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Abstract

 Standards for sports headgear were introduced as far back as the 1960s and many have remained substantially unchanged to present day. Since this time, headgear has virtually eliminated catastrophic head injuries such as skull fractures and changed the landscape of head injuries in sports. Mild traumatic brain injury (mTBI) is now a prevalent concern and the effectiveness of headgear in mitigating mTBI is inconclusive for most sports. Given that most current headgear standards are confined to attenuating linear head mechanics and recent brain injury studies have underscored the importance of angular mechanics in the genesis of mTBI, new or expanded standards are needed to foster headgear development and assess headgear performance that addresses all types of sport-related head and brain injuries. The aim of this review is to provide a basis for developing new sports headgear impact tests for standards by summarizing and critiquing: 1) impact testing procedures currently codified in published headgear standards for sports and 2) new or proposed headgear impact test procedures in published literature and/or relevant conferences. Research areas identified as needing further knowledge to support standards test development include defining sports-specific

 head impact conditions, establishing injury and age appropriate headgear assessment criteria, and the development of headgear specific head and neck surrogates for at-risk populations.

Keywords: Headgear, helmet, impact testing, head injury, injury prevention, standards

1. Introduction

 Protective headgear is used in many sports to reduce the risk of head injuries, being any insult to the scalp, skull or brain [1]. The introduction and development of sports headgear was typically in reaction to events of catastrophic head trauma such as death or severe brain injury [2,3]. Headgear has been remarkably successful in preventing these types of head injuries, with significant risk reductions realised in bicycling, American football (subsequently referred to as football), ice hockey (subsequently referred to as hockey), skiing and snowboarding [4–7]. This success is primarily related to preventing skull fractures, a role for which hard shell helmets have demonstrated effectiveness in literature dating back to the 1960s [8]. Skull protection, however, does not necessarily preclude all injury to the brain. The rate of sports-related mild traumatic brain injury (mTBI) has been steadily increasing over the past two decades, likely due to improvements in detection but possibly due to a true increase in incidence [9]. The evidence for headgear effectiveness in preventing mTBI is inconclusive in most sports [4,5,10–13], motivating new research efforts into evaluating headgear for reducing the risk of mTBI.

 The most important aspect of sports headgear for prevention of head injury is how it performs in an impact, so long as the helmet is engaged in the impact (i.e. has adequate coverage), and remains in place for the impact events (i.e. has an effective retention system). Effective headgear prevents injury by redistributing the impact force on the head both spatially and temporally, thus attenuating the peak force and peak strain experienced by the tissues of the head. In order to assess impact performance of headgear designs, impact tests are performed in the laboratory. Ideally, headgear would be evaluated in all potential impact orientations, using a test surrogate that responds like a human and mimics injuries exactly as a human would sustain injuries, and assesses the risk of all possible head injuries. In reality, headgear is typically designed to satisfy the requirements of a limited number of impact

 tests defined in safety certification standards. These discrete tests are pragmatic simplifications of the wide range of impact events and human head impact responses that occur in sports.

 The development of headgear standards for bicycling, football and hockey is well-documented. Impact tests for these applications first involved a guided drop of a humanoid headform and were introduced between 1961 and 1973. The standards built upon the then-existing helmet requirements for motorcyclists and motor sport participants [3,14–16], and considered the guided drop test representative of critical injurious impact scenarios occurring at the time. For instance, hockey helmet standard development was primarily concerned with minimising the force on the skull in a backwards fall and an occipital impact with the ice [15], Since the introduction of headgear standards and their success in preventing catastrophic head injuries, the landscape of head injuries in sports has changed. Today, the primary head injury of concern in hockey is mTBI resulting mainly from checking [17– 19], an impact scenario considered to be of less importance during initial hockey helmet standards development [15]. This change in head injuries and injurious impact conditions has occurred in many sports, and warrants a review of certification standards and consideration of new requirements.

 Injury biomechanics research has progressed considerably since the first headgear impact tests were devised and standards were implemented, particularly those aspects relating to brain injury. It is now known that many brain injuries, such as diffuse axonal injury and subdural haematoma, correlate with the rotational response of the head in an impact [20–27]. Since many current headgear impact testing standards neither measure nor allow rotation of the surrogate head, some researchers have asserted that these standards inadequately represent most real helmeted head impacts and thus have limited applicability for evaluating brain injury risk [2,28–36]. Many new impact test methods are emerging in headgear research, based on both recreating specific brain injury mechanisms and head impact scenarios that more closely resemble injurious events in sports. Novel headgear technologies are also being introduced, touting benefits in brain injury risk reduction [35,37–39]. In order to determine whether these promoted benefits will be realised in real-world impacts, it is important to consider and review the methods in which these novel headgear were tested. For future headgear standards, an appropriate method of assessing the risk, or the relative risk, of TBI is needed. The objective of this

- study is to provide a basis for developing new sports headgear impact tests for standards by summarizing and critiquing: 1) impact testing procedures in current headgear standards for sports and 2) new headgear test methods in published literature and/or at relevant conferences.
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2. Impact attenuation testing in current headgear standards for sports

 The impact performance requirements within headgear standards for sports, set by the Canadian Standards Association (CSA), the U.S. Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC), the American National Standards Institute (ANSI), the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM), the National Operating Committee on Standards for Athletic Equipment (NOCSAE), and the Snell Memorial Foundation, the European Committee for Standardization (CEN), and the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), are reviewed in [Table 1.](#page-5-0) The following sections describe the impact condition, test surrogate and headgear assessment criteria specified for energy attenuation tests within the reviewed standards. Supplementary requirements for headgear within these standards, such as retention system requirements, are not reviewed.

104 **Table 1 Summary of impact energy attenuation tests in headgear standards for sports**

105 a Anvils are rigid. MEP (Modular Elastomer Programmer) pad is a molded polyurethane thermoplastic elastomer with consistent and repeatable impact properties. Softball 106 mass 166-174 g, circumference 10.875-11.125 inches (276.2 – 282.6 mm) and Compression-Displacement at 0.25 inches (6.4 mm) of no less than 300 lbs (1334.5 N).

107 Baseball mass 142-149 g, circumference 9-9.25 inches (228.6 – 235.0 mm), Coefficient of Restitution of 0.5-0.55, Compression-Displacement at 0.25 inches (6.4 mm) of

108 200-300 lbs (889.6 – 1334.5 N) and construction as specified by Major League Baseball. Aluminium tube striker is 500 mm long from pivot point to strike point and a

109 further 50 mm long beyond the strike point, external diameter of 80 mm and mass of 4.5 kg uniformly distributed along its length.

^b Bolded values are specified in the standard. Values in grey have been calculated here based on the values provided in the standard. All calculations of impact energy, impact

111 velocity and drop height are based on a drop assembly mass of 5 kg unless otherwise specified.

