



**In-vivo measurement of tri-axial loading at the head during the rugby tackle**

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2

## 3 Abstract.

4 To investigate the anatomical distribution of linear and rotational forces during the tackle  
5 scenario, male rugby players performed a total of 48 trials, as ball carrier or tackler.  
6 Participants wore headgear accommodating three Global Positioning System units  
7 measuring uni-axial acceleration at the occipital region (OR), left temporo-parietal (LT-  
8 PR) and right temporo-parietal region (RT-PR). An additional unit was located at the  
9 cervico-thoracic spinal region (CSR) in a custom vest. There was a significant main effect  
10 for tackle condition ( $P<0.001$ ), with the tackler exposed to significantly greater load than  
11 the ball carrier, supporting epidemiological observations. A repeated measures General  
12 Linear Model also revealed a significant ( $P<0.001$ ) main effect for unit location upon 3D  
13 load, with significantly higher load at the CSR ( $1.63\pm 0.54$  a.u) and OR ( $1.67\pm 0.94$  a.u)  
14 units when compared to the LT-PR ( $1.23\pm 0.39$  a.u) and RT-PR ( $1.21\pm 0.44$  a.u) units. The  
15 anatomical specificity in loading supports epidemiological observations and provides an  
16 insight into potential concussion aetiology.

17

## 18 INTRODUCTION

19 The incidence of head injuries and concussions in rugby ranges from 6.6-14.6 and 4.1-9.1  
20 per 1000 game hours respectively (Kemp, Hudson, Brooks, & Fuller, 2008; Brooks, Fuller,  
21 Kemp, & Reddin, 2005; Fuller, Sheerin, & Targett, 2013; Gardner, Iverson, Williams,  
22 Baker, & Stanwell, 2014; Tommasone & Valovich McLeod, 2006). Whilst catastrophic  
23 brain injury in rugby is rare (McCrory, Berkovic, & Corder, 2000), concussive injury is

1 frequent, accounting for up to 25% of all injuries (McIntosh, 2003). The concussive  
2 incidence rate equates to a concussion every 6 matches, with 15 concussions recorded  
3 during the 2011 rugby World Cup competition (Fuller et al., 2013). Concussion is a  
4 complex pathophysiological process resulting from a direct impact to the head, or to  
5 another region of the body causing an abrupt acceleration and/or deceleration to the  
6 craniocervical complex (Marshall, 2012). Repeated concussions and mild traumatic brain  
7 injury (MTBI) can result in chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE) (Roberts, Allsop, &  
8 Bruton, 1990; McKee, Cantu, Nowinski, Hedley-Whyte, Gavett, Budson, et al., 2009;  
9 Patricios and Kemp, 2014). The development of CTE can have symptoms of deterioration  
10 in attention, memory and concentration which can manifest to overt dementia (McKee et  
11 al. 2009). In previous research, at least 17% of repeated concussion or MTBI sufferers  
12 developed CTE (Roberts et al., 1990), and 90% of neuropathologically confirmed cases of  
13 CTE were athletes (90%).

14 The tackle is the most common facet of play in which head injuries occur within rugby,  
15 accounting for 56-64% (Bird, Waller, Marshall, Alsop, Chalmers, & Gerrard, 1998;  
16 Brooks et al., 2005; Kemp et al., 2008). The tackle scenario is unlikely to be linear;  
17 Broglio, Schnebel, Sosnoff, Shin, Fend & Zimmerman (2010) identified the presence of  
18 linear and rotational accelerations of the head, with rotational forces contributing to the  
19 mechanism of concussion (Thompson & Hagedorn, 2012). Video analysis of concussive  
20 events within Australian Rules Football, Rugby and Rugby league found that although the  
21 majority of concussions occurred as a result of a direct impact to the head, concussion also  
22 arose as result of a change in relative momentum of the head relative to the trunk  
23 (McIntosh, McCrory, & Comerford, 2000). The potential for concussive injury via the  
24 whiplash mechanism is attributed to the large degrees movement of the head relative to the  
25 neck (Ommaya & Hirsch, 1971; Shaw, 2002).

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3 1 The relative anatomical accelerations and contribution of linear and rotational forces in  
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5 2 concussions present an opportunity in the use of tri-axial accelerometry to investigate the  
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7 3 mechanism of head injury in the rugby tackle scenario. GPS technology has been utilised  
8  
9 4 previously in rugby to quantify the demands of playing and training (Reid, Cowman,  
10  
11 5 Green, & Coughlan, 2013; Jones, West, Crewther, Cook, & Kilduff, 2015; Hartwig,  
12  
13 6 Naughton, & Searl, 2011) and to quantify the intensity and frequency of collisions (Suarez-  
14  
15 7 Arronez, Arenas, Lopez, Requena, Terrill, & Mendez-Villanueva, 2014; Cunniffe, Proctor,  
16  
17 8 Barker, & Davies, 2009; Venter, Opperman, & Opperman, 2011). The contemporary  
18  
19 9 development of GPS-based micro-technologies has established a greater degree of  
20  
21 10 reliability due to the higher sampling frequencies (Boyd, Ball, & Aughey, 2011), and  
22  
23 11 research has demonstrated the efficacy of incorporating tri-axial accelerometry in sports  
24  
25 12 such as netball (Cormack, Smith, Mooney, Young, & O'Brien, 2014), basketball  
26  
27 13 (Montgomery, Pyne, & Minahan, 2010) and Australian football (Boyd, Ball, & Aughey,  
28  
29 14 2013). The aim of the present study is to investigate the efficacy of tri-axial accelerometry  
30  
31 15 in identifying risk factors for head injury during the rugby tackle event. To account for the  
32  
33 16 whiplash mechanism associated with the relative movement of anatomical locations, units  
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35 17 will be housed within a protective helmet in addition to the most common placement at the  
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37 18 cervico-thoracic junction. Multiple sites at the head are considered to account for the  
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39 19 linear and rotational forces which contribute to concussion.  
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## 21 **MATERIALS AND METHOD**

