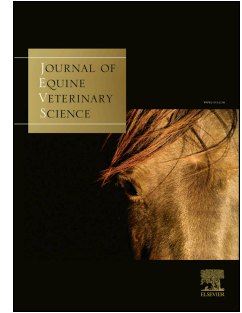


Accepted Manuscript

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PII: S0737-0806(17)30055-2

DOI: [10.1016/j.jevs.2017.07.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jevs.2017.07.009)

Reference: YJEVS 2354

To appear in: *Journal of Equine Veterinary Science*

Received Date: 13 February 2017

Revised Date: 4 July 2017

Accepted Date: 23 July 2017

Please cite this article as: Jastrzębska E, Wolska A, Minero M, Ogłuszka M, Earley B, Wejer J, Górecka-Bruzda A, Conflict behaviour in show jumping horses: a field study, *Journal of Equine Veterinary Science* (2017), doi: 10.1016/j.jevs.2017.07.009.

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Conflict behaviour in show jumping horses: a field study

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ABSTRACT

The study objective was to determine if there was a relationship between behavioural
and physiological stress measures in sport horses and their performance. Nineteen
horses competed in show jumping events (6 housed at the centre and 13 transported),
while 5 horses at home training served as controls. The competition horses were

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22 assigned to “light” (obstacles ≤ 100 cm) and “difficult” class (obstacles > 100 cm). The
23 conflict behaviours (CB/min) in two rounds were calculated. Total faults were
24 classified as “less faults” (\leq one fault) or “more faults” ($>$ one fault). Salivary cortisol
25 concentration (SCC) before the first round (SCC-SP1), 20 min (SCC-SP2) and 60
26 min after the second round (SCC-SP3) was measured. The increase (SCC-in) and
27 decrease (SCC-dec) in SCC was calculated. No effect of competition was found.
28 Horses that waited longer for the second round had greater CB ($P < .05$). CB were
29 more frequent in horses from the “more faults” ($P = .05$) and “difficult” (a tendency;
30 $P = .06$) classes.
31 No correlation of CB with SCC was found. SCC-SP2 was greater in “more faults” (P
32 $< .01$) and “transported” ($P < .01$) horses. Competition increased the SCC ($P < .05$),
33 whereas SCC-SP2 was greater in less successful horses ($P < .05$). Transported horses
34 and horses with more faults had the greatest SCC-SP2 and SCC-dec ($P < .05$).
35 Our results suggest that horses which presented stress response were also less
36 successful in competition. The adoption of effective methods to reduce transport and
37 competition stress could enhance welfare and performance of sport horses during
38 competition.

39
40

41 **Keywords:** Horse, Conflict Behaviour, Equitation, Show Jumping, Salivary Cortisol
42 Concentration, Welfare

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45

46 Presently, horses are routinely used in recreational and sports activities by horse
47 enthusiasts [1, 2]. During sport rivalry among humans, the horse is expected to

48 achieve a high standard of performance. This might affect the stress response of the
49 horse and thus impact sport results [3]. When provided with the opportunity, it is
50 evident that horses prefer to avoid any effort related to show jumping [4] or dressage
51 [5]. It has recently been shown that, even in top-level competitions horses can
52 present behavioural displays of frustration [6]. These types of equine behavioural
53 activities, defined as conflict behaviours denote some kind of discomfort, confusion,
54 and resistance or hyperactivity to the riders' aids [7, 8, 9]. Conflict behaviours during
55 sporting events can involve holding the ears back, excessive tail swishing, pulling the
56 reins out of the riders' hands, gaping, head shaking, running away (bolting), refusal
57 (e.g. halting in front of an obstacle), backing or rearing [8] and are often interpreted
58 as behavioural symptoms of stress [10, 11]. However, to be considered valid
59 indicators of stress, confirmation with other measures is advisable [10, 12, 13]. In
60 previous studies, participation of horses in equestrian competitions was found to
61 cause a transient increase in cortisol release, a rise in heart rate and changes in many
62 other physiological indicators [3, 14, 15, 16]. The evidence of a relationship between
63 behaviour and physiology would confirm that conflict behaviours are valid
64 behavioural markers of stress in the ridden horse. Saliva sampling is simple and non-
65 invasive, and it is considered a useful method for monitoring cortisol response to
66 stressful events in animals. It has been widely studied in equine welfare research [11,
67 17, 18, 19, 20, 21]. Our objective was to investigate whether there was a relationship
68 between conflict behaviours in horses participating in low-level competitions and
69 salivary cortisol concentration.

