
Modelling variation in the forward EMG model.

Dimitrios Halatsis *
Imperial College London
d.halatsis@imperial.ac.uk

Alexander Clarke
Imperial College London
a.clarke18@imperial.ac.uk

Dario Farina
Imperial College London
d.farina@imperial.ac.uk

Abstract

Traditional finite element methods (FEM) face limitations when simulating dynamic, naturalistic movements due to the need for recalculations as muscle geometry changes. Our approach leverages PINNs to implicitly represent a continuous range of solutions for the volume conduction equation, parameterized by the pinnation angle of muscle fibers. We demonstrate that our method significantly reduces model size and computational time while maintaining high accuracy. The neural network model generalizes well across a range of pinnation angles, offering a promising solution for efficient and dynamic EMG simulations.

1 Introduction

Biophysical simulation plays a crucial role in contemporary biomedical research and engineering, offering a cost-effective means of conducting experiments and testing hypotheses prior to physical implementation (Gerstner et al., 2012). This is particularly vital in the field of electromyography (EMG) research, where anatomically precise simulations are essential for developing algorithms in data-scarce environments (Clarke & Farina, 2023; Merletti et al., 1999; Mamidanna & Farina).

Obtaining anatomically accurate simulations requires detailed modeling, which entails significant computational costs. These costs arise from the need to solve volume conduction partial differential equations (PDEs) within complex and densely structured domains that represent the human body’s physical components. Finite element methods (FEM) are typically employed to solve these PDEs, as they can effectively handle intricate geometries (Maksymenko et al., 2023).

However, FEM faces limitations when simulating dynamic, naturalistic movements. FEM is highly reliable when the volume conductor remains static, but during dynamic scenarios, the geometry of the volume conductor changes as fibers contract and muscles move, necessitating computationally expensive recalculations of the solutions. Currently, the most effective approaches involve dividing movements into a series of static stages and solving them individually (Pereira Botelho et al., 2019).

With the advancement of data-driven methods such as Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs), neural implicit representations and operator networks (Sitzmann et al., 2020; Sirignano & Spiliopoulos, 2018; Raissi et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2019), neural networks (NNs) have gained the ability to learn implicit representations of PDE solutions and even directly solve PDEs. This results in significantly faster simulations and the capacity to represent a continuous range of solutions, even when trained on a finite set of samples. Neural networks also amortize computational time during training, leading to extremely low inference times, making them an ideal fit for simulating dynamic movements. In the context of EMG simulation, Ma et al. (2024) utilized a neural network to generate motor unit

*Some information on the author <https://dhalatsis.github.io/>

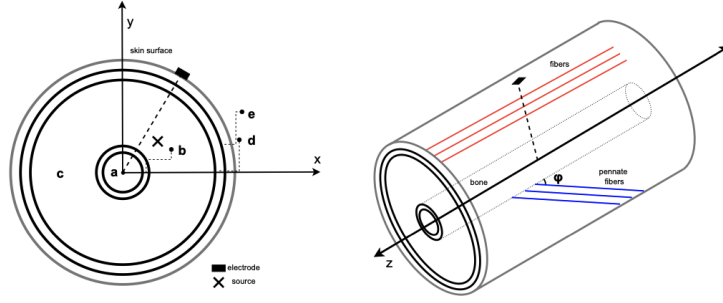


Figure 1: Cylindrical volume conductor model. Lef: Different sections correspond to different materials, a and b are cancellous and cortical bone, c is muscle, d and e are fat and skin respectively. Right: Muscle fibers are displayed with color, red parallel fibers and blue pennate fibers.

action potential waveforms across various simulation parameters, resulting in a much faster simulator capable of dynamically producing solutions for different limb positions.

In this work, we focus on creating a solver capable of representing solutions to the volume conduction equation for varying volume conductor geometries. We introduce a simple yet ubiquitous variation—the pinnation angle of muscle fibers (Farina et al., 2004a; Mesin & Farina, 2004)— and train a PINN to implicitly represent the function continuous range of solutions.

2 Method

2.1 Biophysical model

Forward EMG modeling is traditionally framed as an electric field propagation problem, where a current source density flows through muscle fibers (Farina et al., 2004b,a). Traditional approaches involved solving the quasi-static Maxwell’s equations for each fiber at each instant, making the process of simulating realistic forearms with thousands of fibers impractically costly. More recent methods, such as those highlighted in (Maksymenko et al., 2023), adopt a more efficient strategy. These methods solve the equations at a set of static points once, and later integrate fibers as potentials along a subset of these pre-solved points.

Consequently, the forward EMG simulation pipeline is primarily bottlenecked by the initial step of solving equations for a single point source, which incurs the highest computational cost.

