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Evaluation of the head-helmet sliding properties in an impact test

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1 **Abstract**

2 The scalp plays a crucial role in head impact biomechanics, being the first tissue involved in
3 the impact and providing a sliding interface between the impactor and/or helmet and the
4 skull. It is important to understand both the scalp-skull and the scalp-helmet sliding in order
5 to determine the head response due to an impact. However, experimental data on the sliding
6 properties of the scalp is lacking. The aim of this work was to identify the sliding properties of
7 the scalp using cadaver heads, in terms of scalp-skull and scalp-liner (internal liner of the
8 helmet) friction and to compare these values with that of widely used artificial headforms
9 (HIII and magnesium EN960). The effect of the hair, the direction of sliding, the speed of the
10 test and the normal load were considered. The experiments revealed that the sliding
11 behaviour of the scalp under impact loading is characterised by three main phases: 1) the low
12 friction sliding of the scalp over the skull (scalp-skull friction), 2) the tensioning effect of the
13 scalp and 3) the sliding of the liner fabric over the scalp (scalp-liner friction). Results showed
14 that the scalp-skull coefficient of friction (COF) is very low (0.06 ± 0.048), whereas the scalp-
15 liner COF is 0.29 ± 0.07 . The scalp-liner COF is statistically different **from** the value of the HIII-
16 liner (0.75 ± 0.06) and the magnesium **EN960**-liner (0.16 ± 0.026). **These** data will lead to the
17 improvement of current headforms for head impact standard tests, ultimately leading to
18 more realistic head impact simulations and the optimization of helmet designs.

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20 **Keywords:** Scalp, friction, head impact, helmet, rotational acceleration

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26 1. Introduction

27 Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) is the leading cause of death for young adults (under 45 years of
28 age) worldwide (Gennarelli 1993, Jennett 1998, Coronado et al. 2015, Taylor 2017). Helmets
29 are effective in reducing **head** accelerations and velocities, and can therefore contribute to
30 the reduction of head and brain injuries in sport under some (but not all) conditions
31 (Thompson and Patterson 1998, Povey et al. 1999, Thompson et al. 1999, Attewell et al. 2001,
32 Keng 2005, Amoros et al. 2012, Hasler et al. 2015). The majority of helmet standard tests
33 measure the reduction in linear acceleration to assess the quality of a helmet (Connor et al.
34 2016), despite a number of studies suggesting that the rotational acceleration is a better
35 indicator of brain injury (Holbourn 1943, Gennarelli et al. 1987, Kleiven 2007, Forero Rueda
36 et al. 2011, Kleiven 2013). The brain **is hypothesised to be** more sensitive to shear forces
37 resulting from rotational and linear acceleration, than to compressive forces due to linear
38 acceleration alone (**Adams et al. 1982, Gennarelli et al. 1982**). Under these assumptions,
39 researchers are now developing new helmet standard tests which incorporate the effect of
40 rotational accelerations. The National Operating Committee for Standards in Athletic
41 Equipment released a new standard for headgear which consists of a linear impactor test
42 evaluating the rotational accelerations which will become active in 2018 (NOCSAE 2018). This
43 will ultimately lead to helmet designs which are optimised to protect the head against both
44 linear and rotational accelerations. Head-helmet sliding properties represent one of the
45 parameters to consider when optimizing a helmet against rotational acceleration. Using two
46 popular headforms, EN960 Magnesium headform and Hybrid III dummy headform (HIII), a
47 number of authors have examined the effect of the headform-helmet friction over the years
48 (Aare and Halldin 2003, Finan et al. 2008, Halldin and Kleiven 2013). The EN960 Magnesium
49 headform does not have an outer layer to simulate scalp tissue; whereas the Hybrid III dummy

50 headform has a vinyl skin. Some researchers have claimed that a lower head-helmet friction
51 reduces the rotational acceleration undergone by the head during the impact and therefore
52 the risk of head injury (Aare and Halldin 2003, Halldin and Kleiven 2013, Halldin et al. 2013).
53 On the other hand, other works have claimed that a lower head-helmet friction, in some
54 cases, increases the rotational acceleration undergone by the head, depending on impact
55 location and angle (Finan et al. 2008, Ebrahimi et al. 2015). Despite the different opinions on
56 the effect of a lower head-helmet COF, researchers concluded that the material covering the
57 headform, and its sliding properties, are important in determining the head response in
58 oblique helmet impacts (Ebrahimi et al. 2015).

59 From this perspective, the knowledge of the sliding properties of the scalp is essential for a
60 better understanding of the impact biomechanics. The scalp is the most external part of the
61 head and is the first tissue involved in a head impact. It is free to slide over the skull and it is
62 anteriorly connected with the orbicularis oculi muscles, laterally connected to the frontal
63 process of the zygoma, to the superior aspect of the zygomatic arch and over the mastoid
64 process superior to the attachments of the sternocleidomastoid and trapezius muscles, and
65 in the back of the head it fuses with the superior nuchal line (Tolhurst et al. 1991). Therefore,
66 there are two primary surface interactions at play during an impact, the scalp-skull friction
67 and the scalp-helmet friction.

