

Article

Clinical Demands of Designs for Rehabilitation Robots in Taiwan

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Abstract: Robots have been used in neural rehabilitation. As the development of rehabilitation robots has progressed, the functions and designs of robots become to meet the clinical demands. In Taiwan, the proportion of patients and therapists is high. However, rehabilitation with robots is not widespread in Taiwan. By observing the result of a formative test of a novel rehabilitation robot, the reason for that was investigated. For the investigation, interviews were performed to understand the usability, functions applicability, and ease of use of the robot in rehabilitation. For usability, therapists expected safety for the patient with the robot, and other patients, therapists, and caretakers in the open treatment room. Therapists demanded assisting and training modes, visual and audio feedback, and increasing range of motion of internal and external rotation of shoulder for functions applicability. As for the ease of use, robot operation needs to be simple and fast and give clear standards about the operation for daily operation in treatment rooms. The study result shows humanistic design and glocalization also influence the willingness to use rehabilitation robots except for efficacy-related functions.

Keywords: Demand, Design, Rehabilitation, Robot, Stroke

1. Introduction

Currently, the development of rehabilitation robots has progressed. Robotic rehabilitation has been chosen for neural rehabilitation as the robot automatically provides repetitive training. As passive training mode and gravity compensation function help patients focus on motion control, rehabilitation robots provide early rehabilitation for stroke patients in acute or subacute phases. Combining games or activities of daily living, robots provide functional and task-specific training. The advance in the technique of virtual reality (VR) allows robots to provide simulations close to reality. To provide intensive training for patients, robots usually sense and analyze motions during training, and adjust the difficulty automatically or provide information on the difficulty to therapists. In addition to the information on training difficulty, robots export motion analysis reports and data on the range of motion and kinematic parameters including speed, accuracy, smoothness, and force. Due to the automatic training, rehabilitation robots are expected to reduce the loading of therapists and lower the cost of medical resources. Thus, we review and discuss the features of rehabilitation robots with humanistic design and glocalization to stimulate innovative robotic rehabilitation in the future.

2. Clinical Research and Commercial Rehabilitation Robots

The effect of robotic rehabilitation has been studied widely. Researchers found that robotic rehabilitation is effective in training motor function, activities of daily living, and muscle strength. (Bertani et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2017; Mehrholz et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021) Gamification training or training games in robots promote motivation for patients. (Hung et al., 2016; Putrino et al., 2017) Current studies track the changing of kinematic parameters during the stroke recovery process (Goffredo et al., 2019) and research correlations between kinematic parameters and regular clinical scales. Grimm et al. found that there are significant correlations between the Fugl-Meyer assessment for upper extremity (FMA-UE) score and grip force and range of motion of the wrist, elbow, and shoulder. (Grimm et al., 2021)

Overviews of the rehabilitation on the global market are listed in Table 1 which shows that most robots need kinematic parameters. Robots record locations of limbs or hands during training, which are calculated for knowing the speed, acceleration, smoothness, accuracy, and so on. Force parameters are collected by torque sensors within robot joints or by load sensors. After analyzing the kinematic parameters, rehabilitation robots provide active-assist training, gravity compensation, assist-as-needed training, and export training reports.

Table 1. Overviews of the rehabilitation robots in the global market.

