Ultrasonic Array Doppler Sensing for Human Movement Classification

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Abstract—Classification of human movements is an important problem in healthcare and well-being applications. An ultrasonic array Doppler sensing method is proposed for classifying movements from a given set. The proposed method uses velocity and angular information derived from Doppler frequencies and direction-of-arrival (DoA) by processing the signals at the receiver sensor array. Doppler frequency estimation is done by obtaining an initial estimate based on the Fourier transform in conjunction with a predictive tracker. A Root-MUSIC algorithm is used at the estimated Doppler frequencies to obtain DoA corresponding to the dominating moving object. Using speed, direction, and angle as features, a Bayesian classifier is employed to distinguish between a set of movements. The performance of the proposed method is evaluated using an analytical model of arm movements and also using experimental data sets. The proposed ultrasonic Doppler array sensor and processing methods provide a new, compact solution to human arm movement classification.

Index Terms—Ultrasonic array, Doppler and DoA processing, movement classification.

I. INTRODUCTION

HUMAN movement classification is of interest in a number of healthcare and personal well-being applications. In the healthcare domain, monitoring of a patient’s recuperation from a Cerebrovascular Accident (CVA) or stroke has shown to increase the effectiveness of rehabilitative interventions [1], [2]. The study in [3] considered the use of kinematic data - i.e. dynamics of arm movements (e.g. shoulder flexion and horizontal adduction), to characterize motor deficits in CVA patients. Currently, intensive physical and mental rehabilitation to allow patients to re-participate in society is performed by trained therapists in specialized rehabilitation centers. An upcoming approach that aims to resolve the future shortage of rehabilitation spaces and therapists is tele-rehabilitation [4]. With a growing shift from acute to chronic illnesses, rising healthcare costs due to population ageing [5], and the preference of people to live independently, such approaches are especially becoming important. Gaining insights into human movements is an important aspect that determines the efficiency of these remote monitoring solutions [6], [7]. In this paper, we consider an ultrasonic array Doppler sensing solution for classification of movements from a given set.

In [8] and [9], a wearable triaxial accelerometer was used as sensor for monitoring physical activities. In [10], subject-specific electromyography pattern classification techniques were studied to identify their functional tasks and differentiate these from the muscle activation patterns of stroke survivors. A sensor platform solution with a wearable sensor was presented in [11] for elderly health monitoring applications. A detailed review of ambulatory monitors for different clinical applications was done in [12]. It was reported that while wearable ambulatory monitoring sensor solutions are attractive, minimally obtrusive sensors are preferred in a number of home healthcare applications. In [13], methods for markerless pose recovery and human movement classification were presented using cameras from 3-D reconstructed volume data. However, privacy issues relating to the use of vision sensors remain a concern [14]. A radar sensor was used to estimate human motion features using a Boulic model in [15]. Ultrasound as a sensor modality for activity monitoring and classification has been shown to be effective, while being unobtrusive and addressing privacy concerns [16]–[18]. In [19], multiple ultrasonic sensors operating on time-of-flight principle were used to analyze human interactions for potential psychological applications. An acoustic Doppler sonar consisting of a single transmitter and distributed receivers was presented in [17] for single arm gestures. In these works, the receiver setup does not permit the use of beamforming, and as such angular information cannot be extracted.

The configuration considered in this paper is one where the sensor is placed in front of the human. Such a configuration is typical in scenarios where a patient in tele-rehabilitation needs to perform specific movements. The proposed sensor consists of an ultrasonic transmitter and a co-located linear receiver array, thereby allowing extraction of directional information from a correlation analysis of the received signals. Such an
ultrasonic Doppler array sensing solution permits extraction of speed, direction and angular information which serve as rich features in movement classification. Furthermore, the array based approach yields a compact solution, in comparison to the distributed systems considered in previous works, and allows enhancement of the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) for Doppler estimation.