68 In the majority of cases, sliding properties of the skin are determined using the ASTM D3702
69 (Comaish and Bottoms 1971, Kondo 2002) or the ASTM D1894 (Gerhardt et al. 2008) standard
70 test. The ASTM D3702 involves the application of a rotational probe to test a surface using
71 the torque to determine the horizontal friction force. The ASTM D1894, instead, involves the
72 application of a translational motion of the probe on a surface to determine the static and

73 dynamic friction. Different normal loads and speeds can be applied in both cases. In the case
74 of a head impact the helmet slides over the scalp and this sliding motion can be better
75 represented using the ASTM D1894. This standard test allows the application of larger sliding
76 distances and minimize unpredictable effects due to the presence of hair.

77 A number of studies have focused on the COF of the skin, concluding that skin friction depends
78 on the type and physical properties of the contacting materials, on the body region, on the
79 physiological skin conditions (e.g. hydration state, sebum level) and on mechanical contact
80 parameters (e.g. normal load, sliding velocity) (Zhang and Mak 1999, Tang et al. 2008, Derler
81 and Gerhardt 2012); while ethnicity and gender do not affect the COF (Sivamani et al. 2003).
82 Age does not affect the COF (Sivamani et al. 2003); however, late age (80 years in men, post
83 menopause for women) has been shown to affect the sebum level (Pochi et al. 1979), which
84 affects the COF. Researchers have generally performed friction tests under small contact
85 pressure; Fotoh et al. (Fotoh et al. 2008) reports a COF of 0.8 ± 0.5 between a steel sphere and
86 the forehead under a normal force of 0.1 N, while Christensen et al. (Christensen and Nacht
87 1983) reports a COF of 0.12-0.22 between a Teflon wheel and the forehead under a normal
88 force of 1.96 N. However, the contact pressure between the helmet and the scalp can reach
89 values up to 0.7 MPa, which represents the plateau value for the expanded polystyrene (EPS)
90 foam of the helmet (Di Landro et al. 2002). At this point, the foam deforms, absorbing a large
91 amount of energy, without increasing the contact pressure on the head.

92 Currently sliding properties of the scalp are not accurately represented in either artificial
93 headforms or numerical head models. Artificial headforms do not always include a scalp-like
94 material (Magnesium EN960) and if they do, it is a polymeric layer rigidly attached to the
95 headform (HIII, NOCSAE, FOCUS headforms). In numerical head models, scalp tissue is

96 generally modelled as a linear elastic material rigidly connected to the skull (Zhang et al. 2001,
97 Horgan and Gilchrist 2003, Belingardi et al. 2005, Deck and Willinger 2008), except for the
98 model developed by Kleiven et al. which represents the scalp with two layers, a hyperelastic
99 and an elastic layer (Kleiven 2007, Fahlstedt et al. 2015).

100 The aim of this work is to determine the sliding properties at play between the internal liner
101 of a helmet and cadaver human heads and compare them with the sliding properties of the
102 magnesium EN960 and HIII headforms. The results presented here will lead to the
103 development, or modification, of headforms for head impact standard tests **with the aim of**
104 **improving** helmet design. **Additionally, they will be used in finite element simulations to**
105 **better understand the effect of friction during a head impact.**

106 **2. Methods**

107 Friction tests were performed on cadaver human heads, Hybrid III headform (HIII) and
108 magnesium EN960 headform at KU (Katholieke Universiteit) Leuven, Belgium.

109 *2.1 Head preparation*

110 The ethics committee within KU Leuven approved the use of human cadaver heads for testing
111 (Ethical approval n. NH0192017-02-02). Five Caucasian human heads with hair were obtained
112 from the KU Leuven Anatomy Centre (age 73-86); three males and two females. The heads
113 were decapitated between the C4 and C5 vertebra and rinsed with a 0.9% NaCl solution via
114 the vena jugularis and the carotis interna and externa. The blood vessels were emptied using
115 a 55cc syringe with air. The blood vessels, the carotis and the jugularis were sealed with
116 ethibond 2/0 to avoid extensive loss of body fluids. No fixation was used. The heads were
117 subsequently packaged in an airtight bag and frozen at -18°C. Five days prior to testing, the

118 heads were brought to 2°C to allow slow defrosting and to preserve the quality. On the day
119 of the experiment, the eyes and mouth were sealed with ethibond 2.0; the nose was not
120 sealed to allow internal pressure release if needed. The heads were transported and stored
121 in the test lab at 4°C until one hour before the start of the experiments. After performing the
122 experimental tests on the head with hair, each head was shaved and the same experiments
123 were performed on the shaved head at a room temperature of 21±2°C.

