

A Simulation-based Methodology to Test and Assess Designs of Mechatronic Neural Interface Systems

Samuel Bustamante¹, Juan C. Yepes^{1,2}, Vera Z. Pérez² and Julio C. Correa¹

¹Grupo de Automática y Diseño A+D, Facultad de Ingeniería Mecánica,
Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Cir. 1 #73-76, B22C, Medellín, Colombia

²Grupo de Investigaciones en Bioingeniería, Facultad de Ingeniería Eléctrica y Electrónica,
Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Cir. 1 #73-76, B22C, Medellín, Colombia

Keywords: Methodology, Neural Interface Systems, Surface Electromyography, Upper Limb Prostheses, Rehabilitation, Signal Processing, Myoelectric Control.

Abstract: Neural interface systems (NISs) are widely used in rehabilitation and upper limb prosthetics. These systems usually involve robots, such as robotic exoskeletons or electric arms, as terminal devices. We propose a methodology to assess the feasibility of implementing these kind of neural interfaces by means of an online kinematic simulation of the robot. It allows the researcher or developer to make tests and improve the design of the mechatronic devices when they have not been built yet or are not available. Moreover, it may be used in biofeedback applications for rehabilitation. The simulation makes use of the CAD model of the robot, its Denavit–Hartenberg parameters, and biosignals recorded from a human being. The proposed methodology was tested using surface electromyography signals acquired from the upper limb of a 25-year-old healthy male. Both real-time and prerecorded signals were used. The robot simulated was the commercial robotic arm KUKA KR6. The tests proved that the online simulation can be effectively implemented and controlled by means of a biosignal.

1 INTRODUCTION

In 2011, the World Health Organization reported that there were about one billion people worldwide with some type of disability (World Health Organization, 2011). In the European Union, almost 45 million people aged between 15 and 64 years reportedly had a disability around that same year, which corresponds to 14.1% of that age group (Eurostat, 2014). In the United States of America, approximately 1.7 million people had an amputation in 2008 (National Limb Loss Center Information, 2008). Ziegler et al. estimated that each year there are 185,000 new amputees of an upper or lower limb. They also presented an estimation of 3.6 million of people living with the loss of a limb by the year 2050 (Ziegler-Graham et al., 2008).

Continuous search for engineering solutions with the purpose of helping people experiencing physical disabilities or suffering deficit on the expression of cognitive experiences, has led to the development of artificial neural interfaces (García Quiroz et al., 2007). Furthermore, the research to develop systems to help and assist restoration of sensory function, communication and control to impaired humans has

brought new branches of experimental neuroscience such as neural prostheses, neural interface systems (NISs) and brain-machine interfaces (BMIs) (Hatsopoulos and Donoghue, 2009).

NISs are considered bidirectional transduction systems that enable the direct contact between a device and a neurological structure. They are composed of electrodes (or sensors), cables, data acquisition circuitry, and an effector system control unit (García Quiroz et al., 2007). The main goal of NISs research is to connect the nervous system to the outside world. This connection can be achieved either by stimulating or by recording electric activity from neural tissue to treat or to assist people with motor, sensory or other neuronal function disabilities. The systems that record electric activity from the neural tissues are called *output NISs*, and are now migrating from research proof of concepts and pilot human clinical trials to useful devices (Hatsopoulos and Donoghue, 2009). Some of the most studied devices are neural prostheses, exoskeletons and telemetry robots (García Quiroz et al., 2007).

Robotic devices, therefore, can be used to improve the quality of life of human beings. Some of these

robots can be considered robotic arms, and are similar to serial manipulators. These devices consist of open-loop kinematic chains, *i.e.*, open-loop assemblies of rigid bodies (links) connected by joints (Tsai, 1999). Exoskeletons with three degrees of freedom are examples of these kind of robots.

The scope of this paper is to present a four-step methodology that can be used to test a neural interface system (NIS) in which the movement of robots is controlled by means of a biosignal. The purpose is to apply this technology in the future, specifically to the design of robotic exoskeletons for rehabilitation and robotic upper limb prostheses. The methodology uses a kinematic simulation of a robot, which is useful to test and discuss trajectories, movements, design parameters, and any characteristic of the mechatronic device the researcher may need to check without having an actual robot available. For instance, it can be used to support the design of a new robotic prosthesis. As simulation is a part of the NIS itself, it may be completely controlled by prerecorded or real-time biosignals acquired from a human being.

The first step of the proposed methodology consist of the development of a kinematic simulation of a robot using its CAD model and Denavit–Hartenberg (D-H) parameters. That kinematic simulation may be implemented on any programming environment that allows communication protocols, such as Octave, Python or Matlab. Given that the access to these environments is relatively easy inside the academic community, the simulation can be considered low-cost. The simulated robot is expected to be a serial manipulator, otherwise the D-H nomenclature can not be used and therefore the kinematic models used can not be applied.

