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Analysis of head acceleration events in collegiate-level American football: A combination of qualitative video analysis and in-vivo head kinematic measurement --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>The contact nature of American football has made head acceleration exposure a concern. We aimed to quantify the head kinematics associated with direct helmet contact and inertial head loading events in collegiate-level American football. A cohort of collegiate-level players were equipped with instrumented mouthguards synchronised with time-stamped multiple camera-view video footage of matches and practice. Video-verified contact events were identified as direct helmet contact or inertial head loading events and categorised as blocking, blocked, tackling, tackled or ground contact. Linear mixed-effects models were utilised to compare peak head kinematics between contact event categories. The timestamp-based cross-verification of the video analysis and instrumented mouthguard approach resulted in 200 and 328 direct helmet contact and inertial head loading cases, respectively. Median linear acceleration, angular acceleration and angular velocity for inertial head loading cases was greater than direct helmet contact events by 8% ($p=0.007$), 55% ($p<0.001$) and 4% ($p=0.007$), respectively. Median head kinematics for all contact event categories appeared similar with no pairwise comparison resulting in statistical significance ($p>0.05$). The study highlights the potential of combining qualitative video analysis with in-vivo head kinematics measurements. The findings suggest that a number of direct helmet contact events sustained in American football are of lower magnitude to what is sustained during regular play (i.e. from inertial head loading). Additionally, the findings illustrate the importance of including all contact events, including direct helmet contact and inertial head loading cases, when assessing head acceleration exposure and player load during a season of American football.</p>

Analysis of head acceleration events in collegiate-level American football: A combination of qualitative video analysis and in-vivo head kinematic measurement

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1 Analysis of head acceleration events in collegiate-level American football: A combination of 2 qualitative video analysis and in-vivo head kinematic measurement

3 Abstract

4 The contact nature of American football has made head acceleration exposure a concern. We aimed to
5 quantify the head kinematics associated with direct helmet contact and inertial head loading events in
6 collegiate-level American football. A cohort of collegiate-level players were equipped with
7 instrumented mouthguards **synchronised with time-stamped multiple camera-view video footage of**
8 **matches and practice**. Video-verified contact events were **identified as direct helmet contact or inertial**
9 **head loading events** and categorised as blocking, blocked, tackling, tackled or ground contact. Linear
10 mixed-effects models were utilised to compare peak **head kinematics** between contact event categories.
11 The timestamp-based cross-verification of the video analysis and instrumented mouthguard approach
12 resulted in 200 and 328 direct helmet contact and inertial head loading cases, respectively. **Median**
13 **linear acceleration, angular acceleration and angular velocity for inertial head loading cases was greater**
14 **than direct helmet contact events by 8% (p=0.007), 55% (p<0.001) and 4% (p=0.007), respectively.**
15 Median head kinematics for all contact event categories appeared similar with no pairwise comparison
16 resulting in statistical significance (p>0.05). The study highlights the potential of combining qualitative
17 video analysis with in-vivo head kinematics measurements. **The findings suggest that a number of direct**
18 **helmet contact events sustained in American football are of lower magnitude to what is sustained during**
19 **regular play (i.e. from inertial head loading).** Additionally, the findings illustrate the **importance of**
20 **including** all contact events, including direct helmet contact and inertial head loading cases, when
21 assessing head acceleration exposure and player load during a season of American football.

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26 **1. Introduction**

27 American football is a dynamic and high-impact collision sport. Contact events are usually initiated
28 through blocking and tackling (Lessley et al., 2018). The physical and high-impact nature of American
29 football and similar contact sports has made concussion a concern (Lessley et al., 2018). The concussion
30 incidence in the NFL was recently estimated to be greater than 0.6 concussions per game (Nathanson
31 et al., 2016). Concussion prevention has become a priority in American football due to the growing
32 concern surrounding its medium and long-term consequences. A growing evidence base suggests that
33 after a concussion, athletes have a higher risk of sustaining another concussion and musculoskeletal
34 injuries (Cross et al., 2016, Abrahams et al., 2014). A growing body of literature also suggests a potential
35 long-term relationship between repeated concussion injuries and chronic traumatic encephalopathy and
36 its associated neurological conditions (Stern et al., 2011).

