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**PREDICTED EFFECTIVENESS OF POTENTIAL INJURY COUNTERMEASURES
FOR ALL-TERRAIN VEHICLE OVERTURNS**

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ABSTRACT

An analysis of the predicted effectiveness of three potential injury countermeasures for All-Terrain Vehicle (ATV) overturn accidents is described. These involved one passive countermeasure – an example Crush Protective Device (CPD) – and two active countermeasures: a full face helmet and a half helmet. As in previous evaluations, the methodology involved extending and applying the test and analysis methods defined in ISO 13232 for motorcycle impacts, with further updates and calibrations of the models, to evaluate the effects on injuries in a sample of 770 simulated types of ATV overturns based on accident data. The results indicated that fitment of the example CPD resulted in no statistically significant net benefit in terms of injuries and fatalities in comparison to the baseline ATV and unhelmeted dummy; while use of the example full face helmet or half helmet resulted in statistically significant net benefits. This confirms for this class of small, ride-on-top, straddle seat, handlebar-controlled, helmet-required, rider-active vehicles that helmet use - whether full face or half helmet, which offer different levels of protection – is an effective countermeasure, and that the example CPD is not an effective countermeasure. The data indicate that the example CPD analyzed has no statistically significant effect on probability of injury and fatality, and that in all paired comparisons analyzed there was an excessive probability that it is a harmful device.

KEYWORDS

All-terrain vehicle, crush protective device, Quadbar, helmet, risk, benefit, injury,

1 INTRODUCTION

2
3 This paper describes results of an analysis of the predicted effectiveness of three potential
4 injury countermeasures for All-Terrain Vehicle (ATV) overturn accidents. The
5 countermeasures involved one passive countermeasure – an example Crush Protective Device
6 (CPD) – and two active countermeasures: a full face helmet and a half helmet.

7
8 As in previous protective device evaluations described in (1) through (6), this evaluation
9 adapts the relevant portions of the test and analysis methods specified in ISO 13232 (2005)(7)
10 for motorcycle protective devices, extended so as to be applicable to ATV overturn events.
11 These estimate the predicted injury (and fatality) benefits and injury (and fatality) risks of
12 fitting a protective device (in this case a CPD to an ATV; or a helmet to a crash dummy),
13 comparing these results to published data for other occupant protection systems for
14 automobiles, as well as to guidelines for motorcycle rider protection systems given in
15 ISO 13232. This evaluation also included extensive updates involving refinements to the
16 previous evaluation methodology, as subsequently described. As in the previous evaluations
17 cited, the evaluation was based on predicting the injury benefits and injury risks that would
18 result from fitment of a protective device, by means of paired comparisons using simulation
19 models (i.e., predicting injuries with and without the proposed device) that have been
20 extensively calibrated against test data, across a representative set of overturn “types” (and
21 variations thereto), in which the types of overturn are based on two different samples of
22 actual ATV accidents.

23
24 This paper summarizes the research methodology; the results of applying the methodology to
25 the three example countermeasures; and the conclusions and recommendations.

26 BACKGROUND

27
28
29 An ATV is a type of standardized 4-wheeled off-highway vehicle, which is defined (e.g., by
30 ANSI/SVIA-1-2010 (2010)(8)) as having a straddle seat, footrests, handlebar-controlled,
31 helmet-required, ride-on-top configuration among other factors. ATVs have a precise legal
32 definition in the United States, which accounts for approximately 90% of sales worldwide. In
33 2011 the US Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC) adopted ANSI/SVIA1-2010,
34 which defines an ATV, as a mandatory safety standard.

35
36 ATVs are designed to be rider-active vehicles (e.g., (9)). This refers to the seating and control
37 configuration noted above so that a rider can shift body weight fore/aft, laterally and off the
38 seat (by standing on the footrests), and to ATV’s relatively small size and mass, which
39 together enable the rider to vary vehicle performance, including stability, mobility, ride
40 comfort, visibility and other attributes. Such rider-active techniques are taught in ATV rider
41 training courses (e.g., (10)).

42
43 Approximately 11 million ATVs are in operation worldwide and, as with other motor
44 vehicles, a relatively small percentage of these are involved in injury and fatal accidents each
45 year, as reported in the epidemiological literature (e.g., (11)). A substantial percentage of
46 such accidents involve overturn (e.g., 56 of the 105 accidents investigated by the UK HSE
47 involving ATV's involved a 4-wheel ATV overturn (12)); and a range of passive and active
48 (i.e., engineering and administrative) countermeasures have been sought for such overturns.
49 Example engineering countermeasures investigated for reducing or mitigating overturns
50 include: implementing manufacturer-specific lateral stability criteria per agreement with the

1 CPSC; implementing pitch stability criteria in the 1990 ANSI/SVIA 1 Standard; and
2 investigating (with no positive outcomes) several ROPS and CPD devices as summarized in
3 (4). Administrative countermeasures have included promoting state model legislation
4 requiring helmet use, non-use of adult ATVs by youth, non-use on public roads, and other
5 laws, which to some extent have been implemented in 47 of the 50 US states. Garland (11)
6 has reported a substantial decrease in fatality and injury rates during an approximately 10
7 year analysis window.

8
9 ANSI/SVIA 1 (2010)(8) requires that a series of warning labels be visible on the ATV,
10 among which are warnings that “Improper ATV use can result in severe injury or death” and
11 “Always wear an approved helmet and protective gear”. In addition, ATV rider training
12 courses stress the importance of helmet wearing; which is required by law in many
13 jurisdictions. Therefore, for purposes of the discussion in this paper, the helmeted condition is
14 referred to as an “intended use” of an ATV, and the unhelmeted condition is referred to as a
15 “warned against” use of an ATV.

