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1 **A preliminary study to investigate the prevalence of pain in international event riders** 2 **during competition, in the United Kingdom**

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8 9 **Abstract**

10 The aim of the study was to investigate the prevalence of riders at the international levels in
11 eventing, competing with pain, the location of their pain, factors affecting their pain and
12 whether they perceived this pain to have an effect on their performance. *Thirty-one*
13 *questionnaires were completed by international event riders (FEI CCI *, CCI **, CIC ***) at*
14 *the Hartpury International Horse Trials, UK, to establish the prevalence of riders competing*
15 *with pain.*

16 *Ninety-six percent of international event riders competed while experiencing pain, 76% of*
17 *riders stated that this pain was in the neck, upper back or shoulders. All female riders reported*
18 *pain, giving a significant correlation between gender and pain ($X = -0.479$, $P = 0.006$).*

19 *Fifty-five percent of riders felt their pain affected their riding performance, giving an odds*
20 *ratio of 1.14, compared to those riders who felt their pain did not effect their performance.*
21 *Pain was perceived to influence performance by affecting fatigue, their concentration, and*
22 *anxiety levels. Ninety-six percent of riders reporting pain used medication to alleviate their*
23 *symptoms.*

24 *This high incidence of international event riders who compete with pain, particularly back*
25 *pain, could be problematic given the longevity of a rider's career, which can span over four*
26 *decades and could potentially increase the risk of a serious or fatal fall in the cross-country*
27 *phase. This research reports rider's perceptions and self-reported pain and management*
28 *options, which may affect the data. Further research is needed to establish the causes of back*
29 *pain and appropriate management strategies.*

30
31 **Keywords:** Equestrian, Event riders, chronic pain, back pain

32 33 **Introduction**

34 Horse riding is considered to be more dangerous than motorcycling, skiing, car racing, football
35 and rugby (Norwood *et al.*, 2000; Sorli, 2000). Riding creates a high-risk situation with the
36 rider placed 3 metres above the ground whilst on an unpredictable animal weighing 500 kg or
37 more that can travel at speeds of 65-75 kmh⁻¹ (Ball *et al.*, 2007). Whilst most injuries occur
38 during riding, 15% of injuries occur off the horse during related activities such as handling and
39 feeding (Maffulli, 2005). The hospitalisation rate for equestrian activity is 49 for every 1000
40 hours of riding (Sorli, 2005) compared to rugby that has a hospital rate of 93 per 1000 hours
41 (Stokes, *et al.*, 2015). One in five equestrian athletes is seriously injured during their riding
42 career (Ball *et al.*, 2007; Mayberry *et al.*, 2007). Sixty percent of patients hospitalised following
43 an equestrian related trauma injury, had either fallen or were thrown from a horse (Ball *et al.*,
44 2009). The Federation Equestrian Internationale (FEI) suggests a fall in competition has an
45 incidence rate of one fall per eighteen starters and 32% of riders injured in competitions, were
46 seriously or fatally injured.

47
48 The Olympic discipline of eventing, considered the triathlon of equestrian sport, is one of the
49 most dangerous within equestrianism (Whitlock, 1999; Murray, *et al.*, 2006). Eventing takes

50 the complex horse and rider relationship to extremes (Wolframm, 2014; Thompson *et al.*, 2016)
51 with the cross-country (XC) phase generally viewed as the riskiest for both horse and rider
52 (Paix, 1999; Whitlock 1999). The injury rate in eventing has been reported as between 0.88 -
53 1.1 % starts (Paix, 1999; Whitlock, 1999). Injuries in eventing are most often caused by the
54 jump itself and the action of the horse jumping, resulting in a fall of horse and/or the rider (O'
55 Brien, 2016). 13 % of rider falls lead to an injury (Singer *et al.*, 2003) and Murray, *et al.*, (2006)
56 suggested that there is a 36 % risk of a serious/fatal injury to the rider when the horse falls.
57 These horse falls are often a rotational fall resulting from the horse hitting the solid cross-
58 country fence. There have been 60 rider deaths in eventing between 1993 and 2017, raising
59 serious concerns about the safety of the sport. Following epidemiological investigations
60 (Singer *et al.*, 2003; Murray, *et al.*, 2004; Murray, *et al.*, 2006) and sporting governing body
61 inquiries, rule changes have been implemented, there has been an introduction of frangible pins
62 to the fence designs and improved safety equipment such as air jackets and further
63 developments in helmet safety standards (BE, 2017; FEI, 2017).

