A Review of Head Injury and Impact Biomechanics in Recreational Skiing and Snowboarding

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SUMMARY

Background. Skiing and snowboarding are popular competitive and recreational sports with associated head injury risks from impact hazards. Understanding head injury hazards and risks in snow sports can inform injury prevention measures, such as helmets, education and environment design of runs and terrain park features, to manage injury risk.

Aim. To identify and discuss (a) the proportion and incidence of head injuries and effectiveness of helmets, (b) circumstances, situational events and characteristics of head injuries and (c) head impact biomechanics in recreational skiing and snowboard-ing.

Methods. A narrative literature review was performed.

Results. Head injuries comprise up to 38% and 29% of all injuries in skiing and snowboarding, respectively. Skull fractures were found to comprise nearly half of all moderate to severe head injuries in alpine sports across all studies. The most common intracranial injury in skiing and snowboarding was cerebral contusion and subdural haematoma, respectively. Fatal head injuries in skiing are rare with an incidence of approximately one death per one million skier-visits and less than 1% of all skiing head injuries resulted in death. The majority of head injuries were sustained by novice and intermediate level skiers and snowboarders during falls on mild or moderate gradient slopes. Head injury cases occurred in terrain parks were more common in snowboarders than skiers. Fall-related head injuries to skiers are typically in the forward direction with an impact to the front of the head, whereas snowboarders fall rearward and impact the occipital region. Helmet use has increased in recent years, but recent studies have observed an unexpected reduction of the protective effect of helmets in skiing and snowboarding. Alpine sports helmet standards require linear drops onto rigid anvils, but the correlation with snow surfaces is unknown and no helmet standard requires an oblique impact test. Significant protective effects of helmets have been found for collisions and falls onto hard snow.

Conclusions. Alpine sport helmet performance standards should more closely reflect the boundary conditions of impacts to skiers and snowboarders associated with head injury. Administrative and engineering controls may also reduce the risk of head injury in skiing and snowboarding.

KEY WORDS

Head injury; helmet; impact biomechanics; skiing; snowboarding; snow sports

INTRODUCTION

Professional skiing and snowboarding are physically demanding sports involving high speeds, large jumps, technical manoeuvres and equipment specific to each event. In contrast, recreational alpine sports encompass a wide range of ages, skill levels, equipment, environments and hazards. Rigorous long-term injury surveillance programs have been established for professional skiing and snowboarding, which have identified the injury profile of professional athletes differs from recreational skiers and snowboarders (1,2). In addition, high-quality footage of crashes during professional skiing and snowboarding events has enabled detailed investigations of head injuries (3-5). Such detailed injury investigations are limited in the recreational setting. Understanding head injuries in alpine sports can inform injury prevention measures, such as helmets, education and environment design of runs and terrain park features, to reduce head injury risk. Therefore, the purpose of the current review is to identify and discuss (a) the proportion and incidence of head injuries and effectiveness of helmets. (b) circumstances, situational events and characteristics of head injuries and (c) head impact biomechanics in recreational skiing and snowboarding.

HEAD INJURIES

Incidence

Hentschel et al. (6) estimated the incidences of head injuries as 5 per one million skiers and 4 per one million snowboarders. In contrast, Hagel et al. (7) estimated the incidence as 25.9 and 73.4 head injuries per one million skiers and snowboarders, respectively. Similarly, Corra et al. (8) estimated that there were 36 hospitalisations due to head injury per one million skier-days. In a recent study, Dickson et al. (9) analysed alpine sport injuries in Western Canada from 2008 to 2013 and reported the average head injury incidence as 0.2 per 1000 skier-visits.

Head injuries in skiing and snowboarding comprise 5-38% and 5-29% of all injuries, respectively (**table I**). Several studies have analysed head injuries in skiing and snowboarding from different time periods (10,11). Shealy et al. (10) compared head injuries in 1990, 2000 and 2010, but found no decrease over time. In contrast, another study by Shealy et al. (12), head injuries were found to decline from 8.4% to 6.8% of all head injuries over 17 ski seasons. More recently, Sulheim et al. (11) reported that 17.6% of all injuries in skiing and snowboarding were head injuries.

Table I. Head in	juries as a	percentage (of all injuries	in skiing and	l snowboarding.

Study	Country	Years	Method	Sport	n	Percentage of all injuries		
	-			•		Head	Concussion	
Lipskie (2000)(16)	Canada	1996-1997	Ski patrol reports	Ski	4226	8%		
				Snowboard	2501	10%		
Machold et al. (2000) (17)	Austria	1996-1997	School student questionnaire	Snowboard	152	11%	5%	
Dohjima et al. (2001)(18)	Japan	1988-1997	Hospital admissions	Ski	4895	10%		
				Snowboard	1776	8%		
Drulec et al. (2001)(19)	Canada	1990-1998	Hospital admissions (paediatric)	Snowboard	118	8%		
Federiuk et al. (2002)	USA	1992-1999	State-wide trauma registry	Ski	67	38%		
(20)				Snowboard	31	29%		
Langran et al. (2002)	Scotland	1999-2002	Ski patrol reports	Ski	1095	15%	5%	
(21,22)				Snowboard	567	14%	5%	
Bridges et al. (2003)(23)	Canada	1999-2000	Ski patrol reports	Ski	823	11%	11%	
				Snowboard	434	14%	-	
Hagel et al. (2003)(7)	Canada	1991-1999	Canadian Hospitals Injury	Ski	5410	16%		
		Reporting and Prevention Program (CHIRPP) (paediatric)	Snowboard	3177	12%			

Table I	. Continues	
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Study	Country	Years	Method	Sport	n		entage of all injuries
				_		Head	Concussion
Pogorzelski et al. (2003)	Australia	1990-1995,	Ski patrol reports	Ski	5334	8%	4%
(24)		1997-2002		Snowboard	1770	9%	6%
Skokan et al. (2003)(25)	USA	1996-2000	Hospital admissions	Ski	72	19%	8%
			(paediatric)	Snowboard	26	31%	25%
Corra et al. (2004)(8)	Italy	2001-2002	Hospital admissions	Ski	1003	15%	
				Snowboard	331	17%	
Yamagami et al. (2004) (26)	Japan	1992-1999	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	3102	18%	
Xiang et al. (2005)(27)	USA	2002	National Electronic Injury	Ski	77,300	16%	
			Surveillance System (NEISS)	Snowboard	62,000	17%	
Emery et al. (2006)(28)	Canada	2003-2004	School student questionnaire	Snowboard	142	27%	19%
Ekeland et al. (2008)	Norway	2004-2006	Ski patrol reports	Ski	4575	15%	
(29,30)				Snowboard	2746	14%	
Hayes et al. (2008)(31)	USA	1999-2006	Level I trauma centre	Ski	22	36%	
			registry (paediatric)	Snowboard	57	25%	
Sakamoto et al. (2008)	Japan	2000-2005	Medical centre admissions	Ski	1240	5%	
(32)				Snowboard	2220	7%	
Wasden et al. (2009)(33)	USA	2001-2006	Hospital admissions	Ski	794	14%	4%
				Snowboard	348	22%	7%
Brooks et al. (2010)(34)	USA	2000-2005	Ski patrol reports	Ski	508	8%	6%
				Snowboard	9273	12%	10%
Ekeland et al. (2010)(35)	Norway	2006-2008	Ski patrol reports	Ski	5146	14%	
				Snowboard	2447	16%	
Ogawa et al. (2010)(36)	Japan	1996-2008	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	18,791	19%	
Ekeland et al. (2012)(37)	Norway	2008-2010	Ski patrol reports	Ski	6036	14%	
				Snowboard	202	14%	
Kim et al. (2012)(38)	USA	1988-2006	Medical centre admissions	Ski			5%
			(paediatric)	Snowboard			5%
			Medical centre admissions	Ski			3%
			(adult)	Snowboard			4%
Selig et al. (2012)	Austria	2006-2007	Attended by Helicopter Emergency Medical Service	Ski	749	21%	
			(HEMS) (paediatric)	Snowboard	117	22%	
Russell et al. (2014)(39)	Canada	2008-2010	Ski patrol reports	Snowboard	379	14%	11%
Ehrnthaller et al. (2015) (40)	Germany	2005-2012	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	186	5%	
Shealy et al. (2015)(12)	USA	1995-2012	Medical centre admissions	Ski	6296	7%	3%
Shealy et al. (2015)(10)	USA	2010-2011	Medical centre admissions	Ski	13,145	8%	3%
				Snowboard	-	13%	5%

