



EUROPEAN ARAB HORSE SHOW

COMMISSION

JUDGES COURSE SYLLABUS BOOKLET

1989

JUDGES' COURSE SYLLABUS

Origin and Strains

The Bedouin horse originated in the Desert between the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, extending north to parts of Syria, Iraq and Iran.

The desert horse was used as a war horse - only mares were used as stallions were too noisy. The war mare had to be fast and sound as her owner's life depended on these qualities. She had to be docile and easy to handle as she lived inside the tents at times. The Bedouin were proud of their mares and rarely sold them. It seems that one of the objects in warring with other tribes was to capture the enemies' best mares. Beautiful mares were always worth a great deal of money and there are many legends and stories of huge prices being paid for such mares.

Archaeologists and historians cannot pinpoint exactly the origins in either time or space of the Arabian horses; there is however enough archaeological evidence to prove that horses of Arabian type were domesticated in the Middle Eastern area c.1500 BC. It follows that present day Arabians have an unbroken history of domestication of 3,500 years. Assuming 10 years as an average horse generation, this indicates a human-controlled selection system covering 350 horse generations.

This should be compared with the evolution of the Thoroughbred which extends over some 400 years, or 40 generations.

It follows that the fixation of type is unusually strong and that the selection process has eliminated the most obvious weaknesses. Uninformed tampering with such a heritage is therefore likely to damage, not improve.

The essence of Arabian horse selection has been balance. No one quality has ever been of over-riding importance, as in the Thoroughbred. Judges must therefore respect tradition and not go overboard for a deeply dished head, or a steam engine trot, or a ruler straight back, or a colour, or pure speed, or whatever may be the current local fad.

The original Arabs were called Kohailan - which simply means thoroughbred. The legend of the Al Khamsa - or five original strains of Al Sahaba, followers of the Prophet, is open to conjecture. Different tribes list a different five though interestingly all list the Managhi as one of the five.

The strains evolved as breeders developed their own distinctive types. These types/strains were called after

their breeders, e.g. Kohailan of Ibn Rudan or Kohailan Rodan were developed by Ibn Rudan of the Roala, and the Saqlawieh Jedranieh originated from a mare that kicked (saqla) who belonged to Ibn Jedran, one of the three sons of Ibn ed Derri of the Gomusa Saba.

Strains always follow the dam line and undoubtedly some of these dam lines are very powerful and still project their type and qualities through the generations. The variations of type within the breed as a whole are traceable to the different strains. Grouped under the visual differences, these types are:-

Managhi - tall, angular, straight head, sloping croup.

Saqlawi - tall, upright neck, long back, 'on the leg', long but dished head and longer ears.

Kohailan - smaller, deeper, short dished wedge head with deep jowls, more rounded, shorter back and neck.

There are some 200 known Kohailah female families (strains and substrains) but only a handful of Saqlawieh and Managhieh families.

Arab Horse Type

Type is, or should be, the most distinctive feature of an Arab horse. Without type, identity is lost and is therefore marginally more important than conformation. The Arab has a different skeleton to all other horses and this greatly affects its conformation. There are fewer vertebrae, i.e. 17 ribs (18 or 19 normal) which give it a much more compact, strong loined appearance. The bone of an Arab is smoother and more dense than other horses, therefore great circumference of leg bone is not required - indeed it would take away from the elegance and refinement that we are looking for. The skin is thin and the hair of the coat, mane and tail should be fine.

The head should be wedge shaped, from both front and side view, a small muzzle and wide between the eyes giving a broad forehead, and with a deep jowl; it should be dry (without a fleshy look) the nostrils of fine skin and capable of great expansion; the bars of the mouth are longer than other horses and as the teeth are smaller, the space between the upper and lower jaw is narrow, making the thick bit usually recommended for a riding horse unsuitable. The mouth should be long and the chin clearly defined, the branches of the jaw bone should be straight (except in teething youngsters) and the jowl flat and round, with enough space between the branches to fit a fist between. The eye is low, large and prominently set in a large socket without being hooded by the brow bone as in other horses. It is not a fault to have white around the eye. The expression is gentle but alert and interested in its surroundings. A dish in the profile is desirable but not essential.

The neck. The cervical vertebrae, especially where the atlas joins the occipital at the top of the skull, meets at a less acute angle than in other horses, which allows the neck to curve naturally and enter the head in a curve. This curve in the upper neck is called a mitbah. The throat should be fine with the windpipe clearly defined. The lower end of the neck should spring upwards out of the shoulder.

The back and loin should be strong and the croup level and long, the tail should be set on so that it follows the line of the spine when standing. It should not have a 'stuck on' look. It is carried in an arch at the walk and elevated gaily at faster paces. It can be plumed right over the quarters when very excited. It is not a fault to be carried slightly to one side.

The legs of an Arab are dry and without excess tissue, the knees and hocks should be large and well down. The pasterns are shorter and more upright than the TB, the feet in front are not as round and flat as the TB and the back feet are oval.

The action should be light and cadenced; the trot varies from a fairly high knee and hock action to a long swinging powerful stride. Neither is incorrect as long as cadence, balance, length of stride and motion from the shoulder and hock are present.

