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1 **THE USE OF CONTINUOUS SPECTRAL ANALYSIS FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF**
2 **POSTURAL STABILITY CHANGES AFTER SPORTS-RELATED CONCUSSION**

3

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23 **Key words**

24 centre of pressure; balance; postural stability control; concussion; frequency domain

25 analysis; Fourier transform

26 **ABSTRACT**

27 Impaired postural stability is associated with a variety of pathologies including sports-
28 related concussion (SRC). Quantification of centre of pressure (COP) movement is
29 the most common focus of instrumented assessment. Frequency-domain COP
30 analyses have focused primarily on summary measures or pre-defined frequency
31 bands but continuous analysis may provide novel and complementary insight into
32 pathological control mechanisms. Our aims were (i) to compare post-SRC COP
33 trajectory changes identified using clinician scores (Modified Balance Error Scoring
34 System (M-BESS)), time-domain COP variables and continuous frequency spectral
35 comparison; and (ii) to characterise frequency spectra changes. Male rugby players
36 aged 15-19 years (n=135) completed a pre-season baseline assessment comprising
37 vision-obscured double-leg, single-leg and tandem stances on a force platform.
38 Participants diagnosed with SRC during the season (n=15) underwent repeat testing
39 (median 4 days post-SRC; IQR 2.5-6.5). Baseline and post-SRC COP trajectories
40 were compared using common time-domain COP variables, M-BESS scores and
41 continuous frequency spectra. Post-SRC changes were identified using all three
42 approaches. Spectral analysis revealed the largest effect size (Cliff's delta 0.39) and
43 was the only method to identify differences in all three stances and in double-leg
44 stance. All post-SRC increases in spectral content were in the anteroposterior
45 direction; all decreases were in the mediolateral direction. Changes were localised to
46 higher frequencies (1.7-8 Hz) except for double-leg stance anteroposterior direction,
47 for which increases were observed throughout the analysed range. Our findings
48 suggest that this method of spectral comparison may provide a more responsive and
49 meaningful measure of postural stability changes after SRC than other commonly-
50 used variables.

51 INTRODUCTION

52 The control of postural stability involves integrated contributions from visual,
53 vestibular and proprioceptive systems to maintain balance (Horak and Macpherson,
54 1996). Impairments are associated with a wide range of pathologies including
55 neurological disorders and musculoskeletal injuries. Visual balance scoring systems
56 and instrumented assessment are both used clinically for evaluating postural
57 stability: the former have the advantage of needing no technical equipment so are
58 widely used in clinical environments and the latter offers improved objectivity and
59 sensitivity (Horak, 1997; Ruhe et al., 2014; Visser et al., 2008). The most common
60 variables utilised in instrumented assessment are summary measures describing
61 movement of the centre of pressure (COP) in the time domain (Crétual, 2015;
62 Paillard and Noé, 2015; Palmieri et al., 2002), although evidence for their reliability
63 and validity for concussion diagnosis and monitoring of recovery is mixed (Murray et
64 al., 2014).

65

66 Sport-related concussion (SRC) is a complex brain injury resulting from mechanical
67 trauma and associated with a range of neurological impairments including effects on
68 motor control (McCrory et al., 2017, 2001). Many athletes with SRC demonstrate
69 altered balance (Baracks et al., 2018; Guskiewicz, 2011; Guskiewicz et al., 2001;
70 Howell et al., 2019; Parrington et al., 2019; Powers et al., 2014; Valovich McLeod
71 and Hale, 2015) and the Modified Balance Error Scoring System (M-BESS) protocol
72 for clinical balance evaluation (McCrory et al., 2017; Riemann and Guskiewicz,
73 2000) is an integral part of the Sport Concussion Assessment Tool (SCAT; 2013)
74 used to assist with acute assessment. Instrumented assessment of SRC initially
75 focused on time-domain COP variables (Goldie et al., 1989; Palmieri et al., 2002;

76 Riemann et al., 1999), with more-recent studies investigating non-linear measures of
77 COP movement to quantify properties such as entropy and complexity (Cavanaugh
78 et al., 2005; Haid and Federolf, 2018; Sosnoff et al., 2011) and also exploring the
79 use of inertial sensor instead of force platform technology to characterise body sway
80 (Doherty et al., 2017; King et al., 2014). The movement of the COP can be analysed
81 in the frequency domain as well as the time domain, and frequency domain analyses
82 have been employed for balance assessment of patients with a variety of
83 pathologies (Degani et al., 2017; Golomer et al., 1994). Limited analysis in this
84 domain has previously been reported for the assessment of postural stability
85 changes post-SRC, but participants with a history of mild traumatic brain injury have
86 been found to have a lower frequency containing 80% of spectral power than
87 controls in bipedal stance with feet parallel (Degani et al., 2017).