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Table	I. Cor	ntinues
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Study	Country	Years	Method	Sport	n		entage of all njuries
	-			-		Head	Concussion
Stenroos et al. (2015)(41)	Finland	2010-2011	Ski patrol reports	Ski	1991	15%	
				Snowboard	893	12%	
Basques et al. (2016)(42)	USA	2011-2012	American College of	Ski	3351	20%	
			Surgeons (ACS) National Trauma Data Bank (NTDB)	Snowboard	2704	26%	
Weber et al. (2016)(43)	Europe	1993-2012	German Trauma Society	Ski	373	22%	
			Register	Snowboard	52	25%	
Dickson et al. (2017)(9)	Canada	2008-2013	Ski patrol reports	Ski, snowboard	82,124	9%	8%
Van Laarhoven et al.	The	2012-2014	Hospital admissions	Ski	232	13%	
(2017)(44)	Netherlands				411	11%	
Summers et al. (2017)(45)	Australia	2005-2015	Ski patrol reports	Ski	3821	7%	
			(paediatric)	Snowboard	2422	6%	
Basques et al. (2018)(46)	USA	2011-2012	American College of Surgeons (ACS) National	Ski	3351	20%	
			Trauma Data Bank (NTDB)	Snowboard	2704	26%	
Ekeland et al. (2019)(47)	Norway	2010-2012	Ski patrol reports	Ski	3569	15%	
				Snowboard	1236	13%	

ries. For youth, head injuries in skiing and snowboarding comprise 7-36% and 6-31% of all injuries, respectively.

CONCUSSION

Concussions are currently a head injury of concern in sports (13), particularly skiing and snowboarding as they comprise 3-8% and 5-25% of all injuries, respectively (table I). Specifically, concussions represent 31-77% and 32-83% of all head injuries in skiing and snowboarding, respectively. The accuracy of the diagnosis of concussions can vary across studies. For example, Shealy et al. (10) found that concussions represented between 6% and 11% of all skiing and snowboarding injuries according to ski patrol reports, respectively, but medically diagnosed concussions represented only 3% and 5% of all skiing and snowboarding injuries, respectively. In a recent study, Gil et al. (14) reported the incidence of concussion for skiers was 9.8 concussions per one million skier-seasons. The incidence of 12.7 concussions per one million snowboarder-seasons was significantly higher. Gil et al. (14) also reported that the concussion incidence for youth and males was higher than for adults and females, respectively. Similarly, Bergmann et al. (15) reported that youth snowboarders had a greater likelihood of sustaining a concussion compared to youth skiers.

MODERATE TO SEVERE HEAD INJURIES

Several studies have reported the nature of moderate to severe head injuries in recreational skiing and snowboarding (**table II**). Across studies, skull fractures comprised 46% of all moderate to severe head injuries: skiing, 53%; snowboarding, 40%. Some studies reported types of skull fractures as a proportion of moderate to severe head injuries in skiing and snowboarding: basilar skull fractures, 20-27%; linear skull fractures, 10-19%; depression skull fractures, 7% (6,48,49).

The most common intracranial injury in skiing was cerebral contusion, which was found to comprise 22% of all moderate to severe head injuries across studies. In contrast, subdural haematoma comprised 27% of all moderate to severe head injuries in snowboarding across studies. Subarachnoid, epidural and intracerebral haematoma are relatively uncommon in alpine sports comprising 9%, 7% and 2% of all moderate to severe head injuries across studies, respectively. Interestingly, Levy et al. (48) reported diffuse axonal

Sec. 1	Constant	V	NC 1 1	6	Moderate-severe head injury							
Study	Country	Years	Method	Sport	n	Fracture	SDH	SAH	EDH	ICH	Contusion	
Diamond et al. (2001)(50)	USA	1994- 1997	State-wide TBI database	Ski	118	24%			39%	, 0		
Fukuda et al.	Japan	1994-	Hospital	Ski	46	50%	11%	13%	4%	2%	15%	
(2001)(51)		1999	admissions	Snowboard	49	31%	35%	10%	2%	0%	16%	
Hentschel et al.	Canada	1992-	Provincial trauma	Ski	34	41%	6%		15%		18%	
(2001)(6)		1997	registry	Snowboard	24	38%	8%		17%		25%	
Levy et al. (2002)(48)	USA	1982- 1998	Trauma centre registry	Ski (83%), snowboard (17%)	265	39%	9%		9%	8%	28%	
Nakaguchi et al. (2002)(52)	Japan	1995- 2000	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	48	15%	38%	17%	6%		21%	
Skokan et al.	USA	1996-	Trauma centre	Ski	11	36%			64%	, 0		
(2003)(25)		2000	admissions (paediatric)	Snowboard	5	0%			100%	%		
Siu et al. (2004)	Australia	1994-		Ski	18	39%	11%	11%	6%	6%	28%	
(49)		2002	admissions	Snowboard	10	60%	10%	10%	10%	0%	10%	
Fukuda et al. (2007, 2008) (53,54)	Japan	1999- 2003	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	88	61%			39%	, D		
Simson et al. (2008)(55)	Canada	1986- 1995	Various	Ski	24	29%					23%	
Wasden et al.	USA	2001-	Hospital	Ski	87	29%	13%	17%			28%	
(2009)(33)		2006	admissions	Snowboard	44	9%	16%	18%			41%	
Fukuda (2011) (56)	Japan	1992- 2007	Hospital and medical centre admissions	Ski	54		24%		2%		28%	
Koyama et al. (2011)(57)	Japan	1999- 2008	Neurosurgery examinations	Snowboard	165	47%	29%	10%	4%		8%	
Rughani et al. (2011)(58)	USA	2003- 2009	Level I trauma centre registries	Ski (46%), snowboard (54%)	74	47%	12%	15%	4%		19%	
Corra et al. (2012)(59)	Italy	2001- 2005	Hospital admissions	Ski (88%), snowboard (12%)	108	31%	6%	17%	24%		22%	
Shealy et al. (2015)(12)	USA	1995- 2012	Medical centre admissions	Ski	438	69%						

Table II. Moderate to severe head injuries in recreational skiing and snowboarding.

