

A field-based approach to determine soft tissue injury risk in elite futsal using novel machine learning techniques

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All authors listed have made a substantial, direct and intellectual contribution to the work, and approved it for publication.

Keywords

injury prevention, modeling, screening, decision-making, algorithm, decision tree

Abstract

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Lower extremity non-contact soft tissue (LE-ST) injuries are prevalent in elite futsal. The purpose of this study was to analyze and compare the individual and combined ability of several measures obtained from questionnaires and field-based tests to prospectively predict LE-ST injuries after having applied a range of supervised Machine Learning techniques. One hundred and thirty-nine elite futsal players underwent a pre-season screening evaluation that included individual characteristics; measures related to sleep quality, athlete burnout, psychological characteristics related to sport performance and self-reported perception of chronic ankle instability. A number of neuromuscular performance measures obtained through three field-based tests (isometric hip strength, dynamic postural control [Y-Balance] and lower extremity joints range of motion [ROM-Sport battery]) were also recorded. Injury incidence was monitored over one competitive season. There were 25 LE-ST injuries. Only those groups of measures from two of the field-based tests (ROM-Sport battery and Y-Balance), as independent data sets, were able to build robust models (area under the receiver operating characteristic curve [AUC] score ≥ 0.7) to identify elite futsal players at risk of sustaining a LE-ST injury. Unlike the measures obtained from the five questionnaires selected, the neuromuscular performance measures did build robust prediction models (AUC score ≥ 0.7). The inclusion in the same data set of the measures recorded from all the questionnaires and field-based tests did not result in models with significantly higher performance scores. The models developed might help coaches, physical trainers and medical practitioners in the decision-making process for injury prevention in futsal.

Contribution to the field

The current study has identified a range of simple, quick and easy to employ field-based measures can have good predictive power in determining LE-ST injuries in elite futsal players. Given that these field-based tests require little equipment and can be employed quickly by trained staff, they should be included as an essential component of the injury management strategy in elite futsal.

Ethics statements

Studies involving animal subjects

Generated Statement: No animal studies are presented in this manuscript.

Studies involving human subjects

Generated Statement: The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Órgano evaluador de proyectos, Universidad Miguel Hernández de Elche (DPS.FAR.02.14). The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

Inclusion of identifiable human data

Generated Statement: No potentially identifiable human images or data is presented in this study.

Data availability statement

Generated Statement: The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation.

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25 **Abstract**

26 Lower extremity non-contact soft tissue (LE-ST) injuries are prevalent in elite futsal. The
27 purpose of this study was to develop robust screening models based on pre-season
28 measures obtained from questionnaires and field-based tests to prospectively predict LE-
29 ST injuries after having applied a range of supervised Machine Learning techniques. One
30 hundred and thirty-nine elite futsal players underwent a pre-season screening evaluation
31 that included individual characteristics; measures related to sleep quality, athlete burnout,
32 psychological characteristics related to sport performance and self-reported perception of
33 chronic ankle instability. A number of neuromuscular performance measures obtained
34 through three field-based tests (isometric hip strength, dynamic postural control [Y-
35 Balance] and lower extremity joints range of motion [ROM-Sport battery]) were also
36 recorded. Injury incidence was monitored over one competitive season. There were 25
37 LE-ST injuries. Only those groups of measures from two of the field-based tests (ROM-
38 Sport battery and Y-Balance), as independent data sets, were able to build robust models
39 (area under the receiver operating characteristic curve [AUC] score ≥ 0.7) to identify elite
40 futsal players at risk of sustaining a LE-ST injury. Unlike the measures obtained from the
41 five questionnaires selected, the neuromuscular performance measures did build robust
42 prediction models (AUC score ≥ 0.7). The inclusion in the same data set of the measures
43 recorded from all the questionnaires and field-based tests did not result in models with
44 significantly higher performance scores. The model generated by the UnderBagging
45 technique with a cost-sensitive SMO as the base classifier and using only four ROM
46 measures reported the best prediction performance scores (AUC = 0.767, true positive
47 rate = 65.9% and true negative rate = 62%). The models developed might help coaches,
48 physical trainers and medical practitioners in the decision-making process for injury
49 prevention in futsal.

50

51 **Keywords:** Injury prevention, modelling, screening, decision-making, algorithm,
52 decision tree

53

54 1. Introduction

55 Lower extremity non-contact soft tissue (muscle, tendon and ligament) (LE-ST)
56 injuries are very common events in intermittent team sports such as soccer (López-
57 Valenciano et al., 2019), futsal (Ruiz-Pérez et al., 2020), rugby (Williams et al., 2013),
58 bat (i.e. cricket and softball) and stick (i.e. field hockey and lacrosse) sports (Perera et al.,
59 2018). It has been suggested that most of these LE-ST injuries occur when the resilience
60 of soft tissue to injury is not enough to enable athletes to tolerate the loading patterns
61 produced during the execution of high intensity dynamic tasks (e.g. cutting, sprinting and
62 landing) (Kalkhoven et al., 2020). Research has shown that LE-ST injuries can have
63 major negative consequences on a team sport athlete's career (e.g.: career termination)
64 (Ristolainen et al., 2012) and can severely affect his/her well-being (Lohmander et al.,
65 2007). Furthermore, when several injuries are sustained, team success (Eirale et al., 2013)
66 and club finances can suffer (Fair and Champa, 2019; Eliakim et al., 2020). Given that
67 the risk of sustaining a LE-ST injury can be mitigated when tailored measures are
68 delivered, development of a validated screening model to profile injury risk would be a
69 useful tool to help practitioners address this recurrent problem in team sports. Despite the
70 substantive efforts made by the scientific community and sport practitioners, none of the
71 currently available screening models (based on potential risk factors) designed to identify
72 athletes at high risk of suffering a LE-ST injury, have adequate predictive properties (i.e.
73 accuracy, sensitivity and specificity) (Bahr, 2016).

74 Perhaps the lack of available valid screening models to predict LE-ST injuries could
75 be attributed to the use of statistical techniques (e.g.: traditional logistic regression) that
76 have not been specifically designed to deal with class imbalance problems, such as the
77 LE-ST injury phenomenon, in which the number of injured players (minority class)
78 prospectively reported is always much lower than the non-injured players (majority class)
79 (Galar et al., 2012; López et al., 2013; Fernández et al., 2017; Haixiang et al., 2017).
80 Thus, in many scenarios including LE-ST injury, traditional screening models are often
81 biased (for many reasons) towards the majority class (known as the “negative” class) and
82 therefore there is a higher misclassification rate for the minority class instances (called
83 the “positive” examples). Other issue with the current body of the literature is that the
84 external validity of the screening models available may be limited because they are built
85 and validated using the same data set (i.e. cohort of athletes). Apart from resulting in
86 overly optimistic models' performance scores, this evaluation approach does not indicate

87 the true ability of the models to predict injuries in different data sets or cohort of athletes,
88 which may be very low and consequently, not acceptable for injury prediction purposes.
89 This appears to be supported by the fact that the injury predictors identified by some
90 prospective studies have not been replicated by others using similar designs and
91 assessment methodologies but with different samples of athletes (Croisier et al., 2002,
92 2008; Arnason et al., 2004; Brockett et al., 2004; Häggglund et al., 2006; Fousekis et al.,
93 2011; Dauty et al., 2016; Timmins et al., 2016; Van Dyk et al., 2016). These limitations
94 have led some researchers to suggest that injury prediction may be a waste of time and
95 resources (Bahr, 2016).