16
17 ATV manufacturers’ recommendations that a helmet should always be worn are consistent
18 with the guidelines provided by the ATV Safety Institute (10), which mention full-face and
19 open face helmets. Note that a “half helmet” is a subcategory of open faced helmets, with less
20 coverage on the sides of the skull than traditional open face helmets.

21 22 **Countermeasures Evaluated**

23
24 In the current analysis, the protective devices examined were an example aftermarket CPD
25 (i.e., the Quadbar, previously modeled by Munoz, et al. (3) and Zellner, et al. (5,6) and herein
26 referred to as the “CPD”); an example full face helmet (the Bieffe B12R, the helmet specified
27 in ISO 13232-6 (2005)); and an example open face half helmet (THH T70). Both helmets
28 fully meet the impact and minimum coverage requirements of the current US federal helmet
29 standard and AUS and NZ standards, although they have entirely different styles and
30 coverage. CPD’s and helmets styles have been of recent interest in AUS and NZ, and in
31 addition, evaluating helmet effectiveness provided a means to validate this methodology
32 against epidemiological data for ATV helmet effectiveness.

33 34 **Test and Simulation Methods for ATV Overturn Analysis**

35
36 At the current time, only one standard exists, worldwide, for evaluating the effects on injuries
37 of protective devices for one type of “straddle seat, handlebar-controlled, helmet-required”
38 vehicle, namely motorcycles, and that is International Standard ISO 13232 (2005)(7) entitled
39 “Test and analysis procedures for research evaluation of rider crash protective devices fitted
40 to motorcycles”, applicable to two wheeled motorcycle-to-car impacts. ISO 13232 was
41 prepared by ISO/TC 22/SC 22/WG22. This group comprised approximately 25 experts and
42 observers from Belgium, China, Germany, France, Italy, Japan, The Netherlands,
43 Switzerland, UK, and US (13). Many, but not all, of the methods in the Standard are
44 potentially applicable to evaluating the effects on injuries of candidate overturn protective
45 devices on another category of “straddle seat, handlebar-controlled, helmet-required” vehicle,
46 namely ATVs. Adapting and extending the applicable ISO 13232 methods to ATV overturn
47 analysis was the approach used herein, as previously described in detail in, e.g., (5).

48
49 Features of ISO 13232 (2005)(7) relevant to ATV overturn analysis include:
50

- 1 – the only standardized injury-monitoring crash dummy (motorcyclist anthropometric
2 test device – MATD) worldwide which:
 - 3 ○ is designed to be compatible with “straddle seat, handlebar-controlled, helmet-
4 required” vehicles where the rider typically separates from the vehicle and
5 where the rider trajectory can potentially have an effect on the injury outcome
6 of which motorcycles and ATVs are two examples;
 - 7 ○ can monitor for injuries in lateral, fore-aft and vertical directions, which may
8 occur in ATV lateral, forward, rearward and multi-axis axis overturns;
 - 9 ○ can monitor for a range of Abbreviated Injury Scale (AIS) injury severities at
10 several body regions;
- 11 – a requirement for:
 - 12 ○ motions calculated by computer simulation to be calibrated against those
13 recorded in full-scale tests (note that “calibrate” in the context of ISO 13232
14 means to “correlate the readings of (an instrument [e.g., a simulation]) with
15 those of a standard [e.g., a physical test] in order to check the instrument’s
16 accuracy”(http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/english/calibrate));
 - 17 ○ the response of the crash dummy components calculated by computer
18 simulation to be calibrated against those recorded in laboratory tests;
- 19 – definition of a representative sample of accidents including all injury severities from
20 which to define several general “types” of accident event, which are then used for
21 simulation and testing purposes;
- 22 – evaluation of the “injury benefits” of a proposed protective device, as well as the
23 “injury risks” (i.e., unintended consequences) of a proposed protective device, across
24 all of the general “types” of event, and guidelines for the relative magnitudes of these.

25 26 **METHODOLOGY**

27
28 The methodology used in the evaluations was the same as that used in previously as
29 described in detail in (5,6). Broadly, this involved the paired comparison of injury indices
30 from computer simulations of a sample of ATV overturn types, with and without the
31 countermeasure. Simulation outputs were used to calculate the ISO 13232-5 “Normalized
32 Injury Cost” and the probability of fatality in of 110 ATV overturn types. These injury and
33 fatality indices were calculated from the probability of injury to the head, face, chest and
34 abdomen by AIS severity level, femur and tibia fractures, knee dislocations, and the
35 probability of fatal asphyxia/breathing difficulty resulting from long term chest compression.
36 The probability of injury to each of the body regions were estimated using published injury
37 criteria (i.e., ISO 13232-5 (2005) and (18)) – as well as a preliminary criterion for
38 asphyxia/breathing difficulty described in (5). The overturn types were based on 110 UK
39 HSE (12) and US CPSC overturn cases. Each of the overturn types was simulated with 7
40 perturbations in the initial conditions (i.e., the nominal initial condition parameters, plus
41 small positive and negative perturbations in 3 initial condition parameters) in order to reduce
42 potential oversensitivity of the outcomes to the details of the individual events, and in order
43 to increase the number of statistical degrees-of-freedom in the risk/benefit analysis.

44 45 **Computer Simulations Models**

46
47 The computer models used to simulate the dynamic forces acting on and the motions of the
48 ATV and dummy in the overturns were implemented with the physics based Articulated
49 Total Body (ATB) computer program developed and validated by Calspan and the US Air
50 Force for the US National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (e.g., (14,15)).