### 22 **Participants**

23 A total of 24 rugby tackle events were analysed to provide a total of 48 trials (24 as tackler  
24 and 24 as ball carrier). This data set comprised 12 male rugby union players (age 21.3 ±

1 2.2 years; weight  $88.7 \pm 5.6$  kg; height  $1.84 \pm 0.06$  m), recruited from a single semi-  
2 professional club. These 12 players represent a relatively homogeneous sample from  
3 within the club, and this was deemed beneficial given the potential impact of  
4 anthropometric variability on loading and tackle technique. Furthermore, during testing,  
5 matched pairs were established based on weight, height and playing position. All  
6 participants were made aware of the purposes and risks of the study prior to any data  
7 collection. All participants provided written informed consent, were health screened and  
8 reported to be injury free for at least six months prior to data collection. Additionally, each  
9 player had a minimum of 8 years of competitive rugby experience, and a current training  
10 status equivalent to four training sessions (two rugby-specific sessions) and one  
11 competitive match per week. Ethical consent was provided at a Departmental level in  
12 accord with the spirit of the declaration of Helsinki.

### 13 **Experimental Design**

14 A tackle scenario involving two participants, a tackler and ball carrier, was created using  
15 either the active shoulder or smother tackles based on their prominence in rugby  
16 (McIntosh, Savage, McCrory, Frechede, & Wolfe, 2010). During each tackle, both the ball  
17 carrier and tackler wore modified protective headgear designed to accommodate three  
18 Catapult MinimaxX S4 GPS units (Catapult Innovations, Victoria, Australia) with an  
19 incorporated tri-axial piezoelectric linear accelerometer (Kionix: KXP94) operating at  
20 100Hz. The reliability of these accelerometers has been previously established within the  
21 literature as acceptable (CV= 0.91-1.05%) in dynamic movements (Boyd et al., 2011).  
22 Two units were positioned either side of the skull at the left temporo-parietal region (LT-  
23 PR) and right temporo-parietal region (RT-PR) and one was positioned to the rear, at the  
24 occipital region (OR) of the skull. A fourth unit was fitted in the customary position

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2  
3 1 between the scapulae at the thoraco-cervical region (CSR) in the elasticised vests provided  
4  
5 2 by the manufacturer.  
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8 3 Prior to data collection, participants engaged in a ten minute warm up incorporating  
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10 4 dynamic stretches and standing tackle impacts. Participants were also required to perform  
11  
12 5 ten submaximal tackles, progressing from a stationary crouched position to gradually  
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14 6 increasing approach lengths up to the pre-determined experimental set-up of 5m. This  
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16 7 progressive exercise was performed to gradually increase the velocity of contact, and to  
17  
18 8 ensure a safe and ecologically valid technique was achieved by both participants. Player  
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20 9 pairs were established prior to experimental trials, and all familiarisation trials were  
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23 10 completed in these pairs to establish consistency.  
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26 11 Within the experimental pair, each participant completed the active shoulder and smother  
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28 12 tackle scenarios as both ball carrier and tackler. These four experimental trials were  
29  
30 13 completed in randomised order across the pairs. In the active shoulder tackle, the tackler's  
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32 14 shoulder makes the first point of contact with the ball carrier's trunk region, this is  
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34 15 followed by a leg drive and forward momentum to bring the ball carrier to the ground. The  
35  
36 16 smother tackle involves the tackler wrapping his arms around the ball carrier and utilising  
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38 17 their momentum to bring them to the ground, rotating with them in the process.  
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42 18 Each trial allowed the tackler and ball carrier a run-up sequence of 5m before the tackle  
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44 19 was performed, in which both tackles resulted in the ball carrier being taken to the ground.  
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46 20 The absolute and relative speeds of the ball carrier and tackler influence the incidence and  
47  
48 21 severity of injury (Quarrie & Hopkins, 2008). In the current study the GPS unit placed at  
49  
50 22 the CSR was used to quantify the forward velocity of both players immediately prior to  
51  
52 23 impact. Familiarisation trials were utilised to establish a consistent expression of effort,  
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54 24 and to attain a reliable approach speed by both players. Immediately after impact, the  
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1 culmination of the tackle event was also standardised. Familiarisation trials identified that  
2 the majority of tackle events utilised a two stride effort to take the ball carrier to the  
3 ground. As a result, tacklers were instructed to complete the grounding of the ball carrier  
4 with a maximum of two strides: typically the first stride being to establish contact with the  
5 ball carrier, and the second stride used to drive the ball carrier to the ground and complete  
6 the tackle.

