

1 **Auxetic Metamaterial Optimisation for Head Impact Mitigation in American Football**

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18 has increased our commitment to progressing this technically demanding research area.

19 **Abstract.**

20 American football has a comparatively high rate of sports-related concussions, despite
21 mitigating strategies including the use of protective helmets. The traditional energy
22 absorbing component, elastomeric foam pads, have limited scope for leveraging any further
23 protection. Alternative structures and materials that exhibit novel deformation mechanics
24 have been proposed as a route to increased energy absorption capacity. This study
25 investigated a metamaterial based on the Miura Ori folding pattern. Twenty-seven geometric
26 combinations were designed and additively manufactured using commercially available
27 thermoplastic polyurethane, before being impacted at multiple velocities. The Taguchi array
28 provided insight into the theoretical behaviour of multiple additional variants. An optimised
29 geometry was then proposed, which reduced linear accelerations across the test conditions
30 and performed favourably when compared to current, elastomeric foam solutions. This work
31 provides a promising foundation for future investigation.

32

33 **Keywords:** auxetic, metamaterial, impact absorption, head injury, structural optimization.

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Sport governing bodies are introducing new strategies to reduce head impact incidence and
37 severity. Law changes in rugby union now mandate against any head contact, while sports
38 involving frequent head impacts (e.g. soccer) are modifying training protocols. American
39 football (hereafter termed ‘football’) aims to change play and improve protective equipment,
40 encouraging innovative technologies to replace elastomeric foams as the primary mechanism
41 of impact energy absorption. This study investigates a series of novel material-structures, in
42 a quest to identify a high-performance solution.

43 Head injuries in football account for 21% of all injuries, a rate comparable to other contact
44 sports, though 4.5-fold higher than the sector average.[1] Football causes 47% of high school
45 sports-related concussions, with male college football producing more concussions than the
46 totality of the next three high-risk sports: male ice hockey and lacrosse, and female soccer.[2,
47 3]. Strategies that reduce head peak linear acceleration are linked to decreased concussion
48 risk. Reducing accelerations from 165g to 109g was estimated to reduce risk from 10% to
49 1%.[4] This relationship is consistent with other severity injury metrics such as the head
50 injury criterion and rotational accelerations.[5]

51 Elastomeric foam is the conventional material employed to reduce head injury risk, with the
52 impact performance defined by the base material and density of the homogeneous structure.
53 Properties of the former influences cell wall strength and the buckling load or, in closed-cell
54 structures, the onset of face-stretching. Foam provides highly efficient absorption when the
55 impact magnitude and directionality can be precisely specified; however, where conditions
56 vary, lower-energy impacts would not initiate microstructural deformation, while excessive
57 force causes structural collapse and densification. Both scenarios would offer ineffective
58 protection. These attributes fundamentally limit improving foam performance, meaning

59 innovative protective solutions now utilise new materials and structures as either additional or
60 replacement components.[6-8]

61 Additive manufacturing (AM) enables the use of lattice and surface-based cellular structures,
62 with the potential to introduce complex geometries that are impossible to realise using
63 traditional fabrication techniques. Cellular structures have great potential to achieve a tuned
64 mechanical response given their multiple geometric parameters, so offering a particularly
65 promising route to out-perform elastic foams.[9-11] Auxetic materials (i.e. with a negative
66 Poisson's ratio) have demonstrated favourable energy absorption performance.[12, 13] They
67 have also demonstrated synclastic curvature – controllable curvature in two planes, making
68 them ideal for integration into helmets.[14] One such approach is adopting the Miura-Ori
69 (MO) folding pattern, which affords a tailored structural design for effective energy
70 absorption.[15, 16] Construction from a thermoplastic polyurethane has also shown
71 promising behaviour in football-related loading conditions.[17]

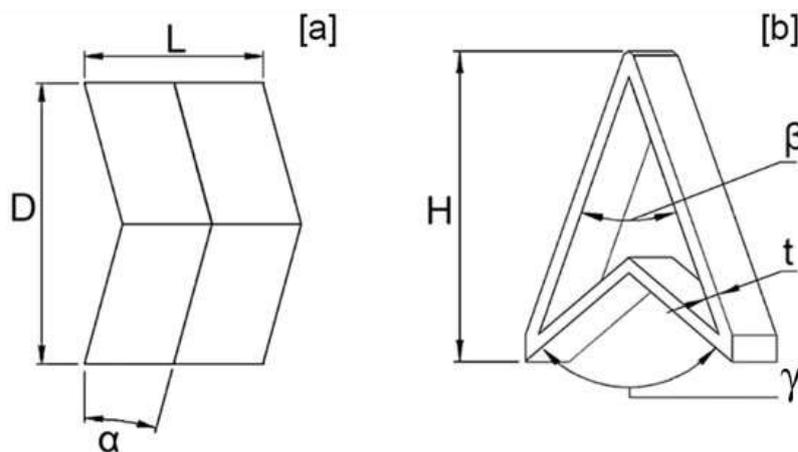
72 Employing additive manufacturing enables new design creativity; however, such scope also
73 means it is challenging to identify the structural design that achieves optimal performance.
74 Whilst experiment-based optimisation techniques have proven effective in the literature when
75 applied to impact design,[18] the Taguchi method requires relatively few tests, considers part
76 variability (i.e. 'signal-to-noise') and has been employed optimising AM design and impact
77 protection systems.[19, 20]