88

89 The multiple postural control systems involved in the regulation of balance have
90 different time delays in their control pathways, enabling their relative afferent
91 contributions to be studied by identifying characteristic COP frequency responses.
92 The weighting of these system contributions to postural control can be modulated by
93 pathology, by the availability of information through each modality and by the
94 perceived reliability of the information (Barela et al., 2014; Creath et al., 2008;
95 Hwang et al., 2016; Jeka et al., 2000; Peterka, 2002; Polastri et al., 2012). The
96 vestibular and visual systems both appear to function primarily at frequencies below
97 0.2-0.5 Hz, the cerebellar system at approximately 0.5-2 Hz and proprioceptive
98 systems at >2 Hz (Diener et al., 1984; Fitzpatrick et al., 1992; Mauritz and Dietz,
99 1980; Nashner, 1976; Paillard and Noé, 2015), although there is a lack of consensus
100 regarding the precise range of each band (Kanekar et al., 2014; Palmieri et al.,

101 2002). Analysis of the COP time series in the frequency domain rather than the time
102 domain permits the structure of the COP trajectory to be quantified and related to
103 contributions of these different systems, providing a basis for insight into the
104 underlying impairment (Palmieri et al., 2002; Rougier, 2008).

105

106 Frequency domain analysis has most-commonly focused on summary measures of
107 frequency content such as average frequency or frequency below which 80% of
108 spectral power is contained. When comparisons across the full frequency range are
109 undertaken, signal content is typically divided into three frequency bands
110 corresponding to the control systems described above, and the energy content in
111 each band then compared between groups (although higher-resolution approaches
112 have also been utilised (Singh et al., 2012; Soames and Atha, 1982)). There are
113 several key limitations of this approach. Firstly, *a priori* designation of frequency
114 band boundaries is required so arbitrary selection differences can modify findings.
115 Secondly, the sensitivity of this method to alterations in narrower and/or non-
116 predefined frequency band content is limited by low-resolution comparisons. For
117 example, the ability to detect change in the ankle flexor myotatic reflex response,
118 reported to be localised to 4-5 Hz (Dietz et al., 1983), can be lost when only overall
119 change in a broader-range 'high frequency' band is analysed. An alternative method
120 to overcome these limitations is to analyse the spectra continuously across a
121 complete frequency range. This approach has previously been utilised in the field of
122 neurophysiology (Amjad et al., 1997; Diggle, 1990; Halliday et al., 1995; Halliday and
123 Rosenberg, 1999) but has yet to be applied to COP data for the investigation of
124 pathological changes. The technique has the potential to provide novel insight into
125 neural control mechanisms associated with pathological postural stability and to

126 reveal clinically meaningful effects that can be used to probe control system
127 impairments without the need to predefine frequency band boundaries.

128

129 Here we demonstrate the potential utility of this method for analysis of COP time
130 series data to evaluate spectral content changes following SRC. Our first aim was to
131 investigate whether the spectral analysis technique was more responsive than
132 standard COP variables and clinician scores in identifying post-concussive balance
133 deficits. We compared the differences and effect sizes identified in double leg, single
134 leg and tandem stance positions using the M-BESS clinician scoring system,
135 common time-domain COP variables and continuous frequency spectra pre-SRC
136 with those measured in the same participants post-SRC. We hypothesised that the
137 spectral analysis technique would identify differences in more stance-direction
138 combinations and with larger effect sizes than the other two methods, as the
139 structure of the whole signal is compared. We expected greater differences for all
140 methods to be observed in the single-leg and tandem stance positions than in the
141 double leg stance due to the increased challenge to postural stability.

142

143 In addition to enhanced ability to identify post-SRC changes, a potential benefit of
144 frequency-domain analysis is that changes in neuromuscular control strategies can
145 be investigated to aid understanding of how the deficit may have arisen. The second
146 aim of the study was thus to describe and characterise the continuous frequency
147 spectral changes after SRC. Based on previous findings, we hypothesised that we
148 would find differences commensurate with a shift towards lower frequency
149 components in all stance positions and in both the anteroposterior and mediolateral
150 directions.