### 7 **Data Analysis**

8 All data was downloaded using Catapult Sprint software (Version 5.1.1, Catapult  
9 Innovations, Victoria, Australia). The forward velocity of the ball carrier and tackler  
10 immediately prior to impact were  $5.6 \pm 0.3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  and  $3.8 \pm 0.2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  respectively. During  
11 each tackle, each of the four tri-axial accelerometers (CSR, OR, LT-PR and RT-PR) were  
12 analysed for anterior-posterior (AP), medio-lateral (ML) and vertical (V) uni-axial  
13 PlayerLoad™. Uni-axial load was calculated using the equation as described by Boyd,  
14 Ball, & Aughey (2013), and defined using the instantaneous rate of change in acceleration:  
15  $\sqrt{[(a_{y1} - a_{y-1})^2/100]}$ . This was done for each of the three discrete uni-axial vectors.

16 The cumulative tri-axial Total PlayerLoad was also calculated, defined as the sum of the  
17 three uni-axial vectors (rather than the square root of the sum as described by Boyd, Ball,  
18 & Aughey). This summative tri-axial value was subsequently used to calculate the relative  
19 contribution of each plane to total load.

### 20 **Statistical Analysis.**

21 Statistical analysis and the selected analysis parameters were determined *a priori*. The  
22 assumptions associated with a repeated measures general linear model (GLM) were  
23 assessed to ensure model adequacy, including the residual normality for each analysis  
24 parameter. Mauchly's test of sphericity was supplemented with a Greenhouse Geisser

1 correction where appropriate. Subsequent inferential analyses were performed using a  
2 mixed method two-way (unit location\*tackle condition) repeated measure GLM to  
3 examine differences in the loading between the tri-axial accelerometer locations (CSR,  
4 OR, LT-PR, RT-PR), and tackle condition (ball carrier, tackler). Where significant main  
5 effects or interactions were observed, post-hoc pairwise comparisons with a Bonferroni  
6 correction factor were applied. To further identify substantive significance associated with  
7 main effects and interactions, partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) values were calculated to estimate  
8 effect sizes. All data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD unless otherwise stated.

## 10 RESULTS

11 There was a significant main effect ( $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.72$ ) for unit location with significantly  
12 higher ( $P\leq 0.001$ ) 3D load at the CSR ( $1.63\pm 0.54$  a.u) and OR ( $1.67\pm 0.94$  a.u) units when  
13 compared to the LT-PR ( $1.23\pm 0.39$  a.u) and RT-PR ( $1.21\pm 0.44$  a.u) units. Further analysis  
14 revealed a significant main effect ( $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.59$ ) for tackle condition and a significant  
15 interaction ( $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.46$ ) between unit location and tackle condition.

16 The active shoulder tackler exhibited significantly ( $p\leq 0.001$ ) greater Load at CSR  
17 ( $1.90\pm 0.57$  a.u) and OR ( $2.03\pm 0.76$  a.u) than LT-PR ( $1.50\pm 0.40$  a.u) and RT-PR  
18 ( $1.49\pm 0.43$  a.u) units. The ball carrier also exhibited significantly higher ( $P\leq 0.036$ ) 3D  
19 load at CSR ( $1.90\pm 0.41$  a.u) and OR ( $1.69\pm 0.52$  a.u) than LT-PR ( $1.17\pm 0.18$  a.u) and RT-  
20 PR ( $1.16\pm 0.21$  a.u).

21 The ball carrier into the smother tackle also exhibited significantly greater ( $P\leq 0.001$ ) Load  
22 at CSR ( $1.71\pm 0.33$  a.u) and OR ( $1.69\pm 0.45$  a.u) than LT-PR ( $1.25\pm 0.19$  a.u) and RT-PR  
23 ( $1.25\pm 0.20$  a.u). In contrast, the smother tackler exhibited significantly greater ( $P\leq 0.013$ )



1 Load at OR ( $1.28 \pm 0.15$  a.u) than CSR ( $1.02 \pm 0.39$  a.u), LT-PR ( $0.99 \pm 0.23$  a.u) and RT-PR  
2 ( $0.95 \pm 0.27$  a.u) units. The influence of tackle condition and unit placement is summarised  
3 in Figure 1.

4  
5 \*\* Insert Figure 1 near here \*\*

6  
7 Table 1 summarises the influence of unit location and tackle condition on the uni-axial  
8 Load. There was a significant main effect for unit location in each of the Anterio-Posterior  
9 ( $P=0.031$ ,  $\eta^2=0.23$ ), Medio-Lateral ( $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.87$ ) and Vertical ( $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.66$ )  
10 planes. There was also a significant main effect for tackle condition (Anterio-Posterior:  
11  $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.52$ ; Medio-Lateral:  $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.55$ ; Vertical:  $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.72$ ) and a  
12 significant interaction effect between unit location and tackle condition in each plane  
13 (Anterio-Posterior:  $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.44$ ; Medio-Lateral:  $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.48$ ; Vertical:  
14  $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.26$ ).