1
2 The ATB model illustrated in Figure 1 comprised 45 rigid body “segments” with a total of 84
3 degrees-of-freedom, comprising:

- 4
5 - ISO MATD dummy model with 35 segments with 69 degrees-of-freedom;
6 - Honda TRX 350 ATV model with 8 segments with 11 degrees-of-freedom, including
7 steering, individual wheel rotation, independent front suspension, and rear swing arm,
8 with constraints for front steering tie-rods and four-wheel drive;
9 - CPD model with 2 segments with 4 degrees-of-freedom to model the measured
10 longitudinal and lateral bending compliance.

11
12 These segments had various ellipsoid, hyperellipsoid, or planar shaped contact surfaces with
13 specified force-deflection characteristics.

14
15 The helmets were modeled by ellipsoids with different dimensions for the respective helmets,
16 and external shell/liner contact force-deflection characteristics based on respective full face
17 and open face helmet/headform dynamic drop test data. For the half helmet, the helmet
18 ellipsoid modeled the shell/liner characteristics, and the skull vault and face ellipsoids for the
19 exposed portions of the head modeled the head contact characteristics, based on (18).

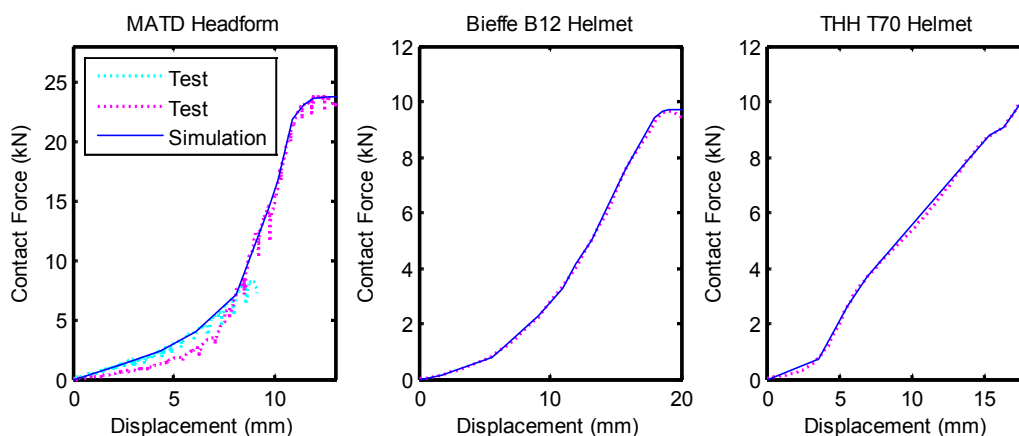
20
21 The ground terrains were modeled by one of eight ground terrain types previously used
22 including: slope, ditch/embankment, rutted road; vertical discontinuity, ramp, tilted/folded
23 ground plane, pothole; and several types of bump. The particular characteristics varied with
24 each of the 110 modeled overturn types.
25



26
27
28 **Figure 1. Image of the test-calibrated computer simulation model of the MATD on the**
29 **TRX 350 ATV with CPD and full face helmet**
30

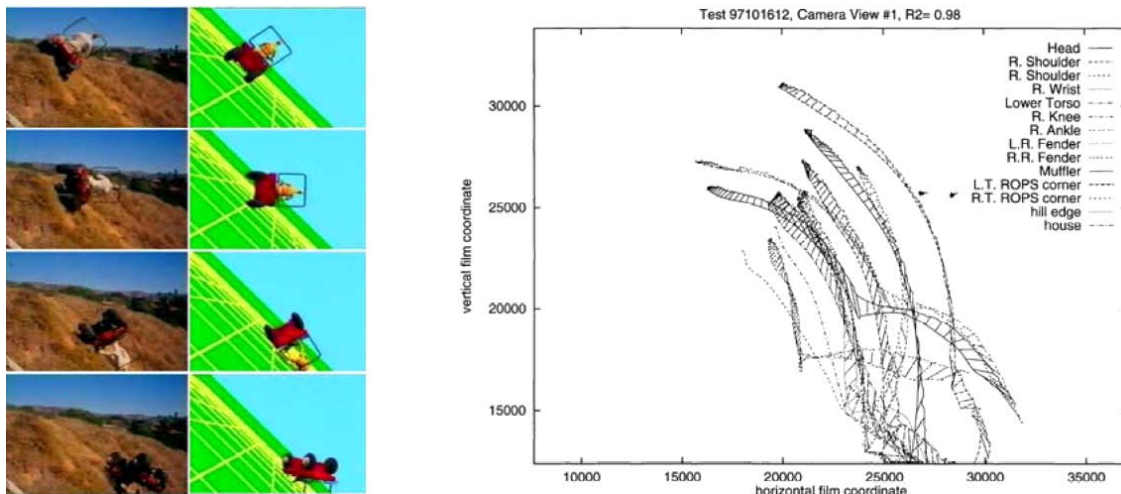
1 Computer Simulation Calibration and Validation

2
3 ATB models of the MATD dummy, and ATV with and without CPD were calibrated against
4 several dozen laboratory tests as described in (16) through (18); and also against 12 full-scale
5 tests, each involving an ATV overturn, as described in (1). Figure 2 illustrates the calibration
6 of the unhelmeted head, full-face helmet, and half-helmet contact force-versus-deflection
7 models. The 12 full-scale tests were to verify and to refine as needed the dynamic force-
8 deflection characteristics acting between the ATV, the CPD, the soil and the dummy. The 12
9 full-scale tests comprised four different directions of overturn at different speeds and slopes,
10 each involving a baseline ATV and a CPD ATV, some tests with a full face helmet and some
11 tests without a helmet. Each test was filmed with high speed cameras.
12



