

Control Capabilities of Myoelectric Robotic Prostheses by Hand Amputees: A Scientific Research and Market Overview

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Abstract

Hand amputation can dramatically affect the capabilities of a person. Cortical reorganization occurs in the brain, but the motor and somatosensorial cortex can interact with the remnant muscles of the missing hand even many years after the amputation, leading to the possibility to restore the capabilities of hand amputees through myoelectric prostheses. Myoelectric hand prostheses with many degrees of freedom are commercially available and recent advances in rehabilitation robotics suggest that their natural control can be performed in real life. The first commercial products exploiting pattern recognition to recognize the movements have recently been released, however the most common control systems are still usually unnatural and must be learned through long training. Dexterous and naturally controlled robotic prostheses can become reality in the everyday life of amputees but the path still requires many steps. This mini-review aims to improve the situation by giving an overview of the advancements in the commercial and scientific domains in order to outline the current and future chances in this field and to foster the integration between market and scientific research.

1. Introduction

It is estimated that 41'000 persons were living with a major loss of an upper limb in 2005 (Ziegler-Graham et al., 2008). A hand amputation is one of the most impairing injuries and it can dramatically affect the capabilities of a person. Recent scientific and commercial advances in man-machine interfaces are promising and suggest that dexterous, naturally controlled, proportional and simultaneous robotic prostheses could be reality in the future of amputees. Nevertheless, the outline of the situation in the market and scientific field is complex and the path to naturally controlled prostheses still requires several steps.

Man-machine interfaces have been developed to control hand prostheses via the brain (Lebedev and Nicolelis, 2006), peripheral nerves (Navarro et al., 2005) or the muscles (Cipriani et al., 2011). The first two methods are promising but they usually require invasive procedures to obtain robust performance, thus they are currently applied only in scientific research. The third method (surface

38 electromyography, sEMG) is probably the most widely used both in commercial settings and in
39 scientific research.

40 Myoelectric hand prostheses with many degrees of freedom and very good mechanical capabilities
41 are now commercially available. However, prosthetics companies target most of their communication
42 efforts to end users. Thus they highlight the practical capabilities of the hands, but they usually do
43 not provide information regarding the technical functionalities and specifications of the prostheses
44 that can be exploitable by academic researchers. Previous papers presented some hand prostheses in
45 detail (Belter et al., 2013) but the market changes quickly.

46 The scientific research field is even more complex and quickly changing. Many papers have been
47 written in scientific research about the natural control of robotic hands by intact and transradial hand
48 amputated subjects. Most of the methods rely on the use of sEMG and of pattern recognition or
49 proportional control algorithms. The first commercial products exploiting pattern recognition to
50 recognize the movements have recently been released. Targeted muscle reinnervation (TMR) can
51 allow the exploitation of these methods even on subjects with above-elbow amputations. Benchmark
52 databases to compare the performance of different methods and setups have been released (Atzori et
53 al., 2014a). However, several steps are still required to obtain proportional, naturally controlled,
54 robust and usable robotic hand prostheses (bionic hands).

55 Since the market and the scientific field are so complex and changing so quickly, it can be difficult to
56 have a complete overview of them and to remain constantly updated in both fields. This mini-review
57 aims to be a resource for young and experienced researchers in academia and prosthetic companies
58 by providing a synthetic but complete overview of the current level of advancement in the
59 commercial and scientific reality.

60 **2. Market Outline**

61 A relatively wide choice of devices is available to restore the capabilities of hand amputees by
62 myoelectric robotic prostheses. Such devices are continuously evolving according to technology,
63 scientific research, market needs and user requirements. The devices usually include two main parts:
64 prosthetic hands and control systems.

65 **2.1. Prosthetic hands**

66 Currently, hand prostheses include cosmetic prostheses, kinematic prostheses and myoelectric
67 prostheses. Cosmetic prostheses offer esthetical and psychological support. Kinematic prostheses
68 also have functional capabilities, since the user can control the opening and closing of a gripper hand
69 through the motion of the shoulder. Myoelectric prosthesis users can control a battery-powered hand
70 through the electrical signal emitted by the remnant muscles, usually located in the forearm.

71 The continuous improvements in the field and the different targets and aims of the papers published
72 by the companies can make it difficult for researchers to remain updated with the capabilities of
73 available prostheses. For example, Belter et al. (Belter et al., 2013) performed a very thorough
74 description of the mechanical properties of prosthetic hands produced by four companies, but in less
75 than two years several companies produced new versions or made substantial changes to the products
76 from a mechanical or electronic point of view. Thus, the market and research achievements often

77 remain disconnected.