70 Horses taking part in competitions are exposed to different stressors: difficulty
71 of the round, transportation [17, 22, 23 24, 25], veterinary examinations and forced
72 proximity to unknown conspecifics [8, 10]. Physical and psychological pressure

73 deriving from these stressors [22, 23, 26, 27] may have an impact on the performance
74 and welfare of horse. Considering this, we assessed whether transportation before
75 competitions together with difficulty of jumping course could affect the occurrence
76 of conflict behaviours, cortisol concentration and the performance of horses. The
77 official classification of difficulty of show jumping competition in Poland is
78 expressed in height of the highest obstacle in the round from up to 90cm (class LL)
79 to 155cm (class CCS), with five intermediate classes between LL and CCS classes
80 changing by 10 cm in height.

81 Although stress response is adaptive, i.e. a “normal feature of life” and
82 necessary for learning and for the development of effective behaviour [28], when not
83 predictable and not controllable it may jeopardize the animal welfare [29]. A deeper
84 scientific knowledge about a possible relation between occurrence of conflict
85 behaviours in horses and changes in their physiological measures of stress, gained
86 from real-life equestrian event, would prove useful in the validation of behavioural
87 measures of competition stress and would contribute to the on-going debate on
88 welfare of equine athletes.

89 90 **2. Material and methods**

91
92 All procedures performed were in accordance with the ethical standards of the
93 institution or practice where the studies were conducted and involved only non-
94 invasive manipulations (saliva sampling) and observations of behaviour.

95 96 **2.1. Subjects**

97 Show jumping horses (warmblood breeds, 11.3 ± 3.9 years old, N=19) were observed
98 during regional show jumping competitions in an equestrian centre. Six of the studied
99 horses were housed at the centre (local horses) and 13 horses were transported ($40.8 \pm$
100 42.5 km; 35 – 135 km) from regional stables on the day before the competitions in
101 trailers for two or four horses. Horses were fed and trained by their owners according
102 to their standard protocols. All horses were clinically healthy, physically fit, in good
103 condition, when examined at competition by veterinary control. Horse-rider pairs were
104 assigned to a specific category (class) of difficulty as expressed in obstacle height
105 (combining different track distances, obstacles height, numbers, and their
106 combination) according to Polish Rules for national show-jumping competitions [30].
107 The actual height of obstacles ranged from 50 to 120 cm, and, for the purpose of this
108 study, two classes of difficulty were given: light (obstacles height less than or equal to
109 100 cm) and difficult (obstacles height more than 100 cm). Each horse took part in two
110 rounds and was categorised according to the maximum height of the obstacle (i.e.
111 overall difficulty) in either of the two rounds. Nine horses were classified to “light
112 class” (obstacles under or even 100 cm) and 10 to “difficult class” (obstacles above
113 100 cm). The horses had to jump from 15 to 25 obstacles in two rounds and they had
114 to cover 450-830m track distance at mean time of 2.21min (1.50 – 2.86).
115 To control for the effect of competition on the considered variables, five control horses
116 were assessed at home during jumping training on 14 obstacles of 90cm and 120cm
117 over 513-668m during 1.36min (1.28 – 1.45) using the same protocol as in
118 competition horses. The control horses were all warmbloods from the local centre
119 (mean age 13.8 years; 9 – 21 years).