SDH: subdural haematoma. SAH: subarachnoid haematoma. EDH: epidural haematoma. ICH: intracerebral haematoma.

injury comprised 8% of all moderate to severe head injuries in skiing and snowboarding.

FATAL HEAD INJURIES

Skiing has long been associated with fatal head injuries 60-64, which includes the deaths of celebrities, such as

Sonny Bono and Natasha Richardson. Although head injury has been identified as the primary cause of death in 41-53% of all traumatic fatalities occurring on the slopes (65-67), fatal head injuries in skiing are rare with an incidence of approximately one death per one million skier-visits (12). In addition, less than 1% of all skiing head injuries end in death (12). Coronial inquests have been conducted to investigate fatal head injuries in alpine sports in New Zealand (68) and Canada (67).

LIMITATIONS OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH

There are several limitations associated with previously published research regarding head injuries in skiing and snowboard, most notably the definitions of injuries. The lack of a consistent definition for concussion throughout the literature is well known. The Consensus Statements on Concussion in Sport have attempted to provide a consistent definition for clinicians and researchers (13). In addition, the definition of moderate to severe head injury varies throughout the literature, e.g. positive neuroimaging finding, hospitalisation or simply head injuries that are considered 'non-minor'. Although not specified within studies, it is likely moderate to severe head injuries are defined similar to the Abbreviated Injury Scale (AIS) definitions (69).

Another limitation is the method of data collection, e.g. self-reported questionnaires. Trauma registries and admission records of patients to hospitals and medical centres are considered reliable, but may not contain complete information for each patient. One quarter of studies relied upon ski patrol reports, which have been found to be a reliable source of information on risk factors for skiing and snowboarding compared to follow-up information (70). Lastly, a lack of prospective injury surveillance studies exists, which have been successfully implemented at the professional level (1,2), but is substantially more difficult in a recreational setting.

HELMETS

At the turn of the century, helmet use in skiing and snowboarding was less than 20% (30,71-73), which has subsequently increased to over 60% since 2010 (9-11,37,74,75). Youth skiers and snowboarders are more likely to wear helmets compared to adults (73). In addition, younger children are more likely to use helmets compared to adolescents (15,76). In 1999, the United States Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC) investigated skiing and snowboarding head injuries and concluded that helmets reduce the risk of such injuries (77). Subsequent systematic reviews supported the protective value of helmets in skiing and snowboarding (78-80). Skinner et al. (67) analysed 45 alpine sport-related deaths in Ontario from 1991 to 2012. Of the 25 head injury cases an expert review team determined that a certified helmet would have prevented death in 36% of cases, probably prevented death in 24% of cases and possibly prevented death in 16% cases. In contrast, Baschera et al. (81) found no significant decrease in severe

traumatic brain injury among skiers despite an increase in helmet use. Bergmann et al. (15) found no significant difference between concussion incidence for helmeted and non-helmeted youth skiers and snowboarders. Such findings were supported by Milan et al. (82) with helmet use not significantly influencing head injury in youth skiers and snowboarders, but helmeted patients admitted to the ICU had significantly lower head injury severity compared to non-helmeted patients. Sulheim et al. (11) observed an unexpected reduction in the protective effect of helmets in skiing and snowboarding over time. More recently, Porter et al. (83) found helmet use was associated with higher injury severity although helmet users were less likely to sustain a skull fracture. For helmets to reduce the risk of head injury, the mechanisms of head injuries are required to be well understood (84,85).

HEAD IMPACT CHARACTERISTICS

Demographics

Studies of head injury in skiing and snowboarding have reported that 58-84% were male (6,9,15,48-54,57-59,86-94). It is unknown if such a finding is due to skiing and snowboarding being more popular amongst males, whether males engage in higher-energy activities, which may be at or beyond skill capabilities. For head injured skiers and snowboarders, mean ages ranged from 23 to 29 years with the youngest and oldest being 2 and 83 years, respectively (6,48-54,90,92). Over 80% of all cases are sustained by skiers and snowboarders older than 15 years (59,93) and few studies have reported solely on paediatric head injuries in skiing and snowboarding (15,58,95).

Skill levels of head injured skiers and snowboarders have been reported in several studies (**table III**), but no standardised definitions were used by such studies. The majority of skiing head injuries were sustained by novice (33-50%) and intermediate (42-45%) level skiers. Similarly, the majority of snowboarding head injuries were sustained by novice (31-57%) and intermediate (26-49%) level snowboarders. Only 8-23% and 5-19% of head injuries were sustained by advanced level skiers and snowboarders, whereas recent studies of head injured skiers and snowboarders reported that 28-38% and had an advanced skill level.

INCIDENT LOCATION

Several studies have reported the incident location of recreational skiing and snowboarding head injury cases (**table IV**). The majority of head injuries occurred on slopes (62-97%), which have mild and moderate gradients. Although few

Sec. 1.	Company	V	Mada 1	S	NI		Skill level	
Study	Country	Years	Method	Sport	N	Novice	Intermediate	Advanced
Sakai et al. (1997,	Ianan	1988-	Hospital admissions	Ski	557	50%	42%	8%
1999)(96, 97)	Japan	1998	Tiospital admissions	Snowboard	363	55%	40%	5%
Nakaguchi et al.	Ianan	1995-	Hospital admissions	Ski	158	36%	44%	20%
(1999)(90)	Japan	1997	Tiospital admissions	Snowboard	143	31%	49%	19%
Fukuda et al. (2001)	Japan	1994-	Hospital admissions	Ski	442	39%	43%	18%
(51)	Japan	1999	Tiospital admissions	Snowboard	634	52%	40%	9%
Nakaguchi et al. (2002)(52)	Japan	1995- 2000	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	38	57%	26%	17%
Wilkins (2003)(91)	USA	1999- 2001	Ski patrol reports	Snowboard	58	34%	48%	17%
Fukuda (2011)(56)	Japan	1992- 2007	Hospital and medical centre admissions	Ski	1296	33%	45%	23%
Koyama et al. (2011)(57)	Japan	1999- 2008	Neurosurgery examinations	Snowboard	2367	41%	59%	, o
Bailly et al. (2017) (94)	France	2013- 2015	Medical centre and hospital admissions	Ski (81%), snowboard (19%)	366	12%	49%	38%
Dickson et al. (2017)(9)	Canada	2008- 2013	Ski patrol reports	Ski (42%), snowboard (58%)	7549	38%	33%	28%

Table III. Skill level of recreational skiing and snowboarding head injury cases.

Table IV. Incident location of recreational skiing and snowboarding head injury cases.

