

Upper Limb Dewatering using Underactuated End-effector based Backdrivable Manipulanda

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Abstract—In rehabilitation for neurological injuries, gravity compensation or dewatering of the upper limb is often performed, as it allows patients with limited muscle activities to realise movements. Dewatering cancels the gravitational effect of the human arm allowing the available muscle forces to produce acceleration, and thus movement, of the arm. In robotic devices designed for rehabilitation, dewatering is performed by applying forces to the arm, either joint-by-joint (e.g. with exoskeletons) or at a single point (e.g. with end-effector based manipulanda). This paper formulates the gravity compensation strategy for spatial (3D) manipulanda, considers the effect of the force applied by the robotic device on the generalised dynamics of the upper limb and critically evaluates the advantages and limitations of this approach. Additionally, the proposed strategy is validated on the EMU robot, designed with the emphasis on its dynamically transparent mechanical transmission to allow an impedance control approach. The configuration of the EMU robot used in this work only has 3 degrees of actuation, making it underactuated with respect to the task of regulating a human arm up to the wrist modelled with 4 degrees of freedom. The underactuation resulted in an uncompensated gravity induced moment about the *swivel angle axis*, which is a line connecting the shoulder and wrist points of the human arm. The experimental validation demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed gravity compensation technique in cancelling the effect of gravity on the user’s arm.

I. INTRODUCTION

Robotic devices for neurological rehabilitation have been demonstrated to have a positive impact on the capabilities of patients, with many developed over the past two decades [1]. The capability of these robotic devices to provide engaging exercises with physical assistance, while minimising the requirement for physical therapist support speaks well to the goals of neurorehabilitation exercises, allowing a patient to perform many repetitions of goal-orientated movements (*i.e.* achieving a high dosage of treatment) [2], whilst being actively engaged.

A common practice in the rehabilitation of neurologically impaired patients is to ‘deweight the arm’ in clinical terms, or compensate for gravity, in robotics terms. The dewatering of a patient’s arm results in a reduction in the muscle-generated torque required to overcome the weight of the arm, which can be quantified as the gravity component of the equation of motion of the patient’s upper limb. When the weight is completely compensated, any muscle activity the patient possesses can be utilised to produce acceleration (thus movement) of the arm [3]. This is important as recovery from

a neurological injury requires mass repetition of movements with active patient involvement. Furthermore, this allows the patient to self initiate, achieve and observe more significant movement with their limited muscle activities. This provides a positive feedback loop towards exciting brain-plasticity and regaining motor function, as well as providing motivation. Dewatering is traditionally provided manually by the therapist supporting the weight of the patient arm, however, this manual manipulation is time consuming, physically exhausting and has been known to cause injury [4].

This work focuses on the dewatering capabilities of robot-assisted systems for gross movements of the upper-limb. Conventionally, such systems can be generally categorised as one of two types: exoskeletons (a joint based approach) and manipulanda (an end-effector based approach). Exoskeleton robots aim to have an individual robotic joint for each physiological (human) joint, and thus have the advantages of arm support and motion regulation for all joints of the human arm — for example, the ARMin [5]. The downside is the potential joint misalignment (from the human joint) which can cause undesired forces to be applied to the patient [6]. Readjusting link lengths to match the joint kinematics of each patient also means an overhead in the clinical set up time. The design of exoskeletons, in particular the balancing the desired dynamics transparency and the effective (moving) inertia of the mechanism, is also a technically challenging problem [7].

Manipulanda, or end-effector based manipulators, do not suffer from many of the challenges faced by the exoskeletons mentioned above. However, manipulanda are unable to provide joint-specific control over a patient’s upper-limb, thus requiring an end-effector based approach to be formulated. The challenge in balancing the dynamics transparency and the available end-effector forces remains significant, resulting in mostly planar (2D) manipulanda being designed and used to this day, such as the MIT Manus [8]. This planar constraint means that many designs operate in this reduced workspace, which make them less applicable to low or moderately impaired patients and to more complex exercises — particularly as many daily activities involve three dimensional (3D) movements. These limitations can be addressed through the development of 3D manipulanda such as the EMU [9] or the HapticMaster [10].

