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1 **The effect of arm position on classification of hand gestures with**  
2 **intramuscular EMG**

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22 **Abstract**

23 The arm position affects discrimination between upper limb motion classes when using surface EMG  
24 (sEMG). In this study, the effect of arm position on motion class discrimination was investigated using  
25 intramuscular EMG (iEMG). Eight able-bodied subjects performed five motion classes (hand grasp, hand

1 open, rest, wrist extension, wrist flexion) in four different arm positions (0, 45, 90, 135 degrees). Three  
2 classification scenarios were evaluated using Hudgins' time domain features and a Bayes classifier; within  
3 position classification (WPC), across position classification (APC), and between position classification  
4 (BPC). The same analysis was performed using sEMG and with combined surface and iEMG. For WPC,  
5 similar classification accuracies were obtained using the different types of EMG (93-98%). The mean  
6 absolute value and waveform length were associated with the highest classification accuracies compared to  
7 zero crossing and slope sign changes for WPC. For APC, classification accuracies dropped to 85-95%, and  
8 for BPC, classification accuracies dropped to 69-83% with hand opening being the least discriminable  
9 motion class. The degree of decreased performance was computed as: 1) APC/WPC:  $0.94 \pm 0.03$  (sEMG) and  
10  $0.92 \pm 0.05$  (iEMG), and 2) BPC/WPC:  $0.81 \pm 0.06$  (sEMG) and  $0.78 \pm 0.12$  (iEMG), indicating that arm  
11 position affects iEMG in a similar degree as sEMG, which is a practicality issue for the clinical application  
12 of pattern recognition based control schemes.

13 **Keywords:** Surface EMG, Intramuscular EMG, Prosthetics, Arm position, upper  
14 extremity

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17  
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## 19 1. Introduction

20 Over the past two decades, the research within the area of prosthetic devices and control has advanced. It is  
21 possible to obtain high performance of prosthetic devices that have more than one degree of freedom (DoF)  
22 and can perform some of the basic tasks a human hand can do. Surface electromyography (sEMG) signals  
23 have been one of the major neural control sources of the electrically powered devices; and various control  
24 strategies have been used to extract the user's intended movement with EMG signals. Clinical development  
25 has gone from ON-OFF systems to direct and proportional control although with limited functionalities with  
26 regards to dexterous prostheses (1-4). Advanced signal processing approaches such as pattern recognition  
27 (5) (PR) and regression algorithms (6) have shown to provide the ability to control multiple DOFs. In the PR  
28 scheme, a set of features containing temporal, spectral or spatial information about the acquired signals is  
29 extracted and used as input to a classifier; which determines the subject's intended motion. Many research  
30 studies have used myoelectric PR control strategies for upper limb prosthetics and reported high  
31 classification accuracies using various pre-processing, features extraction and classification algorithms (5, 7,  
32 8) though with limited clinical usability. Recent studies have shown that performance of PR control schemes  
33 in real world conditions can significantly deteriorate as a result of electrode shift, variation in contraction  
34 force, muscle fatigue over time, and electrode orientations (9-13). In these studies subjects were asked to

1 perform several classes of hand or wrist motions in a specific position. The most commonly used position is  
2 when the hand is upright naturally.

3 When subjects perform hand motions in different positions, the performance of the PR control scheme may  
4 be affected. This has been reported in a couple of studies where it was shown that the arm position increased  
5 the classification error when using training data from one position and testing in another position (7, 9, 14-  
6 16). Often a number of tasks is performed in a seated position where movements are performed as uniformly  
7 as possible to obtain good discrimination of the training data; however, the performance under actual use or  
8 testing will often be reduced due to the more task oriented usage in these scenarios compared to the training  
9 data that are used for calibration (14). This may account for some of the performance differences observed  
10 between offline studies and clinical use (7). In the few previous studies that have investigated the effect of  
11 limb position, high intra-position (within position classification – WPC) classification accuracies can be  
12 obtained, but the inter-position (between position classification – BPC) classification accuracies were much  
13 lower. To overcome this a few solutions have been proposed such as integration of accelerometers,  
14 identification of position invariant features or simply calibrating the pattern recognition algorithms in  
15 different positions (7, 9, 14-16); however, this prolongs the calibration time. The studies, where the effect of  
16 limb position has been investigated, have used sEMG. Intramuscular EMG (iEMG) has been thought to  
17 possess properties that may overcome some of the limitations associated with non-invasive systems (17). For  
18 example, Kamavuako et al. (18) showed that the classification accuracy of a myoelectric control system with  
19 combined sEMG and iEMG was superior to sEMG alone. There is also a body of evidence comparing the  
20 individual performance of sEMG and iEMG for classification of hand and wrist movements, and generally a  
21 similar performance has been found (19-22).

22 Therefore, the aim of our study was to investigate how the effect of arm position affects the classification  
23 performance of different motor tasks using iEMG. Surface EMG were also recorded to validate previous  
24 findings and to be able to use a combination of surface and intramuscular EMG (cEMG). Lastly, it was  
25 investigated how the Hudgins' time domain features (2) are affected by arm position. This was evaluated  
26 using different classification scenarios to assess the intra- and inter-class classification accuracies.

## 27 **2. Methods**

### 28 *2.1. Subjects*

29 Eight male healthy subjects were recruited (31±4 years old). All subjects gave their written informed consent  
30 prior to participation. All procedures were approved by the local ethical committee (N-20140014).