124 *2.2 Set-up description*

125 The customised experimental set-up was developed based on the ASTM D1894 friction test
126 method. The set-up (Figure 1) consists of a Schenck horizontal fatigue machine (25 kN load
127 cell) coupled with a pneumatic cylinder. The horizontal tensile machine has a maximum stroke
128 of ± 12.5 mm and a maximum frequency of 10 Hz (depending on the stroke). The pneumatic
129 cylinder was used to apply the normal load. Vertical load and horizontal displacement were
130 applied simultaneously using a linear slide consisting of a miniature slide and a guide rail. The
131 two rows of precision ball bearings give four point contact with the rail thus offering accuracy,
132 stability and rigidity even when under complex or variable loads. The probe in contact with
133 the head is a cylindrical steel probe (diameter of 20 mm) covered with a layer of helmet
134 internal liner (Duplex 22, a 100% polyester fabric of 230 g/m², produced by Tiba Tricot SRL in
135 Italy and supplied by AGV, Italy) and connected to the pneumatic cylinder through a 5 kN load
136 cell. 20 mm diameter was selected so to minimize the curvature effect of the head and to
137 ensure a constant pressure. Heads were secured using an EPS-bead filled vacuum bag to avoid
138 movement of the head during testing.

139 *2.3 Test specifications*

140 The effect of different parameters on the COF was examined: the normal load, the presence
141 of hair, the frequency of the test, the direction of sliding and the stroke of the test. The normal
142 load applied was between 20-200 N, which corresponds to stress values between 0.06-0.64
143 MPa (values experienced by the head during an impact) (Di Landro et al. 2002). Tests were
144 performed on heads with and without hair in two main directions, longitudinal (sagittal plane)
145 and transverse (coronal plane) direction. **These directions were chosen to represent**
146 **common head impact directions in sports.** Two main sets of experiments were conducted on
147 the human heads: one set at 12 mm stroke and one set at 23 mm stroke. The 12 mm stroke
148 allowed for the identification of the dynamic scalp-skull friction; the 23 mm stroke allowed
149 for the identification of the static and dynamic scalp-liner friction.

150 12 mm stroke: Four different frequencies were tested, 0.5, 1, 3 **(only longitudinal direction),**
151 5 Hz **(on the heads with hair only the longitudinal direction was tested).** In this scenario, an
152 additional set of experiments was conducted using double-sided tape instead of the internal
153 liner of the helmet. This had the effect of rigidly adhering the impactor to the skin, and
154 allowed us to clearly differentiate between two sliding interactions: the skull-scalp interaction
155 and the scalp-liner interaction.

156 23 mm stroke: Due to limitations of the machine which resulted in significant inertial forces
157 and noise at higher frequencies, only 0.5 Hz was tested. In this set of experiments, the sliding
158 distance of the probe over the head was maximised.

159 When testing headforms (HIII and EN960) only a 12mm stroke was tested since there is no
160 skull-scalp sliding present and the only interaction at play was the headform-liner friction.

161 In the present study, 297 tests were performed in total on the human cadaver heads and at
162 least 25 tests on each of the artificial headforms. To take into account the internal friction of

163 the Schenck horizontal fatigue system, a number of cycles without load were conducted
164 before applying the normal force. The system outputs the value of the normal force, the
165 displacement and the horizontal force. The friction was calculated as the ratio between the
166 horizontal force (corrected by the internal friction of the machine) and the normal force. A
167 multi-way ANOVA test followed by a post hoc analysis was used to analyse the data in Matlab.

168 **3. Results**

169 *3.1 Qualitative analysis*

170 When the probe slides over the human head, three main phases can be identified: 1) the
171 sliding of the scalp over the skull, 2) the tensioning effect of the scalp and 3) the sliding of the
172 probe over the scalp. Figure 2 shows the horizontal to vertical force ratio graph over
173 displacement for a 12 mm (b) and 23 mm (a) stroke test on the human head. The arrows on
174 the graph indicate the impact points and the direction of the movement. At 12 mm stroke (b),
175 the probe impacts the scalp almost in the centre position (denoted by ① in the Figure 2b).
176 Horizontal motion requires very little force, due to the sliding of the scalp over the skull. As
177 the displacement increases, the scalp is pulled along with the probe and is stretched,
178 increasing the horizontal force and thus the apparent friction (②). However, there is no
179 sliding between the probe and the scalp. Considering then the experiments at 23 mm stroke
180 (a), the response is quite different. Here, the probe impacts the scalp (①) at the outermost
181 position of the stroke and starts stretching the scalp (②). The reaction force of the scalp
182 increases until this force is equal to $\mu_s * F_N$ (with μ_s static scalp-liner COF) (③). After this point,
183 the probe starts sliding over the scalp (④) since the horizontal force is greater than $\mu_d * F_N$
184 (where μ_d is the dynamic scalp-liner COF). In the following cycles, the only effects at play are

185 the scalp-skull sliding (⑤) and the tensioning of the scalp (② dashed) as the horizontal to
186 vertical force ratio remains below the static scalp-liner COF.

