

A Contact-Adaptive Control Framework for Co-Manipulation Tasks with Application to Collaborative Screwing

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Abstract—This paper proposes a novel framework for robotic manipulation tasks, exploiting the Human-Robot Collaboration (HRC) potential. The framework integrates two adaptive controllers to i) modulate robot compliance in contact with the environment along constrained directions, and to ii) enable human guidance through touch when a manual intervention is needed. To demonstrate the potential of the proposed framework, we consider a collaborative screwing task. In this example application, the operator is in charge of placing the screws on the table and following the instructions on a graphical user interface. The robot, after identifying the position of the screws through an online human pose-tracking system, performs the screwing using the proposed controller. The human operator can adjust the screwing position of the robot using the adaptive interface at anytime if the position accuracy through vision is insufficient. We first experimentally evaluate the operation of the proposed controller and demonstrate its performance in comparison to the classical impedance control. Next, the overall system is evaluated in a collaborative (human and robot) setting.

I. INTRODUCTION

Collaborative robots (cobots) are becoming an essential component of smart automation systems in modern industry. The intrinsic characteristics of cobots allow to face the complex challenges that the modern manufacturing poses, such as fast reconfiguration in production lines [1], [2]. The industrial tasks that cobots can address are numerous, most of which can be characterized by the repetition of simple yet effort-demanding sequences. In particular, assembly tasks have a high potential due to their repetitive nature, from which, the most prevalent ones, i.e., screws' fastening and peg-in-hole, constitute 27% and 33% of all the assembly jobs, respectively [3], [4]. In such tasks, however, the uncertainty sources that arise from perception or planning [5] contribute to increasing the complexity of their execution.

The most effective yet low-cost techniques to this problem are based on passive approaches such as the remote center of compliance (RCC) at robot end-effectors, which implement directional adaptation to the uncertainties [6]. Despite their low-cost, it is known that RCC-based and in general, passive solutions cannot respond to the high flexibility needs of today's assembly tasks.

To increase the adaptation capacity of cobots in assembly applications, several interaction control methods including adaptive [7], and hybrid position/force algorithms [8], [9] have been developed. The main idea behind these controllers is to have high stiffness in directions where a high position

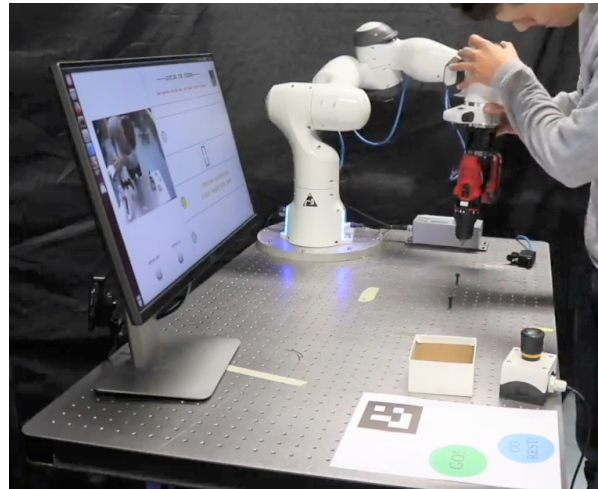


Fig. 1. The proposed control framework aims to improve human-robot collaboration in unstructured manipulation tasks. As an example application, we consider a collaborative screwing task due to its complexity and repetitive nature.

accuracy is required. In contrast, high compliance can be achieved in the remaining ones, where force adaptation to task constraints is a necessity. In this way, the interaction forces can be regulated by the robot without exerting excessive forces at the task frame. Despite these control strategies, applying a constant force at the end-effector narrows down the potential of robots, since force control is generally employed in a scenario where all the obstacles and possible external effects are well-defined. Indeed, if the contact is lost between the robot and those predefined constraints due to the uncertainties such as human intervention or a small position error, the robot can perform unexpected sudden movements to maintain the desired force at the end-effector. Therefore, serious collisions might arise in the operation area.