### 31 *2.2. Recordings*

#### 32 *2.2.1. Surface EMG*

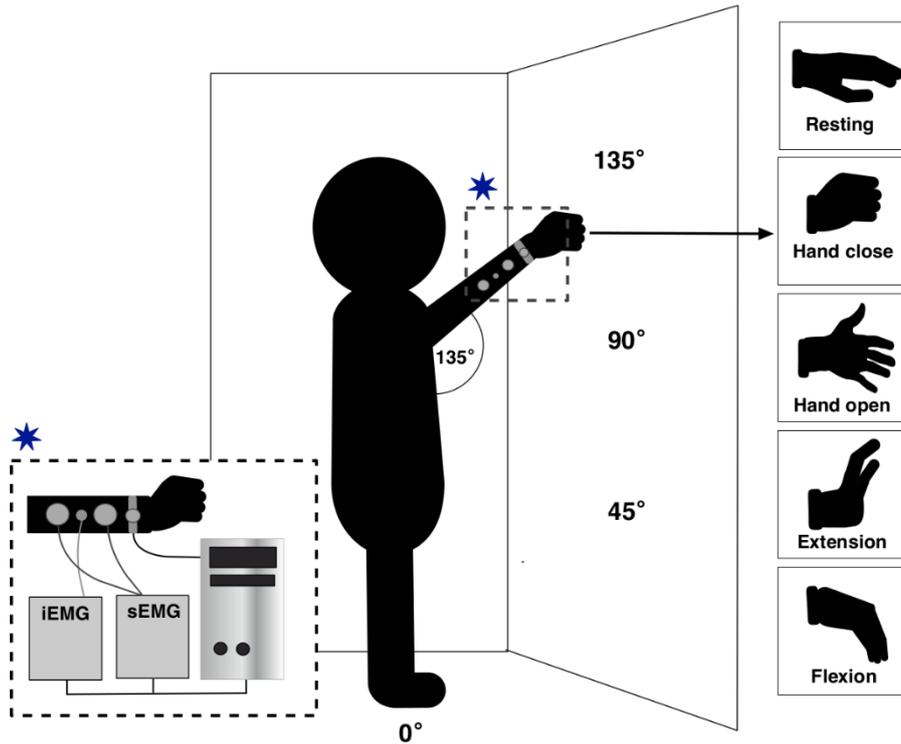
1 Two sEMG electrodes (one channel, AMBU self-adhesive EMG electrodes) were placed on the extensor  
2 muscles on the forearm with 2 cm between them. Similarly, two electrodes (one channel) were placed on the  
3 flexor muscles on the forearm. A moist wrist band was used as reference. The sEMG was sampled with 10  
4 kHz and a gain of 2000 (AnEMG12, OT bioelettronica, Torino, Italy).

### 5 *2.2.2. Intramuscular EMG*

6 One pair of custom-made iEMG wire electrodes was inserted in the flexor and extensor muscle on the  
7 forearm between the two sEMG electrodes. Intramuscular wire electrodes were made of Teflon-coated  
8 stainless steel (A-M Systems, Carlsborg WA diameter 50 $\mu$ m) and were inserted into each muscle with a  
9 sterilized 25-gauge hypodermic needle. The insulated wires were cut to expose 3mm of wire from the tip  
10 (18). The needle was inserted to a depth of approximately 10-15 millimetres below the muscle fascia and  
11 then removed to leave the wire electrodes inside the muscle (18). The same reference was used for sEMG  
12 and iEMG. The iEMG was sampled with 10 kHz and a gain of 1000.

### 13 *2.3. Experimental setup*

14 The electrodes were mounted on the subject's right arm, and the signal quality was checked. The subject was  
15 standing and facing a wall where different positions were marked (see Figure 1). The subject was asked to  
16 perform five motion classes in four different positions. The four different positions were measured between  
17 the right arm and the torso in the sagittal plane and marked on the wall. The following positions were  
18 measured: 0 degrees, 45 degrees, 90 degrees and 135 degrees. 0 degrees were not marked on the wall since  
19 the arm was hanging down the side of the subject. In each position five motion classes were performed four  
20 times lasting for four seconds each: 1) hand grasp (palmar grasp), 2) hand open, 3) rest, 4) wrist extension,  
21 and 5) wrist flexion. The order of the positions and the motion classes were randomized using MATLAB's  
22 random number generator.



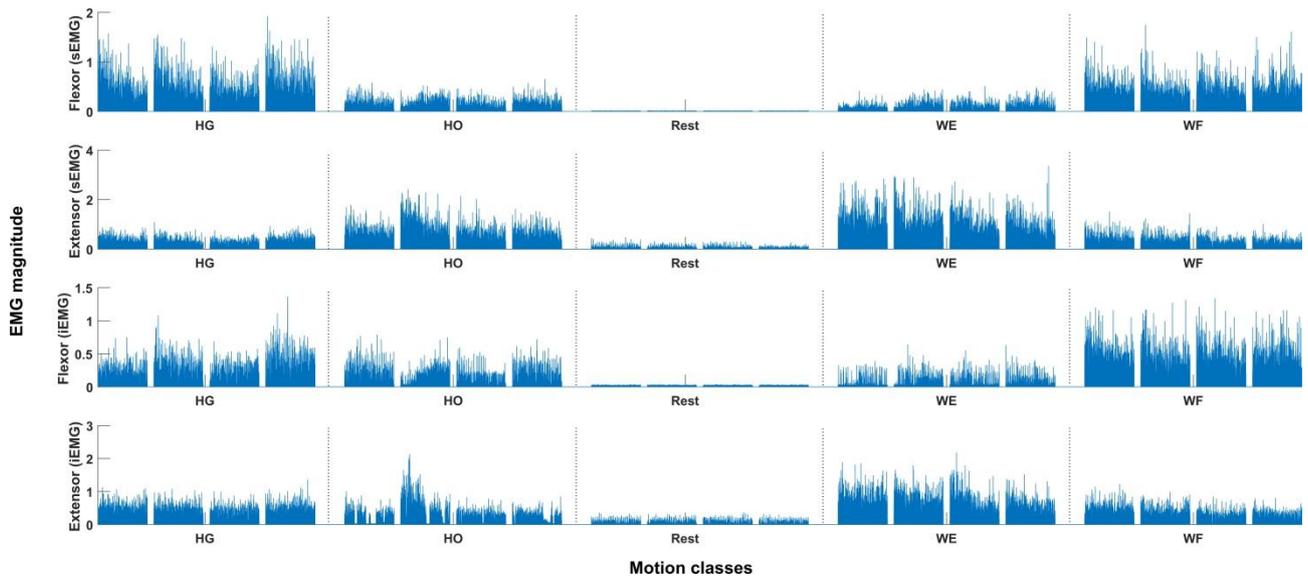
1

2 Figure 1: Experimental setup showing the positions of the arm and the five motion classes to perform: 1) rest, 2) hand close, 3) hand open, 4) wrist  
 3 extension and wrist flexion. Surface EMG and intramuscular EMG were recorded from flexor and extensor muscles. Here only the extensor side is  
 4 shown.

