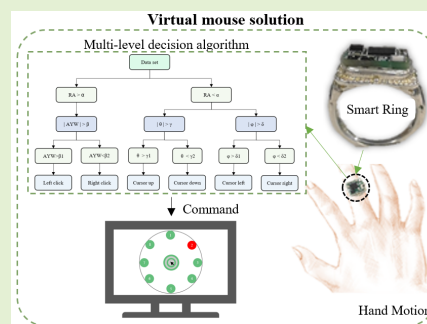


Mouse on a Ring: A Mouse Action Scheme Based on IMU and Multi-Level Decision Algorithm

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Abstract—The traditional mouse has been used as a main tool for human-computer interaction for more than 50 years. However, it has become unable to cater to people's need for mobile officing and all-weather use due to its reliance on the support of a two-dimensional plane, poor portability, wearisomeness, and other problems. In this paper, we propose a portable ring-type wireless mouse scheme based on IMU sensors and a multi-level decision algorithm. The user only needs to operate in the air with a smart ring worn on the middle finger of their right hand to realize the interactive function of a mouse. The smart ring first captures changes in the finger's attitude angle to reflect how the cursor position changes. And, it captures the rapid rotation of the user's palm to the left and right to achieve mouse clicking. In addition, a multi-level decision algorithm is developed to improve the response speed and recognition accuracy of the virtual mouse. The experimental results show that the virtual mouse has a target selection accuracy of over 96%, which proves its practicability in real-world applications. This virtual mouse is expected to be used as a portable and reliable tool for multi-scenario human-computer interaction applications in the future.

Index Terms—Wearable sensors, motion recognition, virtual mouse, multi-level decision algorithm.



I. INTRODUCTION

THE mouse has been the most widely used tool in the human-computer interaction field since it was first devel-

oped in 1964 [1]. A traditional optical mouse [2], [3] captures the mouse movement trajectory through an optical sensor, then controls the cursor movement accordingly, and finally realizes clicks through physical buttons. This scheme seems to be very natural and convenient and has been a popular choice for human-computer interaction. However, its limited compactness and portability makes it less suitable for use in scenarios such as mobile officing, business trips, and academic conferences. In addition, when a traditional mouse is used, the moving signal must be reflected by a two-dimensional (2D) plane. If the plane is not flat enough or has obstacles on it, the mouse may not work properly. This would limit the working space and mobility of the user. The wireless mouse, which transmits data using 2.4 GHz radio frequency technology, overcomes the limitation of distance, but it still requires the support of a 2D plane and cannot provide unrestricted human-computer interaction in multiple scenarios. Most mainstream multi-scenario human-computer interaction schemes today have the disadvantages of high costs, poor portability, and low recognition accuracy. It is still a technological challenge to achieve accurate multi-scenario human-computer interaction in a portable and responsive manner.

In recent years, a variety of multi-scenario unrestricted human-computer interaction schemes [4]–[21] have been proposed by researchers. For clarity purposes, these schemes

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are collectively referred to as virtual mouse schemes in this paper. They are divided into two main categories: computer vision-based and sensor-based.

A. Computer Vision-Based Virtual Mouse Schemes

Virtual mouse, based on computer vision technology, usually captures the user's motion trajectory through image processing, predicts the user's interaction intention, and realizes the interaction process. A computer vision-based virtual mouse usually realizes human-computer interaction by predicting the user's intention based on the user's motion trajectory it captures through image processing. Çapın *et al.* [7] realized the interaction process by processing and analyzing the user's interactive behavior in video streams. However, the camera viewing angle varies with the placement of the device, which in turn affects the reliability and accuracy of the interaction. Yousefi *et al.* [8] analyzed the user's finger clicking and sliding actions using a visual tracking algorithm. Changes in ambient light and the user's unconscious actions while resting will cause the system to produce incorrect recognition results. Virtual mouse schemes [7]–[12] based on computer vision technology usually require a camera to shoot the interaction process. The real-time video stream processing process would consume a lot of power. This requires installing large-capacity batteries, which would give the system a bloated feel. The reliability and accuracy of the system are also affected by the placement and viewing angle of the camera and the lighting of the external environment.

B. Sensor-Based Virtual Mouse Schemes

In sensor-based virtual mouse schemes, the sensor detects human motion and identifies the user's intention, and the interaction is executed based on such information.

1) *Infrared Sensor Based Virtual Mouse Schemes*: Leblanc *et al.* [4] installed four infrared ranging sensors on the user's head and realized interaction by analyzing the user's distance with the target terminal. However, if an obstacle is present between the user and the target terminal, the reliability and accuracy of the interaction process will be largely reduced. Wada *et al.* [5] designed an infrared laser interactive device. First, the system recognizes and moves the cursor to the position of the laser spot; then the CMOS image sensor detects the intensity of the laser spot, based on which mouse clicks are realized. However, in a well-illuminated room, laser spot detection becomes difficult, which affects the stability of the system and limits the usage scenarios for this scheme. Moreover, additional image sensors increase the size of the system.

