

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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