112 * SI (Severity Index). SI of 1200 has been approximated to be equivalent to 215g in a typical helmet impact.[83]

¹¹³ ** Impact speed and peak allowable acceleration criterion change based on test headform size. Impact speeds and thresholds listed here are for headform size J.

2.1 Impact condition

 In the reviewed headgear standards, the impact test methods typically involve a linear guided drop of the helmeted headform onto an impact surface as shown in Figure 1. This test method restricts the headform from rotating, limiting the motion to a single axis.

Another type of falling headform impact test, in addition to the guided headform drop, is specified in

the ISO standard for hockey [55] and the CEN standard for alpine skiers and snowboarders [60]. The

additional method involves a free-falling headform with a guiding carrier, shown in Fig. 2, which

allows unrestricted headform motion following the impact event. This free-falling headform impact

- test is the only test method specified in the CEN standard for bicycle helmets [49].
- Baseball and softball helmet standards do not use a falling headform drop test method and are instead tested by firing baseball and softball projectiles at a helmeted headform [65–67].
- In addition to the guided headform drop test, martial arts headgear is tested in ASTM F2397-09 using an apparatus designed to strike the protected headform with an aluminum tube (see Fig. S1) [74].
- Impact tests within martial arts and soccer headgear standards perform impact tests with the headform
- attached to the Hybrid III anthropometric test device (ATD) surrogate neck [74,75]. No other
- reviewed headgear standards use a flexible neck.
- Predominant impact surfaces in headform drop tests are rigid anvils of various shapes (flat,
- hemispherical, edge, curbstone), or a Modular Elastomer Programmer (MEP) pad intended to
- represent a ground surface on which sports participants fall [75]. A number of headgear standards
- have anvils representative of hazards encountered in the specific sport. For example, a skate blade
- anvil is used in the speed skating helmet standard [61], a steel half cylinder anvil (representing a
- baseball bat) is specified in the baseball catchers' helmet standard [66], and a headform anvil
- (representing another player) and steel post anvil (representing a goal post) are referenced in the
- soccer headgear standard [75].

 Impact severities (here characterized by the energy of the impact) range from 18 J (soccer headgear to steel post anvil [75]) to 145 J (harness racing helmet onto rigid anvils [69]). For reference, the impact energy specified in bicycle helmet standards ranges from 52 J to 110 J. The process for setting the impact energy for headgear testing in the reviewed standards is not clear. However, headgear standards with the highest impact energy drop tests appear to be the sports in which participants achieve the highest travelling speeds or highest falling distances, such as motorized sports (219 J), 144 harness racing (145 J), skiing and snowboarding (120 J) and bicycling (110 J).

 There was also variability within the reviewed standards regarding the number of impacts performed at one site on the headgear, likely related to the risk of repeated head impacts in each sport. Football, hockey, martial arts and soccer headgear are always subjected to multiple impacts per site whereas bicycle and equestrian helmets are typically subjected to one impact per site.

2.2 Human head test surrogate

 Rigid metal headforms (such as a low-resonance magnesium K1A alloy headform), specified in ISO Draft International Standard (DIS) 6220 [84], European Standard EN 960 [85] or U.S. Department of Transport (DOT) Federal Motor Vehicle Safety Standard (FMVSS) 218 [77], are required for impact testing in many of the reviewed standards, see Table 1. Other headforms specified in the reviewed standards include the NOCSAE urethane headform [86] (Southern Impact Research Centre, LLC, Rockford, TN, USA) and Hybrid III ATD headform [87] (Humanetics, Huron, OH, USA).

Variable headform sizes are required for impact testing in most reviewed standards. For example,

ASTM standards reference six rigid headform sizes and NOCSAE standards reference three urethane

headform sizes [86,88]. Headgear is typically tested on the appropriate test headform size yet this is

not always possible. NOCSAE standards prescribe shimming for helmets too large for the largest

headform size so that the impacted area fits the head as intended if the helmet were a proper fit to the

headform. Helmets too small for the smallest headform are not tested in NOCSAE standards but

- approved so long as the other sizes of that helmet model meet all requirements [86]. Martial arts
- headgear is tested with an appropriate size Hybrid III headform in ASTM F2397 [74]. Soccer

headgear of all sizes is tested using the $50th$ percentile male Hybrid III headform in ASTM F2439 [75].

2.3 Assessment criteria and thresholds

 The assessment criteria in the reviewed headgear standards relate to the linear acceleration response at the test headform centre of gravity during the impact. A peak linear acceleration criterion is the most common performance requirement, while NOCSAE standards use the Severity Index which involves integrating the linear acceleration over the time duration of the impact [89].

 The allowable threshold of peak linear acceleration, expressed in *g* (standard acceleration due to 172 gravity at 9.8 m/s²), for sports headgear varies between sports as well as between standards for the same sport but typically lie in the range of 250-300 *g*. The aluminum tube striker test for martial arts headgear and the soccer headgear drop tests have lower threshold values of 80-150 *g* [74]. NOCSAE standards typically enforce a threshold limit of 1200 for the Severity Index, reportedly equivalent to $215 g$ "in a typical helmet impact" [83].

 A number of headgear standards have separate performance requirements for a low and high severity impact. NOCSAE standards for hockey, lacrosse, football and polo include a Severity Index limit of 300 for a low velocity impact in addition to higher velocity impact tests with a Severity Index limit of 1200. The ASTM martial arts headgear standard specified a peak linear acceleration threshold of 100 *g* for a 20 J drop test and a 300 *g* threshold for a 40 J drop test [74].

3. New headgear test methods

 Researchers have devised different test procedures for studying headgear impact performance beyond impact tests specified in standards. New (relative to impact tests in standards) headgear impact test methods in published literature and/or at relevant conferences are summarised in Table 2. This review categorised new impact test methods based on the type of headform, the impact opponent, the dynamics of the impact and the assessment criteria. Impact test severities achievable by these methods were variable (typically on a continuous scale) so tested impact speed is not included in Table 2. The

 review was not restricted to the types of sports headgear reviewed in Table 1 and includes impact mitigation studies that tested motorcycle helmets, industrial helmets, fall protection headgear and helmet accessories. Tests of these other headgear and accessories use biomechanical principles similar to those needed for sports impacts, hence their inclusion. Test methods relating to military helmets were excluded since the primary purpose of military headgear is protection from ballistic threats rather than from blunt impacts like those occurring in sports [90]. The following sections summarise and synthesize the main components of the new headgear test methods.