| Product Name | Training Mode | Gravity Compensation | Kinematic Parameters | Force | Interactive Game |
|---|---|---|--|---|------------------|
| Arneo Spring (Allington et al., 2011; Gijbels et al., 2011; Housman et al., 2009; Sanchez et al., 2004; Sanchez et al., 2006; Wolbrecht et al., 2008; Wolbrecht et al., 2006; Zimmerli et al., 2012) | Active Assist (Quantitative assist force for joints by springs. Adjust manually for nine levels.) | Assist force by springs | ROM sensing by potentionmeters. | Force sensor in the handle. | O |
| Arneo Power (Nef, Guidali, et al., 2009; Nef, Quinter, et al., 2009; Sanchez et al., 2006; Staubli et al., 2009; Zariffa et al., 2012) | Passive Assist (Assist force provided by motors.) | Assist force provided by motors | Locations of limbs through time in 3D space. | Interaction force between the robot and the patient by torque sensors. | O |
| Diego (Meyer-Rachner et al., 2017) | Active | Dynamic gravity compensation by motor through wires | Locations of arms through time in 3D space. | Anti-gravity force of arms. | O |
| MJS (Iuppariello et al., 2014) | Assist Active | Provide by the motor of the shoulder. | Locations of limbs through time in 3D space. | Force sensor in the handle. | X |
| Reogo (Bovolenta et al., 2011; Treger et al., 2008) | Guided mode (Passive) Initiated mode Step initiated mode Follow assist mode Free mode (Active) | Weight-bearing on the device | Locations of the endpoint (the hand) through time in 3D space. | Force sensor in the handle. | O |
| InMotion Arm (Krebs et al., 1998; Krebs et al., 2003; Lo et al., 2010; Masia et al., 2007; Rabadi et al., 2008) | Passive Assist Active | Weight-bearing on the table | Locations of the endpoint (the hand) through time in 2D space. | Force sensor in the handle. | O |
| Burt (Valdés et al., 2020) | Assist | Weight-bearing on the device | Range of motions | | O |
| ALEx (Pirondini et al., 2014; Ruffaldi et al., 2014) | Passive Assist | Adjustable gravity compensation | Positions and velocities at the end-effector and at each articular joints. | Force sensor in the handle. | O |
| luna EMG | Passive Assist (EMG) Active Resist | Adjustable gravity compensation | Radius through time | Torque sensors in the motor. | O |
| Bi-manu track (Hesse et al., 2003) | Passive Assist Active Resist | Weight-bearing on the table | Radius through time | Torque sensors in the motor. | O |
| Gloreha (Bissolotti et al., 2016; Vanoglio et al., 2017; Villafañe et al., 2018) | Passive Assist Active | Adjustable gravity compensation by twelve levels. | Fingers ROM through time. | X | O |

Table 1. Cont.

| Product Name | Training Mode | Gravity Compensation | Kinematic Parameters | Force | Interactive Game |
|--|-----------------------------|--|--|--|------------------|
| Cybergrasp (Adamovich et al., 2009) | Passive Assist Active | Gravity compensation by a suspension system. | Fingers ROM through time. | Fingers flexion force and extension force. | O |
| Hand of hope (Ho et al., 2011) | Assist Active | Weight-bearing on the table | Fingers ROM through time. | X | O |
| mirror hand | Passive Assist | X | X | X | X |
| Amadeo (Hwang et al., 2012; Sale et al., 2012) | Passive Assist Active | Weight-bearing on the device | Fingers ROM through time. | Fingers flexion force and extension force. | O |
| Arm assist (Tomić et al., 2017) | Passive | Weight-bearing on the table | Locations of the endpoint (the hand) through time in 2D space. | Arm support and lifting force. | O |
| Cybergloves | Active | X | Fingers ROM through time. | X | X |
| RAPAEL Smart Glove (Jung et al., 2017; Kang et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2019) | Active | X | Wrist and fingers ROM through time. | X | O |
| HandTutor | Active | X | Wrist and fingers ROM through time. | X | O |

Most rehabilitation robots contain multiple training modes. The passive mode helps patients maintain a range of motion or warm-up before training. Various assisting modes detect patients’ intentions to lead to completing a motion program for their limbs. The final motion is detected to provide assisting force when the direction shifts from targets. In several modes, robots follow and assist patients’ motions. Different assisting modes are available for various patients. When patients have intentions but do not have enough ability to complete motions, robots trigger active-assisted mode to help them. When they perform motions but still need help with motion control, robots help patients with motion direction control in the assisting force mode. When patients have motion control ability but do not have enough muscle strength, robots follow patients’ motions to help. Active training mode allows sensing endpoint trajectory and motions of limbs to record and analyze kinematic parameters.