37 Furthermore, there is a concept that repeatedly engaging in sub-concussive impacts can have an adverse
38 effect on brain health (Stern et al., 2011, Baugh et al., 2012). Sub-concussion has previously been
39 defined by head motions “that do not result in symptoms typically used to define concussion such as
40 loss of consciousness, amnesia, confusion and headache” (Merchant-Borna et al., 2016). This definition
41 presents some challenges as a lower threshold for sub-concussive impacts has not been established.
42 However, for practical purposes, impacts that result in less than 10g head acceleration have generally
43 not been considered (Beckwith et al., 2013). Head impacts under 10g have been reported for activities
44 such as walking, jumping, running, and sitting, and thus are considered non-impact events (Ng et al.,
45 2006). Although the long-term effects are not yet fully understood, it is postulated that repeatedly
46 engaging in sub-concussive impacts may influence long term neurodegeneration (Baugh et al., 2012,
47 Stern et al., 2011). However, more longitudinal research studies are needed as large gaps remain in our
48 understanding of the relationships between playing contact sports and long-term brain health in retired
49 athletes (Cunningham et al., 2018). **Concussion prevention strategies by college football governing**
50 **bodies have focused on limiting athlete head impact frequency and severity during practices. For**
51 **example, the Ivy League and Pac-12 conferences have placed restrictions on the amount of contact**
52 **permitted in practice for American football (Baugh and Kroshus, 2016). In 2017, the NCAA eliminated**

53 two-a-day practices during the preseason for all Division I Football Bowl Subdivision programs
54 (Stemper et al., 2019). However, a recent study found this intervention to have an unintended
55 consequence with teams showing an increase in head impact exposure during the preseason (Stemper
56 et al., 2019). It was indicated that this was mainly due to increased contact intensity over the same
57 number of practice sessions (Stemper et al., 2019). One study recently found that reducing player
58 contact speed and improving contact technique were effective methods for reducing head impact
59 exposure in youth American football (Kelley et al., 2018).

60 Measurement of head kinematics during sports collisions is essential for understanding the severity and
61 mechanism of concussion injuries (Wu et al., 2016b). In American football, most studies have used
62 helmet-based sensor approaches (Brolinson et al., 2006, Duma et al., 2005, Rowson et al., 2012). More
63 recently in American football, studies have used mouthguard-based sensor approaches. However the
64 studies have tended to focus on quantifying the false-positive rates of the sensors (Kuo et al., 2018,
65 Bartsch et al., 2019) or do not involve video review (Kawata et al., 2017). A plethora of biomechanical
66 research has linked head kinematics of a single impact event to concussion and other brain injuries
67 (Pellman et al., 2003, Viano et al., 2007). However, it has also been argued that the number and
68 magnitude of sub-concussive hits and the time between hits should all be considered (Merchant-Borna
69 et al., 2016, Stemper et al., 2018). Recent studies illustrated that increased levels of repetitive head
70 acceleration exposure in contact sports may be a second biomechanical mechanism for concussion
71 (Stemper et al., 2018, Talavage et al., 2014). Therefore, more frequent or severe head accelerations may
72 reduce an athlete's tolerance for injury, making them increasingly susceptible to concussion from lower
73 magnitude head impacts (Stemper et al., 2018). This clearly illustrates the importance of monitoring
74 head kinematics in practices and matches. Additionally, we need to know more about the head
75 kinematics experienced during inertial head loading cases (i.e. head accelerations from forces
76 transmitted through the neck) and specific contact events (e.g. tackling and blocking) in order to guide
77 strategies to reduce the head acceleration exposure environment in American football (Tierney et al.,
78 2018b, Tierney and Simms, 2017).

79 In this study, we equipped players from a NCAA Division I American football team with instrumented
80 mouthguards to measure head kinematics during regular season matches and practice (Kuo et al.,
81 2018). Separately and independently, qualitative video analysis of each match and practice was
82 conducted to categorise the contact events for each player equipped with an instrumented mouthguard.
83 The combined approach enabled a qualitative assessment of video-verified head acceleration events in
84 order to identify a difference in head kinematics between different contact events.