120

121 2.2. Behavioural sampling

122 Two rounds for each horse were video-recorded. Using an all-occurrence recording
123 method [31], these recordings / videos were analysed to assess the occurrence of
124 conflict behaviours by one observer trained to properly recognise all the considered
125 behaviours. The occurrence of head shaking and tail swishing, bucking and bolting,
126 were noted and totalled for both rounds (CB). CB was expressed as occurrence per
127 minute (frequency) of the total time of two rounds.

128

129 2.3. Salivary cortisol concentration (SCC)

130 In the evaluation of the equine response to competition (start effect) and post-
131 competition recovery rate, saliva was taken from horses at three sampling points
132 (SP): SCC-SP1 (20 minutes before starting in first round), SCC-SP2 (20 minutes
133 after second round ending, as respective to serum cortisol level during performing in
134 the round) and SCC-SP3 (1 hour after second round ending). Since the cortisol level
135 is characterised with diurnal decrease [32], the indirect measures (increase and
136 decrease) of concentration were analysed because horses started successively at
137 different time points. The increase of SCC after the competition (SCC-in) was
138 calculated by subtracting pre-competition value from post-competition value (SCC-
139 SP2 – SCC-SP1), while the decrease in SCC (SCC-dec) was calculated by
140 subtracting SCC-SP3 from SCC-SP2. It was hypothesized that if the SCC-SP2 was
141 greater than SCC-SP1 then participation in competition produced a cortisol response
142 that exceeded both basal concentration and possible diurnal drop in cortisol
143 concentration.

144 The samples were chilled and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 1000 g and frozen at -
145 20°C until analysis. Salivary cortisol concentration was measured using the Cortisol
146 Enzyme Immunoassay kit (Arbor Assay, Ann Arbor, MI, USA), according to the

147 manufacturer's instructions with a slight modification – time of plate incubation with
148 TMB (3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine) substrate was shortened to 25 minutes. The
149 colorimetric reading was carried out using a spectrophotometer at 450 nm. A
150 standard curve ranging from 3200 to 100 pg/ml was used to calculate cortisol
151 concentration for each sample.

152

153 2.4. Faults

154 Faults, i.e. refusals and knock-downs, of each horse were totalled for both rounds and
155 the animals were classified in “less faults” class if they made less than or equal to 1
156 (median value) fault, or as “more faults” if they exceeded this value (more than one
157 fault).

158

159 2.5. Statistical analysis

160 The data were tested for normality using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Pearson
161 correlations were used to test the relation between CB and cortisol concentrations.
162 CB, SCC-SP1, SCC-SP2, SCC-SP3, SCC-in and SCC-dec in both control and
163 competition horses, were analysed with the generalised linear model analysis of
164 variance (GLM) to assess the effect of the competition, competition difficulty,
165 transport and class of faults. Since the effect of the competition revealed non-
166 significant for any of studied variables, it was withdrawn from the model and we
167 focused only at competition horses. Considering the physiological diurnal drop of
168 cortisol, the model was corrected by a regression on the timespan between SP1 and
169 SP2 to take into account differences in start time between horses (mean: 267; 73 –
170 447 minutes).

171 For transported horses the effect of number of horses in the trailer and the distance
172 travelled (as a regression; mean: 65; 30 – 135 km) was also analysed. SAS 9.3
173 statistical package was used for statistical analysis. The results from GLM analysis
174 are presented as least square means \pm standard errors.

175

176 **3. Results**

177 The descriptive statistics of studied variables in competition horses are presented in
178 Table 1. The horses showed different conflict behaviours, including head shaking,
179 pulling the reins and tail swishing. Other conflict behaviours involved refusals (when
180 the horse stopped in the front of the obstacle or turned to avoid clearing the obstacle),
181 bucking and bolting (running away). Since refusals are assessed as faults by judges,
182 their occurrence is reflected in faults number.

183 The longer the horse had to wait for the start in the second round the more conflict
184 behaviours it presented ($P < .05$). Also, higher frequency of CB was typical to horses
185 that made higher number of faults (“less faults”: mean 2.27 (\pm 0.76) CB/min vs
186 “more faults”: 4.27 \pm 0.57 CB/min; $P = .05$; Fig. 1) and in these that competed in
187 more difficult rounds (“light” class: 1.23 \pm 1.07 faults/min vs. “difficult” class: 5.22
188 \pm 1.09 faults/min; a tendency: $P = .06$).