In the field of robotics, both categories of aforementioned devices, exoskeletons and manipulanda, can provide gravity compensation, whilst simultaneously providing additional assistance, resistance or correction. Planar manipulanda, being restricted to a horizontal plane, perform gravity compensa-

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tion by design, but are unable to provide partial dewatering. Exoskeletons provide dewatering for each arm segment (*i.e.* upper-arm, forearm and hand) by computing compensation torques joint-by-joint (*i.e.* shoulder, elbow, wrist) [11]—operating under the assumption that their robotic structure aligns perfectly with the human limb kinematics.

Gravity compensation is not straightforward for a 3D manipulandum [9]. The required end-effector forces that need to be applied to the human arm varies with the pose of the human arm. In [9], a preliminary simplified solution to this problem was proposed with an assumption of a rigid elbow joint.

In this paper, a gravity compensation algorithm for spatial manipulanda is proposed and comprehensively analysed. The method uses a model of the mechanical dynamics of the human arm to calculate a supporting force at the end-effector equivalent to the gravity component acting on the human arm strapped to the end-effector of the robot. Equivalently, this supporting force results in zero torque being required at every joint of the human arm to maintain the current posture (statically). As such, the approach provides a quasi-static condition that suspends the patient’s arm in its current pose, thus aiming to provide an equivalent gravity compensation effect of the support provided by exoskeletons.

The proposed algorithm is implemented on an underactuated manipulandum (EMU) [9] as an illustrative example and validation of its effectiveness in compensating the gravity forces on a mechanical arm.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section II proposes a mathematical description of the ‘dewatering’ problem for 3D manipulanda. Section III describes the proposed solution for the cases where the robotic manipulandum is fully actuated and underactuated. An experimental validation based on a mechanical representation of an arm are then presented in Section IV. Finally, the implications to the rehabilitation application are discussed in Section V.

II. PROBLEM DEFINITION

The overall system of interest can be defined as consisting of two components (see Figure 1): (1) the robotic device providing the dewatering force, described as kinematic chain r , and (2) the human upper-limb, described as kinematic chain h , whose weight and dynamics are to be compensated for. The two components are connected by having the human arm strapped onto the end-effector of the robotic device.

A. Robotic Device

The end-effector based manipulator considered in this paper is characterised by the feature that it is attached to the human arm at only a single location (at the forearm, see Figure 1) and allows movements in three dimensional space. It is also assumed that the forces \mathbf{f}_r and moments \mathbf{m}_r (*i.e.* the wrench) applied to the human arm can be regulated by the robotic control either through impedance or admittance control. In the case where the forces and moments can be applied in all directions, these would possess the dimensions of $\mathbf{f}_r \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $\mathbf{m}_r \in \mathbb{R}^3$, however, it is not assumed that all devices under consideration have this property.

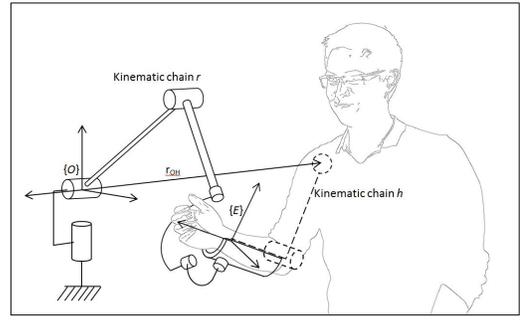


Fig. 1. The combined robot + human system using a manipulandum robot

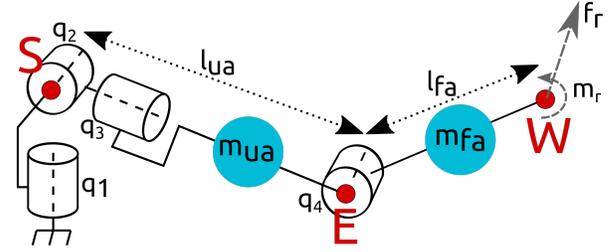


Fig. 2. The model of the human arm — a two link mechanism with 3 intersecting revolute joints q_1 , q_2 and q_3 at the shoulder (S) and a revolute joint at the elbow E . W denotes the wrist location (*i.e.* contact location of the robotic device). Upper and lower arm are approximated by two links of lengths l_{ua} and $l_{fa,s}$ and masses m_{ua} and m_{fa} respectively. \mathbf{f}_r and \mathbf{m}_r indicates the force and moment applied by the robotic manipulator.