64

65 While the prevalence of acute injuries in eventing has been well documented, chronic injuries
66 have largely been overlooked. Ball *et al.*, (2009) identified that over half of riders that had been
67 hospitalized due to an acute riding injury, experienced chronic physical difficulties following
68 their accident, including chronic pain, weakness, decreased balance, headaches, limited use of
69 limbs, decreased memory and mood changes. With the high number of acute injuries seen in
70 eventing it is likely that some of these riders will experience chronic pain issues. Chronic pain
71 may also be a result of over-use musculoskeletal injuries from long term, repetitive movement.
72 Kraft (2009) identified that 88 % of riders reported chronic back pain compared to 33 % of the
73 non-rider control group. The majority of this back pain reported to be lower back pain. In elite
74 competition riders, Lewis and Kennerly (2017) found 74% were competing with pain, the
75 majority of which was lower back pain. To date, the prevalence of chronic pain amongst
76 competitive event riders has not been established but it is likely that similar figures may be
77 seen in an eventing population, however, the added demands of participating in the show
78 jumping and XC phases may have an impact on incidence, levels of pain and location of the
79 pain.

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81 Chronic pain is a common cause of early retirement from many sports (Cook *et al.*, 1997;
82 Kettunen *et al.*, 2002), however, there is little evidence to suggest that this is a problem in the
83 sport of eventing. Particularly as it is classed as an early start, late maturation sport and where
84 the mean age of British Olympic riders is thirty-eight years old (Dumbell *et al.* 2015), chronic
85 pain may not be an issue in the longevity of riders participating in the sport, but is worthy of
86 further investigation. Ball *et al.* (2009), suggest that despite chronic pain issues, many riders
87 continue to ride, but this may have performance limiting effects (Wipper, 2000; Munsters *et*
88 *al.*, 2012; Munz *et al.*, 2014). Lewis & Kennerly (2017) found that there was a significant
89 relationship between riders' pain and their perception that this pain effecting their performance
90 in competition. During a time where the sport of eventing as an Olympic discipline receives
91 funding dependant on participation numbers and international competition results (BEF, 2017),
92 any decrease in participation or performance levels of the riders, due to chronic injury or pain
93 could have detrimental effects on the sport as a whole.

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95 Chronic pain may continue to be symptomatic long after the athlete ceases to compete (Schmitt
96 *et al.*, 2001; Kettunen *et al.*, 2002; Kujala *et al.*, 2005). General health and quality of life is
97 likely to be affected as a longer-term consequence of chronic injury (Clarsen, 2015).
98 Treatments of chronic injuries involve costs on individuals, employers and organisations
99 (Clarsen, 2015).

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The aim of the study was to investigate the prevalence of riders at the International CCI*, CCI** and CIC*** levels in eventing competing with pain, the location of their pain, factors affecting their pain and whether they perceived this pain to have an effect on their performance.

Materials and Methods

Participants

Following full institutional ethical approval, a purposeful sample of fifty paper based questionnaires were distributed to CCI *, CCI ** and CIC *** event riders at the Hartpury International Horse Trials. Riders were asked to compete after the event and a researcher was at hand during competition to clarify any questions. Thirty-one were completed, giving a response rate of 62%. Participants included 18 female riders and 13 male riders, with an age range of 18-55 years and a mean age of 32.5 years (SD = 10.17).

Measure

A five section survey was constructed using the principles put forward by Diem (2002). The survey containing twenty questions was developed containing a mixture of closed – response (e.g. Yes/no and Likert scale) and open-response items (Bruce, 2008). Section 1 asked respondents to state their eventing competition level. Section 2 asked questions related to previous injury and self reported level of pain (adapted from validated questions taken from short-form McGill Pain Questionnaire (Melzack, 1987) , location and cause of this pain. Section 3 was specific to the perceived impact this pain had on their performance. Section 4 asked what factors contributed to increased levels of pain when riding (e.g. saddle, movement of the horse, cold weather, yard work). The final section solicited information related to the participants management strategies for dealing with this pain (e.g. over the counter pain medication, prescription pain medication, manual therapy such as physical therapy, chiropractic treatment and other strategies). Validity evidence for the instrument was provided by reviewing the questionnaire for: (1) clarity of wording, (2) use of standard English and spelling (3) reliance of items, (4) absence of biased words and phrases, (5) formatting of items, and (6) clarity of instructions (Fowler, 2002). Two faculty senior academics experienced in survey design, were asked to use these guidelines to review the instrument. Based on the reviewers’ comments the instrument was revised and as a pilot study the questionnaire was distributed to 10 competition event riders before further revisions were made prior to final administration.