To propose a solution for the above issues, impedance control techniques [5] are developed by programming the robot control gains based on the geometrical constraints of the task frame [10]. However, these gains are usually selected for each particular task by the programmers, which limits the adaptation of robots to various physical interaction scenarios. In addition to the aforementioned model-based methods [7], there are also model-free techniques developed through machine learning algorithms. Mainly, they are classified in two topics as *learn from demonstration* (LfD) and *reinforcement learning* (RL). For the first one, the assembly tasks can be designed to be performed by a human subject whose force and motion data are captured, and transferred to the robot to accomplish the task [11]. Instead, the latter is achieved by

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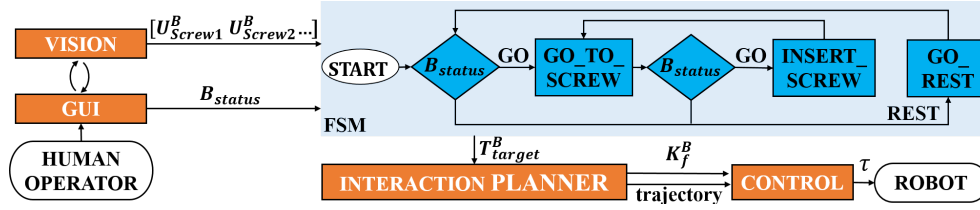


Fig. 3. The Finite State Machine and the Modules communication chart, where $T_{target}^B \in \{T_{screw}^B, T_{insert}^B, T_{rest}^B\}$ and $B_{status} \in \{GO, REST\}$.

$$D_d \dot{\tilde{x}} + K_d \tilde{x} = F_{ext}. \quad (3)$$

As K_d and D_d are the impedance control gains that have to be adjusted properly depending on the specific geometrical task constraints, they limit the robot capability to cope with uncertainties such as mismatches between screw and the robot. To enhance the adaptation of the robot to the targeted co-assembly task, the modification is done in (3), and the desired dynamic behavior for the contact-adaptive controller in Cartesian space is defined as:

$$D_d(\dot{x} - \dot{x}_C) + K_d(x - x_C) = F_{ext}, \quad (4)$$

where,

$$x_C = x_d + x_P + x_a, \quad (5)$$

and

$$\dot{x}_C = \dot{x}_d + \dot{x}_P + \dot{x}_a. \quad (6)$$

Regarding the adaptive controller, the following equations are used:

$$x_d = K_{f1} \overbrace{(F_{ext}^e - F_{ext}^m)}^{F_{Human}} \quad \dot{x}_d = K_{f2} \overbrace{(F_{ext}^e - F_{ext}^m)}^{F_{Human}}, \quad (7)$$

and

$$x_a = K_{f4} F_{ext} \quad \dot{x}_a = K_{f3} F_{ext}. \quad (8)$$

K_{f1} , K_{f2} ($\in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}$) are the inverse damping and stiffness matrices (diagonal and positive definite) respectively. Similarly, K_{f3} , and K_{f4} are used for both inverse damping and stiffness (compliance matrix) in (8). Additionally, x_P is the desired trajectory, and \dot{x}_P is the desired velocity that is considered as zero in (6).

As mentioned before, two force information are considered as F_{ext}^m , and F_{ext}^e . The former one is acquired through a F/T sensor in the tool frame (Σ_M in Fig. 2), which is attached to the power tool. Instead, the latter is estimated in end-effector frame (Σ_E) through a formulation presented in [15]. The reason to measure two different forces is to separate the physical interactions in Σ_E (between human and the robot), and in Σ_M (between the tool and the screw).

It is important to note that F_{ext}^m is transformed to Σ_E , and then subtracted from F_{ext}^e in the calculation of the applied human force. Afterwards, all the resultant force components are resolved in Σ_B .

According to the working principle of the contact-adaptive controller, if the robot is commanded a trajectory (x_P) in

free space without physical interaction ($F_{ext}^m = F_{ext}^e = 0$), x_d and x_a terms become zero. Therefore, the proposed controller works as the cartesian impedance controller, and the robot follows the trajectory depending on the assigned K_d and D_d control gains. Additionally, when the physical interaction between human and the robot occurs only in Σ_E without commanding a trajectory, x_P and x_a become zero. Hence, the trajectory of the robot (x_d) is calculated depending on the applied human force, K_{f1} , K_{f2} and impedance control gains. Important to note that these calculated x_d values are integrated during the physical interaction, and sent to the robot as the desired trajectory. Therefore, the robot keeps its last position even if the physical interaction is lost. This is the main novelty of the proposed controller that allows us to change the robot position with the help of a human.

