

Online screening assessment of lifetime exposure to traumatic brain injury: a pilot study of associations between exposure and health status

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ABSTRACT

Background. This study aimed to conduct a pilot test of the feasibility and validity of administering an online screening measure of lifetime traumatic brain injury (TBI) exposure in Australia. **Methods.** One hundred and fifty six adults (aged 18–65 years) were recruited from the community via snowball sampling (convenience sample). A cross-sectional online survey was deployed that included the Ohio State University Traumatic Brain Injury Identification Method (OSU TBI-ID) short form. Secondary measures assessed post-concussion symptoms (the Rivermead Post-Concussion Symptoms Questionnaire), negative affective states (depression, anxiety, and stress scales), and behavioural health risks (items from the 2014 Ohio Behavioural Risk Factor Surveillance System). **Results.** Online OSU TBI-ID feasibility was high (minimal missing data and attrition, high completion rate). A TBI history was successfully recorded by approximately 60% of participants. Validity testing, via investigation of expected associations with risk factors controlled, found that selected indices [Worst TBI, Multiple TBIs] were positively associated with worse post-concussion symptoms: P 's < 0.05, small–medium effects. Worst TBI was significantly related to one behavioural health risk, smoking. There were no other significant correlations between online OSU TBI-ID indices and secondary outcomes when accounting for covariates (P 's > 0.05). **Conclusion.** Initial support was found for the feasibility and validity of an online screening measure of lifetime TBI exposure (LTE) in an Australian sample. Cautious interpretation is warranted because of study limitations, especially the small unrepresentative sample. Further studies could increase confidence in the feasibility and validity of online LTE screening.

Keywords: closed-head injury, concussion, head trauma, lifetime exposure, mild traumatic brain injury, minor head injury, online assessment, repetitive injury.

Introduction

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is associated with lifelong consequences and is considered the leading cause of death and disability worldwide (Langlois *et al.* 2006). Even 'mild' TBI (mTBI) has been linked to long-term complications and negative consequences (Langlois *et al.* 2006). Predicting outcomes from one, let alone multiple TBIs, is challenging (Dennis *et al.* 2022). Further, cumulative TBI exposure is a suggested mechanism or risk factor for late life health consequences, including chronic traumatic encephalopathy (Dams-O'Connor *et al.* 2013). The very strong potential for serious long-term negative consequences from multiple TBIs has inspired discussion about the best methods for measuring lifetime TBI exposure (LTE; Dennis *et al.* 2022).

There are well-documented challenges in single TBI assessment and additional issues for lifetime assessment. These issues include weak consensus for defining TBI (Menon *et al.* 2010); reliance on symptom-based criteria (Dennis *et al.* 2022); selection biases in TBI research due to unrecognised, unreported, or untreated injuries (Dams-O'Connor *et al.* 2014); and parameter variation (e.g. selection criteria; Corrigan *et al.* 2003). TBI effects can be masked, misattributed, or otherwise altered by numerous factors, such as

incentives to over- (Jurick *et al.* 2016) or under-report symptoms (Meier *et al.* 2015), use of interviews vs questionnaires (Edmed and Sullivan 2014), and cognitive distortions (Voormolen *et al.* 2020). For LTE, there is also the challenge of retrospective assessment over an extended period, including childhood (McKinlay *et al.* 2016).

Despite the challenges, several LTE assessment methods have been proposed. These methods range from a single item (e.g. 'How many times, if ever...have you had...[a] head injury?') (Schofield *et al.* 2006b; Ilie *et al.* 2018); small-item sets (McKinlay *et al.* 2016); and structured, multi-item methods mimicking the clinical interview (e.g. Brain Injury Screening Questionnaire, Dams-O'Connor *et al.* 2014); Ohio State University Traumatic Brain Injury Identification Method (OSU TBI-ID), Corrigan and Bogner 2007). A prior study (Dams-O'Connor *et al.* 2014) reported that single item methods can miss >35% of cases identified by multi-item methods. Another study found that 15% of older adults ($n = 559$) screened positive for LTE using a multi-item method, about 80% of whom were previously unidentified (Schneider-Cline *et al.* 2019). Taken together, it seems that multi-item methods will be vital to advance understanding of LTE correlates for all TBIs (mild-severe).