189 Salivary cortisol concentrations and their changes were affected by studied factors,
190 although no correlation between CB and any of SCC measures was found.. Pre-
191 competition concentration (SCC-SP1) tended ($P = .06$) to be greater in transported
192 horses (not transported: 558.1 \pm 214.7 pg/mL vs. transported: 1104.9 \pm 139.7
193 pg/mL). SCC-SP2, reflecting serum concentration of cortisol during competition,
194 was greater in horses that made more faults (“less faults”: 5827 \pm 118.5 pg/mL vs.
195 “more faults”: 1057.5 \pm 88.7 pg/mL; $P < .01$; Fig. 2) and transported ones (not

196 transported: 591.2 ± 113.1 pg/mL vs. transported: 1048.9 ± 85.2 pg/mL; $P < .01$; Fig.
197 2). No effect of any of studied factors on SCC-SP3 was found. The effect of the
198 distance travelled or of different number of horses in the trailer did not affect the
199 behavioural and physiological responses of transported horses.
200 SCC-in was highly variable (Table 1) but this was not due to different time spreads
201 between sampling points ($P > .05$). SCC-in was greater in horses that made more
202 faults (“less faults”: -348.4 ± 232.2 pg/mL vs. “more faults”: 325.5 ± 173.9 pg/mL; P
203 $< .05$). Transported horses and these that made more errors had the greater SCC-SP2
204 values, and their decrease in SCC was greater than in other horses (not transported: -
205 61.7 ± 135.5 pg/mL vs. transported: 409.5 ± 88.2 pg/mL; $P < .05$ and “less faults”: -
206 22.4 ± 122.7 pg/mL vs. “more faults”: 370.2 ± 91.9 pg/mL; $P < .05$).

208 4. Discussion

209
210 Our results showed that horses participating in local sporting event exhibited conflict
211 behaviours and showed increased salivary cortisol levels after competition, which is
212 in agreement with previous research. Durations of low head and neck carriage
213 during the riding test [18], durations of arousal behaviours when transiently deprived
214 from food [33], frequency of head weaving and mouth conflict behaviour in forceful
215 head bending during training [11, 20], frequency of conflict behaviours in
216 complicated dressage movements [6] or trailer loading time in horses resistant to load
217 [34] were observed to change significantly in these challenging situations. Similarly,
218 the increase in salivary cortisol by about 3 ng/ml, [20] or 5 nmol/L [11] in response
219 to low head and neck training, transportation (increase by 2 – 6 ng/L) [17],
220 competition (increase by 30 nmol/L [19], 8 nmol/L [35], 5.5 ng/L [15] and 0,4

221 nmol/L [36]) was reported. Interestingly, while both behaviour and salivary cortisol
222 concentration were considered to indicate a stress response, no direct relationship
223 between behaviour and salivary cortisol concentration was found in the present
224 study. Similar results were reported in animal studies aimed at validating behavioural
225 welfare indicators [26, 37, 38, 39]. However, other studies described a relationship
226 between certain behaviours and cortisol concentrations in horses [10, 40, 41]. In a
227 previous study [42], we reported a non-linear relationship between the concentration
228 of faecal cortisol metabolites and stress related behaviour. Additionally, physical
229 exertion also contributes to the cortisol surge [27, 43] making it difficult to
230 distinguish between the effects of physical and psychological responses on the stress
231 response.