85 2. Methods

86 This study utilised the dataset from Kuo et al. (2018) by analysing video footage of contact events
87 involving players equipped with instrumented mouthguards during the Stanford University American
88 football 2015 fall season. A total of seven players were recruited through the Stanford Internal Review
89 Board (IRB #34943) representing mainly offensive playing positions for a number of matches and
90 practices, see Table 1. **The mouthguards were custom-fit using upper dentition impressions moulds.**
91 The mouthguards were instrumented with accelerometers and gyroscopes to record 3D-head kinematics
92 on the field. The tri-axial linear accelerometer (H3LIS331) and tri-axial gyroscope (ITG3701A) were
93 both sampling at 1000Hz. **Wu et al. (2016a) found that for helmeted impacts, 1000Hz sample rate with**
94 **500Hz bandwidth on the accelerometer can achieve less than 10% attenuation in the peak.** The
95 mouthguards utilized in this study were previously validated in both cadaveric and anthropomorphic
96 dummy testing in impact conditions typical of American football and with an American football helmet
97 (Kuo et al., 2016). The mouthguard is thought to be an ideal form factor for measuring head impact
98 kinematics as it couples directly to the upper dentition, which itself is attached to the skull via stiff
99 ligaments. These mouthguards were shown to measure linear acceleration and angular velocity within
100 10% of reference measurements at the head center of gravity (COG). Angular acceleration
101 measurements typically underestimated reference measurements by up to 20%, likely due to bandwidth
102 limitations of the angular rate gyroscope (Wu et al., 2016a). While mandible interactions might affect
103 the accuracy of the mouthguard, previous validation suggests that mandible interactions produce high
104 frequency signals in the 80-100Hz range, and thus we removed impacts with peak content in this
105 frequency range as likely having measurement artefacts from the mandible (Kuo et al., 2016).

106 The mouthguard recorded linear and angular kinematic time histories over 100ms around a typical 10g
107 head COG linear acceleration magnitude threshold (10ms pre-impact, 90ms post-impact). Linear
108 accelerations were transformed back to the head COG using rigid body dynamics assumptions (Kuo et
109 al., 2018). Impacts collected on the instrumented mouthguards were time stamped with 1 second
110 resolution enabling synchronisation with the video footage. For this study, a head acceleration event
111 was defined as any impact that exceeded the **head COG** 10g linear acceleration magnitude threshold,
112 and thus included direct helmet contact cases and inertial head loading cases.

113 **Insert Table 1 near here**

114 A two stage multiple-camera view video analysis approach was undertaken for all contact events. All
115 cameras recorded at 30 frames-per-second and a resolution of 1080p. For the first round of video
116 analysis, trained raters were tasked with tracking one player in each video and labelling their activity as
117 either **Direct Helmet Contact**, **Inertial Head Loading**, No Contact, Obstructed View, Idle, and Not in
118 Video. **Kuo et al. (2018) found that the trained raters correctly classified an average of 88% of the direct**
119 **helmet contact events as part of a reliability analysis.** Each contact event was categorised based on the
120 player activity i.e. blocking, blocked, tackling, tackled and ground contact, see Figure 1 (Lessley et al.,
121 2018). The timestamp from each video-based contact event was cross-referenced with the instrumented
122 mouthguard reading. No diagnosed concussions were sustained by the cohort when taking part in this
123 study.

124 All statistical analyses were conducted in R Studio. Our dependent variables included peak linear
125 acceleration, peak angular acceleration and peak angular velocity, treated as continuous variables.
126 Independent variables included the contact event categories of blocked, blocking, ground, tackled,
127 tackling which were treated as categorical variables. The data were visually inspected for normality
128 using histograms and Q-Q plots. The data did not always follow an approximated normal distribution
129 and were consequently expressed as the median and quartile range (lower [25%] to upper [75%]
130 quartiles). As a result, to reduce the error from non-uniform data, all dependent variables were log-
131 transformed prior to analysis.

132 Our design located units of analysis (e.g. linear and angular head accelerations) nested in clusters of
133 units (i.e. different players and matches/training). We therefore adopted linear mixed-effects models
134 (via *lme4* package) to compare peak linear accelerations, peak angular accelerations and peak angular
135 velocities between the contact event categories (Model 1) and between body and helmet contacts
136 (Model 2). For model 1, player and match/training identification numbers were included as random
137 intercepts to account for the between-player and between-match variability in the dependent variables.
138 Contact event category was entered as a separate categorical fixed effect to compare differences
139 between the contact events for the dependent variables. For model 2, player and match/training
140 identification, and tackle category were included as random intercepts with body and helmet contacts
141 included as a categorical fixed effect to compare differences between the two contact types for each of
142 the dependent variables. Effect size differences (95% confidence intervals) were estimated for each of
143 the comparisons from the ratio of the observed mean difference to the pooled standard deviation
144 (random effects and the residual error). These were qualitatively interpreted as trivial (<0.2), small (0.2
145 to <0.60), moderate (0.60 to <1.20), large 272 (1.20 to <2.00) and very large (≥ 2.0). For all comparisons,
146 p values were used to determine significance, with an alpha level set at $p < 0.05$.