B. Arm Model

The human arm is modelled as a 4DoF two link serial mechanism. It consists of a shoulder joint, which is modelled as a spherical joint (3 revolute joints with intersecting axes) and a revolute elbow joint (1DoF). Mathematically, the joints are modelled as per the International Society of Biomechanical (ISB) recommendations [12], which is represented in Figure 2. The two rigid links therefore consist of the upper-arm and forearm with associated masses m_{ua} and m_{fa} , respectively, as depicted on Figure 2. It is assumed that the location of the shoulder is known in inertial space, allowing for a quasi static update of its location. The wrist joint is not considered, as the manipulandum is assumed to be connected to the end of the forearm of the subject. The displacements of the upper-limb joints are assumed to be known, which can be realised through direct measurements from external sensors (*e.g.* [13]) or from the kinematics of the robotic manipulandum if enough spatial information of the robot end-effector and / or displacement of the shoulder joint are known.

Whilst this model does not give a representation of all degrees of freedom in a human upper-limb, it includes the ones with the greatest ranges of motion, and thus provides a suitable representation for this work.

Given this model, the equations of motion of the human arm can be written as:

$$M_h(\mathbf{q}_h)\ddot{\mathbf{q}}_h + C_h(\mathbf{q}_h, \dot{\mathbf{q}}_h)\dot{\mathbf{q}}_h + \mathbf{g}_h(\mathbf{q}_h) = \boldsymbol{\tau}_h \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{q}_h , $\dot{\mathbf{q}}_h$ and $\ddot{\mathbf{q}}_h \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are the generalised coordinates of

the human arm and their derivatives, and $\boldsymbol{\tau}_h \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the joint torque generated by the human subject (through activation of their muscles), $M_h(\mathbf{q}_h) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the inertia matrix, $C_h(\mathbf{q}_h, \dot{\mathbf{q}}_h) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the Coriolis and centrifugal matrix, and $\mathbf{g}_h(\mathbf{q}_h)$ is a vector corresponding to the gravitational terms. In the model used within this work, $n = 4$. It is noted that these equations are described with a subscript h (to denote human) to distinguish these variables from those attributed to the robotic device.

C. The Objective of ‘Deweighting’

The robotic manipulandum applies an end-effector force (\mathbf{f}_r) and moment (\mathbf{m}_r) to the human arm at point W (at the wrist). This forms an external wrench added to the equation of motion of the human arm (1), such that:

$$M_h(\mathbf{q}_h)\ddot{\mathbf{q}} + C_h(\mathbf{q}_h, \dot{\mathbf{q}}_h)\dot{\mathbf{q}} + \mathbf{g}_h(\mathbf{q}_h) = \boldsymbol{\tau}_h + \mathbf{R}_r(\mathbf{q}_h, \mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r) \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{R}_r(\mathbf{q}_h, \mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r)$ describes the wrench applied by the robot end-effector onto the human arm projected in the joint space of the human arm.

The aim of the arm deweighting strategy is to compute a wrench ($[\mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r]^T$) that the robotic end-effector needs to apply to compensate for the gravity force $\mathbf{g}_h(\mathbf{q}_h)$ acting on the human arm. For a *complete deweighting*, this wrench results in zero torque being required at the shoulder and elbow joints to maintain a given pose of the human arm. By extension, a *partial deweighting* can be realised by compensating only for a portion of the gravity forces acting on the human arm, resulting in some remaining torques required at the shoulder and elbow joints for the human arm to overcome the effect of gravity. It is noted that such a reduction in the required torques is akin to reducing the amount of muscle force required to overcome the weight of one’s arm.

Remark: Note that the wrench applied by the robotic end-effector on the human arm will be projected into two components: one that acts upon the degrees of freedom of the human arm (*i.e.* the joints) and another that results in the reaction forces in the skeletal structure of the arm. The latter does not play any part in producing any acceleration (or movement) in the human arm, thus does not directly affect the deweighting process, but does have consequences in the clinical application in terms of reaction and contact forces in the skeleton and joints.