The OSU TBI-ID short form is emerging as a leading LTE measure. This well-validated tool systematically elicits TBI history via a structured interview (Corrigan and Bogner 2007; Corrigan *et al.* 2013; McKinlay *et al.* 2017). The OSU TBI-ID can quantify TBI history in several ways via multiple indices, for example via a count of TBI exposures irrespective of severity. The OSU TBI-ID has been adopted in multi-centre, longitudinal TBI studies (Corrigan *et al.* 2013; Dams-O'Connor *et al.* 2013; Rabinowitz *et al.* 2020; Ohio State University Wexner Medical Centre 2022), and its usage is recommended by leading agencies (e.g. the National Institute of Neurological Disorder and Stroke 2019).

The findings from LTE studies that have used the OSU TBI-ID typically show that LTE is associated with increased behavioural health risks (BHRs), such as substance misuse, and poorer long-term health from a heightened risk of other conditions (Corrigan *et al.* 2013; Manchester *et al.* 2020). However, it remains unclear which indices are critical and whether increased BHRs are expected from exposure to any TBI or specific TBIs (e.g. severe injury or mild injury with loss of consciousness [LOC]; Rabinowitz *et al.* 2020). A recent study found that LTE metrics – with LOC – were associated with increased risks, such as heavy drinking and poor general mental health (Feiss *et al.* 2022). Further studies must clarify the relation between LTE and BHRs, including which injuries (and by extension which OSU TBI-ID indices) show these relations.

A potential limiting factor for LTE research is that the OSU TBI-ID was designed as an in-person interview (Lequerica *et al.* 2018). To address this issue, a handful of studies have deployed other OSU TBI-ID formats, including a computer-assisted, telephone-administered version (Cuthbert *et al.*

2016) and online versions (Lequerica *et al.* 2018; Lequerica *et al.* 2021). These new formats could increase the ease of data collection from participants in distributed geographic regions (Lequerica *et al.* 2018). However, changing the OSU TBI-ID to other formats could introduce additional challenges. The interview can support conditional (follow-up/clarification) questions – a feature considered by some as critical for success (Ohio State University Wexner Medical Centre 2022) – and online surveys have specific biases (e.g. they may be susceptible to participant inattention and other data integrity threats; Oppenheimer *et al.* 2009; McKibben and Silvia 2017; Griffin *et al.* 2021).

To date, there have been a few studies on the feasibility and validity of an online form of the OSU TBI-ID (O-OSU TBI-ID). These studies, mostly from North America, have evaluated the completion rate (Lequerica *et al.* 2018, 2021) and replicated expected associations (e.g. between LTE and post-concussion symptoms (PCS); Lequerica *et al.* 2018). In general, the findings have been favourable (Lequerica *et al.* 2018), but none have included the data integrity checks now commonly deployed in online surveys (Griffin *et al.* 2021).

In Australia, there is a paucity of research on LTE and its correlates. There are three prior studies with selected (criminal justice [CJ]; Perkes *et al.* 2011; Moore *et al.* 2014) or unselected (community) samples (Butterworth *et al.* 2004) and two with adults (cf. Moore *et al.* 2014). One study surveyed 200 men in the CJ system (Schofield *et al.* 2006a, 2006b) and a comparative sample (200 community-dwelling men; Perkes *et al.* 2011). Using a single-item LTE and follow-up questions for $\geq$ five incidents, the study found a high prevalence of LTE with LOC (65% CJ vs 32% community) and all TBI exposures (82% CJ vs 72% community) as well as increased risk of neuropsychiatric sequelae when TBI exposed (CJ sample). Another cross-sectional survey (Anstey *et al.* 2004; Butterworth *et al.* 2004) in ~8000 randomly selected community members used a single-item LTE measure: '...ever had a serious head injury where you became unconscious for >15 minutes?'. Consistent with general population studies outside of Australia, LTE with LOC was associated with poorer general physical and mental health on screening tests (Anstey *et al.* 2004; Butterworth *et al.* 2004). Given that the Australian data are almost 20 years old and not obtained using a multi-item method or a current definition for 'serious' TBI, there is merit in revisiting this issue, including the methodology for LTE screening.

This study had two aims. First, to conduct an initial pilot investigation of O-OSU TBI-ID as a potential tool for LTE measurement in Australia via a small-scale replication and extension of the O-OSU TBI-ID feasibility and validity study by Lequerica *et al.* (2018). Thus, it was expected that the O-OSU TBI-ID would be feasible (i.e. data captured in all sections) and there would be a positive association between Worst TBI and PCS (Lequerica *et al.* 2018). The extension added data integrity checks and examined relations between other LTE indices (e.g. Multiple TBIs) and correlates (i.e. BHRs, PCS).