13
14 **Figure 2. Calibration of Unhelmeted, Full-Face Helmet, and Half-Helmet Force-versus-**
15 **Deflection models**

16
17 For each full-scale test, the motions of the rider, ATV and CPD were correlated with the
18 motions predicted by the simulation by digitizing various points on the dummy, ATV and
19 CPD in the high speed films and comparing these values to corresponding values from the
20 computer simulation. For example, Figure 3 illustrates the motion of several points in the film
21 plane of Camera 1 in Test 97101612, a cross slope with U-bar. The digitized and simulated
22 trajectories are shown connected by lines at every 5 film frames. In this example the
23 correlation factor (as defined in clause 4.5.4 in ISO 13232-7, which is similar to the Nash-
24 Sutcliffe (19) model efficiency E index) between the digitized and simulated points was
25 $C=0.98$ indicating that the simulation and full-scale test whole body motions were in very
26 close agreement. Overall the average correlation factor C value for the 12 tests and all
27 available camera views was 0.91, indicating close agreement between the tests and the
28 simulations.
29
30



1
2
3 **Figure 3. Example Correlation Between Full-Scale Test and Computer Simulation**

4
5 **Methodology Updates, Extensions and Refinements**

6
7 The current evaluation also included a number of recent updates, extensions and refinements
8 to the methodology used in previous ATV rollover protection system (ROPS)/CPD
9 evaluations. These updates, extensions and refinements, which are extensively described in
10 (5,6), included:

- 11
12 – “Low Energy” US and UK ATV overturn “types”
13 – Inclusion of a preliminary potential mechanical/traumatic (compressive) asphyxia
14 (i.e., breathing difficulty) criterion
15 – Updated and revised injury coding for US/UK cases
16 – Revised number of US/UK cases (i.e., n=110)
17 – Brake, throttle, and steering control release during overturn
18 – Helmeted and unhelmeted head force-deflection refinements
19 – Measured dummy/soil friction coefficients
20 – Hand grip release force refinements
21 – Leg fracture strength refinements
22 – Updated contact definitions
23 – Simulation end time refinement
24 – Extent of ground planes refinement
25 – Comparing only cases where both the baseline and modified ATV overturned
26 – Refined initial condition perturbation methodology (resulting in n=770 types of
27 overturn)
28 – Correction of graphics software anomalies
29 – Miscellaneous refinements
30 – Calibrations of simulated versus actual aggregated injury severity distributions
31 – Comparison of helmet risk/benefit analysis outcomes to published literature

32
33 Following these updates, Appendix G of (5) validated the frequency distribution of monitor-
34 able injuries predicted by the simulation against those found in ATV accident data, finding
35 they have similar trends across all body regions and overturn cases/types.
36

1 COUNTERMEASURE INJURY RISK/BENEFIT ANALYSIS RESULTS

2
3 The risk/benefit analysis results from the countermeasure evaluations are summarized in
4 Table 1. All of the results are based on computer simulations of the 770 (=110 x 7) overturn
5 types. The first two columns of Table 1 indicate the baseline and countermeasure being
6 compared in the risk/benefit analysis. The third column indicates the injury index used in the
7 analysis, which is either the Normalized Injury Cost (ICnorm) or the probability of fatality as
8 defined in ISO 13232-5. The fourth and fifth columns indicate the estimated risk/benefit
9 percentage and the net benefit, with 95% confidence intervals for the population of all
10 overturns in parentheses (). The last column indicates the probability of the observed result
11 or a more extreme result occurring (compared to 100% risk/benefit and 0% net benefit) if in
12 fact the countermeasure did not have any real effect (e.g., if the countermeasure was merely a
13 helmet color such as “red” versus “blue”), and whether or not the result was statistically
14 significant at the 0.05 level. Note that probability values (p) less than 0.05 are a widely
15 accepted criterion for statistical significance tests regarding whether an apparent non-neutral
16 effect is real (20).

17
18 If a countermeasure does not have any real effect in comparison to the baseline, then by
19 definition the expected value for the risk/benefit percentage for the population of all
20 overturns is 100% and the net benefit for the population of all overturns is 0%. Therefore the
21 results are statistically significant at the 0.05 level if the 95% confidence interval for the
22 estimated risk/benefit does not include 100%, and the 95% confidence interval for the net
23 benefit does not include 0%, and this corresponds to a p value less than or equal 0.05. If the
24 countermeasure has a statistically significant benefit, then the results are shaded in light green
25 in Table 1. If the countermeasure has a statistically significant risk then the results are shaded
26 in pink.

27
28 In summary these results indicate the following:

- 29
30 – A full face helmet or a half helmet are statistically significantly beneficial, compared
31 to no helmet;
32 – The CPD either does not have any statistically significant net benefits, or else it is
33 statistically significantly harmful, depending on helmet use and on the baseline
34 helmet/no helmet condition used for comparison.
35

36 The results for the full face helmet in the first two rows of Table 1 indicate that the estimated
37 net benefit for the full face helmet is a statistically significant 60% (45%, 75%) reduction in
38 the normalized injury cost and a statistically significant 75% (35%, 115%) reduction in the
39 probability of fatality. More specifically, the point estimate for the normalized injury cost net
40 benefit based on the simulated sample was 60%, but the range of estimates for the population
41 is between 45% and 75%. Therefore according to (20), page 109, one can be “*somewhat*
42 *convinced*” that the full face helmet will have a positive net benefit for the population based
43 on these simulation results.