15 Post-hoc analysis revealed that Anterio-Posterior loading was significantly higher for the  
16 ball carrier at the CSR when compared to the LT-PR and RT-PR in the active shoulder  
17 ( $P \leq 0.033$ ) and smother tackles ( $P \leq 0.037$ ). Conversely, AP loading at CSR was  
18 significantly less for the tackler during the smother tackle than at either parietal regions  
19 ( $P \leq 0.039$ ).

20 Medio-Lateral loading was significantly higher at the CSR and OR than LT-PR and RT-PR  
21 in all tackle conditions ( $P \leq 0.001$ ). For the tackler, loading at OR was significantly greater  
22 than at CSR in both conditions (AS:  $P=0.009$ ; S:  $P=0.017$ ). For the ball carrier, the active  
23 shoulder tackle elicited significantly greater ML loading at CSR than OR ( $P=0.003$ ).

1 Vertical loading was significantly higher at the CSR and OR than the LT-PR and RT-PR  
2 regions in the AS-T ( $P \leq 0.018$ ), AS-BC ( $P \leq 0.002$ ), and S-BC ( $P \leq 0.045$ ) tackle conditions.  
3 In the S-T condition, OR loading was significantly greater than at all other locations  
4 ( $P \leq 0.026$ ), and LT-PR was significantly higher than RT-PR ( $P = 0.032$ ).

5  
6 \*\* Insert Table 1 near here \*\*  
7

8 AP Load was significantly greater at the CSR than all other sites for the ball carrier in each  
9 condition. However the smother tackler exhibited significantly less Load at CSR than all  
10 other locations, whilst the active shoulder tackler exhibited no difference between unit  
11 locations.

12 ML Load was significantly greater at CSR and OR than at LT-PR and RT-PR in all tackle  
13 conditions, however there was a distinction between ball carrier and tackler. ML Load at  
14 CSR was significantly greater than OR for the tackler, but for the ball carrier Load at OR  
15 was significantly greater than CSR.

16 Vertical Load was also significantly greater at CSR and OR than LT-PR and RT-PR for the  
17 ball carrier in both conditions, and for the active shoulder tackler. However, for the  
18 smother tackler V Load was significantly greater at OR than all other sites, with a  
19 symmetry differential evident in LT-PR loading being significantly greater than RT-PR.

20 The relative contribution of each uni-axial vector to Total Load is summarised in Figure 2.  
21 There was a significant ( $P < 0.001$ ) main effect for unit location in each axis. In the ML  
22 plane ( $\eta^2 = 0.96$ ) the % contribution was significantly greater at the CSR and OR than the  
23 parietal regions. There was a compensatory greater increase in % contribution in the AP

1 ( $\eta^2=0.82$ ) and V ( $\eta^2=0.49$ ) planes at LT-PR and RT-PR than at CSR and OR. In the AP  
2 plane, the % contribution was significantly higher ( $P=0.032$ ) at CSR than OR.

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11 \*\* Insert Figure 2 near here \*\*  
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16 In relative axial loading, there was a significant main effect for tackle condition in the ML  
17 ( $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.76$ ) and V ( $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.81$ ) planes, but not in the AP plane ( $P=0.272$ ,  
18  $\eta^2=0.11$ ). There was a significant interaction effect between unit location and tackle  
19 condition in the % contribution of all planes (ML:  $P<0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.31$ ; AP:  $P<0.001$ ,  
20  $\eta^2=0.33$ ; V:  $P=0.001$ ,  $\eta^2=0.24$ ). This data is summarised in Table 2.

21 The tackler exhibited significantly greater ( $P\leq 0.001$ ) AP % loading at the PR locations  
22 than CSR and OR. In the active shoulder tackle, relative AP loading was significantly  
23 higher ( $P=0.002$ ) at CSR than OR. The ball carrier in the active shoulder tackle exhibited  
24 significantly greater AP % loading at RT-PR than at CSR and OR ( $P\leq 0.017$ ), whereas this  
25 relative loading was significantly greater ( $P\leq 0.020$ ) at LT-PR in the smother tackle.

26 The greater AP% contribution in the PR sites was also evident in the V plane. For the  
27 tackler, V % at LT-PR was significantly greater ( $P\leq 0.001$ ) than OR in the active shoulder  
28 tackle, and significantly greater ( $P\leq 0.001$ ) than CSR in the smother tackle. For the ball  
29 carrier, relative V loading was significantly higher at RT-PR than CSR and OR in the  
30 active shoulder ( $P=0.026$ ) and smother ( $P\leq 0.001$ ) tackle. In the active shoulder tackle,  
31 relative loading at OR was significantly greater ( $P\leq 0.001$ ) than at CSR.