96 In Machine Learning and Data Mining environments, some methodologies (e.g.:
97 pre-processing, cost-sensitive learning and ensemble techniques) have been specially
98 designed to deal with complex (i.e. non-linear interactions among features or factors),
99 multifactorial and class imbalanced scenarios (Galar et al., 2012; López et al., 2013;
100 Fernández et al., 2017; Haixiang et al., 2017). These contemporary methodologies along
101 with the use of resampling methods to assess models' predictive power (i.e., cross-
102 validation, bootstrap and leave-one-out) may overcome the limitations inherent to the
103 current body of knowledge and enable the ability to build robust, interpretable and
104 generalizable models to predict LE-ST injuries. In fact, recent studies have used these
105 contemporary methodologies and resampling methods as alternatives to the traditional
106 logistic regression techniques to predict injuries in elite team sport athletes (Claudino et
107 al., 2019). Unlike previous studies that used traditional logistic regression techniques to
108 build prediction models (Fousekis et al., 2011; Zvijac et al., 2013; Opar et al., 2015;
109 Hegedus et al., 2016; Van Dyk et al., 2016, 2017; Lee et al., 2018; O'Connor et al., 2020),
110 most of these recent studies (Bartlett et al., 2017; Ge, 2017; Kautz et al., 2017; Ertelt et
111 al., 2018; López-Valenciano et al., 2018; Rossi et al., 2018; Ayala et al., 2019), although
112 not all (Thornton et al., 2017; Ruddy et al., 2018), have reported promising results (area
113 under the receiver operator characteristics [AUC] scores > 0.700) to predict injuries.

114 However, one of the main limitations of most of these models built by the
115 application of modern Machine Learning techniques lies in the fact that their use seems
116 to be restricted to research settings (and not to applied environments) because
117 sophisticated and expensive instruments (e.g.: isokinetic dynamometers, force platforms
118 and GPS devices), qualified technicians and time-consuming testing procedures are
119 required to collect such data. To the authors' knowledge, there is only one study that has

120 built a robust screening model using Machine Learning techniques (extreme gradient
121 boosting algorithms) with data from field-based tests. Rommers et al. (2020) built a model
122 to predict injury in elite youth soccer players based on preseason anthropometric (stature,
123 weight and sitting height) and motor coordination and physical fitness (strength,
124 flexibility, speed, agility and endurance) measures obtained through field-based tests and
125 reported an AUC score of 0.850.

126 If Machine Learning techniques could build “user friendly” models with adequate
127 predictive properties and exclusively using data obtained from questionnaires and / or
128 cost-effective, technically undemanding and time-efficient field-based tests, then injury
129 prediction would not be a waste of time and resource in applied settings. In case these
130 techniques provided a trustworthy positive response, coaches, physical trainers and
131 medical practitioners may know whether any of the currently available questionnaires and
132 field-based tests to predict injuries itself works and a hierarchical rank could be developed
133 based on their individual predictive ability of those that showed reasonably high AUC,
134 true positive (TP) and true negative (TN) scores. Furthermore, this knowledge might be
135 used to analyze the cost-benefit (balance between the time required to assess a single
136 player and the predictive ability of the measures recorded) of including measures in the
137 screening sessions for injury prediction.

138 Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to develop robust screening models
139 based on pre-season measures obtained from different questionnaires and field-based tests
140 to prospectively predict LE-ST injuries after having applied supervise Machine Learning
141 techniques in elite male and female futsal players.

142 **2. Materials and Methods**

143 To conduct this study, guidelines for reporting prediction model and validation
144 studies in Health Research (Transparent Reporting of a multivariable prediction model
145 for Individual Prognosis or Diagnosis [the TRIPOD statement]) were followed (Network,
146 2016). The TRIPOD checklist is presented in Supplementary file 1.

147 **2.1. Participants**

148 A convenience sample of 139 (72 [age: 22.5 ± 5.2 y, stature: 1.75 ± 0.7 m, body
149 mass: 72.9 ± 6.9 kg] males and 67 [age: 22.4 ± 5.5 y, stature: 1.64 ± 0.5 m, body mass:
150 59.4 ± 5.1 kg] females) elite futsal players from 12 different teams (56 players [24 males
151 and 32 females] from six club engaged in the First [top] National Spanish Futsal division

152 and 83 players [48 males and 35 females] from six clubs engaged in the Second National
153 Futsal division) completed this study. Elite futsal players were selected in this study
154 because a recent published meta-analysis on injury epidemiology reported that this sport
155 present high incidence rates of injuries (5.3 injuries per 1000 hours of players exposure)
156 (Ruiz-Pérez et al., 2020) and hence, urgent preventive measures are needed.

157 To be included in this study, all players had to be free of pain at the time of the
158 study and currently involved in futsal-related activities. Players were excluded if: a) they
159 reported the presence of orthopedic problems that prevented the proper execution of one
160 or more of the neuromuscular performance tests or (b) were transferred to another club
161 and were not available for follow up testing at the end of 9-months. Only first injuries
162 were used for any player sustaining multiple LE-ST injuries. The study was conducted at
163 the end of the pre-season phase in 2015 (39 players from four teams), 2016 (44 players
164 from four teams), 2017 (30 players from three teams) and 2018 (26 players from two
165 teams) (September). Before any participation, experimental procedures and potential
166 risks were fully explained to the players and coaches in verbal and written form and
167 written informed consent was obtained from players. An Institutional Research Ethics
168 committee approved the study protocol prior to data collection (DPS.FAR.01.14)
169 conforming to the recommendations of the Declaration of Frontera.

170 **2.2. Study design**

171 A prospective cohort design was used to address the purpose of this study. In
172 particular, all LE-ST injuries accounted for within the 9 months following the initial
173 testing session (in-season phase) were prospectively collected for all players.

174 Players underwent a pre-season evaluation of a number of personal, psychological,
175 self-perceived chronic ankle instability and neuromuscular performance measurements,
176 most of them considered potential sport-related injury risk factors. In each futsal team,
177 the testing session was conducted at the end of the pre-season phase or beginning (within
178 the first three weeks) of the in-season phase of the year. The testing session was divided
179 into three different parts. The first part of the testing session was used to obtain
180 information related to the participants' personal or individual characteristics. The second
181 part was designed to assess psychological measures related to sleep quality, athlete
182 burnout and psychological characteristics related to sport performance. The subjective
183 perception of each player regarding his/her chronic ankle joints instability was also
184 recorded in this second part. Finally, the third part of the session was used to assess a

185 number of neuromuscular performance measures through three field-based tests. Each of
186 the four testers who took part in this study had more than six years of experience in
187 athletes' screening assessment.

188 ***2.2.1 Personal or individual measures***

189 The ad hoc questionnaire designed by Olmedilla, Laguna, & Redondo (2011) was
190 used to record personal or individual measures that have been defined as potential non-
191 modifiable risk factors for sport injuries: player position (goalkeeper or outfield player),
192 current level of play (First or Second division), dominant leg (defined as the player's
193 kicking leg), demographic measures (sex, age, body mass and stature) and the presence
194 within the last season (yes or no) of LE-ST injuries with total time taken to resume full
195 training and competition > 8 days. Supplementary file 2 displays a description of the
196 personal risk factor recorded.