187

188 Figure 3 represents the distance travelled by the probe before sliding begins. This distance is
189 larger when the movement is in the transverse direction than in the longitudinal direction.
190 Given that the probe must travel an average of 12mm before sliding of the probe relative to
191 the scalp begins, it is clear that the experiments at 12mm stroke do not include the effect of
192 the scalp-liner friction.

193 The same experiment conducted on the HIII and the magnesium EN960 results in a completely
194 different response (Figure 4). Firstly, as expected, the movement of the scalp over the skull is
195 absent; secondly, it is not possible to discern between a static and dynamic COF, because the
196 probe is already moving when it impacts on the headform. In the magnesium EN960
197 headform, the horizontal to vertical force ratio is almost constant, indicating there is a
198 constant sliding of the probe over the surface of the headform. In the HIII, a variation of the
199 horizontal to vertical force ratio is observed when the probe changes direction. This is
200 probably due to indentation and shearing effects of the vinyl skin (PVC Plastisol 55A Shore)
201 covering the headform. When the force ratio reaches the friction coefficient, the probe starts
202 to slide over the vinyl skin, with a constant friction value.

203 3.2 Quantitative *Analysis*

204 Data was analysed depending on the shape of the friction response. The headform-liner COF
205 has been calculated as the average value of the flat region of the graph in Figure 4. For the
206 human head tests, the static and dynamic scalp-liner friction coefficients were determined
207 from the 23 mm stroke tests. Whereas the scalp-skull COF was calculated from both 12 and

208 23 mm stroke tests. The static scalp-liner COF corresponds to the maximum value of the
209 friction in the first cycle after impact of the 23 mm stroke test. The dynamic scalp-liner friction
210 has been calculated as the average value of the flat part of the friction curve in the first half
211 cycle after impact. The scalp-skull COF has been determined as the average value of the
212 friction in the interval of the impact point ± 1 mm for the 12 mm stroke tests, and as the
213 average value of the flat region of the friction curve after the first cycle for the 23 mm stroke.

214 *Scalp-skull friction*

215 Figure 5 shows the average and standard deviation of the scalp-skull COF at different
216 frequencies. The overall trend indicates that both the average value of the scalp-skull friction
217 and the standard deviation increase with the frequency. Figure 6 shows values of COF versus
218 the normal load at 0.5 Hz (a), 1 Hz (b), 3 Hz (c), and 5 Hz (d). Average and standard deviation
219 of the COF in the different test configurations are shown in Table 1. At 0.5 and 1 Hz the value
220 of the friction coefficient is almost constant at different normal loads. At 3 and 5 Hz, the
221 friction decreases with the increase in normal load and it is lower than 0.1 around pressures
222 of 0.7 MPa. This suggests that at increased frequencies, the scalp-skull friction is more
223 sensitive to the normal load. Statistical analyses showed that the presence of the hair and the
224 direction of sliding during testing do not affect the skull-scalp friction. Moreover, tests
225 performed using double-sided tape (where only the skull-scalp friction is at play) gave the
226 same results as the tests with the internal liner, leading to the conclusion that for 12 mm
227 stroke there was no scalp-probe sliding.

228 *Scalp-liner friction*

229 Figure 7 shows the values of static and dynamic scalp (or headform)-liner COFs for the
230 different headforms and for the human heads in four different configurations: with hair and

231 longitudinal direction (Hair/L), with hair and transverse direction (Hair/T), shaved head and
232 longitudinal direction (Shaved/L), and shaved head and transverse direction (Shaved/T).
233 Average values of the static scalp-liner COF are between 0.21 (Hair/T) and 0.35 (Shaved/T).
234 Average values of the dynamic scalp-liner COF are between 0.20 (Hair/T) and 0.32 (Shaved/T).
235 Average and standard deviation of the different configurations are shown in Table 2. The
236 direction of sliding does not statistically affect the COF (static COF *p-value* 0.49, dynamic COF
237 *p-value* 0.54), however, the presence of hair significantly reduces the COF (static COF *p-value*
238 $1.46e-5$, dynamic COF *p-value* 0.0008). The scalp-liner COF of human heads was statistically
239 different (*p-value* $7.61e-31$) when compared with the COF between the liner and the
240 headforms (HIII and magnesium EN960). Values of the headform-liner friction are: 0.75 ± 0.06
241 for the HIII and 0.16 ± 0.026 for the magnesium EN960.