Furthermore, when the physical interaction emerges in Σ_M while a human is moving the robot from Σ_E , the trajectory of the robot is changed through x_d term. Meanwhile, x_a , and \dot{x}_a terms are also calculated depending on the assigned K_{f3} , and K_{f4} gains to regulate the robot force response in Σ_M . As an example application of the contact-adaptive controller, the implementation of the collaborative screwing assembly is explained that includes the above mentioned interaction scenarios between the operator, the robot, and the environment.

First, a predefined trajectory (x_P) is commanded to the robot to align with the screw axis. During this interval, there is no physical interaction in neither Σ_M nor Σ_E and the robot is governed by the Cartesian impedance controller. Afterwards, the operator moves the robot (x_d) to be perfectly aligned with the power tool, and to mate the screw and the Allen key attached on the power tool. Finally, the robot executes a trajectory along the screw axis to apply clamping force, and the power tool is activated to complete the screwing operation. In the course of this period, the adaptive controller (x_a) implements a compliant force profile along the screw axis, and stiff in all other directions. By doing this, excessive clamping forces are prevented not to damage the teetees of threaded hole or the screw.

B. Vision Module and GUI

This chapter explains the vision module, and the graphical user interface (GUI) that are developed to detect the position of the screw with respect to the Σ_B (see Fig.2), and to guide the human operator to achieve the collaborative assembly. To start with, the human operator performs the initial thread mating between the screw and the threaded hole on a table.

Then, the operator is asked to wait three seconds while holding the screw. During this interval, the position of the screw is identified from the estimated 3D human skeleton points using the online OpenPose algorithm [16]. Next, the GUI gives visual feedback stating that the hand of the user can be removed from the screw.

After that step, a camera detects the normal axis (z) of the screw through the 3D point cloud method. Hence, the new frame (Σ_S) is defined on top of the screw assigning the other axes (y and x) arbitrarily to create a cartesian triad.

Moreover, the operator can send commands to the developed control framework via a virtual button board. This consists of colored markers placed on the test experiment area (see Fig.4). The user can press the desired button by keeping the hand fixed on the relative marker. Then, the algorithm receives feedback from OpenPose hand detection and ensures that the hand is fixed on a specific marker. Therefore, the button is considered as pressed in the control loop, and the GUI gives visual feedback to the human operator as "BUTTON_GO". A similar strategy is employed for the other button defined as "BUTTON_REST".

C. Interaction planner module

The goal of the interaction planning module is to generate a 5th order polynomial trajectory to roughly align the drilling machine with the screw pose. To do that, a transformation matrix is composed as T_{target}^B from Σ_B to target frames such as T_{screw}^B and T_{rest}^B that will be explained in detail in the next module. Additionally, this module regulates the robot stiffness to be more compliant along the screw normal axis than the rest of the DoFs. This is achieved by assigning K_f gain above zero along the screw axis in the adaptive control. Instead, for the other cartesian axes, zero K_f are selected to have high tracking capability.

Since the human operator performs the initial mating between the drilling machine and the screw, they are always aligned in the same z axis. Hence, K_f matrix is defined in Σ_M , and represented as K_f^M . However, as all the calculations are implemented in Σ_B in (4), K_f is transformed from Σ_M to Σ_B with the help of R_M^B transformation matrix.

Therefore, K_f^B is computed using $\Re K_f^D \Re^T$, which denotes the Singular Value Decomposition of the K_f^B . \Re is:

$$\Re = \begin{bmatrix} R_D^B & \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 3} \\ \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 3} & R_D^B \end{bmatrix}, \quad (9)$$

D. Finite State Machine (FSM)

The communication between the abovementioned modules is performed through a FSM. The unified control framework is illustrated in Fig.3, and developed to achieve several screwing operation. However, the control framework is explained for the assembly of two screws here to verify the method.

