

A Human-Robot Collaboration Framework for Improving Ergonomics During Dexterous Operation of Power Tools

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Abstract

In this work, we present a novel control approach to human-robot collaboration that takes into account ergonomic aspects of the human co-worker during power tool operations. The method is primarily based on estimating and reducing the overloading torques in the human joints that are induced by the manipulated external load. The human overloading joint torques are estimated and monitored using a whole-body dynamic state model. The appropriate robot motion that brings the human into the suitable ergonomic working configuration is obtained by an optimisation method that minimises the overloading joint torques. The proposed optimisation process includes several constraints, such as the human arm muscular manipulability and safety of the collaborative task, to achieve a task-relevant optimised configuration. We validated the proposed method by a user study that involved a human-robot collaboration task, where the subjects operated a polishing machine on a part that was brought to them by the collaborative robot. A statistical analysis of ten subjects as an experimental evaluation of the proposed control framework is provided to demonstrate the potential of the proposed control framework in enabling ergonomic and task-optimised human-robot collaboration.

Keywords: Human-Robot Interaction, Ergonomics, Human performance modelling, Industrial/organizational/workplace safety

1. Introduction

The great potential and benefits of human-robot collaboration (HRC) are becoming increasingly evident in industrial communities that are influenced by a shift from mass production to highly customised, low volume manufacturing processes [1]. Collaborative robots can automatise repetitive and high-effort tasks and can reduce human task load by providing physical assistance [2], and therefore may potentially improve the working conditions of human workers. On the other hand, humans have better cognitive capability and can therefore supervise robots' operation or transfer new skills to the collaborative robot [3, 4] thus adding a certain level of flexibility to the process and contributing to effective accomplishment of a broad range of manufacturing tasks.

One of the most evident problems that arises from the integration of the human co-worker into the robot's workspace is human safety. Ensuring a safe interaction between the human and robot counterparts should be the main prerequisite of any collaborative robot control. The prominent examples of such safety strategies are collision detection and reactive motion planning techniques [5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10], to avoid physical contacts between the robots and humans. Other approaches explore the use of compliance control strategies [11, 12] to limit impact forces [13, 14, 15, 16], or robots skins [17, 18] to detect physical contacts and react accordingly. In this direction, a concept of safety map was recently introduced to give the controller the information about human injury occurrence and inherent global or task-dependent safety properties of a robot in a unified manner [19, 20]. Furthermore, some researchers have proposed to use expert human demonstrations in an attempt to achieve safe collaborative behaviour of the robot [21, 22, 23, 4].

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36 While the above mentioned strategies can prevent
 37 robots from causing physical injuries to human, never-
 38 theless, that does not mean the human will not sustain
 39 injuries that may come due to the improper task execu-
 40 tion or working conditions. In fact, former studies have
 41 shown that several occupational injuries and illnesses
 42 are caused by the exertion of excessive physical effort
 43 and repetitive motions in lifting, pushing or pulling on
 44 objects (e.g. drill, polish tool, etc.) [24, 25, 26]. In this
 45 direction, various heuristic, experienced-based guide-
 46 lines have been proposed to prevent injuries related to
 47 such work activities [27, 28], by focusing on human
 48 pose, tool or task types, and the environmental condi-
 49 tions. Nevertheless, most of the existing techniques to
 50 monitor human ergonomics neglect the dominant effect
 51 of interaction dynamics, which can contribute to the im-
 52 provement or worsening of human ergonomics, or they
 53 do not consider robotic co-workers [29].

54 To improve human ergonomics in interactive scenar-
 55 ios, the collaborative robots must observe and track hu-
 56 man dynamic and kinematic states using their sensory
 57 systems (see Fig. 1). However, the dynamical modelling
 58 of the human body is a very complex task [30, 31]. Such
 59 precise models may be computationally too expensive
 60 for on-line uses and are therefore limited to off-line pro-
 61 cessing [32, 26, 33]. Off-line techniques, on the other
 62 hand, lack the adaptability and may not be suitable in
 63 dynamically changing environments. Some previous
 64 work aimed at addressing the required on-line adapt-
 65 ability needs [34, 35, 36, 3, 37], however, only kine-
 66 matic aspects of human partner were taken into account.
 67 Other methods in HRC used on-line human effort mod-
 68 els that can approximate the dynamical aspects, such as
 69 minimum joint torque index [38] or muscle fatigue in-
 70 dex [4, 39], with the observation only limited to the hu-
 71 man arm and did not consider human whole-body dy-
 72 namics.

73 To address the above-mentioned limitations, we re-
 74 cently proposed a method for on-line estimation of the
 75 overloading joint torques² in static poses of the human
 76 body [40], which relies on a dynamic model of the hu-
 77 man and uses various real-time sensory measurements.
 78 The accuracy of the proposed model in estimation of
 79 the whole-body centre of pressure (CoP) and the over-
 80 loading joint torques has been evaluated in our previ-
 81 ous work [40]. A principled simplification of the hu-
 82 man whole-body model enabled on-line estimation of
 83 human dynamic states. We then integrated this method
 84 into a robot control framework in HRC that enabled the

²The overloading joint torque refers to the torque induced into the human joint by an external load.

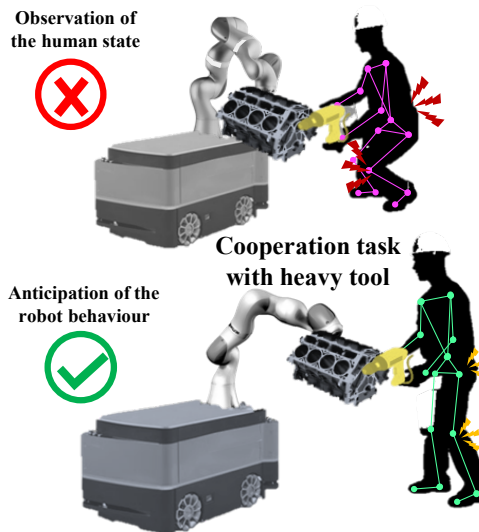


Figure 1: **The illustration of the proposed concept.** The proposed ergonomic control of human-robot collaboration aims to minimise the effect of overloading joint torques and maximise the arm manipulation ability while performing a repetitive manufacturing task.

85 robot to minimise the human overloading joint torques
 86 by assisting the human to work in a more suitable con-
 87 figuration [41]. However, one of the disadvantages of
 88 this control framework was that it still assumed static
 89 body pose of the human. More importantly, the method
 90 required measurement of ground reaction forces of the
 91 human by force plates, which can severely reduce its
 92 applicability in realistic industrial settings. In addition,
 93 the method was not able to account for some important
 94 task-dependent parameters, such as manipulability³
 95 of the human at hand, which can improve the effectiveness
 96 of collaboration and contribute to a better production
 97 quality.