							Slope		Terrain	
Study	Country	Years	Method	Sport	N	Mild (<10°)	Moderate (10-20°)	Steep (>20°)	park	
Sakai et al.	Japan	1988-	Hospital	Ski	557	36%	48%	17%		
(1997, 1999) (96,97)		1998	admissions	Snowboard	363	39%	48%	13%		
Machold et al. (2000)(17)	Austria	1996- 1997	School student questionnaire	Snowboard	17	74%				
Fukuda et al.	Japan	1994-	Hospital	Ski	442	35%	51%	12%	3%	
(2001)(51)		1999	admissions	Snowboard	634	33%	29%	6%	31%	
Nakaguchi et al. (2002)(52)	Japan	1995- 2000	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	38	41%	30%	0%	30%	
Fukuda et al. (2007, 2008) (53,54)	Japan	1999- 2003	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	1190				38%	
Greve et al. (2009)(92)	USA	2002- 2004	Medical centre admissions	Ski (53%), snowboard (47%)	1002				19%	
Moffat et al. (2009)(100)	USA	2006- 2007	Level I trauma centre registry	Ski, snowboard	94				26%	
Brooks et al.	USA	2000-	Ski patrol	Ski	443				24%	
(2010)(34)		2005	reports	Snowboard	1133				45%	
Ruedl et al. (2010)(93)	Austria	2008- 2009	Ski patrol reports	Ski (78%), snowboard (22%)	277	37%	54%	9%	0%	

		Years	Method	Sport			Terrain		
Study	Country				N	Mild (<10°)	Moderate (10-20°)	Steep (>20°)	park
Fukuda (2011) (56)	Japan	1992- 2007	Hospital and medical centre admissions	Ski	1296	31%	43%	16%	10%
Koyama et al. (2011)(57)	Japan	1999- 2008	Neurosurgery examinations	Snowboard	2367	30%	27%	4%	36%
Stenroos et al. (2018)(101)	Finland	2006- 2015	Hospital admissions	Ski (74%), snowboard (26%)	72				39%

Note: Moffat et al. (100) reported head/face injuries. Ruedl et al. (93) classified slopes as per the European piste classification system (102).

injuries occurred on steep slopes, relatively more head injuries occurring on steep slopes were reported for skiing (9-16%) compared to snowboarding (0-6%). Ruedl et al. (98) investigated the factors associated with injuries occurring on slope intersections and found no significant difference between the proportion of head/neck injuries sustained on slope intersections (12.3%) compared to general slopes (12.4%). For skiing, less than 25% of all head injury cases were reported to have occurred in terrain parks, whereas 30-45% of all snowboarding head injury cases occurred in terrain parks. Head injuries in skiing and snowboarding as a proportion of all injuries have been found to be greater in terrain parks compared to slopes (34,98-100).

In terms of the skill level of head injured snowboarders, Nakaguchi et al. (52) reported that all novices were on mild slopes. In contrast, almost all head injured intermediate and advanced snowboarders were on moderate slopes (89%). Koyama et al. (57) reported that 54% of head injured novice snowboarders were on mild slopes and 62% of all head injured intermediate and advanced snowboarders were on moderate or steep slopes.

Few studies reported the condition of the snow for head injury cases (52,93,103) Sakai et al. (103) reported that the snow was 'packed' or 'ice and debris' for skiing and snow-boarding in 56% and 64% of cases, respectively. More recent studies have reported that the snow was 'hard' and 'iced' for 75% of head injury cases in skiing and snow-boarding, whereas the snow was 'soft' in only 25% of cases (52,93).

SITUATIONAL EVENT

In terms of gross biomechanical description (104), several studies have reported the situational event of recreational skiing and snowboarding head injury cases (**table V**). Most

head injuries in skiing are sustained during falls (36-74%) followed by collisions (20-62%), whereas fewer head injuries were sustained during jumps (1-31%). The majority of snowboarding head injuries are sustained during falls (38-63%) followed by jumps (14-38%) and collisions (10-29%).

FALLS

Burtscher et al. (109) investigated the predictors of falls in skiing and snowboarding with younger age and alcohol consumption reported as risk factors. Similarly, Konik et al. (110) investigated fall-related head injuries and identified that skiers and snowboarders younger than 40 years were most affected and had the most severe intracranial lesions and/or skull fractures. The fall incidence of fall-related head injuries as 0.2 per 1000 skier-days. More recently, Philippe et al. (111) found that younger age and lower skills were predictive of skiing and snowboarding falls. In addition, soft snow conditions and alcohol consumption were found to be predictors for falls in skiing and snowboarding, respectively. The incidence of falls was identified as 0.08 and 0.43 per hour for skiing and snowboarding, respectively, which was substantially lower than data collected a decade prior (109). Phillippe et al. (111) attributed the decrease in fall incidence to improvements in skiing and snowboarding equipment and slope preparation. Stenroos et al. (101) reported 90% of falls by skiers and snowboarders that resulted in head injury occurred on slopes and the remaining 10% occurred in the terrain park.

Few studies have reported the direction of fall for skiers and snowboarders. For skiers, Nakaguchi et al. (90) reported that falls causing head injuries were most commonly in the forward direction (54%), followed by the rearward (35%) and sideward (10%) directions. More recently, Bailly et al. (94) also reported the forward direction to be the most common fall

Sec. 1	C	Years	Mada 1	S	NT	Situational event		
Study	Country		Method	Sport	N	Fall	Collision	Jump
Harris (1983)(105)	USA	1975-1979	Various	Ski	82	57%	35%	7%
Harris (1989)(106)	USA	1975-1988	Various	Ski	374	40%	47%	13%
Lindsjö et al. (1985)(88)	Sweden	1979-1982	Hospital admissions	Ski	159	74%	25%	1%
Myles et al. (1992)(89)	Canada	1983-1988	Hospital admissions	Ski	88	51%	44%	
Sakai et al. (1997, 1999)	Japan	1988-1998	Hospital admissions	Ski	557	36%	62%	1%
(96,97)	Japan	1/00 1//0	1105pital admissions	Snowboard	363	63%	10%	26%
Nakaguchi et al. (1999)(90)	Japan	1995-1997	Hospital admissions	Ski	158	61%	38%	1%
	Jupun		*	Snowboard	143	49%	20%	31%
Diamond et al. (2001)(50)	USA	1994-1997	State-wide TBI database	Ski	118		43%	
Fukuda et al. (2001)(51)	Japan	1994-1999	Hospital admissions	Ski	442	55%	43%	2%
1 ukuua et al. (2001)(91)	Japan	1//+-1///		Snowboard	634	51%	19%	30%
Hentschel et al. (2001)(6)	Canada	1992-1997	Provincial trauma	Ski	40	42%	42%	16%
	Ganada	1//2-1///	registry	Snowboard	14	57%	29%	14%
Levy et al. (2002)(48)	USA	1982-1998	Level I trauma centre registry	Ski (83%), snowboard (17%)	350	40%	61%	
Nakaguchi et al. (2002)(52)	Japan	1995-2000	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	38	58%	21%	21%
Fukuda et al. (2004)(107)	Tanan	2000-2003	I I aguital a duciogiana	Ski	137	42%	43%	7%
1 [°] ukuda et al. (2004)(107)	Japan	2000-2003	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	1146	40%	16%	38%
Siu et al. (2004)(49)	Australia	1994-2002	Hospital admissions	Ski	15	47%	20%	31%
51u ct al. (2004)(47)	Tustralla	1774-2002		Snowboard	9	38%	25%	28%
Greve et al. (2009)(92)	USA	2002-2004	Medical centre admissions	Ski (53%), snowboard (47%)	1002	74%	23%	
Ruedl et al. (2010)(93)	Austria	2008-2009	Ski patrol reports	Ski (78%), snowboard (22%)	277	79%	21%	
Fukuda (2011)(56)	Japan	1992-2007	Hospital and medical centre admissions	Ski	1296	48%	42%	10%
Koyama et al. (2011)(57)	Japan	1999-2008	Neurosurgery examinations	Snowboard	2367	46%	18%	34%
Stenroos et al. (2015)(41)	Finland	2006-2012	Ski resort emergency system	Ski (39%), snowboard (61%)	94	16%	27%	57%
Stuart et al. (2016)(108)	Canada	2009-2014	Hospital admissions	Ski (39%), snowboard (61%)	763	54%	15%	17%
$\mathbf{R}_{\rm e}(\mathbf{l}_{\rm e}, t, t, \mathbf{l}_{\rm e}(2017)/0.4)$	D ana	2012 2015	Medical centre and	Ski	295	53%	34%	13%
Bailly et al. (2017)(94)	France	2013-2015	hospital admissions	Snowboard	71	56%	20%	24%
Stenroos et al. (2018)(101)	Finland	2006-2015	Hospital admissions	Ski (74%), snowboard (26%)	72	32%	11%	47%