78 This paper now seeks an optimal MO geometry to minimise the peak linear acceleration
79 (PLA) at three football-related impact velocities. Success would create potential to reduce
80 head injury risk.

81 **2. Materials and Methods**

82 **2.1. Methods**

83 A nominal MO unit cell was interrogated to reveal 7 structural parameters that influence
84 geometry (**Figure 1**). Four parameters were then selected for further investigation based on
85 the potential to influence the MO's impact absorption performance: Chevron Angle (α),
86 Interior Intersection Angle (β), Exterior Intersection Angle (γ), and Wall Thickness (t).
87 These parameters then had 6 potential interactions: $\alpha - \beta$; $\alpha - \gamma$; $\alpha - t$; $\gamma - \beta$; $\gamma - t$; $\beta - t$.
88 Cell Height (H) was unconstrained due to its dependence on β and γ . Cell Depth (D) and
89 Length (L) directly influenced cell volume and so were considered control variables. The
90 former was defined as 30mm, to be consistent with a typical energy-absorbing helmet liner
91 thickness. Length L was defined as 15.8mm, ensuring consistency with published MO
92 geometries [14]. The final unit cell was proliferated through 60 x 60 x 30 (i.e. D) mm³.



93
94 **Figure 1:** The structural parameters that influence MO cell geometry. [a] Frontal view. [b]
95 Top view.

96 Three 'levels' were then defined for each of the 4 parameters, describing a minimum (level
97 1), midpoint (level 2) and maximum (level 3) value. Midpoints for angles γ and β were
98 adopted from an MO structure previously described for head protection applications,[17] with
99 upper and lower bounds selected to maximise the potential design space whilst retaining the

100 distinct ‘arrowhead’ design. The t midpoint was defined by the literature, with upper and
 101 lower bounds governed by manufacturing constraints. Angle α was minimised, as smaller
 102 values achieve favourable performance.[21] These ranges are presented in **Table 1**.

103 **Table 1:** Parameter levels used for optimisation.

Parameter	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
α [°]	1	5	9
γ [°]	80	110	140
β [°]	33	38	43
t [mm]	0.6	0.9	1.2

104

105 This approach creates 81 unique unit cells; however, mass-scale manufacture and testing are
 106 time-intensive. Selecting a representative sample was enabled by adopting the Taguchi
 107 method. Taguchi’s L27 array was the smallest array that could accommodate the placement
 108 of the four parameters and the six interactions. Adopting this array systematically identified
 109 27 parametric combinations for further investigation (Table 2). Extrapolating these data
 110 would ultimately identify the most effective solution from the 81 potential structures.

111 **Table 2:** Parameters defining the 27 unique MO unit cells, generated using the Taguchi
 112 method.

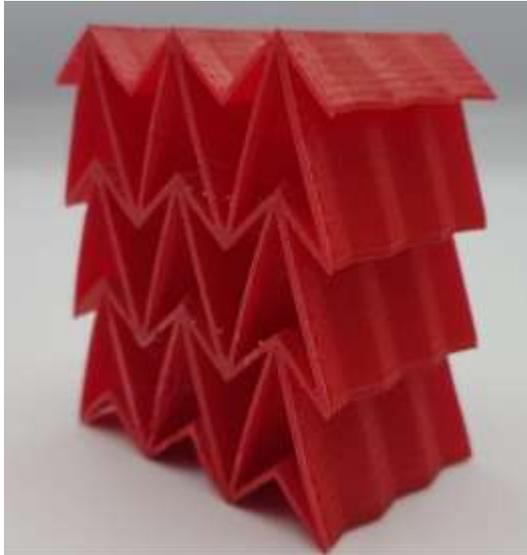
Structure	α [°]	γ [°]	β [°]	t [mm]
CH01	1	80	33	0.6
CH02	1	80	38	0.9
CH03	1	80	43	1.2
CH04	1	110	33	0.9
CH05	1	110	38	1.2
CH06	1	110	43	0.6
CH07	1	140	33	1.2
CH08	1	140	38	0.6
CH09	1	140	43	0.9