The average height of an Arab is 14.3 hands for a mare and 15 hands for a stallion, but they may be larger or smaller, type and quality are often lost if height is considered to be of prime importance.

The general impression is that of overall type of the whole horse - elegance, fine skin and bone, good tail carriage and pride of bearing.

General Arab Horse Conformation, Action and Soundness

General Conformation. We have considered the head and neck fully under Type.

Shoulder. The shoulder-blade (scapula) is not connected to the spine by anything other than muscle. The scapula can be long or short and upright or more sloping. Long and sloping is desirable. A horse can have a good well laid back wither and a straight shoulder; it can also have a good sloping shoulder with the withers too far forward giving the impression of withers climbing up the neck. When the scapula is too short, the horse will be shallow, when it is short and straight, the neck will be low slung and the impression will be of the neck sliding into the body without a definite shoulder line. This impression will be even more so if the humerus bone is short as well. The humerus is the bone connecting the scapula to the forelimb or radius. This is a relatively short bone but if it is too short, gives the neck an underslung look, it should be fairly upright to allow the forelimbs to swing through the shoulder. When the humerus is too sloping the forelegs appear to be too far under the body.

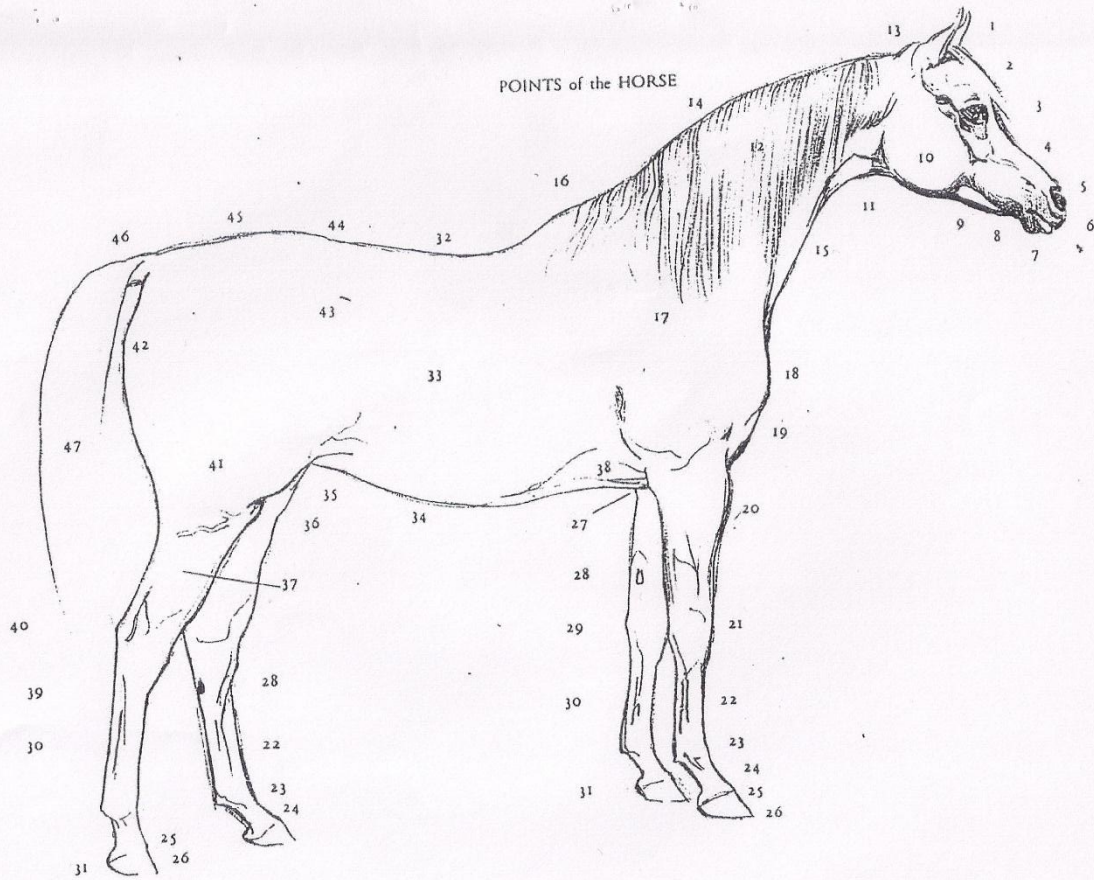
The length of neck and back are connected i.e. usually a long necked horse will have a long back and a short necked horse will have a short back. A straight shoulder can make a neck and back look longer, the under neck will be longer and conversely a well sloped shoulder can make a neck and back look shorter, the under neck measurement will be shorter. In both cases the crest measurement will be the same in similar sized animals.

The barrel of an Arab is rounder than the TB and therefore does not need to be as deep for the necessary heart room. The ideal horse should have equal measurements of shoulder, barrel and hindquarter, so if an imaginary line is dropped from the back of the wither to the ground and another through the hip bone to the ground, the measurements from the point of the shoulder to the first line, between the two lines (barrel) and from the second line to the buttock bone should be equal. Also the distance from the uppermost point of the wither to the ground should be the same as the distance from the point of shoulder to the buttock bone. A line dropped from the foremost part of the wither to the ground should be well behind the wither - the shoulder is too straight if it does not. The wither is not as well defined as in the TB, this is partly due to the rib cage being rounder, but there should be a definite wither or the saddle will slip forward.