First, the vision module sends the detected screws (i.e. $U_{Screw1}^B, U_{Screw2, \dots}^B$) to the FSM. This has 3 states: *go_to_screw* (S1), *insert_screw* (S2), *go_rest* (S3). The interaction planner module receives T_{target}^B by the FSM and

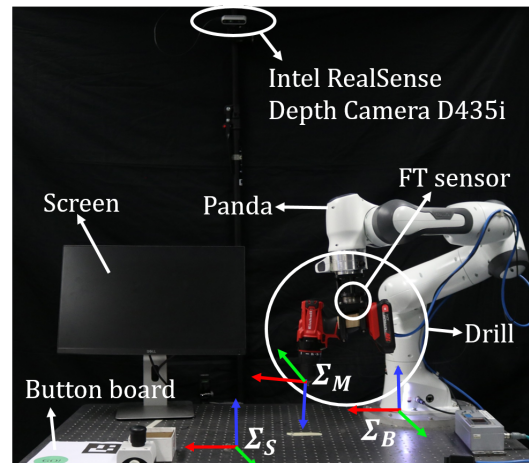


Fig. 4. Illustration of the experimental setup.

sends the computed trajectory and K_f^B to the controller. T_{target}^B is a transformation matrix from Σ_B to a target pose, which is different for each state: T_{screw}^B (top of the screw) for S1, T_{insert}^B (bottom of the screw) for S2 and T_{rest}^B for S3.

To start with, when B_{status} is "GO" (BUTTON_GO), the robot follows the planned trajectory, and goes towards to the first screw. When it reaches roughly the screw position, the human operator couples the drilling machine with the screw. Next, the human operator presses again BUTTON_GO ($B_{status} = GO$), and the robot starts to go forward along the screw normal axis. During this interval, the drilling machine is also activated to rotate the screw. When the screw is inserted, the FSM triggers S1 for processing the next screw in the queue. Then, the worker presses again BUTTON_GO ($B_{status} = GO$) and the similar task sequence mentioned above is repeated to achieve the assembly.

Important to note that, if the user presses BUTTON_REST ($B_{status} = REST$) in any states due to an unexpected problem, the robot executes S3 state moving back to a predefined rest pose.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The experimental setup and reference frames are illustrated in Fig.4. A Franka Emika Panda arm, whose end-effector was coupled with a F/T sensor (ATI-Mini45, SI 145-5) is used for the proposed framework. In addition, an electrical drill (1.3kg) was attached to F/T sensor. A camera (Intel RealSense Depth Camera D435i) is mounted on a fixed apparatus for the detection of the screw. Additionally, M6 hex screws are used to assemble them on a metal table where a number of threaded holes are opened. It is important to note that all the calculations including F_{ext}^e and F_{ext}^m are carried out in Σ_B .

Regarding the control gain selection, there are 6 matrices in (4): $K_d, D_d, K_{f1}, K_{f2}, K_{f3}$, and K_{f4} . The first two are set high to guarantee a good tracking capability, as in [14]. When it comes to K_{f3} and K_{f4} , they are selected equal to each other and denoted as K_f from now on. To have adaptive behavior in z axis, only K_{fz} is selected above