CH10	5	80	33	0.9
CH11	5	80	38	1.2
CH12	5	80	43	0.6
CH13	5	110	33	1.2
CH14	5	110	38	0.6
CH15	5	110	43	0.9
CH16	5	140	33	0.6
CH17	5	140	38	0.9
CH18	5	140	43	1.2
CH19	9	80	33	1.2
CH20	9	80	38	0.6
CH21	9	80	43	0.9
CH22	9	110	33	0.6
CH23	9	110	38	0.9
CH24	9	110	43	1.2
CH25	9	140	33	0.9
CH26	9	140	38	1.2
CH27	9	140	43	0.6

113

114 Each structure was then designed as a 60 x 60 x 30 mm flat sample using Solidworks
115 computer-aided design (CAD) software (Dassault Systems, France). An exemplar part is
116 presented in Figure 2. Testing flat material samples, as opposed to the material assembled
117 within a helmet system, allows for direct performance comparison and is independent of
118 factors including curvature and shell stiffness. An identical approach has been reported by
119 other authors.[22-24] All designs were then exported to Simplify3D (Simplify3D, US), an
120 advanced AM slicing platform. Each sample was manufactured via fused filament
121 fabrication (2017 Flashforge Creator Pro printer), retrofitted with high-specification extrusion
122 control (Diabase Engineering, USA). All samples were manufactured from Cheetah, a
123 commercially available thermoplastic polyurethane (NinjaTek, USA), using process
124 parameters reported in Hanna.[25] Cheetah characterisation data has previously been
125 reported in Robinson,[26] with the Prony coefficients from stress relaxation experiments

126 presented in Table 3. Equally sized elastomeric foam samples were cut from two off-the-
127 shelf American football helmets ('helmet 1' and 'helmet 2'), to provide comparative
128 measures.



129

130 **Figure 2:** A photograph presenting one of the MO structures, generated via the Taguchi
131 process.

132 **Table 3:** Cheetah Prony coefficients, represented from [26]

	G /MPa	K /MPa	tau /s
1	0.477	0.0000	1.21E-02
2	0.125	0.0000	15.82

133

134 **2.2. Methods**

135 Each sample was investigated in an impact test machine (Dynatup 9250HV; Instron, US). A
136 flat, 4.8kg rigid impactor struck each sample 5 times, resting for 75 ± 15 s between impacts.

137 This setup is schematically described in Figure 3. Data was recorded with a 500g single axis
138 linear accelerometer (Honeywell, US) via a data acquisition system at 500Hz, before being
139 smoothed using a Butterworth filter, adopting a 1 kHz cut off frequency. Acceleration-time
140 traces were considered once exceeding 4g, to achieve comparison across all data. This is the

141 approach adopted by the NOCSAE testing standards, to eliminate potential sources of noise
142 from the test equipment.

143

144 Each sample was exposed to impacts at three different velocities, derived from the literature.

145 Velocities associated with injurious football collisions have previously been reported as 5.5,

146 7.4 and 9.3ms^{-1} . [5, 27] It is recognised, however, that some impact energy is dissipated

147 through the neck, meaning velocities applied via rigid test apparatus should be scaled by 0.6

148 to accurately represent such collisions. [5] Applied to this study, samples were initially tested

149 at 3.30ms^{-1} , then after 24 hours rest for inspection and full relaxation at 4.44ms^{-1} and then,