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited at a major metropolitan university, including via a for-credit, university-hosted research participation pool (SONA), and externally via electronic communication within the researchers' networks. A snowball method was employed, whereby the recipients of study information were encouraged to share it with their networks. Eligible participants were people aged ≥ 18 years with a valid protocol.

Measures

Single-item TBI (SI-TBI) history

Based on prior research (Butterworth *et al.* 2004; Ilie *et al.* 2015; Osborn *et al.* 2018), a SI-TBI history was assessed: 'Have you ever had a Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) also referred to as a head injury?'.

Ohio State University TBI identification method short form (OSU TBI-ID; Ohio State University Wexner Medical Centre 2022)

The OSU TBI-ID is a 3–5 min structured (three-step) tool to determine LTE (Corrigan and Bogner 2007). The interview form has strong inter-rater reliability and acceptable test/retest reliability (Corrigan and Bogner 2007). Step 1 assesses LTE and injury cause (five yes/no questions; e.g. 'In your lifetime, have you ever injured your head or neck in a car accident or...crashing...a bicycle...?'). A yes at Step 1 triggers deployment of Step 2 (event details; e.g. 'Were you knocked out...?'). All participants complete Step 3 about a history of multiple TBIs. Three summary indices of LTE were used in this study: *Worst TBI [WTBI]*; *Multiple TBIs [MultiTBI]*; *TBI number by severity [TBINS]* (Corrigan and Bogner 2007).

Rivermead Post-Concussion Symptoms Questionnaire (RPQ; King, *et al.* 1995)

The RPQ assesses the frequency and severity of 16 PCS. The RPQ has good psychometric properties (King *et al.* 1995). An example RPQ item is: '...Do you now (i.e. over the last 24 hours) suffer from headaches?' Participants indicate symptom frequency and severity (0 = *not experienced at all* to 4 = *a severe problem*). The wording of the introduction to the RPQ was altered slightly to ensure participants without a TBI history would also record their experience of these symptoms. The total score range is 0–64, with higher scores indicating greater problems (King *et al.* 1995). In this study the RPQ was found to be reliable ($\alpha = 0.96$).

The depression, anxiety, and stress scales (DASS; Lovibond and Lovibond 1995)

The DASS is a 42-item self-report measure of three negative emotional states with good to excellent internal consistency (Lovibond and Lovibond 1995). An example item is, 'I felt that I had nothing to look forward to.' Participants rate each item for personal applicability over the past week (0 = *did not apply...* to 3 = *applied...very much, or most of the time*). Prior OSU TBI-ID studies have used the Beck Depression Inventory (e.g. Konrad *et al.* 2011); however, since the DASS was developed and normed in Australia, it was chosen for this study. The DASS subscales are scored by summing the responses (total score range = 0–42). Higher scores indicate a more negative emotional state (Lovibond and Lovibond 1995). In this study, the Cronbach's alpha for each DASS subscale was >0.80 .

Behavioural Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS; Centres for Disease Control and Prevention 2014)

The BRFSS is a telephone survey of BHRs and chronic health conditions (Centres for Disease Control and Prevention 2014). Several studies (Bogner *et al.* 2020; Manchester *et al.* 2020; Feiss *et al.* 2022) have used specific BRFSS items to examine relationships between TBI exposure and BHRs (e.g. substance use, depression, and days of poor mental health; Bogner *et al.* 2020). The current study used selected 2014 BRFSS items from the following sections: Health Status, Healthy Days, Health-Related Quality of Life (HRQoL), Tobacco Use, Marijuana Use, and Alcohol Consumption, since they were previously used in LTE studies. An example HRQoL item is, 'How many days in the past 30 days was your physical health...not good?'. BRFSS items are individually interpreted. Higher scores on the BHR items indicate increased health risk.

Procedure

Project applications were lodged, reviewed, and approved by the Queensland University of Technology (ethical clearance no: 4145; health and safety clearance no: 1782). The survey was hosted on the online platform Qualtrics™ (Provo, UT) and opened from October 2021 to May 2022. An opt-in method (e.g. activating a link) provided access to study information (e.g. risks, benefits). Consent was probed with a forced-choice item (*agree* [to continue] or *disagree* [to exit]). Continuing participants completed a validity check (reCAPTCHA plugin¹) and the SI-TBI, O-OSU TBI-ID, RPQ, DASS, and BRFSS. Skip logic was programed for conditional questions, including O-OSU TBI-ID Step 2. The duration of LOC was presented with three options (i.e. no LOC, <30 min–24 h, and >24 h). The participants quit the study

¹CAPTCHA = Completely Automated Public Turing test to tell Computers and Humans Apart.

directly or after opting in to receive a study summary and/or small reimbursement (i.e. prize draw entry [chance to win one of two \$100 shopping vouchers] or 0.5% course credit [if eligible]).