2) *Inertial Sensor Based Virtual Mouse Schemes*: In inertial sensor based virtual mouse schemes, the inertial sensor needs to be worn on the user's palm or wrist to detect hand movement [13]–[18]. Lee *et al.* [13] integrated acceleration data to obtain the moving distance of the user's hand, and then mapped the distance to control the movement of the cursor. However, the integral operation accumulates irregular errors caused by electromagnetic influences, which reduces the accuracy and reliability of the interaction process. Eom *et al.* [14] used gyroscopes to detect the angular velocity of the hand

movement to control the moving speed of the cursor. However, it is difficult to accurately control the moving speed of the cursor, and the user needs to operate repeatedly to make the cursor reach the expected position on the screen. This leads to much less reliability and a poor human-computer interaction experience. Moreover, a neural network model is adopted in this scheme, which involves a large calculation workload and poor real-time performance. Some other researches have also been conducted in this respect [15]–[18], but the results are less than satisfactory.

3) *Multi-Sensor Based Virtual Mouse Schemes*: Researchers have also proposed virtual mouse schemes based on a combination of different types of sensors [19]–[21]. Ancans *et al.* [19] proposed such a scheme based on an IMU sensor and an EMG sensor. The IMU sensor controls the cursor position. The sensing electrode realizes mouse clicks by detecting changes in facial muscles caused by eye squeezing or mouth opening and closing. However, the additional EMG sensor causes the system to be bulky and awkward to carry. Moreover, long-term use of rigid sensing electrodes will cause discomfort to users. Computer *et al.* [20] combined inertial sensors and EMG signal sensors. Chen [21] used tilt sensors and touch switches. However, these composite systems generally have the disadvantages of poor portability, low reliability and low accuracy.

Based on the above analysis [4]–[21], we realize that it is necessary to develop a portable virtual mouse scheme to enable multi-scenario human-computer interaction in an accurate and responsive manner.

C. Our Work

In this paper, low-cost inertial sensors and a stable multi-level decision motion recognition algorithm are used to develop a portable, highly accurate and responsive virtual mouse scheme for multi-scenario human-computer interaction. The scheme does not require the support of a 2D desktop. The user can realize the interactive function of a traditional mouse in the air by simply wearing a smart ring on the middle finger of their right hand. This scheme reduces the dependence on the environment and provides the possibility of unrestricted human-computer interaction in a wider range of scenarios.

The main contributions of our work can be summarized as follows:

- 1) A new virtual mouse scheme is developed based on the reflection relationship between attitude angle and cursor position. Specifically, we first capture the hand motion information, then translate this information into attitude angle, and finally establish the relationship between attitude angle and cursor position.
- 2) The smart ring captures the rapid rotation of the user's palm to the left and right to achieve mouse clicks.
- 3) To ensure the fast response and high tracking accuracy of the virtual mouse, a multi-level decision algorithm is developed for motion recognition.
- 4) Three indicators, i.e., target selection accuracy, target selection time, and path efficiency, are adopted to evaluate the performance of our virtual mouse. A host computer software is specially developed for this need.