5 *2.4. Data analysis*

6 *2.4.1. Pre-processing and feature extraction*

7 Surface EMG was bandpass filtered from 20-500 Hz using a 2<sup>nd</sup> order zero-phase shift Butterworth filter, and  
 8 iEMG was filtered from 60-2000 Hz. Moreover, signals were filtered with a notch filter to attenuate power  
 9 line interferences. Following the filtering, four features were extracted from the sEMG and the iEMG: mean  
 10 absolute value (MAV), waveform length (WL), zero crossings (ZC), and slope sign changes (SSC) (2).  
 11 These features were extracted from a 200 ms data window with 50 ms increment. An example of the filtered  
 12 and rectified EMG is shown in Figure 2.



1

2 Figure 2: Rectified and bandpass filtered surface EMG (sEMG) and intramuscular EMG (iEMG) for a single subject. The four repetitions in the 0  
3 degree position is shown for each of the five motion classes. 'HG': hand grasp, 'HO': hand open, 'WE': wrist extension, and 'WF': wrist flexion.

#### 4 2.4.2. Classification

5 The features were classified with a naïve Bayes classifier (23). Different classification analyses were  
6 performed: 1) Within position classification (WPC), 2) Across position classification (APC), and 3) Between  
7 position classification (BPC).

8 For WPC, the classification accuracies were calculated in the scenario where the training and test data  
9 belonged to the same position using a 4-fold cross-validation procedure. In each arm position, the four  
10 repetitions of each motion class were concatenated. The data from each motion class were randomly divided  
11 into four subsets; three for training and one for testing. The training and testing sets from the different  
12 motion classes were pooled into one training set and one testing set containing all five motion classes. The  
13 average classification accuracies (5-class problem) across the testing folds are reported.

14 Using the same 4-fold cross-validation procedure, the APC was calculated. In this scenario, the classifier was  
15 trained on data containing information from all of the four arm positions, and the testing data also consisted  
16 of data from all positions. Again, the average classification accuracies (5-class problem) across the testing  
17 folds are reported.

18 The effect of training the classifier on data from one position and testing on another (e.g. training on 0  
19 degrees and testing on 45 degrees) was tested in the BPC scenario. Here all pairwise comparisons were  
20 tested. For each comparison, the 5-class classification accuracy was calculated. All of the data from position  
21 1 were used to train the classifier, and all of the data from position 2 were used for testing. The average  
22 classification accuracies across the position pairs are reported. Moreover, it was investigated which motion  
23 classes that mostly affected the classification accuracies. The confusion matrices were calculated for all

1 pairwise comparisons, as described before, and the average was calculated. Moreover, the classification was  
2 performed for the different paradigms with linear discriminant analysis (LDA) (23) to make a comparison  
3 with the Bayes classifier to investigate if a potential arm position-classification accuracy dependency was  
4 due to the classification method. The analysis was performed on the same folds for the two classifiers to  
5 make a fair comparison.

6 Data analysis was carried out using all Hudgins' time domain features combined, but also using each feature  
7 type individually. The pre-processing, feature extraction was performed using MATLAB.

## 8 *2.5. Statistics*

9 For the WPC and APC calibration paradigm, two (sEMG and iEMG) 1-way repeated measures analysis of  
10 variance (rmANOVA) tests were used to investigate the effect of 'Feature type' (four levels: MAV, WL, ZC,  
11 and SSC) on classification accuracies (average across positions for WPC).

12 To investigate the effect of training position in the BPC paradigm, the mean was taken across the test  
13 positions (e.g. training in position 1 and testing in 2-4). This was followed by a 1-way rmANOVA test with  
14 'Arm position' (four levels: 0, 45, 90, and 135 degrees) as the factor for sEMG, iEMG, and cEMG.  
15 Similarly, three 1-way rmANOVA tests were performed to investigate the effect of 'Motion class' (five  
16 levels: HG, HO, rest, WE, and WF).

17 The ratios between APC/WPC and BPC/WPC for each subject were calculated and compared with a 2-way  
18 rmANOVA with the factors 'EMG modality' and 'Ratio' (two levels: APC/WPC, and BPC/WPC) to  
19 investigate if the calibration paradigm and EMG modality affected the classification accuracies when using  
20 all features. Lastly, a 3-way rmANOVA was performed to investigate if similar tendencies were observed in  
21 classification accuracies when using two different classifiers. The factors were "EMG modality", "Ratio"  
22 and "Classifier" (two levels: "Bayes", and "LDA").

23 Significant tests were followed up with Bonferroni's post hoc test. The Greenhouse-Geisser correction was  
24 used if the assumption of sphericity was violated. Significant test statistics were assumed when  $P < 0.05$ . The  
25 effect size is also reported using partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ). The statistical analyses were performed in the IBM  
26 SPSS Software.

## 27 **3. Results**

### 28 *3.1. WPC*

29 In Table 1, the results are summarized when the classifier is trained and tested on data collected from the  
30 same position, and the effect of the "Feature type" when using them individually for classification is shown  
31 as well. High classification accuracies are obtained when using all features for both sEMG and iEMG with

1 almost similar classification accuracies. When the two types of EMG are combined the classification  
2 accuracies increases with ~3 percentage points.

