

1 ***Direct Continuous EMG control of a Powered Prosthetic Ankle for Improved Postural Control***
2 ***after Guided Physical Training: a Case Study***

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21 **Abstract**

22 **Background**

23 Despite the promise of powered lower limb prostheses, the existing control of these modern
24 devices is insufficient to assist many daily activities, such as postural control while lifting weight,
25 that require continuous control of prosthetic joints according to human states and environments.
26 The objective of this case study was to investigate the feasibility and potential of direct, continuous
27 electromyographic (dEMG) control of a powered ankle prosthesis, combined with physical
28 therapist (PT)-guided training, for improved standing postural control in an individual with
29 transtibial amputation.

30 **Methods**

31 A powered prosthetic ankle was directly controlled by EMG signals of the residual *lateral*
32 *gastrocnemius* and *tibialis anterior* muscles. The participant with transtibial amputation received
33 4-week PT-guided training on posture while using the dEMG control of powered ankle. A subset
34 of activities in the mini-BESTest (a clinical balance assessment tool) were used in the training and
35 evaluation protocol. We quantified EMG signals in the bilateral shank muscles, biomechanics that
36 captures postural control and stability, and score for the clinical balance evaluation.

37 **Results**

38 Compared to the participant's daily passive prosthesis, the dEMG-controlled ankle, combined with
39 the training, yielded improved clinical balance score and reduced compensation from the intact
40 joints. In addition, cross correlation coefficient of bilateral CoP excursions, a metric for
41 quantifying standing postural control, increased to $0.83(\pm 0.07)$ when using dEMG ankle control,
42 compared with $0.39(\pm 0.29)$ when using the passive device. Between-limb coordination was also
43 observed as synchronized activation of homologous muscles in the shank. We witnessed rapid

44 improvement in performance on the first day of the training for load transfer tasks, where bilateral
45 CoP synchronization improvement was significantly related to repetition order ($R=0.459$, $p =$
46 0.045). Finally, the participant further improved this performance significantly across training
47 days.

48 **Conclusion:**

49 This case study showed the feasibility of dEMG control of powered prosthetic ankle by a transtibial
50 amputee after a PT-guided training to assist postural control. This study's training protocol and
51 dEMG control method that lays the foundation for future study to extend these results through the
52 inclusion of more participants and activities.

53

54 **Keywords**

55 Transtibial amputee, Postural Control, Myoelectric Control, Training, Dynamic Standing Balance

56

57 **Introduction**

58 Recent advances in intelligent, powered prosthetic legs have opened up opportunities for
59 individuals with lower limb amputations to restore their normative walking patterns on uneven
60 terrains [1-9]. These modern devices use primarily autonomous control, which is, however,
61 inadequate to assist other important daily tasks that involve unpredictable, non-cyclic motor
62 behavior and require continuous coordination with the user's motor control and environments. One
63 example of such activities is anticipatory and compensatory postural control in standing, walking,
64 or other recreation activities [10, 11].

65 Focusing on standing postural control, lower limb amputees wearing passive prostheses have
66 shown decreased postural stability and increased compensation from the intact limb [12, 13]. This
67 is partly because of the lack of active degrees of freedom in the prostheses. Powered prostheses
68 have active, controllable joints and, therefore, a potential to enhance the amputees' postural
69 stability. Unfortunately, there has been no autonomous control solutions to assist amputees'
70 standing posture because it is difficult to predict the postural perturbations and human motor
71 control strategy for counteracting the perturbations. We are aware of only one research group,
72 developing autonomous prosthesis control to assist posture stability of the prosthesis users when
73 standing on slopes [14]. The controller detected the inclination angle after the prosthesis foot was
74 on a slope and then adjusted equilibrium position of prosthesis joint in order to support the
75 amputee's standing posture. This automated control was reactive and limited in function because
76 it can assist standing posture on a slope only, and it acted only after the prosthesis foot was on an
77 incline. Hence, this prosthesis control was insufficient to assist anticipatory postural control (i.e.,
78 action before the perturbation happens) or handle the postural control under dynamic perturbations

79 (e.g. weight transfer), which requires continuous postural control based on the shift of center of
80 mass (COM).

81 As human neural control system is highly adaptable to the task context, perhaps neural control of
82 prosthetic joint can be a viable solution to assist the amputee's postural control and balance
83 stability. EMG signals of the residual muscles are readily-available efferent neural sources in
84 amputees and has been used for neural control of prosthetic legs in walking. Many groups have
85 used EMG pattern recognition to classify the user's locomotor tasks, switching autonomous
86 prosthesis control mode accordingly for enabling seamless locomotor task transitions [15-19].
87 Another group used EMG signal magnitude recorded from the residual *medial gastrocnemius*
88 (GAS) to proportionally modulate a control parameter in the automated prosthesis control in the
89 push-off phase [20]. Both aforementioned approaches relied on autonomous prosthesis control
90 laws and cannot produce neural control of prosthetic joints continuously. Three other groups
91 conducted case studies to show the feasibility of direct EMG (dEMG) control in walking, in which
92 EMG magnitude of one or a pair of residual antagonistic muscles are directly mapped to modulate
93 the applied torque to the prosthetic joints continuously [21-23]. In dEMG control, the behavior of
94 prosthetic joints is primarily and continuously determined by human neuromuscular control,
95 mimicking human biological joint control. Note that the existing studies on EMG control of
96 powered prosthetic legs, regardless the methods used, focuses on locomotor tasks mainly. Little
97 effort has been aimed to address postural control.

98 One of the main challenges in implementing direct EMG control of a prosthesis, although
99 technically simple, is whether amputees are capable of producing coordinated activations between
100 the residual antagonist muscles for operating a prosthesis joint in dynamic task performance.

101 Previous studies have shown a large variation among transtibial amputees in producing
102 coordinated activity between the residual *tibialis anterior* (TA) and GAS in a sitting posture or
103 walking [22, 24, 25]. These results implied that individuals with transtibial amputations might no
104 longer manifest normative activation in the residual muscles due to the limb amputation. Luckily,
105 evidences have also shown that training or practice is a potential way to improve the capability of
106 amputees in modulating residual muscles' activity for dEMG control. Our previous study [26]
107 tested transtibial amputees in dEMG control of a virtual inverted pendulum, mimicking the
108 dynamics of standing posture. We noted improved task performance for all the amputee
109 participants after a short-term practice within the same experimental visit. However, the amount
110 of improvement varied significantly among the participants. Acclimation to dEMG control has
111 involved repeating the evaluated task (walking) for an extend period of time [21, 27], or visualizing
112 phantom limb movements [28]. For Huang et al. [27] transtibial amputees did not adapt activation
113 of their residual GAS until they were given visual feedback of their prosthetic ankle angle with a
114 target trajectory. However, it was unclear whether, after removing biofeedback training, amputees
115 could still reproduce desired ankle joint trajectories or continue to improve control. Dawley et al.
116 [21] observed improvements residual muscle activity after simply repeated walking sessions with
117 a single above-knee amputee. From the findings of previous studies we postulate that amputees
118 might adapt and learn the necessary muscle activation pattern for control function after training
119 and practice. We expand the work of previous studies by 1) Creating and implementing an four-
120 week PT-guided training paradigm without supplementary feedback of the ankle prosthesis 2)
121 Implementing activity from *both* TA and GAS residual muscles for direct, continuous prosthetic
122 ankle control and 3) Investigating the ability for an amputee to improve standing postural control
123 with this control paradigm.