98 The aim of this paper is to propose a novel human-
 99 robot collaboration control method that can guide hu-
 100 man co-workers to more ergonomic working configura-
 101 tions during dexterous operations such as drilling or
 102 polishing by using a power tool. Unlike the method in
 103 [41], the proposed method does not require the ground

³Manipulability is a measure of an articulated mechanical structure about how the motion in joint space affects the motion of endpoint in Cartesian space, and is dependent on configuration of the structure. In case of force manipulability, the relationship is between joint torques and Cartesian wrench. Formally, scalar manipulability index is derived by determinant of Jacobian matrix as $w = \sqrt{\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})^T)}$, while manipulability ellipsoids are derived by singular values and vectors of Jacobian matrix.[42] For velocity manipulability it is derived as $\mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})^T$, and for force manipulability it is derived as $\mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^T = (\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})^T)^{-1}$.

104 reaction force measurements during the on-line phase 150
 105 and is not limited to static poses⁴, both of which can 151
 106 increase its applicability in real industrial settings. The 152
 107 method is considered for quasi-static cases, for typical 153
 108 industrial tasks in which the contributions of inertial- 154
 109 related elements in overloading torques are relatively 155
 110 small in comparison to the ones produced by the gravita- 156
 111 tional load. Furthermore, the proposed method accounts 157
 112 for manipulation capacity of the human at hand during 158
 113 the optimisation procedure. We selected the two indi- 159
 114 cators so that one of them can account for the dynamic 160
 115 aspects while the other can account for kinematic as- 161
 116 pects, blending information about human dynamic load-
 117 ing and task performance which can contribute to reduc-
 118 ing stress and improving productivity. Joint torque is a 162
 119 basic variable that describes the human effort, and re-
 120 ducing it would imply that the operator must provide 163
 121 less effort to perform a task. Meanwhile, manipulability 164
 122 can describe the task execution capabilities (hand veloc-
 123 ities and forces) of the arm, and can be associated with 165
 124 comfort since higher manipulability would simply im-
 125 ply easier control of the task velocities. However, there 166
 126 are other indicators that can be considered and selected 167
 127 for the optimisation. For additional indicator selection 168
 128 one can refer to the related literature [43, 44].

129 To validate our approach, we provide detailed statis-
 130 tics of ten subjects in a collaborative polishing task, in
 131 which the task of the human was to operate the polish-
 132 ing machine, while the robot’s task was to bring the
 133 object. We analysed and compared the results of hu-
 134 man overloading joint torques in the body, human arm
 135 manipulability capacity, and measured muscle activities
 136 in the arm between six pre-selected working configura-
 137 tions, spread across the human arm workspace, and the
 138 optimised configuration, as obtained by the proposed
 139 method.

140 A preliminary study of this work was presented
 141 at 2017 IEEE-RAS International Conference on Hu-
 142 manoid Robotics [45]. The specific contributions of
 143 this paper that go beyond the preliminary study are: 1)
 144 considerable extension of method formulation that takes
 145 into account human muscular manipulability instead of
 146 a classic manipulability, which does not properly ac-
 147 count for human biomechanics, 2) experiments on ten
 148 subjects supported with statistical analysis and 3) a thor-
 149 ough evaluation procedure.

⁴While in many industrial tasks the body remains relatively static during the task execution (e.g., polishing an object with a machine, etc.), many tasks involve some kind of arm movements that makes them dynamic.

2. Observation layer

In this section, we introduce an observation layer to monitor the human current states in real-time. This layer measures the human kinematics and uses a dynamic model of the human to estimate the overloading joint torques in the body. We first need to perform an off-line calibration to identify the subject-dependent parameters of the dynamical model, it will be explained in the human whole-body model by using the statically equivalent serial chain (SESC) technique. Once the parameters are identified, the model is used for the real-time estimation of human overloading joint torques.

2.1. Human Whole-Body Model

The proposed estimation of human overloading joint torques is based on the method we recently proposed in [41]. In this approach, the overloading joint torques are determined by the difference of CoP displacement and the ground reaction forces (GRF) relation between the condition where the effect of an external interaction force is present and where it is not present. However, one of the limitations of this approach is that it assumes a static condition of the human body. Another limitation is that it needs an external force plate to measure the CoP that is affected by the interaction force. In this paper, we extend the previous concept in order to make the estimation of the overloading joint torque in dynamic poses without using external force plate devices.

The CoP components in the dynamic condition are characterised by the differences between the acceleration about the centre of mass (CoM) and the angular momentum [46, 47]. Let $\mathbf{C}_P = [C_{Px} \ C_{Py}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbf{C}_M = [C_{Mx} \ C_{My} \ C_{Mz}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ denote CoP and CoM, respectively. Let us assume that we have a whole-body, represented by a point mass. In such a model, resting on a flat ground and rotationally stable, the rate of change of spin angular momentum is considered small enough to be neglected. Thus, \mathbf{C}_P can be represented as

$$\mathbf{C}_P = \begin{bmatrix} C_{Px} \\ C_{Py} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{Mx} \\ C_{My} \end{bmatrix} - \frac{(C_{Mz} - C_{Pz})}{\ddot{C}_{Mz} + g_z} \begin{bmatrix} \ddot{C}_{Mx} \\ \dot{C}_{My} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

where g_z is acceleration due to gravity, and C_{Pz} is the height of ground, which is equal to zero, since we assume that the ground is flat and is not moving with respect to Σ_W . It is noteworthy that the CoP and CoM points coincide on the support plane with the quasi-static assumption. As such, the CoP vector can be obtained by taking the CoM. We use a SESC technique [48] in order to determine the whole-body CoM of a articulated multi-body system (e.g. human). The CoM of

a model with an n number of links as

$$\mathbf{C}_M = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{B}\Phi, \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is the position of the human floating base frame Σ_0 , which is connected to the inertial frame Σ_W .

To identify the subject parameters Φ , a linear system in (2) should be solved by a classical least-squares problem. To do this, measuring two components (i.e., x and y) of the \mathbf{B} and ${}^0\mathbf{C}_M = \mathbf{C}_M - \mathbf{x}_0$ for p poses should be taken. Let $\Omega = [{}^0C_{1|Mx} \quad {}^0C_{1|My} \quad \cdots \quad {}^0C_{p|Mx} \quad {}^0C_{p|My}]^T$ be a $2p \times 1$ vector that is composed of the stack of measured CoM's x and y component. Similarly, \mathbf{W} is a vertical concatenation of \mathbf{B} matrices for p poses and \mathbf{W} is of dimension $2p \times 3(n+1)$. The matrix \mathbf{W} is invertible by using Moore-Penrose generalised inverse as $\mathbf{W}^+ = (\mathbf{W}^T\mathbf{W})^{-1}\mathbf{W}^T$, we then identify the SESC parameters vector Φ as (details can be found in [41])

$$\hat{\Phi} = \mathbf{W}^+\Omega. \quad (3)$$

As a consequence, we can obtain a real-time estimation of CoP vector $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_P \in \mathbb{R}^2$ from (1) using an on-line estimation of the human CoM $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_M$, as well as its acceleration. The estimated subject-specific SESC parameters during an off-line calibration phase in (3) are used in (2) to obtain the on-line CoM model. The acceleration of the CoM vector is then calculated by using the Kalman filtering approach [49].