3 For the individual features, the statistics revealed a significant effect of ‘Feature type’ ( $F_{(3,21)}=11.1$ ;  $P<0.001$ ;  
4  $\eta^2=0.6$ ) for sEMG. The post hoc tests revealed higher classification accuracies for WL and MAV compared  
5 to ZC. Also, a significant effect of ‘Feature type’ ( $F_{(3,21)}=4.2$ ;  $P=0.02$ ;  $\eta^2=0.4$ ) was found for iEMG with  
6 higher classification accuracies for MAV compared to WL.

7 Table 1: Classification accuracies when training and testing in the same position. The results are reported as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (across the  
8 subjects) for surface EMG (s) and intramuscular EMG (i). ‘c’ is the combined surface and intramuscular EMG. ‘MAV’: Mean absolute value, ‘WL’:  
9 waveform length, ‘ZC’: zero crossing, and ‘SSC’: slope sign changes.

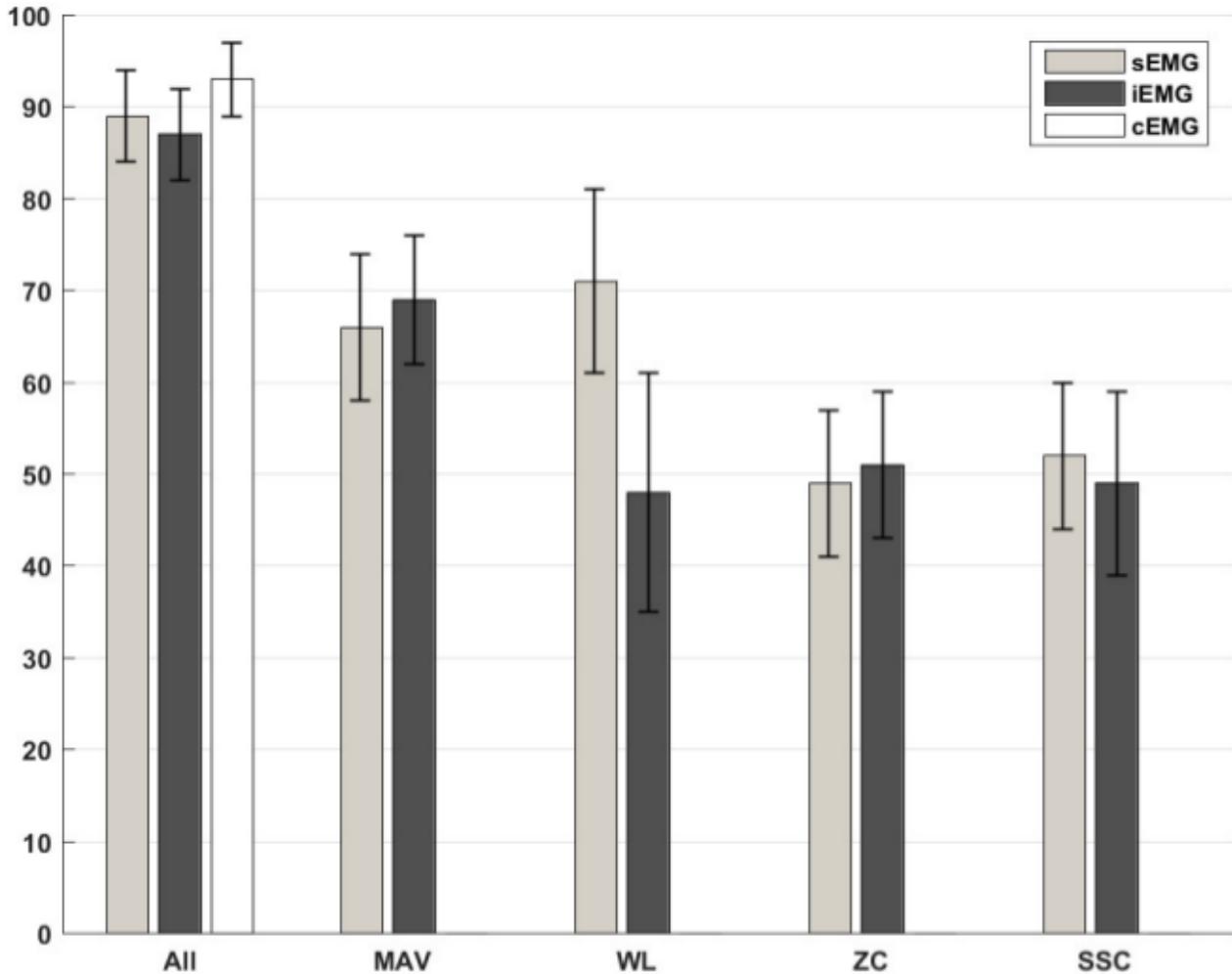
Position\Feature type	All (%) [s / i / c]	MAV (%) [s / i]	WL (%) [s / i]	ZC (%) [s / i]	SSC (%) [s / i]
0 degree	95 $\pm$ 4 / 95 $\pm$ 4 / 98 $\pm$ 3	79 $\pm$ 9 / 72 $\pm$ 10	80 $\pm$ 12 / 62 $\pm$ 12	59 $\pm$ 9 / 62 $\pm$ 10	61 $\pm$ 7 / 59 $\pm$ 10
45 degree	95 $\pm$ 6 / 95 $\pm$ 6 / 98 $\pm$ 4	82 $\pm$ 6 / 72 $\pm$ 6	87 $\pm$ 7 / 58 $\pm$ 13	63 $\pm$ 11 / 58 $\pm$ 11	69 $\pm$ 12 / 64 $\pm$ 10
90 degree	93 $\pm$ 6 / 96 $\pm$ 3 / 97 $\pm$ 4	77 $\pm$ 6 / 73 $\pm$ 4	79 $\pm$ 6 / 56 $\pm$ 5	62 $\pm$ 14 / 57 $\pm$ 10	76 $\pm$ 8 / 67 $\pm$ 12
135 degree	95 $\pm$ 4 / 95 $\pm$ 3 / 98 $\pm$ 2	77 $\pm$ 8 / 73 $\pm$ 7	78 $\pm$ 9 / 51 $\pm$ 11	65 $\pm$ 14 / 59 $\pm$ 11	67 $\pm$ 7 / 59 $\pm$ 11

10

### 11 3.2. APC

12 When data from all positions are used in the training of the classifier and it is tested on data from all  
13 positions, the classification accuracies decrease (see Figure 3) compared to those obtained when training and  
14 testing in a single position (Table 1). Again, the classification accuracies are higher when sEMG and iEMG  
15 are combined and all features are used.