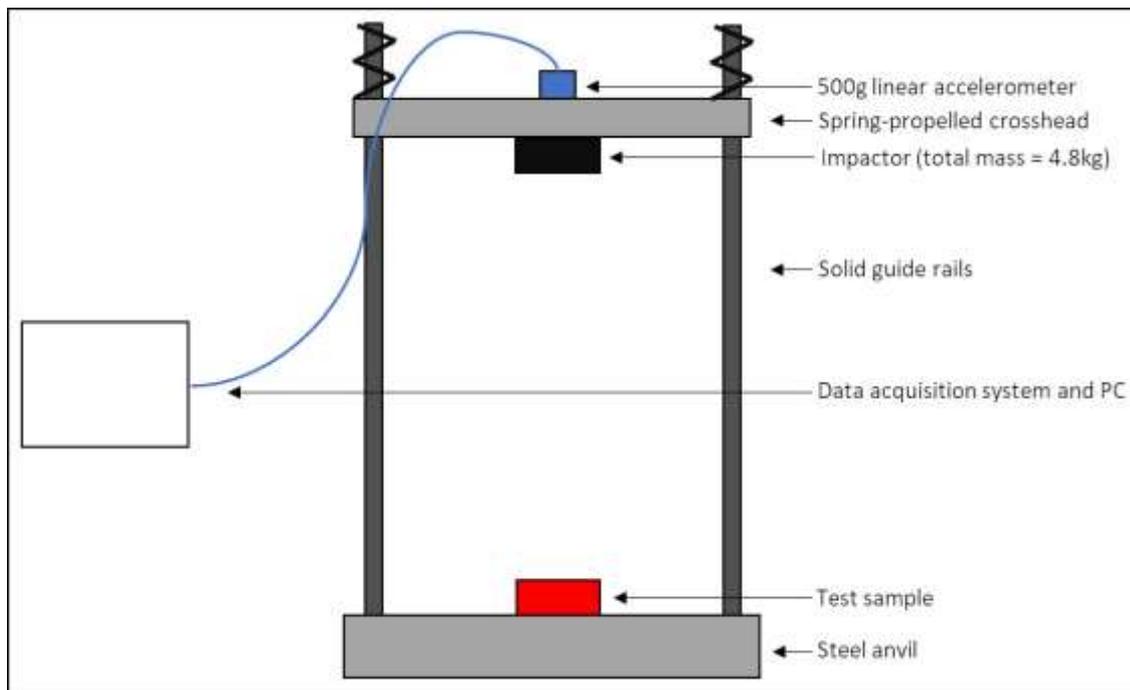
150 following a further 24 hours rest, 5.58ms^{-1} . The mean peak linear acceleration (PLA) for

151 each velocity was then calculated, before computing the 3 velocity score (3VS), adopted from

152 the new football helmet assessment method. [28]

153
$$3VS = 0.06737PLA_{3.30} + 0.04167PLA_{4.44} + 0.05442PLA_{5.58} \quad (\text{eqn 1})$$

154



155

156 **Figure 3:** Schematic representation of the impact test setup.

157 2.2.1. *Array-based Analysis*

158 Established Taguchi techniques were then employed to statistically extrapolate the
159 experimental data, identifying the optimal structure from the 81 possible geometric
160 combinations. The mean standard deviation (MSD, eqn 2) was calculated for each sample, at
161 each impact velocity.

$$162 \quad MSD = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n} \quad (\text{eqn 2})$$

163 where n is the number of datapoints and x_i is the i th data point. From the MSD, a signal to
164 noise ratio (S/N) was calculated, using equation 3.

$$165 \quad S/N = -10 \cdot \log_{10}(MSD) \quad (\text{eqn 3})$$

166 To calculate each parameter's influence, samples were then grouped by level for the
167 parameter studied, and the average S/N value was calculated. For example, the average
168 response where $\alpha = 5^\circ$ is calculated from the S/N values of samples CH10 - 18. This was
169 repeated for each parameter level, calculating the average S/N value. The mean response of
170 all samples is plotted to quantify parametric influence, in a Main Effects plot.

171

172 Interactions between the geometric parameters were identified using surface plots. Given
173 four parameters with three levels, 81 possible structural combinations could be developed.

174 The surface plot describes the nature of the relationships between the two parameters.

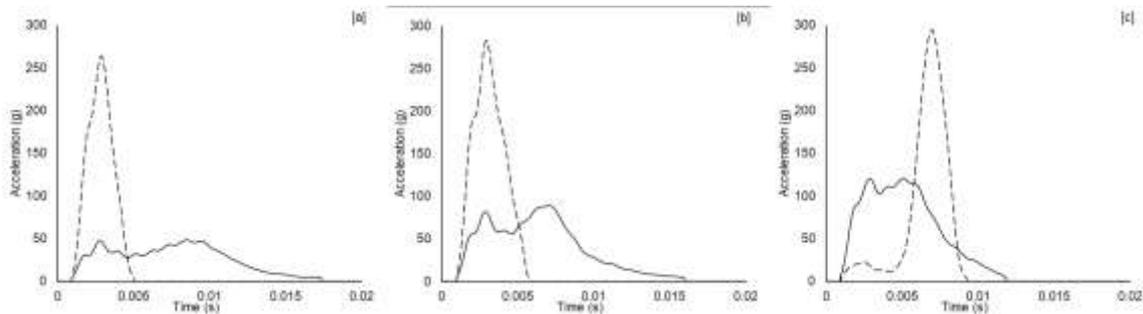
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176 An ANOVA then calculated the contribution of each geometric parameter to a structure's
177 overall response.