242 4. Discussion

243

244 In the first set of tests (12 mm stroke) on the human heads there was no sliding between the
245 probe and the scalp. This was confirmed when the tests were repeated with the probe rigidly
246 adhered to the scalp. The only sliding at play was that of the scalp over the skull. The average
247 value of the scalp-skull friction was 0.06 ± 0.048 . The scalp-skull friction is not sensitive to the
248 normal load at low frequencies but at higher frequencies (5 Hz) the COF decreases as the
249 normal load increases. Tests performed in different configurations of the head showed that
250 the scalp-skull friction does not depend on the presence of hair or on the direction of sliding.
251 A larger stroke (23 mm) allowed for the identification of the static and dynamic scalp-liner
252 COF. In this case, as the probe pulls the scalp in tension, eventually the tangential force
253 exceeds the normal force times the static scalp-liner friction ($F_H > \mu_s F_N$) allowing the probe to

254 slide over the scalp. Once the sliding starts the maximum tension applied to the skin is lower
255 than the normal force times the static scalp-liner friction ($F_H < \mu_s F_N$). Therefore, in the cycles
256 following the first one, the only effects at play are the scalp-skull sliding and the tensioning of
257 the scalp. The different test configurations showed that the presence of hair reduces the
258 scalp-liner COF but the direction of sliding does not have a significant effect. The difference
259 in distances before sliding initiates is related to the mechanical properties of the scalp.
260 Indeed, the scalp is anisotropic and the collagen fibres are oriented in the sagittal plane of the
261 head (Langer 1861). Since the tissue is stiffer in the direction of the collagen fibres (Ní Annaidh
262 et al. 2012), less displacement is necessary to reach higher forces. In the transverse direction,
263 however, the scalp is softer and to obtain sliding, a larger displacement is necessary.

264 Tests performed on the artificial headforms (HIII and EN960) showed a different friction
265 response and different headform-liner COF. In particular, the shape of the friction response
266 does not include the tensioning effect of the skin since there is no skin-like material in the
267 magnesium EN960. While it is sometimes claimed that the rubber material of the HIII is like
268 skin, it is very thick and the friction coefficient between the aluminium and the rubber is
269 significantly higher than the scalp-skull friction coefficient observed in this research.
270 Therefore, the artificial skin on the HIII does not accurately represent human scalp-skull
271 behaviour. The values of the headform-liner COFs vary considerably between the different
272 headforms (0.75 ± 0.06 for the HII and 0.16 ± 0.03 for the magnesium EN960) and are
273 statistically different when compared with the value of the human head (0.29 ± 0.07). The low
274 COF would induce too much sliding of the headform in the helmet during rotational impact,
275 thus artificially reducing rotational accelerations. On the other hand, the COF of the rubber
276 skin of the HIII is unrealistically high, reducing head-helmet displacement during rotational
277 impact compared to a human head. This has significant consequences for those charged with

278 improving helmet standard tests, as artificial headforms should seek to replicate the sliding
279 properties of a human head as closely as possible in order to replicate realistic head impacts.
280 Replicating the sliding properties will affect the kinematics of the head and therefore the
281 rotational acceleration undergone by the head during an impact. FE head models should
282 change the scalp boundary conditions and artificial headforms should adopt a soft layer with
283 a COF closer to the human scalp. New helmets should be optimised taking into account the
284 sliding of the scalp, which could result in new helmet designs. Liner materials should be
285 chosen considering both comfort and scalp-liner friction, with the aim to reduce the effect of
286 the rotational acceleration.

287 Limitations of the work include the age of the heads (only elderly subjects in this study), the
288 type of hair (Caucasian straight hair), the physiological skin condition, the fact that the effect
289 of the sweat and the sebum level of the scalp were not considered and only one location on
290 the head (vertex location) was tested because it is reasonably flat. Additionally, only
291 frequencies up to 5 Hz for the 12 mm stroke and 0.5 Hz for 23 mm stroke were tested due to
292 limitations caused by the inertia of the test set-up. It is known that the mechanical properties
293 of the scalp depend on the strain rate (Ottenio et al. 2015); the scalp becomes stiffer at high
294 strain rates. This would result in an increased stress build-up in the scalp and a shorter
295 distance before the probe starts sliding. Moreover at high frequencies the COF becomes
296 highly dependent on the normal load. However the values of COF at 5 Hz and 0.6-0.7 MPa of
297 normal load seem to be comparable with the value of the COF at lower frequencies. Future
298 research should investigate the COF of other materials used as comfort padding (for instance
299 VN or EPP used in hockey and American football helmets) and higher frequencies.

300 **5. Conclusion**

301 During the test, three main phases were identified: sliding of the scalp over the skull with a
302 low COF (0.06 ± 0.048); tensioning of the scalp; and sliding of the internal liner over the scalp
303 (COF of 0.29 ± 0.07). Neither the presence of hair, the frequency of the test, nor the direction
304 of sliding had an effect on the scalp-skull COF. However, the presence of hair does reduce the
305 static and dynamic scalp-liner COF. The normal load was found to affect the COF, but only at
306 high frequencies. Comparing the head with the artificial headforms, there are two main
307 differences: 1) the headforms do not include a scalp-skull friction and therefore there is no
308 tensioning effect of the skin; 2) the scalp-liner COF (0.29 ± 0.07) is statistical different (*p-value*
309 $7.61e-31$) from the headform-liner COF, in particular the HIII has a very high friction
310 coefficient (0.75 ± 0.06) that is more than twice the scalp-liner COF and the magnesium EN960
311 has a COF lower than the human head (0.16 ± 0.03).