44
45 The estimated risk/benefit percentages for the normalized injury cost and probability of
46 fatality for the full face helmet are 9% (6%, 21%) and 2% (1%, 18%) respectively. Though
47 these are not statistically significantly less than the ISO 13232 guideline of 12% maximum
48 risk/benefit percentage, the point estimates are below 12% and therefore the full face helmet
49 could be considered an acceptable countermeasure.
50

1 The results for the half helmet in the third and fourth rows of Table 1 are similar to the results
2 for the full face helmet in the first two rows of Table 1. For the normalized injury cost, the
3 risk/benefit percentage of 12% is equal to the maximum ISO 13232 guideline of 12%.

4
5 The results for the CPD with no helmet compared to no CPD with no helmet in the fifth and
6 sixth rows of Table 1 indicate that the estimated net benefit is a *not statistically significant*
7 12% (-5%, 29%) reduction in the normalized injury cost and a *not statistically significant*
8 14% (-7%, 35%) reduction in the probability of fatality (i.e., *both are not statistically*
9 *significantly different from there being zero net benefit*). The associated p-value of 0.153 for
10 the normalized injury cost outcome can be interpreted as meaning that the probability that the
11 actual net benefit is *negative* (i.e., that it is harmful in terms of injuries) is 0.076 (i.e., p/2).
12 The associated p-value of 0.202 for the probability of fatality outcome can be interpreted as
13 meaning that the probability that the actual net benefit is *negative* (i.e., that it is harmful in
14 terms of fatalities) is 0.101. Therefore, according to (20) one *cannot* be “*somewhat*
15 *convinced*” that the CPD will not be harmful for the population, based on these results.

16
17 The estimated risk/benefit percentages for the CPD normalized injury cost and probability of
18 fatality for the CPD with no helmet compared to no CPD with no helmet are 68% (42%,
19 114%) and 68% (41%, 120%) respectively which are both not statistically significantly
20 different from 100%. These risk/benefit percentages are much greater than 12%, which is the
21 ISO 13232 guideline for an acceptable countermeasure. Moreover, a hypothetical 66.6%
22 risk/benefit percentage corresponds to 2 injuries caused by the device for every 3 injuries
23 eliminated by the device, which is inconsistent with a “do no harm” goal for
24 countermeasures.

25
26 In the presence of such large uncertainties as to the direction of the outcome (i.e., harmful or
27 beneficial) stemming from large p-values (e.g., p=0.202), it is traditionally considered not
28 advisable to proceed with implementing such a treatment (i.e., in this case, the CPD with no
29 helmet, instead of no CPD with no helmet).

30
31 The results for the CPD with full face helmet or half helmet in Table 1 compared to no CPD
32 with the same helmet configuration indicate the estimated net benefit for the CPD with
33 helmet ranges from -22% (-53%, 9%) to -3% (-24%, 18%), which are not statistically
34 significantly different from no net benefit, and the risk benefit percentage ranges from 108%
35 (69%, 168%) to 158% (97%, 264%), which is not statistically significantly different from
36 100%. Therefore this result indicates that there is a relatively large chance that the CPD may
37 be a harmful device.

38
39 The results for the CPD without a helmet, compared to no CPD with a full face helmet or half
40 helmet in Table 1, indicate the net benefit for the CPD with helmet ranges from -244% (-
41 327%, -161%) to -72% (-101%, -41%), which are all statistically significantly less than zero
42 net benefit, and the risk/benefit percentage ranges from 379% (206%, 604%) to 1088%
43 (322%, 1987%), which are all statistically significantly greater than 100%. Therefore the
44 CPD with no helmet, in comparison to no CPD with helmet (i.e., the intended use of the
45 vehicle), significantly increased the normalized injury cost and probability of fatality.

46

1 **Table 1. Summary of Risk/Benefit and Net Benefit Percentage Results**
2

Baseline	Counter-measure	Injury Index	Estimated Risk/Benefit Percentage	Estimated Net Benefit	Statistical Significance
No helmet, No CPD	Full face helmet No CPD	ICnorm	9% (6%, 21%)	60% (45%, 75%)	Significant p<0.001
		Prob. of Fatality	2% (1%, 18%)	75% (35%, 115%)	Significant p<0.001
	Half helmet No CPD	ICnorm	12% (8%, 24%)	49% (36%, 62%)	Significant p<0.001
		Prob. of Fatality	5% (3%, 23%)	61% (44%, 78%)	Significant p<0.001
	No helmet with CPD	ICnorm	68% (42%, 114%)	12% (-5%, 29%)	Not Significant p=0.153
		Prob. of Fatality	68% (41%, 120%)	14% (-7%, 35%)	Not Significant. p=0.202
Full face helmet, No CPD (intended use)	Full face helmet and CPD	ICnorm	108% (69%, 168%)	-3% (-24%, 18%)	Not Significant. p=0.760
		Prob. of Fatality	134% (79%, 219%)	-15% (-44%, 14%)	Not Significant. p=0.309
	No helmet with CPD	ICnorm	492% (255%, 788%)	-114% (-154%, -74%)	Significant p<0.001
		Prob. of Fatality	1088% (322%, 1987%)	-244% (-327%, -161%)	Significant p<0.001
Half helmet, No CPD (intended use)	Half helmet and CPD	ICnorm	158% (97%, 248%)	-20% (-42%, 2%)	Not Significant. p=0.066
		Prob. of Fatality	155% (86%, 264%)	-22% (-53%, 9%)	Not Significant. p=0.164
	No helmet with CPD	ICnorm	379% (206%, 604%)	-72% (-101%, -41%)	Significant p<0.001
		Prob. of Fatality	543% (226%, 899%)	-122% (-172%, -72%)	Significant p<0.001