78 Many prosthetic hands are commercially available. However, few have the capability to reproduce
79 many movements. The following selection represents some of the currently most advanced hand
80 prostheses and gives a representation of different companies and approaches: 1) Touch Bionics i-
81 limb Quantum; 2) Otto Bock Michelangelo; 3) Steeper Bebionic v3; 4) Vincent hand Evolution 2.
82 Table 1 summarizes the most important features that can be useful in a laboratory. The features are
83 grouped into the following four categories: general technical data, dexterity related features, force
84 related features and control related features.

85 2.2. Control systems

86 Usually two or three sEMG electrodes are located in the socket in correspondence to specific muscles
87 (Figure 1). A myoelectric impulse (i.e. an increase in the amplitude of the electrical signal emitted by
88 the muscles) is used to open and close the prosthetic hand. The number of movements can be
89 increased employing specific (e.g. sequential) control strategies. Such control strategies are usually
90 still far from being natural, thus controlling prostheses requires a high level of skill and a training
91 procedure. Control problems contribute to the scarce capabilities and acceptance of sEMG prostheses
92 (Atkins et al., 1996), but they are likely promising for improvements in a near future.

93 In Table 1 we summarize some of the most important control related features for the considered
94 prosthetic hands including: number of electrodes, movement control type, movement command and
95 particular features of each control system. As can be noticed in Table 1, despite the mechanical
96 characteristics of the prosthesis allowing to reproduce up to 24 hand movements, the control systems
97 rely in most cases on few (1-3) electrodes and on sequential control strategies or on specific
98 movement triggers (in some cases tunable through a mobile app or other strategies). In sequential
99 control strategies, a specific signal (for example, a simultaneous activation of two sEMG electrodes,
100 usually called co-contraction) is used to switch between a set of predefined movements. In movement
101 triggers on the other hand specific patterns of electrode activation are related to specific movements
102 of the prosthesis. The mentioned methods are not natural, in the sense that they do not correspond to
103 the movement that the subject would have thought to do before the amputation. However, they offer
104 robust results, which is one of the main needs in real life.

105 Several of the considered prostheses include external sources of information as well. In particular,
106 Touch Bionics i-limb Quantum recently introduced gesture control (recorded via gyroscope,
107 accelerometer and magnetometer) and grip chips (that use blue-tooth chips attached to specific
108 objects) to perform movement selection, while Steeper Bebionic exploits finger position encoders to
109 perform falling object prevention. Sometimes research achievements translate to clinical practice too.
110 In 2013 a pattern recognition system similar to the ones described in the scientific literature was
111 made commercially available (<http://www.coaptengineering.com/>). The Coapt system can include up
112 to 8 sEMG electrodes. It is generic and it is typically set up to control the number of powered DOFs
113 the patient's prosthesis has. That is, if a powered elbow, wrist, and terminal device are built into the
114 prosthesis then the Coapt system is set to control these. If, however the prosthesis only has a powered
115 terminal device and/or wrist, the Coapt system is set up for those DOFs. Wherever possible, Coapt
116 performs natural control. The technician is encouraged to work with the patient to determine which
117 are the most physiological, repeatable, consistent, and intuitive movements to use for control. Slight
118 variations can be attempted if necessary, also through re-calibration procedures. The number of
119 natural grasping patterns that can be achieved varies. According to Coapt, typically users can select

120 between 3-6 naturally. It should be noted that the physical interconnection of the Coapt system and
121 several prostheses has yet to be implemented. An example of movement-triggered control that we
122 received by Coapt is the following one:

- 123 1) hand closing: closing prosthesis
- 124 2) hand opening: opening prosthesis
- 125 3) wrist clockwise / counterclockwise rotation: powered wrist clockwise / counterclockwise
126 rotation
- 127 4) double impulse of natural hand opening: grip A
- 128 5) triple impulse of natural hand opening: grip B
- 129 6) holding the hand open: grip C
- 130 7) single impulse of natural hand opening: grip D