The signals reflected from the human and the environment are processed at the receiver array. We first obtain an initial estimate of the Doppler frequency by processing the short time Fourier transform (STFT) of the signal spatially averaged over the array elements. This Doppler frequency estimate is then tracked over a time segment to obtain an improved estimate. The Doppler frequency in turn provides speed and direction of the human movement. A Root-MUSIC algorithm is then used to obtain angular information. The obtained speed, direction and angle are used as features to describe a movement class. A naive Bayes estimator is then used to obtain angular information. The proposed ultrasonic Doppler array sensor and processing methods provide a new, compact solution to the arm movement classification problem, with its effectiveness evaluated using experimental data using a four-element 1D array. The proposed techniques, we constrain our attention to single-arm movements. Since rehabilitative interventions often focus on motor control of individual limbs and up to 85% of stroke patients initially show a motor deficit in the arm [20], we focus on arm movements. The performance of the Doppler estimation technique is evaluated using Doppler frequency profiles generated with an analytical model for human arm movement. Finally, the performance of the movement classifier is evaluated by experimental data using a four-element 1D array. The proposed ultrasonic Doppler array sensor and processing methods provide a new, compact solution to the arm movement classification problem, with its effectiveness evaluated with an analytical model and in an experimental setting.

II. SYSTEM DESCRIPTION

A. Ultrasonic Doppler Sensor

Consider an ultrasonic array consisting of a single transmitter, with center frequency $f_s$, and co-located linear receiver array with $P$ sensor elements. This choice is determined by the constraint of designing a sensor solution based on commercially available components; an array can be constructed at the receiver side at an operating frequency of 40 kHz, but commercially available transmitters at this frequency have larger component size and a half-wavelength separation is not possible to realize, thereby necessitating a single transmitter. The receiver has a narrow band-pass frequency response with center frequency $f_t$. The distance between two consecutive sensor elements is $\lambda_t/2$, where $\lambda_t = v_s/f_t$ and $v_s$ is the speed of sound in air.

B. Signal Model

A wave traveling with velocity $v_s$, when reflecting off an object that is moving at a constant velocity $v$ in the direction of the wave, undergoes a frequency shift due to Doppler effect. The resulting reflected frequency $\hat{f}$ is given by

$$\hat{f} = \frac{v_s + v}{v_s - v} f_t \approx (1 + \frac{2v}{v_s}) f_t,$$  

(1)

where the above approximation holds since $v_s \gg v$. The received signal $r(t)$ has a phase shift $\alpha(t)$ given by

$$\alpha(t) = 2\pi \int_{\tau=0}^{t} \hat{f}(\tau) d\tau,$$  

(2)

and using the approximation in (1), it follows that

$$\alpha(t) = 2\pi f_s t + \frac{2}{v_s} \int_{\tau=0}^{t} v(\tau) d\tau,$$  

(3)

from which we arrive at

$$r(t) = \sin(2\pi f_s t + \frac{2}{v_s} \int_{\tau=0}^{t} v(\tau) d\tau).$$  

(4)

Now, the received signal at the $p$-th sensor element in the array as a result of $N$ reflecting moving objects, where object $i$ has velocity $v_i(t)$ and $v_s \gg |\bar{v}_i(t)|$. Following (4), we then have the expression of the received signal at sensor element $p$ as follows

$$s_p(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_{i,p}(t) \sin(2\pi f_s t + \frac{2}{v_s} \int_{\tau=0}^{t} v_{i,p}(\tau) d\tau) + \beta_{i,p}(t) + \Psi(t) + w_p(t).$$  

(5)

Here, $a_{i,p}(t)$ and $\beta_{i,p}(t)$ are respectively the amplitude and phase of the reflected wave from object $i$ at time $t$, and $\Psi(t)$ is the contribution due to the reflections from stationary objects. The term $w_p \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_w^2)$ models the noise using a normal distribution having mean zero and standard deviation $\sigma_n$. The Doppler velocity $v_{i,p}(t)$ is the component of $\bar{v}_i(t)$ in the direction of sensor element $p$.