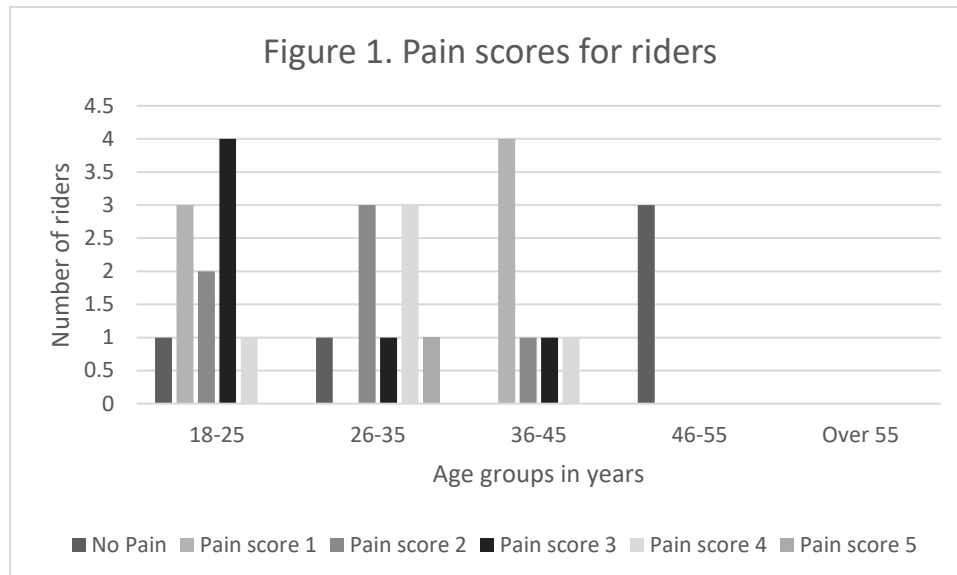
Data analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to report frequencies and percentages within data. Spearman’s correlation and odds ratios were utilized to assess prevalence of pain experienced by elite event riders. An alpha value was set at $p < 0.05$ (confidence interval 95%) throughout unless otherwise stated. Data were analysed using SPSS for Windows version 24.

Results

Ninety-six percent of riders reported competing with pain meaning that event riders had an odds ratio demonstrating they are thirty times more likely to be competing with pain than without pain. Nineteen percent described their pain as mild, 42 % described their pain ranging from mild to moderate in severity, 23% moderate, 13 % described their pain as moderate to severe and 3 % of riders described their pain as severe.

149 One hundred percent of the 36-45 year age group reported pain, 91% 18-25 years, 88% 26-35
150 years and only 25% for the 46-55 year old group. Figure 1 shows the pain scores (0 = no pain,
151 5 = severe pain) per age group and highlights the lower age groups 18-35 year old reported
152 higher pain scores than the over 36 year olds. However, the correlation between reported pain
153 scores and age was not significant ($r_s(29) = 0.22, p = 0.885$).
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157 All female riders reported pain, giving a significant correlation between gender and pain (X^2
158 $(1, n=31) = -0.479, p=0.006$).

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160 Fifty-two percent of riders reported pain in the lower back, 48% shoulder pain, 35% neck pain,
161 32% upper back pain, and 25% hip pain.

