

**Using a long short-term memory model to predict force values of Taekwon-  
do turning based on spatio-temporal parameters**

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33 **Abstract: Background:** The aim of this study was to investigate the feasibility of using Long  
34 Short-Term Memory (LSTM) neural networks to predict Taekwondo kick force from data  
35 obtained by inertial measurement unit (IMU) sensors, providing a cost-effective alternative to  
36 traditional force plates in sports biomechanics. **Methods:** IMU (Noraxon Ultium) data from 13  
37 International Taekwon-do Federation (ITF) athletes (9 training, 4 validation) across genders  
38 and skill levels (expert in training, expert/advanced in validation) were collected. Sensors were  
39 attached to a foot, shank, and thigh kicking leg. Athletes performed turning kicks in diverse  
40 stances towards a padded force plate (2000 Hz) attached to a wall. LSTM models were trained  
41 to predict kick force value, and trained on capturing the IMU data from sensors placed on the  
42 lower limb. **Results:** The trained LSTM models showed accuracy on the training data (R-square  
43 values 0.972 - 0.978). Feature validity analysis highlighted the importance of ankle dorsiflexion  
44 in shaping the model score. Model performance on the validation dataset was less consistent,  
45 ranging from good accuracy (RMSE 6.91) to poor accuracy (RMSE over 30), depending on the  
46 participant tested. **Conclusions:** This study demonstrated the potential of LSTM models  
47 combined with IMU data to predict Taekwondo kick forces. Although the validation  
48 performance indicated the need for further model refinement or the inclusion of additional input  
49 variables, the results highlighted the feasibility of predicting force values without relying on a  
50 force plate. This approach could enhance the accessibility of field studies conducted outside  
51 laboratory settings.

52

53 **Keywords:** Taekwondo; Inertial Measurement Units; Machine Learning; Force Analysis

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## 57 **1. Introduction**

58 Taekwon-do is a dynamic martial art that relies heavily on complex biomechanical movements  
59 [5, 27]. Taekwon-do techniques involve the sequential energy transfer from larger body  
60 segments (hips, torso) to smaller segments (arms, legs) [3]. Among these techniques, rotational  
61 kicks are particularly challenging because they require precise coordination of spatio-temporal  
62 parameters such as speed, acceleration, and joint alignment to generate maximum force [11,  
63 23]. Accurate measurement of the force produced during such kicks is crucial for performance  
64 analysis, injury prevention, and training optimization [25]. Traditionally, this force is measured  
65 using force plates, which, although highly accurate, are expensive, cumbersome, and limited to

66 laboratory environments. Consequently, there is growing interest in alternative solutions that  
67 can measure or predict kick force in real-world settings [29].

68 In recent years, statistical computing based on Machine Learning (ML) has become more  
69 accessible due to the availability of many ready-made libraries. In martial arts, ML applications  
70 mainly focus on two key areas: (1) using models to detect or predict movement and combat  
71 performance [4, 35], and (2) performing advanced analysis to discover complex relationships  
72 in sensor signals (treated as time-series data) or to prevent injuries [6, 20-22]. To support such  
73 studies, inertial measurement units (IMUs) [14] have emerged as a promising solution for  
74 capturing spatiotemporal parameters of athletic movements. IMUs are lightweight, portable  
75 devices that can record acceleration, angular velocity, and orientation data, making them  
76 particularly well-suited for biomechanical research conducted outside controlled laboratory  
77 environments.

78 Two primary approaches can be used to predict desired kinematic variables in martial arts  
79 biomechanics. The first approach utilizes standard descriptive statistics to extract specific  
80 features from the acquired data, followed by predictive modeling using techniques such as  
81 regression analysis, K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), or Support Vector Machines (SVM) [13, 14].  
82 The second approach analyzes the entire time-series data, treating captured motion and  
83 associated variables as signals over a defined period to predict the target variable. Long Short-  
84 Term Memory (LSTM) models, in particular, show significant potential for analyzing complete  
85 motion sequences, such as full kick executions, without the need to manually extract key  
86 features [14]. While LSTMs demand substantial computational resources and larger datasets  
87 for optimal performance, they offer great promise for applications like kinetic analysis, injury  
88 prediction, and performance optimization. By capturing temporal dependencies within  
89 sequences, LSTMs provide deeper insights into complex biomechanical movements [1, 34, 36].  
90 Furthermore, inspecting feature importance within machine learning models is an established  
91 method for gaining a better understanding of the data and its underlying patterns [28]. Together,  
92 these approaches highlight the potential of machine learning to advance biomechanical research  
93 and enhance martial arts training methodologies. This study aims to evaluate the feasibility of  
94 using an LSTM model to predict the force values of Taekwon-do turning kicks based on  
95 spatiotemporal parameters collected from IMU sensors. Specifically, it seeks to: (1) investigate  
96 the determinants of force generation by analyzing the importance of features within the LSTM  
97 models, and (2) evaluate the model's predictive performance on data outside the training set,  
98 thereby assessing its potential for practical applications.