2.1.1 Cylindrical model.

For scope of this paper, we use a simplified cylindrical model as our volume conductor seen in 2.1. This model is a standard starting point for simulating EMG and has been extensively studied (Mesin & Farina, 2004; Farina et al., 2004b). It consists of four materials, with isotropic conductivity represented by σ_{iso} and muscle fibers characterized by an anisotropic conductivity tensor σ_m , which aligns with the direction of the fibers.

Our objective is to solve the **parametric volume conduction equation** in this domain for a single point source, with the pinnation angle as a variable parameter. The volume conduction equation is given by (Farina et al., 2004a):

$$\nabla \cdot (\sigma_\phi \nabla v_\phi) = -I \quad \text{in } \Omega, \quad (1)$$

$$\nabla v_\phi \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0 \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega. \quad (2)$$

Where Ω is the domain of definition of the three-dimensional volume conductor with boundary $\partial\Omega$, v_ϕ is the electric field potential, ϕ is the pinnation angle that parameterizes the conductivity tensor σ_ϕ by altering the direction of the tensor as in Mesin & Farina (2004). Finally I is the input current source density function. The Neumann boundary condition reflect the natural assumption that there is no current flow between the skin and the air.

While this problem can be solved using FEM, the solutions are limited to a single pinnation angle, requiring the construction and solving of a new FEM model for each different angle. Consequently, modeling a continuous range of pinnation angles using FEM becomes impractical.

2.2 Data-Driven Solver.

Our proposed solution involves training a neural network (NN) $f(\mathbf{x}, \phi; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = v(\mathbf{x}; \phi)$ to implicitly represent the continuous range of solutions of the PDE. To ensure the conservation of the prescribed physical relationships, we incorporate PINN or DeepRitz loss (Yu et al., 2018). The surrogate solver can be trained using simulation samples as ground truth or purely by leveraging the physics loss when ground truth data is unavailable. Next, we formally state the problem.

2.2.1 Problem Statement:

Assume a single forcing function I , typically representing a single point source, and a range of angles $\phi \in (a, b)$. The range of solutions can be represented by a function with an additional parameter $v(\mathbf{x}, \phi) : \Omega \times (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

We then assume that a set of FEM solutions is available for m discrete angles $S_\phi = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_m\}$. From these solutions, we sample n points for each angle, resulting in a total of nm samples $S_{data} \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \times (a, b)$, which we will refer to as **data points**. We then define the loss function \mathcal{L}_{data} for the training points as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{data}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{nm} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^n \|f(\mathbf{x}_i, \phi_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - v(\mathbf{x}_i, \phi_j)\|_2^2. \quad (3)$$

We also sample a set of n_f points in \mathbb{R}^3 and m_f angles in (a, b) to construct the set of **collocation points** in $S_{col} \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \times (a, b)$. These collocation points enable the neural network to solve the equation beyond the known values. We define the physics loss using the PINN framework for our PDE as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{phys}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n_f m_f} \sum_{j=1}^{m_f} \sum_{i=1}^{n_f} \|\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \cdot (\sigma(\mathbf{x}_i, \phi_j) \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}_i, \phi_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}) + I(\mathbf{x}_i))\|_2^2. \quad (4)$$

Notation: In this context, we use a slight abuse of notation where $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \cdot f = f_x + f_y + f_z$, with $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}$ acting solely on the spatial variables involved in the PDE, and not on the pinnation angle variable ϕ .

Alternatively the Deep Ritz loss can be used here interchangeably as it achieves a similar purpose. Finally our optimization objective can be defined as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \lambda \mathcal{L}_{data}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \mathcal{L}_{phys}(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad (5)$$

Here, λ is a weight term that prioritizes fitting to the training data. The next section presents the experimental results of the data-driven solver.

3 Experiments

In this section, we provide an overview of our experimental results, focusing on two key questions. First, can a neural network **learn an implicit representation** of the function $v(\mathbf{x}, \phi)$ given a training set? Second, how well does this implicit representation **generalize outside the trained region**?

We created a dataset represented by 10 million data points for each angle in $S_\phi = \{0, 5, \dots, 75\}$ using an FEM model. We form three different training sets: $S_\phi = \{0, 5, \dots, 75\}$, $S_{\phi_8} = \{0, 10, \dots, 70\}$ and $S_{\phi_4} = \{0, 20, \dots, 60\}$ containing solutions for 16, 8, and 4 angles, respectively.