3

Color Key	
	Estimated risk/benefit percentage is significantly less than 100% (p-value less than or equal to 0.05 and the injury risks of the device are much less than the injury benefits of the device), and the estimated net benefit is significantly greater than 0% (i.e., significant benefit exists). May be a reasonable device assuming acceptable functional characteristics.
	Estimated risk/benefit percentage significantly more than 100% (p-value less than or equal to 0.05 and the injury risks of the device are greater than injury benefits of the device), and the estimated net benefit significantly less than 0% (i.e., significant disbenefit exists). Device causes significantly more injuries than it prevents.
	Estimated risk/benefit percentage not significantly different from 100% (p-value is greater than 0.05, the injury risks of the device are effectively equal to injury benefits of the device), and the estimated net benefit percentage not significantly different from 0% (within 95% confidence interval). Injury risks of the device are effectively equal to injury benefits of the device.

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CPD Injury Benefit and Injury Risk Mechanisms

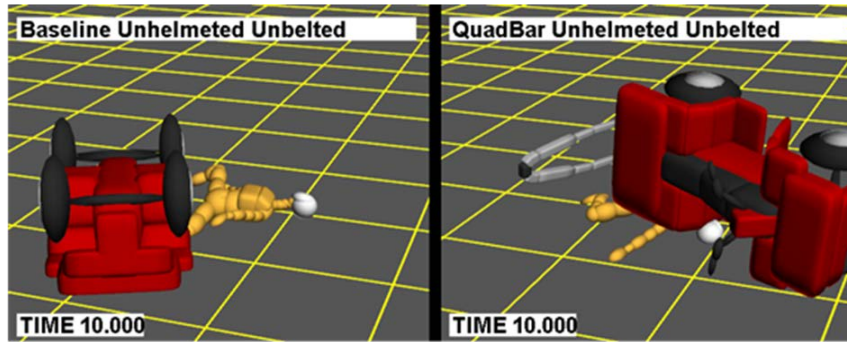
Examination of the injury summary sheets and graphics animations for individual runs generally indicated that, as in past studies:

- Injury benefits from the CPD (in comparison to no CPD) were often related to injuries that occurred with the baseline ATV that were reduced in severity or prevented by the CPD, e.g., trapping between the upper surfaces of the ATV and the ground;
- Injury risks from the CPD (in comparison to no CPD) were related to injuries that did not occur with the baseline ATV, that were caused by the CPD, e.g., impacts between portions of the dummy and the CPD; trapping of portions of the dummy between the ground and other surfaces of the ATV and/or the CPD which did not occur without the CPD; and altered overturning motions of the ATV, which in some cases increased some of the impacts and/or forces between the dummy and the ATV, the CPD and/or the ground;
- The injury risks (i.e., the newly created injuries) from the CPD due to the aforementioned and other mechanisms tended to be relatively large in comparison to (i.e., similar in magnitude to) the injury benefits of the CPD due to the aforementioned and other mechanisms.

Figure 4 illustrates example injury risks of the CPD. Each pair of images shows the baseline ATV (on the left) and the ATV with CPD (on the right) at the same time instant.

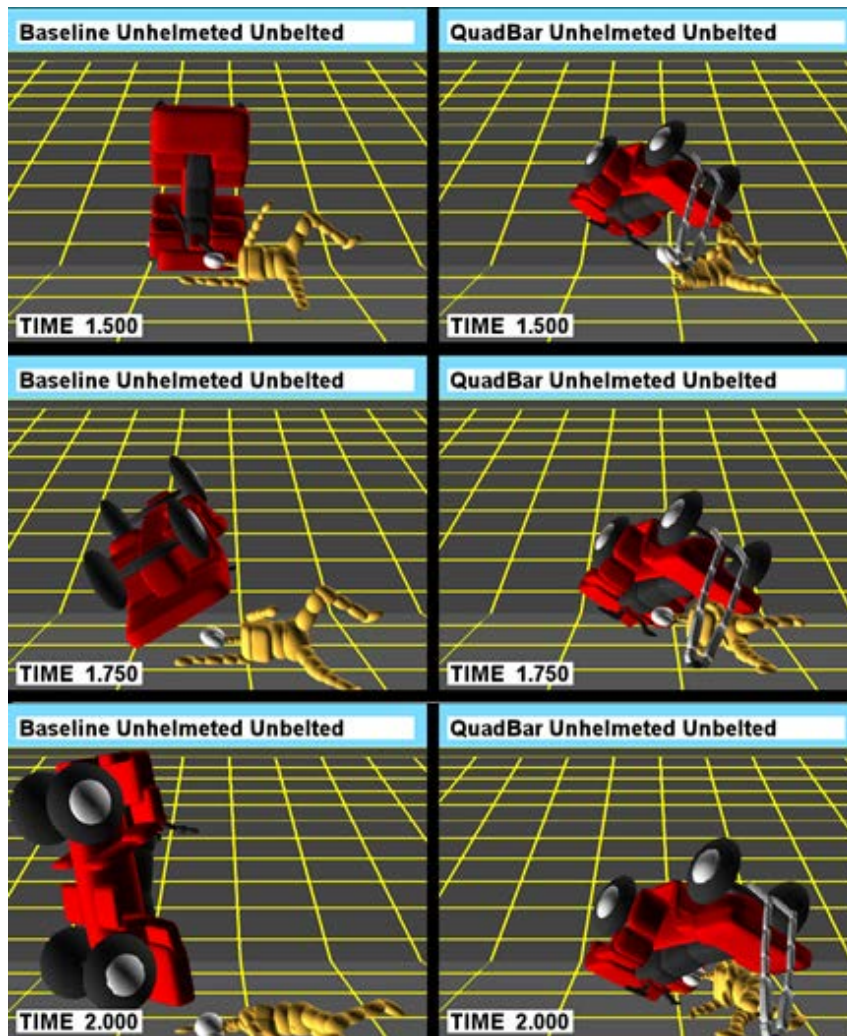
In the upper example in Figure 4, the predominant change in injury was a high probability of an AIS 2 concussive head injury and also potential asphyxia (i.e., long-duration chest compressive force greater than 490 N (110 lb)) for the ATV with CPD, while dummy separation from the ATV and no monitor-able injuries occurred with the baseline ATV. In this example, the CPD caused the ATV to complete an additional quarter roll toward the right side of the image (after being raised by the action of the CPD to a greater height compared to the baseline case, resulting in the ATV with CPD continuing to roll onto and coming to rest on the dummy).