99

## 100 2. Materials and Methods

### 101 2.1. Participants

102 The study involved 13 athletes: 9 participants (5 females, 4 males) provided training data for  
103 the model, while 4 participants (3 males, 1 female) were used for testing its accuracy on new  
104 data (Table 1). All participants were master-level athletes with over 5 years of experience,  
105 except for two underage testers (16 years old, blue belts, advanced level). All participant  
106 declared that they preferred kicking leg is right. Parental consent was obtained for minors, while  
107 adults signed consent themselves. The study was approved by the Human Subjects Research  
108 Committee of Jan Długosz University (KE-O/4/2022), meeting ethical research standards.

109

110 Table 1. Characteristics of the participants (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, minimum and maximum  
111 values).

Parameter	Age [years]	Body mass [kg]	Body Height [cm]	Age [years]	Body Weight [kg]	Body Height [cm]
Female	Model (N = 5)			Outside (N = 1)		
Mean $\pm$ sd	28 $\pm$ 5.34	64.2 $\pm$ 6.5	163 $\pm$ 7.21	16	63	169
(Min, Max)	(24, 37)	(57, 72)	(152, 170)			
Male	Model (N = 4)			Outside (N = 3)		
Mean $\pm$ sd	29.3 $\pm$ 9.18	77 $\pm$ 8.12	180.3 $\pm$ 1.71	17.3 $\pm$ 2.31	70 $\pm$ 4.36	176.7 $\pm$ 4.51
(Min, Max)	(24, 43)	(72, 89)	(178, 182)	(16, 20)	(67, 75)	(172, 181)

112

### 113 2.2. Techniques description

114 The turning kick is a dynamic Taekwon-do technique relying on angular momentum initialized  
115 by core rotation driven by the hip muscles, transferring torque through the body to the kicking  
116 leg. The knee flexes to reduce the moment of inertia, allowing for greater angular velocity,  
117 before extending rapidly to maximize foot velocity. Two variations were analysed:

- 118 1. The sports stance: A flexible stance used in sparring, prioritizes mobility and adaptability  
119 with no formal restrictions, allowing practitioners to adjust their positioning based on  
120 situational demands. The dorsal foot (instep) is typically used as the striking surface for the  
121 turning kick [30].
- 122 2. The traditional stance (L-Stance or Niunja Sogi in ITF Taekwon-Do) is an “L”-shaped  
123 stance used for power-breaking. The front foot points forward, the rear foot is perpendicular,  
124 and the back heel aligns with the front instep. This stance allows greater torso rotation,

125 critical for generating power in strikes and kicks. Typically used in board-breaking  
126 demonstrations, it prioritizes maximum force, with the plantar foot (sole) as the striking  
127 surface [30].

128

### 129 **2.3. Setup and protocol**

130 A combined method was used to measure impact forces and segment kinematics during kicks.  
131 A padded force plate (AMTI, model MC12-2K, 2000 series, Watertown, MA, USA) served as  
132 the target, measuring ground reaction forces in three dimensions synchronized with a motion  
133 capture system (Noraxon, MR 3.18, Scottsdale, AZ, USA) for precise timing.

134 For kinematic analysis, three wireless Inertial Measurement Units (IMUs) - Noraxon Ultium  
135 (2000 Hz, 4000 g) were placed on the kicking foot (the lateral malleolus), shank, and thigh.

136 Both devices data transfer was synchronized using add-on MyoSync, responsible for data  
137 synchronization and integrity of signals over time.

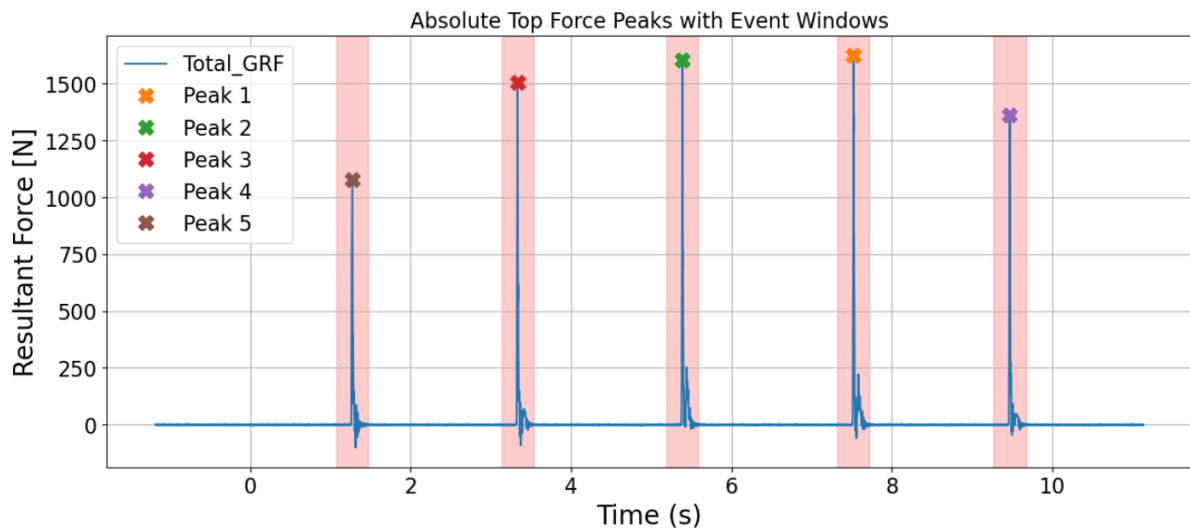
138 After a 10-minute warm-up of dynamic stretches and shadow kicks (kicks performed without a  
139 target), sensors were attached, and participants performed five maximal kicks per condition  
140 with one-minute rest intervals and alternating legs. Each participant completed 40 kicks (5 reps  
141 x 4 conditions x 2 legs).