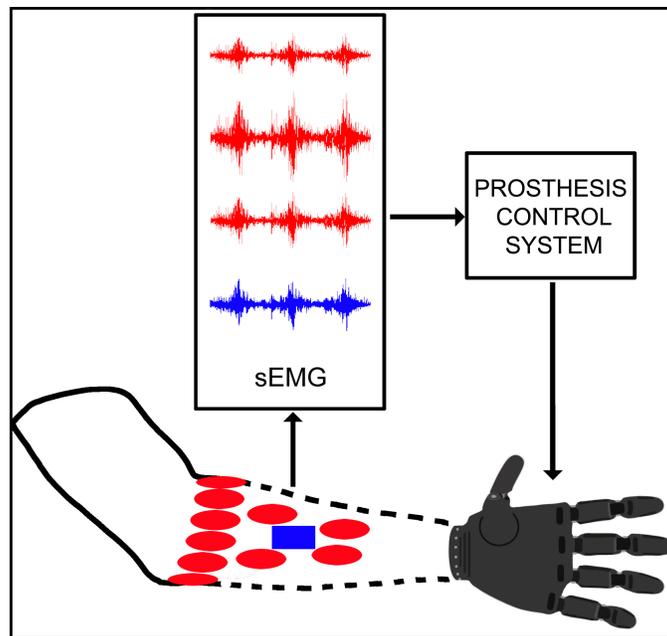
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135 **Figure 1. Scheme of a generic myoelectric control system:** (i) for commercial prosthesis
136 without pattern recognition (blue rectangle); (ii) for research (or control system with pattern
137 recognition) (red ellipses). The same architecture is assumed in the external forearm.



138

Table 1. Characteristics of the examined prosthetic hands.

	Company name	Touch Bionics	Otto Bock	Steeper	Vincent GmbH
	Prosthesis model	i-limb Quantum	Michelangelo with Axon Bus Technology	bebionic v3	Evolution 2
General Technical Data	Weight (without battery)	474-515 g	~ 510 g	550 - 598 g (365 - 390 g small hand)	380-410g
	Operating Voltage	7.4 V	11.1 V	7.4 V	6-8V
	Battery Type	Lithium Polymer	Li-Ion	Li-Ion	Li-Pol
	Battery Capacity	1,300 mAh-2,400mAh	1,500 mAh	1,300-2,200 mAh	1300-2600 mAh
	Number of Actuators	6	2	5	6
Dexterity	Active Fingers	5 independent	3	5 independent	5 (+12 active joints)
	Thumb Rotation	Powered	Powered	Manual	Powered
	Total number of grip patterns	24	7	14	20
	Grip patterns available at any moment	7	7	11	20
	Flexible wrist	available	included	available	available
	Rotating wrist	available (active or passive)	available (active or passive)	available (active or passive)	available (only passive)
	Full closing time	0.8 s (0.7 s small hand)	0.37 s	0.5 s - 1s	0.8 s
	Finger position encoders	No	2 motor position encoders	5 (one in each actuator)	2 (in thumb actuators)
Force	Power Grip	100-136 N	~ 70 N	140.1 N (280 N small hand)	60 N
	Lateral Pinch	40 N (60 N small hand)	~ 60 N	26.5 N (53 N small hand)	15 N
	Adaptive Grip	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Falling object prevention	Active (auto-grasp, based on accidental sEMG signal detection)	No	Active (auto-grip, based on finger position encoders)	Passive (spring load)
	Proportional Control	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Control	N° of electrodes	1-2	1-2-3	1-2	1-2 wired
	Movement control type	movement triggers, mobile app, bluetooth grip chips, favorite environment, gesture control	sequential, 4-channel control	sequential, Morph RFId GRIP selection compatible	single trigger or Vincent Morse code
	Movement command	hold open, double impulse, triple impulse, co-contraction	different switching modes available, fast & high signal controls rotation in 4-channel control	co-contraction / open-open signal	hold signal (opening or closing), double signal, co-contraction, alternating signal
	Particular Features	Various control methods thumb rotating manually & automatically	Sensor Hand Speed (<i>stiff fingers and harder finger tips</i>); Fragile objects grasping	Fully free flexing fingers	Very low weight
	Feedback	No	No	audible beeps and/or vibration (<i>grip changes</i>)	Vibration (<i>force detected via motor current & DMS sensors</i>)

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141 **3. Scientific Research Outline**

142 Many papers have been written in scientific research about the control of robotic hands and
143 prostheses by intact and hand amputated subjects.

144 Usually several electrodes are placed on the forearm of the subject to record the myoelectric signals
145 (Figure 1) with a dense sampling approach (Tenore et al., 2009; Fukuda et al., 2003; Li et al., 2010)
146 or a precise anatomical positioning strategy (De Luca, 1997; Castellini et al., 2009a). The most
147 common control procedures can be subdivided into pattern recognition or proportional control
148 approaches, which can be applied to sEMG and multimodal signals.