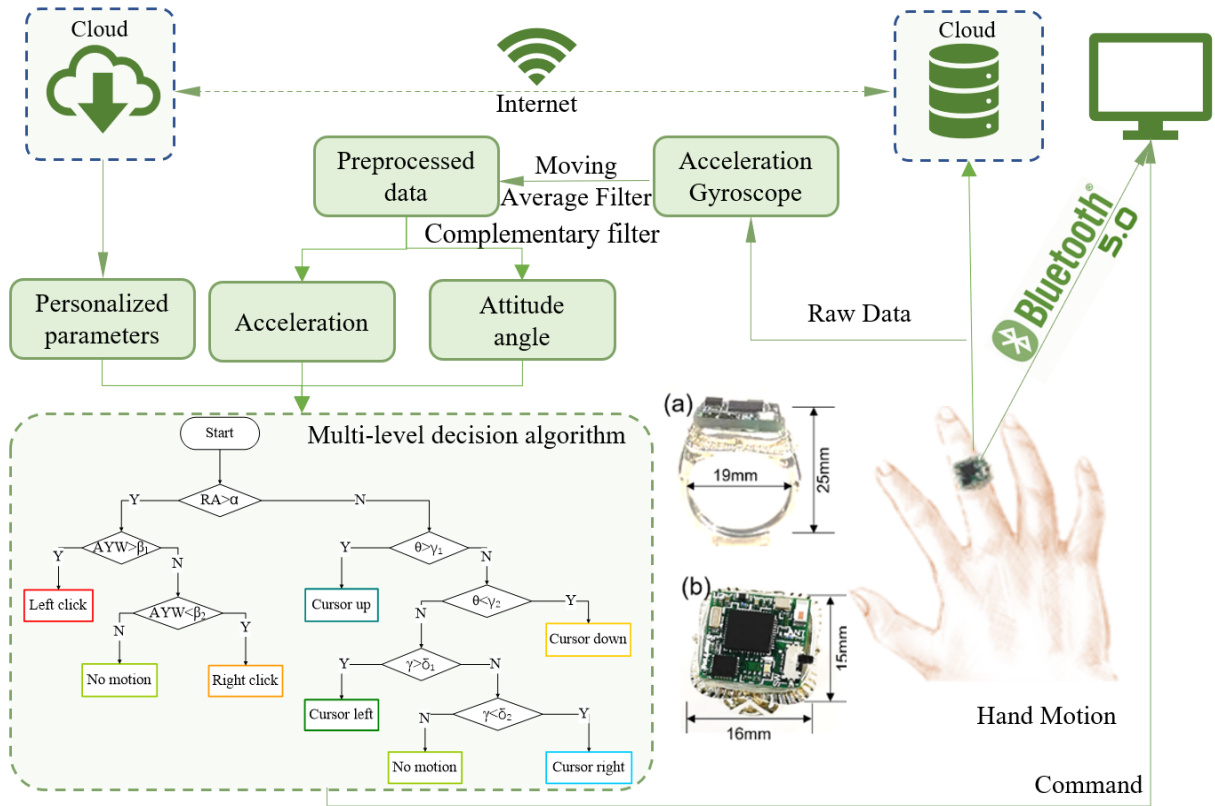


Fig. 1. Experimental setup. (a) The side view of the virtual mouse. (b) The top view of the virtual mouse.

Our virtual mouse solution is characterized by good portability, high precision, and fast response and can meet the needs of many special applications. For example, it allows users to quickly and accurately recognize hand or upper limb movements without feeling them. If it is applied to the rehabilitation training of upper limbs or joints [22]–[24], the boring and monotonous rehabilitation training can be transformed into a relaxing and interesting interaction, and the rehabilitation process can be quantitatively evaluated, thereby improving the performance of rehabilitation training.

II. METHOD

In this section, we provide a detailed description of the virtual mouse scheme, including the experimental setup, how the motion data is preprocessed, the correspondence between mouse operations and hand motions, how the motion recognition process works, and how the multi-level decision algorithm is developed.

A. Experimental Setup

In the experiment, the virtual mouse is designed based on a ring carrier platform [25]. The Bluetooth technology is used to transmit data, and a 48 mAh button battery is used to provide power, which greatly improves the portability. Fig. 1 (a-b) shows the side and top views of the virtual mouse. Compared to a traditional mouse, this virtual mouse has a significantly reduced size (19 mm × 16 mm × 25 mm) and weight (7.8 grams).

Inertial sensors, whose parameters are shown in Table I, are used to capture hand motions with the data sampling

TABLE I
PARAMETERS OF INERTIAL SENSORS

Parameter	Accelerometer	Gyroscope
Direction	3 axes	3 axes
Power consumption	500 uA	5 mA
Temperature	-40~85 °C	-40~85 °C
Measuring range	±2 g~±16 g	±250°/s~±2000°/s
Communication protocol	I ² C	I ² C
ADC bits	16 bits	16 bits

frequency set to 50 Hz. According to the Nyquist sampling theorem [26], the sensors can effectively collect frequency information within 20 Hz while the hand is moving. A sliding mean filter is used to remove high-frequency noise in the motion data without affecting motion recognition. The attitude angle, calculated by a complementary filter algorithm [27], is used to describe the hand motions. The personalized parameter settings are sent from a cloud platform. A multi-level decision algorithm is used to recognize user motion, based on which cursor movement and mouse clicking are achieved in multiple scenarios.

B. Data Preprocessing

The collected motion data is preprocessed to remove the outliers and noise signals. First, the outliers are removed by the principle based on the 3σ criterion [28]. If the value satisfies formula (1), it is regarded as an outlier and corrected by formula (2).

$$|d(n) - d_{mean}| > 3 \times d_{std} \quad (1)$$

$$d(n) = \frac{d(n-1) + d(n+1)}{2} \quad (2)$$

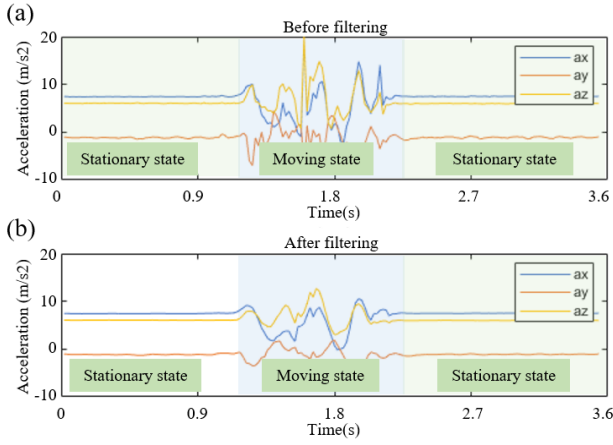


Fig. 2. (a) The acceleration data waveform before the moving average filter algorithm is used. (b) The acceleration data waveform after the moving average filter algorithm is used.

Here, $d(n)$ is the value at time n , and d_{mean} and d_{std} are the mean and standard deviation of the motion data series, respectively.