151

152 **METHODS**

153 The investigation was conducted as part of a larger study on baseline and post-SRC
154 outcome measures in schoolboy rugby players (Cosgrave et al., 2018). All eligible
155 students (aged 15-19 years and no pre-existing neurological disorders or history of
156 neurological disorders) on the rugby union teams of five secondary schools in
157 Dublin, Ireland (n=211) were invited to participate. Ethical approval was provided by
158 the Sports Surgery Clinic Research Ethics Committee. All participants and their
159 parent/guardian provided informed written consent.

160

161 All participants who chose to enroll in the study (n=135) attended a pre-season
162 baseline session in which they completed a battery of screening tests. Any
163 participant who was diagnosed with a SRC during the following rugby season
164 repeated the testing battery as soon as possible after the injury, and weekly
165 thereafter until fully recovered. Median time from injury to first post-SRC test was 4
166 days (IQR 2.5-6.5). SRC was diagnosed by a medical professional independent of
167 the study according to best guidelines for clinical practice and the diagnosis
168 confirmed on presentation at the study centre by a consultant Sports and Exercise
169 Medicine physician using the SCAT3 questionnaire, neurological screening and a full
170 clinical assessment. Sixteen participants were diagnosed with SRC during the study
171 period. Of these, one was excluded due to technical issues with data collection.
172 Balance assessment data from the baseline screening session and the first post-
173 injury assessment of the remaining 15 were analysed. Five of these participants
174 reported that they had obtained at least one previous SRC; all reported that they
175 were no longer affected by the injury. None had previously been diagnosed with

176 ADHD or any hearing/auditory processing disorder; one had had a previous knee
177 arthroscopy. At the time of the post-SRC session, 13 of the 15 participants were still
178 experiencing symptoms as assessed using the SCAT3 Symptom Evaluation
179 questionnaire. Of these, median number of symptoms reported was 9.5 and median
180 total symptom severity score was 14; three reported balance problems. Two
181 participants were diagnosed with two or more SRCs during the study: only the post-
182 SRC dataset collected after the first SRC (and before the second SRC) was
183 analysed.

184

185 The balance assessment comprised a modified Balance Error Scoring System (M-
186 BESS) protocol as per SCAT3 (2013). Participants completed three stance tasks on
187 a multi-axis force platform (1000Hz; BP400600, AMTI, USA): (i) double-leg stance
188 (DL) with the feet placed side by side as close to each other as possible; (ii) single-
189 leg stance (SL) on the non-dominant leg; (iii) tandem stance (TAN) with the feet
190 placed heel-to-toe and the non-dominant foot located most posteriorly (Figure 1).
191 Resting the dominant leg on the non-dominant leg in SL was not permitted. All
192 stances were performed barefoot with eyes closed and were held for 20 seconds,
193 after an initial three-second initiation phase in which the start position was
194 established. An observer recorded the error score for each stance as per SCAT3:
195 types of errors included stepping or falling, opening the eyes, and lifting the hands off
196 the iliac crest (SCAT3, 2013).

197 Figure 1

198 COP position data were filtered using a 4th order zero-lag Butterworth filter with a
199 corner frequency of 10 Hz (Ruhe and Walker, 2010). A *touchdown* was defined as
200 the foot leaving the force platform or the opposite foot touching the ground, and the

201 number of these was recorded for each trial. Data during the three-second initiation
202 phase, the termination phase (after completion of the 20 s stance duration) and after
203 the last COP change of direction before a touchdown (identified as an inflection point
204 in either the AP or ML time series) were discarded prior to further analysis. For
205 example, if a touchdown occurred 18.5 s, with the COP change of direction
206 immediately before the touchdown occurring at time 18.2 s, the COP time series was
207 truncated at 18.2 s before further analysis in order to avoid spectral artefacts
208 resulting from interpolation. Touchdowns occurred in a total of 8 trials for the SL
209 stance condition (4 at baseline and 4 post-SRC) and 6 trials for the TAN stance
210 condition (3 at baseline and 3 post-SRC). No more than one touchdown occurred for
211 any trial.

212

213 The discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of COP position was taken for each dataset in
214 both the anteroposterior (AP) and mediolateral (ML) directions for each of the three
215 stances at baseline and post-SRC to estimate frequency domain auto-spectra using
216 a fast Fourier transform. Before computing the DFT a linear de-trend was performed
217 and the data weighted by a Hanning window function to remove discontinuities at the
218 start and end of the signal whilst minimising spectral leakage. Frequency resolution
219 was 0.06 Hz. Pooled spectral estimates across participants were calculated (Amjad
220 et al., 1997) and smoothed using a discrete spectral average of order 20 (Diggle,
221 1990). Analysis of the time series suggested that the assumption of stationarity was
222 not unreasonable for our dataset (see 'Supplementary Stationarity Investigation' for
223 further details).