First author (year)	Headgear tested	Headform ^c	Head boundary condition at impact ^c	Pre-impact headform motion	Impact opponent/surface	Impact dynamics	Assessment criteria ^d	Image/diagram of test setup
Harrison (1996) [91] Halldin (2001) $[35]$ Aare (2003) $[28]$	Motorcycle	Ogle (aluminium headform coated with PVC plastisol). Hybrid III.	None	Free-fall	Horizontally moving steel plate covered with 80 SiC grit grinding paper. Horizontally moving steel plate covered with polystyrene foam.	Free-fall of headform to impact horizontally moving impact surface	Linear and angular accelerations. Angular velocity change. Duration of angular acceleration.	Figure S2
Mills (2008) $[92]$	Bicycle	Ogle aluminium headform with PVC plastisol skin and acrylic wig.	None	Free-fall	Horizontally moving aluminium surface. Horizontally moving aluminium surface covered with 120- grade SiC grit grinding paper.	Headform free-falls onto horizontally moving impact surface	Linear and angular accelerations. Impact forces.	Figure S2
Chinn (2001) $[93]$ Ghajari (2013) $[94]$	Motorcycle	Hybrid II	None	Free-fall	Various impact surfaces based on specific crash cases, e.g. textured slabs, hemisphere, kerbstone, bar, steel edge, vehicle components. Various impact angles from 15° to 90°.	Headform free-falls onto impact opponent	Linear and angular accelerations. Impact force.	Figure S3
Willinger (2014) [95] (2015) [96] Bourdet (2016) $[97]$	Proposals for bicycle and motorcycle helmets	Hybrid III	None	Free-fall	45° angled impact anvil covered with friction paper (80 gr).	Headform free-falls in different starting orientations onto the angled impact surface	Linear and angular accelerations. FE model criteria.	Figure S4
Bland (2018) $[98]$	Bicycle	Medium NOCSAE	None	Free-fall	45° angled steel anvil coated with 80 grit sandpaper.	Heaadform free-falls in different starting orientations onto the angled impact surface.	Linear acceleration. Change in angular velocity.	Figure S4

196 **Table 2 Review of new headgear test methods found in literature and/or at relevant conferences**

^c Unless otherwise specified, reference to anthropometric test devices, such as the Hybrid III, refer to the 50th percentile adult male.

^d HIC – Head Injury Criterion, RIC – Rotational Injury Criterion, PRHIC – Power Rotational Head Injury Criterion, GAMBIT – Generalized Acceleration Model for Brain Injury Threshold,

199 HIP – Head Impact Power, FE – fin

199 HIP – Head Impact Power, FE – finite element, BrIC – Brain Injury Criterion.

3.1 Impact condition

 There were three ways of producing a head impact with an impact opponent in the new headgear test methods. The first used pre-impact motion of the headform to contact a stationary impact opponent. The headform is either dropped vertically under gravity or propelled using a spring, pendulum or mini-sled. The second type of impact involved a moving impact opponent contacting a stationary headform. Impact opponents were propelled via cannons, pneumatic linear impactors, pendulums or fell due to gravity to impact an initially stationary helmeted headform. The final type of test performed an impact while both the headform and the impact opponent were in motion, for example the headform falling onto a translating or rotating surface, or two test surrogates propelled into contact with one another.

 There was a wide range of impact opponents in the reviewed new headgear tests including roadway surrogate surfaces, snow, other helmeted headforms, various impactor tips, projectiles as well as rigid anvils and MEP surfaces referenced in current certification standards.

 The impact orientation was variable in most new tests and involved two components: 1) the orientation of the headform with reference to the impact opponent and, 2) the relative velocity vector between the test surrogate and the impact opponent. Common strategies for achieving different impact orientations included changing the pre-impact headform position relative to the impact opponent, varying the angle of the impact surface and changing the point of impact on the helmet.

3.2 Human head test surrogate

Headform types used in the reviewed new test methods ranged in complexity from a metal 2D

cylinder to rigid metal humanoid headforms, manikins, the NOCSAE headform and headforms from

automotive ATDs including the Ogle OPAT, the Hybrid II and the Hybrid III of various sizes.

The new headgear test methods applied various types of boundary conditions to the test headform at

impact. Many studies affixed the headform to a flexible neck while others applied no boundary

conditions to the head at impact. Studies using a neck variously attached the lower neck to a drop

carriage, drop rail, translating table, cantilevered mass, ATD torso or full ATD. The types of necks

and ATDs were predominantly from automotive applications and included the Ogle OPAT,

motorcycle ATD and Hybrid III of various sizes. Other non-rigid neck surrogates included the so-

called "unbiased neckform", simple uniaxial mechanical joints and a coil spring.

3.3 Assessment criteria and thresholds

 All of the new testing studies used linear acceleration of the headform as an assessment criterion, see Table 2. Additional kinematic assessment criteria included angular acceleration and angular velocity of the headform, the Severity Index, the Head Injury Criterion (HIC), the Rotational Injury Criterion (RIC) [167], the Power Rotational Head Injury Criterion (PRHIC) [167,168], the Generalized Acceleration Model for Brain Injury Threshold (GAMBIT) [169], and Head Impact Power (HIP) [170]. Further criteria related to headform motion utilised finite element models of the head. These criteria involved applying a measured headform response to a rigid skull and deformable brain computational model. Headgear assessment compared finite element outputs such as stress, strain and strain rate developed within the simulated brain tissue [97,134,136,171–173]. Load criteria used to assess headgear in the new impact tests included impact forces, mandible forces and neck loads. Other headgear assessment criteria included impact duration, contact area, impact stress and helmet deflection.

In the new test methods, pass/fail thresholds for allowable headform response were rarely specified.

Typically, these studies provided some estimate of head injury risk in the test impacts by referring to

previously published studies, such as human cadaver impact experiments [174], animal studies

[25,175], and tissue level models [176–178]. Established head injury risk curves were also referenced,

such as those developed in automotive applications for specific surrogates such as the Hybrid III

- [114,120,162,163,166,179], or developed through reconstruction of real-world helmeted football incidents [172,180–183].
- **4. Discussion**

4.1 Requirements of a standard

 The new headgear test methods reviewed in Table 2 are primarily research studies incorporating greater complexity in the impact condition and exploring more potential headgear assessment metrics than impact tests in the current standards summarised in Table 1. Most new impact test methods are unsuitable for a standards test in their current form due to their complexity. An impact test suitable for certification standards should be simple, robust and capable of producing repeatable and reproducible results [184]. For a given test method, the same results should be achievable for commercial test houses, headgear manufacturers and academic researchers in order to facilitate the processes of ongoing headgear development and certification.