147 **Insert Figure 1 near here**

148 **3. Results**

149 The timestamp-based cross-verification of the video analysis and instrumented mouthguard approach
150 resulted in 528 contact events (200 and 328 direct helmet contact and inertial head loading cases,
151 respectively) being labelled with the majority occurring in the blocking phase of play. Inertial head
152 loading cases resulted in higher head kinematics than direct helmet contact events, with (Figure 2).
153 Median linear acceleration, angular acceleration and angular velocity for inertial head loading cases
154 was greater than direct helmet contact events by 8% ($p=0.007$; $ES=0.229$; Interpretation=Small), 55%
155 ($p < 0.001$ $ES=0.366$; Interpretation=Small) and 4% ($p=0.007$; $ES=0.232$; Interpretation=Small)
156 respectively.

157 **Insert Figure 2 near here**

158 Median head kinematics for all contact event categories appear similar (Figure 3). A maximum
159 percentage difference was identified between Tackling and Tackled for peak linear acceleration, with
160 tackling resulting in 47% higher median linear acceleration than being tackled. In contrast, a maximum
161 percentage difference was identified between Tackling and Tackled for peak angular acceleration, with
162 being tackled resulting in 56% higher median angular acceleration than tackling. Ground contacts
163 resulted in the highest median peak head angular velocity values. No contact event pairwise comparison
164 for the peak head kinematics resulted in statistical significance ($p>0.05$) with all effect sizes interpreted
165 at trivial or small (Table 2).

166 **Insert Figure 3 near here**

167 **Insert Table 2 near here**

168 **4. Discussion**

169 This study utilised an instrumented mouthguard and independent video analysis protocol to assess
170 differences between head kinematics from various contact events from a cohort of collegiate level
171 American football players throughout fall season. The study quantified the median head kinematics for
172 blocking, blocked, tackling, tackled and ground contact events in American football, the magnitudes of
173 which appear similar. The findings illustrate that it is important to include all contact events, including
174 direct helmet contact and inertial head loading cases, when assessing head acceleration exposure and
175 player load during a season of American football. For a given impact condition, it is expected that direct
176 helmet contact would result in higher head kinematics than inertial head loading from an impact to the
177 body. This explains why the majority of concussions in American football are from direct helmet
178 contact(Lessley et al., 2018), and thus biomechanical research has focused on direct helmet contact
179 events (Pellman et al., 2003, Viano et al., 2007, Kuo et al., 2018). However, the incidence of direct
180 helmet contacts events that result in head kinematics similar to reported values concussive injuries did
181 not occur in this study. Instead, head kinematics from inertial head loading events were of higher
182 magnitude than direct helmet contacts events and occurred more frequently. This suggests that a number
183 of direct helmet contact events sustained in American football are not of the magnitude that would result

184 in a concussion injury. Instead they are of similar magnitude to what is sustained during regular play
185 (i.e. from inertial head loading).

186 The methodology utilised in this study highlights the importance of a combined biomechanical
187 (instrumented mouthguard) and qualitative (video analysis) approach for further understanding phase
188 of play-specific head kinematics in contact sports. Qualitative video analysis approaches alone
189 generally focus on direct-head/helmet contact events, and thus miss vital information from inertial head
190 loading events (Tierney et al., 2016b). Biomechanical instrumented mouthguard approaches alone
191 without video verification may be prone to false-positive readings (Kuo et al., 2018). Furthermore, it
192 provides little information on the causes of impacts that trigger the mouthguard which is essential for
193 guiding head acceleration exposure and concussion prevention strategies. Clearly examining and
194 monitoring the extent to which practices can be modified to reduce contact is an important step (Baugh
195 and Kroshus, 2016, Stemper et al., 2019). Reducing the intensity of contact practices could be an
196 effective method in reducing head impact exposure and severity, particularly for players that have been
197 exposed to a high number of measured head accelerations in recent matches or practices.