224

225 Three analysis approaches were implemented: one using clinician scores, one using
226 common discrete point variables extracted from the COP trajectories and one using
227 the frequency domain spectra of the COP trajectories. The alternative hypothesis
228 that baseline values differed from post-SRC values was tested for each stance and
229 analysed parameter within the group who were diagnosed with an SRC. Significance
230 was accepted at $\alpha=0.05$.

231

232 Cliff's delta (Cliff, 1993) was calculated as a measure of standardised effect size for
233 all significant differences. This statistic requires no assumptions regarding the shape
234 of the underlying distribution and has been shown to be robust for small sample
235 sizes with non-normal distributions, whilst also performing well for normally
236 distributed continuous data (Delaney and Vargha, 2002; Vargha and Delaney, 2000).
237 The absolute value of Cliff's delta (δ) ranges from 0 (no effect) to 1 (maximal effect).
238 Thresholds for small, medium and large effect sizes of 0.11, 0.28 and 0.43
239 respectively have previously been calculated (Vargha and Delaney, 2000) based on
240 the thresholds used for Cohen's d (Cohen, 1977). These may be used as a guide for
241 interpreting δ .

242

243 **Clinician scores analysis**

244 A Wilcoxon's signed rank test was used for each stance, and for the total aggregate
245 score across all stances, to test the alternative hypotheses that baseline M-BESS
246 scores differed from post-SRC M-BESS scores.

247

248 **Discrete point analysis**

249 Six discrete point variables characterising the movement of the COP were calculated
250 for each stance: maximum mediolateral ($range_{ML}$) and anteroposterior ($range_{AP}$)
251 displacement range of the COP; standard deviation of mediolateral (SD_{ML}) and
252 anteroposterior (SD_{AP}) position of the COP; mean velocity of the COP ($COPV_{mean}$);
253 and 95% confidence ellipse area of the COP ($CEA_{95\%}$) (Prieto et al., 1996). These
254 variables were selected because of their widespread use in the existing literature
255 and because they characterise several different descriptors of the COP (Paillard and
256 Noé, 2015; Palmieri et al., 2002). The number of touchdowns was also recorded and
257 analysed. A Wilcoxon's signed rank test was used for each stance to test the
258 alternative hypotheses that baseline results differed from post-SRC results.

259

260 **Spectral analysis**

261 A log ratio test, calculated using a log ratio of two spectral estimates, was used to
262 compare baseline and post-SRC COP spectra for each of the three stance positions
263 in the AP and ML directions (Diggle, 1990). The ratio is calculated as

264

$$265 \log_{10}(sc_{POST} - sc_{PRE})$$

266

267 where sc_{POST} and sc_{PRE} are the pooled spectral coefficients for post-SRC and
268 baseline data respectively. The null value based on the hypothesis of equal spectra
269 is zero. Alpha was accepted at 0.05 and 95% confidence intervals were set using an
270 F-distribution, with the null hypothesis rejected if these limits were exceeded by the
271 variate (Diggle, 1990; Halliday et al., 1995). Frequency comparisons were reported
272 in the range 0.1-10 Hz. All spectral analysis routines were implemented using the
273 Neurospec toolbox for MATLAB (version 2.0, www.neurospec.org). Pointwise

274 absolute δ was calculated across the frequency spectrum. Where frequency regions
275 containing significant differences in spectral content were identified, mean absolute δ
276 within each region was calculated and reported as a summary statistic.

277

278

279 **RESULTS**

280 **Clinician scores**

281 Results are shown in Table 1. M-BESS scores for TAN stance were greater post-
282 SRC than at baseline with a small effect size ($p=0.05$, $W=6$, $\delta=0.19$). No significant
283 differences in M-BESS scores were identified for DL, SL or total aggregate score.

284 Table 1

285 **Discrete point analysis**

286 Results are shown in Table 2. Range_{AP} for SL stance was smaller post-SRC than at
287 baseline with a medium effect size ($p=0.02$, $w=89$, $\delta=0.30$). No other differences
288 were identified for any other variable in SL stance and no differences were identified
289 for any variable in DL and TAN stance.