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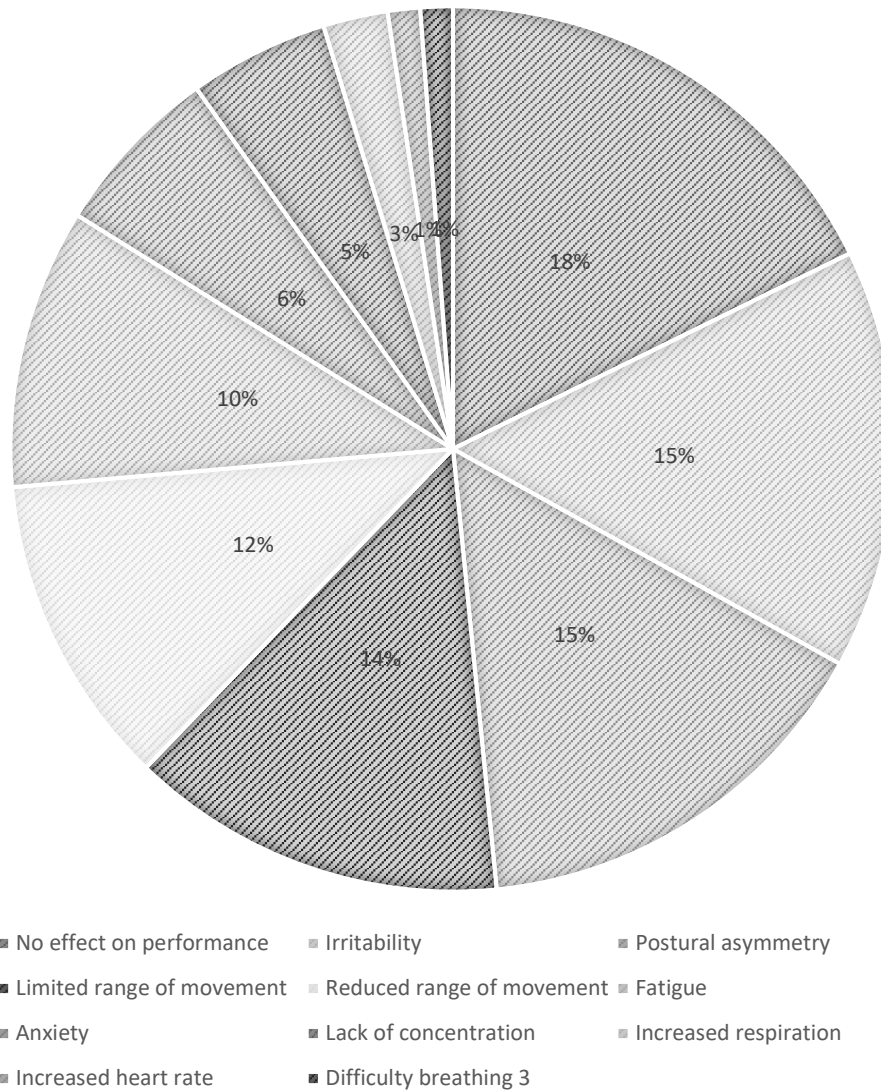
163 Fifty-one percent of riders did not attribute their pain to a previous injury, 26% attributed the
164 pain to a previous injury as a result of a fall and 23% attributed the pain to a previous injury
165 that was not a result of a fall. There was not a significant relationship between reported pain
166 scores and whether the riders perceived that their pain was related to a previous injury or not (r_s
167 $(28) = 0.44, p = 0.781$).

168

169 Fifty-five percent of riders felt their pain affected their riding performance, with an odds ratio
170 of 1.14. Figure 2, shows riders perception of how they felt their pain effected their
171 performance.

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FIGURE 2. RIDERS PERCEPTION OF HOW THEIR PAIN EFFECTED THEIR PERFORMANCE