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317 **Conflict of interest**

318 The authors have no relevant conflict of interest to report.

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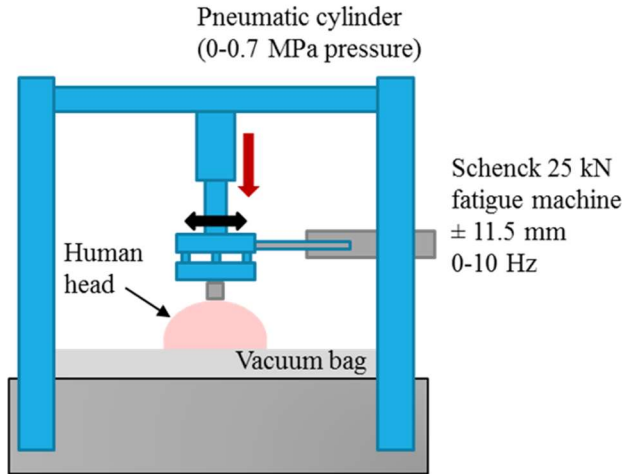


Figure 1: Experimental set-up for the friction tests.

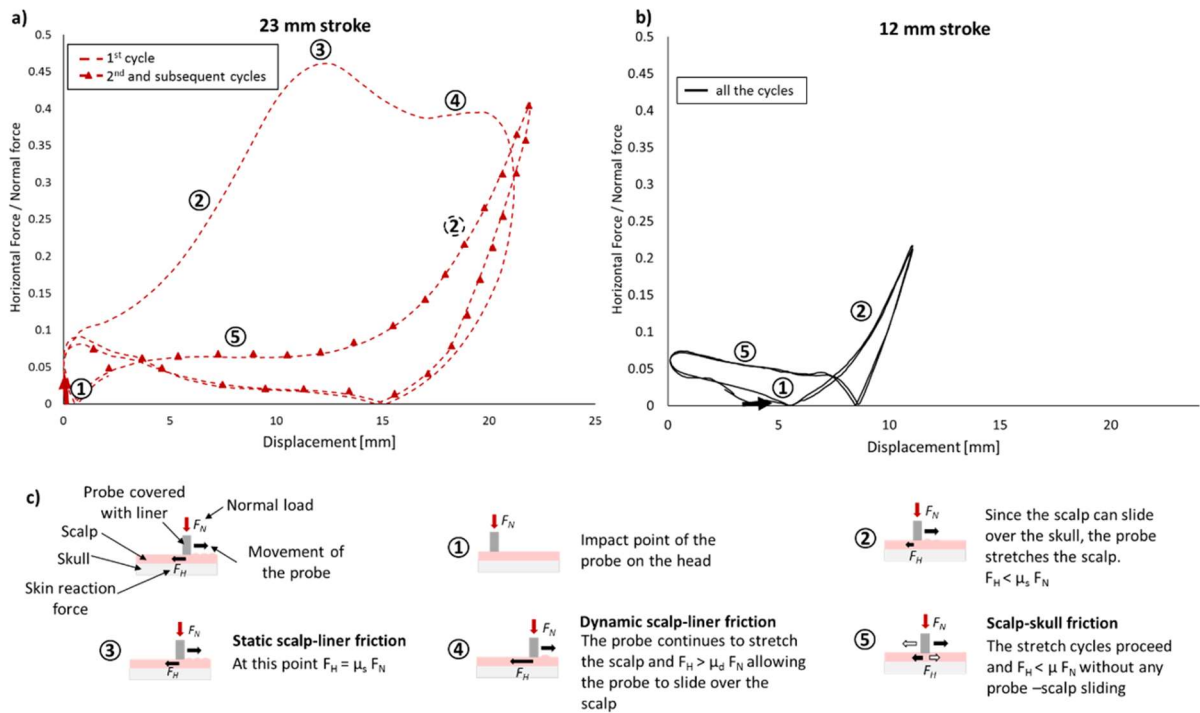


Figure 2: Representative friction coefficient-displacement graph of the human head for 23 mm (a) and 12 mm (b) stroke, followed by an explanation of the different phases of the test (c). **The ratio between horizontal and normal force (y axis) is non-dimensional.** Each phase is associated with a number (1-5). μ_s is the static scalp-liner friction, μ_d is the dynamic scalp-liner friction, μ is the scalp-skull friction. The 1st cycle of the 23mm stroke (a) differs considerably from the 2nd and subsequent cycles. In the 1st cycle of the 23 mm stroke, the static (③) and dynamic (④) scalp-liner friction can be identified, in the 2nd and subsequent cycles, the scalp-skull friction (⑤) and the skin tension (② dashed) are the only effects at play and there is no sliding of the probe relative to the scalp. At 12 mm stroke (b), the reaction force of the skin is not sufficient to overcome $\mu_s F_N$ and the identification of the static and dynamic scalp-liner

friction is not possible; in this case the tensioning of the skin (②) and the scalp-skull friction (⑤) are the only phases.