Data analysis

The data were transferred to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS Statistics™ version 28) and inspected for missing values, input errors, eligibility, and invalidity. Feasibility was established through examination of completed sections (see Lequerica *et al.* 2018). Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) tested for group differences in symptoms (RPQ or DASS subscale [dependent variables]) based on LTE, while controlling for age, gender, and membership of a TBI ‘at risk’ group (e.g. contact-sport players). The ANCOVA independent variable (group) was LTE (i.e. *WTBI*, four levels: no TBI, mTBI (no LOC), mild–moderate TBI [LOC < 30 min–24 h], or severe TBI [LOC > 24 h]; *MultiTBI*, three levels: 0, 1, or 2+ TBIs; or *TBINS*, three levels: multiple mTBIs [no LOC], multiple mild–moderate TBIs [LOC < 30 min–24 h], or multiple severe TBI [LOC > 24 h]). ANCOVA assumptions (Field 2018) were met with the exception of normality violations (RPQ, DASS subscales, positive skew, Shapiro–Wilk, P ’s < 0.001). A square-root (RPQ, DASS–Depression, DASS–Stress) or logarithmic transformation (DASS–Anxiety) yielded approximately normal distributions. Analyses were run with and without transformations, with no differences noted. Therefore, non-transformed data were reported. Multivariable binomial logistic regression determined the association between LTE and BHRs while controlling for ‘at risk’ status, age, and gender. The reference group was ‘No TBI’ (*WTBI*, *MultiTBI*, *TBINS*). As per precedent (Bogner *et al.* 2020; Waltzman *et al.* 2021), frequencies and weighted percentages were estimated for BHRs and compared across subgroups. A significance level of <0.05 was used.

Results

Data screening

Nine participants were excluded because of extreme missing data, an invalid protocol (failed integrity check), or an implausible survey completion time of <3 min (a value we could only obtain with indiscriminate responding). One underage (17 years) and one older participant (outlier aged >95% trimmed sample mean age) were also excluded. The selection of participants is shown in Fig. 1.

The completion rate for the OSU TBI-ID was examined with controls applied (e.g. where skip logic was used). Questions about TBI from all causes were answered (see Fig. 1). The average survey completion time (OSU TBI-ID plus other measures) was approximately 148 min (5% trimmed mean, range ~4–5398 min). The lengthy completions are likely due to the failure to close the survey browser.

Participant selection and study flow showing the participant exclusions (and reasons), completion of OSU TBI-ID sections, and study exit choices.

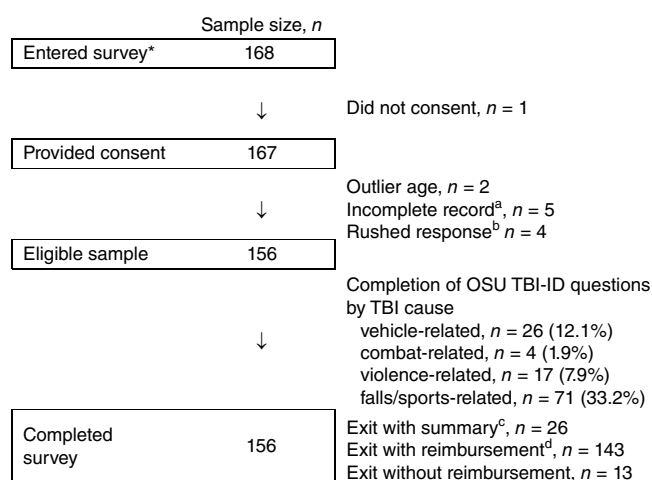


Fig. 1. Participant selection and study flow showing the participant exclusions (and reasons), completion of OSU TBI-ID sections, and study exit choices. Notes: OSU TBI-ID = Ohio State University Traumatic Brain Injury Identification Method. * = accessed the survey (e.g., by clicking the survey link). ^a = significant missing data, i.e., no response to almost all questions; 3.10% missing data); ^b = rushed response, survey duration <3 minutes (minimum pilot response time); ^c = study summary 16.6%, 2022; ^d = reimbursement with either course credit (*n* = 81) or entry (*n* = 62) for a prize draw 91.6%, 2022. Sixty-two participants entered the prize draw, which was drawn on 20 June 2022; 81 participants were awarded course credit (29 April 2022), and the study summary was provided to twenty-six participants (20 June 2022).