197 ***2.2.2. Psychological risk factors***

198 The Spanish version of the Karolinska Sleep Diary (Cervelló et al., 2014) was used
199 to measure the sleep quality of players. The Spanish version of the Athlete Burnout
200 Questionnaire (Arce et al., 2012) was used to assess the three different dimensions that
201 comprise athlete burnout: (a) physical/emotional exhaustion, (b) reduced sense of
202 accomplishment and (c) sport devaluation. The Spanish version of the Psychological
203 Characteristics Related to Sport Performance Questionnaire designed by Gimeno, Buceta
204 & Pérez-Llanta (2012) was used to assess five different factors: (a) stress control, (b)
205 influence of sport evaluation, (c) motivation, (d) mental skills and (e) group / team
206 cohesion. Supplementary file 3 displays a description of the psychological risk factor
207 recorded.

208 ***2.2.3 Self-perceived chronic ankle instability***

209 The subjective perception of chronic ankle instability was measured using the
210 Cumberland Ankle Instability Tool (CAIT). The final score was discretized into three
211 categories of severity following the thresholds suggested by De Noronha et al. (2012):
212 severe instability (< 22 points), moderate instability (from 22 to 27 points) and minor or
213 no instability (> 27 points).

214 ***2.2.3 Neuromuscular risk factors***

215 Prior to the neuromuscular risk factor assessment, all participants performed the
216 dynamic warm-up designed by Taylor et al. (2009). The overall duration of the entire
217 warm-up was approximately 15–20 min. The assessment of the neuromuscular risk
218 factors was carried out 3–5 min after the dynamic warm-up.

219 Neuromuscular capability was determined from two different performance field-
220 based tests: 1) isometric hip abduction and adduction strength test (Thorborg et al., 2009)
221 and 2) Y-Balance test (dynamic postural control) (Shaffer et al., 2013). The ROM-Sport
222 field-based battery was also carried out to assess players' lower extremity joints range of
223 motion (Cejudo et al., 2020).

224 For a matter of space, the testing maneuvers are not described below, and the reader
225 is to refer to their original sources. Furthermore, supplementary files 4 to 6 display a
226 description of the three field-based testing maneuvers carried and the measures recorded
227 from each of them.

228 The order of the tests was consistent for all participants and was established with
229 the intention of minimizing any possible negative influence among variables. A 5-min
230 rest interval was given between consecutive testing maneuvers.

231 ***2.4. Injury Surveillance***

232 For the purpose of this study, an injury was defined as any non-contact, soft tissue
233 (muscle, tendon and ligament) injury sustained by a player during a training session or
234 competition which resulted in a player being unable to take a full part in future football
235 training or match play (Bahr et al., 2020).

236 These injuries were confirmed by team doctors. Players were considered injured
237 until the club medical staff (medical doctor or physiotherapist) allowed for full
238 participation in training and availability for match selection. Only thigh muscle
239 (hamstrings, quadriceps and adductors) and knee and ankle ligament injuries were
240 considered for the analysis as these injuries are more likely to be preventable and
241 influenced by the investigated variables.

242 The team medical staff of each club recorded LE-ST injuries on an injury form that
243 was sent to the study group each month. For all LE-ST injuries that satisfied the inclusion
244 criteria, team medical staff provided the following details to investigators: thigh muscle
245 (hamstrings, quadriceps and adductors), knee or ankle ligament, leg injured
246 (dominant/nondominant), injury severity based on lay-off time from futsal

247 [slight/minimal (0–3 d), mild (4–7 d), moderate (8–28 d), and severe (>28 d)], date of
248 injury, moment (training or match), whether it was a recurrence (defined as a soft tissue
249 injury that occurred in the same extremity and during the same season as the initial injury)
250 and total time taken to resume full training and competition. At the conclusion of the 9-
251 month follow-up period, all data from the individual clubs were collated into a central
252 database, and discrepancies were identified and followed up at the different clubs to be
253 resolved. Some discrepancies among medical staff teams were found to diagnose minimal
254 LE-ST injuries and to record their total time lost. To resolve these inconsistencies in the
255 injury surveillance process (risk of misclassification of the players), only ST-LE injuries
256 showing a time lost of >8 d (moderate to severe) were selected for the subsequent
257 statistical analysis.

258 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

259 After having completed an exhaustive data cleaning process (detected anomalies or
260 errors were removed [16 cases] and missing data [2.3%] were replaced by the mean value
261 of the corresponding variable according to the sex [male or female] of the players) we
262 had an imbalanced (showing an imbalance ratio of 0.22) and a high-dimensional data set
263 comprising of 72 male and 67 female futsal players (instances) and 66 potential risk
264 factors (features). In this study, an anomalies or error was defined as a score or value that
265 could not be classified as real or true because of the consequence of a human error or a
266 machine failure. An example of an error was a hip adductor PT value of 1500 N because
267 the measurement range of the handheld dynamometer used was from 0 to 1335 N.

268 Prior to analysis, continuous data were discretized as this can improve the
269 performance of some classifiers (Hacibeyoglu et al., 2011). Continuous variables were
270 discretized using the unsupervised discretization algorithm available in Weka repository
271 (Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis, version 3.8.3), selecting the option
272 “optimize the number of equal-width bins” (a maximum of 10 bins were allowed per
273 variable).

274 Afterward, eleven data sets were built. In particular, five data sets were built using
275 the personal (data set [DS] 1 – personal variables), psychological (DS 2 – sleep quality,
276 DS 3 – athlete burnout and DS 4 – psychological characteristics related to sport
277 performance) and self-perceived (DS 5 – player’s self-perceived chronic ankle joint
278 stability) measures recorded from the questionnaires selected in this study. Likewise,
279 three data sets were also built using the data from each of the three field-based tests carried

280 out (DS 6 – ROM-Sport battery, DS 7 – isometric hip abduction and adduction strength
281 test and DS 8 – Y-Balance test). Finally, three extra data sets were built, one that grouped
282 all the measures obtained from the questionnaires (DS 9 – questionnaire-based personal,
283 psychological and self-perceived measures), another one that included all the
284 neuromuscular performance measures recorded from the field-based tests (DS 10 –
285 neuromuscular performance measures from field-based tests) and finally one that
286 contained all measures recorded (DS 11 – global).

287 The taxonomy for learning with imbalanced data sets proposed by Galar et al.
288 (2012) and Lopez et al.(López et al., 2013) was applied in each data set. Furthermore, this
289 taxonomy was implemented with the approach recently proposed by Elkarami et al.
290 (2016) because of the good results (in term of predictive performances) showed to handle
291 imbalanced data sets (supplementary file 7).

292 Four classifiers based on different paradigms, namely decision trees with C4.5
293 (Quinlan, 1996) and ADTree (Freund and Mason, 1999), Support Vector Machines with
294 SMO (Gove and Faytong, 2012) and the well-known k-Nearest Neighbor (KNN)
295 (Steinbach and Tan, 2009) as an Instance-Based Learning approach were selected. The
296 configuration of each base classifier was optimized through the use of the metaclassifier
297 MultiSearch.

298 Due to the high dimensionality of the DS 10 - neuromuscular measures from field-
299 based tests (47 variables) and DS 11 - Global (66 variables), before running the algorithms
300 included in the taxonomy just described, a feature selection process was carried out. In
301 particular, we used the metaclassifier “attribute selected classifier” (with GreedyStepwise
302 as search technique) available in Weka’s repository to address the feature selection
303 process.