232
233 The present study confirmed that horses competing in more difficult rounds
234 tended to display conflict behaviours more frequently and this might reflect greater
235 psychological effort in these jumpers. Conflict behaviours such as head shaking,
236 pulling the reins, tail swishing, refusals, bucking and bolting mainly derive from
237 psychological frustration or pain, which may be provoked by the use of certain
238 training methods [5, 20], inappropriate cueing by the horse rider [7, 8, 10, 20, 44] or
239 training errors, such as an overhasty implementation of the horse for competitions,
240 when it is not prepared for this [14, 43]. We have also shown that long intervals
241 between successive starts when the horse had to wait for the final round was related
242 to greater frequency of conflict behaviours. This may be explained by the deviation
243 from daily routine: the competition situation differs from regular training at home,
244 where the horse usually finishes its work within a predictive time and no further
245 effort is demanded. During observed competitions the horses have to be ready to go

246 in the second round, in most of cases still being saddled. Thus the added effect of
247 unpredictability of human demands may be stressful in itself [29]. Moreover, as
248 reported by Fureix et al. [45], being saddled is normally experienced by working
249 horses which in certain cases may not be a positive experience.

250
251 In transported horses, transportation by itself and, the new environment that
252 horses were housed in and new social challenges, resulted in greater cortisol
253 concentrations. This is also in line with studies confirming the effect of animal
254 transport on serum and salivary cortisol concentrations [17, 22]. Our results are in
255 agreement with that of Medica et al. [25] who reported that transported horses had
256 greater cortisol concentrations post-exercise than non-transported horses. It was also
257 found that less experienced horses displayed greater cortisol concentrations at rest at
258 the show compared to the home farm [26].

259 Although salivary cortisol concentrations were not directly related to the
260 frequency of conflict behaviours, both parameters were greater in horses that made
261 more faults. This is in contrast to Peeters et al. [36] who reported a positive
262 relationship between increased cortisol concentrations in horses and better
263 performance in competition. It can be hypothesised that less successful horses were
264 not adequately physically or psychologically prepared for competitions or were more
265 prone to stress due to individual temperament characteristics. A different
266 predisposition to stress coping was proposed to be modulated by the individual
267 temperament [40, 46, 47]. As indicated by Graf et al. [48] and Górecka-Bruzda et al.
268 [49] individual differences in horses' reaction to challenging situations are crucial in
269 horse-rider communication. When compared to Peeters et al. [36], the difference in
270 cortisol concentration between less and more successful horses was about 200% in

271 our study, while in the cited study it corresponded to about 160%; thus, the observed
272 tendency is consistent with the Yerkes-Dodson law stating that too much stress
273 causes lower performance. The latter relationship was shown in riders in the same
274 study [36]. It is also possible that less experienced or nervous riders were responsible
275 for both the SCC increase in their horses and for the greater number of faults in our
276 study, as shown by Keeling et al. [50] and Merckies et al. [51].

277
278 Our results could be interpreted in the light of mental stress related to the competition
279 effort and the transportation to the competition site, which, together with unknown
280 social environments and facilities, may jointly contribute to increased stress in equine
281 athletes.

282

283 **5. Conclusions**

284

285 Our results showed that horses with more faults in sporting events exhibited both
286 higher frequency of conflict behaviour and higher salivary cortisol concentrations.
287 Travel before competition affected the frequency of conflict behaviour and cortisol
288 concentration in the horses. These findings suggest that horses that presented with a
289 stress response were also less successful in competition. However, no significant
290 relationship between these two measures was found.

291

292 Considering that high SCC during the show jumping was related to the number of
293 faults and, probably, to an unfamiliar environment for the horses transferred from
294 regional riding centres, the adoption of effective methods to reduce transport and

295 competition stress could enhance welfare and performance of sport horses under
296 competition.

297

298 **Conflict of interest statement**

299 All authors declare no conflict of interests.

300

301 **Acknowledgments**

302 This study was supported by National Science Centre, Poland, grant NN 311075139,
303 Institute of Genetics and Animal Breeding Polish Academy of Sciences, Poland,
304 statutory funding STAT/ALEGOR/2016/01 and University of Warmia and Mazury
305 statutory funding 11.610.007-300.