Descriptive statistics: sample characteristics and LTE

The sample comprised 156 young–middle-aged adults ($M_{\text{age}} = 25.27$, $s.d. = 9.89$, range = 18–65 years, 73% women). Most participants were studying (68.6%). Most participants (~70%) were at risk for TBI, primarily from playing contact sport (62.2%). Approximately 60% reported at least one TBI (9%, SI-TBI; 59.6% OSU TBI-ID). This estimate was dependent on the assessment method, $\chi^2(2) = 18.42$, $P < 0.001$, with one participant recording a TBI on the SI-TBI only. The most common TBI cause was ‘falls/sport’ (33.2%). Of the sample, 46.8% recorded a mTBI (no LOC), 13.5% mild–moderate TBI (with LOC), and 0% severe TBI. Meanwhile, 44.2% reported 1 TBI and 16% reported 2+ TBIs. The percentage of men vs women with 2+ TBIs was 18.4% vs 14.9%, $\chi^2(4) = 3.26$, $P = 0.515$. The percentage of women vs men with mild–moderate TBI (with LOC) exposure was 12.2% vs 18.4%, but this difference was not significant; $\chi^2(4) = 2.72$, $P = 0.606$. Demographic information is shown in Table 1. Average scores for RPQ, DASS, and BRFSS are shown in Table 2. Table 3 displays BHR frequency data by three measures of LTE.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of study participants (N = 156).

Characteristic	n	% sample
Gender ^A		
Male	38	24.4
Female	114	73.1
Age (years)		
18–25	101	64.7
26–35	38	24.4
36–45	7	4.5
45+	9	5.8
Country of birth		
Australia	124	79.5
Other	30	19.2
Highest level of education completed		
High school graduate	71	45.5
TAFE/Certificate/Diploma/Advanced Diploma	35	22.4
3-year or 4-year undergraduate degree ^B	38	24.4
Postgraduate degree ^C	10	6.4
Primary occupation ^A		
Working	43	27.6
Studying	107	68.6
History of membership of an 'at risk' population		
Contact sport	97	62.2
Learning disability	8	5.1
Drug or alcohol use	7	4.5
Psychiatric condition	38	24.4
Military service history	7	4.5
Contact with the criminal justice system	5	3.2
Lifetime TBI exposure		
Single-item measure (SI-TBI) ^D		
Yes	14	9
Maybe	14	9
No	125	80.1
Missing	3	1.9
Multi-item measure (OSU TBI-ID)		
Worst TBI		
No TBI	62	39.7
Mild (no LOC)	73	46.8
Mild–Moderate (LOC <30 min–24 h)	21	13.5
Severe (LOC >24 h)	0	0

(Continued on next column)

Table 1. (Continued)

Characteristic	n	% sample
Multiple TBI (Number, any severity)		
No TBI	62	39.7
1 TBI	69	44.2
2+ TBIs	25	16
TBI number by severity		
Multiple mTBIs (no LOC)	23	14.7
Multiple mild–moderate TBIs (LOC <30 min–24 h)	2	1.3
Multiple severe TBIs (LOC >24 h)	0	0
TBI cause/situation ^E		
Vehicle-related	26	12.1
Combat-related	4	1.9
Violence-related	17	7.9
Fall/sports-related	71	33.2
Presence of TBI in each 'at risk' subgroup ^F		
Contact sports	61	62.9
Learning disability	3	37.5
Drug or alcohol use	5	71.4
Psychiatric condition	26	68.4
Military service history	7	100
Contact with the criminal justice system	3	60

Notes: N = 156 TBI = traumatic brain injury; LOC = loss of consciousness, duration in minutes or hours; TAFE = Technical and Further Education.

^AOther, gender, n = 3; Other, primary occupation, n = 4.

^B3-year degree n = 21; 4-year degree n = 17.

^CMaster degree, n = 8; PhD/Doctorate, n = 2.

^DSI-TBI item: 'Have you ever had a Traumatic Brain Injury also referred to as a head injury?'

^ECombat item: '... have you been nearby when an explosion or blast occurred? If you served in the military, think about any combat- or training-related incidents'; Violence item: '... have you ever injured your head or neck in a fight, from being hit by someone, or from being shaken violently? Have you ever been shot in the head?'

^FSubgroup n varies as reported.