304 To evaluate the performance of the algorithms, the fivefold stratified cross-
305 validation technique was used (Refaeilzadeh et al., 2009). The fivefold stratified cross
306 validation was repeated a hundred times and results were averaged over the runs to obtain
307 a more reliable estimate for the generalization ability.

308 The AUC and F-score were used as measures of a classifier’s performance (Altman
309 and Bland, 1994; Zou et al., 2016). Only those algorithms whose performance scores
310 (AUC) were higher than 0.70 were considered as acceptable for the purposes of this study
311 and included in the intra and inter dataset comparisons analyses. Furthermore, two extra

312 measures from the confusion matrix were also used as evaluation criteria: (a) true positive
313 (TP) rate also called sensitivity or recall and (b) true negative (TN) rate or specificity.

314 In order to compare the performance of the algorithms ran in each data set (intra
315 data set comparisons) and whose AUC scores were > 0.70 , the F score was selected as
316 criterion measure. These comparisons were conducted using separate Bayesian inference
317 analyses (Lee & Wagenmakers, 2013; Rouder et al., 2012; Wagenmakers et al., 2018). In
318 those data sets in which (at least) a strong evidence for rejecting null hypothesis ($H_0 =$ no
319 differences across algorithms' performance scores) was found (Bayesian factor $[BF_{10}]$
320 > 10), a post hoc procedure was carried out to identify the best performing model. In the
321 cases in which either there would not be a strong evidence for rejecting H_0 or a group of
322 algorithms showed the highest F-score results (without any relevant difference $[BF_{10} <$
323 $10]$ among them), the best-performing algorithm for this dataset would be the one that
324 showed the highest F-scores.

325 Finally, the best performing algorithm of each of the data sets were compared (inter
326 dataset comparisons) using the same statistical approach in order to know which
327 questionnaire, field-based test or combination showed the best ability to predict moderate
328 LE-ST injuries in elite male and female futsal players.

329 **3. Results**

330 ***3.1. Soft-tissue lower extremity injuries epidemiology***

331 There were 31 (16 in males and 15 in females) soft tissue injuries over the follow-
332 up period, 17 (54.8%) of which corresponded to thigh muscles (seven hamstrings, four
333 quadriceps and six adductors) injuries, eight (25.8%) to knee ligament and six (19.3%) to
334 ankle ligament. Injury distribution between the legs was 74.1% dominant leg and 25.9%
335 nondominant leg. A total of 13 injures occurred during training and 18 during
336 competition. In terms of severity, most injures were categorized as moderate ($n = 23$),
337 whereas only eight cases were considered severe injuries (five anterior cruciate ligament
338 injuries). Five players sustained multiple soft tissue non-contact lower extremity injuries
339 during the observation period, so their first injury was used as the index injury in the
340 analyses. Consequently, 25 soft-tissue injuries were finally used to develop the prediction
341 models.

342 ***3.2. Prediction models for soft tissue lower extremity injuries***

343 All data sets are publicly available on
344 <https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/s7fs9k3nby/1>. As all the algorithms selected in this
345 study can be found in the Weka experimenter, only the scheme (and not the full code) of
346 algorithms selected in each data set are displayed in supplementary file 19 in order to
347 allow practitioners to replicate our analyses and to use the models generated with their
348 futsal players.

349

350 *3.2.1. Intra data set comparisons*

351 As displayed in the supplementary files 8 to 18, only four (DS 6 – lower extremity
352 joint ranges of motion, DS 8 – dynamic postural control, DS 10 – neuromuscular
353 performance measures from field-based tests and DS 11 – Global) out of 11 data sets
354 resulted in the ability of the classification algorithms to build prediction models for LE-
355 ST injuries with AUC scores ≥ 0.7 .

356 For the DS 6 - lower extremity joint ranges of motion, a total of 23 learning
357 algorithms showed AUC scores ≥ 0.7 . The Bayesian inference analysis carried out with
358 these 23 algorithms (Bayesian ANOVA) reported the presence of relevant differences
359 ($BF_{10} > 100$ [extreme evidence for supporting H_1]) among their prediction performance
360 scores. The subsequent post hoc analysis identified a sub-group of four algorithms whose
361 F-scores were similar among them (F-scores ranging from 0.422 to 0.450) and also
362 statistically higher ($BF_{10} > 10$) than the rest (table 1). Among these four algorithms, the
363 one that showed the highest F-score was the CS-Classifier technique with ADTree as base
364 classifier (figure 1).

365 ******Table 1 near here******

366 ******Figure 1 near here******

367 For its part, the DS 8 – dynamic postural control only allowed to the class-balanced
368 ensemble CS-UBAG with C4.5 as base classifier building a model with AUC scores \geq
369 0.7 (AUC = 0.701 ± 0.112). In this sense, this model is comprised for 100 different C4.5
370 decision trees (figure 2 shows an example of one of these C4.5 decision trees, the rest can
371 be got upon request to the authors).

372 ******Figure 2 near here******

373 The feature selection process carried out in the DS 10 – neuromuscular measures
374 from field-based tests identified a subset of four ROM measures as the most relevant
375 (considering the individual predictive ability of each feature along with the degree of
376 redundancy among them) on which was subsequently applied the taxonomy of learning
377 algorithms described in the method section. Thus, a total of 66 algorithms built (using
378 this subset of features) prediction models with AUC scores ≥ 0.7 . The Bayesian analysis
379 conducted with these 66 algorithms documented the existence of relevant differences
380 (with an extreme degree of evidence [$BF_{10} > 100$]) among their predictive ability scores.
381 The subsequent post hoc analysis reported that a group of three algorithms showed similar
382 F-scores among them (ranging from 0.458 to 0.474) but significantly higher than the rest.
383 Therefore, the selection of the best performing algorithm of this DS 10 was based on the
384 highest F-score. Thus, the algorithm CS-UBAG with SMO as base classifier was the one
385 that showed the highest F-score (0.474 ± 0.111) and hence, it was selected for the inter
386 data set comparisons. Figure 3 displays an example of the 100 predictors than this
387 prediction model is comprised (the rest can be got upon request to the authors).

388 ******Figure 3 near here******

389 The DS 11, that comprised of the 66 personal ($n = 8$), psychological ($n = 9$), self-
390 perceived chronic ankle instability ($n = 2$) and neuromuscular performance (47) features
391 was reduced to a subset of six features by the feature selection metaclassifier selected,
392 from which four were ROM measures, one was a self-perceived chronic ankle instability
393 measure and the last one belonged to the group of personal measures (table 2). This sub-
394 set of features allowed 59 algorithms building prediction models showing AUC scores \geq
395 0.7. Finally, and it is showed in the table 1, the Bayesian inference and the subsequent
396 post hoc analyses identified the class-balanced ensemble CS-UBAG with C4.5 as base
397 classifier as the best-performing algorithm (AUC = 0.749 ± 0.105 , TP rate = $75.5\% \pm 23.6$,
398 TN rate = 62.7 ± 11.5 , F-score = 0.436 ± 0.122). An example of the 100 C4.5 decision
399 trees that comprised this model is presented in figure 4.