178 **3. Results.**

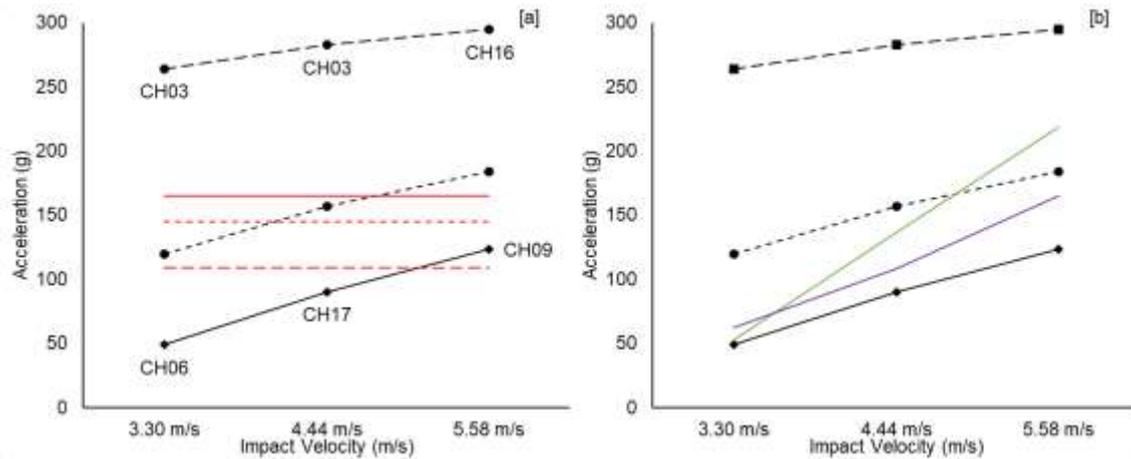
179 **3.1. Baseline Experimental Analysis:**

180 All 27 parametric combinations were manufactured from Cheetah. These manufactured parts
181 were consistently slightly heavier than forecast by the CAD data ($2.45 \pm 1.35\text{g}$). All samples
182 were struck by the impact test machine as per the above protocol, with acceleration-time
183 traces collected for each impact. Selected traces are presented in **Figure 4** from across the 3
184 impact velocities. These traces represent the structure that achieved the lowest PLA (i.e.
185 most favourable response) and that which recorded the highest PLA, due to being either too
186 stiff or soft.



187 **Figure 4:** Selected acceleration-time plots drawn from the 3 impact velocities, representing
188 the lowest (solid) and highest (dashed) PLA values. [a] 3.30 m/s; lowest PLA = CH03,
189 highest PLA = CH06. [b] 4.44 m/s; lowest PLA = CH13, highest PLA = CH17. [c] 5.56 m/s;
190 lowest PLA = CH16, highest PLA = CH06.
191

192 These data, plus the average PLA across all 27 samples for each impact condition, were then
193 plotted against established head injury thresholds, to gain an appreciation of their
194 performance (Figure 5a). Comparison to commercially available helmet foam is also
195 presented (Figure 5b).



196

197 **Figure 5:** Peak linear accelerations for best performing (solid), worst performing (dashed)

198 and average (dotted) L27 samples, across the 3 impact velocities. **[a]** Solid red line = 10%

199 SRC risk; dotted red line = 5% SRC risk; dashed red line = 1% SRC risk. **[b]** Green line =

200 *helmet 1* elastomeric foam; Purple line = *helmet 2* elastomeric foam.

201 3.2. Array-based Analysis

202 The 3VS was calculated for each structure using equation 1. A Main Effects plot assessed

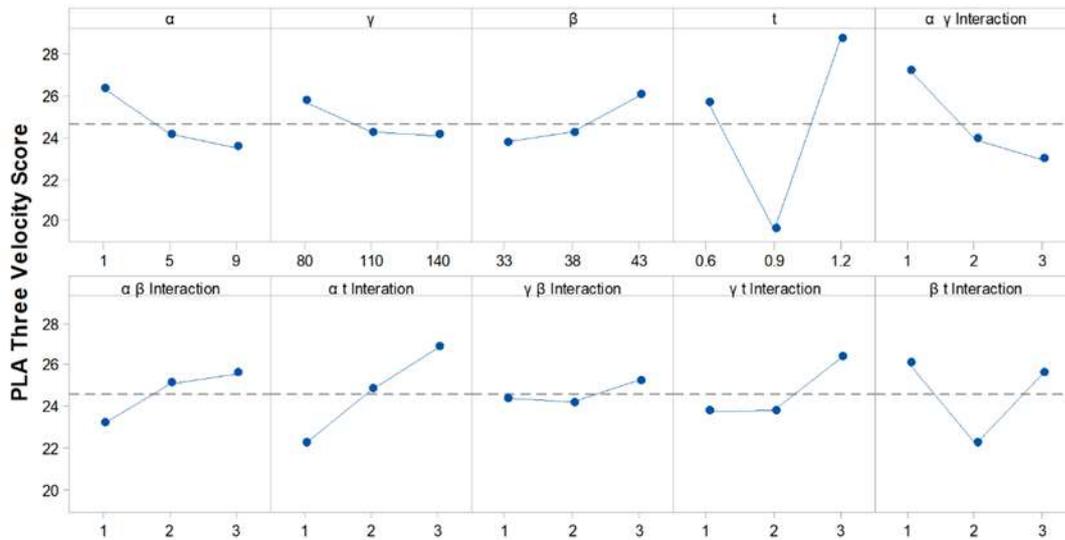
203 the influence of parameters and interactions on the PLA (**Figure 6**). A horizontal trend