Second, unpredictable noise signals in the captured motion data, caused by unconscious hand shaking and random noise generated by the sensor itself, may lead to incorrect motion recognition. To remove the noise from the original data without affecting motion recognition, a moving average filter algorithm [29], as described by formula (3), is used to preprocess the original data.

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} d(n-i) \quad (3)$$

Here, $x(n)$ is the output value of the filter at time n , $d(n)$ is the motion data at time n , and L is the window length of the filter algorithm, which is settled as 5 in the following experiments.

L is the window length of the filter algorithm, which determines the filtering performance. If the sliding window is too small, it would easily cause poor filtering. If it is too large, it is very likely that useful low-frequency information will be filtered out.

Fig. 2 describes the acceleration data before and after filtering by using the moving average filter algorithm. The data before filtering contains a few glitches. After filtering, the data waveform becomes smooth and has no obvious distortion. The filtering process also eliminates the noise signals, which improves the stability and anti-interference performance of the system.

C. Correspondence Between Mouse Operations and Hand Motions

The traditional mouse must be supported by a 2D desktop, which greatly limits its use in multiple scenarios. To solve this problem, an inertial sensor is used to capture the user's hand motion data and thereby achieve the interactive function of a traditional mouse. The inertial sensor is used to capture changes in the inclination of the finger to control cursor movement, and to capture the rapid rotation of the user's palm

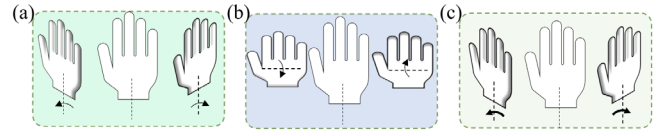


Fig. 3. Schematic of correspondence between mouse operations and hand motions. (a) The cursor moves to the left and right. (b) The cursor moves up and down. (c) Click the left and right buttons of the mouse.

to the left and right to achieve mouse clicking. This design eliminates the need for the support of a 2D plane and makes the scheme insusceptible to ambient light.

To clearly describe the scheme, six typical mouse operations, which are simplified from commonly found mouse operations in day-to-day human-computer interaction, are mapped by six corresponding hand motions. We call the position of the user's resting palm the "center area", which is parallel to the floor. Take moving the cursor to the left of the screen as an example. As shown in Fig. 3 (a), once the hand starts to tilt to the left from the "center area", the cursor would start to move to the left of the screen. The hand can stay at any position for a while, and the cursor would still move until the hand tilts back to the "center area". Take left clicking as another example. As shown in Fig. 3 (c), the motion of the user's hand quickly rotating to the left and then returning to the "center area" is regarded as a left click of the virtual mouse. Other operations of the virtual mouse are shown in Fig. 3, which are similar to the above examples.

D. Principles of Virtual Mouse Operations

1) *Cursor Movement*: In this section, we discuss in detail the realization principles [16] of four typical cursor motions, as shown in Fig. 3 (a-b), controlled by the virtual mouse.

For the sake of simplicity, the geographic coordinate system is called the n system, and the body coordinate system of the virtual mouse is called the b system [30]. According to Euler's theorem [30], pitch (θ), roll (γ), and yaw (ψ) are a set of attitude angles from the b system to the n system, and the attitude conversion matrix C_b^n , which is shown in formula (4), converts the motion data of the b system to the n system.

$$C_b^n = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \cos \psi & f_{12} & f_{13} \\ \cos \theta \sin \psi & f_{22} & f_{23} \\ -\sin \theta & \sin \gamma \cos \theta \cos \gamma \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

Here, f_{12} , f_{13} , f_{22} , and f_{23} are defined as follows:

$$\begin{cases} f_{12} = \sin \gamma \sin \theta \cos \psi - \cos \gamma \sin \psi \\ f_{13} = \cos \gamma \sin \theta \cos \psi + \sin \gamma \sin \psi \\ f_{22} = \sin \gamma \sin \theta \sin \psi + \cos \gamma \cos \psi \\ f_{23} = \cos \gamma \sin \theta \sin \psi - \sin \gamma \cos \psi \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

The quaternion, which is mathematically described in formula (6), contains the equivalent rotation information from the b system to the n system.

$$Q = q_0 + q_1i + q_2j + q_3k \quad (6)$$

Here, Q is a quaternion; q_0 , q_1 , q_2 , and q_3 are digital constants; i , j , and k are unit vectors.

As shown in formula (7), c_b^n can be uniquely determined by the quaternion.

$$c_b^n = \begin{bmatrix} q_0^2 + q_1^2 - q_2^2 - q_3^2 & 2(q_1q_2 - q_0q_3) & 2(q_1q_3 + q_0q_2) \\ 2(q_1q_2 + q_0q_3) & q_0^2 - q_1^2 + q_2^2 - q_3^2 & 2(q_2q_3 - q_0q_1) \\ 2(q_1q_3 - q_0q_2) & 2(q_0q_1 + q_2q_3) & q_0^2 - q_1^2 - q_2^2 + q_3^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

Formula (8) describes the relationship between the quaternion and the angular velocity. After the Picard successive approximation method is used to solve formula (8), the quaternion update formula, as shown in formula (9), can be obtained.