32 Conversely, the ML % contribution to total Load was significantly lower in the PR  
33 locations in all tackle conditions. In the active shoulder tackle, the relative loading was

1 significantly higher at OR than CSR ( $P<0.001$ ) for the tackler, but significantly higher at  
2 CSR than OR for the ball carrier ( $P=0.017$ ). For the ball carrier, LT-PR exhibited higher  
3 relative loading than RT-PR ( $P=0.037$ ). In the smother tackle, relative ML loading at CSR  
4 and OR were significantly greater ( $P<0.001$ ) than at PR locations for tackler and ball  
5 carrier. The smother tackler exhibited significantly greater ( $P=0.019$ ) loading at RT-PR  
6 than LT-PR.

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8 \*\* Insert Table 2 near here \*\*

9

## 10 **DISCUSSION**

11 Placing wearable technology in helmets has informed understanding of the biomechanics  
12 of concussion (Broglia et al., 2010; Broglia, Eckner, Martini, Sosnoff, Kutcher, &  
13 Randolph, 2011). The aim of the present study was to assess the efficacy of incorporating  
14 multiple tri-axial accelerometers within protective headgear in identifying risk factors for  
15 injury. The neoprene headgear used has limited capacity to attenuate impact energy  
16 (McIntosh, McCrory, Finch, Best, Chalmers, & Wolfe, 2009; McIntosh et al., 2000) and  
17 thus negates the influence of the headgear itself on measures of accelerometry. The  
18 product used in this study was a commercially available scrum cap, carrying the IRB  
19 approval logo, and meeting the requirement that no part of the headgear is thicker than  
20 10mm when uncompressed and with a density of no more than  $45\text{kg/m}^3$ . Critical  
21 discussion of the load magnitudes is limited by a lack of similar research, but the  
22 implications of unit placement have been considered previously (Barrett, Midgley,  
23 & Lovell, 2014

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3 1 The temporo-parietal region was identified by McIntosh et al. (2000) as the most frequent  
4  
5 2 site of concussive injuries in rugby, informing placement in this study. Total load was  
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7 3 significantly lower in the peripheral temporo-parietal regions when compared to the central  
8  
9 4 occipital and cervico-thoracic regions. The greater magnitude of loading in the central  
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11 5 regions might be attributed to the initial point of impact and the prevalence of linear (rather  
12  
13 6 than rotational) forces in these tackle scenarios. This is indicative of the primary influence  
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15 7 of linear forces where both players are moving forward. The front on tackle has greatest  
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17 8 propensity to cause concussion (Kemp et al., 2008) due to the greater presence of linear  
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19 9 forces, which are key contributors to concussive injury (Broglia et al., 2010; Pellman,  
20  
21  
22 10 Viano, Tucker, Casson, & Waeckerle, 2003).

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25 11 The loading pattern supports the epidemiological literature indicating the tackler is at the  
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27 12 greatest risk of head injury (Kemp et al., 2008; Bird et al., 1998). The greater loading in  
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29 13 central regions was observed in all conditions, but in the smother tackle the tackler was  
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31 14 subjected to a significantly greater load at the OR. This tackle is performed front-on, in an  
32  
33 15 upright position with the initial point of contact being the sternum. Analyses of AP load  
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35 16 confirmed greater magnitudes in all units positioned within the headgear relative to the  
36  
37 17 CSR, creating an impulse resulting in the head being set in motion relative to the trunk  
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39 18 (Shaw, 2002). This whiplash mechanism contributes to concussion in contact sports  
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42 19 (McIntosh et al., 2000).

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45 20 In the active shoulder technique, the tackler is advised to position their head to the side of  
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47 21 the ball carrier to reduce the likelihood of a direct head impact. The tackler using this  
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49 22 technique was exposed to a greater absolute and relative medio-lateral load at OR. The  
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51 23 initiation of rotational forces have been regarded a key risk factor to concussion in contact  
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53 24 sport (Broglia et al., 2010, 2011; Guskiewicz, Mihalik, Shankar, Marshall, Crowell, Oliaro,  
54  
55 25 et al., 2007; Broglia, Surma, & Ashton- Miller, 2010). The relative differences in ML load

1 between anatomical sites suggest there is propensity for medio-lateral whiplash due to the  
2 large freedom of movement of the head. This could increase the propensity of a collision  
3 between the brain floating in the cerebrospinal fluid and the stiff walls of the skull, causing  
4 a concussion (Shaw, 2002; Wilberger, Ortega, & Slobounov, 2006). Conversely, the ball  
5 carrier into the active shoulder tackle exhibited significantly greater 3D load at the CSR  
6 region. The points of contact and transferal of kinetic energy differ between the tackler and  
7 ball carrier (Quarrie & Hopkins, 2008; Fuller, Brooks, Cancea, Hall, & Kemp, 2007b).

8 There was lower (absolute and relative) antero-posterior load at the CSR than the OR in  
9 all tackle conditions, with a compensatory increase in medio-lateral and vertical loading  
10 contributions. Previous research investigating the biomechanics of head impacts has  
11 emphasised the importance of the role of both linear and rotational accelerations in  
12 concussive injury (Broglio et al., 2010, 2011) The proposed rotational component induced  
13 by the presence of lateral forces, has been suggested to have great propensity to cause  
14 concussion due to the increased strain on brain stem integrity (Guskiewicz et al., 2007;  
15 Broglio, Surma, & Ashton-Miller, 2010) which is derived from the anatomical linear  
16 alignment of the brain stem itself (Ommaya & Gennarelli, 1974).