III. DEWEIGHTING STRATEGY

Within this section, a deweighting strategy is presented for the general class of joint torque commanded 3D manipulanda, capable of producing a commanded end-effector wrench.

The end-effector of the robotic manipulandum is strapped onto the forearm of the human user, applying wrench $[\mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r]^T$ to the forearm of the human user at and about the wrist point W of the human arm. To achieve deweighting, the robot manipulandum should produce an end-effector wrench that results in a human joint space torque $\mathbf{R}_r(\mathbf{q}_h, \mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r) = \mathbf{g}_h(\mathbf{q}_h)$.

Given $n = 4$ is the number of degrees of freedom of the human arm (model) up to the forearm as presented in Section II-B and m is the number of actuated end-effector degrees of freedom of the robotic manipulandum, the deweighting strategy can be discussed as follows.

A. For Full-ranked Jacobian Transpose of the Human Arm

The quasi-static relationship between the wrench at the end-effector (applied by the robotic end-effector) and the corresponding joint torque at the human arm is expressed as:

$$\mathbf{R}_r(\mathbf{q}_h, \mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r) = J_h^T(\mathbf{q}_h) \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_r \\ \mathbf{m}_r \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

with J_h the Jacobian of the human arm, $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_r \\ \mathbf{m}_r \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $\mathbf{R}_r(\mathbf{q}_h, \mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where in this work $n = 4$. This means that the robot end-effector needs to be able to produce forces and moments in at least 4 degrees of freedom at the end-effector. However, note that due to the fact that this is a manipulandum, not an exoskeleton, the generalised coordinates representing the degrees of freedom of the robot and its associated generalised forces, are generally not one to one aligned with the joints of the human arm. Therefore, while at least 4 active degrees of freedom are theoretically required, in practice generally more than 4 are required of the robotic device to produce a full ranked Jacobian transpose J_h^T (*i.e.* $m > n$).

The required end-effector wrench for the deweighting procedure can then be calculated from the model of the human arm (2) as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_r \\ \mathbf{m}_r \end{bmatrix} = J_h^{\dagger}(\mathbf{q}_h) \mathbf{g}_h(\mathbf{q}_h) \quad (4)$$

where $J_h^{\dagger}(\mathbf{q}_h)$ is a generalised inverse of the J_h^T , with $J_h \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ and $m > n$. A least-square based generalised inverse, such as the Moore-Penrose pseudo inverse, will select an end-effector wrench with minimised norm. This has the effect of selecting the wrench to favour the component projected onto the degrees of freedom of the human arm and minimising the component projected into reaction forces into the skeletal system. A different choice of the resulting wrench that produces a different set of reaction forces can be realised by the use of null space projection of the desired behaviour, which would not affect the deweighting task (however, that is outside of the scope of this paper).

It can be observed that the calculated wrench $[\mathbf{f}_r, \mathbf{m}_r]^T$ required as calculated in (6) varies across the workspace with \mathbf{q}_h in magnitude and direction. Note that the force required to compensate for gravity at the end-effector of the robotic manipulandum cannot only be vertical in its direction because the load is not a single rigid body but a chain of rigid bodies.

This provides a generic methodology for arm deweighting with any end-effector based device with full actuation in both force and moment. In such a case, J_h^T is full rank at postures other than singularities. In the case of the 4DoF human arm model used in this case, the singularities occur

at the straight elbow configuration and when the wrist point W is located vertically above the shoulder point S , which are equivalent to the elbow and head singularities in anthropomorphic manipulators [14] [15]. In the rehabilitation robotics applications for which the deweighting procedure in this paper is considered, these singular configurations are (and can be) generally avoided and excluded from consideration.

In the case of a full ranked J_h^T , the gravity component of $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h)$ can therefore be entirely compensated for, resulting in a complete deweighting scenario. The same can also be said about other exercises requiring joint-based force/motion regulation (of the joints of the human arm) — that they can be implemented in such fashion through an end-effector based robotic manipulandum.