III. RECEIVER PROCESSING

The processing at the receiver array is divided into three modules that are illustrated in Fig. 1 and described in the following sections.
A. Doppler Estimation and Predictive Doppler Tracking

We first consider exploiting the received signals at multiple sensor elements to yield an improved Doppler velocity estimate. For this, consider the average of the \( P \) received signals

\[
s_{\text{avg}}(t) = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} s_p(t)
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_i(t) \sin(2\pi f_i t + \frac{2}{v_s} \int_0^t v'_i(\tau) d\tau) + \beta_i(t) + \Psi(t) + u(t),
\]

where \( u(t) = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} w_p(t) \) and \( \Psi(t) \) follows under the assumption that \( a_{i,p}(t), v'_{i,p}(t) \) and \( \beta_{i,p}(t) \) are independent of \( p \). Since Doppler estimation is performed in the time-frequency domain, where the temporal resolution is limited by the desired spectral information, relative time delays due to the array spacing are much smaller than the temporal resolution. Furthermore, the radius of propagation is much larger than the size of the array. Therefore, in this domain, the assumption in equation (7) is justified. Recalling that the sum of two independent normally distributed random variables \( X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2) \) and \( Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2) \) is given by

\[
X + Y = Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x + \mu_y, \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2),
\]

we have that \( u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_u^2/P) \). The averaging operation keeps the signal power unchanged but reduces the variance of the noise by a factor \( P \), thus improving the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR).

By inspection of equation (7), we observe that \( s_{\text{avg}}(t) \) is in fact a frequency modulated (FM) version of the transmitted signal \( s(t) = \sin(2\pi f_d t) \). The FM message of \( s_{\text{avg}}(t) \) is hence directly related to the object’s velocity. We therefore frequency demodulate \( s_{\text{avg}}(t) \) by applying the following steps. First \( s_{\text{avg}}(t) \) is differentiated: \( y(t) = \frac{d}{dt} s_{\text{avg}}(t) \). Then, \( y(t) \) is heterodyned to \( f_{\text{sd}} \) to reduce the required bandwidth but not lose directionality: \( y_{\text{hd}}(t) = y(t) \sin(2\pi (f_d - f_{\text{sd}}) t) \). Finally, a low pass filter is applied: \( y_{\text{sd}}(t) = LPF(y_{\text{hd}}(t)) \). Although the processing up till here is implemented in the digital domain, it is presented in analog form for the sake of clarity.

The STFT is then calculated by segmenting the data into frames of length \( T \) [sec], corresponding to \( W = f_s T \) samples, that overlap by 50%. Here, \( f_s \) is the sample frequency. This allows the spectrogram to have sufficient temporal resolution to describe the movements, while obtaining enough spectral information. To reduce spectral leakage, a Hamming window is chosen. The short time Fourier transform of \( s_{\text{sd}}(t) \) in frame \( n \) is denoted by \( STFT[f,n] \). The discrete form of the power spectral density for every frame is then given by:

\[
S[f,n] = \frac{|STFT[f,n]|^2}{W}.
\]

We compress the power spectral density by a logarithm:

\[
S_{\text{dB}}[f,n] = 10 \log_{10} S[f,n] = 20 \log_{10} \frac{|STFT[f,n]|}{W}. \tag{10}
\]

Fig. 2. Doppler tracking for two nearby time frames. In both Fig. 2(a) and (b), the top plot shows the power spectrum in a certain frame (blue) and the upper envelope of the static transmitter spectrum (red), the center plot shows the processed spectrum \( I[f,n] \) and the bottom plot shows the weights. In the upper two plots, the tracked Doppler shifts are indicated by a vertical line.

Then, an upper envelope of the static spectrum is determined by applying a rank order filter [21] to the log power spectrum of the initial frames, when there is no movement yet. The result of this operation is shown in the top plot of Fig. 2(a) and Fig. 2(b). Here \( f_{\text{sd}} \) is 4000 Hz. Because the captured energy from the static reflections is typically high compared to its dynamic counterpart, for each frame the transmitted envelope is subtracted from the log power spectrum, clipped and subsequently processed using another rank order filter:

\[
I[f,n] = \zeta_{B,q}(\max(0, S_{\text{dB}}[f,n] - \tilde{S}_{\text{dB}})) \tag{11}
\]

where \( \tilde{S}_{\text{dB}} \) is the upper envelope of the static spectrum and \( \zeta_{B,q} \) denotes the rank order filtering operation having rank \( q \) and window (structuring element) \( B \). Here, \( q = \lfloor 0.9 \times \text{cardinal}(B) \rfloor \). The resulting spectrum \( I[f,n] \) is shown in the center plot of Fig. 2(a) and Fig. 2(b). A naive Doppler shift estimate in frame \( n \) is then one that maximizes \( I[f,n] \) over \( f \)

\[
f_{\text{dn}}[n] = \max_f I[f,n]. \tag{12}
\]