 Practically, impact tests in standards should be only as complicated as is needed to adequately represent the injurious event. Often the process of defining what is adequate can take considerable research. For example, a series of studies published by Pellman and colleagues [109,110,125,185,186] analysed and reconstructed mTBI-producing impacts that occurred in football games using full reconstructions involving two complete ATDs. These tests and others were used as a precursor to developing a simpler laboratory impact test method that simulates helmet-to-helmet impacts (Fig. 265 S28) [125,138]. Since the resulting pneumatic linear impactor test has acceptable repeatability, reproducibility and practicality, it is being added to the NOCSAE standard for football helmets, effective November 2019 [187,188]. This test development process highlights a difference between the aims of a headgear researcher, who may want to recreate the injury event as realistically as possible, compared to the needs of a standard test, where some realism is sacrificed to achieve other benefits.

 Sensitivity is another important aspect of a standards test. If the impact condition, test surrogate and assessment criteria are not sensitive to the injury related conditions, essentially being unable to distinguish between a protective and non-protective (or less-protective) headgear, the test does not achieve what is intended.

 The goal for new impact tests in headgear standards is to create the simplest, most repeatable set of tests that capture the greatest number of injury related risk factors and thus results in the greatest

 reduction of injuries. The ideal situation would use high fidelity impact and injury research data to contrive a simple standards test that was ultimately entirely effective at stratifying tested headgear as to their relative ability to protect against defined severities of mTBI and severe TBI/skull fracture. The following sections discuss how new headgear research methods and other studies can inform development of standards-appropriate impact tests.

4.2 Impact condition

 There is significant variation in the types of head impacts that occur in different sports and within the same sport yet impact tests in certification standards use very similar impact test dynamics across sports (Table 1). New laboratory impact tests have greater impact condition variation and from a research perspective, accurate definition of real injurious impact conditions is critical for recreating realistic head impact scenarios in the lab. Of importance are the pre-impact orientation of the head relative to the impact opponent, the relative velocity vector between the head and the impact opponent, and the mechanical response of the impact opponent.

 Research efforts to define the impact condition in sports head impacts have utilised a number of different techniques and information sources. In football, in-game head impact events were analysed and reconstructed through video analysis [109,113,189]. For bicycle and motorcycle helmets, headform impact orientations and the relative velocity vector between the headform and the impact opponent have been informed by crash investigations [93,97,190]**.** Impact orientation and severity have also been estimated based on the residual damage of single impact helmet liners such as expanded polystyrene liners commonly used in bicycle and motorcycle helmets [191,192]. However, using residual deformation to estimate impact severity is challenging, has high variability and requires data on specific helmet models making it potentially unreliable for widespread application [192].

 Definition of the head impact condition in other sports suffers from a paucity of available real world head impact data. Multibody simulations and parametric studies have been used to fill this void by estimating unknown parameters that describe the impact condition such as head impact location and velocity [193]. A technique called model-based image matching has been used to approximate head

 impact velocities in an alpine skiing crash from uncalibrated video sequences [194]. Others have directly measured head impact events during sports using instrumentation mounted on the helmet, skin or within mouthguards, reducing the reliance on physical or simulated incident reconstruction [195–204]. These efforts inform researchers about the head impact orientation and resulting kinematics in specific sports but are not without limitations. Imperfect coupling between the impact measurement device and the skull introduces inaccuracies in some systems [205–208] and false positives can be common [209,210], meaning video confirmation of head impact events is important [211]. High quality, detailed field and clinical data is essential to ensuring headgear impact tests are relevant to injurious scenarios that occur in the real world.

 For a standards test, it is not necessary to recreate all injurious head impact scenarios if the headgear response in one injurious impact type correlates to the headgear response in another. Exploratory testing can define the minimum number of independently responding injurious impact configurations, reducing the number of required test configurations. Test method complexity can also be reduced through exploratory testing. For example, the response of a falling test headform impacting a translating roadway surface surrogate can, in some circumstances, be replicated with the easier to manage test setup of a falling headform impacting a stationary oblique-angled anvil [212].

 Details regarding the impact opponent are typically easier to define than the impact dynamics but the number of potential impact opponents in different sports can be vast. Controlled in-field testing of impact opponents is needed to capture the range of conditions for variable impact surface conditions such as snow or loose-fill materials. Development of standards-suitable repeatable impact surface materials can follow. Previous examples of this include the pneumatic linear impactor face which was designed to simulate helmet-to-helmet contacts in football [125] and the MEP pad which provides a reproducible impact surface surrogate to simulate impacts with the ground [75,213,214].

 In standards testing, rigid steel impact surfaces are common and represent worst-case impact opponents for linear impact evaluation due to the maximized potential for fully compressing headgear padding. Rigid surfaces, however, may not represent the worst-case scenario when considering

 angular headform response and consideration of other surfaces will be necessary for new standards tests. King et al. [215] performed head impact tests using a Hybrid III head and neck on a mini-sled and found that, in four out of nine front impact tests with a bicycle helmet and two out of nine tests with a football helmet, added compliance of the helmet increased the rotational acceleration of the headform compared to the unhelmeted condition. In another study, hockey shoulder pads added to a pneumatic linear impactor tip at an impact velocity of 6.5 m/s reduced the peak linear acceleration experienced by the headform (151.9 *g* to 100.9 *g*) but increased the peak angular acceleration (7.4 $k \cdot \text{rad/s}^2$ to 8.2 krad/s²) compared to a bare impactor condition [216]. Exploratory testing is needed to ensure higher injury risk impact opponents are identified and accounted for in a standards test.

The high incidence of sports-related mTBI despite headgear protection has generated discussion

 regarding the impact severity at which sports headgear are tested. Most standards call for headgear to be tested in impacts at or near the highest levels of severity deemed reasonable [217]. Headgear that meet the required response in these impacts are considered protective for all impacts of equal or lesser severity, although they are tested at only the one high impact severity [217]. This approach might ignore headgear performance in lower severity impacts and mTBI is often sustained in impacts that exhibit resultant peak linear head accelerations well below the threshold level allowed in certification standards [195,218–220]. Bicycle, motorcycle, football and martial arts headgear subjected to linear impact tests at different severities show an approximately linear relationship between impact severity and peak linear acceleration of the headform up to bottoming-out of the protective liner [150,217,221–223]. Such a relationship suggests that indeed the linear response of these headgear at lower levels of impact is largely determined by the single, higher impact severity threshold [217]. Whether this linear relationship at increasing impact severity holds for angular headform response in impact tests with additional headform degrees of freedom and across various head impact configurations, impact opponents and for emerging helmet technologies that leverage different energy attenuating strategies to crushable foam is unknown.