The second step consists of acquiring and processing the biosignals of the neural interface being tested, obtaining the inputs of the simulation. The third step is to develop tests with prerecorded signals, which is useful to debug and refine different parameters of the models. By last, the fourth step is to establish real-time communication between the simulation and the acquired biosignal, making the neural interface work with the simulation the same way it would with a built and working robot.

To validate the methodology, the commercial serial manipulator KUKA KR6, a robotic arm available at our laboratories, was simulated and controlled by a 25-year-old healthy male through surface electromyography (sEMG). Some devices like upper limb prostheses use sEMG signals as control commands, and although these systems are simple they can be considered neural interfaces (Schultz and Kuiken, 2011). The results of the tests with prerecorded signals and

in real-time determined that the online simulation can be effectively implemented. Thus, it may be useful in the fields of rehabilitation and upper limb prosthetics.

This paper is presented as follows. Section 2 explains the proposed methodology with a wide description of each step. Section 3 shows results of the application of the methodology with the commercial robot and sEMG signals, presenting a discussion in Subsection 3.5. Finally, section 4 presents the conclusions regarding possible applications of the proposed methodology.

2 PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

In this section, the four steps of the previously introduced methodology to assess the feasibility of implementing a neural interface are presented.

2.1 Simulation of the Kinematics of a Robot

The purpose of this subsection is to give a brief guide on how to build a simulation of a robot in a programming environment. An example is given in Subsection 3.1.

As mentioned before, the simulation uses the CAD model and the D-H parameters of a serial manipulator. The D-H parameters of a serial robot refer to the notation introduced in 1955 by Jacques Denavit and Richard Hartenberg to describe the geometry of a serial chain of links and joints (Corke, 2011). Although a complete description of the D-H notation will not be presented in this document, the reader can refer to any robotics text for more information. A simple and systematic methodology to assign the D-H parameters is presented in (Corke, 2007), where more information of the kinematic models described below can be found. We also recommend the detailed description proposed in section 3.1 of (Crane and Duffy, 1998). The notation presented here is the same as in that document: The parameters s_i , θ_i , a_{ij} and α_{ij} represent respectively the joint offset distances, the joint angles, the link lengths, and the twist angles of the robot.

The CAD model of the robot has to be obtained in STL format. A STL file is a representation of a solid object using small facets, similar to Finite Element Analysis (FEA) meshes. Each triangular facet is explicitly defined in the file by a normal vector and its three vertices (Hon Wah, 1999). The user must obtain an STL file for each mechanical link of the serial manipulator. Files of additional details, such as motors or wires, can also be used. Considering that an

STL file is essentially a text file, it can be easily imported into the computer programming environment used. There, the vertices can be extracted and plotted using functions for filling polygons.

The plot of all the facets shows a 3D representation of the serial manipulator as if it was inside a CAD environment. Moreover, movement can be given to the model: all the vertices of each part of the robot constitute a cloud of points, susceptible to a homogeneous spatial transformation, such as a rotation or a translation. Each transformation consist of a 4x4 matrix that maps a homogeneous position vector from one coordinate system into another (Tsai, 1999). Assuming that the robot will move through multi-point trajectories, transformation matrices for the cloud of points of each part of the robot must be defined for each individual step of the trajectory. The user will obtain new clouds of points that, when plotted using the same functions as before, will show the robot in new positions. If multiple plots are made, the movement of the robot will be shown in different frames through time, as in an animation. Hence, with the use of these mathematical tools the kinematics of the 3D model of an entire robot can be simulated.

Recall that, in order to apply the procedure described above, the position of each point of each piece of the robot has to be measured in reference to its local origin. However, when the STL file of the robot is imported and plotted, the device appears in the position it was assembled in the CAD software, and all of its points are measured with reference to the absolute origin in the base of the robot instead of their respective local frame. For that reason, a previous step in the process is to apply the inverse kinematic analysis, which is the process of finding the joint angles that satisfy a given position and orientation of the end-effector (Fu et al., 1987), along with inverse transform matrices to restore each of the pieces of the robot to its local origin. The inverse kinematics of a serial manipulator are not straightforward, and the mathematics vary with each device in particular.

Up to this point, it can be generated a 3D simulation of the actual movement of the robot moving smoothly through the demanded positions and following specific trajectories demanded by the user. It is important during the simulation process to test the kinematics of the robot: The user can define a trajectory of their interest and perform a simulation. This desired trajectory can be either of the joints of the robot (direct analysis) or of its end-effector (inverse analysis).

The last task of this step in the methodology is the creation of a simplified model of the robot. It simulates with straight lines the moving parts of the robot,

i.e., the mechanical links. The cloud of points of each part, hence, only has two points, representing the start and the end of the part. Both the direct and the inverse kinematic analysis previously discussed can be applied to the simplified models as well. This is important due to the fact that the simulation of the CAD model may include many details, and the computational resources required to run it in real-time applications are very high. Thus, the simplified model can facilitate the analysis of the performance of the system. However, if the user has a very high computational resource it is still possible to use the complete CAD model in real-time applications. In that way the interaction with the system will be very realistic. If instead the user has a conventional office computer, we strongly recommend the use of the simplified model. In this way, the methodology can be used by any researcher almost independently of the computational resources available.