The naive approach assumes that the desired object always causes the Doppler shift having the highest power.
In real-world body movement applications, this is not necessarily the case. As the reflecting surface of the desired object (e.g. a hand) changes over time, its power at the Doppler frequency also varies. During that movement, another object with a large reflecting surface (e.g. the torso) may also be producing Doppler shifts. These movements are typically slow and hence cause small Doppler shifts, i.e. frequencies close to \( f_{sd} \). Due to surface inconsistency, the power of these small Doppler shifts can sometimes be higher than the power of the desired object however, which causes the naive approach to fail. This effect is exemplified in Fig. 2. By inspecting the center plot of Fig. 2(a), one can easily identify the dominating Doppler frequency located at 3631 Hz. Here, maximization of \( I[f, n] \) would yield that frequency. However, when analyzing the spectral information obtained in a nearby later frame, shown in Fig. 2(b), the problem becomes evident. Here, maximization of \( I[f, n] \) yields a Doppler frequency at 3912 Hz, which would imply that its Doppler shift changed abruptly w.r.t the previous frame. This situation is very unlikely to occur, as we know that human limb velocities and hence their Doppler shifts do not change abruptly during a movement. One would expect the current Doppler frequency to be close to the previous Doppler frequency. Taking into account that \( I[f, n] \) shows a prominent local maximum in this region, leads us to reject the frequency obtained using the naive approach.

In order to also enable Doppler detection in these situations, we consider a method which uses physical predictability of movements. For the sake of clarity, the method is divided into three steps which are repeated for each frame \( n \). First, a probability density function, reflecting our belief that a change in Doppler frequency is more likely to occur, is derived based on the Doppler frequencies found in the past. Then the PDF is transformed into a weighting function. This weighting function is applied to the processed spectrum \( I[f, m] \) after which the result is maximized over \( f \) and \( m \). Finally, the algorithm is designed such that it tracks negative \( f_{dt} \) and positive \( f_{dt} \) Doppler frequencies independently, using two distinct weighting functions and maximizers. This allows velocity estimation of objects moving towards and away from the sensor array at the same time. For tracking of \( f_{dt} \), \( f_{min} \) is set to \( f_{hd} \). For \( f_{dt} \), \( f_{max} \) is set to \( f_{hd} \). The tracker is described in detail in the following.

1) **AR Prediction and Probability Modeling:** The algorithm tracks the Doppler frequency \( f_{dt} \) of each frame by exploiting information about Doppler shifts in the previous frames. Since body movement is continuous and its velocity changes slowly w.r.t. the frame size, the Doppler frequency in the next frame will be close to the shift in the current frame. To incorporate this idea, we assign probabilities to the possible frequencies, thereby reflecting our state of belief. This probability density function (PDF) is modeled as a Gaussian, with standard deviation \( \sigma_\beta \) and mean value \( \hat{f}_{dt} \), the predicted Doppler frequency based on the past Doppler shifts. The prediction is performed by employing an autoregressive model of order \( k \):

\[
\hat{f}_{dt}\text{[past]} = f_{dt}[n-1] + \Delta f[n-k, \ldots, n-1] \quad (13)
\]

with

\[
\Delta f[n-k, \ldots, n-1] = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \Delta f[n-i] \chi_i + \epsilon_n \quad (14)
\]

where \( \Delta f[n-i] = f_{dt}[n-i] - f_{dt}[n-1-i] \) is the Doppler shift change between frames \( n-i \) and \( n-1-i \), its initial condition \( f_{dt}[0] = f_{dt} \), \( \epsilon_n \) is white noise and \( \chi_1, \ldots, \chi_k \) are the model parameters, found using the Yule-Walker equations [22, Chapter 3].