124 In this paper we present a case study to demonstrate the feasibility and potential benefit of dEMG
125 control of a powered ankle prosthesis on an individual with a transtibial amputation for enhanced
126 postural stability. Since training is likely necessary for successful application of dEMG control,
127 the case study included four-week of physical therapist (PT)-guided training. Via this case study,
128 we are interested in learning (1) how a transtibial amputee learns residual muscle activation
129 patterns and coordination necessary for driving a powered ankle prosthesis for postural control,
130 and (2) whether dEMG control of a powered ankle can improve the postural stability of transtibial
131 amputees, compared to the currently prescribed passive prostheses. The results may inform the
132 needed training protocol for dEMG control of prosthetic ankle and the future development of
133 versatile powered prostheses that can assist various activities of individuals with transtibial
134 amputations.

135

136 **Materials and Methods**

137 *Participant*

138 We recruited one amputee participant to take part in this case study. The participant provided
139 informed, written consent to participate in this Institutional Review Board approved study at the
140 University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. The participant was 57 years old and 3 years post-
141 amputation with septic shock as the cause. The participant weighed 131kg. The participant used a
142 pin-lock suspension and a Pro-Flex foot (Össur) daily. For the purpose of the study the participant
143 was fit with a new prosthetic socket (StabileFlex, Coyote Design). This transtibial socket design
144 provided more room in the anterior-posterior direction while still maintaining adequate fit by
145 loading the medio-lateral sides of the residual limb more heavily. This socket design provided
146 more room for the residual *tibialis anterior* and residual *gastrocnemius* muscles to contract

147 compared to traditional socket designs, which increased comfort of residual muscle contractions
148 within the socket and reduced residual muscle fatigue. On a daily basis the participant used his
149 passive prosthesis for household and community ambulation. He was able to traverse
150 environmental barriers without requiring an assistive device and was independent with daily tasks,
151 including driving.

152

153 As a case study we sought to understand how an amputee with relatively average control of his
154 residual muscles would perform in this extended training with a dEMG controlled prosthesis. Thus,
155 we recruited this participant based on his EMG control performance with his residual antagonistic
156 muscles in a previous study [26] (participant TT2).

157

158 *Clinical Screening*

159 We conducted a sensory screening of the participant before the start of the study. A trained physical
160 therapist performed a sensation screen of the participant's residual and intact limb. We noted
161 partial neuropathy in the participants intact foot. The participant had diminished light touch
162 sensation distal to the ankle joint. The participant had absent light touch sensation at the medical
163 aspect of the intact foot. Above the ankle joint, the participant was able to localize light touch
164 sensation stimuli in all dermatomes bilaterally.

165

166 *Device and Setup*

167 We used an experimental ankle prosthesis driven by pneumatic artificial muscles (PAM) as the
168 platform for testing proportional myoelectric control (dEMG control) with residual
169 muscles. Technical information about the device can be found [29]. This device was initially

170 developed for the study of continuous, proportional myoelectric control of plantarflexion during
171 level-ground walking [27]. In this study we implemented continuous control of both dorsi- and
172 plantar-flexion using two sets of proportional pressure valves (MAC Valves, Wixom, MI, USA)
173 with two valves allocated to each PAM for a total of 8 valves. The input control signal for the
174 control valves was 0-10V which corresponded to a pressure output of 0-90psi proportionally.

175
176 We processed electromyographic (EMG) signals from residual *tibialis anterior* (TA) and residual
177 *lateral gastrocnemius* (GAS) muscle in real-time (dSPACE, CLP-1103, 0-10V output) to create a
178 smoothed control signal for each set of pressure valves. The real-time setup created a smoothed
179 control signal by first applying a high-pass filter (100Hz, 2nd Order Butterworth) to reduce the
180 effect of potential signal artifacts. The setup then rectified the signal and applied a low-pass filter
181 (2Hz, 2nd Order Butterworth). The smoothed signal for each respective muscle was then sent to
182 the pressure regulators, which generated pressure proportionally to the input voltage to actuate the
183 device.

184
185 We applied a baseline signal from the setup for both pairs of muscles to set a base stiffness for the
186 ankle prosthesis. While the dEMG control was off, and the prosthesis unloaded, we applied a
187 baseline signal that generated a neutral ankle position (5-7 degrees dorsiflexion). We then asked
188 the participant to stand and we adjusted baseline signals based on the perceived baseline stiffness
189 compared with his intact ankle. After iterating this process, we established a baseline signal of
190 ~3V for the plantar- and dorsi-flexor muscles. When the participant had active control (dEMG
191 control was turned on) we observed an average tonic activity from the residual muscles (~1.3V
192 from residual GAS, ~1V from residual TA) across sessions. In order to allow the participant true

193 continuous control of the prosthetic device we did not enforce an EMG threshold that would
194 restrict low-level activity from controlling the device. We applied a gain to each control signal at
195 the beginning of each session in order that a maximum contraction generated a control signal
196 between 9-10V.

197

198 *Introduction to the system*

199 Before the initial evaluation and training, we introduced the amputee participant to the direct EMG
200 control paradigm and the pneumatic ankle device. While sitting, the participant wore the powered
201 ankle prosthesis and was given time to freely move the ankle joint via residual muscle contractions.
202 During this free exploration we provided visual feedback of his residual muscle activation as a
203 percentage of his maximum voluntary contraction (%MVC). In order to facilitate learning the
204 dynamics (i.e. possible combinations of ankle joint stiffness) we then asked the participant to fill
205 a virtual control input space with his residual antagonistic muscle contractions (as described in
206 [30]). We then repeated these steps while the amputee participant stood with handlebar support
207 available to him. We took these steps to provide the participant with a clear understanding of the
208 input-output relationship of reciprocal activation and co-activation of his residual muscles to
209 changes prosthetic ankle joint dynamics. After this introduction stage we did not provide the
210 amputee participant visual feedback of residual muscle activations.

211

212 *Training and Evaluation Sessions*

213 The study consisted of an initial evaluation, 5 training sessions, a final evaluation, and a
214 supplementary evaluation. The timeline for training and evaluation sessions are outlined (Table
215 1).

216

217 For the evaluation sessions we asked the participant to perform quiet standing tasks across various
218 sensory conditions. The four tasks selected involve quiet standing under two visual conditions,
219 Eyes Open (EO) and Eyes Closed (EC), and two surface conditions, Firm and Foam, as described
220 by the BESTest [31]. These tasks were scored by a trained physical therapist on a scale from 0-3
221 where when the participant stood stably for 30 seconds (score = 3), 30 seconds unstable (score =
222 2), stood less than 30 seconds (score = 1), and unable (score = 0) [31].