17 The sensitivity of unit placement and the tri-axial nature of loading patterns suggests  
18 potential in head injury screening. For example, the significant difference in loading  
19 between the occipital skull and cervico-thoracic junction might inform analysis and  
20 identification of the whiplash mechanism. Up to 90% of sport related concussions occur  
21 without loss of consciousness (Cantu, 1996) and there is no “gold standard” for diagnosing  
22 concussion. Repeated concussions are usually more severe (Saffary, Chin, & Cantu, 2012)  
23 and the propensity of suffering a second concussion is increased by up to three-fold  
24 (Guskiewicz, Weaver, Padua, & Garrett, 2000). The efficacy of this tool is therefore  
25 encouraging as it could be incorporated alongside other assessment tools to improve

1 diagnosis of concussive injury. The present study has demonstrated the efficacy of  
2 positioning micro-technology upon the head, which could be further utilised to determine  
3 whether a player has experienced too great a load upon the head in a game/ head injury  
4 incident to allow them to return to training or play too soon. This could protect players  
5 from repeated concussive injuries, decreasing the propensity of insidious long- term  
6 neuropathological conditions (McKee et al., 2009; Patricios & Kemp, 2014). In the  
7 present study such a threshold would relate to the magnitude of acceleration, but recently  
8 the potential of exposure thresholds based on frequency of heading in soccer has been  
9 considered (Catenaccio, Caccese, Wakschlag, Fleysler, Kim, Kim, et al., 2016). The  
10 authors describe HeadCount, a 2 week recall questionnaire that was used to quantify the  
11 product of number of games and average number of headers per game. Catenaccio et al.  
12 reported this inexpensive and logistically convenient instrument to be a valid means for  
13 monitoring frequency of exposure, and advocated applications in other sport. A  
14 combination of magnitude and frequency monitoring should therefore be considered.

15 Concerns of injury in youth sport being detrimental to physical development (Emery,  
16 2010) and epidemiological studies still denoting high incidence and severity of head  
17 injuries and concussion in youth rugby (Bleakley, Tully, & O'Connor, 2011; Haseler,  
18 Carmont, & England, 2010; McIntosh et al., 2009) supports the use of this tool in youth  
19 rugby. Future research quantifying the biomechanics of concussive injuries could be  
20 correlated alongside other management protocols, such as investigation into clinical  
21 symptomology, neuropsychological function and postural stability, to establish this tool as  
22 another potential measure to monitor the concussive risk in collision sports. Rule changes  
23 present an alternate opportunity to influence injury risk. Caccese, Lamond, Buckley, &  
24 Kaminski (2016) recently advocated rule modifications for young soccer players to reduce  
25 heading in soccer in technical scenarios where ball velocity is greatest, specifically from

1 goal kicks and punts. The authors utilised a triaxial accelerometer and gyro located at the  
2 back of the head around the nuchal line to quantify peak linear and rotational head  
3 accelerations during match-play. Interestingly, about a third of impacts which exceeded  
4 the predetermined 10g threshold for analysis were non-head impact events, with the  
5 authors identifying sliding to the ground and contact with another player as scenarios  
6 which also resulted in high head accelerations. Caccese et al. (2016) in advocating a  
7 restriction on high-velocity heading scenarios cite previous rule changes in sport designed  
8 to protect the athlete, including Yang & Baugh (2016) in soccer who placed age-specific  
9 restrictions on heading exposure, and modified kick-off rules (Ruestow, Duke, Finley, &  
10 Pierce, 2015) and full-contact practice restrictions (Reynolds, Patrie, Henry, Goodkin,  
11 Broshek, Wintermark, et al., 2016) in football.

12 Through comparison of the relative raw planar acceleration between units positioned on  
13 the head and CSR, it may be possible to quantify magnitudes of acceleration/deceleration  
14 of the head relative to the scapulae that initiate concussion via potential whiplash  
15 mechanisms. Figure 3 depicts an example of the relative difference in CSR and OR  
16 antero-posterior acceleration during a tackle scenario. If these analyses were utilised in  
17 future ecological incidents of diagnosed head injury through systematic use of the  
18 technology, potential quantification and identification of the aetiology of concussion is  
19 possible. This could develop normative acceleration/deceleration thresholds to assist  
20 diagnostics of concussive injuries.