16 The statistics revealed a significant effect of ‘Feature type’ ( $F_{(3,21)}=11.3$ ;  $P<0.001$ ;  $\eta^2=0.6$ ) for sEMG. The  
17 classification accuracies were higher for MAV and WL compared to ZC. A significant effect of ‘Feature  
18 type’ ( $F_{(3,21)}=6.0$ ;  $P=0.006$ ;  $\eta^2=0.5$ ) was also found for iEMG with higher classification accuracies for MAV  
19 compared to WL and ZC.

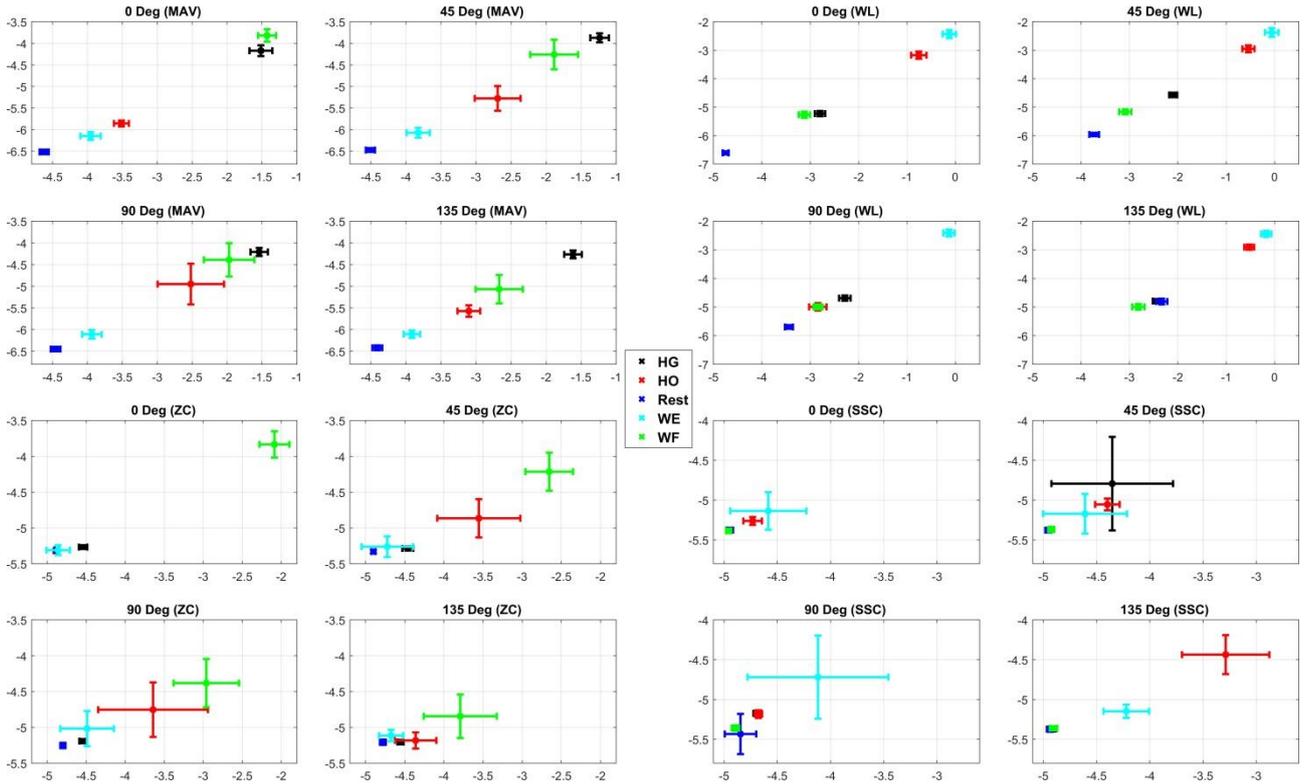


1

2 Figure 3: Classification accuracies (%) when training and testing in all positions. The results are reported as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (across the  
 3 subjects) for surface EMG (sEMG), intramuscular EMG (iEMG), and combined surface and intramuscular EMG (cEMG). ‘MAV’: Mean absolute  
 4 value, ‘WL’: waveform length, ‘ZC’: zero crossing, and ‘SSC’: slope sign changes.

5 *3.3. Feature type visualization*

6 In Figure 4 (sEMG) and 5 (iEMG) the feature distributions (mean and standard deviation) of the different  
 7 motion classes is shown for each position for each feature type. The x-axis and y-axis show the flexor and  
 8 extensor, respectively. From Figure 4 it can be seen that the distributions are close to each other or  
 9 overlapping and that the variability increases when the arm position changes from 0 degrees; moreover, there  
 10 is a shift in the mean value for some of the motion classes when the position of the arm is changed,  
 11 especially for HO. In general, for the iEMG (Figure 5) it can be seen that the distributions are overlapping  
 12 for all feature types. The MAV is less affected by the changes in arm position, while the ‘rest’ motion class  
 13 moves for WL when the arm position changes. For ZC, the variability was large in the WF motion class, and  
 14 it was affected by the arm position. For SSC the HO motion class was affected the most by arm position.