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} Q \otimes w_b^n \quad (8)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} q_0 \\ q_1 \\ q_2 \\ q_3 \end{bmatrix}_k = \begin{bmatrix} q_0 \\ q_1 \\ q_2 \\ q_3 \end{bmatrix}_{k-1} + \frac{dt}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -w_x & -w_x & -w_x \\ w_x & 0 & w_z & w_y \\ w_y & -w_z & 0 & w_x \\ w_z & w_y & -w_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} q_0 \\ q_1 \\ q_2 \\ q_3 \end{bmatrix}_{k-1} \quad (9)$$

Here, w_b^n is the angular velocity of the b system relative to the n system; w_x , w_y , w_z are the angular velocities of the three axes, respectively; k is the serial number.

After formula (4) and formula (7) are combined, the relationship between attitude angle and quaternion can be obtained. The attitude matrix c_b^n can be updated after the updated quaternion from formula (9) is obtained. As shown in formula (10), the quaternion can be converted into attitude angle.

$$\begin{cases} \theta = -\arcsin(2(q_1q_3 - q_0q_2)), & (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}) \\ \gamma = \arctan(\frac{2(q_0q_1 + q_2q_3)}{q_0^2 - q_1^2 - q_2^2 + q_3^2}), & (-\pi, \pi) \\ \psi = \arctan(\frac{2(q_1q_2 + q_0q_3)}{q_0^2 + q_1^2 - q_2^2 - q_3^2}), & (0, 2\pi) \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

In addition, the quaternion differential equation involves integration operations in formula (9). Due to the accumulation of low-frequency errors in the gyroscope itself, long-term operation will produce a large cumulative integration error. As a result, the final attitude angle error is relatively large. Calculating the attitude angle through the output value of the accelerometer does not produce any cumulative error, but it generates relatively large high-frequency noise for the device, which means poor reliability for short-term use. Therefore, as shown in formula (11), the attitude angle data output by the two inertial sensors can be processed together using the complementary filter algorithm [27].

$$\bar{\theta} = \frac{K}{s+K} \theta_a + \frac{s+K}{K} \theta_g \quad (11)$$

Here, K is the filter gain, which determines the cut-off frequency of the low-pass filter and the complementary weight of the angular velocity signal and the acceleration signal; $\bar{\theta}$ is the estimated value of the attitude angle; the input signals θ_a and θ_g are the attitude angles calculated by acceleration and angular velocity, respectively.

As shown in Fig. 4 (a), the IMU is integrated and placed on the ring carrier. The attitude angles [16] indicating rotations

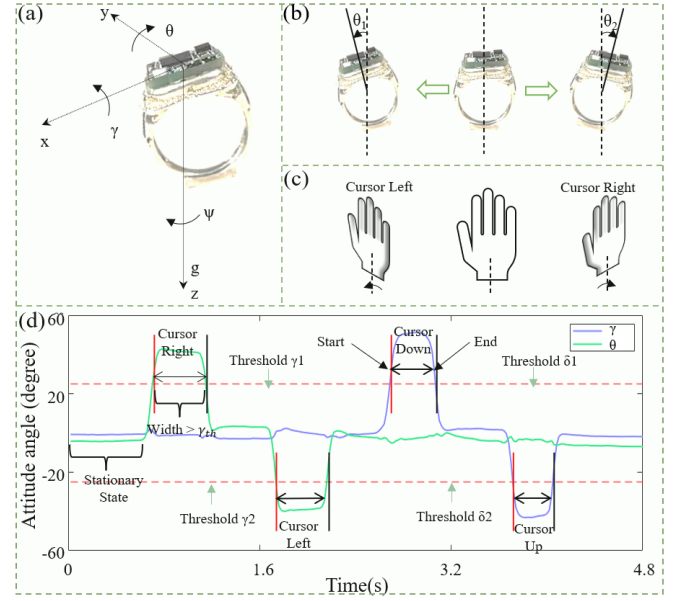


Fig. 4. (a) The relationship between attitude angle pitch (θ), roll (γ), and yaw (ψ) with the virtual mouse coordinate system. (b) The change of the attitude angle pitch (θ) when the hand is tilted. (c) The corresponding mouse operations when the cursor moves left and right.

around the x-axis, y-axis and z-axis are called roll (γ), pitch (θ) and yaw (ψ), respectively, and are used to reflect the tilt angle change of the virtual mouse. Fig. 4 (b-c) show the correspondence between the hand tilting motion and the pitch (θ) change. Fig. 4 (d) shows the waveform change of pitch (θ) and yaw (ψ) and the corresponding mouse operations.

$$\text{Angle}(k) < \gamma_1$$

$$\text{Angle}(k+1) > \gamma_1 \quad (12)$$

$$\text{Angle}(k) > \gamma_2$$

$$\text{Angle}(k+1) < \gamma_2 \quad (13)$$

$$k_2 - k_1 > \gamma_{th} \quad (14)$$

Here, Angle represents attitude angles pitch (θ) and yaw (ψ), and thresholds γ_1 , γ_2 , δ_1 and δ_2 are used to detect the start and end points of the four tilting motions.