Patients suffering from movement impairments may produce rather inconsistent Doppler shifts. To further increase robustness, we extend the search algorithm to the time domain by modeling the PDF as a truncated bivariate Gaussian, \( N_{trunc}(\mu, \Sigma) \), where

\[
\mu = [n, \hat{f}_{dt}[n]\text{[past]]}
\]

is the mean vector and

\[
\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix}
\sigma^2 & 0 \\
0 & \sigma^2_f
\end{bmatrix}
\]

is the covariance matrix. Here, \( \sigma_\beta \) and \( \sigma_f \) denote the time (in frames) and frequency standard deviations respectively. Truncation assigns a probability of zero to finding the Doppler frequency in time frames \( m < n \). This approach allows the Doppler tracker to find the nearest frame at which \( I[f, m] \) reveals a trustworthy Doppler shift.

2) **Weighting Function:** The Gaussian PDF is reflected on the data by the frame-frequency weighting function \( W_n[f, m] \), given by

\[
W_n[f, m] = \begin{cases}
Z_n[f, m], & \text{for } f_{min} \leq f < f_{max} \\
0, & \text{else}
\end{cases} \quad (17)
\]

and

\[
n \leq m < n + M
\]

where

\[
Z_n[f, m] = e^{-\frac{(f - f_{\text{past}}[n])^2}{2\sigma^2_f}}. \quad (18)
\]

The weighting function obtained at two nearby frames \( n \) is shown in the bottom plot of Fig. 2(a) and Fig. 2(b).

3) **Detection:** The Doppler frequency in frame \( m \) is then obtained by evaluating equation (20):

\[
[f^*[n], m^*[n]] = \arg\max_{f,m} \{ W_n[f, m]I[f, m] \}. \quad (20)
\]

Applying \( W_n[f, m] \) incorporates the past information and knowledge of the system into the detection phase, addressing the issues discussed earlier. After finding the Doppler frequency at frame \( m \), the Doppler shift at frame \( n \) is found by simple linear interpolation

\[
f_{dt}[n] = \frac{f^*[n] - f_{dt}[n-1]}{m^*[n] - n + 1}. \quad (21)
\]

Note that in Fig. 2(b), using the proposed method the correct Doppler frequency (at 3444 Hz) is detected although \( I[f, n] \) is not a global maximum here.

From the tracked Doppler frequencies, the normal velocities \( v' \) can be calculated using (1) as

\[
v'[n] = \frac{\psi_i}{2f_i}(f_{dt}[n] - f_{sd}), \quad (22)
\]
where \( f_{dl}[n] - f_{ad} \) is the Doppler shift (given by \( \hat{f} - f_i \)) in (1) of the moving object.

**B. Direction of Arrival Estimation**

Since the radius of propagation is much larger than the size of the array, the far field assumption is valid. In that case, propagation can be described by plane waves. If the angle of incidence is not equal to zero, each array element will receive a slightly delayed version of the signal. Under the assumption that the signal is narrow banded, this delay corresponds to a phase shift, leading to the following array response vector:

\[
a(\gamma) = [1, e^{j2\pi \frac{\Omega}{\lambda} \sin \gamma}, \ldots, e^{j2\pi \frac{\Omega}{\lambda} (P-1) \sin \gamma}]^T\]

(23)

where \( \gamma \) is the angle of incidence and \( f \) is the incoming wave’s frequency.

As described in (5), each sensor measures the reflecting ultrasonic signal from both static (e.g. the room walls) and moving objects, collected in \( s(t) = [s_1(t), \ldots, s_P(t)] \). As we are just interested in the latter, directly applying direction of arrival estimation to the measured signals is unsuitable, as it would not be able to distinguish between the reflections caused by moving and static objects. In this section we describe a DoA estimation algorithm, which is able to estimate the angular position of a moving object with respect to the array.

Our method exploits the fact that moving objects cause a Doppler shift, which distinguishes them from static objects. In this section we describe a DoA estimation algorithm, which is able to estimate the angular position of a moving object with respect to the array.