The basic strategy of the previous approach to estimate the overloading joint torques is to use the model-estimated whole-body CoP $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}}$ and the measured CoP $\mathbf{C}_{P_{wt}}$ in conditions with or without the effect of external forces [41]. However, in this case, external sensory devices (e.g., force plate, sensor insoles) are required which would hinder the applicability. An extension of this approach considers to increase the applicability in realistic scenarios (e.g., industrial setting) that eliminates the requirement of using extra sensory systems.

In this paper, we propose an extension of SESC parameters that addresses the presence of an external object/tool (e.g., tool, machine, etc.) that is being manipulated by the human. The contribution of this extension can update the human CoP model to include an external object/tool, it is able to obtain the CoP in real-time instead of measuring it. Such an approach can be applied in cases when the robot can either estimate the parameters of unknown object/tool (e.g., measurement by its own sensory system as the force/torque sensor, torque sensor, etc.), when objects/tools are estimated by the perception system according to the predefined tool database (e.g., detect by the vision system, etc.).

The modified SESC parameters refer to the new mass distribution of a branch where the external object/tool is manipulated. Let $\bar{\Phi} = [\bar{\phi}_0 \quad \cdots \quad \bar{\phi}_n]^T$ be a $3(n+1) \times 1$ vector of the modified SESC parameters. When the object/tool is applied to the end-point of a branch (e.g., hand, foot, etc.), the k -th modified SESC parameter, where k refers to an index of a segment within the branch (e.g., base, upper arm, and lower arm), should be updated as

$$\bar{\phi}_k = \frac{1}{M + m_e} (M\phi_k + m_e^k \mathbf{d}_{k|next}), \quad (4)$$

where M is the total mass represented by the sum of the whole-body link masses and m_e is the external object/tool mass. ${}^k\mathbf{d}_{k|next} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is the link length vector of the k -th segment measured from the frame attached to k -th segment to the next segment in the engaged branch. Intuitively, the last segment of the modified SESC model can be considered by an extension of the original SESC to the additional segment as the external object/tool. Hence, the link length of the last k -th segment is obtained by CoM of the external object/tool. For example, if the the object/tool is applied to the right hand (i.e, the segment's index of right arm branch is $k \in [0, 3, 4]$), the SESC parameters of right arm will be achieved by the link length; ${}^0\mathbf{d}_{0|next}$: base to right shoulder; ${}^3\mathbf{d}_{3|next}$: right shoulder to right elbow; ${}^4\mathbf{d}_{4|next}$: right elbow to CoM position of the external object/tool.

Using the real-time CoP estimation function (1), the CoP with externally loaded condition $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wt}}$ is calculated by using the extended model $\bar{\Phi}$ from (4) in (2).

2.2. The Overloading Joint Torque

In the proposed method, the floating base human model is used in a way that each link of human is articulated through n revolute joints, whose locations are defined by a local reference frame Σ_i at the corresponding joint. The pelvis link is selected as a base frame Σ_0 . The system configuration is represented as $\mathbf{q} = [\mathbf{x}_0^T \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_0^T \quad \mathbf{q}_h^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{6+n}$, where $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ are the position and orientation of Σ_0 with respect to Σ_W , while \mathbf{q}_h are angular positions of n human joints. The spatial velocity of the base frame can be expressed as $\boldsymbol{\vartheta}_0 = [\mathbf{v}_0^T \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_0^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^6$, where \mathbf{v}_0 and $\boldsymbol{\omega}_0$ correspond to linear and angular velocities, respectively. $\dot{\mathbf{q}}_h$ is the joint velocities vector. Hence, the velocity of the system is represented by $\boldsymbol{\vartheta} = [\boldsymbol{\vartheta}_0^T \quad \dot{\mathbf{q}}_h^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{6+n}$. The dynamic relationship between the body motion and

external forces at various contact points is given as

$$\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{q})\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{q}, \boldsymbol{\theta})\boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{S}^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \mathbf{J}_{p_i}^T(\mathbf{q}) \mathbf{F}_i, \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{q})$, $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{q}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$, and $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{q})$ represent the inertia matrix, vector of centrifugal and Coriolis forces, and vector of the gravity force, respectively. $\mathbf{S} = [\mathbf{0}_{n \times 6} \quad \mathbf{I}_{n \times n}]$ is a selection matrix for the actuated joints and $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ is the $n \times 1$ vector of applied joint torques. $\mathbf{J}_{p_i}(\mathbf{q})$ is the Jacobian of the contact constraints \mathbf{p}_i , where the n_k number of constraint contact wrenches \mathbf{F}_i are applied with respect to Σ_W . Such a Jacobian matrix $\mathbf{J}_{p_i}(\mathbf{q}) = [\mathbf{J}_{p_i}^b(\mathbf{q}) \quad \mathbf{J}_{p_i}^r(\mathbf{q})]$ reveals the contribution from the passive chain for the floating base and the actuate joints on the branch where $\mathbf{J}_{p_i}^r(\mathbf{q})$ corresponding to the displacement of joints on the contact point with respect to the base frame Σ_0 .

The overloading joint torques are calculated from the difference between the joint torques calculated in conditions with and without the external forces. Due to the external load, the CoP is also displaced compared to the CoP in the unloaded condition. Similarly to (5), the torque vector in condition without the external force $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{wo}$ is expressed by using estimated whole-body CoP $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}}$ from the original SESC parameters in (3) as

$$\mathbf{S}^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{wo} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_b - \sum_{i=1}^{n_f} \mathbf{J}_{\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}i}}^T(\mathbf{q}) \mathbf{F}_{i|wo}, \quad (6)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_b \in \mathbb{R}^{n+6}$ corresponds to the left part of (5), which is the joint torque vector of human body without the contact constraints (e.g., ground contact, hand contact, etc.). Due to the assumption on the quasi-static movement of the human body, the velocity and acceleration of the system are close to zero ($\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \boldsymbol{\theta} \cong 0$), thus on the contribution of the gravity term in the left part of (5) is considered. $n_f \in \{1, 2\}$ is the number of ground contact points at the foot. The vertical GRF (vGRF) \mathbf{F}_{wo} , which is obtained from the human body mass, act on the human body by the transpose of the Jacobian as $\mathbf{J}_{\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}i}}^T(\mathbf{q}) \mathbf{F}_{i|wo}$ at the point of estimated CoP $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}i}$.

On the other hand, the condition with the external object/tool produces a torque $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{wt}$, which is calculated by using $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wt}}$ from the modified SESC parameters as

$$\mathbf{S}^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{wt} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_b - \sum_{i=1}^{n_f} \mathbf{J}_{\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}i}}^T(\mathbf{q}) \mathbf{F}_{i|wo} - \sum_{j=1}^{n_h} \mathbf{J}_{a_{hj}}^T(\mathbf{q}) \mathbf{F}_{j|h}, \quad (7)$$

where \mathbf{F}_{wt} is the vGRF vector applied at $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wt}}$ in this condition that is obtained from the combined mass of the human body and the external object/tool. \mathbf{F}_h represents the pre-estimated mass of the object/tool that are

applied at the contact points \mathbf{a}_h . $\mathbf{J}_{\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wt}i}}(\mathbf{q})$ and $\mathbf{J}_{a_{hj}}(\mathbf{q})$ refer to the contact Jacobian at the point of $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wt}i}$ and \mathbf{a}_{hj} , respectively. $n_h \in \{1, 2\}$ is the number of operated hands where the tools/objects are handled.