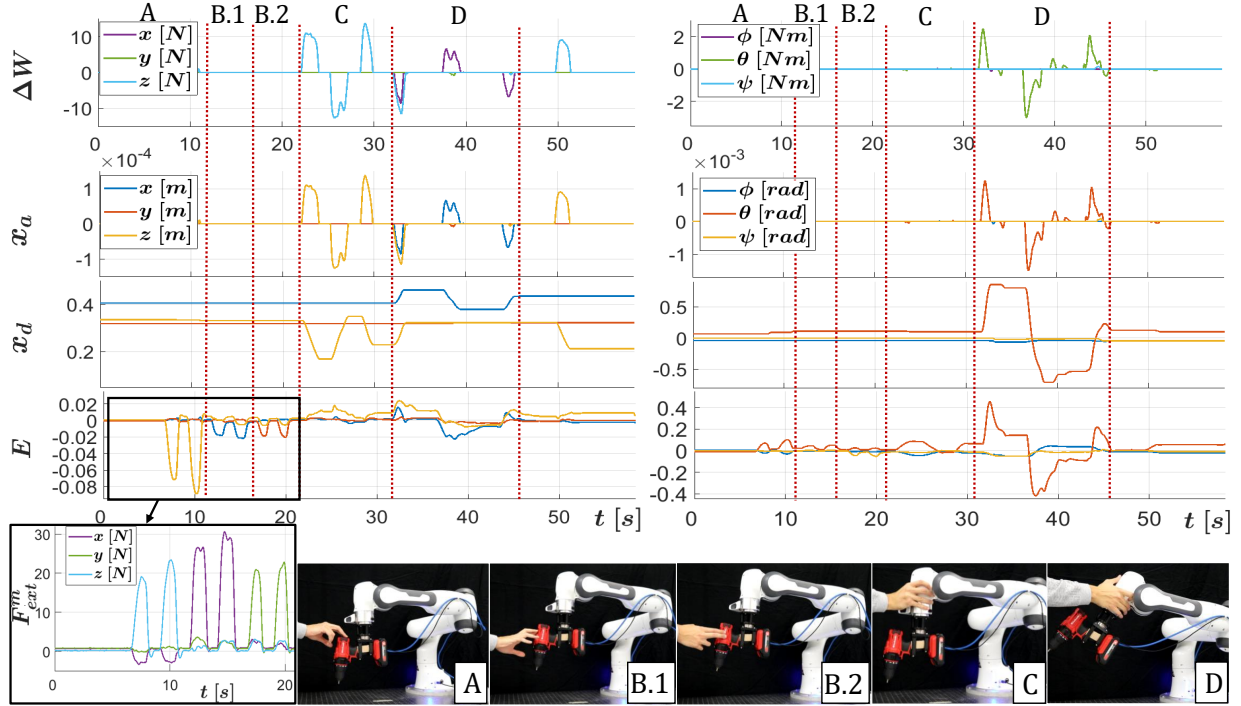


Fig. 5. The experimental results of the controller validation test.

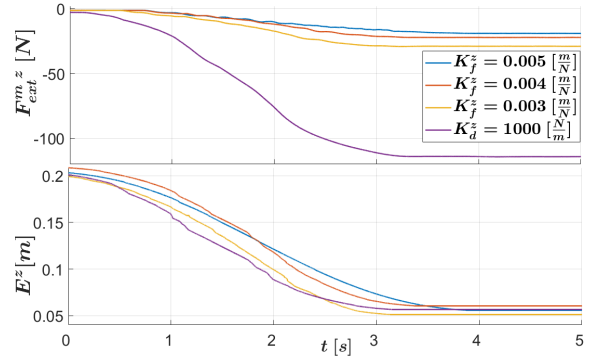
zero to achieve a soft interaction between the screw aligned by a human operator and the robot. Instead, all the other directions are assigned as 0 to have high position accuracy.

For K_{f1} and K_{f2} , the selection of higher gains lead to have smaller position variation (x_d), which means to perform sensitive behaviour. Hence, they are selected experimentally to provide a comfortable yet steady way to move the robot.

In the assembly scenario, when the power tool contacts with the screw, the interaction forces are decreased along z axis according to (8). Nevertheless, since the power tool turns the screw, and it starts to enter the hole, this causes the reduction of contact force (F_{ext}^m) between the power tool and the screw. The lower force generates lower x_a and x'_a terms in (8), and the manipulator starts to push against the screw while keeping the contact. This dynamic continues until the screw is completely inserted. It is clear how this approach eventually guarantees that the minimum force required to maintain the contact is applied on the screw, both during the process and at the end of the stroke, in case the screw length is not exactly known.

In this work, K_d has fixed-high values as $K_{dx} = K_{dy} = K_{dz} = 1000 \text{ m/N}$ and $K_{droll} = K_{dpitch} = K_{dyaw} = 30 \text{ rad/Nm}$. Regarding the adaptive impedance controller, the diagonal compliance matrix gains are assigned as $K_{fx} = K_{fy} = 0 \text{ m/N}$, and for the orientations $K_{froll} = K_{fpitch} = K_{fyaw} = 0 \text{ rad/Nm}$. $K_{fz} = 0.003 \text{ m/N}$ enables to have a stiff behavior in insertion direction (z).

