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On the Feasibility and Suitability of MR Fluid Clutches in Human-Friendly Manipulators

Alex S. Shafer and Mehrdad R. Kermani, *Member, IEEE*

Abstract—An investigation into the suitability of magneto-rheological (MR) clutches in the context of developing feasible actuation solutions for physical human–robot interaction is presented. Contact and collision forces pose great danger to humans, and thus, the primary criteria for actuator development is safety. While the majority of existing solutions make use of mechanical compliance in some form, in this paper, we will approach the problem by considering the use of MR clutches for coupling the motor drive to the joint. The suitability of MR actuators to provide an intrinsically safe actuation platform is investigated by modeling the torque to mass, and torque to inertia ratios, as well as output impedance of the MR clutch. These figures are compared to commercially available servo motors as well as mechanically compliant based human-safe actuator models. The MR clutch is analytically shown to have superior mass and inertia characteristics over servo motors while either matching or surpassing the intrinsic safety characteristics of the modeled compliant actuator. The implementation of MR-clutch-based actuation systems is investigated by examining the distributed active semiactive approach. The proposed approach is discussed in terms of mechanical as well controller complexity and relates the investigation to the feasibility of practical implementations. Performance characteristics are empirically investigated by experimentation with a prototype MR clutch constructed for this purpose. The prototype MR clutch can transmit torque up to 75 Nm and has a bandwidth of 30 Hz. Torque to mass and torque to inertia ratios of the prototype MR clutch are substantially greater than that of comparable servo motors. Conclusions drawn from this investigation indicate that indeed MR clutch actuation approaches can be developed to balance safety and performance while maintaining reasonable system complexity.

Index Terms—Human–robot interaction, magneto-rheological (MR) fluids, safety and performance.

I. INTRODUCTION

INCREASINGLY, we are witnessing a growing number of developments in the field of robotics characterized by their intent to integrate man and machine in a safe and functional

manner [1]–[3]. The suitability of a manipulator to work in close proximity with humans is determined first by the level of safety it can guarantee toward its human counterparts. Guaranteeing safety is a difficult if not impossible exercise as we can rarely guarantee the dependability of the numerous components required to complete a modern manipulator. Add in the human factor, and our task becomes insurmountable. Thus, much focus has been centered on interactive robots that are expected to perform in a safe and dependable manner in unknown and unpredictable environments. Collisions between robots and humans constitute the primary safety concern. Such collisions are responsible for numerous injuries each year [4], despite the existence of barriers and other fail-safe mechanisms. As we move closer toward a shared environment, new approaches to manipulator design are becoming increasingly important. Devices utilizing the unique properties of magneto-rheological (MR) fluids have been developed for robotic applications, however, almost entirely for use in haptic systems [5]–[9]. While it has been suggested in the literature how such devices might be used in a manipulator to improve both safety and performance (i.e., [10], [11]), there appears to be a general reluctance toward adopting such technology as a viable alternative to the current solutions.

Control design and software issues for the manipulators intended to interact with humans also present a set of unique challenges [12]. It is necessary to address safety, not only at the design, but at motion planning and control levels as well. Of high importance are identification and assessment of various sources of danger [13]–[16] as well as obtaining simple but realistic models of the environment and in particular of humans [17], [18]. It is however, beyond the scope of this paper to adequately discuss all subject matters. For more comprehensive review of the software issues see [19].

This paper is organized in seven sections. Section II briefly discusses fundamental issues relating to actuator and manipulator design that have detrimental effects on safety, as well as review the shortcomings of existing solutions. Section III reviews the construction and principles of the MR clutch, used to develop MR actuators (MRAs). Section IV presents an investigation into MR clutch actuators' figures of merit to provide a comparison to differing actuator types. In Section V, we propose an elaborated MR-based actuation approach that leverages the strengths highlighted in the previous section. The goals of the proposed actuation approach are to maintain safe physical interactions with humans, while improving the performance over existing human-safe actuation techniques. Section VI highlights the results of performance validation experiments conducted on a prototype MRA. Finally, concluding remarks are given in Section VII.

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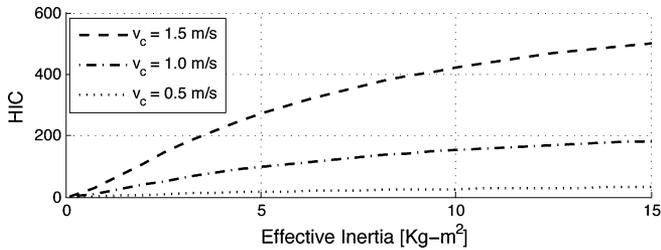


Fig. 1. Simulated HIC of a single-axis manipulator. The simulated link is rigidly coupled to the input drive. Here, V_c is collision velocity.

II. HUMAN-FRIENDLY MANIPULATORS: BACKGROUND AND ANALYSIS

In attempts to guarantee the safety of humans within a shared workspace, much research has been focused on the development of manipulators which are intrinsically safe. That is, manipulators which by means of their mechanical properties can guarantee some level of collision safety in the absence of a controller. To understand the degree of safety one might associate with a manipulator, we may look at the results of an uncontrolled collision through the use of the head injury criterion (HIC) [20]. The HIC along with its variations have long been used by the automotive industry to gauge the severity of collisions. In the field of robotics, it can also be used to gain similar insight. The HIC is defined as

$$\text{HIC} = \max_{t_1, t_2} \left\{ (t_2 - t_1) \left(\frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} a(t) dt \right)^{2.5} \right\} \quad (1)$$

where a is the acceleration of the head (in g's), and t_1 and t_2 are times within the collision selected to maximize the HIC, such that $t_1 < t_2$. An HIC of 100 is the maximum value considered to be nonlife threatening. To gauge how the effective inertia of a link is related to a manipulator's inherent ability to collide safely, we simulate a single-axis robot colliding with a human head (see Fig. 1). As we may have expected, the results of the HIC indicate that a manipulator's safety can be improved by reducing its effective inertia. Thus, a generation of light-weight manipulators was inspired. One of the first manipulators to be designed under the light-weight paradigm was the whole arm manipulator (WAM) [21]. The WAM uses steel cable transmission allowing actuators to be located at the manipulator's base. Another successful implementation is the DLR-III [22]. Using light-weight carbon composites to form its links as well as advanced actuator design integrated with low-weight harmonic reduction gears, allows the DLR-III to attain a fully integrated light-weight design. These approaches however address only half of the problem. Robotic manipulators make use of high-performance servo motors to drive their links. These servo motors produce low output torque, and at high velocity with respect to what is suitable for most robots. To remedy this, gear-reduction systems are most commonly employed. The resulting torque at the link is the actuator torque multiplied by the gear ratio G_r , while the reflected actuator inertia associated with the rotor of the motor is multiplied by G_r^2 . Thus, the effective inertia

experienced by a robotic link can be expressed as

$$J_e = J_\ell + G_r^2 J_r \quad (2)$$

where J_ℓ is the inertia of the link, and J_r is the rotor inertia of the motor. The reflected actuator inertia of a manipulator can in fact be much larger than that of the link [23], thereby contributing a larger share of the inertial load during collisions. In response to this, several novel actuation systems have been proposed which work to decouple the reflected actuator inertia from the link. Receiving considerable attention are actuation systems that introduce compliance into their transmission. series elastic actuator (SEA) [24] accomplishes precisely this by integrating an elastic element between the motor and link. Intuitively, lower coupling stiffness results in collisions producing lower HIC values. The addition of the elastic element however dramatically reduces the controllable bandwidth of the actuator [25]. The integration of SEA devices establish a trade-off between safety and performance as a function of coupling stiffness. The variable stiffness actuator (VSA) [26] was developed to address the stringent safety-performance trade-off characterized by the SEA. Like the SEA, the VSA incorporates an elastic element into its transmission. The VSA however can alter the stiffness of the transmission coupling during task execution. It can be observed from Fig. 1 that at lower velocities, collisions involving stiff manipulators may still occur safely. By dynamically varying the stiffness to be compliant for high velocities, and stiff at low velocities, performance can be improved while maintaining safety.

Chew *et al.* [27] proposed the series damper actuator (SDA) as a means of achieving force/torque control. The SDA is constructed by placing a rotary damper in series with the motor drive. Force/torque control is achieved by controlling the relative angular velocity between the motor drive and the damper output. Similar to the SEA, the SDA has inherent impact absorption properties, which are attributed to the dissipative nature of the series damper. Similarly to the addition of an elastic element, the SDA reduces the actuator bandwidth for decreasing coupling viscosity. Again, a trade-off exists between safety and performance, in this case parameterized by the damping coefficient. (It should be noted that the authors of [27] suggest how MR fluids can be used to vary the damping coefficient). Using a damping element over an elastic element subsequently reduces the order of the system by one. This implies that the SDA is capable of achieving a larger force bandwidth over the SEA.

Variable impedance actuation (VIA) [28] combines both variable elastic and variable damping elements in the transmission. This approach is an extension of the VSA concept. By being able to vary both an elastic and a damping element, it is possible to again recuperate performance during task execution while guaranteeing the safety of humans. The VIA further requires additional actuators to vary coupling parameters.

Another notable variation on the SEA is the distributed macromini actuation approach (DM²) [23]. Actuation of the joint is achieved by the coupling of a low-frequency high-torque SEA with a high-frequency low-torque servo. The high-frequency servo, directly coupled to the joint, is used to actuate the manipulator in a complimentary frequency space to that of the

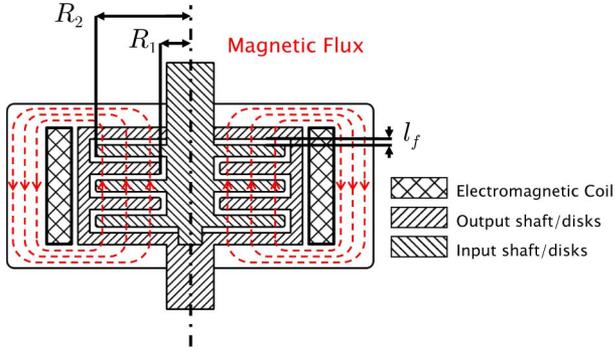


Fig. 2. Cross section of a multidisk style MR clutch and its corresponding magnetic circuit.

184 SEA. In this way, the effective controllable bandwidth of the
 185 manipulator is improved. The low-torque high-frequency servo
 186 is selected such that its output inertia is minimized. Thus, safety
 187 is maintained while performance is improved.

188 III. MR CLUTCH

189 MR fluids are a suspension of micrometer-sized particles in
 190 a carrier fluid. When subjected to a magnetic field, the particles
 191 aggregate into columns aligned in the direction of the field.
 192 Subsequently, the columns act to resist shearing of the fluid
 193 perpendicular to the field. The apparent yield stress of the fluid
 194 is dependant on, and increases with the intensity of the applied
 195 field.

196 Fig. 2 is a cross section of a multidisk style MR fluid clutch.
 197 MR fluid fills the volume between input and output disks. Rotation
 198 of the input shaft causes shearing in the fluid with respect
 199 to the output shaft. By energizing the electromagnetic coil, a
 200 field is induced in the MR fluid altering its apparent viscosity.
 201 The outer casing of the MR clutch acts as the magnetic flux path
 202 required to complete the magnetic circuit. The Bingham viscoplastic
 203 model is commonly used to represent the shear stress of the fluid
 204 as a function of the applied field and shear rate [29].
 205 The model is given by

$$206 \tau = \tau_y(\mathbf{H}) + \eta \frac{dv}{dz}, \quad \tau > \tau_y \quad (3)$$

207 where τ is the shear stress, τ_y is the field-dependant yield stress,
 208 \mathbf{H} is the applied magnetic field intensity, η is the newtonian
 209 viscosity, and dv/dz is the velocity gradient in the direction of
 210 the field. Applying the Bingham viscoplastic model to a clutch,
 211 we define r as the radius from the rotational axis, and l_f as the
 212 thickness of the fluid-filled gap between input and output disks.
 213 In situations where $r \gg l_f$ for $r \in [R_1, R_2]$ (see to Fig. 2), the
 velocity gradient becomes constant. We can then rewrite (3) as

$$214 \tau = \tau_y(\mathbf{H}) + \eta \dot{\gamma}(r), \quad \tau > \tau_y \quad (4)$$

where the shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ is defined as

$$215 \dot{\gamma} = \frac{\omega r}{l_f} \quad (5)$$

216 and ω is the angular velocity between input and output shafts of
 the clutch. The torque produced by a circumferential element at

a radius r is given by

$$217 dT = 2\pi r^2 \tau dr. \quad (6)$$

218 We define a clutch as having N output disks. Substituting (4)
 219 into (6) and integrating across both faces of each output disk,
 220 we arrive at

$$221 T = 2N \int_{R_1}^{R_2} 2\pi \left(\tau_y(\mathbf{H}) r^2 + \eta \frac{\omega r^3}{l_f} \right) dr$$

$$222 = 4N\pi \left(\frac{\tau_y(\mathbf{H})(R_2^3 - R_1^3)}{3} + \frac{\eta\omega(R_2^4 - R_1^4)}{4l_f} \right) \quad (7)$$

223 as the torque transmitted by an N -disk clutch. Data relating
 224 the yield stress τ_y of a fluid to an applied field are generally
 225 published by the manufacturer. The viscosity η of the carrier
 226 fluid is typically in the range of 0.1–0.3 Pas. The maximum
 227 torque transmission capability of an MR clutch is dependent on
 228 the maximum yield stress the material can produce. MR fluids
 229 exhibit saturation in their yield stress at high field strengths. This
 230 is a result of the underlying physics, and limits the amount of
 231 torque a particular MR fluid can transmit in clutch applications.
 232 MR fluids can produce maximum yield stresses typically in the
 233 range of 50–100 kPa [30] depending on their chemistry. MR
 234 fluids respond to an applied field on the order of 1 ms. However,
 the actuation response of an MR clutch becomes delayed due to
 field propagation through the magnetic circuit [31].