1
2 In the lower example in Figure 4, the ATV overturns on a downhill slope (after cresting a hill
3 while in a slight turn, the ATV moving toward the camera and slightly toward the left side of
4 the images). The CPD impacted the dummy's upper torso/shoulder/neck region at time $t=1.5$
5 s, resulting in high probabilities of an AIS 5 (critical) brain injury, an AIS 2 (moderate) upper
6 neck injury, and an AIS 3 (serious) chest compression injury. This CPD contact and injury
7 pattern was not unique and was observed in a number of the simulation runs.
8



1
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a) Potential asphyxia and AIS 2 concussive head injury occurred with the CPD, while the baseline ATV had no monitor-able injuries



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10

b) AIS 5 concussive brain injury, AIS 2 upper neck subluxation injury and AIS 3 chest compression injury occurred with the CPD, while the baseline ATV had no monitor-able injuries

Figure 4. Example still images illustrating CPD injury risk

1 As for “asphyxiation,” the simulations indicated that the CPD caused as many new potential
2 “breathing difficulties” (i.e., 11 cases) as it prevented (i.e., 11 cases) across a total of 3,080
3 helmeted and unhelmeted overturns.

4
5 The mechanism behind this lack of effectiveness in reducing asphyxia potential appears to be
6 a shift in the final resting orientation of the ATV caused by the CPD. The frequency of the
7 ATV coming to rest on its top (i.e., upside down) decreased from 20% to 7% (note that an
8 “upside down” final resting attitude with the CPD may occur in the presence of ditches,
9 obstacles and other non-flat terrain conditions), and the frequency with which it comes to rest
10 on its side increased from 25% to 31%. For the subsets of these cases that involved
11 “breathing difficulty”, while fewer (i.e., no) ATV with CPD cases occurred when the ATV
12 came to rest on its top (i.e., upside down), substantially more cases occurred when the ATV
13 with CPD came to rest on its side. Since fatal and serious injuries have been known to occur
14 when a baseline ATV comes to rest on its side on a rider, this shift toward relatively more
15 “breathing difficulty” (i.e., potential asphyxia) cases occurring when the ATV comes to rest
16 on its side as compared to on its top is considered to be a realistic phenomenon (for example,
17 one of the fatal overturn cases in the 2002-2009 Victorian Coroner’s inquest involved an
18 ATV coming to rest on its side on a rider. Another example is a New Zealand case described
19 in (21) that involved an ATV coming to rest on its side, resulting in long term rider
20 entrapment and subsequent medical leg amputation).

21
22 As noted elsewhere, it was observed that the total number of potential “breathing difficulty”
23 outcomes were relatively small among (i.e., about 1% of) the simulated “low energy”
24 overturns with 50th percentile adult male dummy, no accessories, mid-sized ATV, and other
25 simulated conditions.

26 27 **Helmet Injury Benefit and Injury Risk Mechanisms**

28
29 Examination of the detailed injury model results and graphics animations for individual runs
30 generally indicated that:

- 31
32 – Injury benefits from the full face helmet and half helmet (in comparison to no helmet)
33 were often related to energy absorption (i.e., brain acceleration-reducing) characteristics
34 as well as skull/face fracture protection of the covered zones;
35 – Injury risks from the full face helmet and half helmet (in comparison to no helmet) were
36 related to load shifting (i.e., also referred to as edge effects) from the relatively rigid
37 helmet to unprotected head and other body regions;
38 – The injury risks from the helmets due to the aforementioned and other mechanisms
39 tended to be relatively small in comparison to the injury benefits of the helmets;
40 – The full face helmet had a greater net benefit and a smaller risk/benefit percentage than
41 the half helmet, and this is attributed to the larger coverage zones of the former.

42 43 **CONCLUSIONS**

44 45 **CPD countermeasure**

46
47 Based on the results in Table 1, the overall conclusions from the analysis of the predicted
48 effectiveness of the example Quadbar CPD for All-Terrain Vehicle (ATV) overturn accidents
49 were that:
50

