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# Technical Realization of the Optimal Motion Planning Method for Minimally Invasive Surgery

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Abstract—This paper describes a mechatronic (mechanical and electronic) realization of the optimal trajectory planning and guidance algorithms for minimally invasive surgical training. Specifically, the realization implements optimal navigation paths for surgical instruments in laparoscopic exercises. The underlying system platform is the Computer-Aided Surgical Trainer (CAST) that consist of mechanical fixtures equipped with encoders and servo motors. This hardware provides a means to accurately track the tip movements of laparoscopic instruments used in minimally invasive surgery. Furthermore it provides feedback to a PID controller which implements the optimal instrument trajectories. Supporting software provides all calibration procedures necessary to maintain the desired system's accuracy. Details of the mechanical, hardware, and software components are presented, along with their limitations and preliminary results.

*Keywords*-minimal invasive surgery; model-based simulation; method validation; surgical training system

### I. INTRODUCTION

Laparoscopic surgery brings significant benefits to patients intra- and post-operatively. Recently, a number of surgical simulators, both physical, model-based and softwarebased, have been developed, all allowing trainees to safely master the basics skills such as depth perception, dexterity, or hand-eye coordination [6], [8], [9], [13]. This paper focuses on the next generation of the Computer-Assisted Surgical Training System (CAST) [2], designed particularly for the skill-based behavior training of laparoscopic surgeons [3]. A novel component of CAST is the optimal motion planning method for minimal invasive surgery (optMIS) [7].

In this paper, we describe a computer-based implementation of optimal navigation paths obtained by optMIS.

### **II. SYSTEM DESCRIPTION**

The purpose of the proposed system is to generate and follow optimal surgical movement paths subject to technical constraints. The CAST system consists of two fixtures (left



Figure 1. A general view of fixtures with an optical encoders, DC motors and laparoscopic instruments.

and right). Each fixture is comprised of a laparoscopic instrument fastened to a linear guide which is centrally connected to a gimbal. The entire gimbal assembly is attached to a rotational joint mounted to the base. This fixture provides four degrees of freedom (DOF), three are rotational. and one linear. The gimbal was designed to minimize any mechanical impact factors that could interfere with the interactions between the user and the instrument. All the mechanical components were designed and manufactured to have low inertia and high torsional rigidity. The rotational components utilize high precision, low friction bearings. To transmit the power and the motion, both rotary and linear, a small diameter wire rope was utilized [1]. It provides low backlash, low stretch, high flexibility link between each moving element and an encoder that is coupled to the actuator. A spring mechanism is used to maintain the constant wire rope tension regardless of the direction of the instrument's motion. The wire rope drive provides a smooth, no step motion.

For control purposes, the gimbal and linear guide are equipped with optical encoders and DC motors Fig.1. Optical encoders provide information about the current position as feedback for a control loop controlled by a PID controller and actuated by a DC motor. The control task of this system is the optimally navigate in 3D space with obstacles according to data provided by the optMIS software. Such a task consists of many steps. Each of them is a displacement control in the straight line elements which make up the optimal path.

1) Hardware configuration: CAST uses two fixtures, the left and right *hands* which are mechanical elements to mount the laparoscopic instruments. In addition, optical encoders and DC motors are used to measure and control the position of the instruments. The gimbal and a linear guide provide 4 DOF Fig.2, each of them linked by pulleys to a shaft connected to individual optical encoders for measurement. For each fixture, there are four optical encoders (2048 counts per rotation). Each encoder is connected to a USB4 module [14] that provides a communication mechanism with a host PC and performs quadrature encoder measurements. Quadrature measurement uses the very common 4X counting method, which provides the highest resolution possible (8192 counts per rotation). Moreover, a C/C++ library is provided to communicate with the USB4 module [15], [14].

The hardware described above provides a means to accurately track the tip movements of laparoscopic instruments used in minimally invasive surgery. Furthermore it provides feedback, feeding the data to a PID controller. The correction feature of the PID controller is completed with an Arduino module, low pass filter, Maxon ADS50 servoamplifier for driving permanent magnet DC motors, and the Maxon DC motor as actuators. These elements are connected respectively, to provide a hardware mechanism to control each individual degree of freedom.