235 IV. MR CLUTCH ACTUATORS: INVESTIGATING 236 FIGURES OF MERIT

237 In Section II, we discussed the effects of actuator mass, output
 238 inertia, and output impedance on safety. In this section, we will
 239 present models relating torque to mass, torque to inertia, as well
 240 as the output impedance of (MRA).

241 Several configurations exist in which MR clutches can be uti-
 242 lized to develop an actuation system. The simplest configuration
 243 utilizes a motor to drive an MR clutch, which in turn drives the
 244 joint. To generalize the discussion, we will consider simplified
 245 mechanical models of the MR clutch based on the model pre-
 246 sented in Section III. Note that in this section, we define the
 247 actuator output to be the output of an MR clutch.

248 A. Actuator Inertia

249 MRAs have the characteristic of replacing the reflected rotor
 250 inertia of the motor with the reflected inertia of the clutch output
 251 shaft and disks. The benefit of MRAs is their high torque to
 252 output inertia ratio as compared to servo motors. To show this,
 253 we approximate the radius of the output shaft to be equivalent
 254 to R_1 . The moment of inertia of a single output disk, J_d is given
 255 by

$$256 J_d = \frac{1}{2} \pi \rho_d l_d (R_2^4 - R_1^4) \quad (8)$$

257 where ρ_d is the mass density of the disk material, l_d is the
 258 thickness of the disk (commonly between 0.5 to 1 mm), and
 259 R_1 and R_2 define the minor and major radii, respectively, of
 the output disk. If we consider the torque transmitted solely

260 by the field-dependant yield stress of the MR fluid, the torque
261 transmission of a single disk is then given by

$$T_d = \frac{4}{3} \pi \tau_y (R_2^3 - R_1^3). \quad (9)$$

262 Furthermore, if we consider R_1 to be small, i.e., $R_2 \gg R_1$, then
263 the contribution of the shaft region to both (8) and (9) is also
264 small. By allowing R_1 to equal zero, we can approximate the
265 torque–inertia ratio of a single disk to be

$$\alpha = \frac{T_d}{J_d} = \frac{8}{3} \frac{\tau_y}{\rho_d l_d R_2}. \quad (10)$$

266 As observed, the ratio becomes less favorable as R_2 increases.
267 This however is not the final measure that dictates the actuators
268 suitability. To grasp the overall effects of increasing radius, and
269 hence, torque capacity, the reflected inertia at the joint should be
270 consider. The reason for this is that as radius increases along with
271 torque capacity, the gear ratio required to amplify the actuator's
272 torque decreases. As the actuator inertia multiplies the square
273 of the gear ratio to arrive at the reflected inertia at the joint,
274 the analysis becomes important. The reflected inertia of the MR
275 clutch at the manipulator joint is given by

$$J'_c = \frac{1}{2} \pi \rho_d l_d N (R_2^4 - R_1^4) G_r^2 \quad (11)$$

276 where we have included N to multiply the inertia by the number
277 of disks in the clutch. The gear ratio G_r is defined as

$$G_r = \frac{T'_c}{T_c} \quad (12)$$

278 where T'_c is the desired torque at the joint, and T_c is the output
279 torque of the clutch. Rearranging (9) to show the outer radius
280 R_2 as a function of the clutch output torque yields

$$R_2 = \left(\frac{3}{4} \frac{T_c}{\pi \tau_y N} + R_1^3 \right)^{1/3}. \quad (13)$$

281 We can then write (13) representing the reflected inertia of a
282 MR clutch at the manipulator joint as a function of the clutch
283 torque

$$J'_c = \frac{1}{2} \pi \rho_d l_d N \left(\left(\frac{3}{4} \frac{T_c}{\pi \tau_y N} + R_1^3 \right)^{4/3} - R_1^4 \right) \left(\frac{T'_c}{T_c} \right)^2. \quad (14)$$

284 Fig. 3 shows the values of reflected actuator inertia versus
285 output torque for the MR clutch. The plot also includes equiva-
286 lent values for commercially available low-inertia servo motors.
287 It is evident that the MR clutch demonstrates superior output in-
288 ertia characteristics over the low-inertia servo motors. We note
289 that the developed torque to inertia relationship improves dra-
290 matically at larger values of output torque.

291 B. Mass of MR Clutch

292 In this section, we develop torque to mass relationships for the
293 MR clutch. While the relationships are developed using simpli-
294 fied geometric models, they serve to establish the order in which
295 the clutch mass compares to that of servo motors, as well as the
296 rate at which clutch mass increases with respect to transmittable
297 torque capacity. To develop a relationship between clutch mass

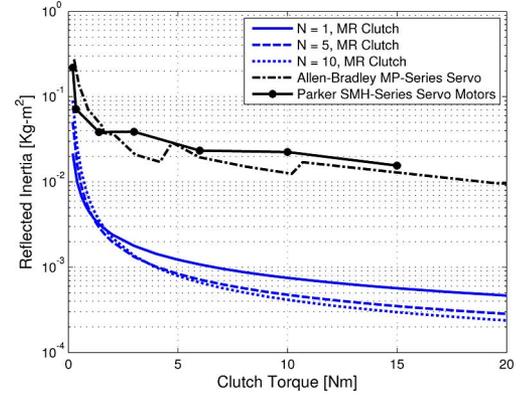


Fig. 3. Reflected inertia versus output torque for the MR clutch (see Table I) and commercially available low-inertia servo motors. ($T'_c = 50$ Nm).

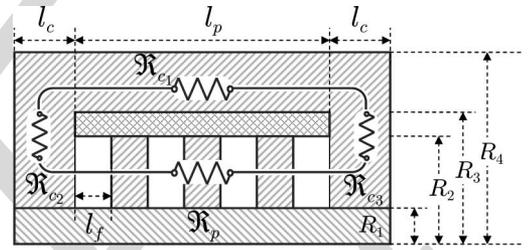


Fig. 4. Simplified MR clutch model. The electromagnetic coil is contained between R_2 and R_3 , and R_4 defines the outer surface of the ferrous core.

298 and torque capacity for MR fluid clutches, we consider the sim-
299 plified geometric model detailed in Fig. 4. We will solve for
300 required parametric values through the application of magnetic
301 circuit analysis. We divide the reluctance of the core \mathcal{R}_c into
302 three sections, namely \mathcal{R}_{c1} , \mathcal{R}_{c2} , and \mathcal{R}_{c3} . The symmetric ge-
303 ometry of the model dictates the reluctance \mathcal{R}_{c2} to be equivalent
304 to that of \mathcal{R}_{c3} . Thus, we define the reluctance of the core to be

$$\mathcal{R}_c = \mathcal{R}_{c1} + 2 \mathcal{R}_{c23} \quad (15)$$

305 where $\mathcal{R}_{c23} = \mathcal{R}_{c2} = \mathcal{R}_{c3}$. We have defined a clutch by the num-
306 ber of output disks N coupled to the output shaft. For N output
307 disks, a clutch is required to have $N - 1$ input disks, and a total
308 of $2N$ MR fluid interface gaps positioned between input and
309 output disks. In the simplified model of Fig. 4, we define both
310 geometric and material properties of the input and output disks
311 to be identical. The disk pack assembly thus contains $2N - 1$
312 disks and $2N$ MR fluid interface gaps. The reluctance of the
313 disk pack assembly \mathcal{R}_p can then be written as

$$\mathcal{R}_p = (2N - 1) \mathcal{R}_d + 2N \mathcal{R}_f \quad (16)$$

314 where \mathcal{R}_d and \mathcal{R}_f are the reluctance of a single disk and single
315 MR fluid interface gap, respectively. The reluctance of a material
316 is given by $\mathcal{R} = l / (\mu_0 \mu_r A)$, where l is the mean length of the
317 flux path through the material, $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ H/m is the
318 permeability of free space, μ_r is the relative permeability of
319 the material, and A is the cross-sectional area of the material
320 perpendicular to the flux path. Assuming that the mean flux path
321 through any of the circuit members lies at its geometric center,

TABLE I
PARAMETER VALUES FOR SIMPLIFIED MR CLUTCH MODEL

Parameter	Symbol	Value
Disk thickness	l_d	1.0 [mm]
Fluid gap thickness	l_f	0.5 [mm]
Disk minor radius	R_1	10 [mm]
Max operating yield stress	τ_y^*	40 [kpa]
Coil current density	J_w	2.5×10^6 [A/m ²]

we can then derive the reluctance of the individual components of the simplified clutch model to be

$$\mathfrak{R}_{c_1} = \frac{l_p + l_c}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} \pi (R_4^2 - R_3^2)}$$

$$\mathfrak{R}_{c_{23}} = \int_{R_2 + R_1/2}^{R_4 + R_3/2} \frac{dr}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} (2\pi r) l_c} = \frac{\ln(R_4 + R_3/R_2 + R_1)}{2\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} \pi l_c}$$

$$\mathfrak{R}_d = \frac{l_d}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} \pi (R_2^2 - R_1^2)} \quad \mathfrak{R}_f = \frac{l_f}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_f} \pi (R_2^2 - R_1^2)}. \quad (17)$$

Here, μ_{r_s} is the permeability of steel, the material used for both the core and disks, μ_{r_f} is the permeability of the MR fluid, l_d is the thickness of a single disk, l_f is the distance between input and output disks forming the MR fluid gap, l_c is the thickness of the equivalent core sections, and $l_p = (2N - 1)l_d + 2Nl_f$ is the length of the disk pack. The flux ϕ in the circuit is then given by

$$\phi = \frac{I}{\mathfrak{R}_c + \mathfrak{R}_p} = \frac{l_p(R_3 - R_2)J_w}{\mathfrak{R}_c + \mathfrak{R}_p} \quad (18)$$

where I is the total electric current through the cross section of the magnetic coil, and J_w is the current density of the coil cross section. The magnetic field intensity \mathbf{H} at any point within the circuit is related to the circuit flux ϕ by

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{\phi}{\mu_0 \mu_r A} \quad (19)$$

where again, μ_r and A are, respectively, the relative permeability and cross sectional area of the material at which the magnetic-field intensity \mathbf{H} is to be determined. We now define the parameter τ_y^* as the maximum yield stress at which the MR fluid is to operate. Using data provided by the MR fluid manufacturer relating the yield stress of the fluid to the applied magnetic field, we define \mathbf{H}^* as the magnetic-field intensity in the MR fluid required to produce the yield stress τ_y^* . Rearranging (19), and substituting the appropriate MR fluid geometric and material values, we define ϕ^* as the flux required in the circuit to produce \mathbf{H}^* in the MR fluid

$$\phi^* = \mu_0 \mu_{r_f} \pi (R_2^2 - R_1^2) \mathbf{H}^*. \quad (20)$$

R_2 is uniquely defined by the parameters T_c , N , R_1 , and τ_y^* [refer to (13)]. Thus, for the given set of fixed parameters given in Table I, we solve for the values of R_3 , R_4 , and l_c that satisfy (18) for $\phi = \phi^*$, while simultaneously minimizing the clutch

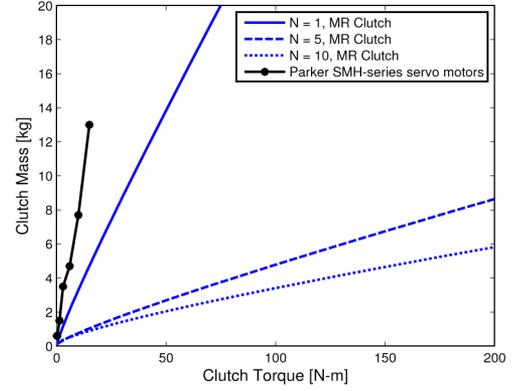


Fig. 5. Mass of simplified clutch models versus torque capacity (calculated using MR fluid characteristics of Lord Corp., MR-132DG MR fluid [32]).

mass m_{MRC} given by

$$m_{\text{MRC}} = m_c + m_p + m_s + m_w$$

$$m_c = \pi [(R_4^2 - R_3^2) l_p + 2 (R_4^2 - R_1^2) l_c] \rho_s$$

$$m_p = \pi [(2N - 1) l_d \rho_s + 2N l_f \rho_f] (R_2^2 - R_1^2)$$

$$m_w = \pi (R_3^2 - R_2^2) l_p \rho_{\text{cu}} \quad m_s = \pi R_1^2 (l_p + 2l_c) \rho_{\text{al}} \quad (21)$$

where m_c is the mass of the core, m_p is the mass of the disk pack assembly which includes the MR fluid, m_s is the mass of the shaft, and m_w is the mass of the magnetic coil. In (21), ρ_s , ρ_f , ρ_{cu} , and ρ_{al} are the mass densities of steel, MR fluid, copper, and aluminum, respectively. Fig. 5 shows the torque to mass relationship of the simplified MR clutch model and compares it to a commercially available servo motor. We note that due to the mass overhead associated with the material required to form the magnetic circuit, the torque to mass ratio of the MR clutch is less favorable at very low values N . In the developed model, we observe superior characteristics over the commercially available servo motor.