223

224 For the training sessions we selected tasks relevant to daily life activities: Load transfer, Sit-to-
225 Stand, Forward reach, and Arm raise. These tasks (with the exception of the load transfer) are also
226 a subset of evaluation tasks in the BESTest [31]. We selected these training tasks to differ from
227 the evaluation tasks in order to understand the effect of training to overall standing stability, as
228 opposed to task-specific stability, while using the dEMG control of a prosthetic ankle. At the start
229 of each training session we asked the amputee to stand with his prosthetic foot on a rocker-board
230 and intact foot on firm ground for 30 seconds. During training the participant completed 2 trials of
231 each task per session, with a minimum of 4 repetitions per trial. The number of repetitions
232 increased across days, as prescribed by the physical therapist, where day 4 of the training sessions
233 (Table 1) had 20 total repetitions of each task.

234

235 We conducted the study over the course of 25 days. We gave a minimum of 1 day of rest between
236 sessions in order to reduce fatigue effects and a maximum of 4 days of rest between sessions to
237 minimize learning losses. We conducted training with the dEMG controlled device only. We
238 evaluated standing stability with both passive and dEMG controlled devices on the first day. After

239 training, we performed a follow-up evaluation with the dEMG control. In order to compare
 240 postural control strategies in training tasks across devices we conducted a supplementary
 241 evaluation session where the participant repeated the training tasks while wearing his passive
 242 device.
 243

Table 1. Clinical Standing Balance Evaluation and Training Timeline

Day	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Day 6	Day 7	Day 8
Session Type	Passive Prosthesis & dEMG Prosthesis Evaluation*	Training (dEMG only)				dEMG Evaluation	Supplementary Eval. (Passive only)	
Tasks	Quiet Standing: 1) Firm, EO** 2) Firm, EC 3) Foam, EO 4) Foam, EC	Rocker Board Warm-up Arm Raise Forward Reach Load Transfer Sit-to-Stand				Quiet Standing: 1) Firm, EO 2) Firm, EC 3) Foam, EO 4) Foam, EC	Rocker Board Warm-up Arm Raise Forward Reach Load Transfer Sit-to-Stand	

* Passive prosthesis evaluation conducted first ** EO: Eyes Open, EC: Eyes Closed

244
 245 A trained clinician attended each training session with the participant. During each training session
 246 the clinician observed the participant complete each task. Between repetitions, the clinician
 247 provided feedback to the participant regarding his full-body symmetry, body mechanics, foot
 248 positioning, and alignment. The clinician provided feedback to encourage equal contribution from
 249 both limbs toward the specific task. The patient received verbal cues to shift his weight onto his
 250 prosthetic side and to recruit muscles in a “toes up” or “toes down” direction when learning each
 251 task. This directional cue is the same language used when he performed his warm-up on the rocker
 252 board. He also required cues to shift his weight onto his prosthetic side, especially for tasks such
 253 as sit to stand transfers in which he was accustomed to compensating for an ankle that was
 254 relatively fixed, whereas the power prosthesis allowed for movement in the sagittal plane.
 255

256 *Measurements*

257 During all sessions we recorded activity from the residual and intact shank muscles. Specifically,
258 we placed EMG sensors (Neuroline 715, 1mm height) on residual *lateral gastrocnemius* and
259 residual *tibialis anterior* muscles (Figure 1). We located residual muscle bellies via palpation while
260 the participant contracted and relaxed his muscles [32]. We then routed cables away from bony
261 landmarks and connected them to a pre-amplifier (Motion Lab Systems, MA-412, Gainx20)
262 outside of the prosthetic socket. We placed EMG sensors (Motion Lab Systems, MA-420,
263 Gainx20) on intact GAS and intact TA muscles. We connected all sensors to an amplifier (MA300-
264 XVI, Gain x1000).

265
266 For all sessions we collected Center of Pressure (CoP) locations under each foot using an
267 instrumented split-belt treadmill (1000Hz, Bertec Corp.). For the final session of training (Day 6)
268 and the supplementary passive evaluation session (Day 8) we collected full-body kinematics using
269 motion capture (100Hz, 53 markers, VICON, Oxford, UK).

270

271 *Data Analysis*

272 We processed all data offline using Matlab (Mathworks, Natick, MA). We analyzed all quiet
273 standing trials where the participant was able to maintain balance for the entire trial without
274 stepping. Since the participant was unable to maintain balance in the dEMG control, Pre-Training,
275 Foam condition, we used the score given by the physical therapist for comparison. For the training
276 sessions and supplementary evaluation, we analyzed data from the load transfer tasks only. We
277 selected the load transfer task for analysis since this was self-reportedly the most difficult task for
278 the participant during training.

279

280 For the training session analysis, we extracted and evaluated each repetition of the load transfer
281 task. Each repetition was manually extracted through visual inspection of the summed vertical
282 ground reaction forces in order to determine the moment the weight was picked up (before pick-
283 up the weight was located beside the instrumented treadmill). Based on the speed of movement
284 during training we empirically windowed each repetition to ± 2 s on either side of the moment of
285 pick-up.

286

287 For all evaluation trials and load transfer repetitions we calculated synchronization of CoP
288 excursions in the Anterior-Posterior direction under each foot by taking the cross-correlation
289 between the time series [33]. For each trial, we subtracted the mean CoP values from each foot
290 and conducted a cross-correlation of the times series using MATLAB (xcorr). We determined the
291 cross-correlation coefficient at time zero (CC_0), max cross-correlation coefficient (CC_{max}), and the
292 lag value (Lag_{CC}) in milliseconds from time zero to CC_{max} . CC_{max} and Lag_{CC} are calculated to
293 determine potential lag in CoP excursions between limbs using a window of ± 1 s [33].

294

295 For the final training session (dEMG control) and in the supplementary session (passive) we
296 analyzed ankle, knee, and hip joint flexion during the load transfer task. We calculated joint angles
297 in the sagittal plane [34] for each windowed repetition. We then subtracted joint angles during
298 quiet standing from all repetitions for each condition. We tabulated peak hip, knee, and ankle
299 flexion angles during the windowed repetitions.

300

301 In order to analyze the neural control strategy used by the participant we processed EMG activity
302 from residual and intact TA and GAS muscles. We first high-pass filtered the raw EMG signal
303 (Butterworth, 2nd order, 100Hz cutoff) from all muscles to remove potential motion artifacts. We
304 rectified the signals and applied a low-pass filter (Butterworth, 2th order, 20Hz cutoff) in order to
305 generate a smoothed signal for qualitative comparison. We then selected representative repetitions
306 from the first and final day of training based on CC_0 values that were closest to the average CC_0
307 for that day of training. We then plotted CoP excursion, EMG activity from residual and intact TA
308 and GAS, and residual TA and GAS control signals together for qualitative comparison.