Consequently, the overloading joint torques are defined by the difference between the torque vectors from (6) and (7) as

$$\mathbf{S}^T \Delta \boldsymbol{\Gamma} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_h} \mathbf{J}_{a_{hj}}^T(\mathbf{q}) \eta_j \Delta \mathbf{F} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_f} \left(\mathbf{J}_{\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wt}i}}^T(\mathbf{q}) - \mathbf{J}_{\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}i}}^T(\mathbf{q}) \right) \mathbf{F}_{i|wt} + \mathbf{J}_{\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wo}i}}^T(\mathbf{q}) \zeta_i \Delta \mathbf{F}, \quad (8)$$

where $\Delta \mathbf{F} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_f} \Delta \mathbf{F}_{i|w} = -\sum_{j=1}^{n_h} \mathbf{F}_{j|h}$ is the sum of the interaction forces. As regards the distribution gain ($\sum_i \zeta_i = 1$ and $\sum_j \eta_j = 1$) related to the number of contact points, we can consider that the gain is defined by the employed human model; for example, if the model is interacting with environment using a single arm and single foot, hence $\eta = 1$ and $\zeta = 1$. A further example of the multi-interaction model has been reported in [50] where the model assumes a symmetric distribution of the grasp forces in two hands while carrying an object ($\eta_j = 0.5$), but the force distribution on the feet (ζ_i) is computed by the synergistic model approach in real-time.

3. Anticipation layer

This section introduces an anticipation layer⁵ that is used by the robot to predict the optimal configuration of task execution to accommodate ergonomic working conditions for the human co-worker. This layer relies on the observation layer (see Fig. 2) to obtain the desired configuration of the task execution through a constrained optimisation technique that reduces the joint torque variation of human under several constraints. In particular, we used the human arm muscular manipulability as a constraint in this optimisation to facilitate the human movements in achieving a good manipulation capacity in the optimised configuration.

3.1. Optimisation

Here we present the minimisation procedure of human overloading joint torque vector with respect to body configuration and given constraints. This consideration was to avoid potential injuries caused by the excessive loading effect during the execution of a collaborative task.

⁵The "anticipation" refers to the ability of the method to anticipate overloading joint torques and then react to minimise them.

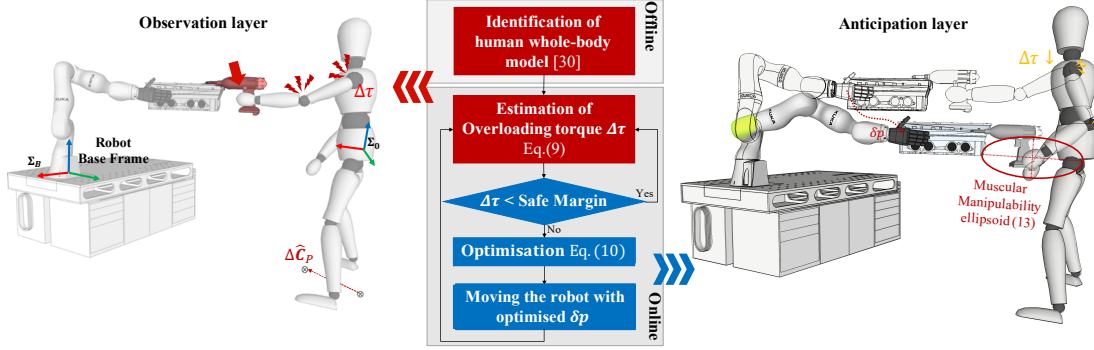


Figure 2: **The overall procedure of the proposed method.** The observation (left) and the anticipation layer (right) for estimating and reducing the overloading joint torques in human-robot collaboration are illustrated.

The optimisation problem can be designed to minimise the sum of the weighted norms of the overloading joint torques, which is represented by the human joint state variable \mathbf{q}_h , subject to nonlinear inequality constraints

$$\min_{\mathbf{q}_h} f(\mathbf{q}_h) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n w_k \|\Delta \mathbf{\Gamma}_k(\mathbf{q}_h)\|^2, \quad (9)$$

$$\text{subject to: } \mathbf{q}_L \leq \mathbf{q}_h \leq \mathbf{q}_U, \quad (10)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{stable}}(\mathbf{q}_h) \leq 0, \quad (11)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{share}}(\mathbf{q}_h) \leq 0, \quad (12)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{Manipulability}}(\mathbf{q}_h) \leq 0, \quad (13)$$

where $\Delta \mathbf{\Gamma}_k(\mathbf{q}_h)$ is the k -th joint's overloading torque, which is obtained from (8), w_k is a weight associated with the joint k , and \mathbf{h} are inequality box constraints. All weights ($w > 0$) per optimisation cycle are calculated by $|\Delta \mathbf{\Gamma}_k / \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\text{max}_k}|$ and kept fixed, with $\Delta \mathbf{\Gamma}_k$ and $\mathbf{\Gamma}_{\text{max}_k}$ representing the actual overloading torque value at the start of optimisation, and the maximum joint torque value at the k -th joint, respectively. Such weights are meant to set priorities between the joints, so that the ones that are more imposed to risks are given more attention in the quadratic optimisation process. For instance, $\Delta \mathbf{\Gamma}_k \approx \mathbf{\Gamma}_{\text{max}_k}$ implies that that the k -th joint has a higher injury risk, and should get the highest priority via $w_k \approx 1$ in comparison to other joints during the optimisation. The tuning and personalisation of the maximum joint torque values were based on experiments on subjects, where we applied increasing torque profiles on selected body joints, one at a time. This was done until a subject stated to feel uncomfortable around that joint. In that particular moment, the resulting torque values were estimated (based on the applied force and the lever arm) and compared to the ones extracted from literature (see the work by Snook and Ciriello [51]). If these values

were comparable, we used the experimental ones as the maximum torque values. If the differences were large, the "safest" choice, i.e., the smallest value for the maximum torque, was chosen.

In the optimisation process, we consider several constraints. To ensure a safe configuration after the optimisation, (10) expresses a boundary condition of the human joint angles, which are constrained within the human body joint limitations represented by lower \mathbf{q}_L and upper \mathbf{q}_U boundaries. Further constraints arise from the postural stability. (11) as a set of inequality constraints is considered so that the position of CoP only exists within convex hull of the contact points (i.e. within the support polygon of feet). Thus, the inequality constraint (11) is formulated as

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{stable}}(\mathbf{q}_h) := \hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wr}}(\mathbf{q}_h) - \text{conv}\{\mathbf{p}_{F_i}^{x,y}\} \leq 0, \quad (14)$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{P_{wr}}(\mathbf{q}_h)$ is the CoP estimation model as shown in (1), $\text{conv}\{\mathbf{p}_{F_i}^{x,y}\}$ is the convex hull of the contact points that can be computed by the forward kinematic of the feet.