Table V. Situational event of recreational skiing and snowboarding head injury cases.

type for skiers (35%) followed by the sideward (23%) and rearward (18%) directions. In addition, 'crossing skis' and 'spreading skis' were reported as the fall type in 15% and 5% of cases, respectively. In contrast, most falls causing head injuries to snowboarders were most commonly in the rearward direction (48-79%) followed by the forward (9-45%) and sideward (6-12%) directions (52,90,94). Rearward falls in snowboarding typically occur when the rear edge of the snowboard catches on the snow, which is known as the 'rear edge phenomenon' (51,52,57,90) Sakai et al. (103) reported that fall-related head injuries in snowboarding were due to rear edge catches in two-thirds of cases (66%). Uzura et al. (112) detailed a case report regarding a subdural haematoma sustained by a snowboarder after impacting the occiput during a rearwards fall after catching an edge on a steep slope.

COLLISIONS

Reports from older studies are extremely varied for collision-related head injuries in skiing and snowboarding (**table VI**). More recent studies have reported that collision-related head injuries in skiing are fairly evenly distributed between collisions involving another person (50-55%) and collisions with fixed objects (45-50%) (41,94). In contrast, collision-related head injuries in snowboarding typically involve another person (71-100%) and collisions with fixed objects are less common (0-29%) (31,33). Stenroos et al. (101) reported 86% of collisions with fixed objects occurred in an urban setting and the remaining 14% occurred in terrain parks. In contrast, all collisions involving another person occurred on slopes.

Table VI. Collision types of recreationa	al skiing and snowbo	barding head injury cases.
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		Years	Method	Sport			Collision				
Study	Country				Ν	Person		Ol	oject		
oracy	Country	Tears			1	Skier	Snow- boarder	Tree	Other		
Oh et al. (1979)(86)	Switzerland	1974- 1979	Neurosurgery examinations	Ski	32	24%		70	6%		
Lang et al. (1980) (113)	Austria	1976- 1978	Medical centre admissions	Ski	243	69%		8%	19%		
Lindsjö et al. (1985)(88)	Sweden	1979- 1982	Hospital admissions	Ski	159	50%		35%	15%		
Lystad (1989) (114)	Norway	1982- 1986	Medical centre admissions	Ski	158	28%		26%	46%		
Myles et al. (1992) (89)	Canada	1983- 1988	Hospital admissions	Ski	88	16%		49%	35%		
Fukuda et al.	Japan	1994-	Hospital admissions	Ski	442	59%	34%	4%	4%		
(2001)(51)	01)(51) 1999			Snowboard	634	25%	64%	7%	4%		
Hentschel et al.	Canada	1992-	Provincial trauma	Ski	40	13%		81%	6%		
(2001)(6)		1997	registry	Snowboard	14	0%		50%	50%		
Fukuda et al.	Japan	2000-	Hospital admissions	Ski	137	29%	63%		8%		
(2004)(107)		2003		Snowboard	1146	9%	82%		9%		
Fukuda (2011) (56)	Japan	1992- 2007	Hospital and medical centre admissions	Ski	1296	50%	42%		8%		
Stenroos et al.	Finland	2006-	Ski resort emergency	Ski	37	50%			50%		
(2015)(41)		2012	system	Snowboard	57	100%			0%		
Bailly et al. (2017)	France	2013-	Medical centre and	Ski	295	55%			45%		
(94)		2015	hospital admissions	Snowboard	71	71%			29%		
Stenroos et al. (2018)(101)	Finland	2006- 2015	Hospital admissions	Ski (74%), snowboard (26%)	72	53%			47%		

COLLISIONS WITH OBJECTS

Nachbauer et al. (115) reported that skiers determined responsible for collisions and victims of collisions sustained head injuries in 54% and 39% of skier-to-skier collisions, respectively. In a subsequent study, Burtscher et al. (116) reported that approximately 38% of all skiers involved in a collision sustained a head injury. For ski collisions involving trees, Frermood et al. (117) found a significantly greater proportion of intracranial head injuries and/or skull fractures compared to skiers that did not collide with a tree. More recently, Bailly et al. (94) found that almost half of serious head injuries (48%), with Glasgow Coma Scores of less than 13, involved collisions with objects. In addition, head injuries from collisions with objects were found to occur on novice or intermediate slopes (62%). Stenroos et al. (101) reported that only 14% of collisions with fixed objects that resulted in head injury occurred in terrain parks and the remaining 86% occurred in urban environments, which involves skiers and snowboarders sliding on handrails and jumping off structures.

COLLISIONS WITH PERSONS

In an early study, Oh et al. (118) investigated head injuries sustained from skier-to-skier collisions and found that typically one skier was impacted to the side and sustained a severe head injury, whereas the other skier was impacted to the front and sustained only a minor, or no, head injury. Nachbauer et al. (115) reported that 54% and 39% of collision victims and skiers responsible for collisions sustained head injuries, respectively. In contrast, Burtscher et al. (116) reported that 30% of collision victims and 46% of skiers

Table VII. Recreational skiing and snowboarding head injuries sustained in terrain parks.

					Injury		Percentage of	of all injuries	Ratio effect estimate		
Study	Country	y Years	Method	Sport		N	ТР	Non-TP	Value (95% CI)	Analysis	
				Ski	Head/neck (all)	5047	24%	17%	1.35 (1.22-1.50)		
Goulet et al. (2007) Canada (99)	2001-	Ski patrol	3KI	Head/neck (severe)	2077	11%	7%	1.21 (1.01-1.45)	Adjusted		
	2005	reports	Snowboard	Head/neck (all)	5378	24%	21%	1.00 (0.93-1.07)	OR		
			Showboard	Head/neck (severe)	2864	12%	11%	0.95 (0.84-1.08)	-		
		2006- 2007			Head/neck	94	33%	27%			
			Level I		Closed head injury	35	14%	10%			
Moffat et al. (2009)	TIC A		06- trauma	Ski, snowboard	Concussion	40	15%	11%			
al. (2009) (100)	USA				Intracranial haematoma	4	0%	2%			
					Skull/facial fracture	15	4%	5%			
				Ski Snowboard	Head	443	17%	7%	1.70 (1.32-2.18)		
Brooks et		2000-	Ski patrol		Concussion	341	16%	5%	2.13 (1.61-2.82)	Multi- variable	
al. (2010) USA (34)	USA	A 2005			Head	1133	15%	10%	1.26 (1.10-1.45)	RR	
					Concussion	947	15%	8%	1.59 (1.36-1.85)		
Ruedl et al. (2013) (98)	Austria	2008- 2009	Ski patrol reports	Ski, snowboard	Head/neck	297	19%	12%	1.6 (1.0-2.5)	Uni-variate OR	

Goulet et al. (99) defined severe injury as per Lipskie (16). TP: terrain park. CI: confidence interval. OR: odds ratio. RR: Risk ratio.

responsible for collisions sustained head injuries. More recent studies have identified that collisions with other skiers and snowboarders comprise 10-25% of all head injury cases (94,119). Bailly et al. (94) also identified that collisions with other skiers and snowboarders particularly affected youth, females and lower-skilled skiers and snowboarders. In 62% of collision-related head injury cases involving other skiers and snowboarders, Bailly et al. (94) found that the 'impacting' skier or snowboarder was moving at high speed while the 'impacted' skier or snowboarder was stationary or moving at low speed (94). Not surprisingly, Stenroos et al. (101) reported all collisions involving another person occurred on slopes.