C. Output Impedance

The output impedance of an actuator can be defined as

$$Z(s) = \frac{F_l(s)}{X_l(s)} \quad (22)$$

where $F_l(s)$ is the force experienced by the load and $X_l(s)$ is the displacement of the load. Actuators that limit or reduce their impedance, especially at higher frequencies, offer a higher degree of safety over those that do not. Within the controllable bandwidth, impedance can be actively reduced by control action. However, above the controllable bandwidth, the impedance is dominated by the open-loop characteristics of the actuator and link. To form a comparison of the intrinsic properties of human safe actuators, we consider the output impedance in the absence of control. This is intended to represent the open-loop characteristics resulting from collisions occurring above the control bandwidth. Fig. 6 shows a schematic representation of the MRA and SEA models under consideration here. In this scenario, both

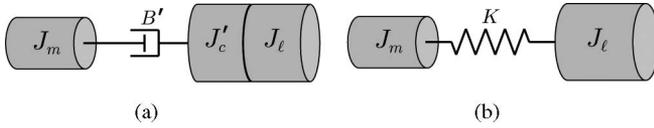


Fig. 6. Model schematic of unpowered (a) MRA, and (b) SEA.

377 motor and clutch are unpowered, allowing us to model the clutch
 378 as a damper and inertial load. J_m is the inertia of the motor for
 379 both the MRA and SEA, K is the spring constant of the SEA,
 380 B'_c is the damping coefficient of the MR clutch reflected to the
 381 link, J'_c is the output inertia of the MR clutch reflected to the
 382 link, and J_ℓ is the inertia of the link. The damping coefficient
 383 in the MR clutch is determined by the Newtonian viscosity of
 384 the MR fluid (the viscosity at zero field) as well as the clutch
 385 geometry. The output impedance of the SEA is given by

$$Z_{\text{SEA}} = J_\ell s^2 + \frac{K J_m s^2}{J_m s^2 + K}. \quad (23)$$

386 The value of the link inertia J_ℓ for the purpose of discussing the
 387 characteristics of the SEA is somewhat arbitrary, and it is, thus,
 388 not uncommon to disregard it (allowing J_ℓ to equal zero). This
 389 results in the properties of the SEA being characterized by the
 390 second term only. In this circumstance, the output impedance
 391 approaches the value of the spring constant K at high frequen-
 392 cies. It is this property of the SEA to limit output impedance
 393 above the controllable bandwidth that intrinsically insures safe
 394 interaction forces as well as impact loads. The output impedance
 395 of the MRA is given as

$$Z_{\text{MRA}} = (J'_c + J_\ell) s^2 + \frac{B'_c J_m s^2}{J_m s + B'_c}. \quad (24)$$

396 A fair comparison would dictate if we once more disregard the
 397 link inertia J_ℓ . While the second term increases (approximately)
 398 proportional to the reflected damping coefficient B'_c , at higher
 399 frequencies it is the reflected inertia of the clutch J'_c in the
 400 first term that dominates the dynamics of the output impedance.
 401 Noting that the output impedance of the MRA is not limited,
 402 but rather continues to grow at high frequencies, seemingly, it
 403 would not appear that the MRA poses the intrinsic safety char-
 404 acteristics of the SEA. However, to fairly evaluate the deficiency
 405 of the MRA in this respect, it is instructive to consider practi-
 406 cal examples to establish the context in which the SEA offers
 407 superior safety. If we reconsider the actuator models to include
 408 the inertia of the link, for both the SEA and MRA, the inertial
 409 impedance represented in the first terms will dominate the out-
 410 put impedances at higher frequencies. The output impedance
 411 of the MRA can thus approach that of the SEA if $J'_c \ll J_\ell$. To
 412 demonstrate the conditions in which we can satisfy $J'_c \ll J_\ell$,
 413 we consider an applications requiring 50 Nm at the link. From
 414 the values presented in Fig. 3, we can expect that the reflected
 415 inertia of an MRA satisfying the 50-Nm requirement, would
 416 be on the order of 10^{-3} kg m^2 . We may then prescribe a lower
 417 bound link inertia on the order of $J_\ell = 10^{-2} \text{ kg m}^2$, and one
 418 order of magnitude larger than J'_c , the result of which being
 419 that $(J_\ell + J'_c) \approx J_\ell$. To put the values into perspective, we can
 420 express this lower bound as a link modeled by a point mass of

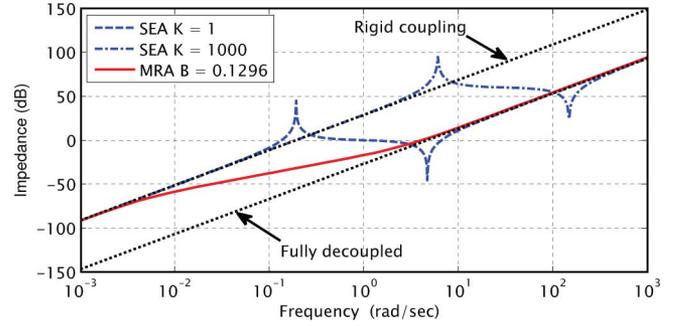


Fig. 7. Simulated output impedance for SEA and MRA. Values obtained from experimental MRA setup: $J_m = 26.9 \text{ kg m}^2$; $J'_c = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg m}^2$; $J_\ell = 0.045 \text{ kg m}^2$; $B = 0.1296 \text{ N s m}^{-1}$. MRA produces 75-Nm output.

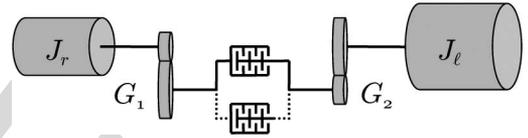


Fig. 8. DASA: solid line represents single clutch configuration, dotted line represents connection to second clutch present only in antagonistic configuration.

250 g at a radius of 20 cm. Links having inertias above this lower 421
 bound could then be driven by either MRA or SEA and exhibit 422
 nearly identical inertial impedances. In the application region of 423
 50 Nm, it is reasonable to expect that most links will have inertias 424
 larger than our defined lower bound. The implication being that 425
 an SEA would not provide a safety improvement over an MRA 426
 in the stated application region. It must be pointed out that we 427
 have assumed the values presented in Fig. 3, which have been 428
 computed from idealized models, are realistically achievable. 429
 Fig. 7 shows simulated output impedances for both an MRA 430
 and SEA. Values for the motor, MR clutch, and link inertias, as 431
 well as clutch damping coefficient were obtained from an experi- 432
 mental MRA setup (discussed later in greater detail). Using 433
 these values, the output impedance of the MRA is simulated and 434
 compared to that of an SEA. We see that in this circumstance, 435
 the MRA demonstrates superior output impedance characteris- 436
 tics over that of the SEA. This is complimented by the superior 437
 performance provided by the MRA. 438

V. DISTRIBUTED ACTIVE SEMIACTIVE ACTUATION 439

In this section, we propose an actuation technique that lever- 440
 ages the unique properties of MRAs. The proposed technique 441
 is unique in which we attempt to reconcile safety, performance, 442
 and complexity into a feasible solution. The distributed active 443
 semiactive (DASA) actuation approach locates a driving motor 444
 (the active actuator) at the base of the robot, and a semiactive MR 445
 clutch at the joint (see to Fig. 8). The gear ratios G_1 and G_2 are 446
 balanced to give the desired mass, and reflected output inertia 447
 at the link. Reducing G_1 reduces the requirements of the clutch 448
 transmission torque, which thus reduces the mass of the clutch, 449
 however, the reflected output inertia is inevitably increased as 450
 G_2 must then be increased to compensate. In Section IV, we 451
 have shown how actuating a joint via an MR clutch can reduce 452

mass and reflected output inertia over conventional servo motors. The impact on safety is immediately appreciated as the effective inertia of the link is instantly reduced. This not only improves manipulator performance, but further allows a manipulator to operate at higher velocities while maintaining safe HIC values in the event of a collision. Moreover, the clutch itself is back drivable, and can be thought of as exhibiting the properties of an ideal torque source. This is an important characteristic for human-friendly actuators as it facilitates impedance control. While motors themselves are also intrinsically back drivable, the high-ratio-gear reductions they require are often not. Thus, highly performing low-weight robots, which implement low mass motors at the expense of high-ratio-gear reductions rely on torque sensors in the control loop to electronically implement back-drivable behavior. MR clutches possess a superior torque to mass ratios over their servo motor counterparts, and thus can be designed to require much lower reduction ratios, if not developed as direct-drive components, either way retaining their intrinsic back-drivability. MR clutches have the added benefit of uniform torque transmission independent of armature position, unlike servo motors, which suffer from nonlinearities such as cogging torque. Relocating the driving motor to the base of a robot in order to reduce the mass at the link is not a new concept. However, it has been a restrictive practice as the newly required transmission responsible for bringing mechanical power from the base to the joint has commonly introduced unwanted friction and compliance, which have reduced performance, and complicated the control system. The DASA implementation however can be controlled to operate in a region in which torque transmission is relatively immune to perturbation in the relative angular velocity ω within the clutch, effectively allowing the clutch to act as a mechanical power filter. This characteristic which will be explained momentarily allows the DASA system to function with less than ideal mechanical transmission while maintaining the performance and characteristics of a “stiff” transmission at the joint. To explain this, we consider that the the Bingham model is accurate for describing the rheology of the fluid for shear stress τ above the field-dependant yield stress τ_y , as expressed in (3). It is this “Bingham region” in which we wish the clutch to operate in order to benefit from the aforementioned characteristics. Below the yield stress τ_y , however, the fluid exhibits newtonian characteristics, i.e., to say that τ grows with a nonnegligible proportionality to the shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ (for a more in-depth analysis see [33]). We can thus attribute a field-dependant shear rate threshold $\dot{\gamma}^*$ below which the fluid exhibits newtonian characteristics, and above which, the Bingham model applies. To maintain the clutch in the Bingham region, the fluid at any radius r within the clutch must maintain a shear rate above $\dot{\gamma}^*$. To guarantee this condition, we define the field-dependant angular velocity ω^* , the threshold above which operation in the Bingham region is ensured as

$$\omega^* = \frac{\dot{\gamma}^* l_f}{R_1}. \quad (25)$$

We come to (25) by rearranging (5) and substituting r with its minimum value R_1 , the critical radius at which the lowest shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ occurs. The control strategy should therefore attempt to

avoid entering the Newtonian region by controlling the motor angular velocity ω_m to satisfy the condition

$$|\omega_m| = |\omega_j - \omega^*| + \epsilon^* \quad (26)$$

where ω_j is the angular velocity of the joint, and ϵ^* is a field-dependant error margin selected to ensure that the dynamics of the motor have enough time to react to quickly varying values of ω_j . ϵ^* must be large enough to ensure $\omega \geq \omega^*$ under all dynamic situations, however, exact calculation of ϵ^* may be difficult as there is a reliance on empirical data associated with the dynamics of the joint/link. Care must be taken, however, to avoid unnecessary power dissipation, which for a clutch is defined as $P_d = T\omega$. Because ω tracks $\omega^* + \epsilon^*$, the value selected for ϵ^* cannot be arbitrarily large. Crossing into the Newtonian region is required to alter the direction of the torque transmitted to the link when utilizing a single clutch to implement the DASA system. As the motor must change the direction of its output rotation, the clutch torque transmission momentarily enters a dead zone. This has the potential of creating a substantial backlash effect.