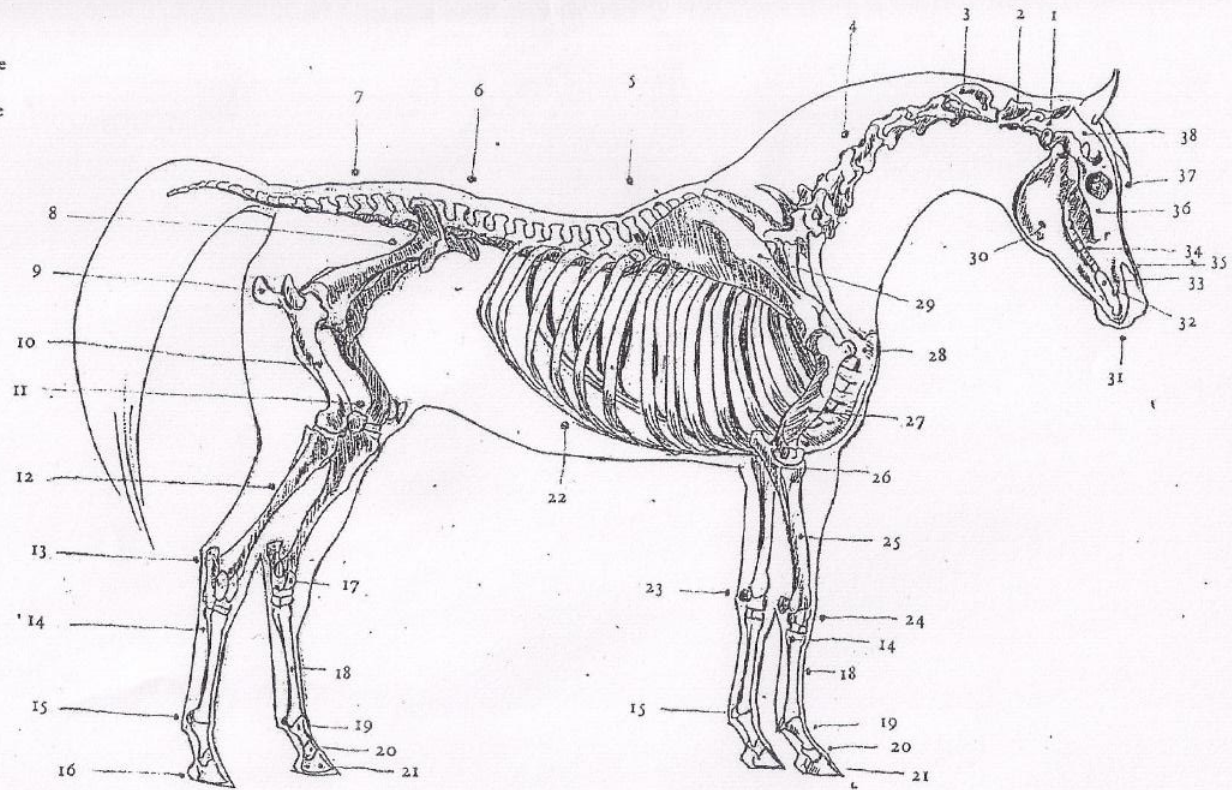
Quarters. The distance between the hip bone and the buttock bone should be long and the croup should extend to the same level as the buttock bone. The femur should be slanting forward and long to bring the hind leg well under the horse and the tibia should be long and sloping back to bring

- 3 Eye
- 4 Nose
- 5 Nostril
- 6 Muzzle
- 7 Chin
- 8 Chin Groove
- 9 Shafts of jaw
- 10 Cheek
- 11 Throat
- 12 Neck
- 13 Poll
- 14 Crest
- 15 Jugular Groove
- 16 Withers
- 17 Shoulder
- 18 Point of Shoulder
- 19 Chest
- 20 Forearm
- 21 Knee
- 22 Cannon
- 23 Fetlock joint
- 24 Pastern
- 25 Coronet
- 26 Hoof
- 27 Elbow
- 28 Chestnut
- 29 Trapezium
- 30 Tendons
- 31 Heel
- 32 Back
- 33 Body
- 34 Belly
- 35 Flank
- 36 Stifle
- 37 Gaskin
- 38 Girth Groove
- 39 Suspensory Ligament
- 40 Hock
- 41 Thigh
- 42 Point of Buttock
- 43 Point of Hip
- 44 Loins
- 45 Croup
- 46 Dock
- 47 Tail