198 Video analysis is a time consuming process, and thus has limited feasibility for everyday use. However,
199 biomechanical and automation techniques are evolving (Xing et al., 2010, Tierney et al., 2016a, Tierney
200 et al., 2018a). Video verification of mouthguard-recorded impacts can improve the true positive rate of
201 impact detection algorithms utilized by the devices but cannot assess false negatives (Wu et al., 2014).
202 Only two camera views recording at 30 frames-per-second were available for each contact event
203 meaning that player views were sometimes obstructed. It may be the case that helmet contact occurred
204 as a secondary impact mechanism between video frames during certain inertial head loading events.

205 Improved video quality and quantity would improve reliability in labelling events. Access to the camera
206 systems utilised for broadcast video footage with higher frame rate video would be particularly useful
207 for matches. Instrumented mouthguards can be susceptible to mandible interference, resulting in
208 overestimation of head kinematics, particularly angular acceleration. However, mandible interference
209 typically occurs at a particular frequency (80-100Hz) that is faster than most American football impacts,
210 and thus can be identified and removed from analysis and mitigated against with better mouthguard

211 design (Kuo et al., 2016). Even though, custom-fit mouthguard were utilised, further work needs to be
212 conducted on the influence of mouthguard fit on head kinematic measurement error. The sample size
213 of seven players from a single college team during a subset of practices and matches is relatively small.
214 Therefore, the purpose of this study was not to report head impact exposure. Despite the small sample
215 size, kinematic magnitudes fall within the range of previously reported American football head
216 kinematic measures (Beckwith et al., 2013). The detailed analysis and findings from this study can
217 inform future larger-scale field study designs. For future work, equipping multiple teams for an entire
218 season of matches and practices would be beneficial.

219 **5. Conclusion**

220 The study highlights the potential of combining qualitative video analysis with in-vivo head kinematics
221 measurements. Head kinematics from inertial head loading events were of higher magnitude than direct
222 helmet contacts events and occurred more frequently. This suggests that a number of direct helmet
223 contact events sustained in American football are of similar magnitude to what is sustained during
224 regular play (i.e. from inertial head loading). The study quantified the median head kinematics for
225 blocking, blocked, tackling, tackled and ground contact events in American football, the magnitudes of
226 which appear similar. The findings illustrate that it is important to include all contact events, including
227 direct helmet contact and inertial head loading cases, when assessing head acceleration exposure and
228 player load during a season of American football. Although it is important to coach contact technique
229 for player performance, examining and monitoring the extent to which practices can be modified to
230 reduce head acceleration exposure and severity is a necessary future step.

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233 **Conflict of interest statement**

234 Some authors are developing the Stanford Mouthguard used in this study as a research device to study
235 mild traumatic brain injury. Some of the authors are co-inventors on Stanford-owned patents related to
236 head impact detection (patent 14/199,716: “Device for Detecting On-Body Impacts”) and mechanical

237 design (patent 15/373,454:“Oral Appliance for Measuring Head Motions by Isolating Sensors from Jaw
238 Perturbance”) of an instrumented mouthguard. This does not alter our adherence to the Journal of
239 Biomechanics policies on sharing data and materials.

240

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343 **Table 1.** The number of practices and matches the mouthguards were worn for each playing position.

Position Category	Player Position	Matches	Practices
Backs and Receivers	Fullback	1	4
	Running Back	2	5
	Wide Receiver	0	3
Offensive Linemen	Tight End	1	0
	Guard	1	4
	Centre	2	3
Linebackers	Inside Linebacker	4	3
	Total	11	22

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347 **Table 2.** p values and effect size (with interpretation) from the linear mixed-effects model for contact
 348 event pairwise comparisons for linear acceleration, angular acceleration and angular velocity.