B. On Underactuated Robotic Devices

In the interest of simplifying robotic mechanisms used for upper limb rehabilitation, it is desired to consider the application of the deweighting strategy on underactuated robots with only 3 degrees of actuation, capable of actively regulating the translational degrees of freedom of the end-effector. The orientation degrees of freedom can be realised through a passive (non-actuated) spherical joint placed at the end-effector, where the angular displacements are measured. Such strategies can be found in rehabilitation spatial manipula designs such as the EMU [9] or HapticMaster [10].

In this case, the J_h^T matrix considers only the translational force components of the end-effector of the robotic manipulandum (as the actuation), while there are 4 joints considered in the model of the human arm that need to be manipulated:

$$\mathbf{R}_r(\mathbf{q}_h, \mathbf{f}_r) = J_h^T(\mathbf{q}_h) \mathbf{f}_r \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{R}_r(\mathbf{q}_h, \mathbf{f}_r) \in \mathbb{R}^4$ and $\mathbf{f}_r \in \mathbb{R}^3$.

The end-effector force that the robot manipulandum has to produce to achieve deweighting is therefore:

$$\mathbf{f}_r = J_h^{\dagger}(\mathbf{q}_h) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h) . \quad (6)$$

The system under consideration is therefore underactuated — only forces can be applied by the robot end-effector, in three directions ($\mathbf{f}_r \in \mathbb{R}^3$), however, the arm is modelled having four joints ($\mathbf{q}_h \in \mathbb{R}^4$). Thus, not all components of the gravity vector $\mathbf{g}_h(\mathbf{q}_h)$ can be completely compensated for at all times. In this case, the least squares based generalised inverse minimises the error $\|J_h^{\dagger}(\mathbf{q}_h) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h) - \mathbf{f}_r\|$.

Similarly to the full-ranked case, the calculated force \mathbf{f}_r varies across the workspace. A visualisation of this force can be seen in Figure 3, which plots the calculated force in a number of postures in the sagittal plane, and in the transverse (horizontal) plane. The force changes at each of these postures, with larger forces required with more elbow extension, and more shoulder elevation. However, it is noted that, the magnitude and direction does not change significantly with differences in the transverse plane, associated with shoulder angle of elevation.

The result of applying the proposed deweighting methodology to a manipulandum controlling only the force — and not the moments — at the end-effector can be identified by

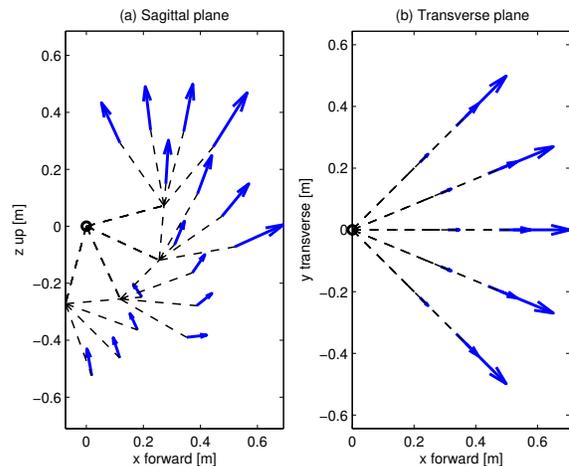


Fig. 3. Gravity compensation force for various arm postures in (a) Sagittal (vertical) plane and (b) Transverse (horizontal) plane. Black circle represents the shoulder position, dotted lines the arm posture.

projecting the effects of the applied end-effector force back into the human joint space (*i.e.* the generalised coordinates):

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{comp} = J_h^T(\mathbf{q}_h) \mathbf{f}_r . \quad (7)$$

The component of the gravitational terms which are not compensated for by the deweighting algorithm can be expressed as:

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{uncomp} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h) - J_h^T(\mathbf{q}_h) \mathbf{f}_r \quad (8)$$

$$= \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h) - J_h^T(\mathbf{q}_h) J_h^{\dagger}(\mathbf{q}_h) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h) \quad (9)$$

$$= \left(I_4 - J_h^T(\mathbf{q}_h) J_h^{\dagger}(\mathbf{q}_h) \right) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h) \quad (10)$$

with I_4 being the 4×4 identity matrix.