142 Thus, the data set included 90 strikes per technique (9 participants x 2 legs x 5 strikes).  
143 Validation involved predicting 40 strikes for the sports kick and 30 for the traditional version,  
144 ensuring minimal fatigue or learning effects.

145

### 146 **2.4. Data collection**

147 For each participant, five strikes per kicking technique were recorded. Data from the Noraxon  
148 MR 3.18 system (with MyoMotion module) was exported to Excel in \*.slk format, then  
149 converted to \*.xlsx for analysis. Using Python libraries (pandas, numpy, matplotlib, scipy),  
150 acceleration data was processed, converting units from milli-g to m/s<sup>2</sup>. Force peaks were  
151 detected (threshold: 300 N), and filtering isolated the kicks. Each peak was segmented within  
152 a 200 ms window before and after the maximum force value. Data was visualized, summarizing  
153 event times, peak forces, and resultant accelerations, with individual events saved for further  
154 analysis (Fig. 1).



155  
156 Figure 1. Visualization of peak detection using a sliding window for event segmentation.

157  
158 Excel (.xlsx) files containing acceleration and time data were processed to calculate velocity  
159 for each sensor axis using a custom compute\_velocity function. The updated files, including  
160 velocity columns, were saved and used for model input or testing. Strike events were identified  
161 using a 12 m/s<sup>2</sup> acceleration threshold, and key parameters (strike duration, peak force,  
162 accelerations, velocities) were extracted if conditions were met. Results were compiled into a  
163 DataFrame for analysis, descriptive statistics, and model validation. The code is available on  
164 GitHub ([https://github.com/Dareczin/tkd\\_data\\_preparation\\_slicing\\_for\\_events](https://github.com/Dareczin/tkd_data_preparation_slicing_for_events)).

165  
166 **2.5. Model architecture**

167 This study used an LSTM network to predict the maximum ground reaction force (GRF) from  
168 sequential sensor data. Inputs included **standard** accelerometer features, along with derived  
169 metrics like resultant acceleration and velocity. The model featured three stacked bidirectional  
170 LSTM layers with 50 hidden units, capturing complex temporal patterns. Dropout  
171 regularization (0.3) was applied to reduce overfitting.

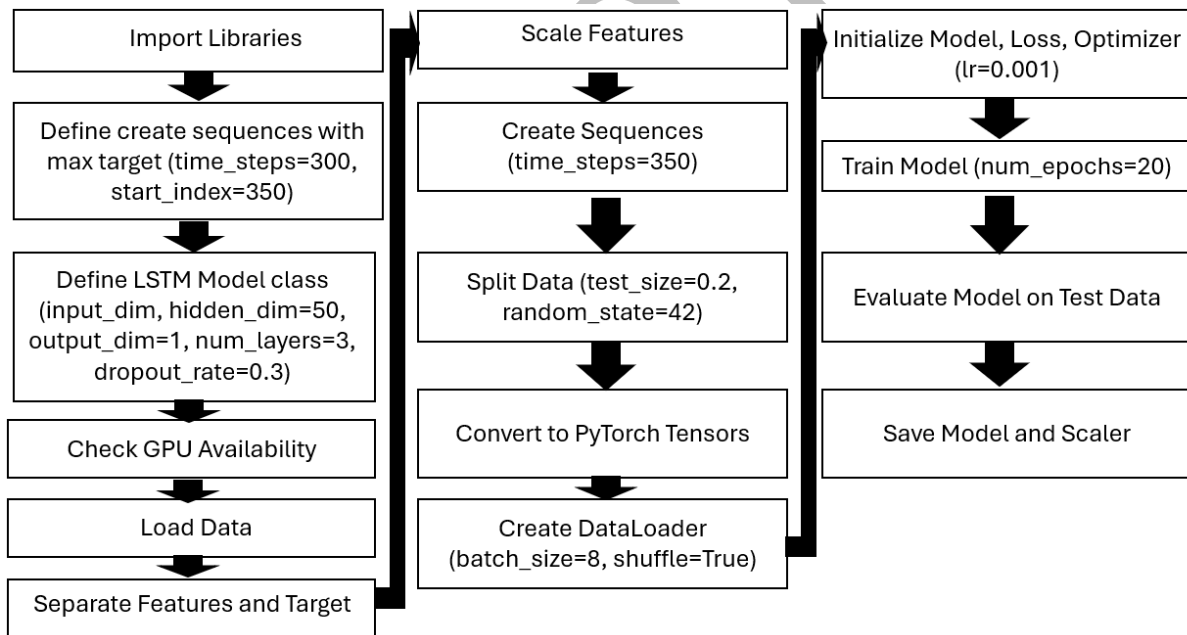
172 Training used the Adam optimizer (learning rate: 0.001) with Mean Squared Error (MSE) as  
173 the loss function. An 80/20 train-test split was applied, and the model was trained for 20 epochs  
174 with a batch size of 8 to optimize memory usage (32 GB RAM). The trained model and feature  
175 scaler were serialized for future predictions. Feature codes, detailed in Table 2, follow naming  
176 conventions established by the lab, starting at 2.