309

310 *Statistical Analysis*

311 For our statistical analysis of the data we used the statistical software (JMP, SAS, US). We used a
312 one-way ANOVA to compare the CC_0 , CC_{max} , and Lag_{CC} with Training Day as the main effect.
313 We used the Shapiro-Wilk normality test ($p < 0.01$) to detect outlier repetitions. One repetition was
314 removed from our analysis (repetition 2, day 1 training, $CC_0 = -0.4$). We ran a simple linear
315 regression to determine the amount of variance (via R-squared) described by trial order in each
316 training session CC_0 , CC_{max} , and Lag_{CC} . We analyzed joint flexion angles in the load transfer task
317 between dEMG control and passive device. We used a two-way ANOVA to detect main and
318 interaction effects of Device and Joint. When we found a significant effect, we tested for statistical
319 differences within joint and device conditions using Tukey's honestly significant difference test (α
320 = 0.05). Significance thresholds were set using an alpha value of 0.05.

321

322 **Results**

323 *Quiet Standing Evaluation: Clinical Scoring of Stability*

324 We observed clear improvements in stability with the dEMG control of the powered ankle in the
 325 quiet standing tasks post-training (Table 2). In the pre-training condition, the amputee displayed
 326 moderate instability on the firm surface for both eyes open and eyes closed, evidenced by visually
 327 noticeable sways (*score* = 2). In the foam surface the amputee was unable to maintain balance
 328 without stepping in either condition (*score* = 1). Post-Training, the amputee improved stability
 329 over all conditions (*score* = 3). In all surface and vision conditions the participant did not display
 330 visually significant sways and did not require the use of any handlebars.
 331

Table 2: Quiet Standing Tasks Clinical Score and Between Limb Synchronization

Device	Surface	Condition	Score (BESTest)	CC ₀
<i>Passive</i>	Firm	Eyes Open	2	0.395
		Eyes Closed	2	0.654
	Foam	Eyes Open	2	-0.004
		Eyes Closed	2	0.540
<i>dEMG control (Pre-Training)</i>	Firm	Eyes Open	2	0.590
		Eyes Closed	2	0.460
	Foam	Eyes Open	1	Insufficient Data (9s max)
		Eyes Closed	1	Insufficient Data (2s max)
<i>dEMG control (Post-Training)</i>	Firm	Eyes Open	3	0.875
		Eyes Closed	3	0.863
	Foam	Eyes Open	3	0.874
		Eyes Closed	3	0.726

332
 333 We observed differences in stability between the passive (baseline) and dEMG controlled
 334 condition (Post-Training) (Table 2). With his passive device the amputee was able to maintain
 335 balance in all conditions with significant postural sway, and the use of handlebars was not needed
 336 (*score* = 2). With dEMG control, post-training, the amputee had minimal postural sways for all
 337 conditions (*score* = 3).
 338
 339 *Quiet Standing Evaluation: Between-Limb Synchronization*

340 The participant demonstrated distinct patterns of bilateral center of pressure excursions between
341 the passive and dEMG control (Post-Training) for the quiet standing tasks. Figure 2 shows this
342 stark contrast in the foam condition where the participant displayed noticeably higher
343 synchronization between his intact and prosthetic foot CoP_{AP} excursion with dEMG control (EO
344 $CC_0 = 0.874$, EC $CC_0 = 0.726$) compared with his passive device (EO $CC_0 = 0.004$, EC $CC_0 =$
345 0.540). We observed this increase in synchronization during dEMG control in firm surface
346 conditions as well (Table 1). The magnitude of CoP_{AP} excursion of the prosthetic foot in the
347 passive device was less than the intact limb CoP_{AP} excursion as evidenced by time series plots
348 (Figure 2a,b). The participant increased CoP_{AP} excursion on the prosthetic side post-training with
349 dEMG control (Figure 2c,d).

350

351 In dEMG control, the amputee demonstrated improvements in between limb synchronization after
352 training for all quiet standing conditions (Table 2 & Figure 3). In the firm condition, pre-training,
353 we observed moderate cross-correlation in CoP excursions between the intact and dEMG
354 controlled foot (EO $CC_0 = 0.590$, EC $CC_0 = 0.460$) (Figure 3a,b). Post-training, the participant
355 more closely synchronized CoP excursions between the two feet (EO $CC_0 = 0.875$, EC $CC_0 =$
356 0.863) (Figure 3c,d) in the firm condition. During the initial evaluation the amputee was unable to
357 maintain balance in the foam condition thus we did not evaluate CC_0 for the pre-training, dEMG
358 control condition. However, the amputee demonstrated similar synchronization values between
359 firm and foam conditions in the post-training condition (*foam*: EO $CC_0 = 0.874$, EC $CC_0 = 0.726$).

360

361 *Training Evaluation: Load Transfer Task*

362 Over the course of training the amputee significantly improved between-limb synchronization of
363 CoP excursion. In the initial trials of the load transfer task, the participant displayed moderate
364 levels of synchronization ($CC_0 = 0.49(\pm 0.16)$, $CC_{\max} = 0.52(\pm 0.14)$, $CC_{\text{lag}} = -107.3\text{ms} (\pm 357.1)$)
365 (Figure 4) similar to synchronization values observed during the initial evaluation. We observed
366 that CC_{\max} and CC_0 improved significantly over the course of just the first day, where CC_{\max} and
367 CC_0 are significantly related to repetition order (CC_{\max} : $R^2 = 0.459$, $p = 0.045$; CC_0 : $R^2 = 0.646$, p
368 $= 0.009$) (Figure 4). We determined this relationship was significant for the first day, however not
369 for the trial order in the remaining days. Across training, day was found to be a significant main
370 effect for CC_{\max} ($p = 0.011$) and CC_0 ($p = 0.006$), but not for CC_{lag} ($p = 0.279$). At the final day
371 of training we observed CC values of ($CC_0 = 0.76(\pm 0.15)$, $CC_{\max} = 0.76(\pm 0.16)$, $CC_{\text{lag}} = -22.8\text{ms}$
372 (± 32.79)).

373
374 Analysis of EMG patterns during representative load transfers demonstrated distinct neural
375 strategies between initial and final trials (Figure 5). These specific repetitions were chosen since
376 their CC_0 value closely matched average CC_0 values for the initial and final day of training. Pre-
377 training, we observed different timing and shape of EMG activity between the residual and intact
378 limb. The participant intermittently activated the intact TA (Figure 5a) with a steady contraction
379 of the GAS muscle throughout the movement (Figure 5b). In comparison the amputee had little to
380 no activation from the residual TA before peak squat depth (Figure 5a,c) followed by significant
381 activation of the GAS while returning to the standing posture (Figure 5b,c). The control signal
382 reached half of its force generating potential (5V ~ 50psi) in the plantar-flexor direction during
383 this movement (Figure 5c). Post-training, the strategy between the two limbs appeared more
384 closely aligned. Activations from the residual TA were seemingly identical to activations from the

385 intact TA (Figure 5e). Intact and residual GAS muscle activations were relatively aligned (Figure
386 5f) with the exception of activation of the intact GAS muscle before reversal of the squatting
387 motion (Figure 5f). The control signal to the prosthesis (Figure 5c,g) mostly clearly demonstrated
388 residual antagonistic pair control strategy across training. In final trials we observed high
389 activations of the residual TA at the beginning of the movement, followed by small contractions
390 from the residual GAS and co-contraction post-squat (Figure 5g). CC of CoP_{AP} excursions
391 demonstrate the similarity in control strategy between limbs (Figure 5h).