Based on Equation (10), these uncompensated moments lie in the null-space of J_h^T . They therefore do not affect any (linear) forces applied by the robot end-effector on the human arm. More specifically, as illustrated on Figure 4 the direction of the uncompensated moment is about an axis connecting the wrist point (W) and the shoulder joint (S) which is known as the *swivel angle axis*, defined and used for human-exoskeleton interaction analysis [16] and in rehabilitation applications [17]. It can therefore be seen that some shoulder torques are not compensated for whereas the elbow torque is fully compensated for in every posture, and that the magnitude of these torques is dependant on the posture.

IV. EXPERIMENTS

The proposed deweighting strategy, specifically for the underactuated case, is implemented on the EMU [9].

The EMU is a highly backdrivable system allowing for impedance control (see Figure 5) allowing 6DoF movement of the end-effector, however, in the configuration considered for this work, only the first 3 joints — corresponding to the translation degrees of freedom of the robot end-effector — are actuated. The displacements of the remaining DoFs,

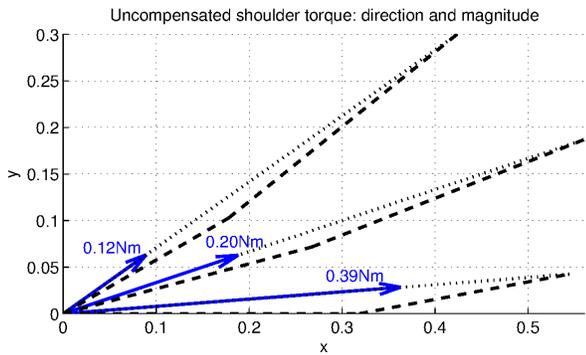


Fig. 4. The uncompensated moments (blue arrows) due to the use of an underactuated robot, are shown at the shoulder point (blue arrows) together with the swivel angle axis (dotted lines) for different arm postures (upper arm and forearm represented by dashed lines). Top View.



Fig. 5. The EMU backdrivable, end-effector based device for upper limb rehabilitation

corresponding to the orientation of the end-effector, are measured but not actuated. The device is attached to the patient at the wrist end of the forearm.

A. Experiment Setup

A passive mechanical arm was constructed to serve as the load for the gravity compensation exercise representing a light human arm, as per the model identified in Figure 2, and can be seen in Figure 6. The mechanical arm consisted of two links connected to each other via a revolute joint, representing the elbow. One end was connected to a fixed frame via a spherical joint representing the shoulder, and the other end was connected to the end effector of the EMU manipulandum. Weights of $m_{ua} = 1kg$ and $m_{fa} = 1kg$ were secured respectively at the center of each link.

The mechanical arm is used for the experimental validation instead of a human subject because it is difficult to be sure that a human subject is truly “relaxed” at any given posture. The mechanical arm is fitted with high quality bearings at the elbow and shoulder joints to ensure that the joint torques are minimal, serving as a baseline study in worst case gravity compensation.

Magnetic sensors (trakSTAR, Ascension Technologies) were used to measure the orientations of the links, which were in turn used to compute the posture of the mechanical arm \mathbf{q}_h in real-time (at 60Hz). These were used in conjunction with an estimation of the model to calculate the required

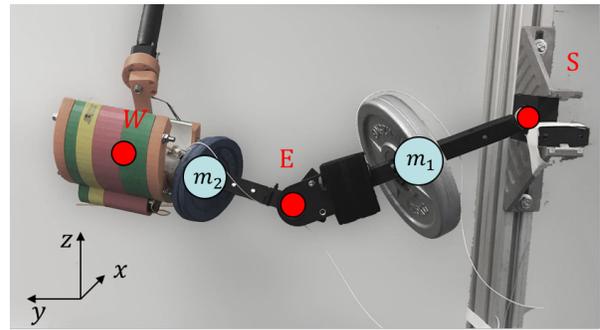


Fig. 6. The mechanical arm used in the experimental protocol. Locations representing the shoulder (S), elbow (E) and contact point (W) are labelled, as well as the two masses representing the mass of the arm.