Relationship between LTE (WTBI, MultiTBI, TBINS) and correlates (RPQ, DASS, BRFSS)

There was a statistically significant small–medium relationship between WTBI and PCS, $F(2,148) = 3.39$, $P = 0.036$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.044$ (Table 4). Follow-up tests found one significant pairwise comparison; participants with a mild–moderate LTE (LOC < 30 min–24 h) had significantly higher RPQ scores (Mdiff = 8.37, s.e. = 3.22, $P = 0.031$) than the 'no TBI' group. There was a marginal (small–medium) effect of MultiTBI on PCS, $F(2,148) = 2.91$, $P = 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.038$. There was one significant follow-up pairwise comparison; participants with 2+ TBIs had significantly higher RPQ scores (Mdiff = 7.15

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for TBI correlates.

	<i>M</i>	<i>s.d.</i>	Minimum	Maximum
RPQ, post-concussion symptoms	31.79	12.73	16	69
DASS, negative emotional states				
Depression	9.03	10.09	0	41
Anxiety	7.53	6.89	0	28
Stress	9.72	7.78	0	34
BRFSS, behavioural health risk factors and outcomes				
Poor physical health, <i>n</i> (days)*	5.86	8.09	0	30
Poor mental health, <i>n</i> (days)*	11.38	9.72	0	30
Binge drinking, ≥ 5 (men) or 4 alcoholic drinks (women) on an occasion**	1.56	3.63	0	29
Smoked cigarettes***	0.12	0.40	0	2
Used marijuana or cannabis, <i>n</i> (days)*	0.43	2.63	0	25

N = 156. RPQ = Rivermead Post-concussion Symptoms Questionnaire. DASS = depression, anxiety, and stress scales. BRFSS = 2014 Behavioural Risk Factor Surveillance System. Item stem: *No. of days in the last 30 days.... **How many times in the past 30 days did you have... ***Item response scale: 0 = not at all, 1 = some days, 2 = every day.

s.e. = 2.97, $P = 0.05$) than the 'no TBI' group. There was no significant effect of *TBINS* on PCS, $F(2,147) = 1.95$, $P = 0.125$. There were no significant group differences on DASS subscales (all P 's > 0.05).

Multivariable binomial logistic regression found that *WTBI* was related to one BHR, smoking, $\chi^2(10) = 18.06$, $P = 0.05$. Upon examination of the likelihood ratio tests and the covariates (age, gender, at risk group membership), *WTBI* was a significant contributor to smoking over and above the covariates, $\chi^2(4) = 11.35$, $P = 0.023$. Multivariable binomial logistic regression for the other indices (*MultiTBI* and *TBINS*) were not related to BHRs (Table 5).

All three indices (*WTBI*, *MultiTBI*, and *TBINS*) were significantly related to poor mental health: overall model, *WTBI*, $\chi^2(10) = 22.62$, $P = 0.012$, *MultiTBI*, $\chi^2(10) = 22.63$, $P = 0.012$ and *TBINS*, $\chi^2(12) = 25.25$, $P = 0.014$; however, the likelihood ratio test showed this was due to the covariates and not LTE. All other analyses determined no significant relationships between indices *WTBI*, *MultiTBIs* and *TBINS* and BHRs, when accounting for covariates.

Discussion

This study had two aims. The primary aim was to conduct an initial pilot investigation of O-OSU TBI-ID as a potential tool for LTE screening in Australia. This was done via a small-scale replication and extension of Lequerica *et al.* (2018). We also performed an extension of Lequerica *et al.* (2018) by adding data integrity checks and examining novel relations between LTE indices (e.g. *MultiTBIs*) and the outcomes used in other LTE studies (e.g. BHRs). In broad terms, this study found initial support for the O-OSU TBI-ID.

We examined the feasibility of the O-OSU TBI-ID via the inspection of completion rates as per Lequerica *et al.* (2018). The O-OSU TBI-ID prompted participants to recall and record details about TBIs from all causes. Further, a data verification check was trialled with no issues reported. Although this study could not determine if this inclusion improved the data integrity, it did prevent bot completion. Adding this type of feature in future O-OSU TBI-ID applications would reflect best practice in online data collection (McKibben and Silvia 2017; Griffin *et al.* 2021).