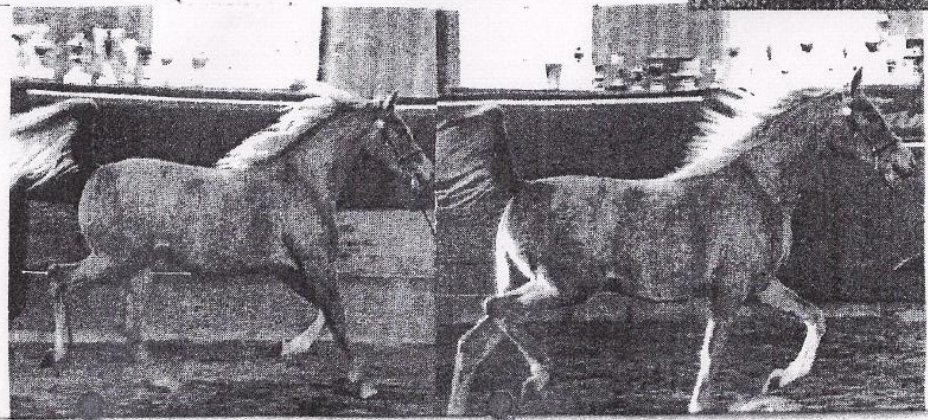
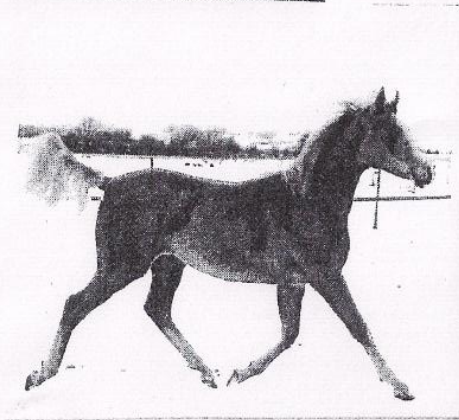
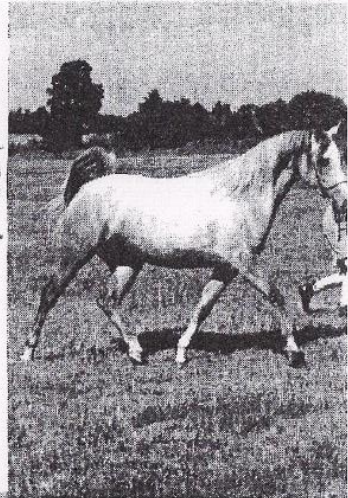
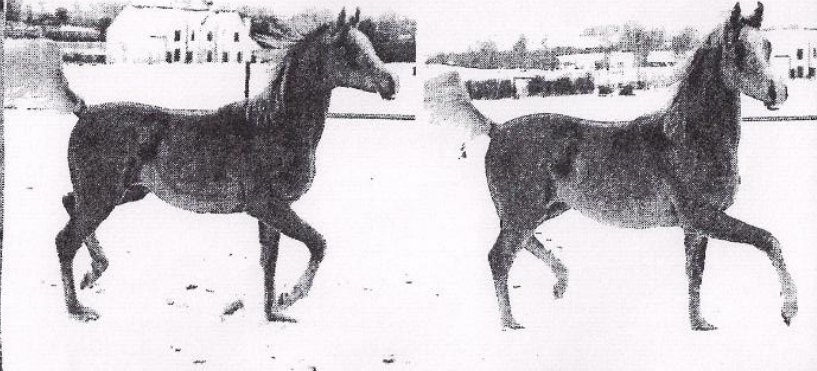
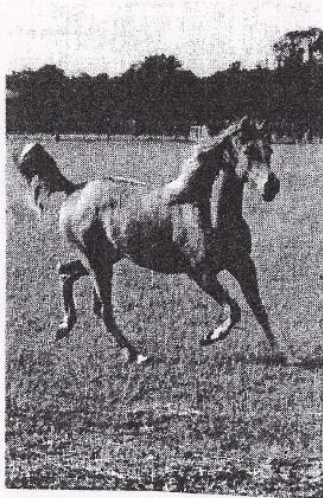
POINTS of the HORSE



- 1 Occipital
- 2 Atlas
- 3 Axis
- 4 Cervical Vertebrae
- 5 Dorsal Vertebrae
- 6 Lumbar Vertebrae
- 7 Sacral Vertebrae
- 8 Trochanter
- 9 Ischium
- 10 Femur
- 11 Stifle
- 12 Tibia
- 13 Os Calcis
- 14 Splint bone
- 15 Sesamoids
- 16 Heel
- 17 Astralagus
- 18 Cannon
- 19 Large pastern
- 20 Small pastern
- 21 Os Pedis
- 22 Ribs
- 23 Pisiform
- 24 Knee joint
- 25 Radius
- 26 Ulna
- 27 Humerus
- 28 Point of Shoulder
- 29 Scapula
- 30 Lower Jaw
- 31 Incisors
- 32 Canines
- 33 The bars
- 34 Molars
- 35 Nasal bone
- 36 Malar bone
- 37 Eye socket
- 38 Parietal



SKELETON of the HORSE



a period of suspension follows before the RF and LH hit the ground, followed by another period of suspension. The period of suspension is longer the more extravagant the stride or the more excited the horse is. The pasterns and hooves of the diagonals should be at the same angle (see diagram), this shows true cadence. From the front any possible deviations seen at the walk will increase, from behind an Arab may move wide or with a slight cow hock action, this is due to his rounder barrel and fewer vertebrae, they are alternative ways of overcoming an anatomical necessity. However there must be no sideways movement in the hock which indicates faulty structure.