149 Pattern recognition algorithms are used to classify the movement that the subject aims to perform
150 according to a label (Scheme and Englehart, 2011). Pattern recognition results provided in several
151 cases classification accuracy over 90%-95% on less than 10 classes (e.g. Castellini et al., 2009b),
152 however average results are usually below 80-90% (Peerdeman et al., 2011). Movement
153 classification methods require movement labeling and they are restricted to a predetermined set of
154 hand movements. Simultaneous pattern recognition has been studied recently (Jiang et al., 2013b;
155 Young et al., 2013; Ortiz-Catalan et al., 2013), however usually such procedures consider
156 simultaneous motions as new classes, thus they can reduce the robustness of the classifier.

157 Proportional and simultaneous control of a large number of degrees of freedom of the prosthesis can
158 allow achieving more natural and dexterous control using unsupervised or supervised methods
159 (Fougner et al., 2012; Farina et al., 2014). Unsupervised methods are usually based on signal
160 factorization (e.g. through Non-Negative Matrix Factorization, NMF), they require a short calibration
161 phase and they are relatively independent on the number and exact location of the electrodes (Jiang et
162 al., 2009, 2014a, 2014b; Muceli et al., 2014). Supervised methods (Ameri et al., 2014a, 2014b;
163 Gijssberts et al., 2014b; Nielsen et al., 2011; Muceli and Farina, 2012; Hahne et al., 2014) are usually
164 based on regression techniques (e.g. Linear Regression, LR, Artificial Neural Networks, ANN,
165 Support Vector Machines, SVM) that require a reliable ground truth for hand kinematics. This is easy
166 for intact subjects (e.g. using data gloves), but it can be difficult for amputees, for whom the ground
167 truth can be acquired only via bilateral mirrored contractions (Nielsen et al., 2011) or via visual cues
168 (Ameri et al., 2014a, 2014b). Recently, semi-supervised methods (NMF) and supervised methods
169 (LR, ANN) were compared to evaluate the impact of precise kinematics estimation for accurately
170 completing goal-directed tasks (Jiang et al., 2014b). The results showed that, although the three
171 algorithms' mapping accuracies were significantly different, their online performance was similar.
172 These results underline the hypothesis that good proportional myoelectric control can be achieved by
173 the interaction and adaptation of the user with the myoelectric controller through closed-loop
174 feedback. The same hypothesis is also demonstrated in other recent papers on multiple degrees of
175 freedom for intact subjects (Pistohl et al., 2013; Antuvan et al., 2014) and hand amputees (Jiang et
176 al., 2014a). Despite most of the proportional studies concentrating on full hand movements (e.g. hand
177 supination, pronation, rotation, flexion, extension), proportional and simultaneous control has a
178 strong potential for decoding finger kinematics as well. In particular, recent work described average
179 correlation coefficients of up to 0.9 for the estimation of single finger movements (Smith et al., 2008)
180 and 0.8 for the estimation of simultaneous and complex movements (Ngeo et al., 2014).

181 Also in scientific research, additional sources of information can be used to improve the

182 performance of myoelectric control. Computer vision has been integrated to predetermine the type
183 and size of the required grasp in relation to the object (Došen et al., 2010; Markovic et al., 2014).
184 Accelerometers showed excellent capabilities to recognize hand movements using pattern recognition
185 and regression methods, both alone and in combination with sEMG electrodes (Atzori et al., 2014b;
186 Gijssberts et al., 2014a; Krasoulis et al., 2015).

187 A common problem in the field is that often the studies are highly specific and they are not directly
188 comparable, due to different acquisition setups, protocols and analysis pipelines. Moreover, often the
189 datasets are not publicly available. The NinaPro project (Atzori et al., 2015) released a publicly
190 available benchmark with electromyography, kinematic and dynamic data sources from intact and
191 amputated subjects to help the scientific community to overcome control problems
192 (<http://ninaweb.hevs.ch/>). Ninapro was recently used to evaluate regression methods for the
193 continuous decoding of finger movements from sEMG and accelerometry (Krasoulis et al., 2015), to
194 apply Dynamic time warping (DTW) in the context of myoelectric control (AbdelMaseeh et al.,
195 2015) and to present the *Movement Error Rate*, an alternative to the standard window-based accuracy
196 in pattern recognition (Gijssberts et al., 2014a).