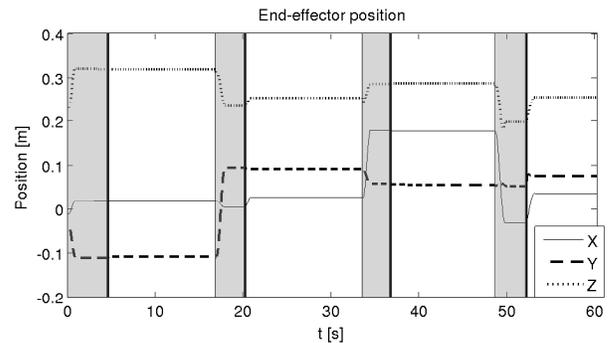


Fig. 7. Position of the end effector over time. Gray areas denote the position control periods to bring the end-effector to various positions, whereas clear areas denote the gravity compensation periods.

robotic force according to Equation (7).

B. Procedure

This described experiment setup was used to perform a validation experiment, demonstrate the feasibility of the dewatering control strategy and its possible implementation in real-time.

In this experiment, the robotic end-effector was moved by the robot to 4 different locations within the workspace in position control. These positions were chosen to cover the larger possible workspace allowed by the mechanical arm and thus assess the validity of the approach. Once each position was reached, the control was switched to the dewatering strategy. From this point, the response of the system was recorded.

C. Results

Figure 7 displays the end-effector position of the robot over time, *i.e.* the position of the contact point between the robotic device and the mechanical arm wrist point (W).

As can be observed, the system is capable of keeping stationary the mechanical arm at each posture that it was moved to. Some displacement error resulted, but settled quickly into a steady state. The displacement error from the location where the controller is switched into dewatering algorithm is reported on Table I.

TABLE I
ERROR DISTANCE FOR EACH POSTURE

Posture #	1	2	3	4
Error (mm)	2	31	2	87

On the second and last postures, the robot and mechanical arm underwent a slightly noticeable displacement from the intended equilibrium position. It should be noted that the proposed strategy relies only on an open-loop compensation of the weight of the arm and thus the error can be explained by the difference between the identified parameter dynamics values of the model and the actual mechanical arm as well as any postural measurement error. It should also be noted that compared to conventional robots with joint friction and high gearing ratios, the EMU robot used here is highly backdrivable and very low in joint friction. Similarly, the mechanical arm used to represent the human arm in this experiment is also very low in joint friction. Thus the effect of mismatch easily manifests in visible motion. In a real rehabilitation application, a real human arm would provide damping and (muscle tone) stiffness, thus this error has not been observed to be significant.

V. DISCUSSION

The results presented in this paper provide a number of new insights regarding the use of three-dimensional end-effector based devices in the field of rehabilitation.

A. Other Devices and Clinical Application

Deweighting is commonly performed for rehabilitation of neurologically impaired patients. In lieu of robotic devices, therapists often perform this manually or using passive devices designed to provide only deweighting support, such as the ArmeoSpring (Hocoma, Switzerland) and the Saebomas (Saebos, USA). Such devices can be mechanically tuned to provide different levels of support, but cannot impart or implement other control strategies.

Existing active robotic devices also provide deweighting functionality. 2D manipulanda provide deweighting by their planar design, however, cannot provide partial deweighting nor allow 3D exercises. Exoskeletons offer most flexibility in deweighting and control strategy, but can be difficult to set up and use in a clinical setting. The results within this work demonstrate that appropriately-designed end-effector based devices can provide deweighting support equivalent to that provided by an exoskeleton. An extension of these findings to other control strategies, such as discussed in [18], [19], [20], which have predominantly been implemented in exoskeleton-based robotic devices, may allow more advanced and effective strategies to be developed on simpler platforms — accelerating their translation to clinical practice.

However, concerns remain regarding the support of the device in other dimensions — for example, the analysis presented here only addresses the joint torques required at each location, and no consideration is given to interaction forces (through the assumption that the shoulder and elbow joints are ideal spherical and revolute joints, respectively). In reality, physiological joints are connected by ligaments