(12) expresses the inequality constraint to represent the proxemics space. The box constraint sets the object position within the threshold not only as the maximal distance from the human base frame but also as the maximal distance from the robot base, so that the co-manipulated object is constrained within the feasible shared workspace of the human and the robot. To do this, the inequality constraint (12) is defined by

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{share}}(\mathbf{q}_h) := \begin{cases} \mathbf{p}_{obj}(\mathbf{q}_h) - \mathbf{p}_{H|th} \leq 0, \\ -(\mathbf{p}_{obj}(\mathbf{q}_h) - \mathbf{p}_{R|th}) \leq 0, \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

where $\mathbf{p}_{R|th}$ and $\mathbf{p}_{H|th}$ are the position threshold of the robot side and the human side, respectively. The thresholds for the shared workspace are defined by the limits

347 of intersection of human and robot workspaces, where
 348 each is calculated by respective forward kinematics.
 349 $\mathbf{p}_{obj}(\mathbf{q}_h)$ is the targeted object's position, which is cal-
 350 culated by the forward kinematics. Each thresholds and
 351 the object's position are represented in the base frame,
 352 therefore, the constraints should be represented within
 353 the shared Cartesian workspace. The application of such
 354 constraints in the optimisation process ensures the sta-
 355 bility and safety of the human co-worker and the collab-
 356 oration task.

357 The final constraint in (13) is the endpoint manipula-
 358 bility of the human arm. In general, humans adjust the
 359 configuration of their body and limbs in order to max-
 360 imise the kinematic and dynamic properties according
 361 to given tasks and environmental conditions [52]. In
 362 robotics, the classic measure for the kinematic and dy-
 363 namic properties of a robot end-effector is the *manip-*
 364 *ulability*, which provides an idea of how well the end-
 365 effector can produce velocity or force in different direc-
 366 tions of the Cartesian space [42]. Manipulability can
 367 be geometrically represented as an ellipsoid at the end-
 368 effector, whose radius in a specific direction indicates
 369 the velocity/force production ability. In a specific ex-
 370 ample, if the task requires that the object/tool is manip-
 371 ulated in a complex manner, which involves production
 372 of end-effector force and velocity equally in various di-
 373 rections of Cartesian space, the configuration of the arm
 374 should be maintained close to where endpoint manipu-
 375 lability ellipsoid is isotropic. Nevertheless, the classic
 376 manipulability, which has been extensively studied in
 377 the robotic manipulators actuated by electric motors, is
 378 not able to faithfully measure the manipulation ability
 379 of the human body. This is because the human body is
 380 actuated by the muscles that have spring-like properties
 381 and antagonistically pull the joint in different directions.
 382 Therefore, it is necessary to account for the effect of this
 383 specific feature of human actuators on the endpoint ma-
 384 nipulability. To do so, we include *muscular manipula-*
 385 *bility* [53, 54] in the proposed optimisation process as a
 386 constraint condition. Hence, in our work, the position of
 387 the object/tool being co-manipulated is also constrained
 388 by the human arm muscular manipulability.

The relation between the muscle forces and the end-
 point force is defined as

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{J}_a^{+T}(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{J}_m^T(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{F}_m, \quad (16)$$

where \mathbf{F} is endpoint force, which can be one of the ex-
 ternal contact wrenches from (5), $\mathbf{q}_a \in \mathbf{q}_h$ is joint angle
 vector of arm, $\mathbf{J}_a^+(\mathbf{q}_a)$ is Moore–Penrose inverse of the
 geometric Jacobian matrix of arm, $\mathbf{J}_m(\mathbf{q}_a)$ is muscle Ja-
 cobian matrix that contains muscle moment arms at the

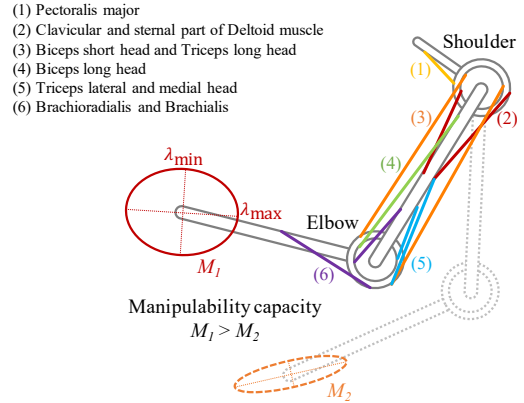


Figure 3: **Ten muscles are considered in the definition of arm manipulability capacity.** The resulting ellipsoid and its major and minor axes are conceptually illustrated in this figure.

joints, and \mathbf{F}_m is muscle force, which we calculate by using the Hill's muscle model

$$\mathbf{F}_m = \mathbf{F}_{hill}\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \quad (17)$$

where $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ muscle activation and \mathbf{F}_{hill} is a diagonal matrix representing the Hill's muscle force.

By combining (16) and (17), the muscular manipulability is obtained from expression $(\mathbf{J}_a^{+T}(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{J}_m(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{F}_{hill})$ that transforms muscle activations to Cartesian endpoint force. Unlike classic manipulability measure that considers only geometric Jacobian $\mathbf{J}_a(\mathbf{q}_a)$, muscular manipulability takes into account also muscle Jacobian $\mathbf{J}_m(\mathbf{q}_a)$. Assuming $\|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\| < 1$, we can derive the expression to obtain the manipulability (see [54] for details)

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{q}_a) = (\mathbf{J}_a^{+T}(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{J}_m(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{F}_{hill})(\mathbf{J}_a^{+T}(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{J}_m(\mathbf{q}_a)\mathbf{F}_{hill})^T. \quad (18)$$

By applying singular value decomposition of $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{q}_a)$ we obtained the eigenvalues λ that represent the axial lengths of the endpoint manipulability ellipsoid. Consequently, the manipulability capacity $M(\mathbf{q}_a) = \frac{\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{q}_a))}{\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{q}_a))}$ was defined as a ratio between the minimum and the maximum eigenvalue. For our experiments we normalised this value, $\tilde{M}(\mathbf{q}_a)$ to the maximum ratio of the entire workspace, which gave us a percentage value. A higher value of manipulability capacity indicates that the capacity to produce the arm endpoint force and velocity is better in all directions of the Cartesian space.

Our arm model included two segments and two joints (3 DoF in the shoulder and 1 DoF in the elbow). We considered ten muscles (see Fig. 3): clavicular and sternal part of Deltoid muscle (shoulder), Pectoralis major (shoulder), Biceps short head and Triceps long head

407 (bi-articular), Biceps long head (elbow), Triceps lateral
 408 and medial head (elbow), Brachioradialis (elbow) and
 409 Brachialis (elbow).

To ensure good manipulability in all directions of human arm endpoint, (13) was defined a certain degree of manipulability capacity as an inequality constraint:

$$\mathbf{h}_{\text{Manipulability}}(\mathbf{q}_h) := \tilde{M}_{th} - \tilde{M}(\mathbf{q}_a) \leq 0, \quad (19)$$

410 where \tilde{M}_{th} is the manipulability capacity constraint. The
 411 method therefore searched for the optimal minimum
 412 overloading joint torques within configurations, where
 413 the manipulability ellipsoid was close to isotropic. The
 414 optimisation problem of (9) was used to formulate
 415 a nonlinear programming problem, which was then
 416 solved using the active set method of the ALGLIB opti-
 417 misation library.