If pitch (θ) satisfies formula (12), the start point of the right tilt motion can be obtained. If pitch (θ) satisfies formula (13), the end point of the right tilt motion can be obtained. To avoid misrecognition caused by hand shaking, γ_{th} in formula (14) is used to limit the holding time of the hand motion and the length of the data sampling window. Specifically, the starting point is defined as k_1 , and the end point is defined as k_2 . In this way, we can control the cursor on the screen to move to the desired position. By adjusting the threshold parameters using data visualization technology, the specific needs of different users can be met.

2) **Mouse Clicking:** As shown in Fig. 3 (c), the motion of the user's hand quickly rotating to the left or right and then returning to the "center area" is regarded as a click of the virtual mouse.

As shown in Fig. 5 (b), when the user's wrist rotates quickly, the resultant acceleration (RA) of the three axes, as described in formula (15), will change significantly, which

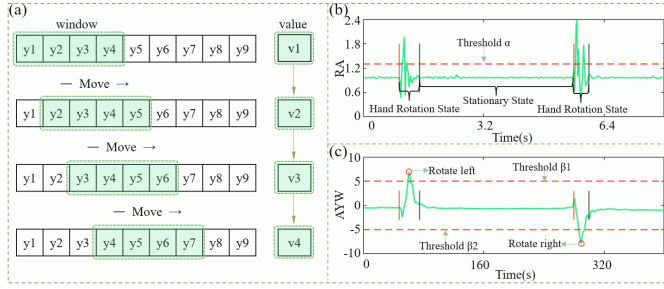


Fig. 5. The realization principle of left and right clicks of the virtual mouse. (a). Schematic of the sliding window algorithm. (b) The waveform change of RA. (c). The waveform change of AYW.

can distinguish the rotating motion from the other states.

$$RA(n) = \sqrt{a_x^2(n) + a_y^2(n) + a_z^2(n)} \quad (15)$$

Here, a_x , a_y , and a_z are the preprocessed acceleration data of x-axis, y-axis, and z-axis, respectively. $RA(n)$ is the resultant acceleration at time n .

In addition, the sliding window algorithm [31], as shown in Fig. 5 (a) and described in formula (16), is used to calculate the mean value of the y-axis acceleration (AYW) in the sliding window. Fig. 5 (c) shows the waveform change of AYW.

$$AYW(n) = \frac{1}{w} \sum_{i=0}^w a_y(n+i) \quad (16)$$

Here, $AYW(n)$ is the average value of the y-axis acceleration in the sliding window obtained at time n , and w is the width of the sliding window.

As shown in Fig. 5 (b-c), under the premise that RA satisfies formula (17), if AYW satisfies formula (18), a left click will be executed; if AYW satisfies formula (19), a right click will be executed. In this way, the left and right clicking motions of the virtual mouse are recognized.

$$RA > \alpha \quad (17)$$

$$AYW > \beta_1 \quad (18)$$

$$AYW < \beta_2 \quad (19)$$

E. Multiple-Level Decision Algorithm

During the motion recognition process, there will be an increase in the types of user behaviors to be recognized, which has an effect on the recognition performance. To address this problem, we examined the hierarchy in the data set of motion recognition, based on which we proposed a multiple-level decision algorithm [32]–[34] to achieve the desired functionality as well as improved performance and accuracy for the virtual mouse. Table II gives the pseudo code of this algorithm.

It is worth noting that, when motion recognition is completed and cursor movement needs to be performed, the cursor will not move on the screen until the tilting motion is finished. In addition, the mouse will be hung up after a single click, instead of executing the click all the time. When using the virtual mouse, the user can see how the cursor moves on the screen in real time. Once any incorrect movement occurs, the user will notice it immediately, and can then adjust the mouse to re-execute the desired interaction.

TABLE II

THE PSEUDO CODE OF THE MULTIPLE-LEVEL DECISION ALGORITHM

Algorithm 1: Multiple-level Decision Algorithm

Input:

The resultant acceleration (RA) of the three axes; attitude angles pitch (θ) and yaw (ψ); The mean value of the y-axis acceleration in the sliding window (AYW).

Output:

Commands, including mouse left clicks and right clicks, and the cursor moving up, down, left, and right.

