increased, should  
367 be taken into account when designing training and rehabilitation programmes using this  
368 exercise modality.

369 **Conflicts of interest:** None.

370

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376

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457 Figure 1: Protraction and retraction angles as measured using the inertial motion sensors.  
 458 The examples of right forelimb retraction and left hindlimb protraction only are shown.  
 459 The right forelimb in retraction is assigned a negative angle, whilst the left hind limb in  
 460 protraction is assigned a positive angle.

461

462 Table 1: Mean  $\pm$  s.d. of forelimb and hind limb maximal protraction ( $PRO_{MAX}$ ), maximal  
 463 retraction ( $RET_{MAX}$ ) and total protraction-retraction range of movement (ROM) walking  
 464 on a dry treadmill (DT) and a water treadmill (WT) in 4 different water depths.  $WT_{HOOF}$ ,  
 465  $WT_{FET}$ ,  $WT_{HOCK}$  and  $WT_{STIFLE}$  = water at hoof, fetlock, hock and stifle depths  
 466 respectively. *a* = significantly different to DT, *b* = significantly different to  $WT_{HOOF}$ .

467

	FORELIMBS			HIND LIMBS		
	$PRO_{MAX}$	$RET_{MAX}$	ROM	$PRO_{MAX}$	$RET_{MAX}$	ROM
DT	21.5 $\pm$ 7.1	-50.0 $\pm$ 5.7	71.6 $\pm$ 4.0	40.0 $\pm$ 4.6	-17.8 $\pm$ 5.6	57.9 $\pm$ 3.5
$WT_{HOOF}$	16.0 $\pm$ 3.9	-46.0 $\pm$ 4.2	62.0 $\pm$ 5.1 <sup>a</sup>	40.0 $\pm$ 4.4	-15.7 $\pm$ 5.1	55.8 $\pm$ 2.7
$WT_{FET}$	14.1 $\pm$ 4.0	-53.5 $\pm$ 4.4 <sup>b</sup>	67.5 $\pm$ 6.0 <sup>b</sup>	44.4 $\pm$ 6.4	-21.6 $\pm$ 7.7	66.0 $\pm$ 5.8 <sup>b</sup>
$WT_{HOCK}$	12.9 $\pm$ 5.0 <sup>a</sup>	-49.6 $\pm$ 3.9	62.5 $\pm$ 4.0 <sup>a</sup>	48.8 $\pm$ 9.6	-25.2 $\pm$ 6.4 <sup>a,b</sup>	74.0 $\pm$ 6.9 <sup>b</sup>
$WT_{STIFLE}$	12.4 $\pm$ 5.6 <sup>a</sup>	-46.3 $\pm$ 3.6	58.6 $\pm$ 3.4 <sup>a</sup>	49.7 $\pm$ 9.1	-24.8 $\pm$ 6.4 <sup>b</sup>	74.6 $\pm$ 5.4 <sup>a,b</sup>

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471 Table 2: Mean  $\pm$  s.d. forelimb protraction duration (FL% PRO), retraction (FL%RET) and  
 472 hind limb protraction duration (HL% PRO) and retraction (HL%RET) as as % stride  
 473 duration *a* = significantly different to dry treadmill (DT), *b* = significantly different to  
 474 WT<sub>HOOF</sub>, *c* = significantly different to WT<sub>FET</sub>

475

	Stride Duration (secs)	FL % PRO	FL % RET	HL % PRO	HL % RET
DT	1.2 $\pm$ 0.1	25.1 $\pm$ 1.4	74.9 $\pm$ 1.4	34.2 $\pm$ 1.5	65.9 $\pm$ 1.5
WT <sub>HOOF</sub>	1.6 $\pm$ 0.1	22.5 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>a</sup>	77.5 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>a</sup>	30.9 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>a</sup>	69.1 $\pm$ 1.8 <sup>a</sup>
WT <sub>FET</sub>	1.7 $\pm$ 0.2	26.5 $\pm$ 0.8	73.5 $\pm$ 0.8	33.1 $\pm$ 1.9	66.9 $\pm$ 1.9
WT <sub>HOCK</sub>	1.8 $\pm$ 0.2	29.0 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>a,b,c</sup>	71.0 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>a,b,c</sup>	33.5 $\pm$ 1.5	66.5 $\pm$ 1.5
WT <sub>STIFLE</sub>	1.8 $\pm$ 0.1	29.5 $\pm$ 1.3 <sup>b,c</sup>	70.5 $\pm$ 1.3 <sup>b,c</sup>	33.1 $\pm$ 1.6	66.9 $\pm$ 1.6

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479 Table 3. Mean  $\pm$  s.d. angular velocity ( $^{\circ}$ /second) of forelimb during protraction (FL PRO)  
 480 and retraction (FL RET), and hind limb during protraction (HL PRO) and retraction (HL  
 481 RET) . *a* = significantly different to dry treadmill (DT), *b* = significantly different to WT<sub>HOOF</sub>,  
 482 *c* = significantly different to WT<sub>FET</sub>.

483

Angular velocity ( $^{\circ}$ /sec)	FL PRO	FL RET	HL PRO	HL RET
DT	72.2 $\pm$ 22.9	-56.6 $\pm$ 8.5	99.0 $\pm$ 13.0	-22.7 $\pm$ 6.7
WT <sub>HOOF</sub>	45.5 $\pm$ 8.3	-38.4 $\pm$ 3.3 <sup>a</sup>	83.7 $\pm$ 8.0	-15.0 $\pm$ 5.7
WT <sub>FET</sub>	31.8 $\pm$ 8.4 <sup>a,b</sup>	-43.9 $\pm$ 3.6 <sup>b</sup>	81.0 $\pm$ 9.9	-19.8 $\pm$ 7.6
WT <sub>HOCK</sub>	24.4 $\pm$ 9.5 <sup>a,b</sup>	-38.4 $\pm$ 3.5 <sup>a</sup>	78.8 $\pm$ 8.8	-20.9 $\pm$ 5.9 <sup>b</sup>
WT <sub>STIFLE</sub>	23.0 $\pm$ 8.9 <sup>a,b,c</sup>	-37.0 $\pm$ 5.0 <sup>a</sup>	83.1 $\pm$ 8.7	-20.9 $\pm$ 6.2 <sup>b</sup>

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