204 indicates PLA is independent of a specific parameter, whilst a trend with significant variation

205 indicates the parameter influences sample performance. The lowest PLA represents the most

206 favourable response. Whilst all parameters and interactions have some influence on the

207 structural performance, *t* is the most influential.



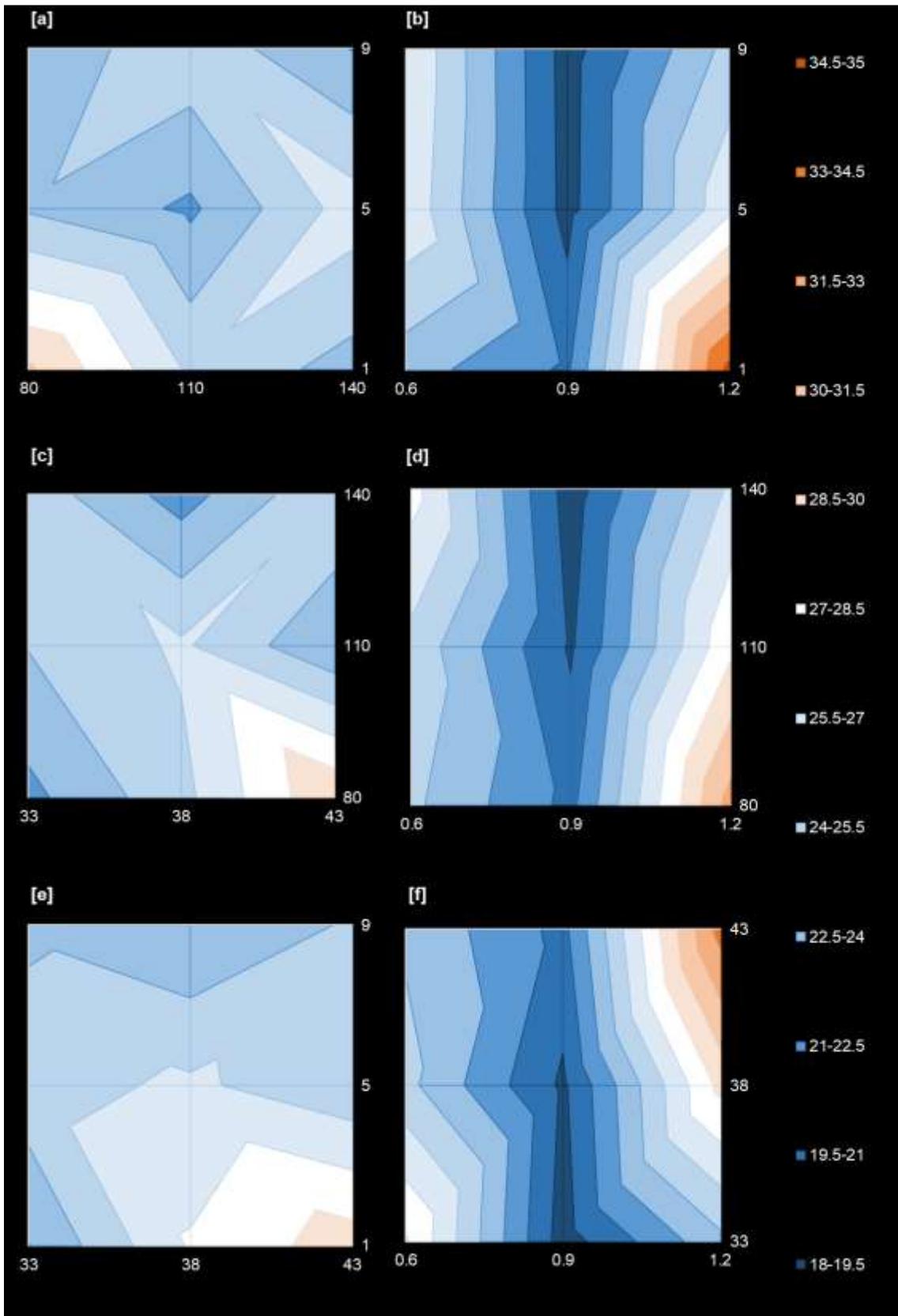
208

209 **Figure 6:** Main Effects plots describing the influence of the geometric parameters and the
 210 interactions on the structural performance, measured via the peak linear acceleration (PLA).