392

393 *Load Transfer Task: Postural Control Strategy*

394 Post-training, we observed significantly different postural strategies between the passive and
395 dEMG controlled device for the load transfer task. We observed small flexion angles for the
396 passive ankle prosthesis during the load transfer (Table 3 & Figure 6). With dEMG control post-
397 training, the ankle flexion angle significantly increased (Passive-dEMG, $p < 0.0001$). For the
398 dEMG control condition the knee flexion angle also increased (Passive-dEMG, $p < 0.0001$) and
399 the hip flexion angle decreased (Passive-dEMG, $p < 0.0001$). We observed a significant interaction
400 between the device and joint ($p < 0.0001$).

Table 3: Load Transfer Joint Angle (Passive vs. Post-Training dEMG Control)

Joint	Device	
	Passive Flexion (deg)	dEMG Control Flexion (deg)
Ankle	4.07(±0.71)	25.59(±4.33)
Knee	51.00(±3.51)	77.08(±4.70)
Hip	103.89(±5.07)	86.55(±2.47)
Device Main Effect		p < 0.0001
Joint Main Effect		p < 0.0001
Interaction Effect		p < 0.0001

401

402 **Discussion**

403 In this study, we present the feasibility of direct EMG control to continuously operate prosthetic
404 ankle joint mechanics in order to address the postural stability for individuals with transtibial
405 amputations. The main finding of this study is that our recruited transtibial amputee participant
406 was capable of using residual antagonist muscles to directly and continuously control a prosthetic
407 ankle to significantly improve standing postural control, after 4 weeks of PT-guided training
408 sessions, across various contexts compared with postural control using a passive ankle prosthesis
409 as the baseline after . Completely different from the “standard” control framework for active lower
410 limb prostheses and exoskeletons as suggested in [35] that relies on preprogrammed, discrete finite
411 state machines and prescribed control laws, dEMG control used in this case study continuously
412 drives a powered prosthesis joint based purely on the user’s neural control signals (i.e. motor
413 commands) from the residual GAS and residual TA muscles. This device offered the amputee user
414 the freedom to continuously adjust the behavior of prosthetic ankle (i.e. control both position and
415 stiffness independently), which allows the amputee user to freely adapt their prosthesis behavior
416 to accommodate versatile activities of daily life. We chose different postural control tasks during
417 standing in this study, as the first step, to demonstrate the potential of dEMG control for standing
418 postural control tasks that requires continuous coordination of residual muscle activation. Using
419 preprogrammed autonomous control to accommodate versatile activities of daily life has been
420 difficult because it requires the autonomous controller to seamlessly coordinate its behavior with
421 a multitude of environments, contexts, and user intent.

422

423 One of the interesting observations in this study was that enabling neural control of a prosthetic
424 ankle on the amputated side elicited improved motor coordination between the intact limb and
425 amputated limb during postural control. The between-limb coordination was manifested by (1)

426 synchronized CoP anterior-posterior excursion and (2) synchronized shank muscle activation.
427 First, we observed a significant improvement in between-limb synchronization of CoP excursion
428 during standing postural control when the TT amputee can actively use prosthetic ankle via neural
429 control, compared to when he used passive device. Between-limb CoP synchronization has
430 developed over recent years into a meaningful measure of postural control for populations with
431 inter-limb deficits (i.e. stroke population) [33, 36]. When the participant wore a passive prosthesis,
432 the missing ankle function led to lack of CoP excursion on the amputated side and therefore lack
433 of bilateral CoP synchronization [37]. When the participant can actively move the ankle via the
434 EMG control signals, not only the CoP excursion magnitude increased on the amputated side, but
435 also it showed improved synchronization with the CoP excursion in the intact side. This CoP
436 synchronization restores the possibility of normative CoP control strategies in standing typically
437 observed in healthy individuals (i.e. CoP-CoM to CoM acceleration relationship [38]). The
438 observation implies the importance in restoring ankle control and function for enhanced postural
439 stability and the potential of dEMG control for active control of prosthetic ankle. Additionally, by
440 demonstrating the ability for a transtibial amputee to volitionally adjust CoP excursion while
441 improving standing postural control, this is the first study to show the potential for this
442 biomechanical feature to indicate prosthetic ankle control capability. Second, the between-limb
443 coordination was also observed in EMG activation pattern as shown in Figure 5. After learning the
444 dEMG control of prosthetic ankle in standing postural control, nearly synchronized activation
445 between intact and residual TA/GA was observed. One of the open questions is what neural
446 mechanisms are responsible for the observed adaptation in residual muscle activations. The
447 observation of synchronized activation in homologous muscles between limbs cause us to consider
448 the potential for a common neural drive behind the activity for both muscles. It would be an

449 interesting future direction to investigate the neuromuscular adaptation in lower limb amputees
450 when the function of residual muscle activation is restored via dEMG control of prosthetic joints.

451

452 There is a lack of studies that have reported extended training and improvement in dEMG control
453 in the lower limb with residual muscles. As a significant contribution, we developed a specific
454 training paradigm guided by a physical therapist as well as acclimation strategy toward facilitating
455 adaptation in residual antagonistic muscle activity. Instead of solely focusing on residual muscle
456 activation for operation of prosthetic ankle (i.e. local joint level), our training also emphasized the
457 full-body coordination and awareness in postural control while encouraging the participant in
458 engaging prosthetic ankle via dEMG control during the task performance. Accordingly, over the
459 course of training we witnessed various stages of learning from the amputee participant. During
460 the initial training days (1 and 2) the amputee noted that he focused primarily on controlling the
461 prosthetic ankle when completing the prescribed tasks. However, in the latter days of training (days
462 3-5) the participant frequently mentioned focusing on whole-body movement, using his prosthetic
463 and intact limb symmetrically. Huang et al. observed improvement in dEMG control of a prosthetic
464 ankle during walking when they provided visual feedback of the ankle-joint angle [27],
465 demonstrating the relevance of this joint-level focus when learning. We extend the results from
466 this study by demonstrating the ability for an amputee to potentially continue the learning process
467 beyond this joint level focus, without the use of visual feedback. Since this learning occurred in
468 the absence of supplementary artificial feedback, only under the guidance of verbal feedback from
469 a physical therapist, this type of training shows promise toward real-world application of dEMG
470 control of a powered ankle prosthesis. While the stages of learning observed here are discussed
471 qualitatively, future investigations of amputee learning the dEMG control of a prosthetic device

472 would benefit by analyzing the potential change in multi-joint muscle coordination via muscle
473 synergy analysis [39, 40].