The Arduino module comprises of an ATMega328 microcontroller. Its pins are connected to the low pass filter to output a steady signal for the ADS50 servoamplifier. The primary use of the Arduino module is to output Pulse Width Modulation (PWM) signals of varying duty cycles representing the amount of maximum torque desired. Essentially, low pass filtering a PWM signal is a simplified D/A converter from the Arduino module to the ADS50 servoamplifier.

The ADS50 servoamplifier, manufactured by Maxon, is used to provide the necessary power and control based on a reference voltage to the Maxon motors pertaining to each degree of freedom. This reference voltage (between [-12V,12V]) is determined by the simplified D/A converter; the polarity determines the motor spin direction while the voltage determines the desired torque.

2) Supporting software: The supporting software environment comprises of the following elements: CAST III Calibrator, optMIS, and Controller Simulink with Arduino software. CAST III Calibrator provides all calibration pro-



Figure 2. The laparoscopic instrument in linear guide and gimbal provide 4 DOF.

cedures necessary to maintain the desired system accuracy. optMIS [7] module provides outputs of optimum (i.e. shortest) paths between obstacles, towards given targets. The Controller Simulink program first collects data from the optical encoders via the USB4 module. It subsequently feeds this data to a controller which adjusts the PID control as necessary to maintain the desired position of the laparoscopic instrument. Finally, to complete the PID control procedures, motors are actuated through the Arduino module. All these activities are carried out in real-time.

The Arduino software provides an Arduino bootloader for an ATMega328 controller [10]. The code running on the bootloader is a server program that allows seamless communication to the Arduino module from the Arduino IO blocks in Simulink [11]. The primary use of this module is to output two PWM signals of varying duty cycles representing the amount of maximum torque desired.

### **III. SYSTEM LIMITATIONS**

The accuracy of the position measurement is limited by the calibration inaccuracy and the mechanical perturbation on the fixtures during movements. The tools used during calibration have the following accuracies: caliper indication error 0.03 mm, measuring tape -  $1/32^{\circ}$ , protractor -  $0.5^{\circ}$ , plummet- optical accuracy. Through experimentation it was determined that the inaccuracy of this particular system is no greater than 5mm.

With regard to the control system, the sampling rate is limited by the Arduino system. The highest sampling rate guaranteed by Arduino is 25Hz. Thus, we tuned the PID controller accordingly to address this limitation.

The motors used in this system has a stall torque of 493 mNm [12]. However, the torque necessary for guidance is significantly less than this amount. We experimentally found that the efficient torque for this system is 5.95 mNm. Such torque value guarantees suggestive guidance to users and, at



Figure 3. Cuboids that constitute shortest paths.

the same time, does not cause the wire rope to slip on the pulleys.

### IV. THE STRUCTURE OF OPTMIS OUTPUT DATA

To assure integrity between the optMIS software and the CAST system, the workspace and shortest paths found by the method are stored in pre-defined data structures, namely, *spaceMatrix* and *pathsMatrix*. The *spaceMatrix* contains elementary cuboids of the workspace and defines cuboids that constitute obstacles. The *pathsMatrix* specifies cuboids that contain shortest path points. The data structures are formulated as follows:

spaceMatrix = struct('cuboidID',{}, 'obstID',{}, 'vertices',{});
pathsMatrix = struct('cuboidID',{}, 'pathID',{}, 'point',{}).

Records of the data structures are described with the following fields:

- cuboidID is the identifier of elementary cuboid,
- *obstID* is the identifier of an obstacle,
- vertices defines vertices of elementary cuboid,
- *pathID* is the identifier of a shortest path  $(1 \rightarrow right; 2 \rightarrow left)$ ,
- point contains Cartesian coordinates of a path point.

For instance, if the first cuboid is located in a free space, the fields of the data structure *spaceMatrix* should be populated as follows:

spaceMatrix(1).cuboidID = 1; spaceMatrix(1).obstID = 0; spaceMatrix(1).vertices = [0 0 0; ; 1 1 1].