- 1 – With helmeted use and in comparison to the *helmeted* Baseline ATV (the intended use),
 2 the CPD was found to have estimated injury risks for the population of overturns that
 3 were *not statistically significantly different* from its injury benefits;
 4 – With unhelmeted “warned-against” use and in comparison to the *helmeted* Baseline ATV
 5 (the intended use), the CPD was found to have estimated injury risks for the population of
 6 overturns that were *statistically significantly greater* than its injury benefits;
 7 – With unhelmeted “warned against” use and in comparison to the *unhelmeted* Baseline
 8 ATV, the CPD was found to have estimated injury risks for the population of overturns
 9 that were *not statistically significantly different* from its injury benefits; and
 10 – The aforementioned conclusions also apply to the probability of fatality risks and
 11 benefits;
 12 – These CPD injury and fatality risks for both helmeted and unhelmeted conditions are:
 13
 14 – much higher than those found in any published data for any automotive safety
 15 device, for which the fatality risks have been found to be less than 7% of the
 16 fatality benefits (e.g., (7), Annex E, footnote 1);
 17 – unacceptably high risks in comparison to benefits when compared to the
 18 suggested reference guideline for research purposes published in ISO 13232-5
 19 (2005)(7), i.e., the CPD risk/benefit percentages were all far greater than the
 20 “not... more than 12 percent” guideline indicated in the Standard; and
 21 – unacceptably high risks in comparison to benefits, when compared to the
 22 “regulatory policies of several of the (Australian) states,” mentioned in the Heads
 23 of Workplace Health and Safety Authorities TEG report (21), which were stated
 24 to be that the “the benefits need to be at least 2 times the risks” (i.e., 2 deaths
 25 prevented for every 1 new death caused by a device, or 50 percent risk/benefit.”.
 26

27 **Full face helmet and half helmet countermeasures**

28
 29 This study added to the validation of the methodology in its close agreement with other
 30 research (e.g., (22)) that has indicated that helmet wearing on ATVs does have substantial net
 31 injury benefits; and also indicated that helmets have a small risk/benefit percentage
 32 comparable to those for automotive safety devices (e.g., airbags, safety belts (when worn)
 33 and head restraints). As might be expected, half helmets had less net benefit and slightly
 34 greater risk/benefit than the full face helmet. Note that both helmets fully complied with
 35 current US, AUS and NZ helmet standards.
 36

37 **LIMITATIONS**

38
 39 These results are based on a number of assumptions and approximations, including:

- 40 1) The simulation models, which have been calibrated against full-scale and
 41 laboratory tests, may not be predictive in non-calibrated conditions (e.g., modeled
 42 force-deflection characteristics at impact speeds, angles, and positions that are
 43 different than the laboratory test conditions).
 44 2) The full-scale validation tests were conducted with an ATV and CPDs that were
 45 somewhat different than those in the current study, however the basic design of
 46 the tested and modeled ATVs were very similar, and the stated design intent and
 47 characteristics of the tested and modeled CPDs were similar.
 48 3) The measured and modeled Quadbar CPD is the 2007 version, which is slightly
 49 different from the currently produced Quadbar.

- 1 4) The full-scale test validations were based on previous versions of the simulation
2 models that did not include the updates, extensions, and refinements described
3 herein.
- 4 5) The test dummy and injury criteria correspond to a 50th percentile adult male, and
5 the dummy monitor the injury regions, types and severities specified in ISO
6 13232, plus additional criteria that were developed for skull fracture and
7 asphyxiation/breathing difficulty. Other sizes of dummy, and other injury regions,
8 types and severities were not considered.
- 9 6) The MATD dummy has not been validated for human rider trajectories (i.e., for
10 non-active-dismount subjects) in ATV overturns, due to difficulties in obtaining
11 such trajectory data for human subjects.
- 12 7) The potential effects of the CPD on rider behaviors such as rider active dismount
13 during overturn, injuries or entanglements caused by the CPD during active
14 dismount, risk compensation (e.g., operating at higher speeds and slopes), and on
15 “warned against” behaviors such as unhelmeted use, use of adult sized ATVs by
16 children and excess loading, have not been considered in this analysis.

17 18 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

19
20 In the future, the Quadbar CPD device evaluated in this study should not be fitted to ATVs
21 because, for this category of relatively small, highly mobile, straddle seat,
22 handlebar-controlled, helmet-required, rider-active vehicle, the injury risks from (i.e., new
23 injuries created by) a CPD are generally similar in magnitude to the injury benefits from (i.e.,
24 injuries prevented by) a CPD, and far exceed published levels for other protective devices in
25 other vehicles, and also exceed ISO 13232 guidelines - as well as apparent workplace health
26 and safety policies for some jurisdictions - for protective devices. Authorities and individuals
27 should be advised of these findings.

28
29 Other safety-related factors, including the effects of other ROPS or CPD devices on: ATV
30 overturn stability as related to raised center-of-gravity height, reduced visibility, risk
31 compensation by riders, entanglement with or impacts from a CPD during active or passive
32 dismount, effect of non-use of seat belts (of ROPS) and increased potential for “warned
33 against” uses (e.g., passenger-carrying or hanging equipment on a ROPS as related to
34 overloading) should be taken into account as well. Functional performance, including effects
35 on ATV mobility, utility and ergonomics, has been evaluated for some ROPS, and should be
36 taken into account in such evaluations.

37
38 The results of this study also confirm that helmet wearing – either full face or half helmet -
39 should be encouraged and wherever feasible, required, as helmets have substantial net injury
40 benefits and low risks. While it is apparent that full face helmets provide greater net benefits
41 and lower risks, there may be tradeoffs between its greater protection and other factors such
42 as potentially increased thermal stress associated with greater coverage, particularly in hot
43 climates and/or work environments. Development of thermal stress measurement methods
44 and criteria would be needed in order to address any such tradeoffs.

45 Finally, other side-by-side vehicles that are somewhat larger and heavier than ATVs exist in
46 the market that can accommodate ROPS, and have been engineered to take into account the
47 relevant functional factors. Such side-by-side vehicles should be considered as alternatives to
48 smaller, lighter, more mobile ATVs, for some tasks and usages.

49

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