A. Antagonistic DASA

An antagonistic configuration of the DASA system (see Fig. 8) is intended to increase performance, and rectify the shortcomings of the single-clutch DASA configuration. The motor drives the input to two clutches, however in opposite directions with respect to one another. The antagonistic output of the two clutches is coupled to the link. By energizing one of the two clutches, torque can be transmitted in either the clockwise or counterclockwise direction. Thus, the antagonistic configuration allows for torque transmission to the joint to alter direction without altering the direction of the motor output, thereby, eliminating the backlash introduced by the single-clutch DASA. Such devices have been developed with electro-rheological (ER) fluids [34]. Maintaining rotation of the motor shaft, the bandwidth of the antagonistic-DASA output is limited by charging and discharging of the magnetic field required to activate the clutch. If we label the two clutches of an antagonistic DASA assembly as \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 , then the motor’s angular velocity should track

$$\omega_m = \max\{|\omega_j - \omega_1^*|, |\omega_2^* - \omega_j|\} + \epsilon^* \quad (27)$$

to avoid entering the Newtonian region of operation in either clutch. ω_1^* , and ω_2^* are the angular velocity of the Bingham region thresholds for clutches \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 , respectively. Note that in our convention, clutch \mathcal{C}_2 has its input reversed in direction with respect to clutch \mathcal{C}_1 , i.e.,

$$\omega_1 = \omega_j - \omega_m \quad \omega_2 = \omega_j + \omega_m. \quad (28)$$

The torque production for an antagonistic-DASA system operating in the Bingham region is then given by

$$T_{AD} = T_1(\mathbf{H}_1) + T_2(\mathbf{H}_2) - \frac{2\pi\eta|\omega_j|}{l_f} (R_2^4 - R_1^4) \quad (29)$$

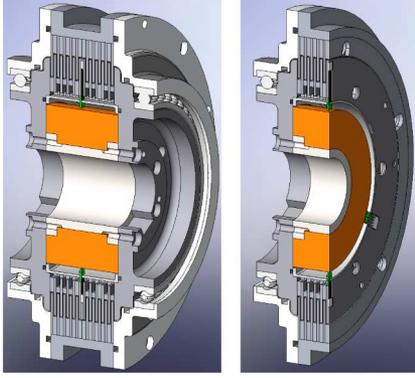


Fig. 9. Sectional views of prototype MR clutch.

where T_1 and T_2 are the field-dependant torques produced by clutches \mathcal{C}_1 , and \mathcal{C}_2 , respectively, given by

$$T_i = \frac{4\pi}{3} \tau_y(\mathbf{H}_i) (R_2^3 - R_1^3) \text{sgn}(\omega_i), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (30)$$

where \mathbf{H}_1 and \mathbf{H}_2 are the fields produced in clutches \mathcal{C}_1 , and \mathcal{C}_2 , respectively. Note that the individual viscous torque contributions of \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 negate each other at the joint when $\omega_j = 0$. Viscosity of this class of fluids does not always obey ideal models. The antagonistic configuration can mitigate some nonlinearities which would otherwise have to be compensated for by the controller.

VI. PERFORMANCE VALIDATION OF A PROTOTYPE MR CLUTCH

In this section, we present results obtained by experimentation with a prototype MR clutch which we have designed and constructed (see Fig. 9). The configuration of the prototype MR clutch deviates from the model of Section IV. The magnetic coil of the prototype is located radially inward of the clutch pack in a “coil-in” configuration, as opposed to the coil-out configuration previously discussed. Coupling the coil to the output shaft has the intended effect of reducing clutch mass, however comes at the expense of increasing output inertia. Design of the prototype clutch is partially automated using the optimization process discussed in Section IV-B, where model equations have been updated to reflect the change in configuration. The method returns values for the dimensional parameters that minimize the clutch mass for a given design torque. The prototype MR clutch was specified with a design torque of 120 Nm. The dimensional parameters returned by the optimization process were used as the basis for practical design. Table II compares the output torque, inertia, and mass of the physical prototype MR clutch to the optimized design model. A large discrepancy exists between the modeled and actual torque. The discrepancy results primarily due to deviations in the physical design from the geometric model used in the optimization. Practical design features required for fastening and wire access are omitted from the model. The optimization produces geometries in which flux members enter magnetic saturation at the magnitude of circuit flux corresponding to the specified design torque of the clutch. Removal of ferromagnetic material from the optimized geom-

TABLE II
COMPARISON BETWEEN PROTOTYPE AND MODELED MR CLUTCH, AS WELL AS COMMERCIALY AVAILABLE SERVOMOTORS

	Prototype MR Clutch		Servomotors		
	Coil-out Configuration	Model	Actual	Parker SMH-100	Maxon EC60
Output Torque[Nm]	75	120	75	6.0	0.83
Mass[kg]	2.8	4.7	4.5	4.7	2.5
Inertia $\times 10^3$ [kg-m ²]	0.19	2.8	5.0	0.34	0.083
Reflected					
Inertia $\times 10^3$ [kg-m ²] [†]	-	-	2.22	23.3	302

[†] Reflected torque $T_c^e = 50$ Nm.

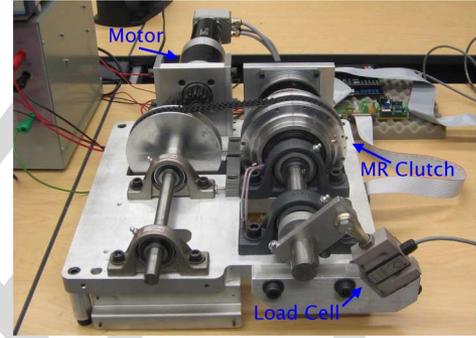


Fig. 10. Experimental setup used to verify the prototype MR clutch.

etry subsequently results in premature saturation of the circuit, limiting the output torque of the clutch.

Much of our analysis prior to this section is based on the coil-out configuration model of Section IV-B. To add perspective, we compare this model to the prototype MR clutch. The values for the coil-out configuration shown in Table II are produced with the geometric model and procedure described in Section IV-B, where the output torque is specified to match the constructed MR clutch and not the design value. The coil-out model does not consider any practical design requirements, such as bearings, seals, and mechanical coupling of the disks. In this regard, the model represents an ideal scenario, or baseline for the achievable characteristics in its configuration. The comparison indicates that there is room for improvement of the prototype MR clutch. Ideally, mass could be reduced by a third, while the output inertia might be improved by an order of magnitude. Table II compares the prototype MR clutch to two commercially available servo motors. The servo motors are chosen to have comparable mass to the prototype MR clutch. The output inertia of the servo motors are between one and two orders of magnitude lower than that of the MR clutch. However, when we consider a hypothetical application requiring a 50-Nm output, the prototype MR clutch possesses the more favorable reflected inertia by at least an order of magnitude.

To assess its performance characteristics, the clutch is mounted to an experimentation platform (see Fig. 10) that incorporates an angular encoder (Renishaw RM22I) to read the position of the output shaft. A static load cell (Transducer Techniques SBO-1K) mounts to the output shaft for torque experiments. A servo motor (Maxon EC 60) provides the rotational input to the MR clutch. A PID controller is implemented on a

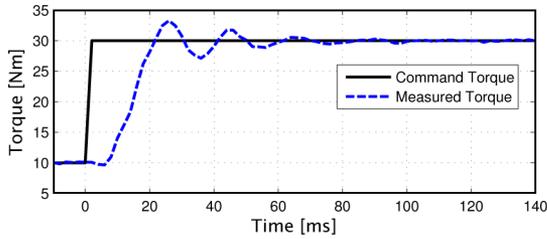


Fig. 11. Torque tracking of step reference.

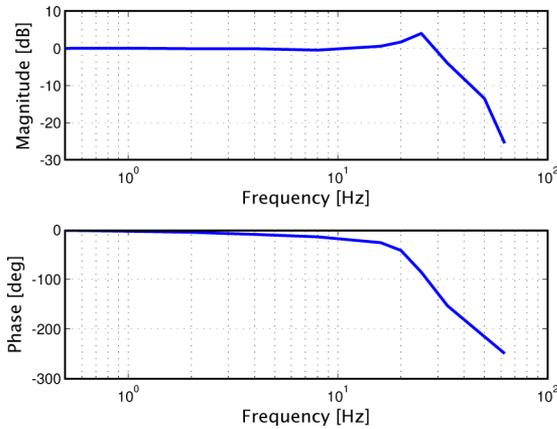


Fig. 12. Frequency response of the prototype MR clutch.

618 desktop computer that communicates with the experimentation
 619 platform via a National Instruments (NI USB-6229) multifunction
 620 I/O device. The output signal from the PID controller forms
 621 the input signal to the current amplifier of the MR clutch, while
 622 the rotational velocity of the motor is kept constant.

623 Fig. 11 shows the closed-loop response to a step input. The
 624 rise time is determined to be approximately 10 ms. The fre-
 625 quency response and dynamic characteristics are examined by
 626 measuring the torque response to a sinusoidal reference signal
 627 and initiating a frequency sweep at 0.5 Hz. Fig. 12 shows the
 628 frequency response of the system. The resulting 3-dB actuator
 629 bandwidth is measured to be approximately 30 Hz. Fig. 13
 630 presents a set of four time domain measurements from the
 631 sweep. Beginning at 0.5 Hz, we note excellent overlay of the
 632 measured signal with that of the command. As the reference
 633 frequency is increased toward and above the actuator band-
 634 width, we note that the response remains very smooth and as well
 635 retains the shape of the command signal quite well. Clean and
 636 predictable torque outputs are an asset to the development of
 637 controls and sensorization schemes that are required to monitor
 638 and control contact forces between manipulators and humans.

639 Trajectory tracking experiments were conducted using the
 640 angular encoder to form the feedback signal. The motor output
 641 was held at a constant rotational velocity. A 50-cm long arm
 642 constructed of medium density plastic was coupled to the out-
 643 put shaft. A counter weight of approximately 2 kg was mounted
 644 to the end of arm. The results shown in Fig. 14 indicate the ca-
 645 pacity of the MR clutch in this arrangement to achieve favorable
 646 precision in position control tasks. Small fluctuation errors in
 647 the static portions of the trajectory demonstrate the capability

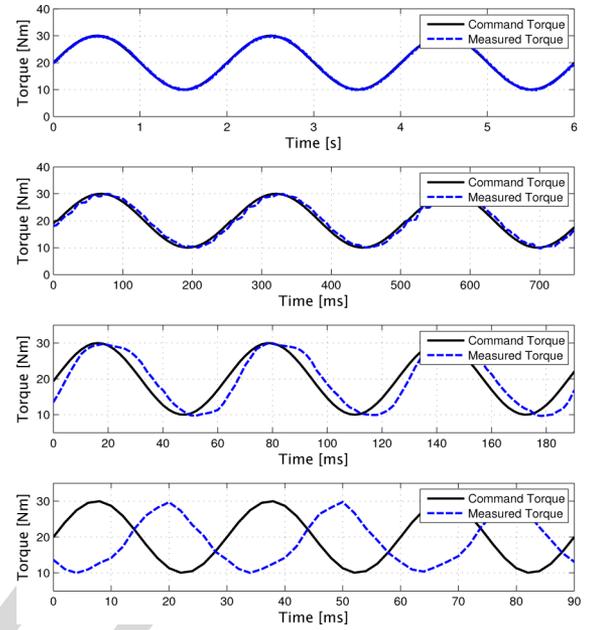


Fig. 13. Torque tracking of a sinusoidal references at frequencies of 0.5, 4.0, 16.0, and 33.3 Hz (from top to bottom).

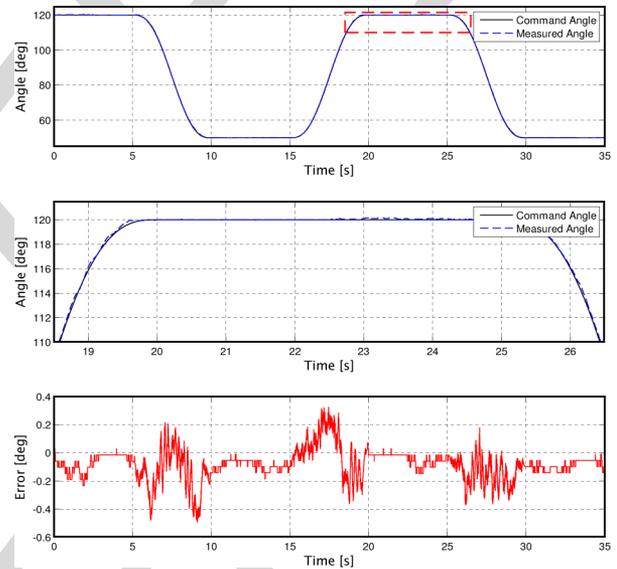


Fig. 14. Position tracking of a trajectory reference. The center plot magnifies the trajectory in the region marked by the dotted red bounding box.

of the MR clutch to suppress fluctuations present in the input
 drive.

VII. CONCLUSION

MR fluids exhibit promising characteristics for applications
 in robotics. Specifically, they are well-suited for actuation sys-
 tems developed to interact physically with humans. As we have
 shown, MR-clutch-based actuators demonstrate excellent torque
 to mass, and torque to inertia characteristics. This is especially
 evident for clutches having large torque capacities. This cre-
 ates a niche opportunity for MR-based actuators to be devel-
 oped into light-weight direct-drive (DD) systems. Light-weight

DD systems exhibit several characteristics that are sought after for human-friendly manipulators, namely: intrinsic back-drivability, low output inertia, superior performance and bandwidth, as well as high precision in the control of output torque. Furthermore, MR-based actuators can potentially reduce system complexity. Potentially, the accuracy of torque transmission models in such systems could allow for high fidelity torque control without the requirement for torque sensors at the joints. This is in contrast to the increasingly complex actuation solutions proposed to deal with physical human interaction.