177  
178 Table 2. Overview of the 24 selected features and their descriptions, where x denote  
179 anteroposterior direction, y denote mediolateral direction, z – longitudinal direction

Feature name	Description
2x, 2y, 2z	acceleration along each axis of the foot sensor
3x, 3y, 3z	acceleration along each axis of the shank sensor
4x, 4y, 4z	acceleration along each axis of the thigh sensor
resultant_acceleration_1	resultant acceleration from 2x, 2y, 2z foot sensor
resultant_acceleration_2	resultant acceleration from 3x, 3y, 3z shank sensor
resultant_acceleration_3	resultant acceleration from 4x, 4y, 4z thigh sensor
velocity_2x, 2y, 2z	velocity computed from 2x, 2y, 2z foot sensor for each axis
velocity_3x, 3y, 3z	velocity computed from 3x, 3y, 3z shank sensor for each axis
velocity_4x, 4y, 4z	velocity computed from 4x, 4y, 4z thigh sensor for each axis
resultant_velocity_1	resultant velocity computed from velocity_2 axes
resultant_velocity_2	resultant velocity computed from velocity_3 axes
resultant_velocity_3	resultant velocity computed from velocity_4 axes

180

181 After training, the model's performance on the test set was evaluated using the R-squared  
 182 metric. The model was set to evaluation mode, predictions were generated, and the R-squared  
 183 score was calculated. Four models were created for separate kick-stance pairs using the same  
 184 code, each run in Jupyter Lab v. 4.11. Figure 2 illustrates the process and algorithm.



185

186 Figure 2. Flowchart of the model development process with parameter configuration.

187

188 Feature importance analysis was performed on the baseline model by shuffling feature values  
 189 and running 100 iterations to compare average importance weights across techniques. The  
 190 baseline R-square was calculated on the original test set. Then, each feature was permuted  
 191 individually, while others remained unchanged. The drop in R-square after each permutation  
 192 indicated feature importance, with averages computed similarly.

193 Model verification used external data from participants excluded from training. Predictions  
 194 involved loading the model, selecting the same features, and excluding Total\_GRF (force).  
 195 Each event was processed separately, and predictions were compared to actual force values for  
 196 specific kicks. Accuracy was evaluated using RMSE for individual participants and the overall  
 197 dataset. All models and the corresponding dataset are available on the Zenodo open repository  
 198 at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10895668>.

199

### 200 3. Results

#### 201 3.1. Descriptive statistics of kicks

202 Table 3 provides descriptive statistics for two techniques in both styles, based on data from nine  
 203 participants included in the model. Since gender was not a factor in the analysis, no division by  
 204 gender was necessary. The table presents indices recorded at the moment of peak force, which  
 205 is the model's target prediction value. This data offered a reference for analysing feature  
 206 importance and understanding how specific variables influence the model, including the impact  
 207 of performance variability on training.

208

209 Table 3. Descriptive statistics for the model participants across all kick variations performed at  
 210 maximal force (Max Force), including mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, as well as minimum and  
 211 maximum values.

Variable	Mean $\pm$ sd	(Min, Max)
<b>Turning kick in sport stance version</b>		
Max Force [N]	2005 $\pm$ 820	(625, 4228)
Foot acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	142.06 $\pm$ 60.56	(30.01, 295.52)
Shank acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	52.93 $\pm$ 22.31	(16.26, 136.50)
Thigh acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	60.95 $\pm$ 35.78	(12.24, 196.32)
Foot velocity [m/s]	12.53 $\pm$ 3.84	(5.40, 21.00)
Shank velocity [m/s]	8.42 $\pm$ 2.16	(4.18, 14.80)
Tight velocity [m/s]	8.03 $\pm$ 2.75	(1.47, 14.57)
<b>Turning kick in traditional stance version</b>		
Max Force [N]	1428 $\pm$ 566	(513, 3942)
Foot acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	134.15 $\pm$ 65.54	(37.54, 305.44)
Shank acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	42.77 $\pm$ 13.65	(11.00, 69.59)
Thigh acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	61.39 $\pm$ 36.81	(17.77, 177.33)
Foot velocity [m/s]	10.91 $\pm$ 4.12	(2.49, 19.03)
Shank velocity [m/s]	7.45 $\pm$ 1.70	(4.20, 10.64)
Tight velocity [m/s]	7.60 $\pm$ 2.50	(2.89, 15.40)

212

213 The lowest force values were recorded for the turning kick from a traditional stance, with a  
 214 mean of 1427.89 N. Interestingly, in this variation, the IMU data from the thigh exceeded that  
 215 from the shank, a distinctive observation. In comparison, the traditional stance generally