 A relatively recent issue for sports headgear testing is the increasing use of aftermarket helmet accessories, such as cameras or add-on caps. Cameras influence interaction between the helmeted

 head and the impact opponent, since camera-mounting points alone project further from the headgear surface than is allowed in many headgear standards. It is also unclear whether the camera-mounting points are designed to collapse or break on impact [114]. A laboratory study investigating this issue by performing flat surface impacts to a surrogate camera mounted on a bicycle helmet found that the presence of a camera altered the kinematics and forces experienced by the headform. The average risk of severe concussion, using Cumulative Strain Damage Measure-25 injury risk curves [172], was reduced in 4 m/s impacts with the camera attached (from 25% to 7%), but was increased, on average, in 6 m/s impacts (from 18% to 58%) [114]. The effect these accessories have during oblique impacts where they can potentially snag on the impact opponent has not been methodically assessed. Aftermarket helmet add-on caps have been developed with the aim of mitigating concussions in football but change the impact response of the helmet. According to NOCSAE, these additions create a new and untested helmet model, as defined in NOCSAE standards, and therefore make the certification of previously certified helmet models voidable [224]. Published impact test results for add-on caps are scarce but, even within the limited test data available, additional padding applied to the helmet exterior may not always reduce the severity of the impact in a drop test [225,226]. Developing separate standards for different types of headgear accessories would help better understand their effect on injury risk and control their influence in sport head impacts.

4.3 Human head test surrogate

 Rigid headforms are not designed to respond like a human head to impact but most often have a defined shape based on human anthropometry. The NOCSAE urethane headform and Hybrid III headform have a humanlike shape, mass, moment of inertia and are designed to respond like the human head in certain impact conditions [227–229]. However, the NOCSAE and Hybrid III headforms are not interchangeable. The NOCSAE headform is considered more anatomically accurate than the Hybrid III, particularly at the base of the skull, cheeks, jaw and chin [230,231]. The anatomical inaccuracies of the Hybrid III headform are a limitation for headgear assessment since the chin and nape, in particular, affect the fit and retention of headgear and may therefore affect the helmeted impact response. The NOCSAE headform was originally designed to be mounted on a rigid

 arm whereas the Hybrid III headform is compatible with the Hybrid III neck, although a method now exists to affix the NOCSAE headform to the Hybrid III neck [125,230]. The Hybrid III is the most extensively used humanoid headform in biomechanical research and the earliest to incorporate a system of measuring both the linear and angular kinematics in an impact [230]. Head injury risk estimates have been developed with the Hybrid III headform which might be a reason attracting headgear researchers to use the Hybrid III rather than other surrogates [174].

 It is appealing to evaluate headgear using a surrogate designed to respond like the human head to impact. Hence, the biofidelic impact response of the Hybrid III is commonly referenced as justification for it being used in the reviewed new headgear tests [34,93,112,179]. However, the biofidelity of the Hybrid III headform for headgear impact testing has relatively little validation. The Hybrid III headform was originally developed to respond like the human head in unprotected, short duration impacts against rigid anvils rather than in helmeted impacts [228]. In a study that compared the linear impact response of the Hybrid III and rigid headforms to the response of human cadavers in motorcycle helmeted impacts, the rigid DOT headform, rather than the Hybrid III headform, most closely resembled the cadaver response [191]. The NOCSAE headform was designed to have similar static load/deflection characteristics of the human cadaver skull and humanlike impact response in a small series of helmeted and athletic turf impacts [227]. Despite both being based on human cadaver head response, the NOCSAE and Hybrid III headforms provide significant differences in peak linear and angular accelerations in comparative impact tests [232,233]. Given these differences, the specific test methods and impact locations of any new or broader standard for sports headgear will determine which of these headforms is more suitable. Indeed, it is also possible that neither headform is valid for the task and that a new headform will be needed to properly assess how headgear attenuates linear and angular kinematics and their respective injury risks.

Another issue related to headforms for headgear evaluation is the available sizes. While rigid

headforms have the most extensive array of sizes at circumference increments of 10 mm [84,85], size

variations of the Hybrid III and NOCSAE are limited. At least three more Hybrid III sizes are needed

to cope with all helmet sizes [234], and NOCSAE standards provide exceptions or specify procedures

 to deal with poor fit as described in Section 2.2 of this review. The issue of humanlike impact response is further complicated when considering paediatric size variations. The head impact response of current paediatric Hybrid III ATDs does not agree with age-matched unprotected human skull cadaver impacts [235]. Corresponding human paediatric head impact response data is sparse, particularly for padded impacts, but is needed to create biofidelic paediatric head surrogates for headgear impact testing.

 With increasing emphasis on the angular response of the protected headform in an impact, a critical concern is the surface characteristics of the headform, or more generally, the friction at the interface between the helmet and the headform. For instance, covering a rigid magnesium headform with 1 mm 419 thick silicone rubber increased peak rotational acceleration from 6.1 rad/s² to 11.6 rad/s² (89%) increase) compared to the uncovered headform in a free-flight headform drop onto a 30º oblique anvil [99]. None of the headforms currently used for headgear testing have surface friction representative of dry or sweaty human hair or skin. A recent study identified that headforms do not include scalp-skull friction and therefore there is no tensioning effect of the skin [236]. Furthermore, the coefficient of friction at the human cadaver scalp and helmet liner interface (0.29) was significantly different to the Hybrid III headform and helmet liner interface (0.75), and to the rigid magnesium EN960 headform and helmet liner interface (0.16) [236]. In past attempts to address this issue, researchers have made surface modifications to test headforms by addition of an artificial scalp and wig [28,92], a layer of PVC plastisol [35], silicon rubber [99], or two layers of nylon stocking material [113,207]. The fidelity of these modifications to human skin and hair has not been demonstrated.

 Headform inertial properties are a further important contributor to the angular response in helmeted impacts. The moments of inertia of automotive ATD headforms are within the wide range reported for human heads although considerable differences exist between headforms (see Table 3) [237–239]. In the typical head reference frame, the human head products of inertia are non-zero, since this reference frame is not aligned with the principal axes of the head, but are not reported in literature. It is not known whether automotive ATD headform products of inertia match the human head and the degree to which incorrect properties will influence the headform response in a protected sports head impact.

437 **Table 3 Mass and inertial properties comparison between human cadaver data and automotive**

438 **ATD headforms.**

 The choice of human head surrogate for headgear impact testing in standards could look beyond currently available test devices. A simple head surrogate may be appropriate if other factors such as the assessment criteria, headform boundary conditions and impact dynamics are well defined. For instance, if mTBI relates to angular velocity change of the head in an impact, an ellipsoid that mimics the inertial properties of the head and neck as well as the surface friction and geometry of the head/helmet interface could provide adequate headgear assessment of relative mTBI risk.