	<u>Linear Acceleration</u>		<u>Angular Acceleration</u>		<u>Angular Velocity</u>	
	p value	Effect Size	p value	Effect Size	p value	Effect Size
Blocked vs Blocking	0.082	0.330 (Small)	0.105	0.292 (Small)	0.394	0.149 (Trivial)
Blocked vs Ground	0.783	0.068 (Trivial)	0.385	0.202 (Small)	0.702	0.089 (Trivial)
Blocked vs Tackled	0.305	0.349 (Small)	0.841	-0.066 (Trivial)	0.723	-0.113 (Trivial)
Blocked vs Tackling	0.664	0.133 (Trivial)	0.436	0.225 (Small)	0.664	0.124 (Trivial)
Blocking vs Ground	0.171	-0.262 (Small)	0.613	-0.090 (Trivial)	0.735	-0.060 (Trivial)
Blocking vs Tackled	0.949	0.019 (Trivial)	0.209	-0.358 (Small)	0.336	-0.262 (Small)
Blocking vs Tackling	0.509	-0.198 (Trivial)	0.814	-0.067 (Trivial)	0.928	-0.025 (Trivial)
Ground vs Tackled	0.401	0.281 (Small)	0.404	-0.268 (Small)	0.518	-0.201 (Small)
Ground vs Tackling	0.843	0.064 (Trivial)	0.942	0.023 (Trivial)	0.908	0.035 (Trivial)
Tackled vs Tackling	0.596	-0.216 (Small)	0.463	0.290 (Small)	0.535	0.237 (Small)

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351 **Figure Captions**

352 **Figure 1.** (a) Blocking (red jersey), (b) Blocked (white jersey), (c) Tackling (red jersey), (d) Tackled
353 (white jersey), (e) ground contact event and (f) the instrumented mouthguard utilised for this study.

354 **Figure 2.** Median head kinematics (red line) with quartiles (box) and extremes (whiskers) based on
355 direct helmet contact and inertial head loading events.

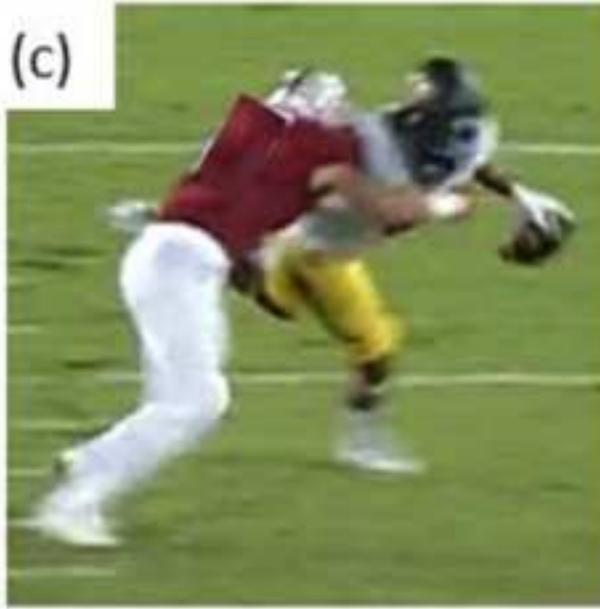
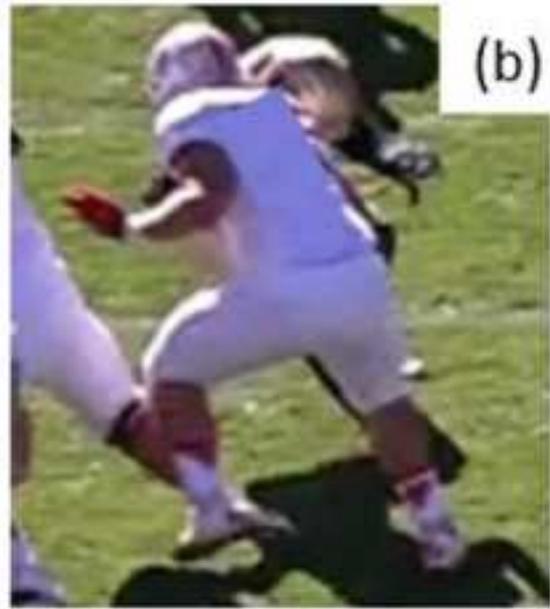
356 **Figure 3.** Median head kinematics (red line) with quartiles (box) and extremes (whiskers) based on
357 contact event type.