We first define the array correlation matrix \( R_h[n] \) by:

\[
R_h[n] = \mathbb{E}[h_n(t)h_n^H(t)].
\]

(24)

The algorithm relies on the property of \( R_h[n] \) that its eigenspace can be portioned in two orthogonal subspaces, the signal with added noise subspace and the noise only subspace. In our case, there is only one signal and the signal with added noise subspace thus corresponds to the highest eigenvalue. We then compute \( C(z) \) by:

\[
C(z) = U_nU_n^H
\]

(25)

where \( U_n \) is the noise subspace. The Root-MUSIC algorithm identifies the root of \( C(z) \) closest to the unit circle. The angular direction of arrival in degrees is then estimated using

\[
\hat{\gamma}[n] = \arcsin\left(-\frac{b_0}{\pi \lambda f_{dl}[n]}\right). \quad (26)
\]

For each frame, a new DoA is estimated using the above described procedure, thereby tracking the moving object.

**C. Segmentation and Classification**

Segmentation is based on the velocity feature as described in equation (22), and relies on the assumption that arm activities are separable in multiple movements when its velocity component in the direction of the ultrasound array is zero. The beginning and ending of a segment are defined as the times at which the normal velocity rises above or falls below 10% of the peak normal velocity, respectively. After segmentation, activities are classified based on the average DoA \( \hat{D}[l] \), positive velocity \( \hat{\nu}_+ [l] \) and negative velocity \( \hat{\nu}_- [l] \) features in each segment \( l \).

Denote the extracted dataset \( D \) by

\[
D = \{(g_1, t_1), \ldots, (g_L, t_L)\}
\]

(27)

where the inputs \( g_l = [\hat{D}[l], \hat{\nu}_+[l], \hat{\nu}_-\hat{[l]]} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \) are the features and \( t_l \) indicates the class in segment \( l \). We use a 1-of-\( K \) coding scheme [25, Ch. 4], such that

\[
t_{lk} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } t_l \text{ in class } C_k \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}
\]

(28)

(29)

is the binary class selection variable, which groups data of the same class. We assume Gaussian class-conditional distributions with a constant covariance matrix,

\[
p(g | C_k, \Omega) = N(g | \mu_k, \Sigma_c). \quad (30)
\]

and a multinomial prior on the classes, \( p(C_k) \). Since prior class probability differences may not be present, we consider \( p(C_k) = 1/K \), where \( K \) denotes the total number of classes.

For building the classifier, we use Maximum Likelihood to estimate the model parameters \( \hat{\Omega} = (\hat{\mu}_c, \hat{\Sigma}_c) \) from the data \( D \):

\[
\hat{\Omega} = \arg \max_{\Omega} \log p(D | \Omega)
\]

(31)
by first evaluating Percentiles as described in [15]. The percentiles are determined from the Doppler shifts by considering the 5th and 95th for characterizing the frequency response to quantify velocity

\[ D. Reference Method \]

As reference for Doppler estimation, we use a method with Gaussian \( p(g|C_k, \Omega) \).

\[
\log p(D|\Omega) = \sum_{l,k} l_k \log N(g|\mu_l, \Sigma_c)
\]  

(32)

We assume the features \( D[l], \tilde{D}_+ [l] \) and \( \tilde{D}_- [l] \) to be mutually independent given \( C_k \), and thus use naive Bayes [26] to estimate the probability distributions. The distributions \( p(D|C_k) \) obtained for a measured dataset are shown in Fig. 3.

After training, we use the estimated model parameters to find the posterior class probability \( p(C_k|g_{new}, \Omega) \). The class of a new segment is then found as

\[
k^* = \arg \max_k p(C_k|g_{new}, \Omega).
\]  

(33)

\[ IV. MOVEMENT MODEL AND NUMERICAL RESULTS \]

\[ A. Movement Model \]

In this Section, we consider a simple model for human arm movement to generate Doppler frequency profiles, that serve as ground-truth. The generated profiles will be used to compare the proposed Doppler estimation method and the reference method [15]. Arm movements are modeled by a feedback control loop consisting of a plant and a Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) controller. The plant dynamics, derived by analyzing a lumped model of the human arm are given by

\[
F_\theta(t) - b\dot{\theta}(t) = \kappa\ddot{\theta}(t)
\]  