418 3.2. Execution of the robot behaviour

419 To achieve a more ergonomic working condition of
 420 the human co-worker, the robot uses the optimised con-
 421 figuration of the human body obtained through (9). Us-
 422 ing the forward kinematics, the current human configu-
 423 ration and the optimised one are expressed in Cartesian
 424 space. The difference between the two is used to calcu-
 425 late the robot end-effector trajectory, which brings the
 426 human from the current to the optimised configuration.

427 To achieve safe and adaptive interaction between the
 428 human and robot, the Cartesian impedance controller by
 429 default was set the stiffness parameter to 1500 N/m in
 430 the translational axis and 150 Nm/rad in the rotational
 431 axis, respectively. These values provided a reasonable
 432 trade-off between the trajectory tracking performance
 433 and the end-effector compliance. The human partner
 434 was simultaneously provided with a visual feedback re-
 435 garding the optimised configuration, which made sure
 436 that the correct configuration was maintained.

437 4. Experimental Evaluation

438 Ten healthy male volunteers (age: 27.6 ± 2.3 years;
 439 mass: 75.1 ± 5.3 kg; height: 1.80 ± 0.03 m)⁶ were re-
 440 cruited for this study. The experiments were performed
 441 at HRI² Lab of IIT, Italy. The study was approved by the
 442 Regional Ethics Committee of Liguria (IIT_HRII_001,
 443 108/2018).

444 First, we obtained the data for identification of dy-
 445 namic model (i.e., SESC parameters) of each subject.

⁶Subject data is reported as: mean \pm standard deviation.

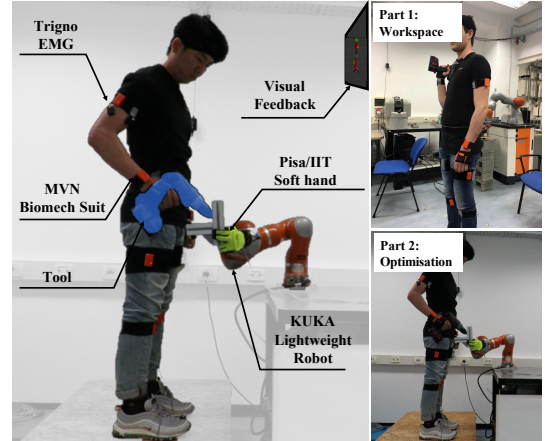


Figure 4: **Overview of the experimental setup.** The experimental setup consisted of a MVN Biomech suit, a KUKA LBR IV+ equipped with the Pisa/IIT soft hand, visual feedback and wireless EMG sensors. The experimental purpose consisted of two parts: task comparison in workspace of the arm, and evaluation in the optimisation.

446 The subjects wore the MVN Biomech suit (Xsens Tech-
 447 nologies BV) and stood on a Kistler force plate. They
 448 were asked to perform 140 different static configura-
 449 tions of their body, then we selected $p = 21$ linearly-
 450 independent poses to identify the SESC parameters vec-
 451 tor $\hat{\Phi}$ in (3). Note that the force plate is required only
 452 during the off-line calibration and is not required during
 453 the on-line phase.

454 The experimental setup is illustrated in Fig. 4. The
 455 subjects wore the MVN Biomech suit to measure the
 456 body configuration in real-time. The experimental eval-
 457 uation involved a human-robot collaboration task. In
 458 this scenario, the robot held an object that had to be pol-
 459 ished by the human subject, who used a heavy hand-
 460 held tool (mass: 3.4 kg). To do this, we developed a
 461 simplified human body model with five joints (i.e., hip,
 462 knee, ankle, shoulder and elbow), which primarily con-
 463 tributed to Sagittal plane motion. Additionally, such a
 464 model was interacting with environment using a single
 465 hand and foot, hence, the contribution gain of hand and
 466 foot were $\eta = 1$ and $\zeta = 1$, respectively.

467 The task of the robot was to bring the object to the
 468 human, while the task of the human was to polish it⁷.
 469 In such a task, the robot should adapt its behaviour in a
 470 way that the working conditions are improved for the
 471 human co-worker, which signifies that any excessive

⁷This scenario can be generalised to other collaboration tasks (e.g., drilling, assembly, etc.) and handover tasks. For example, in the handover task the robot brings the object to the human, who then takes it from the robot at a certain position.

472 joint load is prevented and the arm manipulability capacity
473 value is maximised.

474 The whole-body configuration should ideally be in a
475 pose where the overloading joint torques are as low as
476 possible, while achieving a high arm manipulability capacity
477 to facilitate an effective task execution. In the
478 experiments, the arm manipulability capacity constraint
479 was set to 80% of maximum capacity, which was obtained
480 by scanning through the feasible arm workspace
481 for each subject. This led to a good force and velocity
482 production capacity in all directions since the human
483 arm endpoint at the manipulation location had close-to-
484 isotropic manipulability ellipsoid. The time required to
485 scan through the feasible arm workspace for each subject
486 was 87 seconds. However, this scanning process
487 needs to be conducted only once for each subject and
488 the result can be reused in future.

489 When performing tasks like polishing, there is some
490 deviation from the optimal position. During the experiment
491 we assumed that the task execution movement is within a
492 close proximity of the optimised solution and that these
493 deviations are small. However, if considerable deviations
494 are necessary to perform the task, re-optimisation is
495 required.

496 The experimental procedure was divided into two
497 stages (as shown in the right of the Fig. 4). In the
498 first stage, the subjects had to perform the given task
499 in six different configurations of the arm, following the
500 outline of the range of risk in the shoulder and elbow
501 on Rapid Entire Body Assessment (REBA) [55]. See
502 Fig. 5 for details and illustrations of the selected
503 configurations. In the second stage, the proposed method
504 was used to select the optimal working configuration in
505 terms of overloading joint torques and given constraints
506 (manipulability capacity, etc.). The on-line acquisition
507 of the human body position data was performed using
508 the MVN Biomech system. This data was then used to
509 calculate vector \mathbf{x}_0 and matrix \mathbf{B} that were necessary
510 for real-time calculation of CoP in (2) and the human
511 overloading joint torque vector in (8).

512 To compare the arm muscular effort during the task
513 execution in an optimised configuration and six pre-
514 defined ones, we recorded and evaluated the muscle
515 activity from electromyography (EMG) measurements. For
516 the EMG measurements, we selected Anterior Deltoid
517 (AD), Posterior Deltoid (PD), Biceps Brachii (BB) and
518 Triceps Brachii (TB), which are the dominant shoulder
519 and elbow muscles in the given configurations. The
520 EMG signals were acquired using Delsys Trigno Wireless
521 system, and processed by full rectification, low-pass
522 filtering, and normalisation with respect to the
523 maximal voluntary contraction to account for muscular

524 activities. We followed SENIAM[56] recommendations
525 for EMG electrode placements and [57] for MVC pro-
526 cedures. It is important to note here that, the processed
527 EMG signals were not used as inputs to our model, but
528 to provide additional means of verifying the results of
529 this study.