400 ******Figure 4 near here******

401 ******Table 2 near here******

402 3.2.2. Inter data set comparisons

403 The inter data set comparison analysis carried out with the best-performing
404 algorithms of the DS 6 (CS-Classifer [ADTree]), 8 (CS-UBAG [C4.5]), 10 (CS-UBAG

405 [SMO]) and 11 (CS-UBAG [C4.5]) showed that the algorithm of the DS 8 obtained
406 significantly lower F-scores than the other three algorithms ($BF_{10} > 100$). However, there
407 were no statistically differences among the algorithms from the DS 6, 10 and 11. Among
408 these three algorithms, the one from the DS 10 demonstrated the highest F-score and was
409 considered as the “winning model” (table 2). Models from DS 8, 10 and 11 are comprised
410 by 100 classifiers. In term of practical applications, each classifier has a vote or decision
411 (yes [high risk of LE-ST injury] or no [lower risk of LE-ST injury]), and the final decision
412 regarding whether or not a player might suffer an injury is based on the combination of
413 the votes of each individual classifier to each class (yes or no).

414 **4. Discussion**

415 The main findings of this study indicate that only those groups of measures from
416 two of the field-based tests (ROM-Sport battery [AUC = 0.751 ± 0.124] and Y-Balance
417 [AUC = 0.701 ± 0.114]), as independent data sets, can build robust models ($AUC \geq 0.7$)
418 to identify elite futsal players at risk of sustaining a LE-ST injury. One of the possible
419 reasons why only the lower extremity ROM and dynamic postural control measures can
420 separately build robust prediction models may be related to the fact that they play a
421 significant role in the hazardous lower extremity movement patterns performed by futsal
422 players. In particular the execution of numerous weight-bearing high intensity locomotive
423 actions (e.g.: cutting, landing and sprinting) that may produce excessive dynamic valgus
424 at the knee with limited hip and knee flexion ROMs, which have been identified as
425 primary and modifiable LE-ST injury patterns (Robinson and Gribble, 2008; Thorpe, JL.
426 Ebersole et al., 2008; Lockie et al., 2013; Ambegaonkar et al., 2014; Booysen et al., 2015;
427 Overmoyer and Reiser, 2015). The fact that the best-performing model built with the
428 ROM data set (DS 6) showed a significantly higher prediction performance (and also less
429 decision trees [1 vs. 100]) than its counterpart model built with the dynamic postural
430 control data set (DS 7) (F-score = 0.450 vs. 0.388) may be due to the fact that the scores
431 obtained thorough the Y-Balance test are widely influenced by hip and knee flexion and
432 the ankle dorsiflexion ROM measures in the sagittal plane and to less extend by dynamic
433 core stability (in the frontal plane) and isokinetic knee flexion strength measures (Ruiz-
434 Pérez et al., 2019). Thus, the dynamic postural control measures obtained from the Y-
435 Balance test might have allowed the construction of a model with an acceptable prediction
436 ability mainly due to the influence of whole lower limb posterior kinetic chain ROMs in
437 the distances reached. This hypothesis may also be supported by the fact that the feature

438 selection process carried out in the data set in which all the neuromuscular performance
439 measures were grouped (DS 10) and also in the data set that contained all the measures
440 recorded in this study (DS 11) did not consider any of the dynamic postural control
441 measures in contrast to the hip flexion and ankle dorsiflexion ROM measures that were
442 considered LE-ST injury predictors.

443 Previous studies have explored the individual predictive ability of some (but not
444 many) field-based tests (e.g.: Y-Balance (Butler et al., 2013), leg squat (O'Connor et al.,
445 2020), side plank (Hegedus et al., 2016) and drop jump (Myer et al., 2010, 2011)) to
446 identify athletes from intermittent team sports at high risk of LE-ST injury using
447 traditional logistic regression techniques. Most of these studies have reported models
448 exhibiting high sensitivity values (TN rates) but very low specificity values (TP rates)
449 and hence, cannot be used for injury prediction. For example, O'Connor et al. (2020)
450 examined whether a standardized visual assessment of squatting technique and core
451 stability can predict lower extremity injuries in a large sample of collegiate Gaelic players
452 ($n = 627$). The logistic regression-based model generated revealed that while the TP rate
453 was moderate to high (76%) the TN rate was low (44%). This circumstance reflects one
454 of the main limitations inherent in traditional regression techniques, that is to say, they
455 do not deal well with imbalanced data sets (their models usually are biased toward the
456 majority class [true negative rates] to optimize the percentage of well-classified instances)
457 (Galar et al., 2012). Furthermore, the validation technique applied to the models generated
458 in these studies may not be exigent enough to ensure that the phenomenon of over-fitting
459 was minimized as the models were validated using the data from the population with
460 whom the prediction equations were generated (Bahr, 2016; Jovanovic, 2017).

461 Due to their high cost (approximately 250€ per unit) currently available GPS
462 systems may not be considered as accessible tools for most practitioners that work in
463 applied sport settings, however, it should be noted that prediction models to identify team
464 sport athletes (mainly soccer and rugby players) at risk of sustaining a LE-ST injury based
465 exclusively on external training workload measures and built using learning algorithms
466 are available (Bartlett et al., 2017; Thornton et al., 2017; Rossi et al., 2018). However,
467 only the model reported by Rossi et al., (2018) has shown AUC scores ≥ 0.7 after 16
468 weeks of data collection (AUC = 0.760). The predictive ability of the model built by Rossi
469 et al. (2018) is very similar to the predictive ability shown in our best-performing
470 prediction model built using only lower extremity ROM measures (AUC = 0.757).

471 Nevertheless, our prediction model based on ROM measures has a higher external
472 validity for practitioners in applied environments due to two main aspects. Firstly, the
473 low cost of the materials needed to conduct the assessment maneuvers (inclinometer with
474 a telescopic arm = 200€, lumbar protection support = 50€). Secondly, our model was
475 developed and validated using ROM measures from 139 elite futsal players from 12
476 different teams, whereas Rossi et al. (2018) only assessed the external training workload
477 of 26 elite soccer players all from the same team. Consequently, the model displayed by
478 Rossi et al.(2018) can only be used by the medical and performance staff of the team in
479 which the external workload measures were collected due (among other factors) to the
480 high inter-team differences in training and competitive calendars, drills prescribed in
481 training sessions and tactical systems adopted throughout match play.

482 The results of this study also reported that the combination in the same data set (DS
483 9) of all the measures obtained from the five questionnaires selected did not permit
484 classification algorithms to build prediction models with acceptable performance scores
485 (AUC scores ranged from 0.443 to 0.558). Previous studies have documented the
486 existence of significant associations between some personal characteristics (e.g.: age
487 (Arnason et al., 2004; Hägglund et al., 2006; Dauty et al., 2016) and recent history of
488 injury (Brockett et al., 2004; Hägglund et al., 2006; López-Valenciano et al., 2018; Ayala
489 et al., 2019)), psychological constructs (e.g.: physical/emotional exhaustion, reduce sense
490 of accomplishment, sports devaluation (Cresswell and Eklund, 2006; Moen et al., 2016))
491 and self-perceived chronic ankle instability (Hiller et al., 2006, 2011), sleep quality
492 (López-Valenciano et al., 2018; Palucci Vieira et al., 2020) measures and LE-ST injury.
493 However, it may be possible that the magnitude of these associations between the
494 questionnaire-based measures and LE-ST injury, neither individually nor collectively, are
495 strong enough to build robust models with the aim of identifying elite futsal players at
496 risk of LE-ST injury. On the contrary, the grouping in the same data set (DS 10) of all the
497 neuromuscular performance measures obtained from the three field-based tests did permit
498 prediction models to be built with moderate performance scores ($AUC \geq 0.7$). The feature
499 selection technique applied to this data set with the aim of reducing its dimensionality (46
500 features) through deleting redundant and not relevant measures (considered as noise) only
501 selected four ROM measures, with whom the CS-UBAG method with SMO as base
502 classifier built a prediction model with AUC and F-scores of 0.767 and 0.474,
503 respectively. This model reported the highest performance scores, together with the fact

504 that only two hip and two ankle ROM measures are needed to run the screen in a single
505 player making it appropriate for applied scenarios. Finally, the inclusion in the same data
506 set (DS 11) of all the eight groups of measures obtained from the five questionnaires and
507 three field-based tests did not result in models with significantly higher performance
508 scores and hence, the null hypothesis was rejected.