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QUERIES

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- Q2. Author: Please check if edit done to sentence “ MR fluids can produce maximum yield stresses. . .” is OK. 798
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On the Feasibility and Suitability of MR Fluid Clutches in Human-Friendly Manipulators

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Abstract—An investigation into the suitability of magneto-rheological (MR) clutches in the context of developing feasible actuation solutions for physical human–robot interaction is presented. Contact and collision forces pose great danger to humans, and thus, the primary criteria for actuator development is safety. While the majority of existing solutions make use of mechanical compliance in some form, in this paper, we will approach the problem by considering the use of MR clutches for coupling the motor drive to the joint. The suitability of MR actuators to provide an intrinsically safe actuation platform is investigated by modeling the torque to mass, and torque to inertia ratios, as well as output impedance of the MR clutch. These figures are compared to commercially available servo motors as well as mechanically compliant based human-safe actuator models. The MR clutch is analytically shown to have superior mass and inertia characteristics over servo motors while either matching or surpassing the intrinsic safety characteristics of the modeled compliant actuator. The implementation of MR-clutch-based actuation systems is investigated by examining the distributed active semiactive approach. The proposed approach is discussed in terms of mechanical as well controller complexity and relates the investigation to the feasibility of practical implementations. Performance characteristics are empirically investigated by experimentation with a prototype MR clutch constructed for this purpose. The prototype MR clutch can transmit torque up to 75 Nm and has a bandwidth of 30 Hz. Torque to mass and torque to inertia ratios of the prototype MR clutch are substantially greater than that of comparable servo motors. Conclusions drawn from this investigation indicate that indeed MR clutch actuation approaches can be developed to balance safety and performance while maintaining reasonable system complexity.

Index Terms—Human–robot interaction, magneto-rheological (MR) fluids, safety and performance.

I. INTRODUCTION

INCREASINGLY, we are witnessing a growing number of developments in the field of robotics characterized by their intent to integrate man and machine in a safe and functional

manner [1]–[3]. The suitability of a manipulator to work in close proximity with humans is determined first by the level of safety it can guarantee toward its human counterparts. Guaranteeing safety is a difficult if not impossible exercise as we can rarely guarantee the dependability of the numerous components required to complete a modern manipulator. Add in the human factor, and our task becomes insurmountable. Thus, much focus has been centered on interactive robots that are expected to perform in a safe and dependable manner in unknown and unpredictable environments. Collisions between robots and humans constitute the primary safety concern. Such collisions are responsible for numerous injuries each year [4], despite the existence of barriers and other fail-safe mechanisms. As we move closer toward a shared environment, new approaches to manipulator design are becoming increasingly important. Devices utilizing the unique properties of magneto-rheological (MR) fluids have been developed for robotic applications, however, almost entirely for use in haptic systems [5]–[9]. While it has been suggested in the literature how such devices might be used in a manipulator to improve both safety and performance (i.e., [10], [11]), there appears to be a general reluctance toward adopting such technology as a viable alternative to the current solutions.

Control design and software issues for the manipulators intended to interact with humans also present a set of unique challenges [12]. It is necessary to address safety, not only at the design, but at motion planning and control levels as well. Of high importance are identification and assessment of various sources of danger [13]–[16] as well as obtaining simple but realistic models of the environment and in particular of humans [17], [18]. It is however, beyond the scope of this paper to adequately discuss all subject matters. For more comprehensive review of the software issues see [19].

This paper is organized in seven sections. Section II briefly discusses fundamental issues relating to actuator and manipulator design that have detrimental effects on safety, as well as review the shortcomings of existing solutions. Section III reviews the construction and principles of the MR clutch, used to develop MR actuators (MRAs). Section IV presents an investigation into MR clutch actuators' figures of merit to provide a comparison to differing actuator types. In Section V, we propose an elaborated MR-based actuation approach that leverages the strengths highlighted in the previous section. The goals of the proposed actuation approach are to maintain safe physical interactions with humans, while improving the performance over existing human-safe actuation techniques. Section VI highlights the results of performance validation experiments conducted on a prototype MRA. Finally, concluding remarks are given in Section VII.

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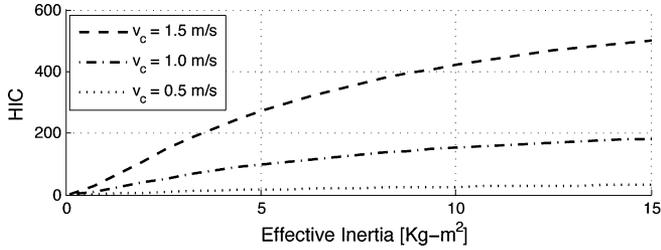


Fig. 1. Simulated HIC of a single-axis manipulator. The simulated link is rigidly coupled to the input drive. Here, V_c is collision velocity.

II. HUMAN-FRIENDLY MANIPULATORS: BACKGROUND AND ANALYSIS

In attempts to guarantee the safety of humans within a shared workspace, much research has been focused on the development of manipulators which are intrinsically safe. That is, manipulators which by means of their mechanical properties can guarantee some level of collision safety in the absence of a controller. To understand the degree of safety one might associate with a manipulator, we may look at the results of an uncontrolled collision through the use of the head injury criterion (HIC) [20]. The HIC along with its variations have long been used by the automotive industry to gauge the severity of collisions. In the field of robotics, it can also be used to gain similar insight. The HIC is defined as

$$\text{HIC} = \max_{t_1, t_2} \left\{ (t_2 - t_1) \left(\frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} a(t) dt \right)^{2.5} \right\} \quad (1)$$

where a is the acceleration of the head (in g's), and t_1 and t_2 are times within the collision selected to maximize the HIC, such that $t_1 < t_2$. An HIC of 100 is the maximum value considered to be nonlife threatening. To gauge how the effective inertia of a link is related to a manipulator's inherent ability to collide safely, we simulate a single-axis robot colliding with a human head (see Fig. 1). As we may have expected, the results of the HIC indicate that a manipulator's safety can be improved by reducing its effective inertia. Thus, a generation of light-weight manipulators was inspired. One of the first manipulators to be designed under the light-weight paradigm was the whole arm manipulator (WAM) [21]. The WAM uses steel cable transmission allowing actuators to be located at the manipulator's base. Another successful implementation is the DLR-III [22]. Using light-weight carbon composites to form its links as well as advanced actuator design integrated with low-weight harmonic reduction gears, allows the DLR-III to attain a fully integrated light-weight design. These approaches however address only half of the problem. Robotic manipulators make use of high-performance servo motors to drive their links. These servo motors produce low output torque, and at high velocity with respect to what is suitable for most robots. To remedy this, gear-reduction systems are most commonly employed. The resulting torque at the link is the actuator torque multiplied by the gear ratio G_r , while the reflected actuator inertia associated with the rotor of the motor is multiplied by G_r^2 . Thus, the effective inertia

experienced by a robotic link can be expressed as

$$J_e = J_\ell + G_r^2 J_r \quad (2)$$

where J_ℓ is the inertia of the link, and J_r is the rotor inertia of the motor. The reflected actuator inertia of a manipulator can in fact be much larger than that of the link [23], thereby contributing a larger share of the inertial load during collisions. In response to this, several novel actuation systems have been proposed which work to decouple the reflected actuator inertia from the link. Receiving considerable attention are actuation systems that introduce compliance into their transmission. series elastic actuator (SEA) [24] accomplishes precisely this by integrating an elastic element between the motor and link. Intuitively, lower coupling stiffness results in collisions producing lower HIC values. The addition of the elastic element however dramatically reduces the controllable bandwidth of the actuator [25]. The integration of SEA devices establish a trade-off between safety and performance as a function of coupling stiffness. The variable stiffness actuator (VSA) [26] was developed to address the stringent safety-performance trade-off characterized by the SEA. Like the SEA, the VSA incorporates an elastic element into its transmission. The VSA however can alter the stiffness of the transmission coupling during task execution. It can be observed from Fig. 1 that at lower velocities, collisions involving stiff manipulators may still occur safely. By dynamically varying the stiffness to be compliant for high velocities, and stiff at low velocities, performance can be improved while maintaining safety.

Chew *et al.* [27] proposed the series damper actuator (SDA) as a means of achieving force/torque control. The SDA is constructed by placing a rotary damper in series with the motor drive. Force/torque control is achieved by controlling the relative angular velocity between the motor drive and the damper output. Similar to the SEA, the SDA has inherent impact absorption properties, which are attributed to the dissipative nature of the series damper. Similarly to the addition of an elastic element, the SDA reduces the actuator bandwidth for decreasing coupling viscosity. Again, a trade-off exists between safety and performance, in this case parameterized by the damping coefficient. (It should be noted that the authors of [27] suggest how MR fluids can be used to vary the damping coefficient). Using a damping element over an elastic element subsequently reduces the order of the system by one. This implies that the SDA is capable of achieving a larger force bandwidth over the SEA.

Variable impedance actuation (VIA) [28] combines both variable elastic and variable damping elements in the transmission. This approach is an extension of the VSA concept. By being able to vary both an elastic and a damping element, it is possible to again recuperate performance during task execution while guaranteeing the safety of humans. The VIA further requires additional actuators to vary coupling parameters.

Another notable variation on the SEA is the distributed macromini actuation approach (DM²) [23]. Actuation of the joint is achieved by the coupling of a low-frequency high-torque SEA with a high-frequency low-torque servo. The high-frequency servo, directly coupled to the joint, is used to actuate the manipulator in a complimentary frequency space to that of the

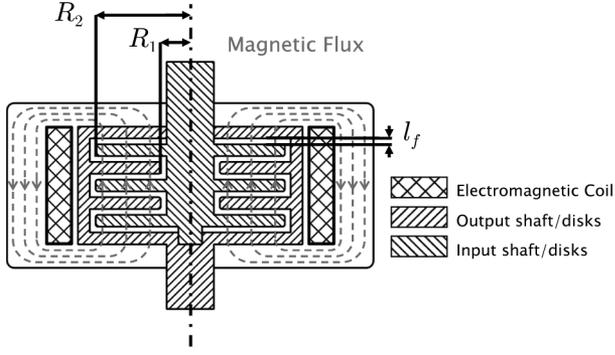


Fig. 2. Cross section of a multidisk style MR clutch and its corresponding magnetic circuit.

184 SEA. In this way, the effective controllable bandwidth of the
 185 manipulator is improved. The low-torque high-frequency servo
 186 is selected such that its output inertia is minimized. Thus, safety
 187 is maintained while performance is improved.

188 III. MR CLUTCH

189 MR fluids are a suspension of micrometer-sized particles in
 190 a carrier fluid. When subjected to a magnetic field, the particles
 191 aggregate into columns aligned in the direction of the field.
 192 Subsequently, the columns act to resist shearing of the fluid
 193 perpendicular to the field. The apparent yield stress of the fluid
 194 is dependant on, and increases with the intensity of the applied
 195 field.

196 Fig. 2 is a cross section of a multidisk style MR fluid clutch.
 197 MR fluid fills the volume between input and output disks. Rotation
 198 of the input shaft causes shearing in the fluid with respect
 199 to the output shaft. By energizing the electromagnetic coil, a
 200 field is induced in the MR fluid altering its apparent viscosity.
 201 The outer casing of the MR clutch acts as the magnetic flux path
 202 required to complete the magnetic circuit. The Bingham viscoplastic
 203 model is commonly used to represent the shear stress of the fluid
 204 as a function of the applied field and shear rate [29].
 205 The model is given by

$$206 \tau = \tau_y(\mathbf{H}) + \eta \frac{dv}{dz}, \quad \tau > \tau_y \quad (3)$$

207 where τ is the shear stress, τ_y is the field-dependant yield stress,
 208 \mathbf{H} is the applied magnetic field intensity, η is the newtonian
 209 viscosity, and dv/dz is the velocity gradient in the direction of
 210 the field. Applying the Bingham viscoplastic model to a clutch,
 211 we define r as the radius from the rotational axis, and l_f as the
 212 thickness of the fluid-filled gap between input and output disks.
 213 In situations where $r \gg l_f$ for $r \in [R_1, R_2]$ (see to Fig. 2), the
 velocity gradient becomes constant. We can then rewrite (3) as

$$214 \tau = \tau_y(\mathbf{H}) + \eta \dot{\gamma}(r), \quad \tau > \tau_y \quad (4)$$

where the shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ is defined as

$$215 \dot{\gamma} = \frac{\omega r}{l_f} \quad (5)$$

216 and ω is the angular velocity between input and output shafts of
 the clutch. The torque produced by a circumferential element at

a radius r is given by

$$217 dT = 2\pi r^2 \tau dr. \quad (6)$$

218 We define a clutch as having N output disks. Substituting (4)
 219 into (6) and integrating across both faces of each output disk,
 220 we arrive at

$$221 T = 2N \int_{R_1}^{R_2} 2\pi \left(\tau_y(\mathbf{H}) r^2 + \eta \frac{\omega r^3}{l_f} \right) dr$$

$$222 = 4N\pi \left(\frac{\tau_y(\mathbf{H})(R_2^3 - R_1^3)}{3} + \frac{\eta\omega(R_2^4 - R_1^4)}{4l_f} \right) \quad (7)$$

223 as the torque transmitted by an N -disk clutch. Data relating
 224 the yield stress τ_y of a fluid to an applied field are generally
 225 published by the manufacturer. The viscosity η of the carrier
 226 fluid is typically in the range of 0.1–0.3 Pas. The maximum
 227 torque transmission capability of an MR clutch is dependent on
 228 the maximum yield stress the material can produce. MR fluids
 229 exhibit saturation in their yield stress at high field strengths. This
 230 is a result of the underlying physics, and limits the amount of
 231 torque a particular MR fluid can transmit in clutch applications.
 232 MR fluids can produce maximum yield stresses typically in the
 233 range of 50–100 kPa [30] depending on their chemistry. MR
 234 fluids respond to an applied field on the order of 1 ms. However,
 the actuation response of an MR clutch becomes delayed due to
 field propagation through the magnetic circuit [31].