530 4.1. Results

531 The results of experiments are shown in Table 1,
532 where we report the overloading joint torques, manipu-
533 lability capacity value and muscle activity as measured
534 by EMG. These variables were averaged across the sub-
535 jects for each configuration. Fig. 6 shows summed
536 mean values of overloading joint torques for different
537 configurations. The mean manipulability capacity value
538 for each configuration is presented in Fig. 7. The muscle
539 activity capacity of the arm is shown in Fig. 8.

540 To test the statistical differences between the op-
541 timised configuration and the predefined ones, Bon-
542 ferroni correction test with post-hoc t-tests was used.
543 The level of statistical significance used was .05 for
544 all statistical tests. The configurations 1, 4 and 6
545 had overall lower overloading joint torque in the body
546 than the optimised configuration. The difference was
547 21.73 ± 2.17^8 Nm ($p < .001$), 23.70 ± 2.19 Nm ($p < .001$)
548 and 35.50 ± 1.48 Nm ($p < .001$), respectively. Even
549 though the torque was lower in these configurations
550 compared to the optimised configuration, the manipu-
551 lability capacity was relatively low in all three compared
552 to the optimised one. The difference was 55.31 ± 2.19 %
553 ($p < .001$), 60.65 ± 5.59 % ($p < .001$) and 83.62 ± 2.10 %
554 ($p < .001$), respectively. There were statistically signifi-
555 cant differences in all values. On the contrary, config-
556 urations 2, 3, and 5 had higher overloading joint torque
557 than the optimised configuration. The differences were
558 33.82 ± 1.49 Nm ($p < .001$), 8.62 ± 1.68 Nm ($p < .001$)
559 and 10.66 ± 1.21 Nm ($p < .001$), respectively. In ad-
560 dition, the manipulability capacity in these configura-
561 tions was on average much lower. The difference was
562 85.94 ± 2.17 % ($p < .001$), 41.28 ± 4.77 % ($p < .001$)
563 and 30.76 ± 2.77 % ($p < .001$), respectively. There were sta-
564 tistically significant differences in all values.

565 The measured muscle activity capacity in the human
566 arm is shown in Fig. 8. The arm muscle activity in
567 configurations 1, 2 and 3 was relatively high in com-
568 parison to the optimised configuration. The difference
569 was 8.47 ± 2.74 % ($p = .017$), 32.88 ± 7.25 % ($p = .0020$)
570 and 7.91 ± 2.74 % ($p = .023$), respectively. The differ-
571 ences were statistically significant. On the other hand,

⁸The data is reported as: mean \pm standard error of mean.

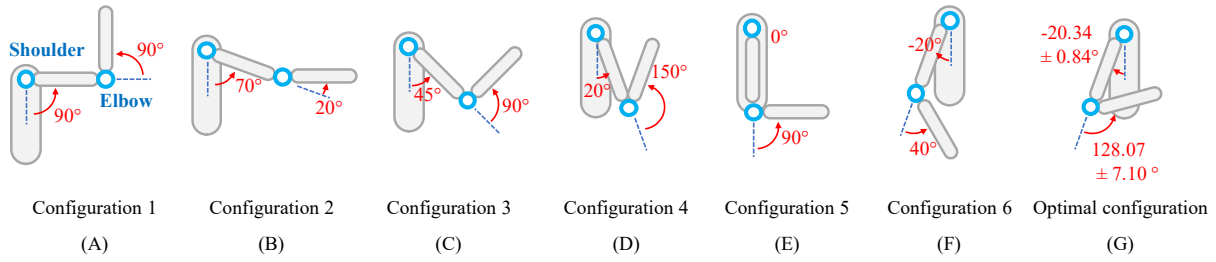


Figure 5: **The six different unoptimised configurations and the optimised configuration.** The optimal configuration was slightly different among ten subjects, therefore the joint angle values are reported as: mean \pm std.

Table 1: **Experimental results of ten subjects.** The results are separated according to seven different configurations. The data is reported as: mean (standard error of mean)³. Note that the optimal configuration was slightly different among the subjects.

Configuration		1 (Fig. 5A)	2 (Fig. 5B)	3 (Fig. 5C)	4 (Fig. 5D)	5 (Fig. 5E)	6 (Fig. 5F)	Optimal (Fig. 5G)
Manipulability capacity [%]		37.24*** (1.46)	6.60*** (1.00)	51.26*** (5.76)	31.89*** (5.20)	61.78*** (3.29)	8.92*** (0.79)	92.54 (1.19)
Overloading joint torque [Nm]	Hip	7.88*** (0.67)	21.25*** (0.60)	15.20** (0.550)	7.48*** (0.69)	15.37*** (0.46)	4.16*** (0.35)	13.00 (0.46)
	Knee	8.57*** (0.73)	21.67*** (0.62)	15.72** (0.55)	8.03*** (0.66)	15.89*** (0.46)	4.73*** (0.35)	13.35 (0.46)
	Ankle	9.57*** (0.78)	22.52*** (0.69)	16.61** (0.60)	8.93*** (0.72)	16.71*** (0.49)	5.56*** (0.35)	14.15 (0.54)
	Shoulder	6.99 (0.30)	15.68*** (0.25)	11.23*** (0.17)	5.72** (0.28)	9.63*** (0.20)	1.45*** (0.26)	7.11 (0.26)
	Elbow	0.52*** (0.13)	8.78** (0.14)	5.67*** (0.15)	1.98*** (0.31)	8.86** (0.14)	3.28*** (0.22)	8.25 (0.17)
Muscle activity [%]	AD	42.61*** (8.65)	80.97*** (15.48)	48.25*** (8.90)	13.92*** (2.54)	10.46*** (1.94)	4.95 (2.04)	3.59 (0.72)
	PD	18.19** (4.13)	50.54* (14.11)	10.87 (2.48)	2.98* (0.48)	2.85* (0.53)	21.49** (4.01)	7.65 (2.04)
	BB	2.28*** (0.48)	18.06 (2.37)	8.44* (1.26)	15.10 (2.64)	13.87 (2.13)	5.38** (0.63)	15.60 (2.74)
	TB	16.75 (3.39)	27.88 (4.89)	10.01* (1.73)	17.35 (3.50)	10.46* (1.78)	7.86** (1.45)	19.09 (3.23)

572 the muscle activity in configurations 4, 5 and 6 was
573 comparable to optimised configuration. The difference
574 was $0.85 \pm 1.39\%$ ($p = .58$), $2.07 \pm 1.21\%$ ($p = .14$) and
575 $1.56 \pm 1.65\%$ ($p = .40$), respectively. The differences
576 were statistically insignificant.