197 Many factors can theoretically influence sEMG controlled prosthesis, including anatomical
198 characteristics of the subjects (Farina et al., 2002), training in using myoelectric prostheses (Cipriani
199 et al., 2011), clinical parameters of the subjects (e.g. level of the amputation, phantom limb sensation
200 intensity) (Atzori et al., 2016), fatigue, sweating, changes in electrode or arm positioning, surgical
201 procedures used during the amputation and even cortical reorganization. However, few studies
202 addressed these effects.

203 Implanting intramuscular EMG-recording devices reduces the number of parameters affecting the
204 EMG signal and it can improve simultaneous control of multi-DOF prosthetic wrist and hand (Smith
205 et al., 2015, 2014).

206 Targeted muscle reinnervation (TMR) is a surgical procedure that redirects the nerves that used to
207 control the muscles of the hand to innervate accessory muscles from which surface sEMG is
208 recorded. Impressive results have been obtained with this method, especially in persons with above-
209 elbow or shoulder amputations (Kuiken et al., 2009). The same technique has also been applied on
210 muscles transferred to the forearm to better integrate with traditional commercial prostheses
211 (Aszmann et al., 2015).

212 The opposite neural direction, i.e. transferring information from the hand prosthesis to the brain, has
213 been studied in several papers as well. Several attempts have been performed using non-invasive or
214 invasive methods. Electrocutaneous and vibratory stimulation channels have been extensively studied
215 in the past (Szeto and Saunders, 1982). TMR represents a promising solution also in this case, since it
216 theoretically allows a certain amount of sensory feedback (Marasco et al., 2009). However, to date,
217 the only example of real-time use of neural interfaces for the effective bidirectional control of
218 dexterous prosthetic hands performing different grasping tasks is given by Raspopovic et al.
219 (Raspopovic et al., 2014).

220 Despite the achievements described in this paper, there are still several challenges before amputees
221 can benefit from the mentioned signal processing developments (Jiang et al., 2012). First, robustness
222 is probably the most important and challenging problem, in particular for simultaneous and
223 proportional control. Second, the sensory-motor loop should be closed with proper feedback

224 systems, thus opening new possibilities for effective and intuitive prosthetic control. Third, most of
225 the studies are performed in controlled laboratory conditions with non-amputated subjects, which do
226 not adapt to several different real life conditions of amputees (Fougner et al., 2011; Jiang et al.,
227 2013a; He et al., 2014, 2015).

228

229 **4. Conclusions**

230 Hand amputation can dramatically affect the capabilities of a person. The augmentation of the
231 functionalities of the nervous and muscular system through external devices can already improve the
232 situation of amputees. The market and the scientific field are complex and changing quickly, thus it is
233 often difficult for young researchers to have a complete overview of them, as well as for experienced
234 researchers to remain constantly updated in both the fields. In this mini review we provide a synthetic
235 but complete overview of the current level of advancement in the commercial and scientific reality,
236 addressing each field in a specific section.

237 The commercial outline highlights the existence of very advanced prosthetic hands and control
238 systems. Four of the most advanced prosthetic hands were analyzed, showing important mechanical
239 and control differences. In particular, the number of actuators ranges between 2 (Otto Bock
240 Michelangelo), 5 (Steeper Bebionic 3) and 6 (Touch Bionics i-limb Quantum and Vincent Evolution
241 2) while the number of finger position encoders ranges between 0 (Touch Bionics i-limb Quantum), 2
242 (Otto Bock Michelangelo, Vincent Evolution 2) and 5 (Steeper Bebionic 3). The first commercial
243 control system based on pattern recognition has been released and it seems a great advancement with
244 respect to previous ones. However natural, proportional and simultaneous control of a large number
245 of degrees of freedom is currently not available.

246 The scientific research outline shows a large variety of control methods and several possible
247 improvements. Pattern recognition, proportional control and TMR are extremely promising.
248 Common sEMG data resources and benchmarks have been proposed recently to compare different
249 sEMG analysis methods. Most of the factors that can theoretically affect the control of myoelectric
250 prostheses, such as clinical data (e.g. level of the amputation, phantom limb sensation intensity) were
251 recently studied. Finally sensorial feedback recently showed very promising advancements.

252 In conclusion, the path to proportional, naturally controlled, robust and usable robotic hand
253 prostheses with sensorial feedback (bionic hands) seems to be well initiated and extremely promising
254 for the coming years even though it is still a challenging work in progress.

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