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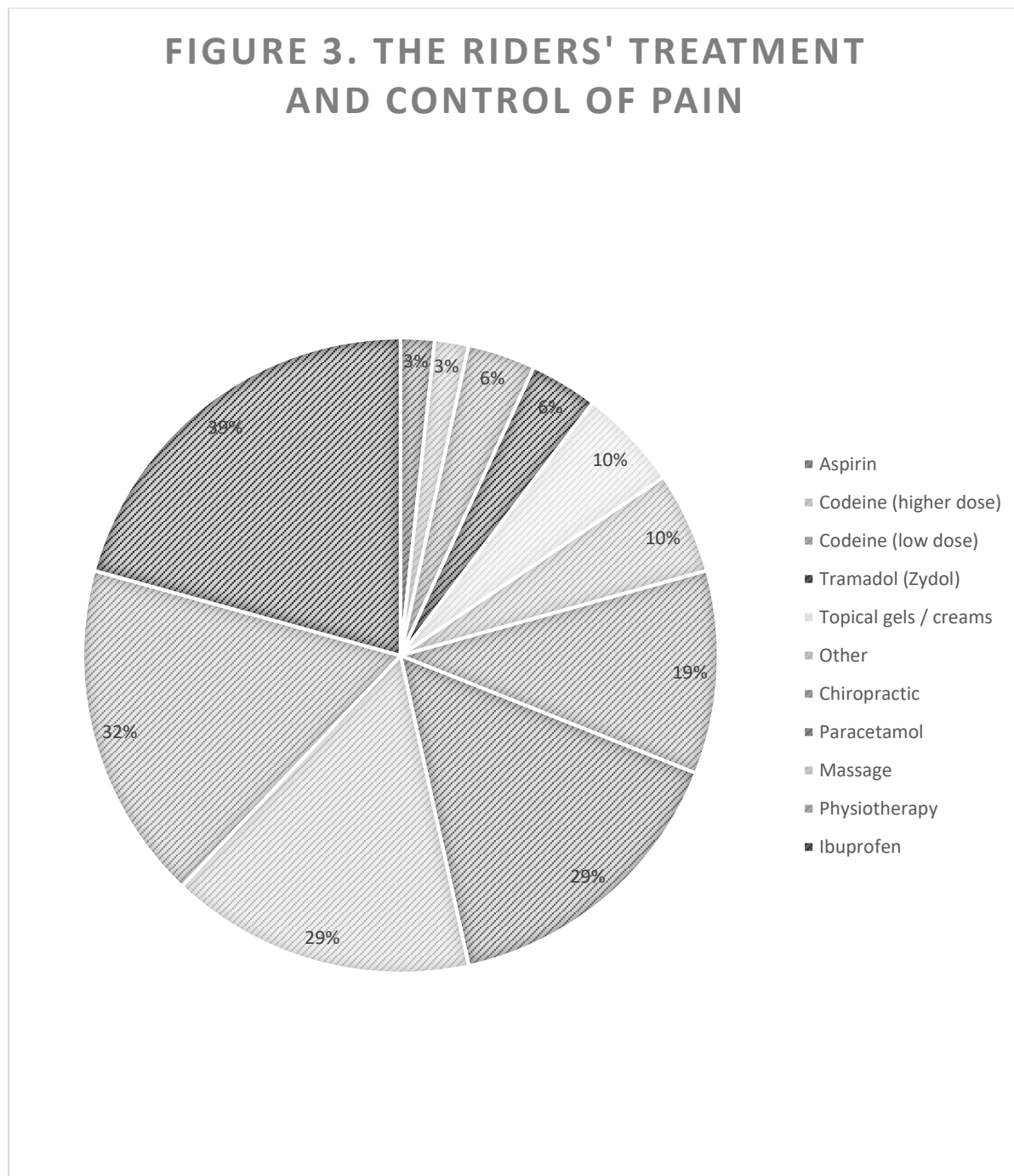
175 Sixty-eight percent attributed their pain to the activity of riding on the flat, 35% to performing
176 stable duties, 16% of riders attributed their pain to saddle design, 16% to the weather, 16% to
177 other factors and 10% to jumping.

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179 Ninety-six percent of riders used pain medication to a control/alleviate their pain (see figure
180 3). Nineteen percent of participants used physiotherapy to help treat their pain, 35 % used sports
181 massage, 6 % used chiropractic and 6 % used other unspecified forms of therapy.

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FIGURE 3. THE RIDERS' TREATMENT AND CONTROL OF PAIN



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185 Discussion

186 This is a preliminary exploratory study, using a purposeful sample. The study identified that
187 96 % of the event riders who took part in the study were experiencing pain whilst competing.
188 Whilst this study did not explore why they continue to compete with pain, it may be due to
189 economic pressures to continue to compete for prize money, sponsor or owner pressures
190 (Wolframm *et al.* 2015). Also, due to the unique dyad relationship, the fact that if the horse is
191 not in pain or injured there is a demand on the rider to continue, particularly as the rider often
192 does not consider themselves as an athlete (Douglas *et al.* 2012), and rest and rehabilitation
193 seen in other sports, may not be used.