Pseudo code:

```

1. if  $RA > \alpha$ 
2.   if  $AYW > \beta_1$ 
3.     left click is performed
4.   else if  $AYW < \beta_2$ 
5.     right click is performed
6.   else
7.     no motion is performed
8. else if  $RA < \alpha$ 
9.   if  $|\theta| > \gamma$ 
10.    if  $\theta > \gamma_1$ 
11.      cursor moves left
12.    else if  $\theta < -\gamma_2$ 
13.      cursor moves right
14.    else
15.      no motion is performed
16. else if  $|\phi| > \delta$ 
17.   if  $\phi > \delta_1$ 
18.     cursor moves up
19.   else if  $\phi < -\delta_2$ 
20.     cursor moves down
21.   else
22.     no motion is performed
23. else
24.   no motion is performed
25. else
26.   no motion is performed
    
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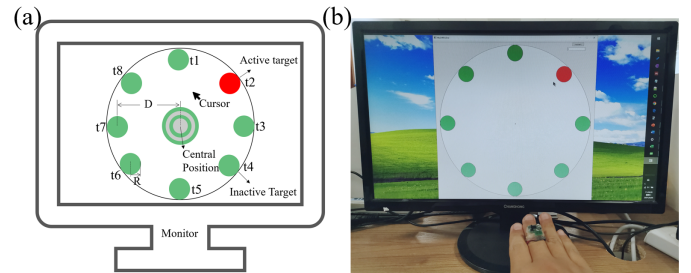


Fig. 6. The host computer used for collecting performance data of the standard and virtual mice.

III. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

In this section, target selection accuracy, target selection time, and path efficiency are used as the indicators to evaluate the performance difference between a standard mouse and a virtual mouse. The model of the standard mouse is Logitech G102. Six subjects who are aged between 22 and 26 and familiar with using the standard and virtual mouse participated in this experiment. Each subject was asked to wear a virtual mouse and use a standard wired mouse to collect 50 sets of data, respectively.

A. Performance Data Acquisition

As shown in Fig. 6, a host computer, designed by QT software, is used to obtain the performance data of the standard

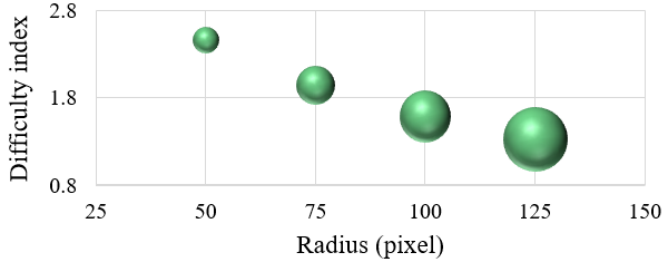


Fig. 7. Target width and distance (in pixels) and the corresponding difficulty degree.

and virtual mice. The host computer runs on a 24-inch color screen with a resolution of 1920×1080 pixels [35].

Eight circular targets, which are uniformly distributed along the eight directions on the host computer interface, are named t1 to t8, respectively. They are of the same width so as to eliminate the influence of the approach angle [35]. In each round, one of the eight circular targets is randomly selected as the active target and turns red, and the other seven are inactive targets, which appear in green. The subject needs to control the cursor to move from the center of the screen to the position of the active target, and then perform a single click as quickly and accurately as possible. Relevant data information, including the serial number and position of the randomly assigned target, the time of target selection, whether the target is hit, the clicked target position, and the moving distance, will be automatically recorded in the log file. After hitting, the cursor will be automatically re-centered, and a new target will be randomly selected as the active target. One round of testing includes eight target selection tasks.

In the experiment, the target circle comes in four types of radii: 50, 75, 100, and 125 pixels. A small radius means a greatly increased difficulty degree [36] of subjects wearing a virtual mouse to control the cursor to hit the target. The difficulty degree is expressed by formula (20).

$$ID = \log_2\left(\frac{D}{R \times 2} + 1\right) \quad (20)$$

Here, ID is the difficulty degree; R and D, as marked in Fig. 6, are the radius of the target circle (in pixels) and the linear distance (in pixels) from the starting position of the screen center to the target point, respectively.

Fig. 7 describes the relationship between the difficulty degree, the target width, and the target distance. As the target width decreases, the difficulty degree will increase. If the virtual mouse can maintain good performance even at a high difficulty degree, it is safe to say that the virtual mouse can meet the expected applications.

B. Performance Evaluation and Analysis

1) **Indicator 1: Target Selection Accuracy:** The target selection accuracy [14], as described in formula (21), is used to describe the accuracy of subjects wearing a virtual mouse to click on different target circles.

$$Accuracy(k) = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + TN + FN} \quad (21)$$

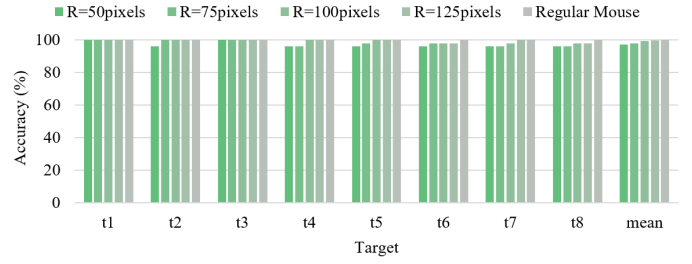


Fig. 8. Target selection accuracy results of the standard and virtual mice hitting different target circles with different radii.



Fig. 9. Target selection time results of the standard and virtual mice hitting different target circles.

Here, k represents the serial number of the target circles, from 1 to 8. Here, we take hitting the target circle “target-1” as an example to explain the meaning of the four parameters (TP, TN, FP and FN). TP (True Positive) means the target is hit correctly as “target-1”. TN (True Negative) means the target is hit correctly as not “target-1”. FP (false positive) means the target is incorrectly hit as “target-1”. FN (false negative) means the target is incorrectly hit as not “target-1”.

Fig. 8 depicts the target selection accuracy results of the experiment. The target selection accuracy of the standard mouse is 100%. For the virtual mouse, the accuracy varies with different targets and different radii, but it exceeds 96% for all the cases. The label “mean” represents the average accuracy for the eight target circles, which is 98.44%, with the minimum being 97% and the maximum 99.5%.