In addition, $K_{f1x} = K_{f1y} = K_{f1z} = 100000 \text{ m/N}$, $K_{f1roll} = K_{f1pitch} = K_{f1yaw} = 2000 \text{ rad/Nm}$, $K_{f2x} = K_{f2y} = K_{f2z} = 5000 \text{ m/N}$; and $K_{f2roll} = K_{f2pitch} =$


 Fig. 6. The comparison of interaction forces and E^z term for impedance and contact-adaptive controllers during the S2 phase (*insert_screw*).

$K_{f2yaw} = 200 \text{ rad/Nm}$. The behaviour of the controller, hence the reasons to choose these parameters, are explain in the following.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A. Controller Verification

The aim of this experiment is to validate the working principle of the proposed contact-adaptive controller. This is carried out by the human operator moving the power tool arbitrarily in certain directions. The linear (x , y , z) and angular (roll (ϕ), pitch (θ) and yaw (ψ)) position variations of the robot are illustrated on the left and right of the Fig.5, respectively. Additionally, ΔW corresponds to F_{Human} in (7), and E denotes the difference between x_d and x_a .

First, the robot is located at the initial position (without any contact) that can be observed from x_d data in Fig.5. In

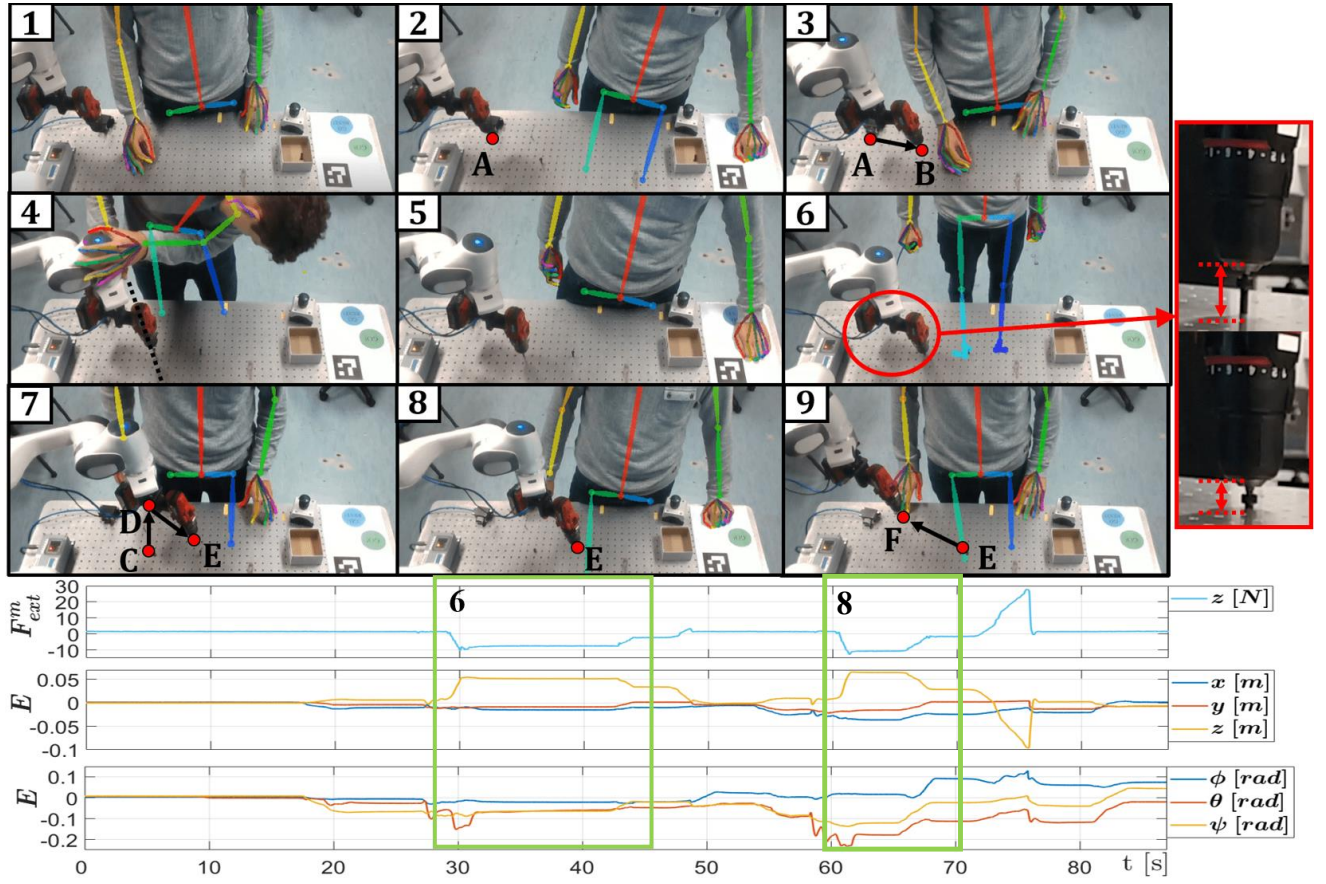


Fig. 7. The experimental results for framework validation: snapshots for illustrating the collaborative screwing assembly (on top), and the variation of interaction forces (F_{ext}^m) along z axis, and E terms for all Dofs.

the first three phases (A, B.1, and B.2), the operator exerts a force on the power tool, and this leads to having equal F_{ext}^m and F_{ext}^e . Hence, ΔW becomes zero, and x_d is not updated according to (7). Only x_a term has an effect on the robot, and this can be easily monitored from E graph displaying a non-zero position trend. Specifically, as K_{fz} is greater than K_{fx} , and K_{fy} , the robot has stiffer behavior along x and y axes than z . This can be also clearly seen from the multimedia attachment.

In C and D phases, the operator moves the robot along z axis and pitch orientation from Σ_E . In this case, since ΔW is different than zero, x_d is varied depending on the applied human force, and the assigned K_{f1} and K_{f2} compliance gains.

Afterward, the proposed contact-adaptive controller is compared with the impedance controller in terms of interaction forces in Σ_M employing the second phase of the assembly (*insert_screw* (S2)). First, the power tool is coupled with the screw, and the robot is moved 15 cm along z axis while activating the power tool for screwing. This task is repeated using different K_{fz} values to demonstrate the variation of the interaction forces (see Fig. 6).