(35)

\[
\dot{\theta}(t) = -\frac{b}{\kappa}\dot{\theta}(t) + \frac{1}{\kappa}F_\theta(t)
\]  

(36)

and

\[
F_\phi(t) - b\dot{\phi}(t) = \kappa\ddot{\phi}(t)
\]  

(37)

\[
\dot{\phi}(t) = -\frac{b}{\kappa}\dot{\phi}(t) + \frac{1}{\kappa}F_\phi(t),
\]  

(38)

where \( b \) and \( \kappa \) are the damping and mass of the arm respectively and the inputs \( F_\theta(t) \) and \( F_\phi(t) \) represent the applied force due to muscle contraction in the \( \theta \) and \( \phi \) direction respectively. We incorporate noise in the motor commands as signal-dependent, with standard deviation increasing linearly with the magnitude of the motor command signal (control signal). This noise model has also been used in [27] and [28] and is consistent with empirical findings [29]. The complete plant dynamics in state space representation \( \Sigma_H \) can then be written as:

\[
\Sigma_H : \begin{cases} 
\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + B(I + \sigma \epsilon)u(t) \\
y(t) = Cx(t)
\end{cases}
\]  

(39)

(40)

where the plant’s state vector \( x(t) = [\theta(t), \dot{\theta}(t), \phi(t), \dot{\phi}(t)]^T \), the input \( F(t) = [F_\theta(t), F_\phi]^T \) and the output \( y(t) = [\omega_l(t), \omega_r(t)]^T \). The matrix \( I \) represents an identity matrix, \( \epsilon \) is zero-mean Gaussian white noise with identity covariance matrix, and \( \sigma \) is the standard deviation. The above state space representation may be considered to be a generalization in two dimensions of the one-dimensional arm movement model considered in [27]. The system matrix is given by

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -b/\kappa & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -b/\kappa \end{bmatrix}.
\]  

(41)
Fig. 5. Comparison of methods for Doppler tracking and velocity estimation, applied to a noiseless dataset generated using the movement model. The top plot shows the spectrogram with the detected Doppler shift, the center plot shows the estimated velocity (blue) compared to the ground truth (red) and the bottom plot shows the absolute error. (a) Reference method [15], equation (34). (b) Naive method, equation (12). (c) Proposed method, equation (21).

\[
B = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
1/\kappa & 0 \\
0 & 0 \\
0 & 1/\kappa
\end{bmatrix}, \tag{42}
\]

Fig. 6. Comparison of methods for Doppler tracking and velocity estimation, applied to a noisy dataset with \( \sigma = 0.3 \) generated using the movement model. The top plot shows the spectrogram with the detected Doppler shift, the center plot shows the estimated velocity (blue) compared to the ground truth (red) and the bottom plot shows the absolute error. (a) Reference method [15], equation (34). (b) Naive method, equation (12). (c) Proposed method, equation (21).

\[
C = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}. \tag{43}
\]

Although \( \Sigma_H \) is a simple approximation of the real, much more complex arm dynamics (see [28] for more sophisticated models), its behavior in the control loop suffices for simulation purposes. The PID controller’s input is the position error vector...
Finally, the received sensor array signals are determined by applying equation (5), where the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}_i(t)$ is denoted by:

$$\mathbf{v}_i(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}_i\omega_\phi(t)\hat{\phi} + r_i\omega_\theta(t)\sin(\phi(t))\hat{\theta}}{v_p - \mathbf{r}_i(t)}$$

(46)

and the normal vector $\mathbf{n}_{i,p}(t)$ is given by:

$$\mathbf{n}_{i,p}(t) = \mathbf{r}_i(t) - \mathbf{v}_i(t)$$

By inspection of the bottom plots in Fig. 5(a)-(b), one can see that the naive method’s error distribution is more spiky compared to the reference method’s. Employing a tracker can yield drastic improvement in this particular scenario, as is verified in Fig. 5. Similar observations hold for the plots in Fig. 6.

$\nu$.