445 *4.4 Head surrogate boundary conditions*

446 One of the criticisms of headgear impact testing in standards is the lack of rotation since the guided

447 drop test restricts motion of the headform in all but one axis (Fig. 1). Every research impact test

448 summarised in Table 2 allowed additional headform degrees of freedom, though there were

449 considerable differences among the boundary conditions applied to the head.

 One major question is how the neck influences the kinematics of the headform in a protected head impact and whether headgear impact tests need to include a neck. A number of studies suggest the neck plays only a small role in helmeted head impact response. In a finite element simulation study of 24 bicycle helmet impact configurations and three helmet conditions (no helmet, road bicycle helmet, skate bicycle helmet) analysed for durations up to 15 ms after impact, the detached head, on average, produced 6% higher peak linear acceleration, 8% higher peak angular acceleration, 5% higher peak angular velocity and 4% higher peak brain tissue strain compared to the head attached to a neck and body [240]. In a simulation study reconstructing bicycle crashes using multibody analysis, the head was regarded as mechanically separated from the human body for the first 2-3 ms of the impact such that the neck has a negligible influence of the head response in this period of time [241]. Furthermore,

 Willinger et al. [190] showed experimentally that the angular acceleration response of the detached Hybrid III head protected by a bicycle helmet is similar to the response attached to the Hybrid III neck for the first 10 ms of the impact, admitting the neck influences head kinematics for longer durations after the impact. Axial and oblique padded impacts to the head of cadaver head and neck preparations have shown a time delay of up to 9 ms between force generation at the point of impact (head to padded anvil) and forces measured at the lower neck (T1), possibly suggesting mechanical separation and minimal influence of the neck on head kinematics for this time duration [242]. Given the above studies, and the fact that human cadaveric specimens exhibit an atlanto-occipital neutral zone (joint motion with no force) in the range of 10 degrees, Willinger et al. [234] reason that headgear impact testing without a neck is valid for certain short-duration (5-10 ms) impact configurations resulting in up to 10 degrees of headform rotation. European Working Group 3 within COST TU1101 is developing a bicycle helmet impact test method without a neck using these assumptions [234].

 On the other hand, several studies suggest that the neck has a significant influence on head kinematics, particularly the rotational response, during protected head impacts. Greater angular accelerations of the head were predicted for simulated helmeted jockey incidents using only the head compared to the full body in a multibody modelling approach [243]. It was also noted that the direction of head acceleration can be altered by the absence of a neck [243]. Similarly, Beusenberg et al. [244] simulated four football helmeted impact configurations and varied the headform boundary conditions finding that neck coupling, while having a limited effect on the linear head accelerations, can reverse the direction of angular acceleration in some rotational axes. Physical impact testing of motorcycle helmets onto a flat anvil found that the influence of the neck and body is strongly dependent on the impact configuration [159]. In drops onto the parietal region of the head with the body oriented perpendicular to the flat impact surface, peak rotational acceleration was much greater 483 using a complete dummy (mean of 5.3 krad/s² at 6.0 m/s) compared to the detached head (mean of 3.4 484 krad/s² at 6.0 m/s) thought to be due to the body dynamics transmitting large forces to the head through the neck [159]. Against an oblique anvil, angled 15 degrees from the direction of headform motion, peak rotational acceleration was also greater in full dummy drops compared to the detached

 head. Equivalent peak head kinematics to full body dummy head impacts at 6.0 m/s were achieved for detached headform impacts at between 6.0 and 7.5 m/s. The increased peak angular acceleration was due to the momentum of the body causing rotational motion about an axis in the neck area, motion that was not present in detached headform impacts. Contrastingly, peak rotational acceleration was lower using a complete dummy compared to the detached head for frontal head impacts with the body 492 angled 30 degrees from the flat impact surface (mean values of 3.7 krad/s² vs 4.8 krad/s² at 6.0 m/s) 493 and for rear head impacts with the body parallel to the flat impact surface (mean values of 4.3 krad/s² 494 vs 5.6 krad/s² at 5.2 m/s). The freedom of movement of the impacting headform is reduced when connected to the body in these orientations, lowering the peak rotational accelerations [159].

 The choice of whether a neck is necessary to accurately replicate helmeted head impact kinematics is therefore dependent on the impact condition and the assessment criteria of a proposed impact test. The impact condition in sports head impacts can depart from where the neck appears to have negligible influence on the headform response, for example at longer durations of 8-20 ms observed for head impacts against racetrack turf [243], or the average 15 ms duration of football helmeted head-to-head or head-to-body impacts resulting in concussion [109]. If rotational assessment criteria are needed in a longer duration impact test, perhaps against a less than rigid impact opponent, the influence of the neck on the headform kinematics cannot be ignored.

A further influence of the neck that is important for headgear testing is the effect on foam crush.

Ghajari et al. simulated flat anvil drop tests of a motorcycle helmeted Hybrid III headform with and

without the neck and body attached [158]. At 6 m/s the detached head experienced higher peak linear

acceleration (133 *g* compared to 113 *g)* and lower liner crush (64% compared to 79%) than the full

dummy attached headform. However at 7.5 m/s, greater peak linear head acceleration was

- experienced by the full dummy attached headform rather than the detached headform (278 *g*
- compared to 216 *g*) due to densification of the protective liner (91% crush compared to 81% crush).
- Greater liner crush due to the presence of the neck and body has also been demonstrated using human
- body models in impacts to an oblique surface and in impacts onto a flat surface with an initial oblique

 velocity vector [94,245]. Modifying the inertial properties of the detached headform for use in free-flight headform tests has been suggested to account for these differences in liner crush [94,158].

 When headgear impact testing needs a neck, the accuracy of the recreated head motion is dependent on the biofidelity of the neck surrogate. The most common neck surrogate in the new impact test methods belongs to the Hybrid III ATD, a neck originally designed so that the flexion-extension motion of the Hybrid III headform matched that of volunteer and cadaver automotive sled test data [246]. Outside frontal and rear-end car crash applications, the Hybrid III neck has substantial biofidelity limitations. It is being increasingly used in headgear evaluation studies despite being too stiff and providing excessive resistance to horizontal translational motion between the head and torso [247,248]. The Hybrid III neck response corridors are not adequate to properly reproduce human motions of the neck, and therefore the head, in situations where load comes in multiple directions, such as rollovers [249] and so potentially the same is true for head impacts in sports. One finite element simulation investigation has suggested that, for certain helmeted impacts, the headform kinematics when attached to the Hybrid III neck could be less humanlike than without a neck altogether [234]. In this investigation, three helmeted impact configurations were simulated with a Hybrid III headform model and three boundary conditions: no neck, attached to a Hybrid III neck model, attached to a human cervical spine neck model by merging the skull base to the rigidly modelled aluminum Hybrid III headform base [234]. There are substantial caveats to the interpretation, namely that neither the Hybrid III nor human neck models had been validated to the simulated impact conditions and substantial divergence of the headform angular velocity was noted between the no neck and attached neck simulations at durations longer than 15 ms in two of three configurations [234].