21

22 \*\* Insert Figure 3 near here \*\*

23



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3 1 It must be acknowledged that the data presented in the current study cannot be generalised  
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5 2 beyond this population and choice of tackle scenarios. In trying to establish a consistent  
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7 3 experimental paradigm there are inevitably compensations in ecological validity. There  
8  
9 4 are a number of factors which influence the tackle event, and ultimately the injury risk.  
10  
11 5 Quarrie & Hopkins (2008) cited running speed as an aetiological risk factor, but qualified  
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13 6 speed with descriptors such as jog, run, or sprint. In the current study a speed of ~20km/hr  
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15 7 was attained prior to contact by the ball carrier, with a relatively lower speed attained by  
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17 8 the tackler. It is difficult to directly compare these values with the literature, but they will  
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19 9 inevitably influence loading magnitudes. An extension of the experimental paradigm to  
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21 10 include a more diverse range of tackle techniques, impact speeds, and also mis-matched  
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23 11 pairs of subjects would further enhance ecological validity. In ensuring a consistent tackle  
24  
25 12 event, the random and unpredictable nature of this scenario is negated. The present study  
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27 13 did not consider the influence of any evasive movements for example, and this might  
28  
29 14 influence the velocity and loading at impact. Furthermore, the data presented more  
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31 15 accurately represents the acceleration of the protective headgear rather than the head.  
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33 16 There is potential for relative movement of the head within the headgear which is not  
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35 17 accounted for, and this must be acknowledged in interpretation. The consideration of  
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37 18 protective equipment beyond that used in the present study would also have merit.  
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42 19 In conclusion, unit location and tackle condition had a significant effect on the magnitude  
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44 20 and tri-axial nature of loading. The relative acceleration of different anatomical regions  
45  
46 21 has potential in quantifying the whiplash mechanism commonly cited in concussive events.  
47  
48 22 The greater load elicited in centrally located CSR and OR units suggests that linear forces  
49  
50 23 are most prominent in front on tackles, supporting epidemiological observations. The  
51  
52 24 present study has also highlighted evident loading dissimilarities between players in  
53  
54 25 alternative roles and tackle techniques, which supports epidemiological observations,  
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1 denoting the tackler is of greatest risk of head injury. Variations in elicited load between  
2 altering unit placements, within different facets of play has provided an insight into the  
3 potential aetiology of head injuries sustained within specific areas of the game. This could  
4 provide a basis for the instigation of further passive interventions to increase the safety of  
5 the game. Considering the findings of the present study and the proposed practical  
6 applications, there is evident potential for further applications in certain wearable  
7 technologies for the assessment of concussion risk and/or management in rugby and other  
8 football codes.

## 10 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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## 23 10 LEGENDS TO TABLES & FIGURES

- 24  
25 11 Table 1. The influence of tackle condition and unit location on uni-axial Load.  
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28 12 Table 2. The relative uni-axial contributions to Load.  
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31 13 Figure 1. The influence of tackle condition and unit location on Total PlayerLoad.  
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33 14 Figure 2. The influence of unit location on the relative uni-axial contributions to Load.  
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36 15 Figure 3. The relative acceleration of CSR and OR to quantify the whiplash mechanism.  
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Tackle Condition	Unit Location	Uni-Axial Player Load (a.u)		
		AP	ML	V
AS-T	CSR	0.56 ± 0.19	0.62 ± 0.21	0.71 ± 0.18
	OR	0.53 ± 0.22	0.76 ± 0.30 *	0.75 ± 0.25
	LT-PR	0.54 ± 0.14	0.37 ± 0.11 *^	0.60 ± 0.17 *^
	RT-PR	0.53 ± 0.18	0.38 ± 0.11 *^	0.58 ± 0.16 *^
AS-BC	CSR	0.59 ± 0.16	0.54 ± 0.14	0.77 ± 0.19
	OR	0.49 ± 0.18 *	0.42 ± 0.15 *	0.78 ± 0.20
	LT-PR	0.39 ± 0.06 *^	0.22 ± 0.06 *^	0.57 ± 0.10 *^
	RT-PR	0.40 ± 0.07 *^	0.20 ± 0.07 *^	0.56 ± 0.08 *^
S-T	CSR	0.30 ± 0.06	0.36 ± 0.07	0.36 ± 0.03
	OR	0.35 ± 0.11	0.47 ± 0.16 *	0.47 ± 0.14 *
	LT-PR	0.37 ± 0.07 *	0.24 ± 0.08 *^	0.39 ± 0.09 ^
	RT-PR	0.35 ± 0.09 *	0.24 ± 0.08 *^	0.36 ± 0.11 ^\$
S-BC	CSR	0.52 ± 0.11	0.53 ± 0.12	0.67 ± 0.14
	OR	0.52 ± 0.16	0.52 ± 0.17	0.66 ± 0.16
	LT-PR	0.45 ± 0.06 *	0.28 ± 0.07 *^	0.52 ± 0.10 *^
	RT-PR	0.41 ± 0.08 *^	0.28 ± 0.08 *^	0.56 ± 0.06 *^