**Numerical Results**

The model allows us to validate Doppler tracking and velocity sensing since the ground truth velocity is known. We describe the moving arm by three reflecting surfaces at spherical positions $[r_1, \theta(t), \phi(t)]$, $[r_2, \theta(t), \phi(t)]$, and $[r_3, \theta(t), \phi(t)]$. Static objects and sensor noise, with power levels comparable to real measurements, are also added. The mass $m$ and damping $b$ are set to 3 kg and 20 $[\text{Ns/m}]$ respectively. The PID parameters $K_p$, $K_i$ and $K_d$ are set to 50, 1 and 1 respectively. A comparison between Doppler tracking and velocity estimation methods is shown in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 for the noiseless case and with $\sigma = 0.3$ respectively. The results are shown when applying:

(a) The reference method described in equation (34) (section III-D).

(b) Naive Doppler frequency estimate, given in equation (12).

(c) Doppler frequency estimate with tracking, given in equation (20).

By inspection of the bottom plots in Fig. 5(a)-(b), one can see that the naive method’s error distribution is more spiky compared to the reference method’s. Employing a tracker can yield drastic improvement in this particular scenario, as is verified in Fig. 5. Similar observations hold for the plots in Fig. 6.

Fig. 7 shows a section of the complete numerical results for a dataset simulated using the combined movement and signal model. By combining the acquired velocity and DoA features, all classes described in Table II are detected correctly.

**V. Measurement Results**

Several experimental datasets were acquired, using an ultrasound array consisting of $P = 4$ receivers. The algorithm parameters are given in Table I. For each set, the user stood in front of the horizontally oriented array, moved his arm in a specific pattern and the ultrasonic reflections were captured. Table II shows the six classes of movement and their description. All movements were performed with the user’s right arm. A comparison of the reference and proposed method for Doppler and velocity sensing is shown in snapshot results in Fig. 8(a), Fig. 8(b) and Fig. 8(c). Note that the reference method fails to detect the largest velocities due to the surface inconsistency effects described in Section III-A. The proposed
Fig. 9. Results for a section of the experimentally acquired dataset. The top plot shows the spectrogram and the tracked Doppler shifts, the center plots show the velocities and DoA and the bottom plot shows the estimated class, as described in Table II. The detected segments are indicated by bars.

TABLE III
CONFUSION MATRIX SHOWING CLASSIFICATION RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>(Est.) 1</th>
<th>(Est.) 2</th>
<th>(Est.) 3</th>
<th>(Est.) 4</th>
<th>(Est.) 5</th>
<th>(Est.) 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actual 1</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual 2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual 5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual 6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Doppler estimate on the other hand is able to better track Doppler, based on the performed arm movement.

The results of the proposed classification algorithm applied to one of the recorded datasets are visualized in Fig. 9. In this case, the following pattern was repeated using the right arm: \{1, 6, 3, 5, 2, 6, 3, 4\}. As can be seen from Fig. 9, all six classes are clearly distinguishable using the velocity and DoA features.

To analyze the classification performance, we show the confusion matrix to evaluate correct and incorrect classifications using the entire experimental dataset. We note that the experiments were done by a healthy user emulating tremors and other distortions when making arm movements under different conditions: at normal speed, movements with tremors, and very slow arm movements with tremors.

The overall misclassification probability was 2.7%. We note that the classification errors occur largely due to degraded quality of DoA estimation when arm movements are very slow and ridden with tremors.

VI. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

A compact ultrasonic array sensor, consisting of a continuous wave signal transmitter and a co-located receiver array, and associated signal processing methods were proposed for human movement classification. The proposed method used predictive Doppler tracking and DoA estimation to classify a set of arm movements. By testing the method on both simulated and experimental datasets, we showed that the designed algorithm is able to extract velocity and angular information, allowing accurate classification from a set of arm movements.

Further testing of the proposed method in a clinical context is required to evaluate its use for healthcare monitoring applications. A complete monitoring solution in a tele-rehabilitation context would need movement type classification as well as movement quality estimation. The latter could be obtained by further analyzing the information provided from the features. Also, as suggested in [3] and [30], other than range of motion and peak velocity of the joint movement, movement time and velocity smoothness could be exploited to characterize motor quality and are topics of future investigation.

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REFERENCES


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