The canter is a three time gait. The diagonals are paired in a single beat which falls between the successive beats of the unpaired legs, e.g. in the off fore lead, LH, RH and LF, RF followed by a period of suspension. The canter should be smooth and graceful with the weight well back.

The gallop is a four time gait somewhat similar to the canter except that the RH lands slightly before the LF, the sequence being, in the off fore lead, LH, RH, LF, RF. The head is carried higher than in other horses and the tail is often carried bolt upright.

Conformational faults

Front legs turning out causes a winding action that can cause one foreleg to strike the other.

Offsets often cause a winding action from the fetlock, this can also cause one leg to strike another.

Back at knee and long low pasterns can cause tendon damage.

Straight hocks cause bog spavins.

Small hocks cause hock sprains, spavins and curbs.

Splints can be caused by interference - check for toe out, offsets and straightness of action. More often splints are caused by accidental trauma to the splint bone and are not important, particularly as they usually disappear of their own accord. Mainly seen in youngsters before the splint bone fuses with the cannon. Mainly in front legs.

Hereditary Predispositions

Sidebones - ossification of lateral cartilages in the region of the heel. Can be caused by upright pasterns and concussion also be bad shoeing and possibly a Vitamin D deficiency in foals.

Ringbones - bone growth on the pastern joints. It is a periostitis produced by strain of the ligaments of the joints causing fusion. Can also be caused by injuries such as blows or wire cuts.

Bone spavin - osteoarthritis affecting the inside lower aspect of the hock, weak narrow bent hocks predispose a horse to bone spavin.

Hereditary faults

Parrot mouth - the upper incisors do not meet, this can be very minor or so bad that the upper incisors overlap the lower ones. Horses cannot graze unless the incisors meet.

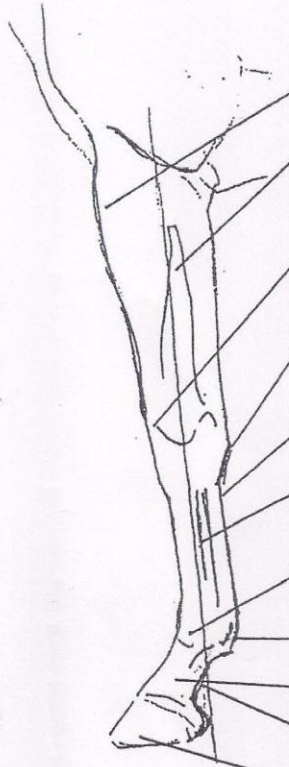
Undershot mouth - same as above except the lower incisors overlap the top ones.

These are the only hereditary faults that might be seen in the show ring.

Is there are difference in Conformation for Performance horses?

The basic conformational requirement for performance is a long hip - this helps balance and power, however there is no ideal conformation for any type of sport. The ideal horse in any sphere usually has a mental aptitude for the job - the will to win or the eye to size up a fence, etc. Horses with apparently serious conformation defects, but with exceptional mental abilities may excel in any sphere. The small, typey, flat backed show winner is no less likely to win races etc, than a large, off-type, sloping quartered animal.

THE FORELEG



Forearm should be well developed muscularly

Radius, main bone of upper leg, should be directly above the lower leg with no lateral or angular deviations to it

Knee should be large with flat surface to rest of leg

Position Pisiform Bone - should be prominent, for good tendon attachment

Position of Superficial Flexor Tendon should be clear

Position of Suspensory Ligament should be clear and dry

Fetlock Joint should be large but smooth with no bony projections at any angle

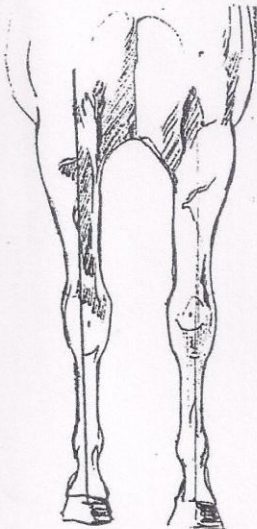
Position of Sesamoid Bones should not be lumpy

Pastern should be of adequate length and slope

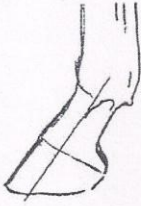
Position of Deep Flexor Tendon

Hoof should be continuous with line of pastern, with shorter heel than toe and round in shape

Front View



A line perpendicular to the ground through the centre of the top of the leg should also fall through the centre of the knee, cannon, fetlock, pastern and hoof.



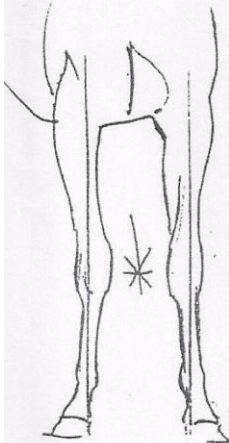
Correct Pastern Should be of adequate length and slope, the angle of the pastern and hoof should be similar.



Short Upright Pastern Fault predisposing to injury of fetlock, is not flexible enough in action.