Fig.3 illustrates how the workspace can be reconstructed using elementary cuboids. Fig.4 shows channels of cuboids that contain sample shortest paths.

### V. PROPOSED SOLUTION

### A. Transformation of the XYZ coordinate system

Any point of the 3D space inside the surgical training box may be represented by a triple  $\langle x, y, z \rangle$ . The gimbal fixture provides four degrees of freedom (Yaw, Pitch, Insertion, and Rotation). However, the assumption of axial symmetry of



Figure 4. Workspace reconstruction.

a laparoscopic instrument allows us to omit the *Rotation*. Given the properties of the gimbal design, the tips of the laparoscopic instruments can be set on any position based on another triple  $\langle y, p, i \rangle$  (*yaw, pitch, insertion*). Thus, it is necessary to transform the *XYZ* space onto the *YPI* space. The desired transformation should be bijective.

$$Tran(X, Y, Z) \to (Y, P, I)$$
 (1)

Both spaces are Cartesian. Thus, we may define three mapping functions, respectively, for each of the *YPI* dimensions, as follows:

$$Ins = \sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2 + (z-z_0)^2}$$
(2)

$$Yaw = ASIN[(x - x_0)/Ins]$$
(3)

$$Pitch = ATAN[(z-z_0)/(y-y_0)]$$
(4)  
if  $(y-y_0) = 0$  then  $Pitch = -90^o$ 

where  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is the center of gimbal reference frame.

1) Obstacles in Y, P, I Space: The fixtures, encoders, and DC motors work in YPI space. Using the mapping functions (2)-(5), we transform coordinates of all obstacles located in the training space. Furthermore, we should consider additional movement obstacles that result from the physical restrictions of instruments' fixtures. The obstacles generate the 'no-fly-zone'[2] larger than the space occupied by them. As a result of the physical realization of movement based on the gimbal and linear guide, the 'no-fly-zone' consists of an obstacle and its 'shadow zone'. To determine this 'shadow zone' in the YXZ space, we use a specific affine transformation- dilation (DIL), with similarity factor  $k \ge 1$  and a homothetic point located in the center of gimbal. As a result we obtain 'no-fly-zone' (nFZ) as a union of obstacle (obs) dilations, as follows:

$$nFZ(obs) = \bigcup_{k \ge 1} DIL_k(obs) = obs + \bigcup_{k > 1} DIL_k(obs)$$
(5)



Figure 5. The shadow zone determination in the different coordinate systems: (a). XYZ grid space, (b). YPI grid space.

In XYZ space the union (5) forms a cut pyramid shape. While a projection (5) is tangled when realized numerically in the YXZ grid (we use matrices as numerical representation of training space), it becomes significantly simple after the (2)-(5) transformation. In the YPI grid the 'shadow zone' is a cuboid extension of an obstacle along the insertion axis until  $INS_{max}$ .

2) Optimal Path Representation: The YPI space in the laparoscopic trainer box was divided into elementary cuboids [y, p, i] forming a 3D grid. The widths of this grid are proportional to the accuracy we can obtain (according to the mechanical and technical restrictions) on each axis. Therefore, the corresponding 3D matrix, named LTBS (Laparoscopic Trainer Box Space) has different dimensions  $[Y_{max}, P_{max}, I_{max}]$ . The LTBS matrix contains an image of obstacles deployment on a training scene, no-fly-zones, and the optimal path, which should be traveled. This optimal path of movement is given in the form of a chain of route points. Each point determined by the triple  $\langle y, p, i \rangle$  is assigned to its cuboid (cell). If the point were to lie exactly on the grid, we would use the floor rule (round toward negative infinity) to determine the assignment. Finally, we place the values which code the status of the corresponding cuboids in laparoscopic trainer box space into the cells of the LTBS matrix.