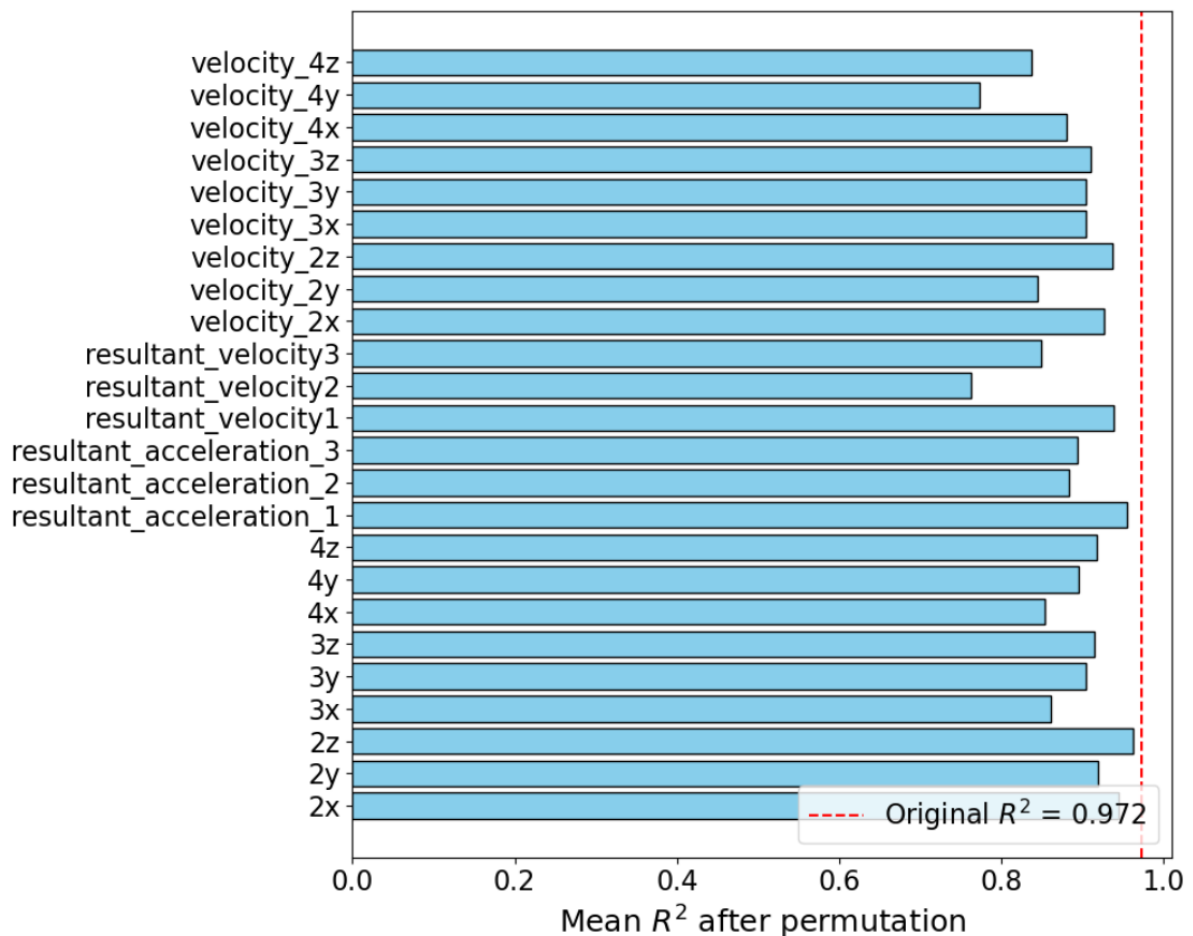
216 showed lower statistical values than the sports stance, which had a mean force of 2004.71 N.  
 217 Although the mean force difference between the two styles was notable, the range of minimum  
 218 to maximum values was considerably smaller.

219

220 **3.2. Model evaluation with permuted feature importance**

221 **3.2.1. Turning kick in sport version**

222 Each model was evaluated independently, beginning with the turning kick in the sports version.  
 223 The LSTM model for force prediction achieved a strong baseline R-squared score of 0.972.  
 224 Permutation importance analysis identified key velocity-related features, such as the vertical  
 225 and rotational components of thigh velocity ('velocity\_4y' with a drop to 0.773 and 'velocity\_4z'  
 226 with a drop to 0.837) and the resultant velocity of the shank ('resultant\_velocity\_2' with a drop  
 227 to 0.763), as critical for accurate force predictions. These features caused substantial declines  
 228 in the R-squared score when permuted, highlighting their significance. Additionally,  
 229 acceleration features such as '3x' (drop to 0.860) played a notable role. Whereas features such  
 230 as '2z' (0.962), '3z' (0.914), and '4z' (0.918), representing accelerations along the z-axis,  
 231 exhibited minimal impact on R-square scores when permuted (Fig. 3).