474

475 Our task-specific training, emphasizing both local joint control and full-body control, improved
476 the participant's postural control capability significantly. Before conducting this study, we did not
477 know whether our recruited amputee participant could coordinate his residual muscle activation
478 appropriately for prosthetic ankle control to assist postural stability. This was because in our
479 previous studies [26], in which the amputee participant was also a test participant, he showed
480 average performance compared with other transtibial amputees when asked to coordinate residual
481 antagonistic muscles to balance a virtual inverted pendulum with human-like dynamics in a sitting
482 position. In addition, it was unclear how the participant's demographics, such as age (57y/o), BMI
483 (~34), presence of vascular disease (including partial neuropathy at the intact foot), might affect
484 his ability to improve control during training. Though these factors may have a significant negative
485 effect on standing postural control [41-43] they are highly characteristic traits of the lower-limb
486 amputee population [44, 45]. The before-training evaluation also showed limited muscle activation
487 in residual TA (Figure 5) and comparable or even worse quiet standing test score (Table 2).
488 However, when our training protocol was applied, we observed significant improvements in
489 residual muscle control of the powered ankle prosthesis and postural control capability in both
490 singular sessions and across training as a whole (Figure 4). Through this case study we have
491 presented the first potential timeline for the improvement of dEMG control facilitated by PT-
492 guided training over multiple days. Future study that wishes to accurately investigate the
493 usefulness of dEMG control of lower-limb prostheses should consider the potential stage of

494 learning of the individual amputees and the influence of improvement that can come with time and
495 appropriate training.

496

497 The results from this study have several implications for the potential clinical benefit of dEMG
498 control of a powered prosthetic ankle. During the follow-up evaluation of the load transfer task we
499 observed the participant had limited range of motion with his passive prosthetic ankle, likely due
500 to minimal change in angle of the stiff ankle joint. Hence, compensation with more trunk flexion
501 was used, which is a known problem for back injuries during weightlifting. The participant was
502 able to significantly change ankle angle using the dEMG control ankle allowing for an improved
503 overall postural configuration (i.e. more vertical trunk angle) [46] in lifting, which could
504 significantly prevent secondary injuries post amputation. In addition, this study has taken one of
505 the first steps, via direct EMG control, toward addressing the normalization of other functional
506 tasks (aside from locomotion) that are critical to daily life activities and amputee quality of life.

507

508 Our study included one amputee to investigate the feasibility of dEMG control of a powered ankle
509 for enhanced postural control. Although exciting results were observed, this case study was
510 insufficient to conclude the benefit of dEMG control of powered ankles. Future work should
511 expand this current case study to include more participants to understand the applicability to the
512 general amputee population. It would be interesting in future study for more measures of stability
513 (including center of mass, joint torque symmetry, etc.) to further inform the effect of dEMG control
514 of a powered ankle prosthesis. Though its effect is not specifically addressed in the context of this
515 study, future study would benefit to evaluate the effect of prosthetic socket design on residual
516 muscle activations during EMG control of lower-limb prostheses.

517

518 **Conclusion**

519 This case study was the first attempt to demonstrate the feasibility and potential for direct EMG
520 control of a powered prosthetic ankle, combined with PT-guided training, to enhance standing
521 postural control across various contexts and tasks. The participant when using dEMG-controlled
522 powered ankle yielded improved clinical balance score, reduced compensation from the intact
523 joints, and improved between-limb coordination, compared to those when using his daily passive
524 prosthesis. In addition, the case study developed a PT-guided training protocol for transtibial
525 amputees, which is necessary for them in learning dEMG control of powered ankle to assist
526 postural control and improve postural stability. This case study has developed the grounds for
527 future design of versatile and agile powered lower-limb prostheses via direct, continuous EMG
528 control via residual muscles, which may further improve the motor function of individuals with
529 lower limb amputations and improve the ability for amputees to navigate standing postural control
530 tasks that are a significant portion of daily-life activities.

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549 **Declarations**

550 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

551 The experimental protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of
552 North Carolina – Chapel Hill. All participants provided written, informed consent.

553

554 *Consent for publication*

555 The participant provided written, informed consent for publication.

556

557 *Availability of data and material*

558 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding
559 author on reasonable request.

560

561 *Competing interests*

562 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

563

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566

567 *Authors' contributions*

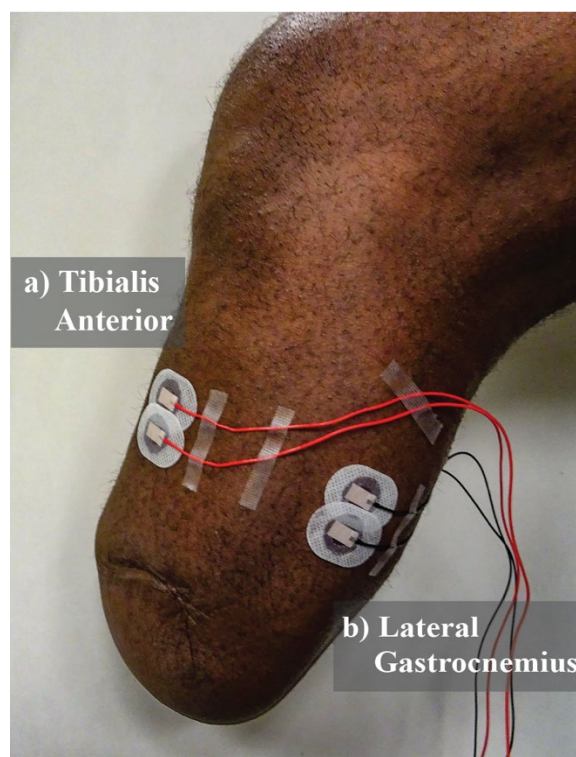
568 SH, and HH contributed to the design of the experiment. SH, EB, and FH conducted the
569 experiments. AF and SH processed the data. AF, SH, and HH wrote the manuscript. All authors
570 contributed to the analysis and interpretation of the results and read and approved the final
571 manuscript.