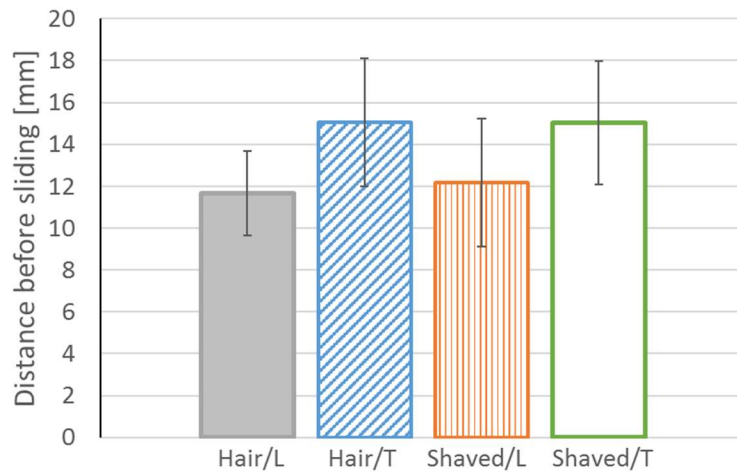


Figure 3: Distance before the probe starts sliding over the scalp in different configurations.

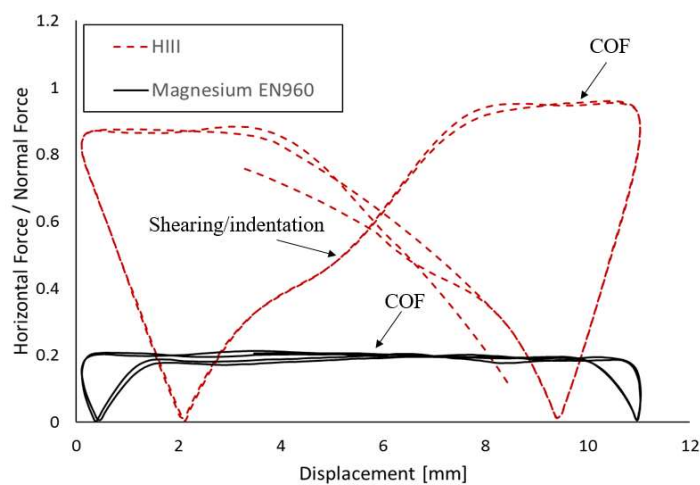


Figure 4: Representative friction coefficient-displacement graph for the HIII (dashed line) and magnesium EN960 (continuous line). **The ratio between horizontal and normal force (y axis) is non-dimensional.** Only the headform-liner COF can be identified in the case of EN960. For the HIII, two main effects can be identified: the shearing/small indentation of the rubber material and the headform-liner COF.

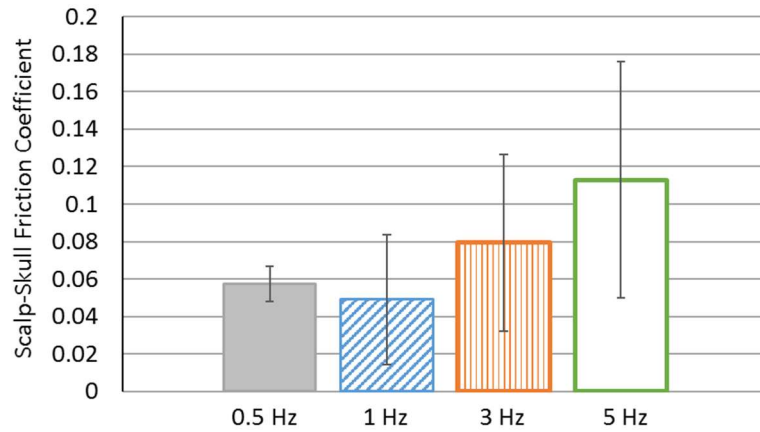


Figure 5: Scalp-skull friction coefficient at different frequencies (average \pm standard deviation).