Coding rules are:

- 0 free space,
- 1 obstacle,
- 2 obstacle's no-fly-zone (shadow zone),
- 3 element of optimal path

### B. Broadening the Path

1) Pareto Zone: The optimal path obtained from optMIS calculations forms a chain of triples  $\langle x, y, z \rangle$ . The transformation of  $\langle x, y, z \rangle$  to  $\langle y, p, i \rangle$  is a trivial task if we use equations (2)-(5). However, the realization of movement along the so-determined path is difficult to perform. The encoders guarantee high accuracy but collaborate with the mechanical components in polar coordinates, thus decreasing the accuracy. Therefore, and due to the mechanical

perturbation, we broaden the optimal path to create a zone that we name Pareto ( $\pi$ ). The path is no longer a polyline. It becomes a tube of a defined diameter in the laparoscopic trainer box space. In the case of a polyline, moving from point to point, there is only one optimal solution. The creation of the Pareto zone results in a set of Pareto optimal possibilities. Each possibility is good enough. As a result of extending the path with the Pareto zone ( $\pi$ ), a new code will need to be added. This new code will be defined as 4.

2) Computer Assistance Zones: Hand-eye coordination and feedback skills play a very significant role in the work of laparoscopic surgeons. During the implementation of training exercises, we reinforce optimal movement through *haptic feedback*. For this purpose, we involve two additional zones. First, we broaden the Pareto zone by surrounding it by a zone we define as tolerance  $(\vartheta)$ . Second, for each obstacle on a training scene we define a safekeeping shield around it- collision zone ( $\varkappa$ ). The result are two insulating layers; around the Pareto optimal path ( $\pi$ ) defined as tolerance( $\vartheta$ ) and collision( $\varkappa$ ) surrounding obstacles. Finally, we obtain a structure of the inner Pareto optimal path ( $\pi$ ) surrounded by two insulating layers ( $\vartheta, \varkappa$ ).

Inside a tolerance zone  $(\vartheta)$ , based on the control system using motors mounted on each of the axes, we produce feedback force directed towards the center of the  $(\pi, \vartheta, \varkappa)$ structure. This force is proportional to the distance from the Pareto zone but small enough so that it can be overcome by a trainee. Additionally, while the laparoscopic instrument is in zone  $(\vartheta)$ , the assessment procedure increments a penalty function. The increase in the penalty factor depends on the time spent in this  $(\vartheta)$  zone and the distance from the inner Pareto zone  $(\pi)$ 

Inside a collision zone  $(\varkappa)$ , we also modify the strategy of the control system using motors mounted on each of the axes. The produced feedback force has the same direction but the applied force of feedback is much greater. The feedback force value depends on the distance, time inside the collision zone, and additionally, takes into account the speed and acceleration of movement inside this  $(\varkappa)$  zone. Rapid changes result in higher strength force. The penalty function is incremented while the laparoscopic instrument is in this  $(\varkappa)$  zone. Similarly to the previous case, the increasing force factor depends on the time spent in this  $(\varkappa)$  zone, the distance from the inner Pareto zone  $(\pi)$ , and takes into account the speed and acceleration of movement.

We widen the scope of codes. Thus, finally, the coding rules are:

- 0 initial value,
- 1 obstacle,
- 2 obstacle's no-fly-zone (shadow zone),
- 3 element of optimal path,
- 4 Pareto optimal element of broadened path,
- 5 element of tolerance zone,
- 6 element of collision zone.

### VI. CONTROL STRATEGY

The proposed system requires an individual feedback loop for each degree of freedom. Separate feedback loops use PID controllers. To tune each of control loop, we adjust controller parameters (proportional gain - K, integral time  $T_i$ and derivative time  $T_d$ ) to fulfill stability requirements and to ensure consistent movement of laparoscopic instruments. As a result, we obtain different set of PID control parameters for each degree of freedom (DOF). Furthermore, applying three zones  $\pi$ ,  $\vartheta$ ,  $\varkappa$  requires using only one or two of PID properties to provide the appropriate system control. This is achieved by setting the other parameters to zero. However, this requires a new tune-up process and finally results in a new set of control parameters. For the sake of simplicity, we first implement a feedback loop for one DOF (yaw) of one fixture. After we characterize this, we will scale for all DOF of two mechanical fixtures, namely, the left and right 'hands'.