It is important to note that a kinematic simulation of a serial manipulator in a programming environment using its CAD model was first presented in (Correa et al., 2010).

2.2 Signal Acquisition, Processing and Control Algorithms

Biosignals obtained from tests such as electroencephalogram (EEG), electrocardiogram (ECG), electrooculogram (EOG) or electromyogram (EMG) can be monitored and measured from human bodies. In order to integrate the kinematic models and the biosignals into a NISs, a signal acquisition device, a signal processing algorithm and a control algorithm must be used.

The idea of the signal acquisition device is to acquire the biosignals for the NIS. For the purpose of the present methodology, this device must be able to record signals in a database and to allow their processing in real-time inside the programming environment being used.

The sensors or electrodes should be connected to the device and located either on a healthy person or on a patient. This process must be developed according to the parameters given by international standards and recommendations for acquiring each specific signal.

The tasks of this steps are the following: First, the user must record in a database all the signals needed to test the NIS. This could be done either in the software provided by the manufacturer of the acquisition device or in a custom made developed software.

Subsequently, the biosignals must be imported in the computational programming environment being used. Then, they should be processed, using one or

more signal processing algorithms reported in the literature to develop feature extraction or classification (Merletti and Parker, 2004), such as filters, amplifiers, envelope detectors (Lenzi et al., 2012), peak detectors, artificial neural networks (Wojtczak et al., 2009), wavelets (Lucas et al., 2008), Hilbert Huang transform (Revilla et al., 2013) Kalman Filters (Delis et al., 2006; Kyrlyova et al., 2014), and others. These signal processing algorithms should be selected in order to fulfill the requirements of the NISs to be tested, either to enhance the signal, detect the intended movement of human joints, detect human gestures, and so on.

Finally, in order to control the movement of the joints or the end-effector of the kinematic model, a control algorithm must be developed in the programming environment used. It could be a classic or modern algorithm; some examples of them are PID controllers (Pan et al., 2015), Neuro-Fuzzy Control (Kiguchi et al., 2004), Computed Torque Control (Lasso et al., 2010), among others. The processed biosignals must be integrated with the control algorithm in order to move the kinematic model as desired in the real NIS.

2.3 Tests with Prerecorded Signals

A test with prerecorded biosignals is very useful before proceeding with actual real-time signals, because it allows the user to check if different elements of the NIS are working properly.

These tests are also useful to check trajectories and discuss design parameters of the moving robot. It is suggested to record several trials with different characteristics, simulating diverse real-life scenarios. If the simulation shows a good behavior, the real-time montage can be implemented. That is stage 4.

2.4 Tests with Real-time Signals

In this step, the signals must be acquired in real-time using the biosignal acquisition device. This device must transmit continuously each sample to the programming environment. The transmission of the data can be either wired or wireless, but the latency of the transmission must be lower than the sample time and the signal processing time, so that it does not affect the algorithms and the whole NIS. Control systems should not create delays perceivable by the user during the operation. There are also reports of real-time constraints on myoelectric control systems when having smooth and continuous controls (Asghari Oskoei and Hu, 2007).

Each sample must be processed in real-time with a signal processing algorithm similar to the algorithm

evaluated before in the non-real-time tests. The output of the real-time signal processing algorithm, must interact with the control algorithm to compute the movement of the robot.

As explained in Subsection 2.1, to maintain the proposed methodology low-cost, it is recommended to develop this step with the simplified model of the robot rather than with the 3D model of the entire robot, due to the high computational resources needed with the complete model. In these tests, many variables of the NIS can be analyzed such as the working range, specified movements, delays, and so on. If the simulation of the robot behaves in the way the user pretends, the NIS can be developed to further stages.

3 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

In this section, we present the experiments performed to test the methodology, and the results obtained.

The methodology proposed in Section 2 was applied to a prosthetic-like neural interface consisting of the control of a KUKA KR6 robot by means of the sEMG signals of a 25-year-old healthy male. The reason we chose this particular robot is because an actual prototype is available at our laboratories, and the following step of the global project after the testing stage is to implement the NIS so that myoelectric control of the real robot can be achieved.

An image of a commercial robotic arm KUKA KR6 is shown in Figure 1. This robot has six degrees of freedom and a spherical workspace, and its D-H parameters are cited in Table 1. Since all of the joints of the KUKA KR6 are revolute joints, the time-dependent variable θ_i , in degrees, is the variable that represents the input of the actuators of the robot.

Table 1: Denavit–Hartenberg parameters of the KUKA KR6 robot, obtained from (Yepes et al., 2013).