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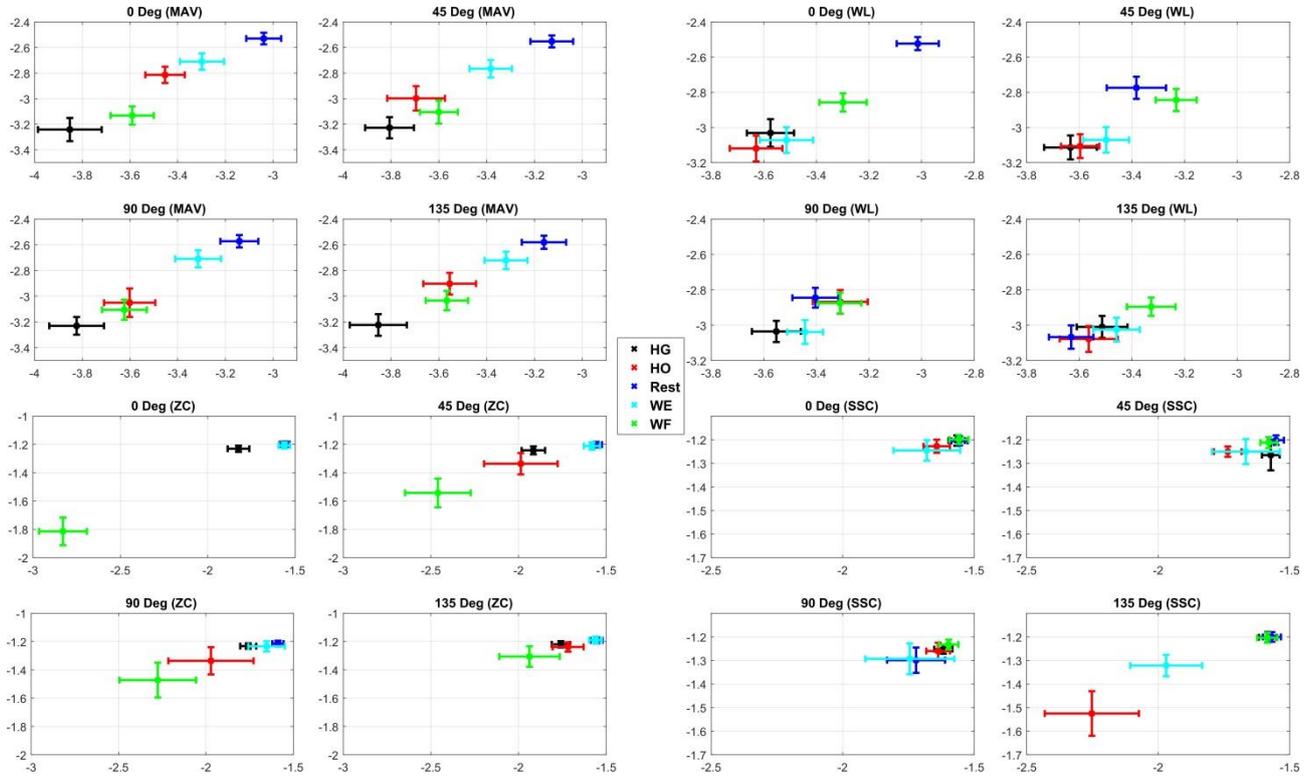
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Figure 4: Feature distribution (mean and standard deviation) of surface EMG (subject 1). The scaling is the same for each feature type. The x-axis is the flexor EMG, and the y-axis is the extensor EMG. 'MAV': Mean absolute value, 'WL': waveform length, 'ZC': zero crossing, 'SSC': slope sign changes, 'HG': hand grasp (black), 'HO': hand open (red), 'WE': wrist extension (cyan), and 'WF': wrist flexion (green). 'Rest' is marked with a blue cross.

3

4

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6

1 Figure 5: Feature distribution (mean and standard deviation) of intramuscular EMG (subject 1). The scaling is the same for each feature type. The x-  
 2 axis is the flexor EMG, and the y-axis is the extensor EMG. ‘MAV’: Mean absolute value, ‘WL’: waveform length, ‘ZC’: zero crossing, ‘SSC’: slope  
 3 sign changes, ‘HG’: hand grasp (black), ‘HO’: hand open (red), ‘WE’: wrist extension (cyan), and ‘WF’: wrist flexion (green). ‘Rest’ is marked with  
 4 a blue cross.

### 5 3.4. BPC

#### 6 3.4.1. Position

7 The classification accuracies when training on data from one position and testing in another position are  
 8 presented in Table 2 when all features were used together. The classification accuracies on the diagonal have  
 9 been presented in Table 1. Compared to the APC paradigm in Figure 3, the classification accuracies decrease  
 10 even further. In general, the lowest classification accuracies were obtained when training in the 0 degree  
 11 position and testing in the 135 degree position.

12 The statistics revealed no difference ( $F_{(3,21)}=1.4$ ;  $P=0.3$ ;  $\eta^2=0.2$ ) between ‘Arm position’ for sEMG. For  
 13 iEMG a significant difference was observed ( $F_{(3,21)}=7.4$ ;  $P=0.001$ ;  $\eta^2=0.5$ ) with lower classification  
 14 accuracies when training in the 0 degree position compared to the 90 and 135 degree positions. There was  
 15 also a significant difference for cEMG ( $F_{(3,21)}=4.3$ ;  $P=0.02$ ;  $\eta^2=0.4$ ). Again the classification accuracies were  
 16 lower when training in the 0 degree position compared to training in the 135 degree position.

17 To see the effect on the motion classes in the worst scenario (training in 0 degrees and testing in 135  
 18 degrees), the confusion matrix was calculated. This showed the following values on the diagonal for cEMG:  
 19 91% (HG), 60% (HO), 54% (Rest), 79% (WE), and 61% (WF).