JUMPS

The first known terrain park was built in 1986 at Snow Summit, CA and the first known terrain park open to the public was built in 1991 at Bear Mountain, CA (120). Terrain parks are specific areas of alpine sport resorts, which contain features such as jumps that allow skiers and snowboarders to perform maneuvers and tricks. Prior to the introduction of terrain parks, jumping was actively discouraged within resorts. Therefore, skiers and snowboarders built jumps outside alpine sport resorts or secretly inside the boundaries (121). Over the last three decades, the proportion of alpine sport resorts with terrain parks has steadily increased to 94% as of 2010 (122). It is not uncommon for major alpine sport resorts to have multiple terrain parks of varying difficulty (123).

From 1996 to 2001, Fukuda (124) identified a linear increase in the proportion of snowboarding head injuries from jumps: 23% to 33% ($R^2=0.98$). In contrast, Shealy et al. (10) found no increase in the prevalence or incidence of injury from jumping from 2000 to 2010 despite an increase in terrain parks. The proportion of head injuries has been found to be greater in terrain parks for skiers and snowboarders (table VII). Henrie et al. (125) reported the proportion of head and spine injuries sustained in terrain parks was approximately twice double the proportion sustained on general slopes. Interestingly, Bailly et al. (94) found that just over half of all head injuries from jumps were sustained in terrain parks (55%), whereas the remainder were sustained on novice and intermediate slopes (31%) and off-pise (14%). As expected, most jump-related head injuries that involved forward and rearward crashes impacted the facial/frontal (74%) and occipital (72%) regions of the head, respectively (94) Uzura et al. (112) detailed a case report regarding a subdural haematoma sustained by a snowboarder impacting the right temporal region after jumping and falling sideward. Stenroos et al. (101) reported 76% of jump-related head injuries occurred in terrain parks, whereas 21% and 3% occurred in urban environments and on the slopes, respectively.

Terrain parks do not just contain aerial features, but non-aerial features such as boxes, rails and quarter-pipes. Carús et al. (126,127) found that the proportion of head injuries sustained on aerial features of terrain parks by skiers (14%) was higher than for non-aerial features (9%). Similarly, Russel et al. (128) found that the proportion of head injuries sustained on aerial features of terrain parks by snowboarders (15%) was higher than for non-aerial features (9%). More specifically, Russel (129) found that the most common feature on which snowboarders sustained head injuries were jumps (38%) followed by kickers (29%), boxes (10%), quarter-pipes (8%) and half-pipes (6%). Interestingly, Russel (129) reported four cases of concussion, which were sustained by snowboarders in the terrain park, but not on any specific features, i.e. snowboarding between features.

HEAD IMPACT SITE

Few studies have reported the incident location of recreational skiing and snowboarding head injury cases (**table VIII**). For skiing, head impacts causing injury are primarily to frontal (37-56%) and occipital (33-41%) regions. For snowboarding head injury cases, the occiput is the most common impact region (53-68%) followed by the frontal region (16-37%). Relatively few impacts to the temporal (3-18%) and parietal (1-7%) regions cause head injury in skiing and snowboarding.

HEAD IMPACT BIOMECHANICS

Kinematics

To investigate the biomechanics of head impacts in skiing and snowboarding, kinematic boundary conditions are required to be identified, such as the horizontal speed of the skier or snowboarder in the plane of the slope. No studies have reported impact speeds in skiing and snowboarding speeds in regard to head injury crashes, but several studies have reported the general speeds of recreational skiers and snowboarders at resorts (table IX). For skiers of all ages and skill levels on all slope difficulty levels, the mean speed was 12.4 m/s with a maximum of 30.1 m/s. For snowboarders of all ages and skill levels on all slope difficulty levels, the mean speed was 11.1 m/s with a maximum of 22.0 m/s. Skiers tend to travel faster than snowboarders. In addition, skiers and snowboarders of higher skill levels tend to travel faster compared to lower skill levels. Dickson et al. (130,131) reported that youth skiers and snowboarders travelled at mean speeds of 12.2 and 11.1 m/s, respectively, which are similar to the mean speeds for

Sec. 1.	Constant	V	Method	Succest	N	Sites				
Study	Country	Years	Method	Sport	N	Frontal	Temporal	Parietal	Occipital	
Nakaguchi et al. (1999)	Japan	1995-1997	Hospital	Ski	158	56%	3%	7%	33%	
(90)			admissions	Snowboard	143	37%	5%	5%	53%	
Fukuda et al. (2001)(51)	Japan	1994-1999	Hospital	Ski	442	37%	18%	4%	41%	
	admissions		admissions	Snowboard	634	24%	12%	1%	63%	
Nakaguchi et al. (2002) (52)	Japan	1995-2000	Hospital admissions	Snowboard	38	16%	14%	3%	68%	
Koyama et al. (2011) (57)	Japan	1999-2008	Neurosurgery examinations	Snowboard	2367	24%	10%	4%	62%	

Table VIII. Head impact site for recreational skiing and snowboarding head injury cases.

Table IX. Speeds of recreational skiers and snowboarders.

Sec. 1.	Constant	Mada 1	Age	S	01	Skill	Speed [m/s]		
Study	Country	Method		Sport	Observations	Skill	Mean	SD	Max
Shealy et al. (2005)	USA	Radar	All	Ski	533	All	12.4		
(133)				Snowboard	117	All	10.8		
Scher et al. (2006)	USA	Radar	All	Snowboard	180	Novice	4.9		
(134)						Intermediate	8.9		16.8
Scher et al. (2008)	USA	Radar	Youth	Ski	107	All	5.2	1.7	12.8
(132)				Snowboard	47	All	5.3	1.9	
Ruedl et al. (2010)	Austria	Radar	All	Ski	1877	All	12.4	3.9	26.4
(135)				Snowboard	223	All	11.3	3.8	20.0
Dickson et al. (2011,	Canada	GPS	All	Ski (96%),	98	All	17.3		30.1
2012)(136,137)				snowboard (4%)	2	Novice	11.7	2.5	21.0
					27	Intermediate	15.3	3.3	21.0
					40	Advanced	18.1	3.2	27.5
					29	Expert	18.3	3.6	30.1
Ruedl et al. (2013)	Austria	Radar	All	Ski	416	All	12.6		
(138) Brunner et al. (2015)(139)					289	Novice, intermediate	11.9	3.5	
					127	Advanced, expert	14.1	4.0	
Dickson et al. (2015,	Not	GPS	Youth	Ski	100	All	12.2	4.4	22.8
2016)(130,131)	reported			Snowboard	58	All	11.1	4.0	22.0
				Ski, snowboard	54	Novice	9.3	3.6	18.5
					37	Intermediate	11.9	3.3	22.0
					46	Advanced	14.6	3.4	20.4

all skiers and snowboarders. An earlier study by Scher et al. (132) reported much slower speeds for youth skiers and snowboarders: 5.2 and 5.3 m/s, respectively.