 Alternative mechanical neck surrogates have been used for headgear evaluation. Head impacts with a predominantly axial orientation have been replicated using a novel mechanical neck surrogate validated to the range of motion and stiffness data of human cadavers in flexion-extension rotation and axial compression [105,106,250,251]. A so-called unbiased neck is used in other studies, but the biofidelity of this surrogate has not been reported [252,253]. The motorcycle ATD neck has been used to test soccer headgear [112]. Without further validation, it is difficult to be confident these or other automotive neck surrogates are appropriate for headgear testing. This is also true of paediatric automotive neck surrogates. Thus there is an urgent need for biofidelic neck surrogates capable of accommodating multi-directional head impact events such as those that occur in sports.

 Attachment of the lower neck is considered in a number of the new headgear impact test methods. Translating tables and cantilevered masses are used to simulate the mass of the torso in some studies [39,254], although the difference in headform response necessitating these features has not been quantified. A study simulating 4 configurations of a helmet to helmet impact in football found very little effect (not quantified) of changing the attached body mass from 5 kg to 50 kg on the resulting head kinematics [244]. In 4.4 m/s impacts imparted to the Hybrid III head and neck by a 3.6 kg pendulum, no significant difference was observed in linear or angular headform response for a rigidly mounted lower neck compared to the lower neck mounted to a 12.78 kg translating table [254]. Aldman et al. [120,160] compared drops of a complete ATD from a moving carriage to rail-guided dummy headform and neck drops onto a rotating disc, simulating the relative vertical and horizontal velocities between the dropped ATD and the roadway. Comparison of similar test configurations (occipital impact with inclined neck/body, unpolished/unworn road surface, polycarbonate shell helmet, horizontal velocity component of 8.1 – 8.4 m/s and vertical velocity component of 5.1 – 5.2 m/s) show peak linear headform acceleration of 120 – 150 g and peak angular acceleration of 5500 – 558 11400 rad/s² in the full dummy drops compared to $90 - 135$ g and $8000 - 13500$ rad/s² for the guided headform and neck drops onto the rotating disc [120,160].

 Practically, a standards test for headgear is unlikely to use a complete ATD, which could potentially have the most humanlike boundary conditions for the head. Inclusion of a neck does not appear to hinder test practicality, as evidenced by the many ways a neck has been incorporated into new impact tests (Table 2), however there is a pressing need for appropriately biofidelic neck surrogates for headgear testing. Defining an appropriate headgear assessment criteria and consideration of the impact condition, particularly the impact duration, will determine for each specific sport what boundary conditions are needed for headgear impact tests in standards.

4.5 Assessment criteria and thresholds

 The linear acceleration and time duration based criteria and thresholds predominantly used in current headgear certification standards (Table 1) appear to be based on human cadaver head impact experiments performed in the 1960s and formed the Wayne State University Concussion Tolerance Curve [3,255,256]. These experiments tested unprotected heads and observed the occurrence (or not) of skull fracture in short duration impacts, inferring the tolerance of concussion based on the clinical observation that concussion was almost always sustained in skull fracture cases [257]. Since then, biomechanical research has shown that the angular response of the head is also a determinant of the risk of TBI [20,24,25], leading to many other criteria being proposed for brain injury risk assessment. Headgear evaluation using rotational measures in the past has primarily focussed on angular acceleration, however current head injury evaluation in motor vehicle occupant protection is incorporating measurements of angular velocity [172,258]. At present, there is no consensus on which kinematic measure provides the best brain injury prediction, or prediction of a specific brain injury, for headgear impacts. Thresholds may also differ between youth and adults and vary across the paediatric age spectrum [259].

 Acceleration and velocity are measures of the global kinematics of the head and may not capture the complex and local deformation patterns in the tissues of the brain during an impact. TBI is intimately related to brain tissue deformation and therefore assessment of the local response of the brain will likely provide better TBI risk assessment than the global head response [215]. Metrics based on the brain tissue response, such as strain or strain distribution, have been shown to better correlate with risk of TBI in reconstructed road traffic, football incidents and animal tests than traditional head acceleration measures [172,180–182]. Detailed finite element models of traumatic brain injury have allowed researchers to predict these metrics [260,261], and to show correlation between the regions with large tissue strain during impacts and the sites of injury after mild TBI [262].

 The inclusion of an additional brain injury related criterion into future impact test standards appears inevitable. European Working Group 3 within COST TU1101 are considering either a global

 kinematic assessment variable, such as Brain Injury Criteria (BrIC) [172,182], HIP [170], RIC [167] or PHRIC [167,168], or finite element head model based injury risk assessment for use in bicycle 595 helmet testing [234]. Football helmet evaluation in the NOCSAE standard will include a 6000 rad/s² threshold of allowable angular acceleration in linear impactor testing from November 2019 [188]. The introduction of new criteria is superfluous unless they provide improved headgear evaluation. In some head impact configurations, linear acceleration is closely correlated to the headform rotational response so adding an angular criterion is unnecessary [93]. In certain impact tests, finite element model outputs can be predicted through statistical models and the global kinematics of the headform meaning simulation in these configurations is unjustified [115,263].

 Developing a threshold value for a headgear assessment metric is complex. The injury threshold that applies to humans is usually not the same as an injury assessment reference value (IARV) that applies to a human head surrogate. Both the risk of injury to a human and the response of the human surrogate in a defined impact condition are needed to develop IARVs. Previously generated IARVs, such as those for automotive occupants in crashes, relate to unprotected heads and their appropriateness for headgear evaluation has not been demonstrated. Collections of field data from helmeted football and hockey participants have been used to determine head injury risk specific to sports headgear impacts for headgear consumer information rating schemes [126,264]. New reliable in-field biomechanical head impact measurements are needed for continued injury risk refinement in these sports and for injury risk development in other sports. Well-validated instrumented mouthguards are currently available for this purpose [265–267]. Furthermore, injury risks or tolerances generated for use with one human head surrogate, such as a specific finite element head model, cannot be used with a different surrogate. Due to biofidelity limitations of available head and neck surrogates and the practical requirements of a standards test, the ability to determine the absolute risk of head injury in sports impacts may be both unachievable and unnecessary for headgear certification by standards. Determining the relative risk of injury through an appropriate metric can differentiate a more protective headgear from others. Using this approach, an effective threshold level can be initially set and refined using continued injury surveillance and field data.