194 Most riders described their pain as ranging from mild to moderate in severity, although 13 %
195 described their pain as moderate to severe, 3 % of riders described their pain as severe. Fifty-

196 five percent of participants felt their pain affected their riding performance, stating
197 physiological limitations such as fatigue, increased heart rate, increased respiratory rate and
198 difficulty breathing. The cross-country (XC) phase places high aerobic demands on the rider,
199 higher than seen in other equestrian disciplines (Douglas, *et al.*, 2012; Roberts, *et al.*, 2009).
200 Roberts *et al.*, (2009) observed lactate concentration of 9.5 ± 2.7 mmol, grip strength decreased
201 significantly from 32.3 ± 6.3 kg pre-competition to 29.8 ± 5.5 kg post competition. Mean heart
202 rates (HR) were noted to be 184 ± 11 beats per minute (Roberts, *et al.*, 2009), suggesting
203 maximal oxygen uptake (VO_2 Max) >90 % (Douglas, *et al.*, 2012). At the International level
204 XC phase riders need to maintain these physiological parameters for distances ranging from a
205 minimum 3640 m at CCI* to a maximum 5500 m at CCI ** and a maximum distance of 3990
206 m at CIC ***, with optimum times ranging from 6 – 10 mins and jumping efforts 25 -35 fences
207 (FEI, 2017). Singer, *et al.*, (2003) found a significant increase in risk of a fall XC with an
208 increase number of jumps on the course and for jumping efforts later on the course, suggesting
209 fatigue of the horse and/or the rider is a factor. Riders that stated their pain increased their
210 fatigue levels potentially limits their body's ability to cope with the high physiological demands
211 and could put these riders at an additional risk of not only a decrease in performance but could
212 further increase the risk of a fall. Riders also identified decreased movement, range of motion,
213 and postural asymmetry as effects of pain all of which is likely to impact on their position,
214 effectiveness to control the horse, application of aids and the ability to better facilitate their
215 balance (Hobbs, *et al.* 2014; Munz *et al.*, 2014; Largarde *et al.*, 2005; Symes and Ellis, 2009).

216 The location of pain was predominantly situated in the lower back, 52 % reported, this was
217 smaller incidence in the event riders than seen in elite dressage riders, 76 % (Lewis &
218 Kennerly, 2017) and 72 % in general horse-riders (Kraft, *et al.*, 2009). Lower back pain (LBP)
219 can be caused by the cyclic loading nature of riding and large mechanical forces, which are
220 imposed in the vertical axis of the body from the horse (Clayton *et al.*, 2009; Kraft, *et al.*,
221 2007). The rider's position requires stabilization and isometric contraction of the back and
222 core muscles (Terada *et al.*, 2004; Terada, 2004), damage to these muscle groups caused by
223 repetitive strain can result in chronic LBP (Shepard, 1997). Poor endurance of the hip extensor
224 muscle (*Gluteus maximus*) and hip abductors (*Gluteus medius*) has also been previously noted
225 in individuals suffering with LBP (Nadler, 2000; Kankaanpaa *et al.*, 1998; McGill, 1997). This
226 suggests that fatigue in these muscle groups in connection with LBP may have an impact on
227 the rider maintaining a correct position. Research also suggests that rider pain or stiffness
228 induces asymmetry and diminishes the rider's ability to follow the movement of the horse, both
229 of which will have a negative impact on the rider's position and effectiveness, thus impacting
230 on performance (Munz *et al.*, 2014; Largarde *et al.*, 2005; Symes and Ellis, 2009). Pain
231 experienced in the hip region would decrease the rider's ability to stabilize and control the
232 movement of the pelvis and the dissociation of leg movements when applying the leg aids.

233 The event riders in this study also reported pain in the upper back, shoulders and neck; this was
234 much higher than reported in dressage riders (Lewis & Kennerley, 2017). This may be due to
235 several factors: riders in the current study identified that performing stable duties attributed to
236 their pain. The repetitive nature of such activities as sweeping, mucking-out, lifting bales of
237 hay and shavings, pushing a wheel barrow etc. all increase the risk of neck and back pain (Côté
238 *et al.* 2008; Hogg-Johnson *et al.* 2008; Ariëns, *et al.* 2001). Walström, *et al.* (2004) identified
239 that people performing similar type of repetitive work done on a daily basis, were 30-40 %
240 times more likely to report three or more days of neck pain per month.