Frame	α_{ij} (°)	a_{ij} (mm)	s_i (mm)
1	180	0	-675
2	90	260	0
3	0	680	0
4	-90	35	-670
5	90	0	0
6	-90	0	-115

3.1 Simulation of the Kinematics of the KUKA KR6

The CAD model of the robot was obtained and successfully imported in a computer programming environment through the procedure described in Subsection



Figure 1: Commercial robotic arm KUKA KR6.

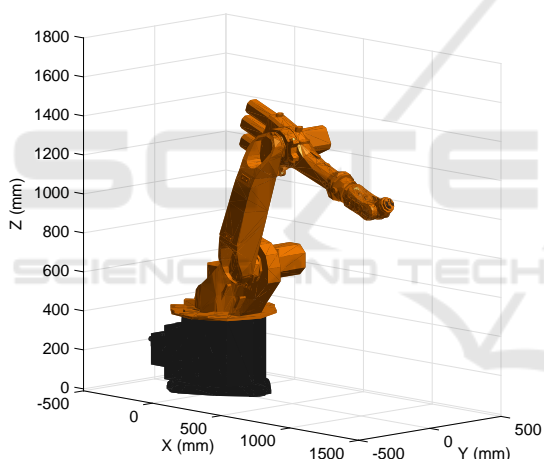


Figure 2: 3D simulation of the KUKA KR6.

2.1. The 3D model obtained is shown in Figure 2. The quality of the shape and the details can be set when the STL file is exported in a CAD environment such as Solid Edge or Solid Works. Depending on the computational power available, less details mean a faster simulation.

A simplified model of the robot was created as well, in order to optimize real-time tests. This model is shown in Figure 3. Excepting the base of the robot, each link consists only of two points. The plot, inside the programming environment used, facilitated the creation of straight lines between the points. The red line is the end-effector. Recall that the robot is in the same spatial position in Figures 2 and 3.

A kinematic test was performed in order to debug

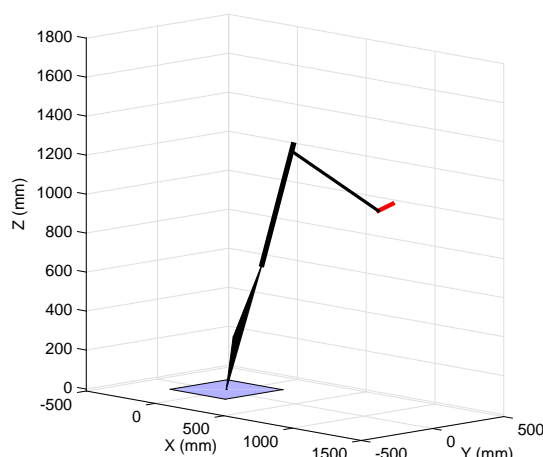


Figure 3: Simplified simulation of the KUKA KR6.

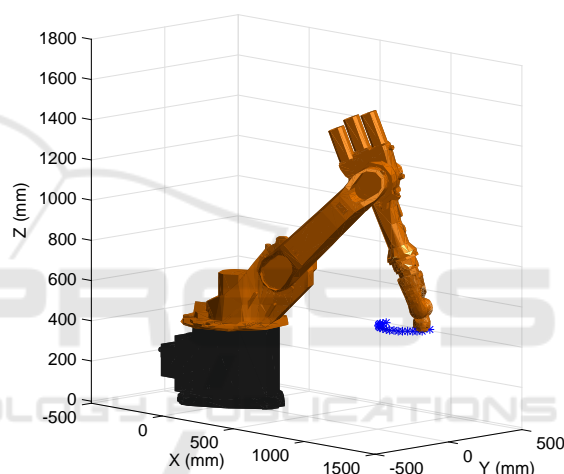


Figure 4: Circular path executed by the simulated robot.

and validate the kinematic models. The task was to make the end-effector of the simulated robot to follow smoothly a circular trajectory. As showed in Figure 4, the simulation performed the task correctly. The computational model of the robot was hence validated.

3.2 Biosignal Acquisition, Processing and Control Algorithms

EMG has been widely used in physical rehabilitation systems and in upper limb prosthetics. There are two methods to obtain EMG signals: surface electromyography (sEMG) and intramuscular electromyography (iEMG). In the first, electrodes are respectively attached to the user skin, and in the latter they are inserted through the skin (Mon and Al-Jumaily, 2013). sEMG signals have been effectively used in prostheses control systems (Merletti and Parker, 2004). Therefore, sEMG signals were used to test the pro-

posed methodology.