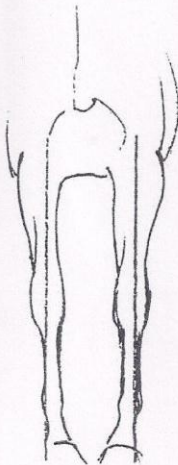


Weak Sloping Pastern Fault predisposing to injury of the sesamoids and flexor tendon, because too much give in action.

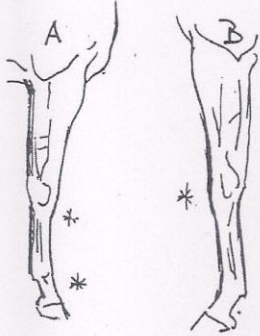


Toe Out Toes point away from one another. When a horse moves toe swings on an inwards arc. When this fault is accompanied by a narrow distance between the bottom of two legs, it is a more serious fault because the horse is more likely to strike it's fetlock with the opposite toe when moving.

The leg may turn out from the elbow downwards or by a twisting at the knee or fetlock.

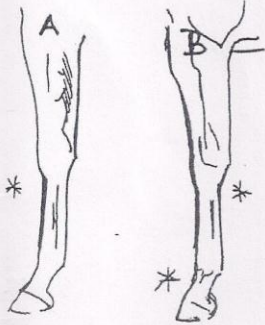


Toe In Toes point towards each other. When a horse moves with this fault it causes it to swing the leg in an outward arc, therefore there is less chance of interference. Because of this it is commonly taken to be a less serious fault than the above. However this fault causes strain on the ligaments of the fetlock and pastern.



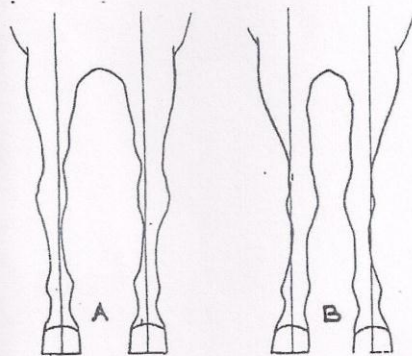
A. Back at the knee. Cannon is at forward angle to forearm. Serious fault, places strain on tendons and predisposes to bone chips in knee, capsule damage. Often associated with upright pasterns.

B. Over at the Knee Cannon at backward angle to forearm. Less serious fault than above because less strain on main tendons. However strain on sesamoid area is greater. Often associated with very sloped pasterns.



A. Cut out below Knees. Incorrect tendon attachment.

B. Tied in below the Knees Incorrect tendon attachment. False impression of this fault may be given by heavy fetlocks.

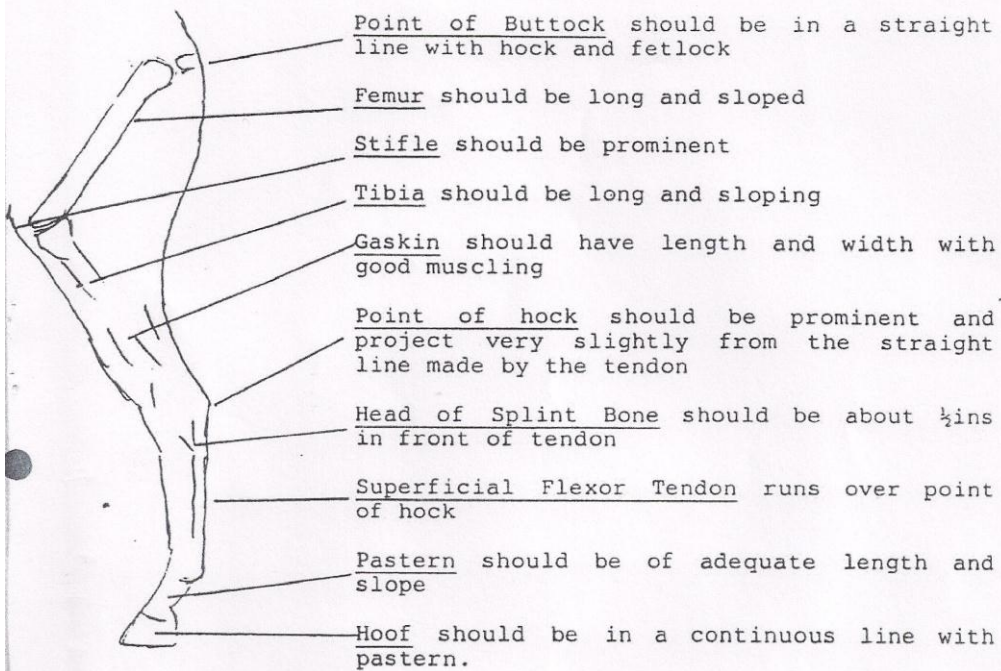


A. Bow Legs Lateral deviation of knees away from each other. Strain on inside of leg and knee joint.

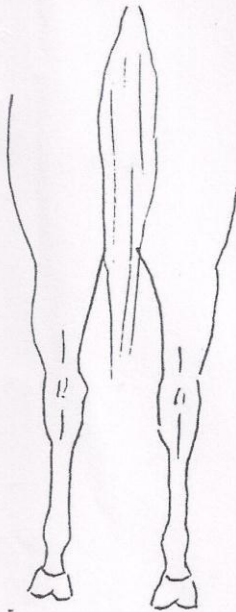
B. Knock Knees Lateral deviation of knees towards each other. Strain put on outer side of leg and knee joint.