509 The prediction properties of the “model of best fit” of the current study were lower
510 than that reported by the only other study that has used Machine Learning techniques to
511 develop a screening model based on field-based measures (AUC = 0.767 vs 0.850, TP
512 rate = 85% vs. 85%, TN rate = 62% vs. 85%) (Rommers et al., 2020). One of the potential
513 reasons that may explain this difference in models’ predictive performance in favor of
514 Rommers et al.’s (2020) model can be attribute to its higher sample size (734 elite young
515 soccer players vs. 139 elite adult futsal players) and the less rigorous resampling
516 technique applied in its validation process (hold out with 20% of the sample [test data set]
517 vs. 5-folds stratified cross validation). Although the predictive properties of our model
518 are lower than Rommers et al.’s (2020) model (but they are acceptable for an injury
519 prediction standpoint), it should be highlighted that only four ROM measures and 5
520 minutes are needed to run the screen in a single player, unlike Rommers et al.’s (2020)
521 model that requires 20 measures obtained from a questionnaire and five different field-
522 based tests, which can take longer than 45 min to collect all of them in a single player.

523 The current study has a number of limitations that must be acknowledged. The first
524 potential limitation of the current study is the population used. The sport background of
525 participants was elite futsal and the generalizability to other sport modalities and level of
526 play cannot be ascertained. Although all the measures recorded during the screening
527 session are purported as LE-ST injury risk factors, there are a number of other measures
528 from different questionnaires and field-based tests not included in this study (due to time
529 constraints) which have been associated with LE-ST injury (e.g.: back extensor and flexor
530 endurance measures, bilateral leg strength asymmetries, relative leg stiffness and reactive
531 strength index) and that may have improved the ability to predict LE-ST injuries in this
532 cohort of athletes. Neither situational (e.g.: pressing and tackling, regaining balance after
533 kicking, side-stepping and landing from a jump) nor movement (e.g.: excessive dynamic
534 knee valgus motion at the knee, limited hip and knee flexion angles) patterns for those
535 futsal players who suffered a LE-ST injury were recorded for this study due to technical
536 reasons (i.e. training sessions and matches were not recorded and hence, a systematic

537 biomechanical/kinematic video analysis on injury patterns was not possible to be
538 conducted). Although the main findings of this study may help identify futsal players at
539 high risk of LE-ST injury, having included information regarding situational and
540 movement injury patterns in the models might have not only increase their predictive
541 performance scores but shed light on why and how LE-ST injuries occur in futsal players.
542 Despite the fact that the number of both futsal players assessed ($n = 139$) and LE-ST
543 injuries recorded ($n = 25$) was large enough to build robust prediction models, the
544 inclusion of more instances in the learning processes of the models may have improved
545 their performance scores. Finally, out of the 8^8 possible combinations of measures that
546 could have been analyzed with the data from the five questionnaires and three field-based
547 tests, only three of them were explored, from both a time perspective and based on those
548 that would be most interesting from a practitioner perspective. Therefore, it is unknown
549 if other combinations of measures, different from the ones analyzed in this study, may
550 have provided prediction models with higher AUC scores.

551 In conclusion, thanks to the application of novel machine learning techniques, the
552 current study has developed four screening models based on field-based measures
553 (mainly ROM and dynamic postural control features) that showed moderate accuracy
554 (AUC scores ranged from 0.701 to 0.767, determined all through the exigent cross-
555 validation resampling technique) for identifying elite futsal players at risk of LE-ST
556 injury. The “model of best fit” of the current study (AUC = 0.767, TP rate = 85% and TN
557 rate = 62%) was comprised by only two hip (flexion with knee extended and abduction)
558 and two ankle (dorsiflexion with knee flexed and extended) ROM measures and ten
559 different classifiers. Given that these ROM measures require little equipment to be
560 recorded and can be employed quickly (approximately 5 minutes) and easily by trained
561 staff in a single player, the model developed in this study should be included as an
562 essential component of the injury management strategy in elite futsal.

563

564 **Data availability statement**

565 The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

566 **Conflict of interest**

567 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
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571

In review

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837

838 **TABLE CAPTIONS**

839 **Table 1.** Features selected (displayed for order of importance) after having applied the
840 classify subset evaluator filter to the data sets (DS) 10 and 11.

841

Neuromuscular measures from field-based tests (DS – 10)

ROM-HF_{KE} [dominant leg]

ROM-AKDF_{KE} [dominant leg]

ROM- AKDF_{KF} [dominant leg]

ROM-BIL- HABD

Global (DS – 11)

ROM-HF_{KE} [dominant leg]

ROM-AKDF_{KE} [dominant leg]

ROM- AKDF_{KF} [dominant leg]

ROM-BIL- HABD

Self-perceived chronic ankle instability [non-dominant leg]

History of lower extremity soft tissue injury last season

842 ROM: range of motion; HF_{KE}: hip flexion with the knee extended; HABD: hip abduction
843 at 90° of hip flexion; AKDF_{KE}: ankle dorsi-flexion with the knee extended; AKDF_{KF}:
844 ankle dorsi-flexion with the knee flexed; BIL: bilateral ratio

845

846

847 **Table 2.** Best-performing sub-set of algorithms for those data sets (DS) that allowed
848 building prediction models with AUC scores ≥ 0.7 . Highlighted in bold are the algorithms
849 selected in each DS for the posterior inter-group comparative analysis.

850

Technique	Performance measures							
	AUC		TP rate (%)		TN rate (%)		F-score	
Lower extremity joint ranges of motion (DS – 6)								
ADTree	0.754	± 0.122	35.8	± 21.6	93.4	± 6.3	0.433	± 0.195
ROS [ADTree]	0.745	± 0.126	46.1	± 23.5	87.4	± 8.3	0.442	± 0.188
CS-Classifer [ADTree]	0.757	± 0.124	44.7	± 23.2	89.1	± 8.4	0.450	± 0.184
CS-UBAG [ADTree]	0.737	± 0.106	48.3	± 21.5	83.0	± 8.1	0.422	± 0.161
Dynamic postural control (DS – 8)								
CS-UBAG [C4.5]	0.701	± 0.114	64.9	± 21.1	63.3	± 10.4	0.388	± 0.109
Neuromuscular measures from field-based tests (DS – 10)								
CS-OBAG [SMO]	0.760	± 0.103	83.3	± 22.9	62.9	± 10.0	0.469	± 0.115
CS-UBAG [C4.5]	0.748	± 0.089	87.6	± 20.3	57.2	± 10.7	0.458	± 0.100
CS-UBAG [SMO]	0.767	± 0.096	85.1	± 21.4	62.1	± 9.8	0.474	± 0.111
Global (DS – 11)								
OBAG [SMO]	0.742	± 0.125	51.3	± 25.5	79.5	± 9.6	0.410	± 0.179
UBAG [SMO]	0.737	± 0.121	54.7	± 25.6	76.3	± 10.2	0.410	± 0.171
CS-OBAG [C4.5]	0.751	± 0.107	60.9	± 28.2	73.2	± 10.6	0.418	± 0.163
CS-OBAG [SMO]	0.747	± 0.121	65.1	± 27.9	70.1	± 11.3	0.423	± 0.151
CS-UBAG [C4.5]	0.749	± 0.105	75.5	± 23.6	62.7	± 11.5	0.436	± 0.122
CS-UBAG [ADTree]	0.741	± 0.119	62.0	± 27.3	72.0	± 10.4	0.419	± 0.161
CS-UBAG [SMO]	0.747	± 0.116	70.8	± 26.1	66.5	± 10.9	0.433	± 0.137
CS-UBAG [IBK]	0.722	± 0.124	71.8	± 23.9	61.6	± 12.3	0.413	± 0.122
CS-SBAG [C4.5]	0.755	± 0.115	55.7	± 28.2	76.2	± 11.0	0.409	± 0.175
CS-SBAG [SMO]	0.750	± 0.121	58.4	± 27.2	74.7	± 11.1	0.416	± 0.164