The sensors, sensor placement and signal processing methods to acquire and record sEMG signals were based on some of the recommendations of the SENIAM project (The Seniam Project,). According to ISEK Standards for Reporting EMG Data (Merletti, 1999) the characteristics of the procedure are shown:

The raw signal was detected using three pairs of 10-mm commercial, disposable and adhesive gel surface electrodes placed in different parts of the forearm of a healthy 25-year-old subject, along with a reference electrode located at the elbow. The electrodes had a disc shape, an area of 3.48 sq cm, and were made in silver-chloride. They were placed with a inter-electrode distance of approximately 2 cm (center point to center point) at the following muscles in order to detect flexion and pronation (Florimond, 2010):

- Biceps brachii, detecting activation when the elbow joint was flexed.
- Brachioradialis, detecting activation when the wrist pronation occurred.
- Flexor carpi radialis, detecting activation when the wrist joint was flexed.

The electrodes were placed in parallel to the muscle fiber direction using the dominant middle portion of the muscle belly for best selectivity and avoiding the region of motor points. The signal was acquired using an 8 channel low-cost sEMG signal acquisition device designed and developed in our research labs. The device has a differential configuration, an input impedance of $10k\Omega$, a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of 112 dB and it was configured with a gain of 12. The biosignal was sampled at 1 kHz. The low-cost sEMG signal acquisition device transmitted the signal through a serial port to a PC, and the programming environment used, recorded or captured in real-time all three differential channels. The signals were obtained one at the time, and they were normalized to the range of (-1, 1).

Subsequently, the signal was rectified with Root Mean Square (RMS) and it was converted into an amplitude envelope as presented in the literature (Mon and Al-Jumaily, 2013). The RMS was calculated one value at the time using the equation

$$RMS_{emg}(n) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} * \sum_{s=1}^n sEMG(s)^2}, \quad (1)$$

where $sEMG(s)$ represents the amplitude estimation (Ruiz et al., 2009) of the signal in the sth sample and n is the total number of samples in a window from the vector of the signal. The window used was 0.01 seconds, meaning each window had 10 samples. The

signal was not filtered again in the computational software, but the RMS curve was normalized in the range of (0, 1) so it could be useful in the procedure described below.

The Normalized RMS curve of the sEMG was the input of the kinematic analysis, in order to move the model of the robot when the subject intended to move his arm. From this resulting signal, labeled as *input*, it was calculated the value of the position of the manipulator's joints by means of a linear transformation. In order to achieve this, each of the muscles, and correspondent movements, were related to three joints of the kinematic model of the KUKA KR6 serial manipulator.

In order to test the proposed methodology, a simplified EMG-based assistive control algorithm was implemented. The mathematical relation was defined so that the robot would move whenever the muscle was activated, and in a proportional way to the amplitude of the sEMG signal. If the muscle was not activated, the robot would not move from its home position. When there was a muscle activation, the model would change its position in a proportional way. This movement was done inside the robot position limits, meaning (0) the home position and (1) a custom position close to the maximum angle of the joint with a comfortable safety distance.

The direct kinematic analysis was then effectuated and the movement of the robot was displayed in the screen using the D-H parameters. It was established that joints 1, 2 and 6 were going to be immobile in the home position of the robot (0° , -90° and 0° respectively). This indicates that the kinematic model of the robot was used with only three joints, meaning a 3 degrees of freedom (3-DOF) manipulator.

For the elbow flexion, the normalized RMS of the biceps brachii signal, labeled as *input3*, was associated to the joint three of the kinematic model. The maximum and minimum angles for this joint were set to 220° and 180° respectively, and the angle of the the joint three

$$\theta_3 = 220 - 40 \times input3 \quad (2)$$

was computed from the input signal. For the wrist flexion, the normalized RMS of the flexor carpi radialis signals, *input5*, the maximum angles were set to 0° and -45° , and the angle of the the joint five

$$\theta_5 = -45 \times input5 \quad (3)$$

was computed from the input signal. By last, for the wrist pronation, the normalized RMS of the brachioradialis signals, *input4*, the maximum angles were set to 0° and 90° , and the angle of the the joint four

$$\theta_4 = 90 \times input4 \quad (4)$$

was computed from the input signal. This means that, if the amplitude envelope of each input was small or null (0), each joint of the kinematic model was close to the home position, and if the amplitude envelope of each input was big or maximum (1), each joint of the kinematic model was close the maximum angle. As the tests were performed with only one signal and its corresponding joint at the time, the other two joints were set at an arbitrary position.

3.3 Testing using Pre-recorded Signals

sEMG signals were recorded from the subject during three trials of 20 seconds using the procedures presented in section 3.2. On each trial the subject was told to perform movements in order to detect activation of each of the three muscles described. On the first trial, he was told to flex his elbow two times. On the second trial, he was told to pronate his wrist four times. And on the third trial, he was told to flex his wrist three times. Muscle activation was measurable when these movements happened.

The sEMG signals obtained from each muscle and their RMS values are shown in Figure 5. It is important to remark that the results in this Figure are shown before the RMS value was normalized and introduced in the kinematic model. In this figure, the activation and deactivation of the biceps brachii are represented by five letters.