235 IV. MR CLUTCH ACTUATORS: INVESTIGATING 236 FIGURES OF MERIT

237 In Section II, we discussed the effects of actuator mass, output
 238 inertia, and output impedance on safety. In this section, we will
 239 present models relating torque to mass, torque to inertia, as well
 240 as the output impedance of (MRA).

241 Several configurations exist in which MR clutches can be uti-
 242 lized to develop an actuation system. The simplest configuration
 243 utilizes a motor to drive an MR clutch, which in turn drives the
 244 joint. To generalize the discussion, we will consider simplified
 245 mechanical models of the MR clutch based on the model pre-
 246 sented in Section III. Note that in this section, we define the
 247 actuator output to be the output of an MR clutch.

248 A. Actuator Inertia

249 MRAs have the characteristic of replacing the reflected rotor
 250 inertia of the motor with the reflected inertia of the clutch output
 251 shaft and disks. The benefit of MRAs is their high torque to
 252 output inertia ratio as compared to servo motors. To show this,
 253 we approximate the radius of the output shaft to be equivalent
 254 to R_1 . The moment of inertia of a single output disk, J_d is given
 255 by

$$256 J_d = \frac{1}{2} \pi \rho_d l_d (R_2^4 - R_1^4) \quad (8)$$

257 where ρ_d is the mass density of the disk material, l_d is the
 258 thickness of the disk (commonly between 0.5 to 1 mm), and
 259 R_1 and R_2 define the minor and major radii, respectively, of
 the output disk. If we consider the torque transmitted solely

260 by the field-dependant yield stress of the MR fluid, the torque
261 transmission of a single disk is then given by

$$T_d = \frac{4}{3} \pi \tau_y (R_2^3 - R_1^3). \quad (9)$$

262 Furthermore, if we consider R_1 to be small, i.e., $R_2 \gg R_1$, then
263 the contribution of the shaft region to both (8) and (9) is also
264 small. By allowing R_1 to equal zero, we can approximate the
265 torque–inertia ratio of a single disk to be

$$\alpha = \frac{T_d}{J_d} = \frac{8}{3} \frac{\tau_y}{\rho_d l_d R_2}. \quad (10)$$

266 As observed, the ratio becomes less favorable as R_2 increases.
267 This however is not the final measure that dictates the actuators
268 suitability. To grasp the overall effects of increasing radius, and
269 hence, torque capacity, the reflected inertia at the joint should be
270 consider. The reason for this is that as radius increases along with
271 torque capacity, the gear ratio required to amplify the actuator's
272 torque decreases. As the actuator inertia multiplies the square
273 of the gear ratio to arrive at the reflected inertia at the joint,
274 the analysis becomes important. The reflected inertia of the MR
275 clutch at the manipulator joint is given by

$$J'_c = \frac{1}{2} \pi \rho_d l_d N (R_2^4 - R_1^4) G_r^2 \quad (11)$$

276 where we have included N to multiply the inertia by the number
277 of disks in the clutch. The gear ratio G_r is defined as

$$G_r = \frac{T'_c}{T_c} \quad (12)$$

278 where T'_c is the desired torque at the joint, and T_c is the output
279 torque of the clutch. Rearranging (9) to show the outer radius
280 R_2 as a function of the clutch output torque yields

$$R_2 = \left(\frac{3}{4} \frac{T_c}{\pi \tau_y N} + R_1^3 \right)^{1/3}. \quad (13)$$

281 We can then write (13) representing the reflected inertia of a
282 MR clutch at the manipulator joint as a function of the clutch
283 torque

$$J'_c = \frac{1}{2} \pi \rho_d l_d N \left(\left(\frac{3}{4} \frac{T_c}{\pi \tau_y N} + R_1^3 \right)^{4/3} - R_1^4 \right) \left(\frac{T'_c}{T_c} \right)^2. \quad (14)$$

284 Fig. 3 shows the values of reflected actuator inertia versus
285 output torque for the MR clutch. The plot also includes equiva-
286 lent values for commercially available low-inertia servo motors.
287 It is evident that the MR clutch demonstrates superior output in-
288 ertia characteristics over the low-inertia servo motors. We note
289 that the developed torque to inertia relationship improves dra-
290 matically at larger values of output torque.

291 B. Mass of MR Clutch

292 In this section, we develop torque to mass relationships for the
293 MR clutch. While the relationships are developed using simpli-
294 fied geometric models, they serve to establish the order in which
295 the clutch mass compares to that of servo motors, as well as the
296 rate at which clutch mass increases with respect to transmittable
297 torque capacity. To develop a relationship between clutch mass

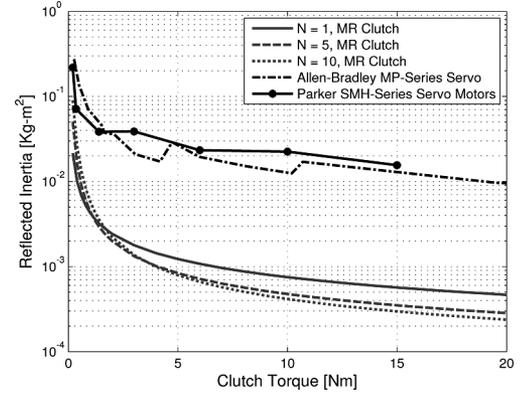


Fig. 3. Reflected inertia versus output torque for the MR clutch (see Table I) and commercially available low-inertia servo motors. ($T'_c = 50$ Nm).

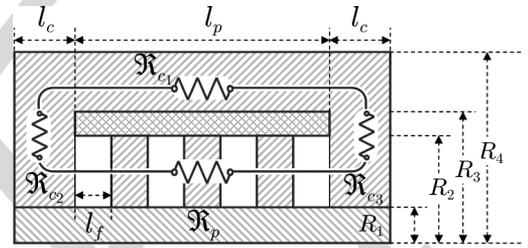


Fig. 4. Simplified MR clutch model. The electromagnetic coil is contained between R_2 and R_3 , and R_4 defines the outer surface of the ferrous core.

298 and torque capacity for MR fluid clutches, we consider the sim-
299 plified geometric model detailed in Fig. 4. We will solve for
300 required parametric values through the application of magnetic
301 circuit analysis. We divide the reluctance of the core \mathcal{R}_c into
302 three sections, namely \mathcal{R}_{c1} , \mathcal{R}_{c2} , and \mathcal{R}_{c3} . The symmetric ge-
303 ometry of the model dictates the reluctance \mathcal{R}_{c2} to be equivalent
304 to that of \mathcal{R}_{c3} . Thus, we define the reluctance of the core to be

$$\mathcal{R}_c = \mathcal{R}_{c1} + 2 \mathcal{R}_{c23} \quad (15)$$

305 where $\mathcal{R}_{c23} = \mathcal{R}_{c2} = \mathcal{R}_{c3}$. We have defined a clutch by the num-
306 ber of output disks N coupled to the output shaft. For N output
307 disks, a clutch is required to have $N - 1$ input disks, and a total
308 of $2N$ MR fluid interface gaps positioned between input and
309 output disks. In the simplified model of Fig. 4, we define both
310 geometric and material properties of the input and output disks
311 to be identical. The disk pack assembly thus contains $2N - 1$
312 disks and $2N$ MR fluid interface gaps. The reluctance of the
313 disk pack assembly \mathcal{R}_p can then be written as

$$\mathcal{R}_p = (2N - 1) \mathcal{R}_d + 2N \mathcal{R}_f \quad (16)$$

314 where \mathcal{R}_d and \mathcal{R}_f are the reluctance of a single disk and single
315 MR fluid interface gap, respectively. The reluctance of a material
316 is given by $\mathcal{R} = l / (\mu_0 \mu_r A)$, where l is the mean length of the
317 flux path through the material, $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ H/m is the
318 permeability of free space, μ_r is the relative permeability of
319 the material, and A is the cross-sectional area of the material
320 perpendicular to the flux path. Assuming that the mean flux path
321 through any of the circuit members lies at its geometric center,

TABLE I
PARAMETER VALUES FOR SIMPLIFIED MR CLUTCH MODEL

Parameter	Symbol	Value
Disk thickness	l_d	1.0 [mm]
Fluid gap thickness	l_f	0.5 [mm]
Disk minor radius	R_1	10 [mm]
Max operating yield stress	τ_y^*	40 [kpa]
Coil current density	J_w	2.5×10^6 [A/m ²]

we can then derive the reluctance of the individual components of the simplified clutch model to be

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{R}_{c_1} &= \frac{l_p + l_c}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} \pi (R_4^2 - R_3^2)} \\ \mathfrak{R}_{c_{23}} &= \int_{R_2 + R_1/2}^{R_4 + R_3/2} \frac{dr}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} (2\pi r) l_c} = \frac{\ln(R_4 + R_3/R_2 + R_1)}{2\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} \pi l_c} \\ \mathfrak{R}_d &= \frac{l_d}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_s} \pi (R_2^2 - R_1^2)} \quad \mathfrak{R}_f = \frac{l_f}{\mu_0 \mu_{r_f} \pi (R_2^2 - R_1^2)}. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Here, μ_{r_s} is the permeability of steel, the material used for both the core and disks, μ_{r_f} is the permeability of the MR fluid, l_d is the thickness of a single disk, l_f is the distance between input and output disks forming the MR fluid gap, l_c is the thickness of the equivalent core sections, and $l_p = (2N - 1)l_d + 2Nl_f$ is the length of the disk pack. The flux ϕ in the circuit is then given by

$$\phi = \frac{I}{\mathfrak{R}_c + \mathfrak{R}_p} = \frac{l_p(R_3 - R_2)J_w}{\mathfrak{R}_c + \mathfrak{R}_p} \quad (18)$$

where I is the total electric current through the cross section of the magnetic coil, and J_w is the current density of the coil cross section. The magnetic field intensity \mathbf{H} at any point within the circuit is related to the circuit flux ϕ by

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{\phi}{\mu_0 \mu_r A} \quad (19)$$

where again, μ_r and A are, respectively, the relative permeability and cross sectional area of the material at which the magnetic-field intensity \mathbf{H} is to be determined. We now define the parameter τ_y^* as the maximum yield stress at which the MR fluid is to operate. Using data provided by the MR fluid manufacturer relating the yield stress of the fluid to the applied magnetic field, we define \mathbf{H}^* as the magnetic-field intensity in the MR fluid required to produce the yield stress τ_y^* . Rearranging (19), and substituting the appropriate MR fluid geometric and material values, we define ϕ^* as the flux required in the circuit to produce \mathbf{H}^* in the MR fluid

$$\phi^* = \mu_0 \mu_{r_f} \pi (R_2^2 - R_1^2) \mathbf{H}^*. \quad (20)$$

R_2 is uniquely defined by the parameters T_c , N , R_1 , and τ_y^* [refer to (13)]. Thus, for the given set of fixed parameters given in Table I, we solve for the values of R_3 , R_4 , and l_c that satisfy (18) for $\phi = \phi^*$, while simultaneously minimizing the clutch

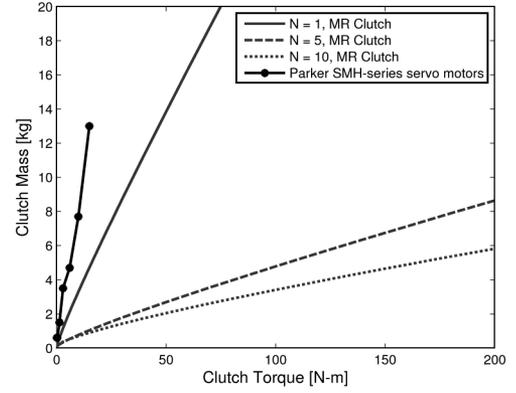


Fig. 5. Mass of simplified clutch models versus torque capacity (calculated using MR fluid characteristics of Lord Corp., MR-132DG MR fluid [32]).

mass m_{MRC} given by

$$\begin{aligned} m_{MRC} &= m_c + m_p + m_s + m_w \\ m_c &= \pi [(R_4^2 - R_3^2) l_p + 2(R_4^2 - R_1^2) l_c] \rho_s \\ m_p &= \pi [(2N - 1) l_d \rho_s + 2N l_f \rho_f] (R_2^2 - R_1^2) \\ m_w &= \pi (R_3^2 - R_2^2) l_p \rho_{cu} \quad m_s = \pi R_1^2 (l_p + 2l_c) \rho_{al} \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

where m_c is the mass of the core, m_p is the mass of the disk pack assembly which includes the MR fluid, m_s is the mass of the shaft, and m_w is the mass of the magnetic coil. In (21), ρ_s , ρ_f , ρ_{cu} , and ρ_{al} are the mass densities of steel, MR fluid, copper, and aluminum, respectively. Fig. 5 shows the torque to mass relationship of the simplified MR clutch model and compares it to a commercially available servo motor. We note that due to the mass overhead associated with the material required to form the magnetic circuit, the torque to mass ratio of the MR clutch is less favorable at very low values N . In the developed model, we observe superior characteristics over the commercially available servo motor.