306 The authors thank the owners of horses for their consent to take saliva samples.

307

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309

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Table 1
Descriptive statistics of studied variables in N=19 horses

Variable	Mean	s.d.	Median	[Q1; Q3]
CB (frequency/min)	5.58	3.03	5.42	[3.15; 7.51]
FAULTS (total number)	1.47	0.96	2	[1; 3]
SCC-SP1 (pg/ml)	897.1	495.3	723.4	[510.3; 1139.7]
SCC-SP2 (pg/ml)	930.3	381.9	869.7	[612.3; 1202.7]
SCC-SP3 (pg/ml)	651.8	248.62	572.1	[498.9; 810.0]
SCC-in	33.2	619.1	23.6	[-364.3; 479.2]
SCC-dec	278.4	370.1	240.0	[48.7; 549.9]

CB – total of conflict behaviors from two rounds, FAULTS – total number of faults from two rounds; SCC-SP1, SCC-SP2, SCC-SP3 – concentration of cortisol in saliva before, after 20min and 60min respectively; SCC-in – increase in SCC resulting from competition; SCC-dec – decrease in SCC after competition

Figure captions

Fig. 1 Frequency of conflict behaviours during the event (CB, totaled for two rounds) in horses differing in number of errors during two rounds (least square means \pm standard errors).

Footnote:

a, b – frequencies differ at $P < 0.05$

Fig. 2. Event salivary cortisol concentration (SCC-SP2; pg/mL) in horses differing in number of faults during two rounds and transportation (least square means \pm standard errors).

Footnote:

A, B – concentrations differ at $P < 0.01$

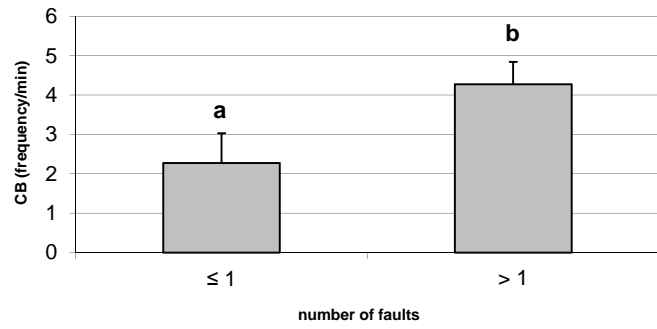


Fig. 1

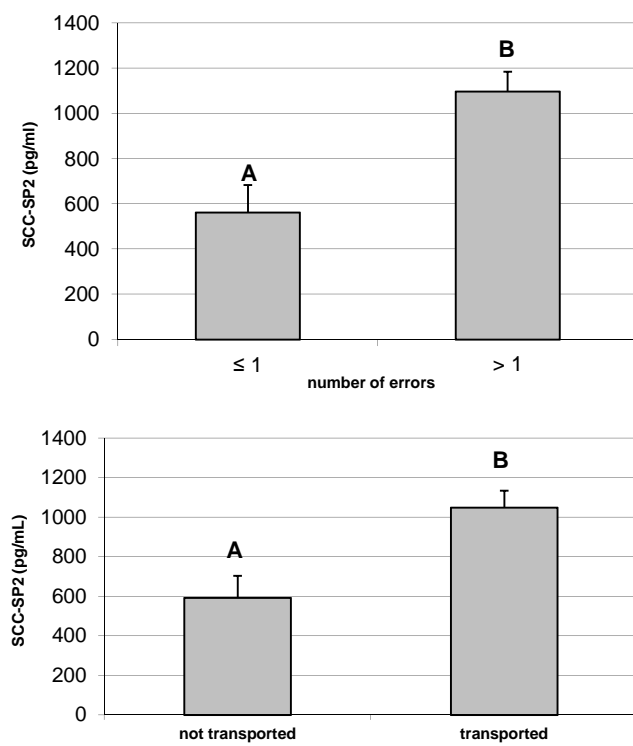


Fig. 2

Highlights:

- Equine behavioural and physiological responses to show-jumping were studied
- Horses with a greater number of faults showed a greater frequency of conflict behaviour
- Horses with a greater number of faults had a greater salivary cortisol concentration
- Transportation prior to competition increases salivary cortisol concentration