241 The differing position between flat work adopted for dressage riding and that of jumping and
242 faster canter work could contribute to the higher levels of neck and upper back pain identified
243 by eventers compared to dressage riders. Interestingly only ten percent contributed their pain

244 to jump riding, whilst 68% attributed their pain to riding on the flat. As an eventer will spend
245 more time in the jumping position than the dressage rider this position may be the root cause
246 of the pain even though the riders may not realise it. This is because adopting the forward seat
247 for fast work and jumping greatly increases the metabolic cost to the rider (Douglas, *et al.*,
248 2012). The rider is forced to maintain their balance through weight bearing via the legs only as
249 opposed to the pelvis and legs as seen in the dressage position, a closed hip and thigh angle and
250 a forward trunk position (Nankervis, *et al.* 2015; Douglas, *et al.* 2012; Patterson, *et al.*, 2010).
251 High demands are placed on the rider to be able to control their body in terms of acceleration
252 of body segments during the jump phase, particularly on landing. Patterson, *et al.*, (2010)
253 highlighted the need for the rider to limit the acceleration or movement of their head on landing.
254 As the head weighs approximately 5 kg, reliance on the neck muscles to maintain stability of
255 the head is key. Strain on these neck muscles due to repetitive stress could explain the neck
256 pain experienced by the event riders. Nankervis, *et al.* (2015) also highlighted the repetitive
257 nature of the jump position suggesting elite riders made more changes to their upper body
258 position prior to take-off.

259 Neck and upper back pain could be as a result of acute head and neck injuries, which account
260 for 20-25 % of riding injuries (Sandiford, 2013; Ekberg, *et al.*, 2011; Hastler, *et al.* 2011; Smartt
261 and Chalmers, 2009; Loder, *et al.* 2008; Moss, *et al.*, 2002). The mechanics of these types of
262 injuries resulting from a fall are likely to result in a forced flexion-extension trauma of the neck
263 (acute whiplash injury). Whiplash injuries can result in chronic pain in the neck and upper back
264 as well as decreased range of movement (ROM) lasting up to six months (Kasch, *et al.* 2001;
265 Obelieniene *et al.*, 1999; Radanov, *et al.*, 1996). Kasch, *et al.* (2001), reported a linear
266 relationship between neck pain and mobility in subjects that had a whiplash injury as a result
267 of a car-crash, with a median speed of 40 m.p.h. Riders at the FEI level will be going at a slower
268 speed of 19-21 m.p.h (F.E.I. 2018), in order to make the optimum time but whiplash type
269 injuries have been reported at speeds as low as 5-10 m.p.h. (Chirotrust, 2018). Riders in this
270 study reported that pain resulted in reduced ROM. It is therefore possible that some of the
271 event riders suffering from chronic pain in the neck and upper back is as a result of a previous
272 whip-lash style injury.

273 The riders most likely to experience pain were aged 36-45 years old group, however, Jordan *et*
274 *al.* (2010), identified that the highest age group in the general population to experience LBP
275 was the 45-64 year age-group, 536 per 10,000 of GP consultations. Ageing can cause
276 deterioration of the spine, intervertebral discs and muscles, leading to pain and stiffness
277 (Warson and Hendrickson, 2007). Radiography and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can
278 diagnose such problems (Warson and Hendrickson, 2007; O'Brien, 2016). However, Kraft, *et*
279 *al.*, (2009) found no conclusive MRI evidence to suggest that riders' LBP was caused by disk
280 degeneration, spondylolysis, spondylolisthesis or pathologic changes to the paraspinal muscles
281 of the lumbar spine. This suggests that the back pain in riders may be functional, as attributed
282 to muscular dis-balance (Balagué, *et al.*, 2012; Kraft, *et al.*, 2009; Andersson, 1999). However,
283 the older age group (thirty-six year old and older) reported mainly mild to moderate pain,
284 whereas the 18-35 group reported more moderate to severe pain. As equestrian sport is
285 categorised as early start, late specialization and late maturation (BEF, 2015) and considering
286 the longevity of a competitive career in Eventing, the potential for chronic pain issues leading
287 to burnout and dropout need to be carefully considered (Balyi, *et al.*, 2013; Bompa, 2009).
288 Therefore, an understanding of how these older riders have prevented, treated and managed
289 their pain issues is needed.