Figure 6. Block diagram of feedback control of Yaw

Each controller in the feedback loop will be different for the proposed three zones. Specifically, the controllers will be: none, P, and PID. To characterize this behavior, we will use a modified state chart where each state will represent a controller with associated properties for a particular zone [4]. Additionally, the edges of each state will be conditioned upon a guard. Finally, there is an initial edge reset case, where the destination is our initial state (q=1). The properties of the state [5] and characteristics of the guard are as follows: State

- q: the state index,
- scope: the set of codes associated with the state,
- $u_q(t)$ : the controller output associated with q state,
- $y_q(t)$ : the current position in the training space.

Guard (origin, destination): condition that must be met before the transition.

The controller transition can be seen in Fig.7. There is one noteworthy point: the Guard(any,1) edge represents the situation when a reset condition has been met. This is the case when the system is starting and initializing all the rule codes prior to determining the controller. The information for each state is given below:

State 
$$q = 0$$
: Initial, scope = 0,  
 $u_0(t) = 0$ ,  
Guard(0,4):  $y(t) \in \pi$ ,  
Guard(0,5):  $y(t) \in \vartheta$ ,



Figure 7. Controller states diagram

$$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Guard}(0,6): y(t) \in \varkappa, \\ \mbox{Guard}(0,2): y(t) \in \mbox{obs}, \end{array} \\ \mbox{State } q = 4: \mbox{Pareto zone, scope} = 3 \cup 4, \\ \mbox{$u_4(t) = 0$, \\ \mbox{Guard}(4,5): y(t) \in \vartheta, \\ \mbox{Guard}(4,0): \mbox{reset.} \end{array} \\ \mbox{State } q = 5: \mbox{Tolerance zone, scope} = 5, \\ \mbox{$u_5(t) = K_{p5}$ e(t), \\ \mbox{Guard}(5,4): y(t) \in \pi, \\ \mbox{Guard}(5,6): y(t) \in \varkappa, \\ \mbox{Guard}(5,0): \mbox{reset.} \end{array} \\ \mbox{State } q = 6: \mbox{Collision zone, scope} = 6, \\ \mbox{$u_6(t) = K_{p6}$ e(t) + K_{i6}$ \int_{0}^{t} e(\tau)d\tau + K_{d6}\frac{dx}{dt}, \\ \mbox{Guard}(6,5): y(t) \in \vartheta, \\ \mbox{Guard}(6,1): y(t) \in 0bs, \\ \mbox{Guard}(6,0): \mbox{reset.} \end{array} \\ \mbox{State } q = 1: \mbox{Obstacle zone, scope} = 1 \cup 2, \\ \mbox{$u_1(t) = K_{p1}$ e(t) + K_{i1}$ \int_{0}^{t} e(\tau)d\tau + K_{d1}\frac{dx}{dt}, \\ \mbox{Guard}(1,6): y(t) \in \varkappa, \\ \mbox{Guard}(1,0): \mbox{reset.} \end{array}$$

In the state q = 5 the controller executes P algorithm, while in state q = 6 and q = 1 it uses PID algorithms. Note that the constants  $K_{p5}$ ,  $K_{p6}$ ,  $K_{i6}$ ,  $K_{d6}$  can be, and usually are different. However, the constants  $K_{p1}$ ,  $K_{i1}$ ,  $K_{d1}$  are the same as in state q = 6. With regard to states q = 6 and q = 1, the desire is to slow the users' movements to prevent or to attenuate the effect of collisions with an obstacle and nudge them towards the optimal path.

### VII. CONCLUSIONS AND CURRENT RESEARCH

Inaccuracy in calibration of a technical system is a common problem. It affects our optimal navigation as well as the PID control strategy (which relies on time-domain features) during the optMIS implementation in CAST. We implement both relation and rough sets theory, and combine them with spatial regions and a hybrid dynamical system. With the resulting control method shown, it is possible to determine which features are most affected, when space or time degradation starts, and which parameters must be dynamically adjusted to avoid or to delay the outset of fixture deficiency.

Currently, we are working on the enhancement of our PID control algorithms to adapt to dynamical properties of the controlled objects (fixtures, DC motors, encoders), so that we can clearly differentiate it for each of zones (no-fly, Pareto optimal, tolerance and collision zones).

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