211

212 The 6 interactions are further evaluated in the Interaction Surface Plot, **Figure 7**. A surface
 213 with parallel contours denotes no interaction between two parameters. Diverging contours
 214 indicate weak interaction, whereas strong interaction appears as a complex surface with no
 215 consistent directionality. It is observed that interactions containing t are less complex, though
 216 produce greater variation (i.e. Fig 7b, d and f).

217



218

219 **Figure 7:** Interaction Surface Plots for 3VS, [a] α - γ Interaction, [b] α - t Interaction, [c] β - γ

220 Interaction, [d] γ - t Interaction, [e] α - β Interaction, [f] β - t Interaction.

221 The ANOVA identified design parameters with a statistically significant influence on
 222 performance (**Table 4**), supporting the relationships exhibited in Figure 6 and Figure 7.

223

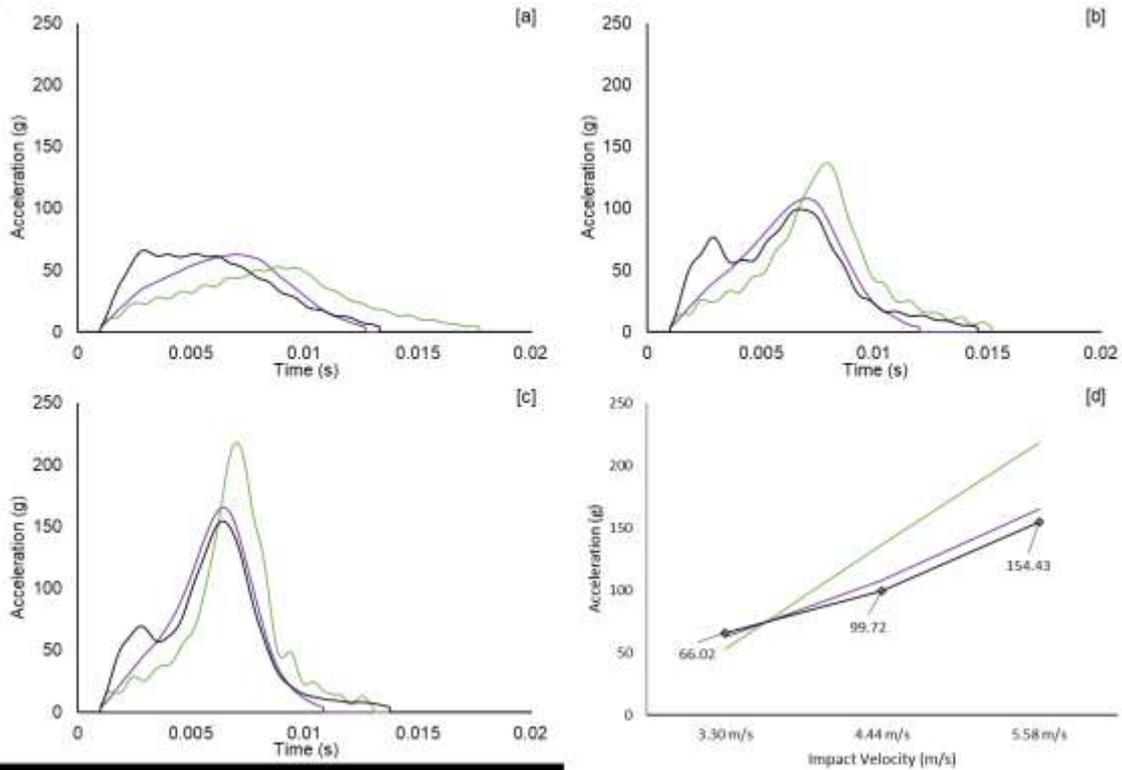
224 **Table 4:** ANOVA results for 3VS

Factor	Degrees of freedom		Sum of Squares	Variance	Contribution	F-Value	Significance	
							90% CI	95% CI
α	2	40.04	20.02	4.30%	1.47	No	No	
t	2	394.82	197.41	42.37%	14.54	Yes	Yes	
α γ Interaction	2	91.13	45.57	9.78%	3.36	Yes	No	
α t Interaction	2	96.82	48.41	10.39%	3.56	Yes	No	
γ t Interaction	2	39.71	19.86	4.26%	1.46	No	No	
β t Interaction	2	79.23	39.61	8.50%	2.92	Yes	No	
Error	14	190.12	13.58	20.40%				
Total	26	931.86		100.00%				

225

226 3.3. Final Design

227 The geometric parameters from the Main Effects plot with the lowest 3VS score produced the
 228 optimised design. The ANOVA and Interaction Surface Plots enabled design verification by
 229 considering the interaction performance of each parameter. The final design was then
 230 manufactured and tested according to the previously discussed impact method (**Figure 8**).