577 5. Discussion

578 From the results of overloading joint torques in dif-
579 ferent configurations, we can see that some of the tested
580 configurations have overall lower torque in the body
581 while performing the task. Even though the overall
582 lower overloading joint torque would be more comfort-
583 able for the human worker, these configurations had

584 significantly lower manipulability capacity of the arm,
585 which could affect the task production. Since we spec-
586 ified a certain required degree of manipulability capac-
587 ity in the optimisation process, the optimised configu-
588 ration was constrained to the cases where the manipu-
589 lability was above the prescribed threshold. If such
590 high manipulability capacity is not required, the optimi-
591 sation could search within other configurations where
592 overloading joint torques can be lower. The parameters
593 of the proposed method, such as the required manipu-
594 lability capacity, the constraints on configuration of body
595 and the orientation of endpoint/tool, should therefore be

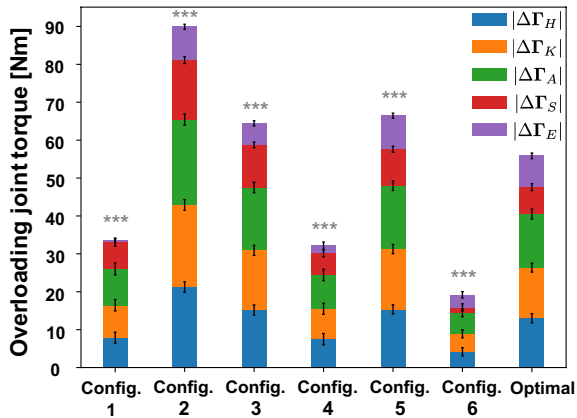


Figure 6: The sum of all overloading joint torques for different configurations⁹. Different colours in the bar represent different contribution from different joints (H: hip, K:knee, A:ankle, S:shoulder, E:elbow).

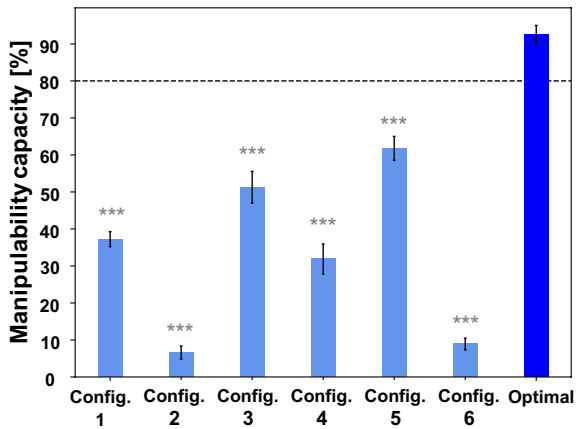


Figure 7: The results⁹ of the manipulability capacity for different configurations. The black dashed line denotes the manipulability capacity constraint set in the optimisation process.

selected based on the desired industrial task [25].

The results of the arm muscle activity in configurations 4, 5, 6 and the optimised configuration were comparable besides the human worker would be more comfortable in terms of muscular effort. However, it should be noted that the muscle activity measurement was limited to the human arm, while optimisation of the overloading joint torques considered the whole body. Consequently, the overloading joint torque approach provides a good compromise between human efforts and task execution capabilities.

⁹Asterisks indicate the level of statistical significance after post-hoc tests: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ and *** $p < .001$

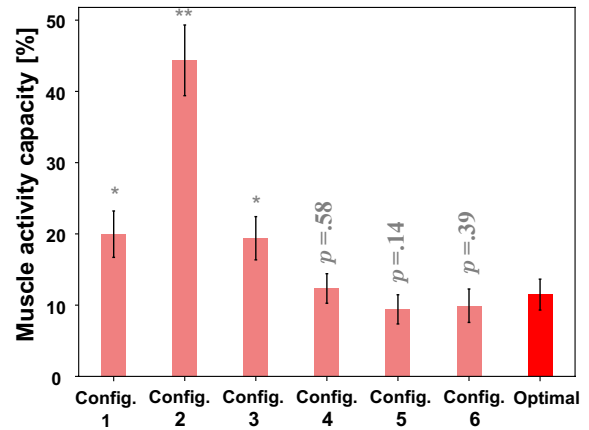


Figure 8: The results⁹ of the muscle activity capacity of the arm for the different configurations. The corresponded values are defined as a summation of subject-average muscle activations of all measured muscles, normalised by the number of muscles. This value represents the percentage of combined capacity of all four measured muscles.

The main advantage of the proposed method is in its reduced complexity and limited amount of required measurement systems, which could significantly improve its applicability in real industrial environments. Further reduction of the complexity can be achieved by using more affordable motion capture systems (e.g., Microsoft Kinect). However, some of the more affordable hardware might not be suitable for all kinds of industrial settings and tasks. The framework offers flexibility not only in terms of selecting the desired amount of DoF of human body, which is easily modifiable based on the desired complexity, but also adaptation to the kinematic specifics of a task (e.g. changing tools, switching hands). Furthermore, task constraints can be modified based on the target task objectives, e.g., to impose constraints on dual-arm manipulability, etc.

The objective of the proposed method is to minimise overloading joint torque, while other variables (i.e., manipulability, joint limits, obstacles, etc.) were selected as constraints to be guaranteed. It should be stressed that potential disadvantage of this framework is that if set too vigorously, the constraints can severely limit the solution space. If a reasonable solution is not found, the constraints has to be loosened up, which might involve an expert intervention. The manipulability could also be used as an objective rather than as a constraint. Using it as a constraint may lead to an absence of solution, however if the solution is found the manipulability is within the desired range. On the other hand, using it as an optimisation objective makes it less limiting on the number of possible solutions, however it does not guarantee that

638 the manipulability will be in the desired range. This
639 tradeoff should be considered when selecting between
640 the two options.

641 We should stress that the proposed optimisation prob-
642 lem is not directly related to governing of human mo-
643 tion, i.e., it is not an optimisation that would be used in
644 a human motion control problem. The proposed opti-
645 misation problem is related to finding an optimal quasi-
646 static working posture of human that the collaborative
647 robot can use as a recommendation by changing the
648 working configuration. The human then has to use its
649 own motor control to govern his/her motion around the
650 recommended posture.

651 In the existing study we considered only manipula-
652 bility of the arm since in common industrial tasks, e.g.
653 using a machine to polish an object, the body is primar-
654 ily used to position the shoulder joint before the task is
655 performed and then it remain relatively static, while the
656 arm is doing majority of the movement required to per-
657 form the task. However, if the tasks require large move-
658 ments of the body, the proposed manipulability measure
659 can be extended to the body.

660 While humans mostly use arm movements to perform
661 various tasks, the external load is still distributed among
662 the whole body. That is why we consider manipulability
663 only for arm, but the joint torque reduction considers
664 the whole body. For example, even if the body remains
665 static while the arm do most of the movement with a
666 heavy polishing machine, the load will still affect the
667 back if the posture is not good. If the body posture as a
668 whole is not corrected, this may lead to back pain.

669 In the existing study we did not consider the elas-
670 tic properties of muscles, which have more dominant
671 role in explosive movements (e.g., jumping, throwing,
672 etc.), where the energy has to be transferred from prox-
673 imal muscles to distal muscles [58, 59]. The common
674 industrial tasks considered in this study do not involve
675 such explosive movements and therefore we considered
676 only antagonistic and configuration dependant nature of
677 joint torques produced by muscles in the musculoskele-
678 tal model.

679 The main goal of this paper was to introduce a
680 method that enables the robot to account for param-
681 eters related interaction dynamics during human-robot
682 collaboration and validate the approach on multiple sub-
683 jects. The future work will focus on determining to what
684 degree the considered parameters should be accounted
685 for and what would be the long term affects on human
686 subjects.

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