851 AUC: area under the ROC curve; TP rate: true positive rate; TN rate: true negative rate.

852

853 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

854 Figure 1. Graphical representation of the first classifier of the DS 6 (lower extremity joint
855 ranges of motion). Prediction nodes are represented by ellipses and splitter nodes by
856 rectangles. Each splitter node is associated with a real valued number indicating the rule
857 condition, meaning: If the feature represented by the node satisfies the condition value,
858 the prediction path will go through the left child node; otherwise, the path will go through
859 the right child node. The numbers before the feature names in the prediction nodes
860 indicate the order in which the different base rules were discovered. This ordering can to
861 some extent indicate the relative importance of the base rules. The final classification
862 score produced by the tree is found by summing the values from all the prediction nodes
863 reached by the instance, with the root node being the precondition of the classifier. If the
864 summed score is greater than zero, the instance is classified as true (low risk of LE-ST
865 injury).

866 Figure 2. Graphical representation of the first classifier of the DS 8 (dynamic postural
867 control). The arrows show the single pathway (transverse to the tree) through the classifier
868 that should be followed according to participant's scores in order to achieve a dichotomic
869 output (high [Yes] or low [No] risk of LE-ST injury).

870 Figure 3. Description of the first classifier of the DS 10 (field-based tests).

871 Figure 4. Graphical representation of the first classifier of the DS 11 (global). The arrows
872 show the single pathway (transverse to the tree) through the classifier that should be
873 followed according to participant's scores in order to achieve a dichotomic output (high
874 [Yes] or low [No] risk of LE-ST injury).

875

876 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL CAPTIONS**

877 Supplementary file 1. TRIPOD Checklist: Prediction Model Development and
878 Validation.

879 Supplementary file 2. Description of the personal or individual injury risk factors
880 recorded.

881 Supplementary file 3. Description of the psychological risk factors recorded.

882 Supplementary file 4. Description of the testing manoeuvre and measures obtained from
883 the isometric hip abduction and adduction strength test.

884 Supplementary file 5. Description of the testing manoeuvre and measures obtained from
885 the Y-Balance test.

886 Supplementary file 6. Description of the testing manoeuvre and measures obtained from
887 the ROM-Sport battery.

888 Supplementary file 7. Descriptions of the resampling, ensemble and cost-sensitive
889 algorithms applied to the base classifiers.

890 Supplementary file 8. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the personal or
891 individual characteristics data set (DS 1) for the five base classifiers in isolation and after
892 applying in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based and
893 Class-balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

894 Supplementary file 9. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the sleep quality data
895 set (DS 2) for the four base classifiers in isolation and after applying in them the
896 resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based and Class-balanced
897 ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

898 Supplementary file 10. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the Athlete Burnout
899 data set (DS 3) for the four base classifiers in isolation and after applying in them the
900 resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based and Class-balanced
901 ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

902 Supplementary file 11. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the psychological
903 characteristics related to sport performance data set (DS 4) for the four base classifiers in
904 isolation and after applying in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based,

905 Bagging-based and Class-balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques
906 selected.

907 Supplementary file 12. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the self-perceived
908 chronic ankle instability data set (DS 5) for the four base classifiers in isolation and after
909 applying in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based and
910 Class-balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

911 Supplementary file 13. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the lower extremity
912 joint ranges of motion data set (DS 6) for the five base classifiers in isolation and after
913 applying in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based and
914 Class-balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

915 Supplementary file 14. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the isometric hip
916 abduction and adduction strength data set (DS 7) for the five base classifiers in isolation
917 and after applying in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-
918 based and Class-balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

919 Supplementary file 15. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the dynamic
920 postural control data set (DS 6) for the five base classifiers in isolation and after applying
921 in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based and Class-
922 balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

923 Supplementary file 16. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the measures
924 obtained through questionnaires data set (DS 6) for the five base classifiers in isolation
925 and after applying in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-
926 based and Class-balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

927 Supplementary file 17. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the field-based tests
928 of neuromuscular performance data set (DS 6) for the five base classifiers in isolation and
929 after applying in them the resampling, ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based
930 and Class-balanced ensembles) and cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

931 Supplementary file 18. AUC results (mean and standard deviation) of the global data set
932 (DS 11) for the five base classifiers in isolation and after applying in them the resampling,
933 ensemble (Classic, Boosting-based, Bagging-based and Class-balanced ensembles) and
934 cost-sensitive learning techniques selected.