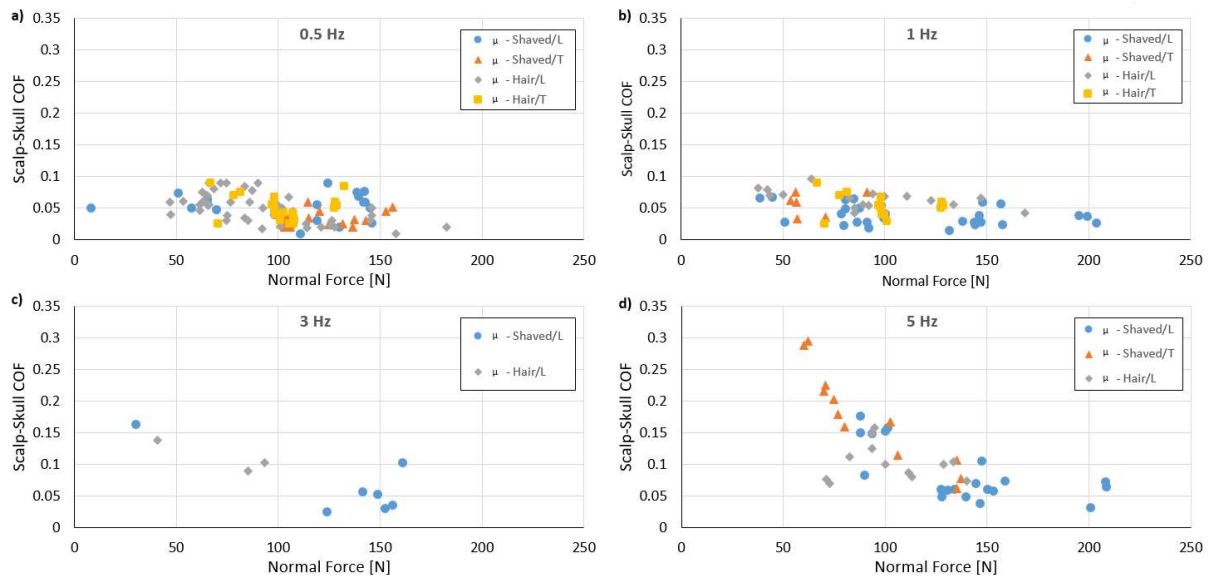


Figure 6: Scalp-skull COF of the human head versus normal load graph at 0.5 Hz (a), 1 Hz (b), 3 Hz (c), and 5 Hz (d). Four different head configurations have been reported in these graphs: shaved/L (shaved head and longitudinal direction), Shaved/T (shaved head and transverse direction), Hair/L (head with hair and longitudinal direction) and Hair/T (head with hair and transverse direction). At 0.5 and 1 Hz (a-b) the friction does not depend on the load. At 3 and 5 Hz (b) the friction value decreases with the increase in normal force.

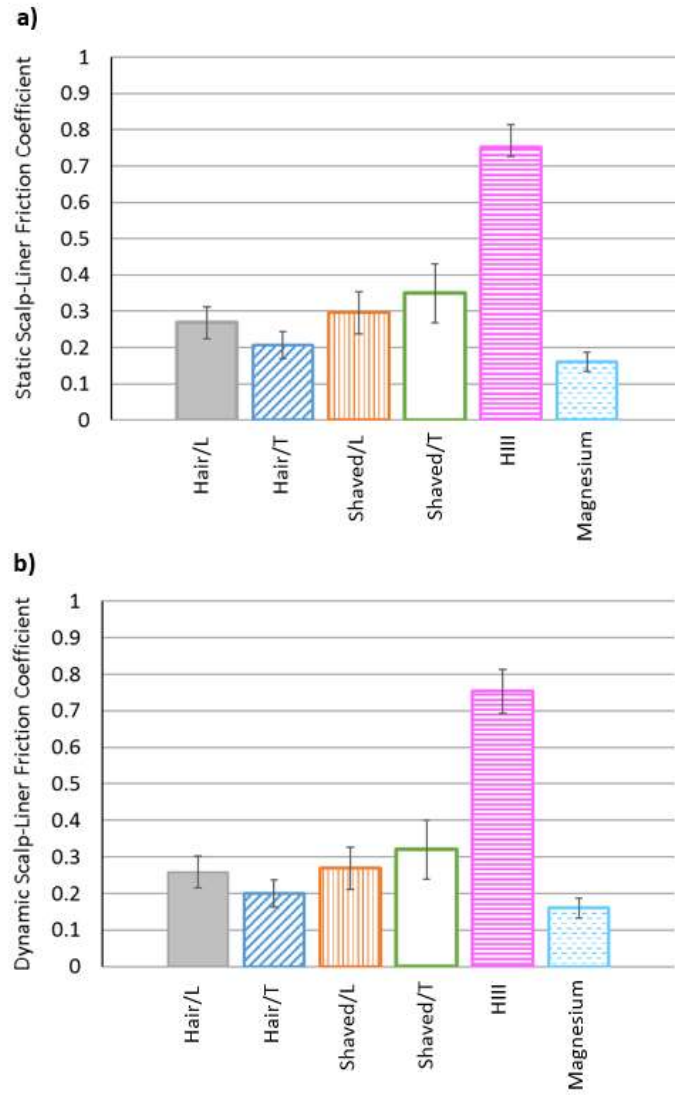


Figure 7: Static (a) and Dynamic (b) scalp/surface-liner friction coefficient of the human head (in different configurations) and of widely used artificial headforms (HIII and magnesium EN960).