Offset Knees Cannon bone is set parallel but aside to upper leg. Fault because inside splint bone is subjected to more weight than it is meant to. However fault is more serious if it causes horse to move crooked, stressing splint bone more. If horse still moves straight, less serious, less stress to splint bone.



Rear View



A line dropped from the point of buttock should divide the leg into equal parts. This gives equal distribution of weight, equal bone pressure and equal strain on collateral ligaments.

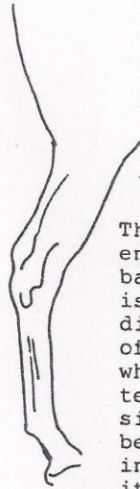
False Curb

Only seen in hocks that are too small. The head of the splint bone is set too far back in the hock, appearing outside of and behind the tendon when the hock is viewed from directly beside. This does not interfere with the tendon as a true curb does but is a fault because a small hock is weak conformation.



True Curb

This appears as an enlargement at the base of the hock. It is caused by displacement by strain of the cuboid bone which then pushes the tendon backwards or sideways. Serious fault because of the tendon interference. However it is rarely seen, most enlargements in this area being outside the hock and therefore false curbs



Straight Hocks

Too little angulation
Fault because of increased strain put on the front of the hock disposing it to bog spavins. Usually found with upright pasterns.



Hocks out behind

When the cannon is perpendicular to the ground and a line is extended up from it, it will pass behind the point of the hip. Weak conformation. The hocks will also be too bent.



Cut in below the Hock

The cannon drops back from the front of the hock. Not enough room left for correct tendon attachment



Development

Recognition of Ages

Foals have longer legs, short backs, they can have rather short shapeless necks and large ears. Their coats are woolly and their manes and tails short and fluffy.

Yearlings are very elegant with pretty heads, legs are still on the long side. This is the prettiest age until about 5 or 6 years in some families. They can grow up behind first which unbalances them.

Two and three year olds can look rather lumpy all over, their heads have 'tooth bumps' under the jaw and a fullness under the eyes, making their heads look plain and the eye small, this is caused by the permanent teeth growing in the jaws. Everything including the legs need to 'dry out'. Some animals have reached full height by this time and some go on growing for another one or two years; this can be either poor feeding as a youngster or heredity. This age can still be higher behind.

Older horses. Some grow out of their juvenile problems quickly and others do not come to their best until 8, 9 or even 10 years old.

Old age. A mare heavily in foal can look long and low in the back with a straight shoulder, the muscling on the quarter sags and the neck can lose its shape. An old horse can go down in the pasterns and back, his action may be stiffer due to arthritis. Coats can get heavy even in summer.

Sexual Dimorphism

Stallions are generally taller and more powerful than mares, the head is often stronger bones and less refined. Necks are crested and there is more presence and alertness.

Mares are allowed longer ears, they are usually longer and deeper in the body. Their heads are finer and more elegant, eyes are gentle.

Ethics and Etiquette

E.A.H.S.C. Rules for Conduct of Shows lays down the legal framework. Judges must know these. Note especially Rules 2 - 10 (attached.)

Judges are normally invited to judge by letter from the organizers. The judge should reply at once, either refusing or accepting the invitation. Once he has accepted the judge must put his availability to judge at the top of his priorities. If something unavoidable happens and the judge cannot meet the appointment, the earliest possible notice must be given and efforts to find a suitable substitute should be made. A more important show invitation does not constitute a reason to cancel the previous appointment.

Administration

Organizers are responsible for paying for:

- a. Travel - motor mileage, economy air fare, first class rail fare are normal.
- b. Accommodation - private or hotel, all meals, taxis to/from the airport/station are normal.

Where judges submit an expense account, the above standards should form the basis of the claim.

Relationship with Disciplinary Committee (DC)

Before horses enter the ring for judging, the DC should examine the horses for whipping, possible doping etc. Where a judge sees a horse which nevertheless gives rise to suspicion, the judge should stop judging and ask to consult the DC (in conjunction with other judges if a jury is being used). Where the DC is unwilling or unable to take action the judge may:

- a. award nil marks or lowest place
- b. award such other marks or placing as he thinks fit.

Catalogues Judges are not allowed (Rule 2) to consult the catalogue. If presented with a catalogue before the show, the judge should return it unopened with a request that it be re-presented after the show with the marks/placings recorded in it.

Gala Evenings. Many shows are social occasions and organizers sometimes arrange gala evenings to which the judges are invited. Rule 6 states that judges may not accept hospitality from any exhibitors; provided judges use their commonsense and integrity they may attend such evenings to support the organizers and they are not in breach of Rule 6.

Judges' Recommendations. Experienced judges can be a great help to organizers by giving a constructive critique of the show afterwards privately to the organizer.