935 Supplementary file 19: schemes of the algorithms selected in data sets (DS) 6, 8, 10 and
936 11.

In review

Figure 1.JPEG

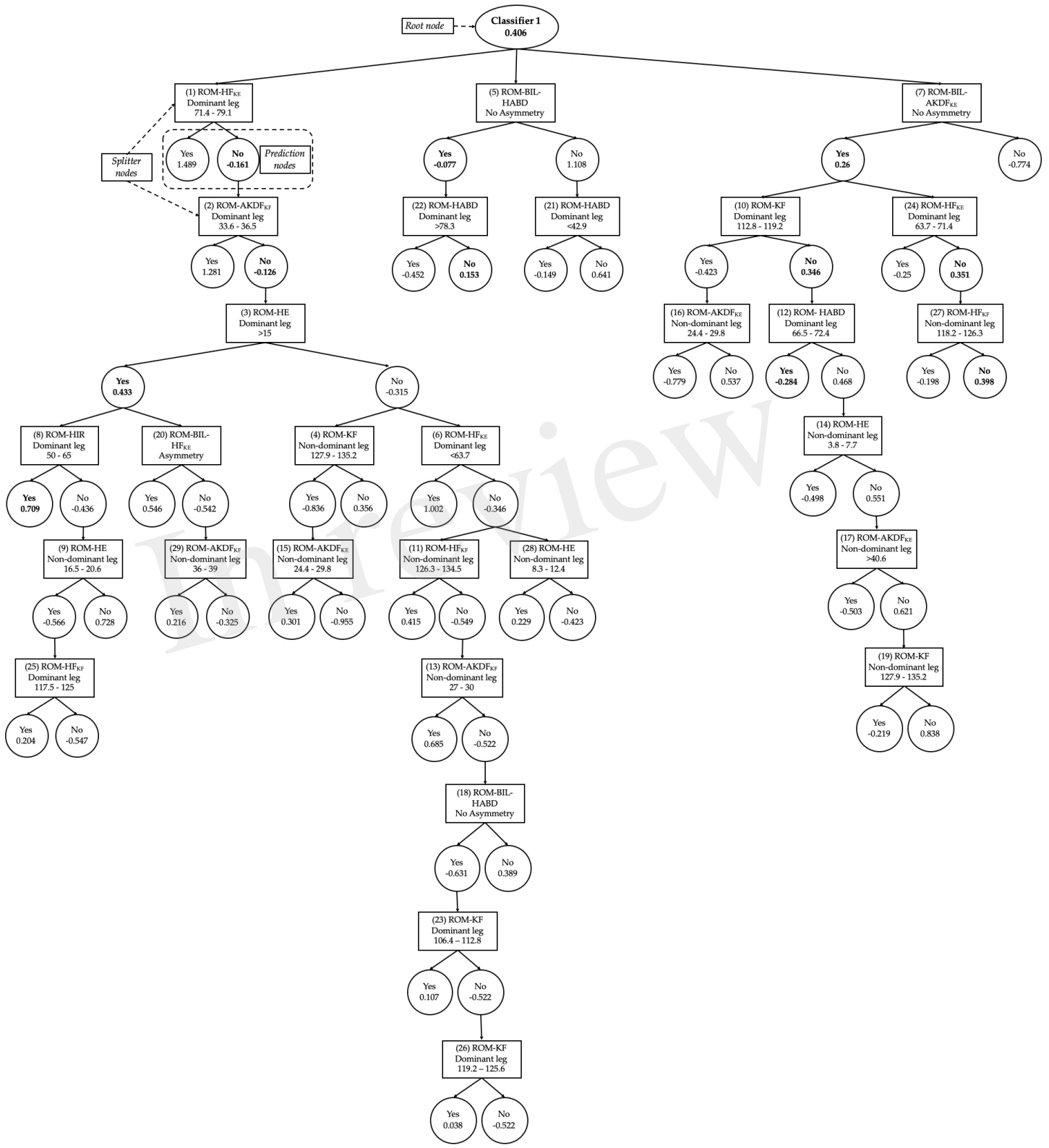
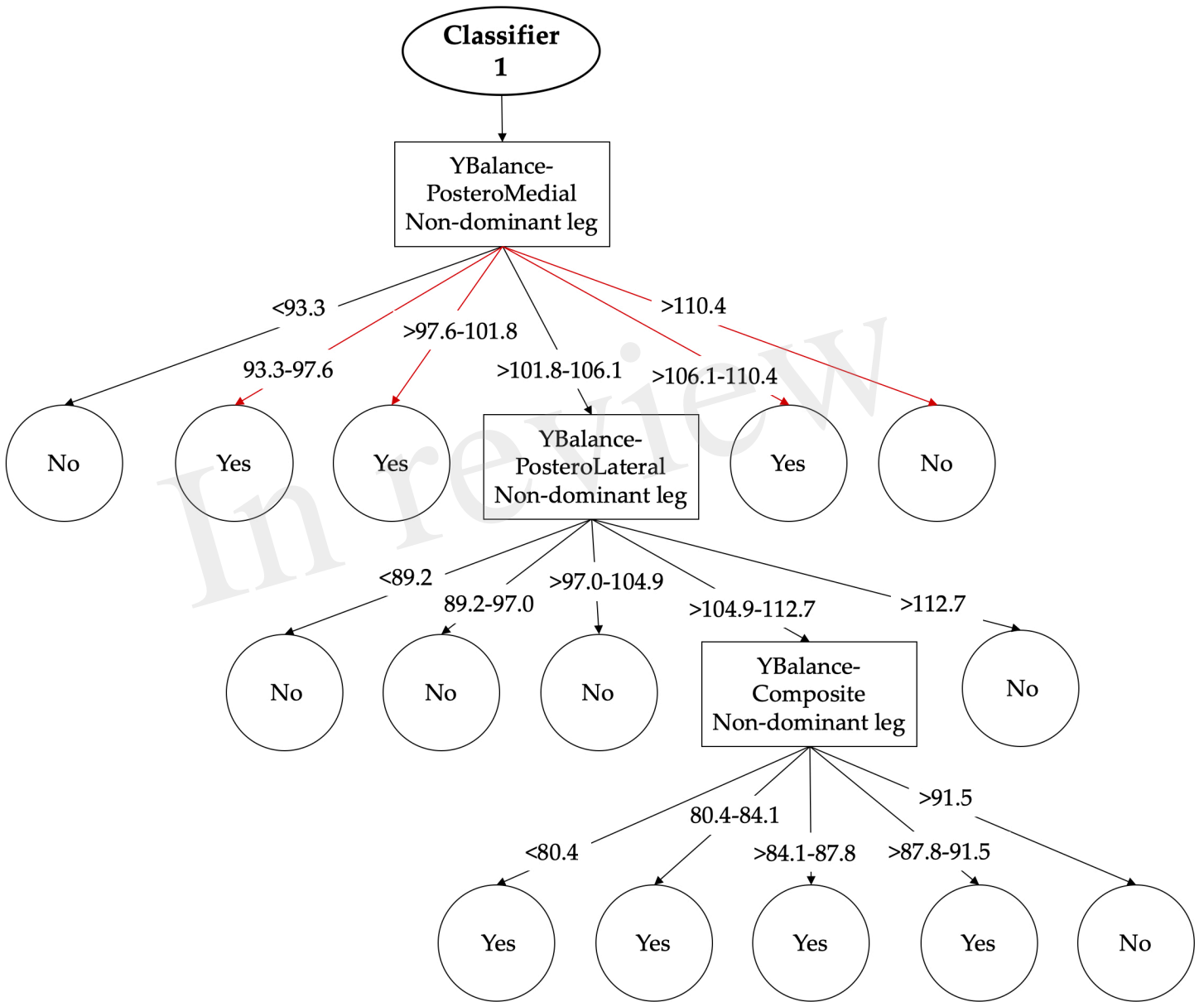


Figure 2.JPEG



Classifier 1 of the field-based tests model (CS-UBAG [SMO])

$$\text{Equation } \rightarrow f(x) = (w_1x_1 + \dots + w_dx_d) + b = \langle w, x \rangle + b$$

1. (0.999 * [normalized] ROM-HF_{KE} dominant leg [< 63.7]) +
2. (-1.0003 * [normalized] ROM-HF_{KE} dominant leg [63.7 - 71.4]) +
3. (1.0007 * [normalized] ROM-HF_{KE} dominant leg [71.4 - 79.1]) +
4. (-0.9994 * [normalized] ROM-HF_{KE} dominant leg [>79.1]) +
5. (-0.002 * [normalized] ROM-AKDF_{KE} dominant leg [>44.5]) +
6. (1.3336 * [normalized] ROM-AKDF_{KF} dominant leg [< 30]) +
7. (-0.6663 * [normalized] ROM-AKDF_{KF} dominant leg [30 - 40]) +
8. (-0.6673 * [normalized] ROM-AKDF_{KE} dominant leg [>40]) +
9. (1.9992 * [normalized] ROM-BIL- HABD [Asymmetry]) +
0.6668 (b)

Classification:

- Negative score = Yes
- Positive score = No

Normalized: scale from 0 to 1, ROM: range of motion, HF: hip flexion, KE: knee extension, KF: knee flexion, BIL: bilateral ratio, AKDF: ankle dorsiflexion, HABD: hip abduction.

Figure 4.JPEG