572

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577 **Figures**

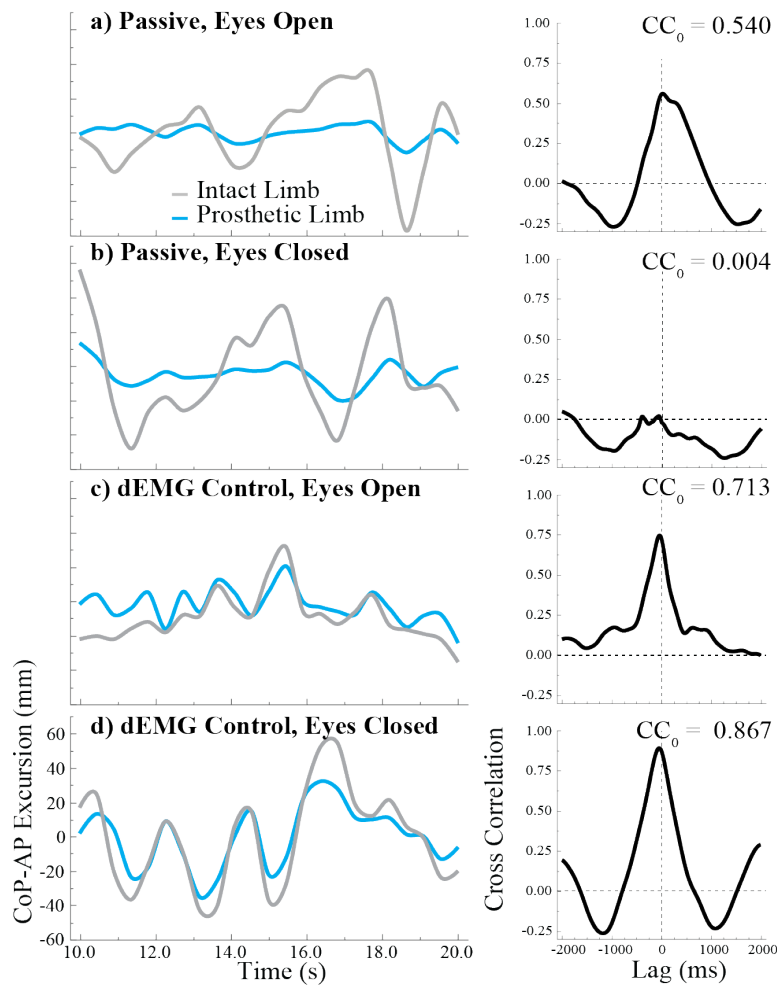


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579 **Figure 1.** Residual limb electrode placement. a) Tibialis Anterior electrodes. b) Lateral
580 Gastrocnemius electrodes. Electrodes are placed in line with muscle belly (location determined
581 through palpation as amputee is asked to contract muscle). Cables are routed away from bony
582 landmarks.

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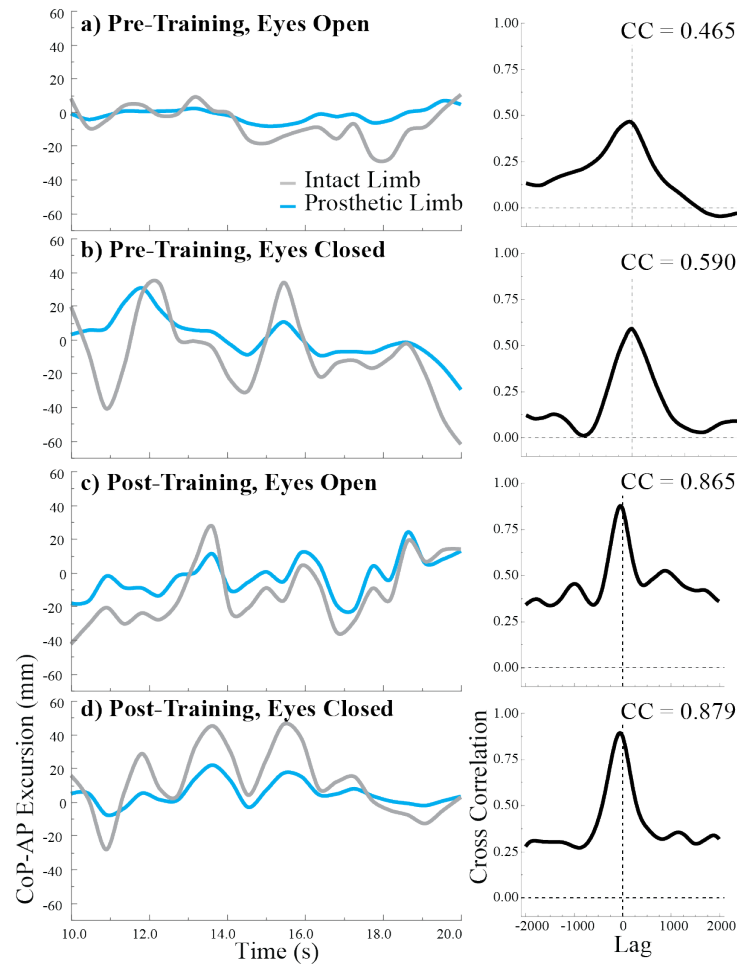
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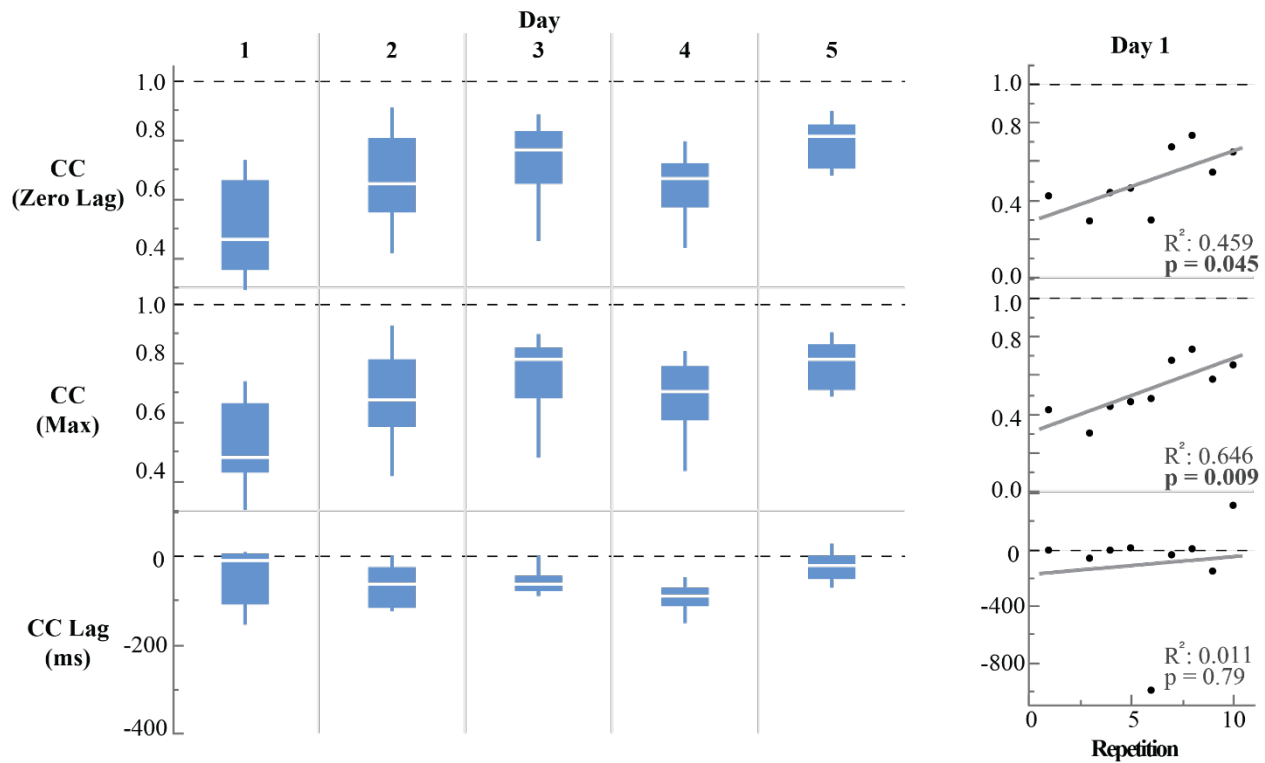
Figure 2: Passive vs. Post-training dEMG control on the Foam Surface. Representative center of pressure excursion and cross correlation between limbs. Representative trials are 10 second portions taken from each 30-second trial. Trials shown above are firm surface only. a) Passive device, eyes open condition b) Passive device, eyes closed condition c) dEMG controlled device, eyes open d) dEMG controlled device, eyes closed.