The target selection accuracy improves as the radius increases. In addition, the subject can see the real-time interaction process. Once an error occurs, the subject can control the mouse to re-execute the desired interaction. This satisfies the user’s accuracy requirements for the virtual mouse in day-to-day usage.

2) **Indicator 2: Target Selection Time:** The target selection time [20], [37], which is mathematically described in formula (22), is defined as the time it takes for the subject to control the cursor to move from the screen center to the active target and hit the target. It reflects how much effort the user spends on the interaction and how fast the virtual mouse responds. Cases in which the subject fails to select the specified target is excluded from the target selection time data.

$$T = T_2 - T_1 \quad (22)$$

Here, T is the target selection time; T_1 denotes the time at which the subject starts moving the cursor from the screen center; T_2 represents the time at which the subject finishes selecting the target circle.



Fig. 10. Path efficiency results of the standard and virtual mice hitting different target circles.

TABLE III
PERFORMANCE COMPARISON BETWEEN
STANDARD MOUSE AND VIRTUAL MOUSE

Performance indicator	Standard mouse	Virtual mouse	Difference
Target selection accuracy	100%	98.44%	1.56%
Target selection time	1.25s	1.45s	0.2s
Path efficiency	99.05%	98.02%	1.03%

Fig. 9 compares the target selection times of the standard and virtual mice for the eight different target circles. We see that there is no significant difference in the times it takes for the standard mouse to select different target circles. When target circles 1, 3, 5, and 7 are selected, the target selection time of the virtual mouse is close to that of the standard mouse. When target circles 2, 4, 6, and 8 are selected, the target selection time of the virtual mouse is longer than that of the standard mouse.

3) *Indicator 3: Path Efficiency*: Path efficiency [37] is the measure of the linear distance of the cursor from the screen center to the target circle. Specifically, it is defined as the ratio of the ideal to the actual path that the cursor moves from the screen center to the target circle. Formula (23) shows the mathematical description of path efficiency.

$$PE = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{Distance}{\sqrt{(x_{i,j} - x_{0,0})^2 + (y_{i,j} - y_{0,0})^2}} / m/n \quad (23)$$

Here, PE is path efficiency; m is the number of target circles to click on in one round; n is the number of data collection rounds to perform. In this experiment, m is 8 and n is 50. Distance is the linear distance from the screen center to the target circle, $(x_{0,0}, y_{0,0})$ is the position of the screen center, and $(x_{i,j}, y_{i,j})$ is the position where the user clicks on the target circle.

Fig. 10 depicts the path efficiency results of the standard and virtual mice hitting different target circles. The closer the path efficiency is to 100%, the better the performance. It can be seen that the path efficiency of the virtual mouse is close to that of a standard mouse.

4) *Performance Comparison*: Table III compares the performance of the standard and virtual mice. According to the experimental results, the virtual mouse has a target selection accuracy of 98.44%, and its target selection time and path efficiency are very close to those of the standard mouse. These findings verify the practicability of the virtual mouse. It can be expected that this virtual mouse will provide a portable and reliable tool for multi-scenario human-computer interaction in the future.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose a ring-type wireless mouse scheme based on IMU sensors and a multi-level decision algorithm. This scheme does not require the support of a 2D desktop. The user can realize the interactive function of a traditional mouse in the air by simply wearing a smart ring on the middle finger of their right hand. First, the smart ring captures changes in the finger's attitude angle to control how the cursor moves. This reduces the dependence on the environment and allows for unrestricted interaction in multiple scenarios. Second, the smart ring, which is integrated on the ring carrier without extra auxiliary sensors, captures the rapid rotation of the user's palm to the left and right to achieve mouse clicking. This design greatly reduces the virtual mouse's size and improves its portability. Finally, considering that the increase in user motion types affects the recognition performance, a multi-level decision algorithm is developed based on the hierarchy in the data set and used to improve the response speed and recognition accuracy of the virtual mouse. The experimental results show that the target selection accuracy of the virtual mouse is over 96%, and its target selection time and path efficiency are very close to those of a standard mouse. These findings demonstrate the effectiveness and usability of the virtual mouse in real-world applications. We believe that this virtual mouse will provide a portable, highly accurate, and responsive solution to support the needs for multi-scenario human-computer interaction in the future.

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