231
 232 **Figure 8:** Acceleration-time plots comparing the optimised MO geometry (black line),
 233 *helmet 2* foam (blue line) and *helmet 1* foam (green line). [a] 3.30 m/s, [b] 4.44 m/s and [c]
 234 5.58 m/s impacts. [d] summarised PLA data.

235 The optimised structure demonstrated superior performance at the two highest impact
 236 velocities relative to the comparator foams, with similar performance at the lowest speed.
 237 The MO sample exhibited a two-peak acceleration response at the highest velocities, with the
 238 latter peak caused by the onset of densification. The initial peak is attributed to the walls
 239 folding, which temporarily reduces acceleration. The optimal geometry produced a 3VS
 240 19.5% lower than the *helmet 1* foam, and 4% lower than the *helmet 2* foam (**Table 5**).

241 **Table 5:** 3VS of optimal MO structure and two comparison foams.

Sample	Three Velocity Score (g)	Relative To Best Foam (%)
<i>Helmet 2</i> foam	17.715	100
<i>Helmet 1</i> foam	21.127	119.261
L27 Maximum	45.233	255.337
L27 Minimum	17.007	96.003

L27 Average	24.618	138.967
3VS Optimal	17.007	96.003

242

243

244 **4. Discussion.**

245 The MO structure was successfully optimised and achieved superior performance versus the
246 comparator foams in the more severe collision scenarios. This innovation should, therefore,
247 transfer less energy to the head during a football collision, potentially offering enhanced
248 player protection.

249 The Taguchi optimisation strategy provided a robust route to understanding the geometric
250 parameters and their relative interactions. Twenty-seven structures were designed,
251 manufactured, and tested to enable analytical interrogation of 81 possible structural
252 combinations. Wall thickness, t , was dominant in the 3VS response with 42% contribution to
253 sample variation, with a further 23% contribution when interactions with the other parameters
254 are considered. The dominant behaviour of t is linked to the adoption of a relatively large
255 cell size, minimising the influence of manufacture inaccuracy and increasing control of non-
256 examined parameters.[29] The optimal design achieved <1% sports-related concussion risk
257 for the two lowest impact velocities and <10% risk at the highest velocity. Both helmet
258 foams demonstrated reduced effectiveness at the highest impact velocity, the average velocity
259 of concussion related impacts, suggesting the MO may be capable of reducing SRC
260 prevalence within more severe football collisions.

261 MO performance also appears favourable relative to individual components, with lower PLA
262 values relative to the Aware-Flow shock absorber at higher velocities.[8] Performance
263 appears inferior when compared to some other systems tested in full helmet configurations,
264 though further scope remains for improvement by varying the sample size, amongst other
265 design considerations. The similar magnitudes of the *helmet 2* foam compared to previously
266 reported helmet data provides confidence that this experimental setup broadly reflects in situ
267 behaviour.[7]

268

269 Whilst none of the investigated angles had statistical significance in their primary effect,
270 many interactions were significant, suggesting secondary effects. Designing relatively large
271 cells may have constrained the metamaterial behaviour and underlying MO
272 characteristics,[30] though reducing cell size would mean thinner walls and so a softer
273 response prior to densification. A change to a stiffer TPU would allow for the further
274 optimisation of cell wall thickness, while maintaining the elastic properties of the derived
275 metamaterial necessary for the application. A stiffer material would also allow for reduced
276 wall thickness whilst maintaining wall buckling, enabling a reduction in overall mass.

277 This study did not perform optimisation with respect to duration, meaning impact time could
278 increase whilst achieving a reduced PLA. Considering the structures as flat slabs is
279 consistent with past studies and reflects the common approach within football helmet design,
280 where small flat pads are proliferated throughout the internal shell wall to achieve complete
281 coverage. Such an approach is fundamental to understanding and evaluating new and
282 innovative materials, before ultimate translation into a complete helmet assembly.

283 **5. Conclusion**

284 The MO geometry has demonstrated potential for use in football-related applications, as
285 tuning the mechanical response has achieved superior performance versus contemporary
286 materials. This provides a platform for future work to explore translation into a full helmet
287 assembly and to consider load cases from other sports/environments.

288

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