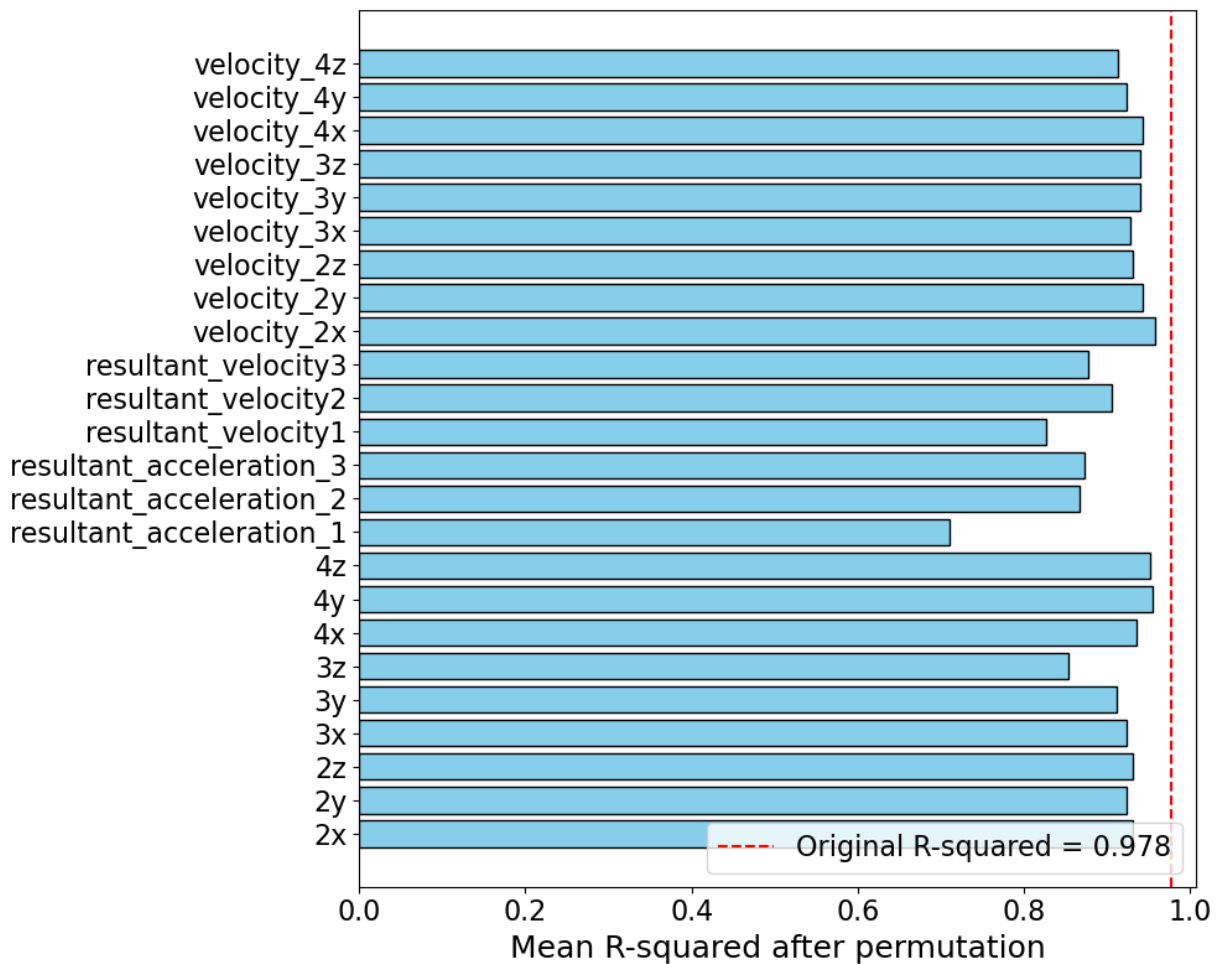


232

233 Figure 3. R-squared scores for each feature after 100 permutation runs in the kick model (sport  
 234 version).  
 235

236 **3.2.2. Turning kick in traditional version**

237 The next model focused on the turning kick in the traditional version, achieving a high baseline  
 238 R-square score of 0.978. Permutation importance analysis identified several key features, with  
 239 'resultant\_acceleration\_1' showing the largest drop in R-square score (to 0.711) when permuted,  
 240 emphasizing its critical role in accurate force predictions. Additionally, 'resultant\_velocity\_1',  
 241 which was linked to acceleration data, also displayed a noticeable drop (to 0.827). Another  
 242 important feature was the rotational axis of the shank sensor's acceleration data '3x', which  
 243 dropped to 0.854. Compared to the sports version, this model exhibited fewer features with  
 244 significant drops in R-square scores (Fig. 4).



245  
 246 Figure 4. R-squared scores for each feature after 100 permutation runs in the kick model  
 247 (traditional version).  
 248

249 **3.3. Descriptive statistics for outside model participants**

250 The available data for testing involved 4 participants, with data from only 3 participants being  
 251 usable for the turning kick in the traditional version. Descriptive statistics revealed similar  
 252 trends in the switching of acceleration/velocity order for the traditional version of the turning  
 253 kick, compared to other conditions, which aligned with the data from the model set (Table 4).

254

255 Table 4. Descriptive statistics of kicks for outside model participants across all kick variations  
 256 performed at maximal force (Max Force), including mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, as well as  
 257 minimum and maximum values.