Greenwald et al. (140) instrumented the helmets of 46 youth snowboarders with the Head Impact Telemetry

(HIT) System and 674 sensor events were recorded at a snow resort in the United States during the winter of 2007-2008. More sensor events were recording in the terrain park compared to regular slopes. The highest peak linear and angular head accelerations were 113 g and 9515 rad/s²;

respectively, whereas 95% of impacts had a peak linear head acceleration of less than 50 g. No concussions were medically diagnosed. A similar study on 107 school skiers and snowboarders at Australian snow resorts during the winters of 2009 to 2011 was conducted by Dickson et al. (131,141,142) The HIT System was coupled with global positioning system (GPS) data to remove false-positives, after which only three impacts head peak linear accelerations greater than 40 g.

FALLS

If a skier or snowboarder falls while stationary, the impact can be idealised as a simple fall from standing height. Head impacts with a purely translational component are often experimentally replicated using a drop test as part of helmet standards (table X). A drop test rig comprises a drop tower and carriage with a head form attached. A trixial accelerometer is mounted inside the head form to record the acceleration at the centre of gravity. The helmet is attached to the head form and the carriage is raised to a height that correlates with the desired impact speed. For drops onto a flat anvil, impact speeds range from 4.5 to 6.8 m/s, which correlate to drop heights of 1.03 to 2.36 m. The Snell standards stipulate impact severity in terms of energy (143,144). For an example drop carriage mass of 5 kg, an impact energy of 120 J onto a flat anvil correlates to a drop height of 2.45 m and impact speed of 6.93 m/s. Some standards also require impacts onto hazard anvils, such as hemispherical

Table X.	Standards	for SI	ki and	Snowboarding	Helmets.

or edge anvils. Linear head acceleration limits range from 250 to 300 g, which are in the range associated with skull fracture (145-147).

Dickson et al. (9,130,131,142) has repeatedly stated that the speeds of skiers far exceed the impact speeds used in helmet standards and suggested that the impact speed of the standard be increased. In collisions with fixed objects, travel speed is critical. For falls, the travelling speed of a skier or snowboarder is tangential to the slope and does no contribute to the normal component of a fall onto the slope surface, which can be estimated from standing height. As the speed of a skier or snowboarder increases, the impact vector becomes more oblique, whereas the normal component remains unchanged. Similarly, motorcycles in Australia can legally travel up to 110 km/h (30.6 m/s) on some major roads, but the Australian Standard for motorcycle helmets requires a drop test from 2.5 m, which is equivalent to an impact speed of 7.0 m/s. (152) No alpine sport helmet requires an oblique impact test.

To investigate correlation between helmet impacts onto rigid anvils and snow surfaces, studies have performed helmet impacts onto snow surfaces. Dressler et al.¹⁵³ investigated the protective potential of a ski helmet, which was certified to the ASTM standard (148). Drop tests at 4 m/s were performed onto soft and hard snow samples with the latter being frozen overnight. For soft snow impacts, no significant differences were found between the helmeted and non-helmeted conditions and all peak linear head

6	e. 1.1	/T* .1	V	Impact attenuation				
Source	Standard	Title	Year	Anvil	Severity	Limit [g]		
American Society for	ASTM F2040	Recreational snow sports	2018	Flat	6.20 m/s	300		
Testing and Materials	(148)			Hemispherical (Ø 96 mm)	4.80 m/s			
				Edge	4.50 m/s			
Canadian Standards	CSA Z263.1	Recreational alpine skiing	2014	Flat	4.50 m/s	250		
Association	(149)	and snowboarding helmets			5.40 m/s	250		
European Committee for Standardization	EN 1077 (150)	Helmets for alpine skiers and snowboarders	2007	Flat	5.42 m/s	250		
Fédération Internationale de Ski*	FIS (151)	Crash Helmets	2018	Flat	6.80 m/s	250		
Snell Memorial	Snell RS-98	Recreational skiing and	1998	Flat	100 J	300		
Foundation	(143)	snowboarding		Hemispherical (Ø 96 mm)	80 J			
				Edge				
	Snell S-98	Skiing and other winter	1998	Flat	120 J	300		
	(144)	activities		Hemispherical (Ø 96 mm)	100 J			
				Edge				

*FIS certified helmets must also meet ASTM F2040 and EN 1077.

form accelerations remained below 42 g. In contrast, hard snow impacts to the crown of the non-helmeted and helmeted head form resulted in peak linear acceleration ranges of 138-165 g and 79-98 g, respectively; therefore, the presence of the ski helmet was found to significantly reduce peak linear head form accelerations by 32-48%. The quality and consistency of snow samples was a limitation and it was suggested that future studies investigate snow hardness at ski resorts.

Numerical models have also been used to investigate head impacts onto snow. Kleiven et al. (154,155) evaluated the performance requirements for the European downhill and super-g ski helmet standard (150). A helmeted Hybrid III head form was dropped onto ski slopes, the acceleration and high-speed video data from which were used to reconstruct the oblique impacts and validate a finite element snow model. In addition, video footage of alpine skiing crashes were collected and analysed to obtain head impact kinematics,^{4,155} which indicate that substantial rotational forces are experienced by the head during impacts. One limitation was that the head form was released by hand; therefore, issues with pre-impact rotations were experienced. More recently, Bailly et al. (156) obtained the damping properties of hard and soft snow by performing drop tests on ski slopes using a rigid head form to develop a numerical model. Mean peak linear accelerations for 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0 m simulated drop tests ranged from 72 to 138 g for hard snow and 42 to 81 g for soft snow, respectively.

Simple falls from standing height have been investigated using anthropomorphic test devices (ATDs) (157-159). Similarly, ATDs have been used to simulate rearward falls onto snow slopes resulting in occipital head impact (134,160,161), which has been identified as the situational event of over half of all major head injuries to snowboarders (51,52,57,90). An Hybrid III ATD was accelerated along a cable and released at approximately 8 m/s onto a snow-covered ramp with a gradient of 20°, which was used to replicate a snow slope. For soft snow impacts to the occiput, no significant protective effect was observed in the helmeted tests and all peak linear head form accelerations remained below 83 g for all soft snow impacts and no significant differences were found between the helmeted and non-helmeted conditions. In contrast, icy snow impacts to the occiput of the non-helmeted and helmeted head form resulted in mean peak linear accelerations of 391 g and 162 g, respectively; therefore, the presence of the ski helmet was found to significantly reduce peak linear head form accelerations by a factor of over two. The need to correlate helmet test standards to real-world impacts was identified (161).