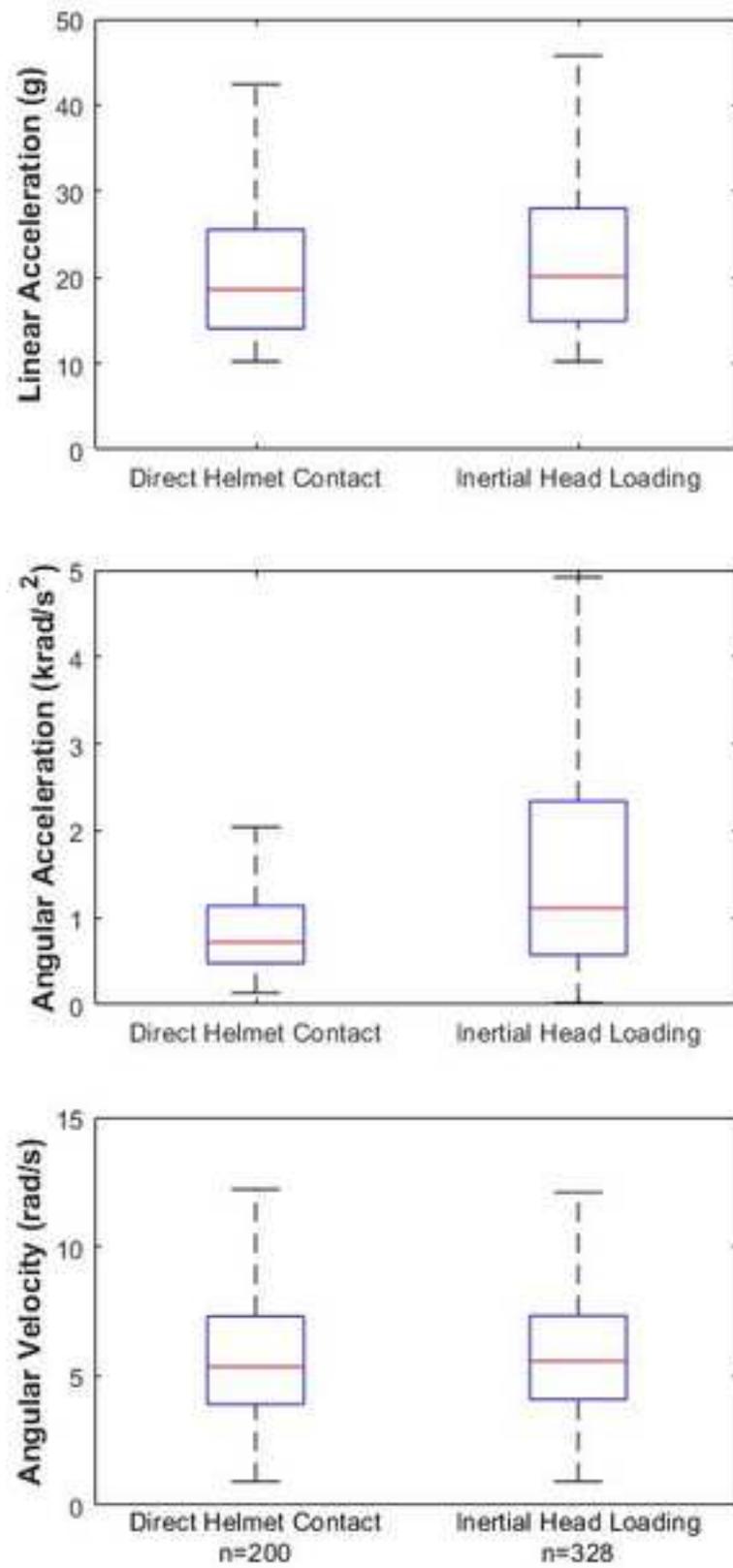
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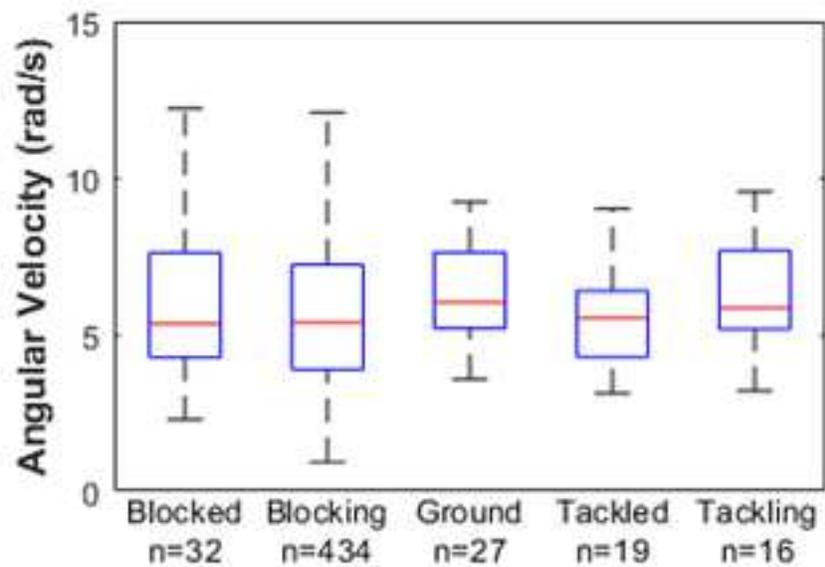
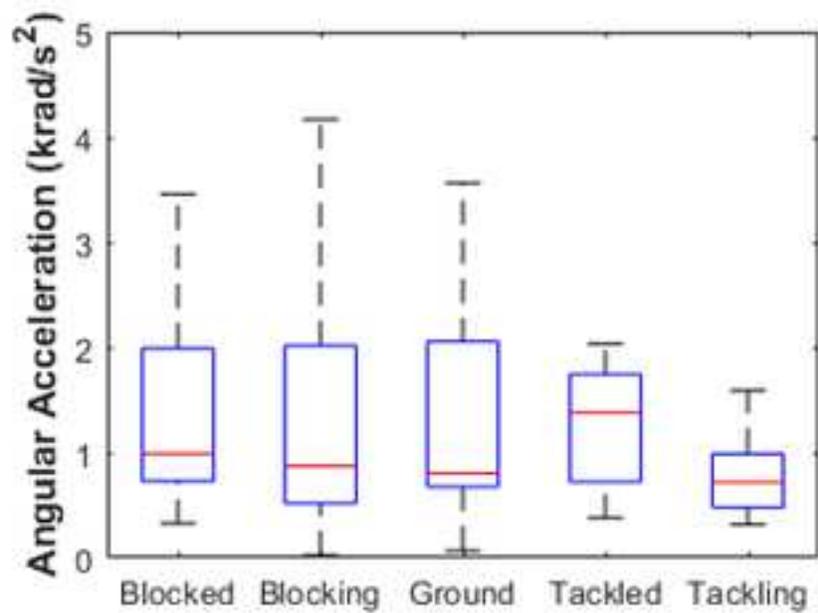
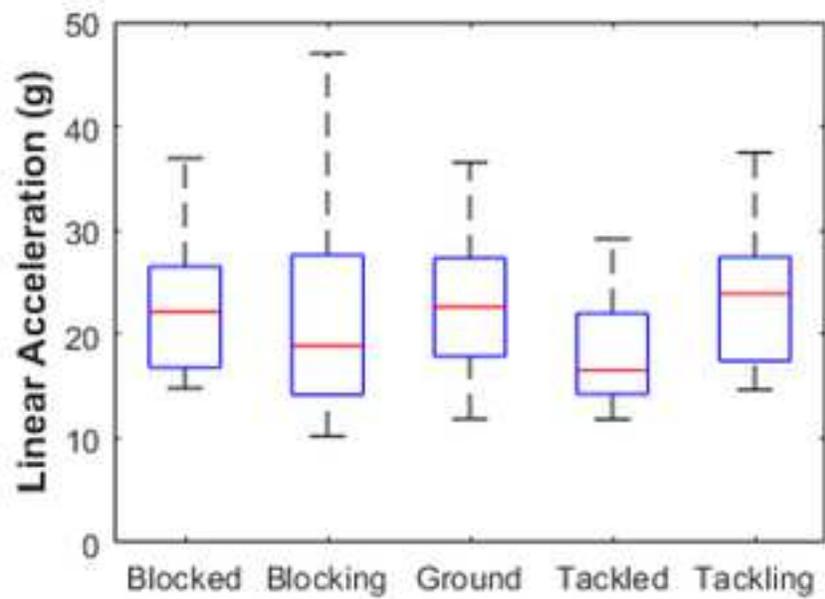
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Conflict of interest statement

Some authors are developing the Stanford Mouthguard used in this study as a research device to study mild traumatic brain injury. Some of the authors are co-inventors on Stanford-owned patents related to head impact detection (patent 14/199,716: “Device for Detecting On-Body Impacts”) and mechanical design (patent 15/373,454: “Oral Appliance for Measuring Head Motions by Isolating Sensors from Jaw Perturbance”) of an instrumented mouthguard. This does not alter our adherence to the Journal of Biomechanics policies on sharing data and materials.