Finally, the same trial is performed with an impedance controller assigning stiff K_{dz} . The results show that the interaction forces are sharply higher for impedance control

(≈ 110 N) than the proposed controller (≈ 20 N).

B. Framework Validation

In this experiment, the whole framework is implemented, and the experiment's flow is illustrated in Fig.7. In step-1, the human operator performs the initial thread mating between the screw and the table. Then, the operator waits three seconds following GUI feedback for the detection of the screw pose. In step-2, the user presses BUTTON_GO, and the robot goes towards the screw. In the next step, the operator places a second screw on the table as in step-1. In step-4, the operator couples the power tool and the screw manually, pressing BUTTON_GO to start the screwing operation (step-5 and 6). The detailed view of the screw length variation is illustrated in the red box (on the left part of the Fig.7).

In step-7, the robot goes towards the second screw following C-D and D-E points. During this interval, since there is no physical interaction, F_{ext}^m and E values become zero. Hence, the robot is controlled by the impedance controller.

It is clear that when the contact occurs between the screw and the power tool (step-6 and 8), E graph changes depending on the sensed force direction (highlighted with green box). Additionally, resultant interaction forces (F_{ext}^m) and E values display similar curves in step-6 and 8, verifying

the repeatability of the controller for multi-screwing task.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this work, we proposed a novel HRC framework for robotic screwing. This is composed of an adaptive controller acting on two force information, a vision system, a GUI, an interaction planner and a FSM. The controller was first tested to show its operation. Then, it was compared with an impedance control to show the strength of the proposed strategy. Next, the integrated framework was evaluated in a collaborative multi-screwing task. The operator could intervene in the process when necessary, while the controller effectively modulated the force on the screw. Results revealed the high potential of the approach in successful execution of industrial screwing tasks.

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