C. Output Impedance

The output impedance of an actuator can be defined as

$$Z(s) = \frac{F_l(s)}{X_l(s)} \quad (22)$$

where $F_l(s)$ is the force experienced by the load and $X_l(s)$ is the displacement of the load. Actuators that limit or reduce their impedance, especially at higher frequencies, offer a higher degree of safety over those that do not. Within the controllable bandwidth, impedance can be actively reduced by control action. However, above the controllable bandwidth, the impedance is dominated by the open-loop characteristics of the actuator and link. To form a comparison of the intrinsic properties of human safe actuators, we consider the output impedance in the absence of control. This is intended to represent the open-loop characteristics resulting from collisions occurring above the control bandwidth. Fig. 6 shows a schematic representation of the MRA and SEA models under consideration here. In this scenario, both

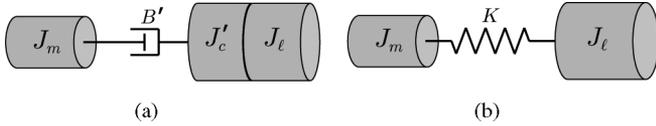


Fig. 6. Model schematic of unpowered (a) MRA, and (b) SEA.

377 motor and clutch are unpowered, allowing us to model the clutch
 378 as a damper and inertial load. J_m is the inertia of the motor for
 379 both the MRA and SEA, K is the spring constant of the SEA,
 380 B'_c is the damping coefficient of the MR clutch reflected to the
 381 link, J'_c is the output inertia of the MR clutch reflected to the
 382 link, and J_ℓ is the inertia of the link. The damping coefficient
 383 in the MR clutch is determined by the Newtonian viscosity of
 384 the MR fluid (the viscosity at zero field) as well as the clutch
 385 geometry. The output impedance of the SEA is given by

$$Z_{\text{SEA}} = J_\ell s^2 + \frac{K J_m s^2}{J_m s^2 + K}. \quad (23)$$

386 The value of the link inertia J_ℓ for the purpose of discussing the
 387 characteristics of the SEA is somewhat arbitrary, and it is, thus,
 388 not uncommon to disregard it (allowing J_ℓ to equal zero). This
 389 results in the properties of the SEA being characterized by the
 390 second term only. In this circumstance, the output impedance
 391 approaches the value of the spring constant K at high frequen-
 392 cies. It is this property of the SEA to limit output impedance
 393 above the controllable bandwidth that intrinsically insures safe
 394 interaction forces as well as impact loads. The output impedance
 395 of the MRA is given as

$$Z_{\text{MRA}} = (J'_c + J_\ell) s^2 + \frac{B'_c J_m s^2}{J_m s + B'_c}. \quad (24)$$

396 A fair comparison would dictate if we once more disregard the
 397 link inertia J_ℓ . While the second term increases (approximately)
 398 proportional to the reflected damping coefficient B'_c , at higher
 399 frequencies it is the reflected inertia of the clutch J'_c in the
 400 first term that dominates the dynamics of the output impedance.
 401 Noting that the output impedance of the MRA is not limited,
 402 but rather continues to grow at high frequencies, seemingly,
 403 it would not appear that the MRA poses the intrinsic safety char-
 404 acteristics of the SEA. However, to fairly evaluate the deficiency
 405 of the MRA in this respect, it is instructive to consider practi-
 406 cal examples to establish the context in which the SEA offers
 407 superior safety. If we reconsider the actuator models to include
 408 the inertia of the link, for both the SEA and MRA, the inertial
 409 impedance represented in the first terms will dominate the out-
 410 put impedances at higher frequencies. The output impedance
 411 of the MRA can thus approach that of the SEA if $J'_c \ll J_\ell$. To
 412 demonstrate the conditions in which we can satisfy $J'_c \ll J_\ell$,
 413 we consider an applications requiring 50 Nm at the link. From
 414 the values presented in Fig. 3, we can expect that the reflected
 415 inertia of an MRA satisfying the 50-Nm requirement, would
 416 be on the order of 10^{-3} kg m^2 . We may then prescribe a lower
 417 bound link inertia on the order of $J_\ell = 10^{-2} \text{ kg m}^2$, and one
 418 order of magnitude larger than J'_c , the result of which being
 419 that $(J_\ell + J'_c) \approx J_\ell$. To put the values into perspective, we can
 420 express this lower bound as a link modeled by a point mass of

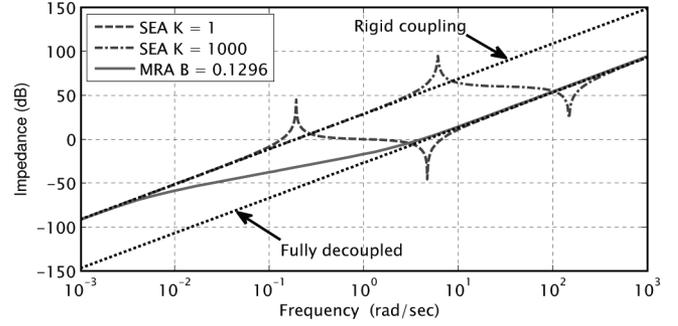


Fig. 7. Simulated output impedance for SEA and MRA. Values obtained from experimental MRA setup: $J_m = 26.9 \text{ kg m}^2$; $J'_c = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg m}^2$; $J_\ell = 0.045 \text{ kg m}^2$; $B = 0.1296 \text{ N s m}^{-1}$. MRA produces 75-Nm output.

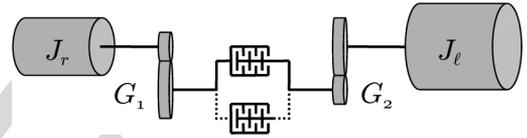


Fig. 8. DASA: solid line represents single clutch configuration, dotted line represents connection to second clutch present only in antagonistic configuration.

250 g at a radius of 20 cm. Links having inertias above this lower 421
 bound could then be driven by either MRA or SEA and exhibit 422
 nearly identical inertial impedances. In the application region of 423
 50 Nm, it is reasonable to expect that most links will have inertias 424
 larger than our defined lower bound. The implication being that 425
 an SEA would not provide a safety improvement over an MRA 426
 in the stated application region. It must be pointed out that we 427
 have assumed the values presented in Fig. 3, which have been 428
 computed from idealized models, are realistically achievable. 429
 Fig. 7 shows simulated output impedances for both an MRA 430
 and SEA. Values for the motor, MR clutch, and link inertias, as 431
 well as clutch damping coefficient were obtained from an experi- 432
 mental MRA setup (discussed later in greater detail). Using 433
 these values, the output impedance of the MRA is simulated and 434
 compared to that of an SEA. We see that in this circumstance, 435
 the MRA demonstrates superior output impedance characteris- 436
 tics over that of the SEA. This is complimented by the superior 437
 performance provided by the MRA. 438

V. DISTRIBUTED ACTIVE SEMIACTIVE ACTUATION 439

In this section, we propose an actuation technique that lever- 440
 ages the unique properties of MRAs. The proposed technique 441
 is unique in which we attempt to reconcile safety, performance, 442
 and complexity into a feasible solution. The distributed active 443
 semiactive (DASA) actuation approach locates a driving motor 444
 (the active actuator) at the base of the robot, and a semiactive MR 445
 clutch at the joint (see to Fig. 8). The gear ratios G_1 and G_2 are 446
 balanced to give the desired mass, and reflected output inertia 447
 at the link. Reducing G_1 reduces the requirements of the clutch 448
 transmission torque, which thus reduces the mass of the clutch, 449
 however, the reflected output inertia is inevitably increased as 450
 G_2 must then be increased to compensate. In Section IV, we 451
 have shown how actuating a joint via an MR clutch can reduce 452

mass and reflected output inertia over conventional servo motors. The impact on safety is immediately appreciated as the effective inertia of the link is instantly reduced. This not only improves manipulator performance, but further allows a manipulator to operate at higher velocities while maintaining safe HIC values in the event of a collision. Moreover, the clutch itself is back drivable, and can be thought of as exhibiting the properties of an ideal torque source. This is an important characteristic for human-friendly actuators as it facilitates impedance control. While motors themselves are also intrinsically back drivable, the high-ratio-gear reductions they require are often not. Thus, highly performing low-weight robots, which implement low mass motors at the expense of high-ratio-gear reductions rely on torque sensors in the control loop to electronically implement back-drivable behavior. MR clutches possess a superior torque to mass ratios over their servo motor counterparts, and thus can be designed to require much lower reduction ratios, if not developed as direct-drive components, either way retaining their intrinsic back-drivability. MR clutches have the added benefit of uniform torque transmission independent of armature position, unlike servo motors, which suffer from nonlinearities such as cogging torque. Relocating the driving motor to the base of a robot in order to reduce the mass at the link is not a new concept. However, it has been a restrictive practice as the newly required transmission responsible for bringing mechanical power from the base to the joint has commonly introduced unwanted friction and compliance, which have reduced performance, and complicated the control system. The DASA implementation however can be controlled to operate in a region in which torque transmission is relatively immune to perturbation in the relative angular velocity ω within the clutch, effectively allowing the clutch to act as a mechanical power filter. This characteristic which will be explained momentarily allows the DASA system to function with less than ideal mechanical transmission while maintaining the performance and characteristics of a “stiff” transmission at the joint. To explain this, we consider that the the Bingham model is accurate for describing the rheology of the fluid for shear stress τ above the field-dependant yield stress τ_y , as expressed in (3). It is this “Bingham region” in which we wish the clutch to operate in order to benefit from the aforementioned characteristics. Below the yield stress τ_y , however, the fluid exhibits newtonian characteristics, i.e., to say that τ grows with a nonnegligible proportionality to the shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ (for a more in-depth analysis see [33]). We can thus attribute a field-dependant shear rate threshold $\dot{\gamma}^*$ below, which the fluid exhibits newtonian characteristics, and above which, the Bingham model applies. To maintain the clutch in the Bingham region, the fluid at any radius r within the clutch must maintain a shear rate above $\dot{\gamma}^*$. To guarantee this condition, we define the field-dependant angular velocity ω^* , the threshold above which operation in the Bingham region is ensured as

$$\omega^* = \frac{\dot{\gamma}^* l_f}{R_1}. \quad (25)$$

We come to (25) by rearranging (5) and substituting r with its minimum value R_1 , the critical radius at which the lowest shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ occurs. The control strategy should therefore attempt to

avoid entering the Newtonian region by controlling the motor angular velocity ω_m to satisfy the condition

$$|\omega_m| = |\omega_j - \omega^*| + \epsilon^* \quad (26)$$

where ω_j is the angular velocity of the joint, and ϵ^* is a field-dependant error margin selected to ensure that the dynamics of the motor have enough time to react to quickly varying values of ω_j . ϵ^* must be large enough to ensure $\omega \geq \omega^*$ under all dynamic situations, however, exact calculation of ϵ^* may be difficult as there is a reliance on empirical data associated with the dynamics of the joint/link. Care must be taken, however, to avoid unnecessary power dissipation, which for a clutch is defined as $P_d = T\omega$. Because ω tracks $\omega^* + \epsilon^*$, the value selected for ϵ^* cannot be arbitrarily large. Crossing into the Newtonian region is required to alter the direction of the torque transmitted to the link when utilizing a single clutch to implement the DASA system. As the motor must change the direction of its output rotation, the clutch torque transmission momentarily enters a dead zone. This has the potential of creating a substantial backlash effect.