Variable	Mean $\pm$ sd	(Min, Max)
<b>Turning kick in sport stance version</b>		
Max Force [N]	1548 $\pm$ 573	(656, 3179)
Foot acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	107.72 $\pm$ 41.03	(48.60, 189.18)
Shank acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	62.45 $\pm$ 5.91	(27.03, 201.85)
Thigh acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	74.40 $\pm$ 57.51	(26.94, 228.02)
Foot velocity [m/s]	11.35 $\pm$ 3.07	(6.61, 16.15)
Shank velocity [m/s]	9.56 $\pm$ 2.08	(6.47, 15.35)
Tight velocity [m/s]	8.59 $\pm$ 3.72	(4.41, 18.82)
<b>Turning kick in traditional stance version</b>		
Max Force [N]	1631 $\pm$ 1182	(545, 5503)
Foot acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	62.51 $\pm$ 14.31	(27.49, 82.35)
Shank acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	77.29 $\pm$ 32.19	(36.71, 135.72)
Thigh acceleration [m/s <sup>2</sup> ]	91.32 $\pm$ 58.34	(27.76, 197.33)
Foot velocity [m/s]	8.82 $\pm$ 1.24	(6.75, 11.64)
Shank velocity [m/s]	9.83 $\pm$ 2.21	(6.98, 14.08)
Tight velocity [m/s]	10.57 $\pm$ 4.14	(5.89, 17.55)

258

### 259 **3.4. Model performance for outside model participants**

260 The comparison between observed Max Force values and model predictions showed varying  
 261 accuracy across participants and trials (Table 5). Participant 1 exhibited strong performance,  
 262 with RMSE values below 50 N, indicating minimal errors. In contrast, Participant 2 had larger  
 263 errors, with RMSEs exceeding 100 N in some trials. Dynamic tasks, like Participant 3's trial  
 264 with a Max Force of 3031 N, led to significant prediction errors of nearly 2000 N (RMSE =  
 265 38.3). Participant 4 showed RMSE values over 20, highlighting the need for model  
 266 improvement. In the traditional stance, turning kicks varied in RMSE, reflecting fluctuations in  
 267 model accuracy. For Participant 1, dynamic scenarios like the right-leg kick showed large  
 268 prediction errors, with a true Max Force of 5502 N predicted as 1582 N (RMSE > 41).  
 269 Participant 2 had moderate errors (RMSE between 30.9 and 31.8). Participant 3 displayed  
 270 smaller RMSE values in low-force trials but significant overestimations in high-force cases,  
 271 such as a true Max Force of 931 N overestimated by over 700 N (RMSE = 27.2).

272

273 Table 5. Model performance for each participant and condition, presented separately.

Participant	Side	Mean true values [N]	Mean predictions [N]	RMSE
<b>Turning kick in sport stance version</b>				
1	left	1573	1620	6.91
	right	2703	1465	38.27
2	left	867	1915	32.37
	right	1780	2094	17.71
3	left	1399	2028	25.08
	right	1535	1320	14.64
4	left	1125	2008	29.72
	right	1475	2098	25.62
<b>Turning kick in traditional stance version</b>				
1	left	1553	1502	7.18
	right	3321	1603	41.45
2	left	1172	1013	31.83
	right	1030	1986	30.92
3	left	759	584	13.23
	right	888	1630	27.23

274

275 **4. Discussion**

276 This study aimed to evaluate the feasibility of using an LSTM model to predict the force  
277 values of Taekwondo turning kicks based on spatiotemporal parameters collected from IMU  
278 sensors. Specifically, it sought to: (1) investigate the determinants of force generation by  
279 analyzing the importance of features within the LSTM models, and (2) evaluate the model's  
280 predictive performance on data outside the training set, thereby assessing its potential for  
281 practical applications.

282 LSTM models are currently used for predicting different variables related to martial arts  
283 for movement prediction [12] or health-related properties of a wider spectrum [19]. As this type  
284 of analysis is quite new, there are not any papers that directly reflect this work. Existing models  
285 aim to recognize specific techniques based on kinematic data. The paper of Barbosa, et al. [2],  
286 reveals high accuracy of movement recognition in taekwondo techniques with the value of  
287 accuracy 0.991 [2]. This value corresponds to the accuracy of the model obtained in this study  
288 in values ranging from 0.972 to 0.984. This is outside justification of method correctness, at  
289 least at the starting point of this model.

290 The analysis of external model data often proved inaccurate. The turning kick in the  
291 sports version showed the best performance, with the lowest RMSE values. However,  
292 predictions missing over 1000 N in a range of 600 – 4300 N fail to meet the goal of practical

293 training applications, aside from the force plate's immobility issue. Despite limited comparable  
294 studies, we discuss potential reasons for this lack of accuracy. Only one participant  
295 demonstrated that predicting force without a force plate might be feasible, suggesting this  
296 approach holds future potential.

297 Participants in the new dataset differed in age and experience from those in the trained  
298 sample, which, in traditional research, would be unacceptable due to the importance of  
299 homogeneity for comparison. However, for the model's practical application, it must adapt to  
300 all training participants, not just those resembling the trained sample. Participant 1, a master-  
301 level athlete, initially aligned well with the model but displayed unexpected variability. His  
302 exceptionally powerful right-leg strikes altered the time-series data patterns, leading to poor  
303 predictions. This outcome was unforeseen, as initial indicators suggested compatibility. From  
304 previous studies, Taekwon-do martial arts did not exhibit specific lateralization between lower  
305 limbs in their strikes [31].

306 Other participants were less experienced and younger, which could have led to differences in  
307 kick kinematics. If their coordination differed, the LSTM model might have been sensitive to  
308 these variations. Since the bidirectional LSTM model relies on both forward and backward  
309 relationships between features processed as signals in windows, any irregular fluctuations  
310 compared to the trained data could result in prediction errors. This hypothesis is supported by  
311 previous studies that have explored differences in the kinematics of the turning (roundhouse)  
312 kick between novices and experts. These differences were not only observed in muscle  
313 activation but also overall kinematic metrics, including the generated force [23].