20 Table 2: Classification accuracies when training in one position and testing in another position. The average values are reported across all motion  
 21 classes and across subjects. All features were used for the classification. Example: Training in 45 degrees and testing in position 0 degrees lead to  
 22 83% classification accuracy for surface EMG. ‘sEMG’: surface EMG, ‘iEMG’: intramuscular EMG, and ‘cEMG’: combined surface and  
 23 intramuscular EMG.

All Features		Test (sEMG)				Test (iEMG)				Test (cEMG)			
		0	45	90	135	0	45	90	135	0	45	90	135
Training position (degrees)	0		81	69	73		67	67	65		79	73	69
	45	83		74	83	77		80	70	86		81	81
	90	79	71		75	77	81		74	82	80		77
	135	76	79	74		77	76	81		81	86	81	

#### 25 3.4.2. Motion class

26 The highest classification accuracies are observed on the diagonal in the confusion matrices (Tables 3-5).  
 27 The classification accuracies are lower when the classifier is trained in one position and tested in another  
 28 position when compared to the classification accuracies in Table 1 and 2. The overall classification  
 29 accuracies on the diagonal are similar for sEMG and iEMG, but the classification accuracies for HG and HO  
 30 are a bit different when comparing the two types of EMG; 15 and 14 percentage points, respectively. As for  
 31 the other classification scenarios, the cEMG increases the classification accuracies compared to each type of

1 EMG individually. The motion class HO was consistently lower compared to the other motion classes and  
 2 often predicted as WE.

3 The statistics revealed no significant effect of ‘Motion class’ for sEMG ( $F_{(4,28)}=2.0$ ;  $P=0.1$ ;  $\eta^2=0.2$ ), iEMG  
 4 ( $F_{(1,9,13,1)}=3.3$ ;  $P=0.07$ ;  $\eta^2=0.3$ ), or cEMG ( $F_{(4,28)}=1.0$ ;  $P=0.4$ ;  $\eta^2=0.1$ ).

5 Table 3: Confusion matrix for surface EMG when using all features. The average values are reported across all possible position pairs and across  
 6 subjects. ‘HG’: hand grasp, ‘HO’: hand open, ‘WE’: wrist extension, and ‘WF’: wrist flexion.

		Predicted label				
		HG	HO	Rest	WE	WF
True label	HG	70	8	10	6	6
	HO	10	67	5	17	2
	Rest	5	4	91	0	0
	WE	2	17	0	81	0
	WF	19	3	5	0	73

7

8 Table 4: Confusion matrix for intramuscular EMG when using all features. The average values are reported across all possible position pairs and  
 9 across subjects. ‘HG’: hand grasp, ‘HO’: hand open, ‘WE’: wrist extension, and ‘WF’: wrist flexion.

		Predicted label				
		HG	HO	Rest	WE	WF
True label	HG	85	6	2	4	3
	HO	13	53	1	22	11
	Rest	12	6	77	5	0
	WE	5	13	2	78	2
	WF	9	9	1	2	80

10

11 Table 5: Confusion matrix for combined surface and intramuscular EMG when using all features. The average values are reported across all possible  
 12 position pairs and across subjects. ‘HG’: hand grasp, ‘HO’: hand open, ‘WE’: wrist extension, and ‘WF’: wrist flexion.

		Predicted label				
		HG	HO	Rest	WE	WF
True label	HG	83	6	3	5	3
	HO	9	67	2	18	4
	Rest	10	6	83	0	0
	WE	3	14	0	83	0
	WF	12	4	2	0	82

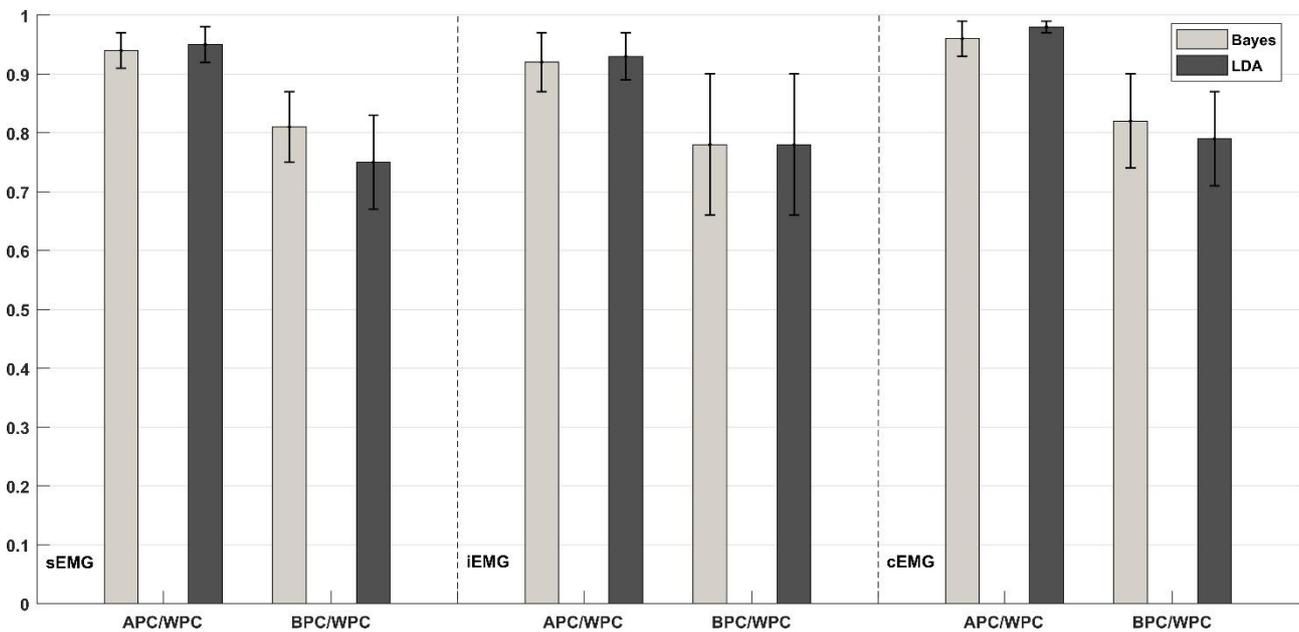
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1        3.5. Ratios