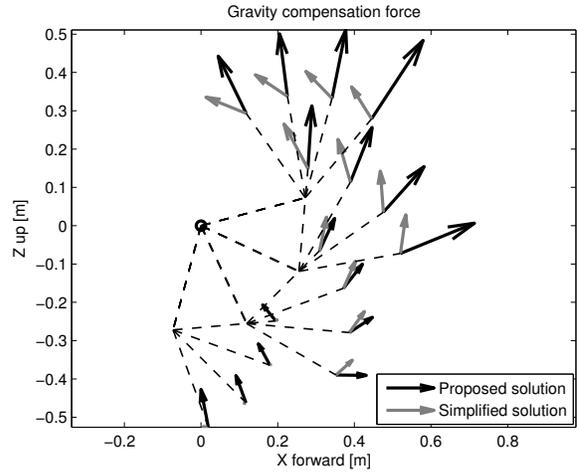


Fig. 8. Comparison between proposed deweighting control strategy, and simplified solution with rigid elbow joint presented in [9].

and muscle, which do not always reflect the ideal representations — particularly with respect to stroke patients due to conditions such as subluxation. A further analysis may be constructed to estimate and accommodate for this when deweighting.

B. Existing Results

A previous ‘simplified’ deweighting control strategy was presented in [9]. In that previous work, the deweighting strategy implemented assumed a different model of the arm — that with a rigid elbow. As such, elbow torques were not compensated for. A comparison of the deweighting control algorithm detailed in the previous work, and the one proposed in this work can be seen in Figure 8.

It can be seen that there is a significant difference between the two, with the simplified solution proposing a force of smaller magnitude, which is always orthogonal to the vector between the shoulder and the contact location. It is thus expected that the use of the simplified solution may lead to error in the gravity compensation which may result in the patient’s hand moving towards the shoulder (*i.e.* the elbow flexing). The proposed solution now includes a component of force of the same magnitude and in the same direction as the simplified solution, but also includes an orthogonal component which addresses the fact that the elbow is now considered as a joint. This ‘pulls’ the elbow joint outwards, such that it does not bend due to the effects of gravity.

C. Limitations and Practical Considerations

1) *Requirement for Measurement:* A limitation in the translation of this work to practice is the requirement that Jacobian $J_h(\mathbf{q}_h)$ and gravity vector $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}_h)$ be known. This requires knowledge of the anthropomorphic characteristics of the patient arm and measurement of their posture in real time. However, it is noted that the proposed method is relatively robust to error and noise, due to the inherent physical damping provided by having the human in the loop. Moreover it has been shown on exoskeleton devices that an

anthropomorphic-based estimation is sufficiently accurate for this application [11].

The posture measurement can be achieved through a variety of sensors — including sensors on the robotic device, magnetic sensors as used in this work, or Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) sensors. In the specific case of the EMU, it is to note that only a measurement of the shoulder position would be required additionally to the measures of the system joints.

2) *Uncompensated Torques*: As discussed in Section III-B, in the case of an underactuated system, such as the EMU, some gravity torques are not compensated for. Nevertheless these torques being about the swivel angle are seen to be of minor importance as they do not contribute to any linear acceleration of the contact point and thus of the patient’s hand. Moreover, the ability to completely compensate for the elbow torques in this approach was seen to be appropriate for upper-limb rehabilitation applications where patients often exhibit limitations in elbow movements, often compensated by trunk movements and associated with shoulder over abduction [21].

As such, although devices which can only provide forces (and not moments) at the end-effector do not physically prevent the use of these compensatory movements, it is still important that it does not passively encourage them. Furthermore, such movement patterns can be actively discouraged using indirect strategies, such as the one proposed in [17]. It is noted that these indirect strategies of corrections are potentially superior — as physically preventing a movement does not prevent the muscle activation patterns from occurring and being practiced. In fact, it suppresses its effects, which may be counter-productive to discouraging the activation patterns to start with.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Within this work, a gravity compensation strategy for dewatering a patient’s arm with three dimensional end-effector based devices has been proposed. A specific study was conducted on the strategy using a 4 degree of freedom arm model, where the robotic device is underactuated with respect to the task, due to an inability to provide moments at the end-effector. Such an arrangement was found to negate the effects of gravity, except for moments about the axis connecting the shoulder and contact location point (the swivel angle axis).

Further experimental works are necessary to evaluate the effect and reaction of the proposed strategy with both healthy subjects and neurologically impaired patients. Considerations of the effect of the applied forces on the reaction forces on the joints need to be studied in the clinical context.

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