290 Table 2

291 **Spectral analysis**

292 Results are shown in Figure 2 and summarised in Table 3. Frequency regions of
293 significant changes in signal content between baseline and post-SRC were identified
294 for all stances. Post-SRC, a decrease in ML spectral content was identified in SL and
295 TAN and an increase in AP spectral content was identified in DL and TAN. The DL
296 increase was across the full analysed frequency range (0.1-10 Hz) and had the

297 largest mean effect size identified in any analysis ($\delta=0.39$). Changes in SL and TAN
298 were within the range 1.7-8.0 Hz.

299 Table 3

300 Figure 2 – in colour

301

302 **DISCUSSION**

303 This is, to the authors' knowledge, the first continuous high-resolution analysis of
304 spectral frequency differences post-SRC. Post-SRC changes were identified using
305 M-BESS, discrete point and spectral analysis approaches; spectral analysis was the
306 only approach to identify differences in all three stances, the only method to identify
307 differences in DL stance, the method that resulted in the largest effect size ($\delta=0.39$
308 for DL stance AP spectral content; Table 3). The technique thus appears to show
309 promise for the analysis of COP data in postural stability assessment and may
310 facilitate insight into the effects of pathology on neuromotor control.

311

312 Baseline M-BESS scores were comparable with those previously reported in active
313 young adults (Azad et al., 2016; DL/SL/TAN/total mean values = 0.0/1.3/0.3/1.6
314 compared to 0.0/1.7/0.5/2.2 in current study). We identified an increase in M-BESS
315 scores post-SRC in TAN stance but did not find differences in DL or SL stance. The
316 small post-concussive change observed here is commensurate with previous
317 literature: whilst there have been limited studies focused on post-concussive M-
318 BESS changes, test scores for the standard BESS (a more-demanding assessment)
319 have been reported to return to baseline levels within 2-5 days after concussion
320 (Murray et al., 2014; Ruhe et al., 2014). No differences in discrete point COP

321 variables were identified between baseline and post-SRC variables in DL and TAN
322 stance. The mean range_{AP} in SL stance decreased post-SRC ($\delta=0.30$; Table 2).
323 Increases rather than decreases in postural excursion metrics (COP velocity and
324 displacement) are more-commonly reported after concussion, and are traditionally
325 interpreted as indicating impaired postural control (e.g. Baracks et al., 2018;
326 Guskiewicz, 2011; Riemann and Guskiewicz, 2000). There is evidence, however,
327 that postural sway has an exploratory role in a healthy neural control system to
328 maintain dynamic input to the central nervous system and to modulate muscle
329 activation (Carpenter et al., 2010; Kiemel et al., 2011; Murnaghan et al., 2013, 2011).
330 Post-SRC decreases in postural excursion metrics have been reported by Hides et
331 al. (2017) and have also been noted in those with neck injuries (Field et al., 2008),
332 which may indicate a reduced ability or willingness to utilise this exploratory function
333 of sway. Further research in the area is required to explain the differing findings to
334 date and elucidate the role of postural sway in healthy and pathological populations.
335

336 Changes in spectral content were identified in all three stances after SRC (Table 3).
337 With the exception of DL stance AP content, which increased across the analysed
338 frequency range, changes were localised to the higher frequencies (1.7-8 Hz)
339 considered indicative of proprioceptive system effects (Diener et al., 1984; Fitzpatrick
340 et al., 1992; Mauritz and Dietz, 1980; Nashner, 1976; Paillard and Noé, 2015) and of
341 velocity-based rather than position-based control (Gilfriche et al., 2018). Whilst
342 slowly-adapting peripheral afferent neurons are generally considered sensitive to
343 position, activating relative to the magnitude of a displacement, many rapidly-
344 adapting neurons respond primarily to stimulus velocity rather than displacement
345 (Burgess and Perl, 1973; Esteky and Schwark, 1994; Jeka et al., 2004) and velocity-

346 based control appears to be more accurate for postural control in quiet stance (Jeka
347 et al., 2004; Kiemel et al., 2002). All observed post-SRC increases in spectral
348 content were in the AP direction and all decreases were in the ML direction. An AP
349 increase in 2-20 Hz spectral content has previously been noted following ankle injury
350 (Golomer et al., 1994) and the authors hypothesised that it may relate to a greater
351 contribution from monosynaptic reflexes to maintain balance equilibrium. The AP
352 increase in SL stance was associated with a decrease in ML content, so may
353 represent a redistribution of high-frequency signal energy from the ML to the AP
354 direction.