 The current lack of diagnostic precision for sports-related mTBI is an impediment to establishing a headgear assessment metric and threshold for this injury. Development of a biomechanical injury risk relationship requires impact response data and corresponding clinical data to confirm the presence or absence of injury. MTBI diagnosis presently relies on self-reporting and a subjective assessment of symptoms making it prone to variability in distinguishing injured from uninjured sports participants [268]. Moreover, TBI severity occurs along a continuum meaning not all mTBI injuries are equal. There is currently no objective measure to confirm mTBI incidence or stratify into TBI severities although research groups and private companies are exploring blood/fluid biomarkers, imaging techniques and vision based tests [269].

4.6 Basis for developing headgear impact tests for standards

 Historically, headgear impact test development for standards prioritized and succeeded in preventing incidents of catastrophic head injury, such as skull fracture and severe brain injury, initially in motorized sports, bicycling, football and hockey. Further sport-specific standards developed by incorporating anvils that reflected hazards specific to each sport while the impact test methods are substantially the same, seen in Table 1. Exceptions are impact tests in more recently developed standards, such as ASTM F2439 for soccer headgear that was motivated by a high incidence of concussion in soccer and originally approved in 2006. The choice of test apparatus and failure threshold in F2439, different to the majority of other contemporary sports headgear standards, reflect the distinction in injury focus and the process that was undertaken defining the primary injury mechanism and injury condition [270].

 The field of head impact injury and prevention now benefits from improved understanding of the brain injury mechanisms and the ability to define the response of the head in an impact quantitatively, whether through video analysis, in-field measurement, reconstruction or simulation. The path forward will utilize this progress to develop new impact tests. This review of current sports headgear standards and new headgear impact test methods highlights the important aspects of an impact test method for standards, which forms a set of steps for developing future standards summarised in Table 4. Table 4

 also provides reference areas of research or impact testing strategies to support each step of the process.

 A standards impact test will necessarily require compromise between exact replication of all possible situations that cause injury and the need for consistency. Analysis of in-field head impacts provides priorities for impact testing in standards through identification of the most common situations that result in injury and the situations that result in the most consequential injury. The most important features of in-field injurious head impacts to mimic in headgear impact testing are those that influence the risk of head injury. Identifying these features requires careful and thorough consideration of each step listed in Table 4.

 A dilemma for setting an impact test is if we cannot replicate all hazardous conditions, we might unknowingly design a standard that can cause harm, but without developing or updating impact tests, we may be limiting improvements in head injury risk reduction for sports participants. If impact test development follows a thorough process, considering each important aspect listed in Table 4 and utilizing the corresponding research area and testing strategy, the risk of creating a standard that could unknowingly cause harm is minimised. In particular, comprehensive exploratory impact testing and ongoing injury surveillance of sports participants ensures a thorough understanding of how headgear performs in the field and the effect on injury outcomes.

 At present and as always, there are limitations to what we know and our understanding of aspects of head impact biomechanics and prevention is continuously evolving. Table 4 provides a roadmap for researchers and those setting standards to identify what information is missing for headgear in specific sports and to work toward filling the gaps in knowledge.

Steps and considerations in impact test	Reference research area or strategy		
development			
1) Identify prevalent or significant head injuries to	Sport-specific epidemiology.		
target for prevention.			
2) Identify at risk populations.	Sport-specific epidemiology.		
3) Define impact conditions resulting in head injuries	Clinical injury data paired with head impact		
from 1) and 2):	data (video analysis, in-field measurement,		
- Impact dynamics	reconstruction, simulation) and incident		

Table 4 Sports headgear impact test development roadmap for certification standards.

668 *4.7 Future impact assessment of headgear in sports*

669 In looking to the future for headgear standards, it is important not to forget the past successes of sports

670 headgear in preventing catastrophic head injuries. A change in standards impact testing that

671 compromises the benefits to preventing death and severe head injury achieved in many sports through

672 current headgear standards is obviously undesirable. New test methods will likely be additions to,

673 rather than replacements of, current test methods in certification standards unless new tests

674 demonstrate the ability to provide at least the same level of protection as current requirements.

675 Certification standards play the most significant role in ensuring adequately protective headgear but

676 they impose only a minimum level of required performance. Consumer information rating schemes

677 are another mechanism for fostering improved headgear performance beyond meeting a standard.

678 Rating schemes currently exist for motorcycle, bicycle, football and hockey headgear

679 [98,126,148,264,271–274]. Further rating schemes are being proposed by researchers at Virginia Tech

680 University for youth football, baseball and softball headgear, as well as head impact sensors [275].

 The impact test methods performed under these schemes require many of the same aspects as standards tests, such as repeatability and reproducibility, and regularly develop directly from headgear research projects. Engaging stakeholders, such as headgear users, retailers, distributors and manufacturers, in what a rating scheme does and what it offers above minimum safety standards can increase the effectiveness of such schemes and drive headgear improvement [271].

5. Summary

 Impact testing of headgear in current standards employs remarkably similar methods across a diverse range of sports (Table 1) even though head impact conditions can be very different. These headgear test standards have remained substantially unchanged for decades despite a shifting landscape and improved biomechanical understanding of traumatic head injuries. A great number of new impact test methods have been used by researchers in an effort to promote improved headgear design (Table 2), each allowing more headform degrees of freedom than existing standards. The diversity of these new test methods highlights the different decisions that can be made to arrive at a headgear impact test. This review provides a basis for headgear impact test development and research areas to call on for support in defining the impact condition and surrogate boundary conditions, test surrogate development and establishing assessment criteria and thresholds. Current pressing issues for continued research include definition of injurious head impact conditions in sports for which current data is sparse, establishment of reliable headgear assessment criteria related to the injuries of interest and taking into account age and size effects, and development of headgear assessment specific head and neck surrogates for at risk populations.

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Conflict of interest statement

- Authors PAC and GPS work for a consulting company that may benefit from being associated with
- this work. Authors DP and PAC have interests in commercializing products related to impact injury
- prevention. None of the remaining parties have a conflict of interest with the submitted work.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1 Guided drop test apparatus used in ASTM, CSA, CPSC, ANSI and Snell standards (Reproduced, with permission from ASTM [88], copyright ASTM International, 100 Barr Harbor Drive. West Conshohocken, PA 19428).

Figure 2 Falling headform with guided carrier test apparatus used in CEN and ISO standards [55]. 1) steel base; 2) anvil; 3) guides; 4) support dolly; and 5) headform with helmet. (Copied with permission of the Standards Council of Canada (SCC) on behalf of ISO).

Table Captions

Table 1 Summary of impact energy attenuation tests in headgear standards for sports

Table 2 Review of new headgear test methods found in literature and/or at relevant conferences

Table 3 Mass and inertial properties comparison between human cadaver data and automotive ATD

headforms.

Table 4 Sports headgear impact test development roadmap for certification standards.