A. Antagonistic DASA

An antagonistic configuration of the DASA system (see Fig. 8) is intended to increase performance, and rectify the shortcomings of the single-clutch DASA configuration. The motor drives the input to two clutches, however in opposite directions with respect to one another. The antagonistic output of the two clutches is coupled to the link. By energizing one of the two clutches, torque can be transmitted in either the clockwise or counterclockwise direction. Thus, the antagonistic configuration allows for torque transmission to the joint to alter direction without altering the direction of the motor output, thereby, eliminating the backlash introduced by the single-clutch DASA. Such devices have been developed with electro-rheological (ER) fluids [34]. Maintaining rotation of the motor shaft, the bandwidth of the antagonistic-DASA output is limited by charging and discharging of the magnetic field required to activate the clutch. If we label the two clutches of an antagonistic DASA assembly as \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 , then the motor’s angular velocity should track

$$\omega_m = \max\{|\omega_j - \omega_1^*|, |\omega_2^* - \omega_j|\} + \epsilon^* \quad (27)$$

to avoid entering the Newtonian region of operation in either clutch. ω_1^* , and ω_2^* are the angular velocity of the Bingham region thresholds for clutches \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 , respectively. Note that in our convention, clutch \mathcal{C}_2 has its input reversed in direction with respect to clutch \mathcal{C}_1 , i.e.,

$$\omega_1 = \omega_j - \omega_m \quad \omega_2 = \omega_j + \omega_m. \quad (28)$$

The torque production for an antagonistic-DASA system operating in the Bingham region is then given by

$$T_{AD} = T_1(\mathbf{H}_1) + T_2(\mathbf{H}_2) - \frac{2\pi\eta|\omega_j|}{l_f} (R_2^4 - R_1^4) \quad (29)$$

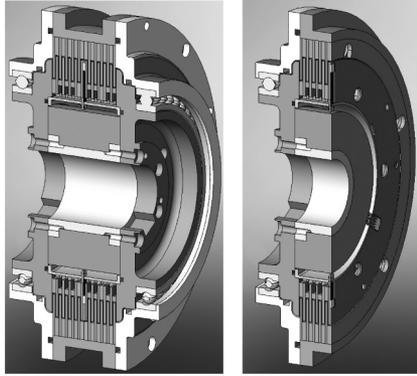


Fig. 9. Sectional views of prototype MR clutch.

where T_1 and T_2 are the field-dependant torques produced by clutches \mathcal{C}_1 , and \mathcal{C}_2 , respectively, given by

$$T_i = \frac{4\pi}{3} \tau_y(\mathbf{H}_i) (R_2^3 - R_1^3) \text{sgn}(\omega_i), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (30)$$

where \mathbf{H}_1 and \mathbf{H}_2 are the fields produced in clutches \mathcal{C}_1 , and \mathcal{C}_2 , respectively. Note that the individual viscous torque contributions of \mathcal{C}_1 and \mathcal{C}_2 negate each other at the joint when $\omega_j = 0$. Viscosity of this class of fluids does not always obey ideal models. The antagonistic configuration can mitigate some nonlinearities which would otherwise have to be compensated for by the controller.

VI. PERFORMANCE VALIDATION OF A PROTOTYPE MR CLUTCH

In this section, we present results obtained by experimentation with a prototype MR clutch which we have designed and constructed (see Fig. 9). The configuration of the prototype MR clutch deviates from the model of Section IV. The magnetic coil of the prototype is located radially inward of the clutch pack in a “coil-in” configuration, as opposed to the coil-out configuration previously discussed. Coupling the coil to the output shaft has the intended effect of reducing clutch mass, however comes at the expense of increasing output inertia. Design of the prototype clutch is partially automated using the optimization process discussed in Section IV-B, where model equations have been updated to reflect the change in configuration. The method returns values for the dimensional parameters that minimize the clutch mass for a given design torque. The prototype MR clutch was specified with a design torque of 120 Nm. The dimensional parameters returned by the optimization process were used as the basis for practical design. Table II compares the output torque, inertia, and mass of the physical prototype MR clutch to the optimized design model. A large discrepancy exists between the modeled and actual torque. The discrepancy results primarily due to deviations in the physical design from the geometric model used in the optimization. Practical design features required for fastening and wire access are omitted from the model. The optimization produces geometries in which flux members enter magnetic saturation at the magnitude of circuit flux corresponding to the specified design torque of the clutch. Removal of ferromagnetic material from the optimized geom-

TABLE II
COMPARISON BETWEEN PROTOTYPE AND MODELED MR CLUTCH, AS WELL AS COMMERCIALY AVAILABLE SERVOMOTORS

	Prototype MR Clutch		Servomotors		
	Coil-out Configuration	Model	Actual	Parker SMH-100	Maxon EC60
Output Torque[Nm]	75	120	75	6.0	0.83
Mass[kg]	2.8	4.7	4.5	4.7	2.5
Inertia $\times 10^3$ [kg \cdot m 2]	0.19	2.8	5.0	0.34	0.083
Reflected					
Inertia $\times 10^3$ [kg \cdot m 2] [†]	-	-	2.22	23.3	302

[†] Reflected torque $T_c' = 50$ Nm.

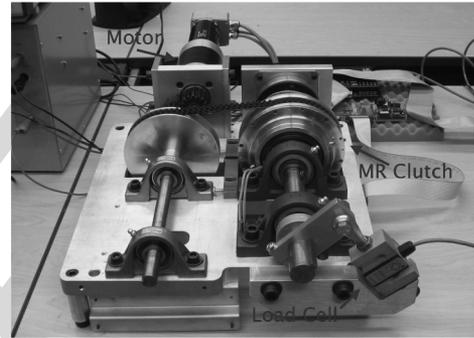


Fig. 10. Experimental setup used to verify the prototype MR clutch.

etry subsequently results in premature saturation of the circuit, limiting the output torque of the clutch.

Much of our analysis prior to this section is based on the coil-out configuration model of Section IV-B. To add perspective, we compare this model to the prototype MR clutch. The values for the coil-out configuration shown in Table II are produced with the geometric model and procedure described in Section IV-B, where the output torque is specified to match the constructed MR clutch and not the design value. The coil-out model does not consider any practical design requirements, such as bearings, seals, and mechanical coupling of the disks. In this regard, the model represents an ideal scenario, or baseline for the achievable characteristics in its configuration. The comparison indicates that there is room for improvement of the prototype MR clutch. Ideally, mass could be reduced by a third, while the output inertia might be improved by an order of magnitude. Table II compares the prototype MR clutch to two commercially available servo motors. The servo motors are chosen to have comparable mass to the prototype MR clutch. The output inertia of the servo motors are between one and two orders of magnitude lower than that of the MR clutch. However, when we consider a hypothetical application requiring a 50-Nm output, the prototype MR clutch possesses the more favorable reflected inertia by at least an order of magnitude.

To assess its performance characteristics, the clutch is mounted to an experimentation platform (see Fig. 10) that incorporates an angular encoder (Renishaw RM22I) to read the position of the output shaft. A static load cell (Transducer Techniques SBO-1K) mounts to the output shaft for torque experiments. A servo motor (Maxon EC 60) provides the rotational input to the MR clutch. A PID controller is implemented on a

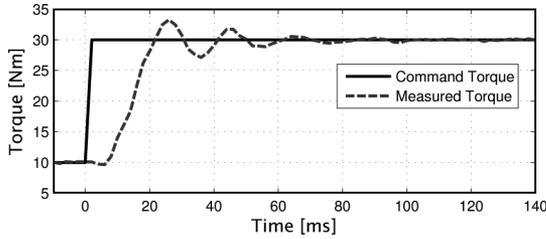


Fig. 11. Torque tracking of step reference.

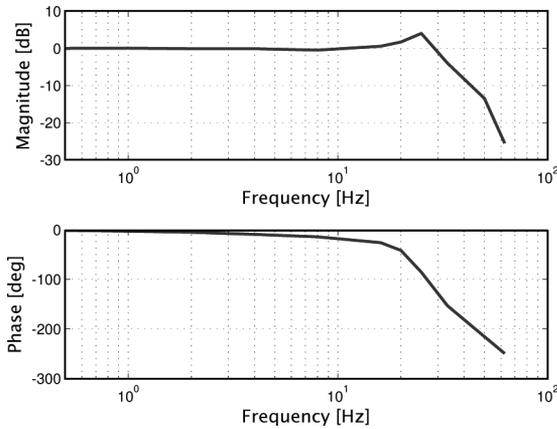


Fig. 12. Frequency response of the prototype MR clutch.

618 desktop computer that communicates with the experimentation
 619 platform via a National Instruments (NI USB-6229) multifunction
 620 I/O device. The output signal from the PID controller forms
 621 the input signal to the current amplifier of the MR clutch, while
 622 the rotational velocity of the motor is kept constant.

623 Fig. 11 shows the closed-loop response to a step input. The
 624 rise time is determined to be approximately 10 ms. The fre-
 625 quency response and dynamic characteristics are examined by
 626 measuring the torque response to a sinusoidal reference signal
 627 and initiating a frequency sweep at 0.5 Hz. Fig. 12 shows the
 628 frequency response of the system. The resulting 3-dB actuator
 629 bandwidth is measured to be approximately 30 Hz. Fig. 13
 630 presents a set of four time domain measurements from the
 631 sweep. Beginning at 0.5 Hz, we note excellent overlay of the
 632 measured signal with that of the command. As the reference
 633 frequency is increased toward and above the actuator band-
 634 width, we note that the response remains very smooth and as well
 635 retains the shape of the command signal quite well. Clean and
 636 predictable torque outputs are an asset to the development of
 637 controls and sensorization schemes that are required to monitor
 638 and control contact forces between manipulators and humans.

639 Trajectory tracking experiments were conducted using the
 640 angular encoder to form the feedback signal. The motor output
 641 was held at a constant rotational velocity. A 50-cm long arm
 642 constructed of medium density plastic was coupled to the out-
 643 put shaft. A counter weight of approximately 2 kg was mounted
 644 to the end of arm. The results shown in Fig. 14 indicate the ca-
 645 pacity of the MR clutch in this arrangement to achieve favorable
 646 precision in position control tasks. Small fluctuation errors in
 647 the static portions of the trajectory demonstrate the capability

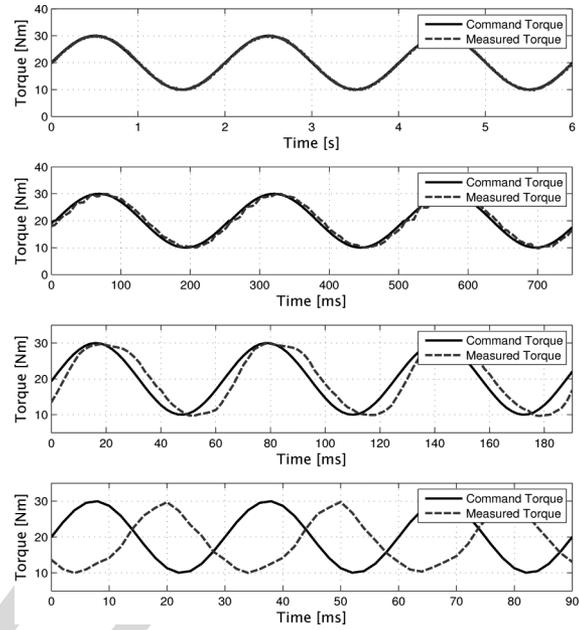


Fig. 13. Torque tracking of a sinusoidal references at frequencies of 0.5, 4.0, 16.0, and 33.3 Hz (from top to bottom).

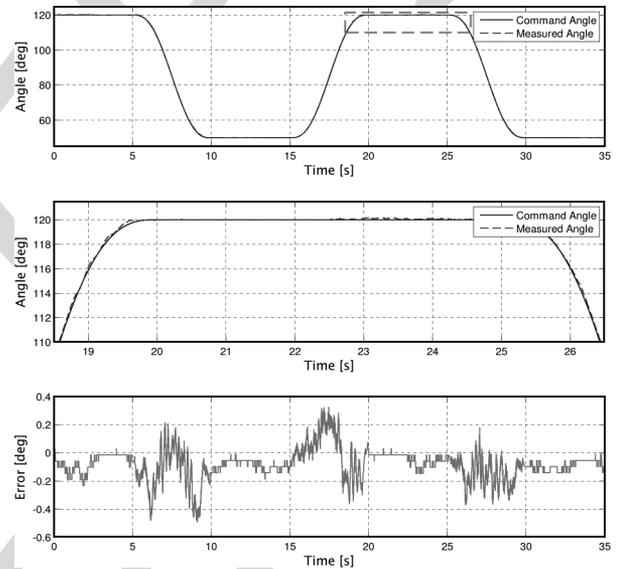


Fig. 14. Position tracking of a trajectory reference. The center plot magnifies the trajectory in the region marked by the dotted red bounding box.

of the MR clutch to suppress fluctuations present in the input
 drive.

VII. CONCLUSION

MR fluids exhibit promising characteristics for applications
 in robotics. Specifically, they are well-suited for actuation sys-
 tems developed to interact physically with humans. As we have
 shown, MR-clutch-based actuators demonstrate excellent torque
 to mass, and torque to inertia characteristics. This is especially
 evident for clutches having large torque capacities. This cre-
 ates a niche opportunity for MR-based actuators to be devel-
 oped into light-weight direct-drive (DD) systems. Light-weight

DD systems exhibit several characteristics that are sought after for human-friendly manipulators, namely: intrinsic back-drivability, low output inertia, superior performance and bandwidth, as well as high precision in the control of output torque. Furthermore, MR-based actuators can potentially reduce system complexity. Potentially, the accuracy of torque transmission models in such systems could allow for high fidelity torque control without the requirement for torque sensors at the joints. This is in contrast to the increasingly complex actuation solutions proposed to deal with physical human interaction.

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QUERIES

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