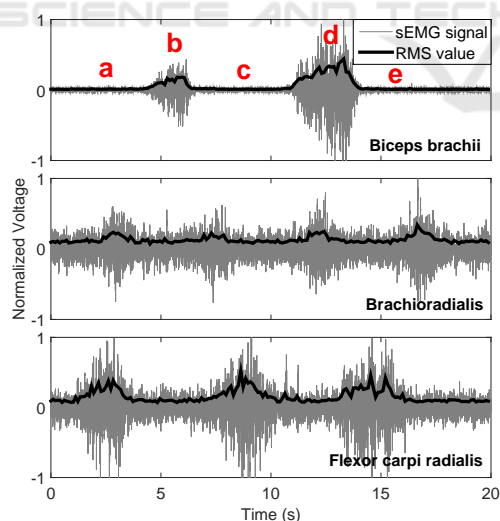


Figure 5: Biosignals recorded with the low-cost sEMG acquisition device.

The output of the NISs is presented in Figure 6. It shows different positions of the robot during the simulation of the NISs with the data previously recorded from the activation of the biceps

brachii. This signal was selected due to the fact that presents the greater contrast between muscular activation-deactivation. Also, it has different levels of contractions producing different levels of signal amplitude, and for that reason is more didactic and visually representative in the simulation.

Each frame of the Figure 6 corresponds to a position in time. The first frame (a) corresponds to the start of the trial, the second frame (b) to the first activation, which was really weak as can be seen in Figure 5 section (b), the third frame (c) corresponds to the time between activations, the fourth frame (d) to the second (and strongest) activation as can be seen in Figure 5 section (d) and the fifth frame (e) to the time after the activation. As these results were satisfactory, the real-time tests were implemented.

3.4 Testing using Real-time Signals

In order to assess the feasibility of implementing the designed NIS, the procedures shown in section 2.4 for the signal acquisition, processing, and control was implemented. The signal processing and control algorithms were executed in real-time detecting the activation of the biceps brachii.

The sEMG acquisition device was connected to the subject. It transmitted each sample through serial port protocol at a baud rate of 115.200 through an Universal Serial Bus (USB). The samples of the raw signals were conducted to the signal processing algorithm and then they were mapped in the control algorithm.

The real-time experiments carried out on the healthy subject involved a very simple algorithm to detect the intended movement of the elbow, since the purpose of this paper is the proposal of the methodology and not presenting a novel algorithm for the detection of the intended movement through sEMG signals. The detection of the elbow flexion was done through a threshold established to the RMS envelope of the biceps brachii signals. If the change in the amplitude envelope exceeded the given threshold, the joint 3 (also labeled *input3*) of the simplified kinematic model of robot was put at a maximum value. Otherwise, it stayed at the minimum value. The threshold used was 75% of the range of the RMS envelope signal.

The test consisted on five activations of the muscle separated approximately by two seconds. The simplified model of the robot moved correctly after each activation. Figures 7 and 8 show the status of the robot without and with an activation respectively.

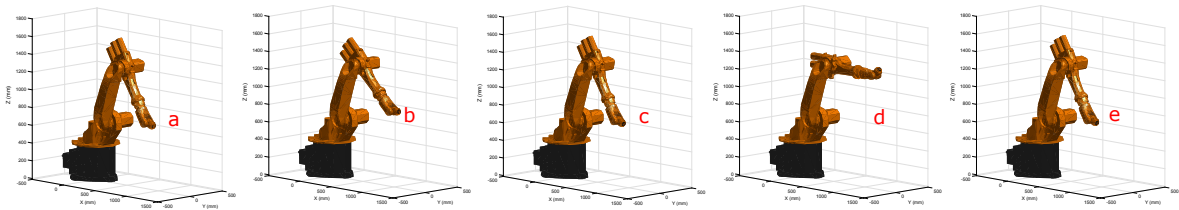


Figure 6: Movement using prerecorded signals.

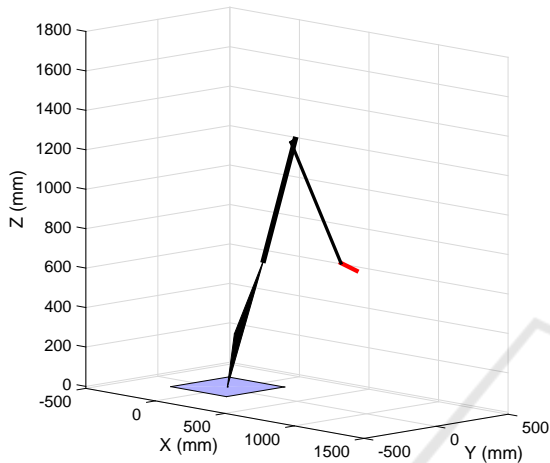


Figure 7: Simplified 3D model during the real-time experiment with the elbow extended.