Bailly et al. (156) simulated rearward falls of non-helmeted snowboarders, which were previously reconstructed using

an ATD (134,160,161). The peak linear head form accelerations were found to be similar for soft snow impacts; however, the numerical simulations underestimated the peak linear acceleration of the ATD head form for the hard snow impacts. A parametric study of rearward snowboarding falls identified that the size of the snowboarder, initial velocity and snow stiffness influenced head injury risks. It was concluded that a relevant impacting surface and more demanding acceleration criteria should be considered for inclusion in performance standards for ski and snowboard helmets.

Although it is possible to alter the magnitude of head form linear acceleration, by altering the drop height, equivalent to an impact onto a snow surface, the duration of the rigid anvil impact will be shorter than the snow surface impact. Once snow surfaces of varying hardness are characteristed, suitable anvils with similar material properties may be used instead of rigid anvils to achieve a similar head form linear acceleration pulse in terms of magnitude and duration. In addition, situation event data could be used to provide sport-specific helmet performance standards, i.e. different standards for ski and snowboarding helmets. For example, a ski helmet standard may include a more severe oblique test to the front of the helmet, whereas a snowboard helmet standard may include a drop test onto the occipital region.

COLLISIONS

In addition to falls, ATDs have also been used to investigate collisions in skiing and snowboarding. Scher et al. (132) used ATDs in a pendulum configuration to replicate skier-to-pole and skier-to-skier frontal impacts. The presence of a helmet was associated with a significant decrease in peak linear head form accelerations for both skier-to-pole and skier-to-skier impacts. Decreases in peak angular head form accelerations were observed for both impact configurations; however, only the results from the skier-to-skier configuration were significant. Muser et al. (162) used ATDs equipped with skis, poles, skiing attire and helmets to reconstruct a 90° impact between two skiers. One skier was stationary and oriented at 90° to the other skier travelling at 8.3 and 13.9 m/s. For the 8.3 m/s impact, the mean peak linear head acceleration for both ATDs was 103 g, which is comparable to the mean peak head accelerations experienced by Australian football players during a concussion impact (163). Surprisingly, mean peak head acceleration for the 13.9 m/s impact was 91 g. However, Muser et al. (162) reported that the head and torso made initial contact for the 8.3 and 13.9 m/s impacts, respectively. Petrone et al. (164) developed an ATD, which was constructed using an ANSI head form and a Hybrid II neck form, to investigate high

speed helmeted collisions into safety nets and foam mats (165). Speeds of up to 18.3 m/s were achieved with an 18 m pendulum rig, which resulted in peak head form accelerations of up to 189 g.

Physical reconstructions of collisions have demonstrated that peak linear acceleration of the head form varies depending on the impact object. Similar to impact testing of American football helmets (166), a performance standard test for alpine helmets could incorporate common impacting surfaces, such as poles and other skiers, using a linear impactor. Rotation of a head form during a linear impact test allows for the measurement of rotational kinematics, which have long been associated with diffuse head injuries (167-169).

JUMPS

After instrumenting a snowboarding during jumps, Shealy et al. (170) reported mean resultant linear accelerations of 74.6 g, 3.7 g and 2.5 g at the boot, chest and head, respectively. It was concluded that when the snowboarder lands correctly, the lower limb structure significantly attenuated the impact acceleration. Such a finding supports the results of an early study of human tolerance to vertical impact, in which accelerations of up to 250 g could be absorbed when subjects landed with legs flexed with only slight pain in the lower limbs (171).

Equivalent fall height (EFH), which is the component of point mass velocity normal to the snow surface in terms of distance, has previously been used to assess the landing height of Nordic ski jumpers (172). Although a safe EFH for terrain park jumps has yet to be established, Hubbard et al. (173) reasoned that 1.0 m seemed appropriate and found that jumps can be designed with a EFH of 1.0 m that suit most available sites. EFH is dependent on takeoff speed and angle; however, both variables can be affected by 'pop', which occurs when a skier or snowboarder manipulates take-off by jumping or dropping (174). Another consideration is the design of the launch ramp, which should end with a straight section as a concave launch ramp may cause undesirable rotations and involuntary inversion (175,176). Scher et al. (121) investigated the injury potential of a snowboarder landing inverted using an ATD, which was lifted above a snow surface. For each drop, the ATD was released and made contact with a horizontal bar, which induced rearwards rotation. The snow surface angle and ATD fall distance were altered to provide a range of EFHs from 0.23 to 1.52 m. Peak linear and angular head accelerations of 52-142 g and 1920-5091 rad/s², respectively, were recorded across trials and are associated with concussion (163), but below acceleration levels associated with more

severe injuries such as subdural haematoma (177) or diffuse axonal injury (178). Therefore, Scher et al. (121) concluded that the risk of severe brain injury was low for impacts from the range of EFH tested.

SUMMARY

Head injuries in skiing and snowboarding comprise up to 38% of all injuries, with concussion comprising a substantial portion of all head injuries. Although head injury is responsible for approximately half of all traumatic fatalities occurring on the slopes, fatal injuries are rare with less than 1% of all skiing head injuries ending in death.

Head injuries typically occur to males aged 23 to 29 years with novice or intermediate level alpine sport skills on mild to moderate slopes. Skiers typically fall forwards impacting the frontal region of the head, whereas snowboarders typically fall backwards impacting the occipital region of the head. Other common head injury situational events involve colliding with objects or other people when skiing and crashing on jumps in terrain parks when snowboarding. Skiers tend to travel faster than snowboarders at speeds of up to 30 and 22 m/s, respectively. In addition, skiers and snowboarders of higher skill levels tend to travel faster compared to lower skill levels. Some studies have suggested that the impact speed of alpine sport helmet testing standards be increased; however, the travelling speed of a skier or snowboarder is tangential to the slope. As the speed of a skier or snowboarder increases, the impact vector becomes more oblique; however, the normal component remains unchanged. Alpine sports helmet standards require linear drops onto rigid anvils, but the correlation between helmet impacts onto rigid anvils and snow surfaces is unknown. No alpine sport helmet requires an oblique impact test. The presence of a helmet was associated with a significant decrease in peak linear head form accelerations for both skier-to-pole and skier-to-skier impacts. Significant protective effects have been found for skier-to-pole impacts, skierto-skier impacts and fall impacts to hard snow, but not for soft snow. During landing after completing a jump, the lower limb structure significantly attenuates the impact acceleration. In addition, jump design can affect the execution of a jump and equivalent fall height can be related to head injury risk.

Helmets have long been thought to reduce the risk of head injuries in skiing and snowboarding; however, recent studies have reported inconsistent evidence regarding the protective effect of helmets in alpine sports. Performance standards of helmets used in alpine sports should more closely reflect the boundary conditions of head impacts to skiers and snowboarders associated with injury. For example, a ski helmet standard may include a more severe oblique test to the front of the helmet, whereas a snowboard helmet standard may include a drop test onto the occipital region. Administrative controls are also methods of injury risk reduction, which may include skill training, separating novice from advanced skiers and snowboarders and/or policy regarding passing another person on the slopes. Lastly, engineering controls may be more effective than both protective equipment and education in terms of injury risk reduction (179). For alpine sports, engineer-

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ing controls include slope design (e.g. gradient, grooming, placement and padding of poles, tree removal) and terrain park design (type, placement and size of features, jump geometry).

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

McIntosh provides expert witness services, but declares no conflict of interest regarding this paper, its preparation and expert witness services (180).

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