We also tested for known associations between LTE indices and correlates, such as PCS. We found a positive association between *WTBI* and PCS, as previously demonstrated (Lequerica *et al.* 2018). Compared to people with no history of TBI, when covariates were controlled (age, sex, at risk status) a history of mild–moderate TBI (with LOC) was associated with worse PCS. Further, in the extension with the original controls (Lequerica *et al.* 2018), a lifetime history of TBI (2+ TBIs) was associated with worse PCS. However, lifetime *TBINS* was not significantly related to PCS, and no indices were significantly related to negative emotional states (depression, anxiety, or stress). A history of mild–moderate TBI (with LOC) (*WTBI*) was associated with one BHR (smoking). This analysis reveals further support for selected O-OSU TBI-ID indices (*WTBI*, *MultiTBI*), since they were correlated as expected with PCS.

To our knowledge, this study was the first deployment of the OSU TBI-ID in any format in Australia. We showed that about 1 in 10 people (13.5%) experienced at least one TBI with LOC (up to 24 h) in their lifetime. Prior North American OSU TBI-ID studies in larger samples have reported LTE rates that are higher (1 in 5 adults; Corrigan *et al.* 2018), lower (1 in 20 adults; Corrigan *et al.* 2013), or

Table 3. Frequencies and percentages for the number of days with poor behavioural health outcomes by three indices of LTE (O-OSU TBI-ID).

2014 BRFSS item	N days	Multiple TBIs				Worst TBI		Mild–Moderate (LOC > 30 min–24 h)		TBI number by severity			
		No TBI	1 TBI	2 + TBIs	% (2 + TBIs)	Mild (no LOC)	%		%	Multiple Mild (no LOC)	%	Multiple Mild–Moderate (LOC > 30 min–24 h)	%
Poor physical health	0	20	19	13	25	24	46.2	8	15.3	12	23.1	1	1.9
	>2	30	36	10	13.2	37	48.7	9	11.8	9	11.8	1	1.3
	>14	12.5	10	12	2	11	41.7	3	12.5	2	8.3	0	0
Poor mental health	0	9	9	2	10	7	35	4	20	2	10	0	0
	>2	23	33	15	21.1	40	56.3	8	11.3	13	18.3	2	2.8
	>14	26	25	8	13.6	25	42.4	8	13.6	8	13.6	0	0
Smoking behaviour	Not at all	60	57	22	0.6	63	45.3	16	11.5	20	14.4	2	1.4
	Some days	1	8	2	1.3	8	72.7	2	18.2	2	18.2	0	0
	Everyday	0	4	1	13.5	2	40	3	60	0	0	0	0
Binge drinking	0	35	36	17	19.3	41	46.6	12	13.6	17	19.3	0	0
	1–4	18	22	5	11.2	22	48.9	5	11.2	4	8.9	1	2.2
	5–10	2	9	1	8.3	8	66.7	2	16.7	1	8.3	0	0
	>10	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cannabis use	0	55	60	25	17.9	67	47.9	18	12.9	23	16.4	2	1.4
	>2	0	3	0	0	2	66.7	1	33.3	0	0	0	0
	>14	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	50	0	0	0	0

Notes: TBI, traumatic brain injury; LOC, loss of consciousness; mTBI, mild TBI; BRFSS, Behavioural Risk Factor Surveillance System; O-OSU TBI-ID, Online Ohio State University TBI Identification Method.

Table 4. Full ANCOVA predicting RPQ total score in three models of LTE models (Model 1, Worst TBI; Model 2, Multiple TBIs; Model 3, TBI number by severity).

Model	Source	Sums of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	P-value
1	Age	45.75	1	45.75	0.31	0.578
	Gender	739.36	1	739.36	5.02	0.027
	Risk	912.73	1	912.73	6.19	0.014
	Worst TBI	998.67	2	499.33	3.39	0.036
2	Age	18.34	1	18.34	0.12	0.726
	Gender	656.85	1	656.85	4.43	0.037
	Risk	1003.27	1	1003.27	6.77	0.010
	Multiple TBIs	860.99	2	430.49	2.91	0.05
3	Age	21.03	1	21.03	0.14	0.708
	Gender	663.22	1	663.22	4.45	0.037
	Risk	989.04	1	989.04	6.63	0.011
	TBI number by severity	870.99	3	327.14	1.95	0.125

Notes: ANCOVA, Analysis of Covariance; RPQ, Rivermead Post-Concussion Symptoms Questionnaire; d.f., degrees of freedom; TBI, traumatic brain injury; Worst TBI and Multiple TBIs are index scores from the O-OSU TBI-ID = Online Ohio State University TBI Identification Method.

Table 5. Multivariable binomial logistic regressions of relations between Worst TBI, Multiple TBIs, TBI number by severity, and BHRs.