314 Participants had the freedom to adjust their distance from the target independently, particularly  
315 in the sports stance. Numerous studies have highlighted the importance of distance in turning  
316 (roundhouse) kicks [7, 9, 10, 15]. Variations in distance are related to the concept of effective  
317 mass, which refers to the utilization of one's body mass in generating force. Insufficient distance  
318 or poor timing at the moment of contact with the target can lead to a decrease in the generated  
319 force values [17, 18, 32].

320 The first model explored was the turning kick in the sports version. None of the individual axis  
321 accelerations showed a significant drop in R-squared scores; however, the most important  
322 determinants, according to the permutation feature analysis, were the resultant acceleration of  
323 the shank (resultant\_acceleration\_2) and the acceleration of the thigh  
324 (resultant\_acceleration\_3). Since this is a circular motion, the non-linearity of the kick may  
325 explain the lack of dominance of a single axis, with the overall acceleration of these segments  
326 being crucial. Therefore, developing strong flexion strength in the hip and knee joints is

327 recommended for this kick, which aligns with findings from Moreira, et al. [26], where  
328 isokinetic strength in these areas was also shown to be important. In contrast to previous studies  
329 on the effects of target kinematics [16, 33], maximum foot velocity was not a critical factor for  
330 overall performance based on its resultant values. However, when analyzing the data for each  
331 axis separately, the vertical component of foot velocity emerged as important. This highlights  
332 the significance of foot dorsiflexion speed in generating kick force. It is recommended that  
333 athletes focus on strengthening the tibialis anterior muscles to enhance dorsiflexion speed as a  
334 key factor in improving kick power.

335 The permutation feature analysis of the second model reveals noticeable differences in the R-  
336 square scores of selected features, supporting the need for separate analyses of the two stances.  
337 The primary difference in the traditional version lies in the contact area with the target. Since  
338 the plantar side of the foot in the metatarsal joint region strikes the shield, the foot must be fixed  
339 in position before contact, leading to different kinematics at the end of the technique execution.  
340 In this model, the most important determinant was the resultant acceleration of the foot  
341 (resultant\_acceleration\_1), suggesting that the timing of foot position fixation is crucial for  
342 predicting the force of the kick. As a practical application, trainers could use high-speed  
343 cameras (e.g., 100 frames per second or higher) to assess the timing of ankle movements during  
344 this technique. Feature importance analysis does not equate to correlation, so we cannot directly  
345 conclude that later fixation leads to a stronger impact. In this model, shank velocity and  
346 acceleration were less important, but the kinematics of the segments remained significant. This  
347 challenges the assumption of a proximal-to-distal pattern being crucial for the turning kick in  
348 ITF Taekwondo athletes [8, 24].

#### 349 *Limitations of the study*

350 The permutation feature analysis highlights important technical nuances that trainers should  
351 consider during motor learning. While it identifies key components influencing force  
352 predictions, it also reveals the model's limitations with the current sample, which orders us to  
353 be cautious about strength of those evidence. Testing on new data suggests that the model is  
354 not suitable for general use, possibly due to the small sample size of nine participants or the  
355 need for refinement based on permutation analysis insights. Higher sample size of testing data  
356 outside the model would also help to better understand which group is suitable for using this  
357 models, as single successful assessments indicate that there might be a profile of athletes that  
358 could utilize this solution. Expanding the feature set, using sliding windows, or adjusting model

359 parameters could improve performance, but computational constraints, such as a 32 GB  
360 memory limit of device used for training models, restrict batch sizes and cause system errors.  
361 These limitations emphasize the need for further optimization and larger datasets. Additionally,  
362 using more number of sensors could fill the gap in prediction ability of proposed models.

363 The key takeaway from this paper is that it is indeed possible to train an effective model to  
364 predict the force of a kick without the need for a force plate. The main objective of this study  
365 has been achieved, and we aim to promote the idea of eliminating stationary equipment for  
366 sports analysis conducted outside of laboratory settings.

367

## 368 **5. Conclusions**

369 This study rigorously evaluated the capability of Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) models to  
370 predict the force of taekwondo kicks using inertial measurement unit (IMU) data. The LSTM  
371 models demonstrated impressive predictive performance, with R-squared values ranging from  
372 0.972 to 0.978 across different kick stances. This suggests a high level of accuracy in capturing  
373 the nuanced dynamics of taekwondo techniques.

374 Feature importance analysis pinpointed specific kinematic variables - particularly the velocity  
375 of the thigh and the rotational velocity of the shank - as key determinants of kick force. These  
376 insights offer actionable guidance for technique optimization, highlighting the importance of  
377 both segmental velocities and acceleration patterns of the ankle joint motion in generating  
378 powerful kicks.

379 While these findings are encouraging, the model's predictive accuracy was less consistent when  
380 tested with data from new participants. Differences between predicted and actual force values,  
381 highlighted by RMSE values, indicate limitations in generalization across a broader athlete  
382 spectrum.

383 Future research should focus on addressing these limitations by expanding the training dataset,  
384 refining model architecture, and incorporating a wider array of kinematic and kinetic variables.

385 These advancements hold the potential to significantly enhance the predictive power and  
386 broaden the applicability of the model across various sports biomechanics applications.

387

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