Yet, there is no standard for the training mode of rehabilitation robots. They use different sensors to detect patients’ intentions to give various assisting forces, record different parameters, and analyze them in various ways. Experiments for testing the effect of assisting modes require various methods, settings, and sample sizes, and therefore it is hard to compare and discuss the results.

The myoelectrical technique has been applied for a long time. The effectiveness of applications has been studied by using electromyographic (EMG) to detect the electrical signals of muscles with functional electrical stimulation (FES) to trigger movements. Commercial robots such as Hand of hope and Amadeo use EMG for user intention detection. Commercial robots including WalkAide and L300 are commonly used for rehabilitating feet and rarely used on upper limbs. According to the review of Eraifej et al. (2017), using FES within two months of stroke has improved activities of daily living (ADL), and no significant ADL improvement was seen more than one year after stroke. Although more randomized control trials need to be studied due to the low-quality evidence of the result, FES is still a promising therapy for neural rehabilitation. Straudi et al. (2020) showed that combining robot-assisted rehabilitation and FES improved arm impairment but was not effective enough for intensive conventional rehabilitation. The reason is that there were not many robots combining FES with them.

In addition to kinematic parameters detection and myoelectrical application, most rehabilitation robots on the market provide interactive games that provide gamification activities of daily living or commercial games to conform needs of training. Games are a kind of task-oriented training to improve patients’ training motivation. In addition to the effect of rehabilitation, robots also are expected to lower the loading of therapists and reduce human costs including fast start, changing sides automatically, giving recommendations of training plans, recording training process designs for device portable, intuitive user interface, and server system for remote controlling multiple devices.

3. Demands for Robots Designs

The proportion of patients and therapists in Taiwan is high, but it is still difficult to provide one-to-one training programs. Usually, patients practice alone or with their families under the supervision of the therapist after a short evaluation. One therapist supervises one to three patients at the same time. Rehabilitation robots are in large demand in this environment. However, robots are not widely used in medical institutions in Taiwan though most robots on the market have functions for satisfying clinical demand.

To understand the reason, thirty-five therapists learned and practiced the operation and used the robot in a simulated situation, and were interviewed after simulations. In the interview, therapists shared their recommendations about the robot. In addition to the recommendations about robot functions, therapists also suggested other features of the robot, which may influence the willingness to use the robot. What most therapists suggested is safety. They expected the safety in using robots for the patient on the rehabilitation robot and other patients, therapists, and caregivers in the open treatment room. Because many of the treatment rooms in Taiwan are open and always crowded during peak hours, the robot needs to be designed to secure safety. They suggested that it is important for robots to have a function of detecting objects in the operating space of the robot, warning and stopping when someone nears it, and avoiding the collision. They also suggested a special battery design to prevent stumbling due to power codes.

Other features may be included such as the ease of use to encourage therapists' willingness to use it. Robots' operating range in space is also a consideration to use in the treatment room. 6.7% of therapists thought that the tested robot is too big for treatment rooms. The operation of robots needs to be simple for fast and easy operation. 50% of therapists suggested using pull bolts instead of knobs to reduce preparing time for the next patient as they have to take care of multiple patients at the same time.

4. Conclusions

The effect of rehabilitation robots has been confirmed as the robot has a significant effect on regular therapy. In this premise, the safety and ease of use of the robots become more important than before. In Taiwan, due to the space limitations of the treatment room, preparing for the next patient needs to be fast since multiple patients are waiting at the same time. Risks in an open treatment room need to be considered not to interrupt other patients, therapists, and caretakers. The study result provides the references for the humanistic design for rehabilitation robots and allows robot design to meet the clinical needs, which promotes the widespread use of rehabilitation robots.

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