O-OSU TBI-ID Index	BHRs	-2 Log likelihood	χ^2	d.f.	P-value
Worst TBI	Poor physical health	213.23	11.82	10	0.297
	Poor mental health	198.94	22.62	10	0.012
	Smoking behaviour	89.41	18.06	10	0.05
	Binge drinking	172.09	17.66	15	0.281
	Cannabis use	27.49	14.54	10	0.150
Multiple TBIs	Poor physical health	213.92	16.12	10	0.097
	Poor mental health	194.44	22.63	10	0.012
	Smoking behaviour	86.73	17.15	10	0.071
	Binge drinking	166.13	21.09	15	0.134
	Cannabis use	24.52	13.36	10	0.204
TBI number by severity	Poor physical health	212.47	16.56	12	0.167
	Poor mental health	193.20	25.25	12	0.014
	Smoking behaviour	85.91	17.97	12	0.117
	Binge drinking	164.09	24.51	18	0.139
	Cannabis use	24.52	13.36	12	0.343

Notes: d.f., degrees of freedom; TBI, traumatic brain injury; Worst TBI and Multiple TBIs are index scores from the Ohio State University TBI Identification Method; administered in online format for this study (O-OSU TBI-ID).

similar (1 in 15 older adults; [Schneider-Cline et al. 2019](#)). Our rate is higher than the prior Australian study with community members (i.e. between 5 and 6% prevalence; [Anstey et al. 2004](#); [Butterworth et al. 2004](#)) and lower than the selected men-only sample (~32%; [Perkes et al. 2011](#)). If our findings are replicated, it could indicate that Australia has a higher potential burden from LTE than previously

modelled. This could be due to changes in the injury rate, reporting practices, or a research artefact (ie. use of a multi-item vs single item LTE measure).

This study has several limitations. Online surveys carry a specific risk of bias. This survey deployed bot detection; but other validation techniques should be trialled (e.g. 'honey pots'; [Griffin et al. 2021](#)). A true equivalence test would

compare the LTE estimate from an online- vs interview-administration of the OSU TBI-ID, and the self-reported LTE estimate could also be cross-checked with LTE data from another source (e.g. medical history, if available). These comparisons are suggested for future research. The LTE data are self-reported, conferring a risk of error and inaccuracy (e.g. recall bias, uncorroborated injury). Some measures referred to 'head injury' when the intent was to measure TBI, including our single-item measure and parts of the original OSU-TBI. The wording of our single-item measure could have been confusing for some participants, and this may have reduced the validity of some measures. This study used an online version of the BRFSS, which to our knowledge has not been tried before. This change in the BRFSS administration format from the original telephone interview could affect our results. Cross-sectional studies cannot answer questions of causation; thus, the findings do not show that LTE caused poorer mental health, only that it was associated with it. Some O-OSU TBI-ID scores will differ from those in other studies (i.e. we could not distinguish between mild vs a moderate TBI (with LOC) because of administrative error; and our WTBI measure did include severe TBI). The small sample size and composition (largely female university students) is a limitation, and we excluded a handful of responses as 'invalid attempts' (e.g. extremely quick completions or mostly blank protocols), whereas these responses could in fact signal a problem with feasibility (i.e. that the measure could not actually be completed by all of the participants). Whilst the sample may be sufficient for an initial Australian pilot test of the O-OSU TBI-ID, including its feasibility, it does not support generalisable conclusions about LTE nor does it show how the test would function in specific groups with a heightened TBI exposure (e.g. adolescent contact-sports players or unsteady, older persons). Future studies with larger, representative samples are now needed to determine if the O-OSU TBI-ID can be used as a population screening tool for LTE.

This study suggests that estimates of LTE prevalence depend on assessment method (single- vs multi-item). Whichever method is used, the implementation should address the potential for expectancy bias or iatrogenesis (Dams-O'Connor *et al.* 2014). A suggested strategy is to provide participants with information about this risk, including that taking the survey does not prove causation (Dams-O'Connor *et al.* 2014).

There is strong interest in understanding LTE effects on health and functioning. The current study finds initial support for the feasibility of the O-OSU TBI-ID, including with added data validation, and in a new context (Australian sample). We successfully replicated some expected associations (Lequerica *et al.* 2018) and recommend further studies to identify key indices. However, the study limitations must also be kept in mind when considering the implications, including that this study was a small pilot investigation. The results of this pilot trial of this tool in Australia gives

some confidence that the O-OSU TBI-ID could be successfully deployed in a larger population survey. In the longer term, this could eventually support improved LTE screening and understanding of LTE correlates, which in turn could improve resource planning and supports for people with TBI exposure.

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