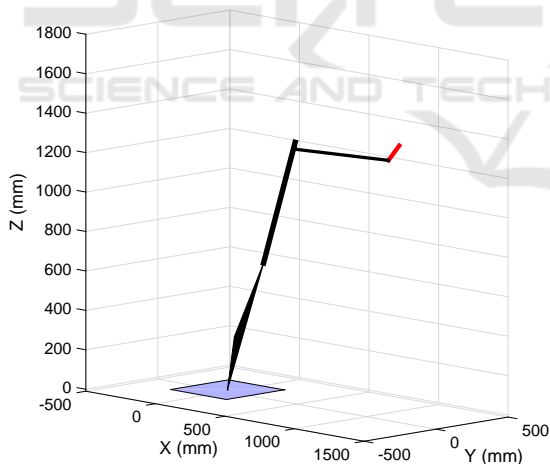


Figure 8: Simplified 3D model during the real-time experiment with the elbow flexed.

3.5 Discussion

After the tests developed in Subsections 3.3 and 3.4, it can be stated that the simulation of the robot can be successfully implemented and controlled by means of a biosignal. The tests yielded three tools useful for future projects:

The first one is the kinematic simulation of the robotic arm KUKA KR6. This tool gives the re-

searcher the ability to recreate the movement of the robot without interacting directly with a real device, and its performance is suitable compared to the real movement of the KUKA KR6. Additionally, it enables the inclusion of accessories or more detailed characteristics using the same instructions presented in Section 2. For instance, if there is any change in the design of the robot, it is only necessary to update its D-H parameters and CAD model. Furthermore, as the researcher checks the movement of the robot in the screen, the tool enables the test and assessment of trajectories of the different actuators and end-effectors of the robot.

The second useful tool is the simplified model. It may be useful to check the kinematic behavior of the links of the robot's mechanism, while enabling real-time analysis.

A third and last tool is the sEMG acquisition and processing system, which completes the Neural Interface System. sEMG signals are particularly (but not exclusively) useful in the field of prosthetics, as they can be measurable on the residual muscles of amputees, allowing the patient to control a prosthetic device.

It is important to note that the amplitude of the acquired signals shown in Figure 5 is different, depending on some anatomic and physiologic characteristics of muscle and the force applied in the movement. For the case of the KUKA KR6, which is a serial robot with a similar structure to a human arm, the correlation with the human movement was straightforward. For instance, the movement produced by the flexion of the elbow, as a result of biceps brachii activation, was visualized in the joint 3 of the robot.

We highlight that this paper does not present results with a real-life robot, only with a computational model. Future works include a realistic test with the industrial serial robot KUKA KR6 and, subsequently with a mechatronic device that our laboratory is developing for a specific application in rehabilitation. In that way we will be able to compare the results of the robot movement presented in the simulation applying our methodology and the results with the real-life neural interface system. Moreover, this test with a real-life robot and a real-life neural interface system

will enable to develop a comparative evaluation with other approaches.

4 CONCLUSION

The proposed methodology can be implemented in the design stage of a NIS that involve a robotic device, since it can influence important decisions before building the robotic system. Taking these decisions before manufacturing processes may signify an economical benefit for the designer.

In this work, the methodology was tested using a KUKA KR6 robot. However, any serial robotic device can be used. It is possible to implement the methodology with robots that help people, such as exoskeletons or upper limb prostheses. The only requirement is to have their CAD files, which is usual in the design process of any machine nowadays, and convert them to STL format. Although sEMG signals were used in the presented experiments, EEG, ECG, EOG and even electrocorticogram (ECoG) signals may be used as well as an input for the NIS. It is recommended to follow the proper protocol to acquire the signals.

In this paper a basic control algorithm was used to map the angles from human joints to robot joints. It is possible to include in the simulations more advanced control algorithms according to the capabilities of the real robot. Some of these algorithms may include dynamic analysis. Therefore, an interesting follow up for the project is the development of force models inside the methodology.

Finally, we also propose that the presented methodology has a potential use in the field of biofeedback for musculoskeletal and neurologic rehabilitation, since the movement of the robot is an indicator of muscular activation in real-time tests. Nevertheless, in order to assess this proposition clinical tests have to be carried out.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank Cristian D. Martínez for the design and development of a Low-Cost sEMG signal acquisition device.

REFERENCES

Asghari Oskoei, M. and Hu, H. (2007). Myoelectric control systems-A survey. *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control*, 2(4):275–294.

Corke, P. (2011). Robot Arm Kinematics. In *Robotics, Vision and Control: Fundamental Algorithms in MATLAB (Springer Tracts in Advanced Robotics)*, chapter 7, pages 137–170. Springer.

Corke, P. I. (2007). A simple and systematic approach to assigning Denavit-Hartenberg parameters. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics*, 23(3):590–594.

Correa, J. C., Ramírez, J. A., Taborda, E. A., Cock, J. A., Gómez, M. A., and Escobar, G. A. (2010). Implementation of a Laboratory for the Study of Robot Manipulators. In *Proceedings of the ASME 2010 International Mechanical Engineering Congress & Exposition*, pages 23–30.