\* denotes significantly different than CSR

^ denotes significantly different than OR

\$ denotes significantly different than LT-PR

Tackle Condition	Unit Location	Uni-Axial Contribution (%)		
		AP	ML	V
AS-T	CSR	29.24± 3.09	32.38± 1.90	38.38± 4.38
	OR	25.44 ± 2.35 *	37.15 ± 2.38 *	37.41 ± 2.84
	LT-PR	35.70 ± 3.01 <sup>^</sup>	24.64 ± 3.00 <sup>^</sup>	39.66 ± 2.44 <sup>^</sup>
	RT-PR	35.44 ± 3.32 <sup>^</sup>	25.28 ± 2.05 <sup>^</sup>	39.29 ± 4.34
AS-BC	CSR	30.85± 3.71	28.71± 4.41	40.44± 7.02
	OR	28.47 ± 3.02	24.73 ± 2.15 *	46.79 ± 4.13 *
	LT-PR	33.47 ± 3.29 <sup>^</sup>	18.23 ± 3.29 <sup>^</sup>	48.31 ± 4.86 *
	RT-PR	34.56 ± 2.71 <sup>^</sup>	16.60 ± 3.39 <sup>^</sup> \$	48.85 ± 2.86 <sup>^</sup>
S-T	CSR	29.18± 1.91	35.36± 2.60	35.46± 3.51
	OR	27.20 ± 3.81	36.30 ± 4.10	36.50 ± 3.74
	LT-PR	37.51 ± 4.65 <sup>^</sup>	23.61 ± 3.13 <sup>^</sup>	38.88 ± 3.16 *
	RT-PR	37.31 ± 2.83 <sup>^</sup>	25.28 ± 2.31 <sup>^</sup> \$	37.41 ± 2.27
S-BC	CSR	30.24± 2.46	30.76± 3.69	39.00± 2.85
	OR	30.31 ± 3.25	30.23 ± 3.80	39.45 ± 3.72
	LT-PR	36.10 ± 3.68 <sup>^</sup>	22.17 ± 3.78 <sup>^</sup>	41.74 ± 4.06
	RT-PR	32.74 ± 2.14 <sup>^</sup> \$	21.88 ± 4.14 <sup>^</sup>	45.38 ± 3.95 <sup>^</sup>

\* denotes significantly different than CSR

<sup>^</sup> denotes significantly different than OR

\$ denotes significantly different than LT-PR

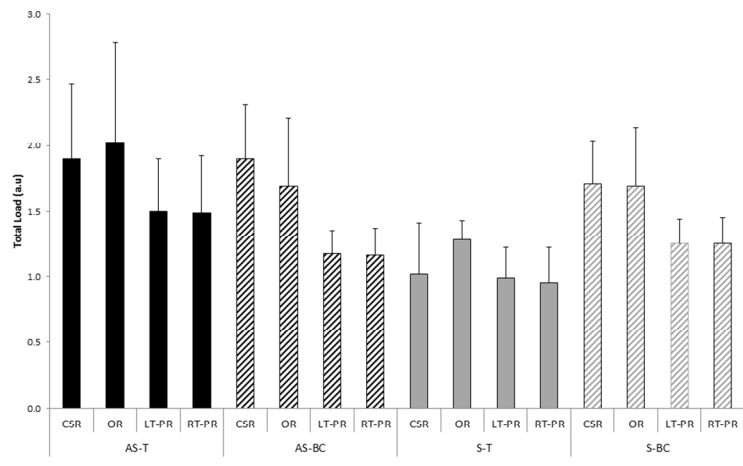


Figure 1. The influence of tackle condition and unit location on Total PlayerLoad.

338x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

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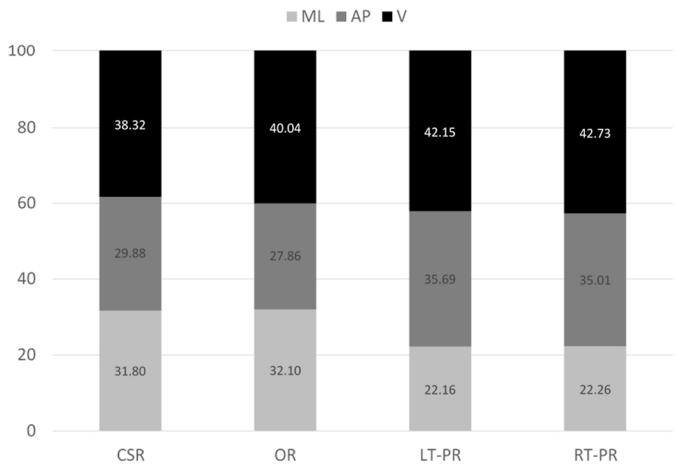


Figure 2. The influence of unit location on the relative uni-axial contributions to Load.

338x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

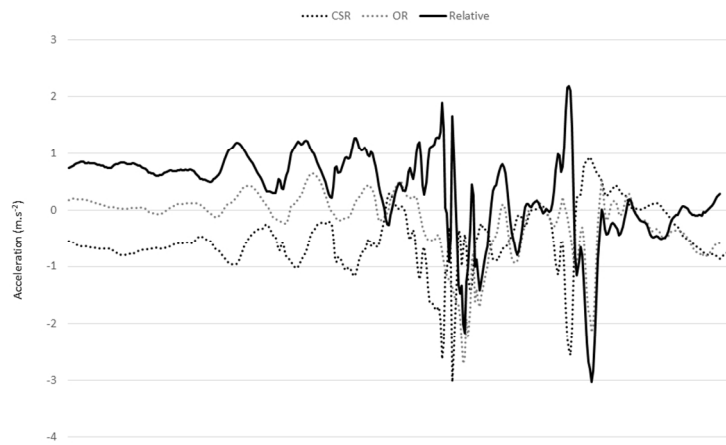


Figure 3. The relative acceleration of CSR and OR to quantify the whiplash mechanism.

338x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)