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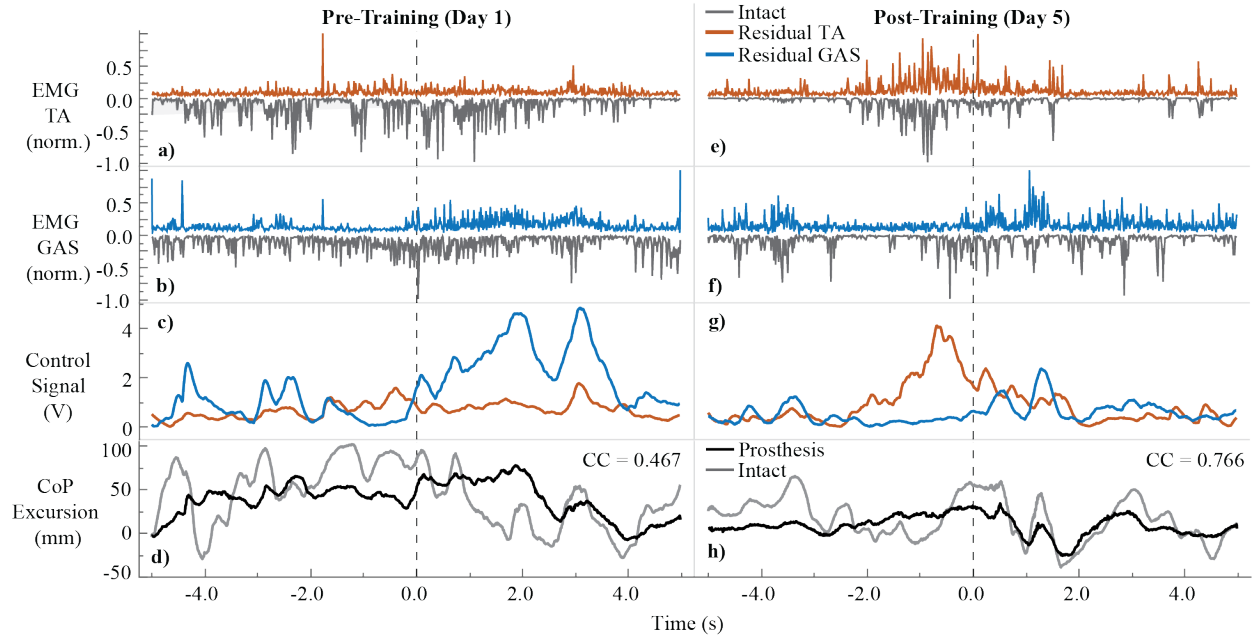
Figure 3: Pre vs. Post-training with dEMG control on the Firm Ground. Representative Center of Pressure excursion and Cross Correlation between limbs. Representative trials are 10 second portions taken from each 30-second trial. Trials shown above are firm surface only. a) Pre-training, eyes open condition b) Pre-training, eyes closed condition c) Post-training, eyes closed condition d) post-training, eyes closed condition.

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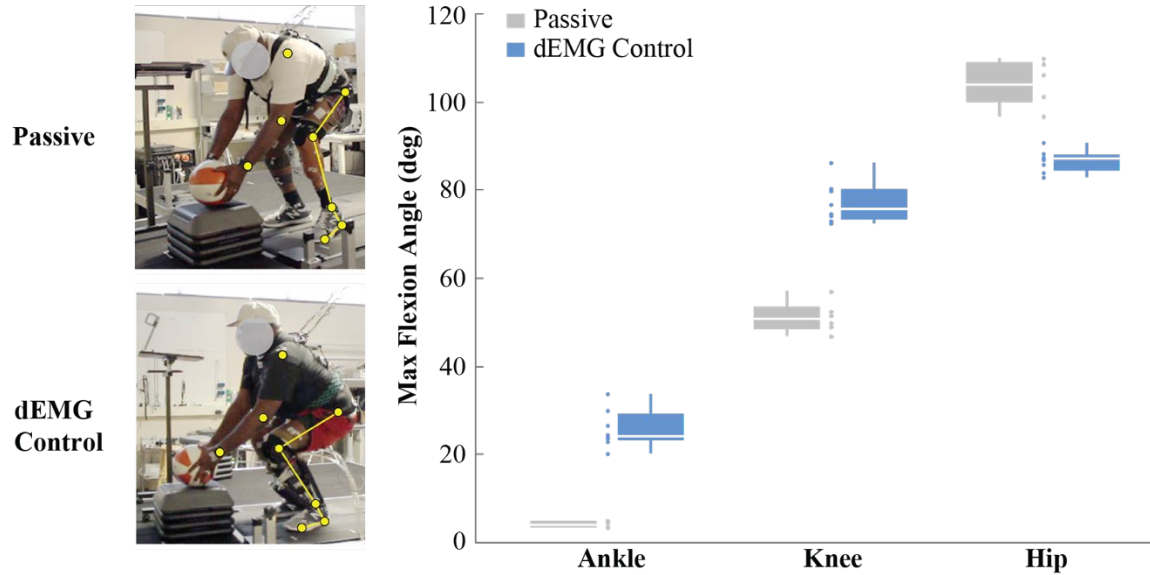
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602 **Figure 4.** CoP synchronization values during training for the load transfer task. R-squared values
603 and p-value are shown for Cross-Correlation (CC) values (CC at zero lag, maximum CC, and lag
604 of maximum CC from zero lag) for day 1 of training. Due to concern for residual muscle fatigue
605 during training, Day 1 and 2 contained less than 10 repetitions.



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Figure 5: Representative load transfer trials pre and post-training. Dashed Line) moment of peak deceleration during squatting movement. **a)** normalized EMG of residual (orange) and intact (grey) TA muscle pair. **b)** Normalized EMG of residual (blue) and intact (grey) GAS muscle pair. **c)** Control signal to the prosthesis from the real-time processing of residual TA (orange) and residual GAS (blue) muscle EMG. **d)** CoP excursion from prosthetic (black) and intact foot (grey). Cross-correlation values are displayed for each representative trial (Pre: CC = 0.467, Post: CC = 0.766). **e-h)** Data for post-training. Normalized EMG was calculated by dividing the maximum EMG value for each muscle from the entire trial.



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Figure 6. Load transfer task joint flexion angles (Passive vs. Post-Training dEMG Control). *Grey*) Passive prosthetic ankle, hip, and knee joint flexion on affected limb at peak squat depth (as determined by location of hip joint center). *Blue*) dEMG controlled prosthetic ankle, hip, and knee joint flexion at peak squat depth. Joint flexion angles determined as the difference between angle at maximum depth and angle during quiet standing.

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