Crane, C. D. and Duffy, J. (1998). *Kinematic Analysis of Robot Manipulators*. Cambridge University Press.

Delis, A. L., Carvalho, J. L. a. J., and Rocha, A. F. (2006). Myoelectric Knee Angle Estimation Algorithms for Control of Active Transfemoral Leg Prostheses. *Self Organizing Maps - Applications and Novel Algorithm Design*, (1977):401–424.

Eurostat (2014). Disability statistics - prevalence and demographics.

Florimond, V. (2010). Basics of Surface Electromyography Applied to Physical Rehabilitation and. 1(March):1–50.

Fu, K. S., Gonzalez, R. C., and Lee, C. S. (1987). *Robotics: control, sensing, vision and intelligence*. McGraw-Hill.

García Quiroz, F., Villa Moreno, A., and Castaño Jaramillo, P. (2007). Interfaces neuronales y sistemas máquina-cerebro: fundamentos y aplicaciones. Revisión. *Revista Ingeniería Biomédica*, (1):14–22.

Hatsopoulos, N. and Donoghue, J. (2009). The science of neural interface systems. *Annual review of neuroscience*, 32:249–266.

Hon Wah, W. (1999). Introduction to STL format.

Kiguchi, K., Tanaka, T., and Fukuda, T. (2004). Neuro-fuzzy control of a robotic exoskeleton with EMG signals. *IEEE Transactions on Fuzzy Systems*, 12(4):481–490.

Kyrylova, A., Desplenter, T., Escoto, A., Chinchalkar, S., and Trejos, A. L. (2014). Simplified EMG-driven Model for Active-Assisted Therapy. In *IROS 2014 Workshop on Rehabilitation and Assistive Robotics: Bridging the Gap Between Clinicians and Roboticians*, page 6.

Lasso, I. L., Masso, M., and Vivas, O. A. (2010). Exoesqueleto para reeducación muscular en pacientes con IMOC tipo diplejía espástica moderada. pages 1–88.

Lenzi, T., De Rossi, S. M. M., Vitiello, N., and Carrozza, M. C. (2012). Intention-based EMG control for powered exoskeletons. *IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering*, 59(8):2180–2190.

Lucas, M. F., Gaufriau, A., Pascual, S., Doncarli, C., and Farina, D. (2008). Multi-channel surface EMG classification using support vector machines and signal-based wavelet optimization. *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control*, 3(2):169–174.

Merletti, R. (1999). Standards for reporting EMG data.

- Merletti, R. and Parker, P. A. (2004). *Electromyography: Physiology, Engineering, and Non-Invasive Applications*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Mon, Y. and Al-Jumaily, A. (2013). Estimation of Upper Limb Joint Angle Using Surface EMG Signal. *International Journal of Advanced Robotic Systems*, page 1.
- National Limb Loss Center Information (2008). Amputation statistics by cause. Limb loss in the United States.
- Pan, D., Gao, F., Miao, Y., and Cao, R. (2015). Co-simulation research of a novel exoskeleton-human robot system on humanoid gaits with fuzzy-PID/PID algorithms. *Advances in Engineering Software*, 79:36–46.
- Revilla, L. M., Delis, A. L., and Olaya, A. F. R. (2013). Evaluation of the Hilbert-Huang Transform for myoelectric pattern classification: Towards a method to detect movement intention. *Pan American Health Care Exchanges, PAHCE*, pages 1–6.
- Ruiz, A. F., Rocon, E., and Forner-Cordero, A. (2009). Exoskeleton-based robotic platform applied in biomechanical modelling of the human upper limb. *Applied Bionics and Biomechanics*, 6(2):205–216.
- Schultz, A. E. and Kuiken, T. A. (2011). Neural interfaces for control of upper limb prostheses: the state of the art and future possibilities. *PM & R : the journal of injury, function, and rehabilitation*, 3(1):55–67.
- The Seniam Project. SENIAM. <http://www.seniam.org>.
- Tsai, L.-W. (1999). *Robot analysis: the mechanics of serial and parallel manipulators*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Wojtczak, P., Amaral, T. G., Dias, O. P., Wolczowski, A., and Kurzynski, M. (2009). Hand movement recognition based on biosignal analysis. *Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence*, 22(4-5):608–615.
- World Health Organization (2011). World Report on Disability.
- Yepes, J. C., Yepes, J. J., Martínez, J. R., and Pérez, V. Z. (2013). Implementation of an Android based teleoperation application for Controlling a KUKA-KR6 robot by using sensor fusion. *Health Care Exchanges*.
- Ziegler-Graham, K., MacKenzie, E. J., Ephraim, P. L., Travison, T. G., and Brookmeyer, R. (2008). Estimating the Prevalence of Limb Loss in the United States: 2005 to 2050. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, 89(3):422–429.