DC Rules

DCs are bound by the relevant rules (copy attached). Judges should note especially:

- a. Judges may initiate DC enquiries (Rule 12b).
- b. DCs may inquire into judges conduct and report to EAHSC (Rule 14)
- c. Offences by handlers are covered by Rule 15.
- d. Offences concerning disguising, cruelty and doping are covered by Rule 16.

Judging systems and ring procedure

There are a wide variety of judging systems and methods in general use around the world.

EAHSC policy has been and still is, aimed at encouraging innovation and improvement in these systems and not to lay down a definitive single best system.

Experience shows that whatever system is used works well with good judges and does not work at all with bad ones. Don't blame the system if the crowd burn down the stands!

Judges must be aware of the systems in common use and be able to judge effectively using any system.

Comparative and Non-Comparative

Systems fall into two groups based on different philosophies.

a. Comparative. The basis of choice is comparison between animals forward in the class. After inspection the judge picks a winner and places the rest in order of preference. In Great Britain one judge, or occasionally two judges conferring, are used. In USA major shows use three judges who list their first ten preferences in order on a card independently of each other.

b. Non-Comparative. Horses are marked out of a total mark against an ideal standard in the judges' mind. This a fundamentally different mental process from comparing horses with each other. When using non-comparative systems judges must NOT compare the horses against each other and try to fix the marks afterwards.

Non-comparative marking systems

a. Global marks. These systems require the judge to give each exhibit one mark out of a possible total figure. This total usually ranges from a minimum of 10 to a maximum of 100. Many shows use 20.

b. Topics. The horse is divided into topics each with a possible total mark. One method is using three topics, usually: Type, Conformation and Action, with 20 marks per topic. Another uses five topics, viz: Type, Head and Neck, Body and Topline, Legs, Action, with 10 points for each.

One five topic system allows 5 points for each heading but then multiplies the marks scored by different factors, e.g. Type x 6, Action x 5 and the other three x 3 each.

c. Ties are possible using these systems. Usual methods of resolving them are:

- i. by inspection and majority vote if a jury is used.
- ii. conferring of the jury.
- iii. referee judge.
- iv. By seniority of topics, e.g. highest marks for type, if equal, highest marks for head and neck, etc.

Ring Procedure

Under all systems the judging starts by walking the whole class round the arena. At this stage judges should, under comparative systems, make an initial selection on overall impression - mainly type and on the walk. After three circuits (or less) individual judging should start.

When judging non-comparatively, the horses leave the arena after the walk round. Judges should use this preliminary walk round as an indication of the overall standard of the class, e.g. high, average or below average, purely as an indication of the likely range of marks. For example if it is a very good class, the winner should be in the 90% region, if an average class, not over 80% and if below average around 70%. It is important to estimate this with reasonable accuracy in order to give the first horse forward a fair chance of being properly assessed. (Judges are often nervous of giving the first horse forward a high mark). Trying to judge the whole class on the walk round and awarding marks afterwards is an abuse of the system.

Ring Procedure

a. Comparative Systems. A ring steward should control the

entry, circulation and disposition in the ring of the entries. Judges should communicate through the ring steward, NOT directly to exhibitors. A good ring steward is vital to ensure order and timeliness. The judge(s) should brief the ring steward prior to the class on how he (they) want to judge each class.

b. Non-Comparative systems. The ring steward's duties in the ring are identical to a) above except that he has to work with usually a jury of several judges. He must therefore insist that each judging phase is completed on time and may order the next phase before all judges are ready.

Methods in the Ring

Comparative (UK)

- a. Horses enter and walk round. After three circuits the judge pulls in his preliminary order.
- b. The judge walks down the line assessing each horse from both sides, front and rear. He should adjust the order at this stage, asking the steward to move horses up or down the line.
- c. On reaching the end of the line, the judge should walk back to the top of the line, either in front or behind the horses, checking the correctness of the order.
- d. Each horse is then pulled out of the line and required to stand out in front of the stands, then walk away 10 - 15 paces and trot back to assess action. It should continue to trot round the ring to assess movement at the trot. The order may be changed in the line up at this stage too if required. In a very big class it can be helpful.
- e. The whole class is walked round again to select the final order. Changes can be made after the final pull in if necessary.

Non-Comparative

- a. All horses walk round three times and withdraw.
- b. Horses are judged individually in catalogue order as follows:
 - i. Stand in front of judges,
 - ii. Walk away and back,
 - iii. Trot in a triangle away, to the right, return,
 - iv. Stand up in front of judges.

Championships

Normally at breed shows there are classes for each age and sex as follows:

- a. Juniors - (foals), yearlings, two year olds, three year olds.
- b. Seniors - three to four categories, i.e. 4-6 year olds 7-10 year olds, 11 and older.

The winners of the Junior and Senior classes are put against each other in a further class called a Championship. Judges select a Champion comparatively with or without discussion. When a reserve champion prize is listed, the second placed horse to the champion should be introduced to be judged against the other first prize winners. This is because it can happen that one class is superior to the others. Second placed horses should be forward and kept to one side or to the rear of the ring.

If the number of judges in a jury equals the number of first prize winners, or the number of judges is even, ties are possible. Ties are broken by appointing a tie breaker judge for each championship or by taking into account the number of marks awarded in the class, except when more than one panel of judges is involved.