2        The APC/WPC and BPC/WPC ratios were calculated for sEMG and iEMG to investigate if there were  
3        differences in the classification paradigms for sEMG and iEMG. The ratios for BPC/WPC were  $0.81 \pm 0.06$   
4        and  $0.78 \pm 0.12$  for sEMG and iEMG, respectively. The ratios for APC/WPC were  $0.94 \pm 0.03$  and  $0.92 \pm 0.05$   
5        for sEMG and iEMG, respectively. There was no significant interaction between ‘EMG modality’ and  
6        ‘Ratio’ ( $F_{(1,7)}=0.01$ ;  $P=0.9$ ;  $\eta^2<0.001$ ). The APC/WPC ratio was significantly higher than BPC/WPC  
7        ( $F_{(1,7)}=86.7$ ;  $P<0.001$ ;  $\eta^2=0.9$ ), but there was no difference between the two EMG modalities ( $F_{(1,7)}=0.6$ ;  
8         $P=0.5$ ;  $\eta^2=0.08$ ).

9        3.6. Classifier comparison

10        The results from the classifier comparison are summarized in Figure 6. Similar tendencies are observed when  
11        using the two different classifiers, the APC/WPC ratio was higher than BPC/WPC for all three modalities. It  
12        changed whether the LDA or Bayes achieved higher classification accuracies. There was no interaction  
13        between all three factors ( $F_{(2,14)}=2.7$ ;  $P=0.1$ ;  $\eta^2=0.3$ ), but there was a significant 2-way interaction between  
14        classifiers and ratio ( $F_{(1,7)}=7.3$ ;  $P=0.03$ ;  $\eta^2=0.5$ ), and there was a significant effect of ratio as shown in the  
15        previous section. The post hoc analyses showed that the APC/WPC ratio was higher than the BPC/WPC ratio  
16        for the three EMG modalities and for the two classifiers.



17  
18        Figure 6: Classification accuracies across subjects when comparing the Bayes and LDA classifiers for the two ratios. The results are reported as mean  
19         $\pm$  standard deviation (across the subjects) for surface EMG (sEMG), intramuscular EMG (iEMG), and combined surface and intramuscular EMG  
20        (cEMG). ‘APC’: across position classification, ‘WPC’: within position classification, ‘BPC’: between position classification, and ‘LDA’: linear  
21        discriminant analysis.

#### 1 **4. Discussion**

2 In this study it was found that the intra-class (WPC) classification accuracies of five motion classes were  
3 high. However, these classification accuracies decreased when more positions of the arm were included in  
4 the training set (APC), and the lowest classification accuracies were obtained when the classifier was trained  
5 on data from one position and tested in a different position (BPC). All feature types were affected by the  
6 change in arm position, but the least position affected feature was MAV. The motion class that was affected  
7 the most by the change in arm position was HO. The same tendencies were seen with either a Bayes or LDA  
8 classifier.

9 The results obtained for the sEMG when investigating the effect of arm position validate the previous  
10 findings as reported in (9, 14, 16), where similar classification accuracies/errors have been reported. Despite  
11 differences in the methodology, HO has also been associated with the lowest classification accuracy out of  
12 the motion classes that were similar to those in our study (14). This suggests that if only one degree of  
13 freedom needs to be controlled it should be designed, so WE and WF are used. Similar to the findings in (18)  
14 the classification accuracies increase when sEMG and iEMG are combined. For the inter-class scenarios  
15 (APC and BPC), the classification accuracies are similar for the two types of EMG, which is reflected in the  
16 ratios that were calculated with respect to the intra-class scenario (WPC). For the individual features, the best  
17 features were MAV and WL. For iEMG, MAV was the best feature type leading to classification accuracies  
18 much higher than those obtained for the other features. The best features for sEMG were WL and MAV  
19 which were associated with higher classification accuracies. As can be seen in Figure 4, the distributions of  
20 some of the motion classes are moving which also explain the drop in classification accuracies. This may be  
21 due to a number of factors. One of the factors is variations in muscle recruitment due to gravitational forces,  
22 which fit well with our findings where the 'rest' class shows the lowest classification accuracy when  
23 calibrating the classifier on training data from the 0 degree position and testing it on data from the 135  
24 degree position. Other factors include electrode shifts due to skin displacement. However, as iEMG is also  
25 affected, electrode displacement is unlikely to be the main contributing factor. Moreover, motor variability  
26 (24) could also affect the classification accuracy due to change in arm position during active motions. We  
27 believe that the subject's ability to produce motions of similar characteristics in terms of kinematics and  
28 kinetics is reduced with changes in position.

29 To overcome the effect of the limb position different approaches have been proposed such as integration of  
30 accelerometers to indicate the position of the arm (14), identification of position independent features (16),  
31 or simply calibrating the system in multiple positions (14). By using the latter approach it is possible to  
32 expand the boundaries of each motion class to capture some of the variability that the arm position induces.

## 1 5. Conclusion

2 The results showed that the inter-class classification accuracy of five motion classes is affected by the arm  
3 position. It is possible to obtain relatively high classification accuracies when including training data from all  
4 positions in the calibration of the classifier, and when combining sEMG and iEMG. Among the four typical  
5 time domain features, MAV showed to be the least affected by arm position followed by WL. The same  
6 tendency for the effect of arm position was seen when using different classifiers implying that changes in the  
7 feature space due to changes in EMG characteristics are the primary contributing factors to position  
8 dependent performance. In future studies, amputees should be included in online classification to provide  
9 more clinically relevant evidence, and perform online testing of the three classification paradigms.  
10 Moreover, it would be relevant to do a thorough feature investigation study to try to identify position  
11 invariant features for optimizing the classification of hand gestures.

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