290 Statistical analysis revealed a significant correlation between gender and pain, all the females
291 in the study reported to be competing with pain. Back pain has been identified by Praemer, *et*

292 *al.* (1992) as being more common in women (70.3 per 1000 population) than in men (57.3 per
293 1000 population).

294 Riders also reported irritability and anxiety as an effect of pain (Figure 2). This could have a
295 role in determining personality traits as seen in higher level competitive riders, who were found
296 to be less agreeable and conscientious (Wolframm *et al.*, 2015). Irritability and anxiety can also
297 be highly detrimental to the delicate nature of the horse and rider interaction (Wipper, 2000;
298 Munsters *et al.*, 2012). A study by Edwards and Bodle (2014), found that irritability, anxiety
299 and lack of concentration are symptoms of post-concussion syndrome. Concussion in sport is
300 a rapidly developing area of research and support for effects of concussion are widely reported
301 (Johnson *et al.*, 2016; Baker *et al.*, 2016; Theadom *et al.*, 2016). The fact that 39% of riders
302 report irritability, 16% report anxiety and 13% report a lack of concentration and 26% attribute
303 their pain to a previous injury resulting from a fall, could suggest a relationship with previous
304 concussion injury (Theadom *et al.*, 2016). This could have implications for recovery periods
305 and return to play protocol in equestrian sport (Johnson *et al.*, 2016). However, further
306 investigation is needed to identify concussion injuries that occurred, as a result of a fall.

307 The majority of riders used over-the-counter (OTC) non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
308 (NSAIDs) such as ibuprofen and paracetamol to medicate their pain. Only 3% of participants
309 used prescription medication, suggesting that riders prefer to self-medicate. This is consistent
310 with other sports where NSAIDs are widely used to enable athletes to continue their sporting
311 activities despite acute or overload injuries, accelerate their return to play after an injury and
312 in some cases as a preventive measure (Ziltener *et al.*, 2010; Warner *et al.*, 2002; Tricker,
313 2000). Berglund and Sundgot-Borgen (2001), estimated that Olympic athletes use NSAIDs six
314 to ten times more often than the general population which could be as a result of higher or more
315 frequent episodes of pain and/or pressures to continue to train and compete despite the pain.
316 Petroczi and Naughton, (2009) identifies two risks to riders relying on OTC pain medication,
317 firstly the risk of failing to comply with anti-doping regulations and secondly the side effects
318 caused by the drugs such as gastrointestinal (GI) disorders and renal damage (Ziltener *et al.*,
319 2010). When taken frequently, all types of NSAIDs can cause adverse effects to the
320 cardiovascular system, kidneys and liver with side effects including dyspepsia, nausea, ulcers
321 and bleeding (Warner *et al.*, 2002; Ziltener *et al.*, 2010; Tricker, 2000; Bjarnason *et al.* 1993).
322 Ziltener *et al.*, (2010) suggested that there was a higher relative risk of bleeding in the upper
323 GI tract after only 1 month of regular NSAID doses. Whilst this present study did not examine
324 doses or frequency of use of NSAIDs in event riders, effective pain management techniques
325 require further investigation (Nicholas, *et al.* 2016).

326

327 **Conclusion**

328 This study using a small purposeful sample of riders at one event, established that there is a
329 high incidence of elite event riders who compete with pain, particularly back pain, which is
330 problematic given the longevity of an equestrian athletes' career, which can span over four
331 decades. Riders report that this pain affected their position, decreased concentration, and
332 increased fatigue, irritability and anxiety, all of which will have a negative impact on
333 performance and could potentially increase the risk of a serious or fatal fall. Riders self-
334 medicating using NSAIDs could also be putting themselves at an increased risk of long-term
335 health issues. This research reports rider's perceptions and self-reported pain and management
336 options, which may affect the data. So further research is needed to establish the causes of back
337 pain and appropriate management strategies.

338

339 **Acknowledgements**

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