355

356 The greatest effect size and the largest frequency range over which a difference was
357 detected was for the increase in AP spectral content in DL stance. Changes were
358 identified across the investigated frequency range, suggesting potential vestibular
359 and cerebellar integration as well as proprioceptive control system effects of SRC, in
360 concordance with existing literature (Christy et al., 2019; Guskiewicz, 2003;
361 Mallinson and Longridge, 1998; Nowak, 2018; Wright et al., 2017). As all trials were
362 performed with vision obscured, for consistency with M-BESS, identification of any
363 post-SRC effects on visual system integration was outside the scope of the study.
364 DL stance is typically considered to be less sensitive to changes in postural control
365 than SL or TAN in clinical tests where a floor effect is encountered (Hunt et al.,
366 2009), but has been found to be a stronger discriminator of concussed vs non-
367 concussed athletes when instrumented outcome measures are analysed, likely
368 because the gross movements required to maintain balance in the more-challenging
369 SL and TAN stances result in greater natural between-trial and between-participant
370 variability (Doherty et al., 2017; King et al., 2017, 2014). Post-SRC changes

371 predominantly in the AP direction have been previously observed in DL stance for
372 other COP variables (Powers et al., 2014) and are likely indicative of alterations in
373 control of the ankle dorsiflexors and plantar flexors, as these are the primary
374 regulators of AP COP movement during quiet standing (Winter, 1995). Future work
375 should focus on further elucidating the mechanisms underpinning these changes.

376

377 The most notable limitation of this study is that each stance position was performed
378 only once per session and held for 20 seconds. Whilst this enabled a direct
379 comparison with the most-common clinician scoring system, it did not allow us to
380 elucidate effects of time on the structure of the COP signal. COP movement is
381 known to exhibit non-stationary characteristics (Carroll and Freedman, 1993) when
382 evaluated over extended periods of time so results should not be extrapolated to the
383 interpretation of longer-duration stances. Effects of repeated testing have been
384 previously reported for BESS, even over time periods of up to 60 days between tests
385 (Valovich McLeod et al., 2004), although no learning effect in the cohort most-closely
386 age matched to ours was observed for either BESS or for COP velocity measures in
387 tests done seven days apart (Alsalaheen et al., 2015). As we did not record whether
388 participants had previous experience of the M-BESS protocol, and performed only a
389 single baseline assessment, we are unable to exclude the possibility that the
390 changes observed were influenced by a learning effect. Further research should
391 therefore focus on investigating longer-term temporal changes in spectral content
392 within a trial and on clarifying the effect of repeated exposure on all outcome
393 measures. Other methods of signal structure analysis, such as entropy, could also
394 be applied alongside this method to compare the results obtained and their
395 sensitivity to pathological changes.

396

397 There are known effects of age on postural control COP metrics in both the time
398 domain and the frequency domain (Barozzi et al., 2014; Gouleme et al., 2014;
399 Hugentobler et al., 2016; Quatman-Yates et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2012; Williams et
400 al., 1997) so the spectra and summary statistics presented here should not be
401 generalised to groups of different ages (e.g. young children or older adults). It is
402 unclear whether systematic differences exist within the age range included in our
403 study (Gouleme et al., 2014; Quatman-Yates et al., 2018) and a recent systematic
404 review concluded that athletes from 13 years until the end of adolescence could be
405 treated as a single group as regards concussion treatment and management (Davis
406 et al., 2017).

407

408 Our findings indicate that an evaluation of continuous COP frequency spectra can
409 identify post-SRC changes with larger effect sizes than other commonly-utilised
410 metrics, and that the changes identified predominantly occur within sub-bands of the
411 frequency range indicative of peripheral proprioceptive control. Future work should
412 thus focus on higher-resolution elucidation of the mechanisms and pathological
413 indications behind COP trajectory changes within the broad 'high frequency' range in
414 order to facilitate interpretation of the sub-band differences. Reporting and
415 monitoring post-SRC COP changes clinically across the full frequency spectrum may
416 enable specific postural control deficits indicative of neural changes to be identified
417 and monitored after injury and during recovery. A higher-resolution understanding of
418 proprioceptive control mechanisms also has the potential to facilitate individualised
419 clinical rehabilitation programmes based on a patient's identified frequency deficits.

420

421

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427

428

429 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

430 No conflicts of interest declared.

431

432

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