We trained three models using these datasets: **PINN-16**, **PINN-8**, and **PINN-4**. For all models, we used the entire S_ϕ as collocation points for the physics-based loss. We validated our models across the entire S_ϕ . PINN-16 was designed to address the first research question by **fitting the known data**, while PINN-8 and PINN-4 were also **validated on unseen data** to explore generalization.

Model Architecture Note: In our experiments we used fully connected networks with residual connection (He et al., 2016) to enhance stability. Our network has width 30 and depth 6.

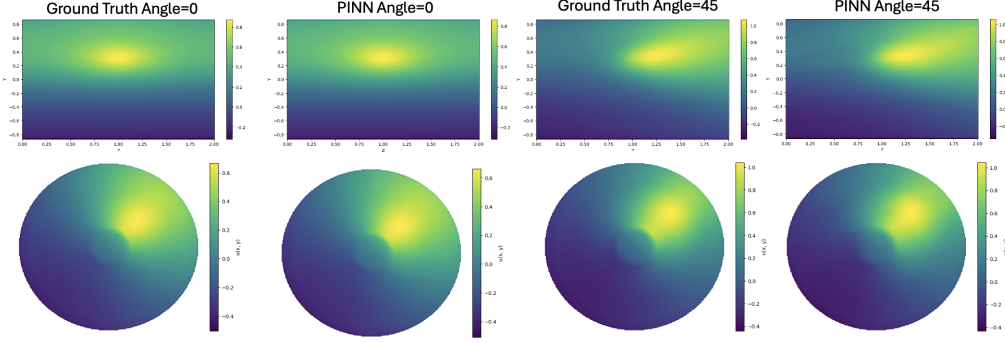


Figure 2: Heatmap of volume conduction solutions at angle=0 (within training region) and angle=45 (outside the region). The top cross section is at $X = 0.5$ and the bottom at $Z = 1.5$.

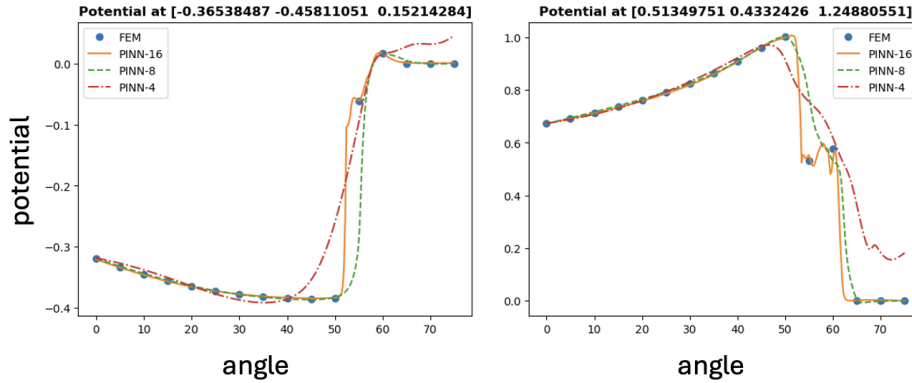


Figure 3: Plot of electric potential of a single point across various angles. The three models are trained in different subsets of the datasets, with PINN-16 on all 16 angles, PINN-8 on half and PINN-4 at only 4 angles.

3.1 Preliminary Results

Overview of the solution: In Figure 2.2.1, we present two cross-sections of the solutions for different pinnation angles. The flow of potential across the pennate fibers is clearly visible. The fit appears almost identical to the ground truth, excluding the central bone section, where the PINN has difficulty fitting the discontinuous change into the low-conductivity tissue.

Size and Computational Time Reduction: The relatively small neural networks, consisting of 5,761 parameters, successfully fit the training data, achieving a mean squared error (MSE) under 10^{-3} . These results suggest that neural implicit representations are effective for this problem, achieving a 99.995% reduction in model size compared to 16 FEM models, each with 6,944,780 parameters. In terms of computational time, using the evaluation of the solution for 1 million points as a benchmark, the PINN reduced the time by 99.4

Generalization: PINN-8 and PINN-4 achieved generalization relative MSE losses of 0.1273 and 0.2577, respectively, across the entire S_ϕ . Although these errors are significantly higher than the training error, they are not discouraging. With a denser set of angles or more extensive physics-based training, this error can likely be reduced further.

Conclusion and future work: The results indicate that data-driven methods can be a highly effective tool for forward EMG modeling, offering significant speedups in simulation and enabling dynamic geometry modeling. Future work will explore additional architectures, such as operator networks Lu et al. (2019), and more complex geometries, such as MRI-based meshes (Maksymenko et al., 2023).

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Imperial-META Wearable Neural Interfaces Research Centre. Additionally, this project received support from the Onassis Foundation under Scholarship ID: F ZT 012-1/2023-2024.

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