## Supplementary Material - Optimal Control Predicts Human Performance on Objects with Internal Degrees of Freedom

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# **Optimal Control Models**

Here, we provide details about the state update equations used in the two optimal control models. Let  $\mathcal{K}$  be the spring constant matrix,  $\mathcal{B}$  be the viscosity matrix and  $\mathcal{M}$  be the mass matrix of the mass-spring-damper:

$$\mathcal{K} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{11} & k_{12} \\ k_{21} & k_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathcal{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathcal{M} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

### Linear, point-mass optimal control model

Let  $m_h$  be the mass of the hand,  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  be the time constants of the second order linear muscle filter, which then yields the state space equation:

$$\vec{x}(t) = A\vec{x}(t) + B\vec{u}(t)$$

with the matrices

where the variables in the A matrix correspond to:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_{k_x} &= -\frac{m_{22} \times k_{11} - m_{12} \times k_{21}}{|\mathcal{M}|} & \mathcal{A}_{b_x} &= -\frac{m_{22} \times b_{12} - m_{12} \times b_{22}}{|\mathcal{M}|} \\ \mathcal{A}_{k_{xy}} &= -\frac{m_{22} \times k_{12} - m_{12} \times k_{22}}{|\mathcal{M}|} & \mathcal{A}_{b_{xy}} &= -\frac{m_{22} \times b_{12} - m_{12} \times b_{22}}{|\mathcal{M}|} \\ \mathcal{A}_{k_{yx}} &= -\frac{m_{11} \times k_{21} - m_{21} \times k_{11}}{|\mathcal{M}|} & \mathcal{A}_{b_{yx}} &= -\frac{m_{11} \times b_{21} - m_{21} \times b_{11}}{|\mathcal{M}|} \\ \mathcal{A}_{k_y} &= -\frac{m_{11} \times k_{22} - m_{21} \times k_{12}}{|\mathcal{M}|} & \mathcal{A}_{b_y} &= -\frac{m_{11} \times b_{22} - m_{21} \times b_{12}}{|\mathcal{M}|}. \end{aligned}$$

For computational reasons the problem needs to be discretized and the discretization was performed using a matrix exponential with time step t = 0.01s.

### Non-linear, two-link arm optimal control model

The algorithm developed by Todorov & Li (2005) [1] was used, which is available from http://www.cs.washington.edu/homes/todorov/, was used. Their dynamics model of the arm was left unchanged and the following state update matrix for the object was added to the existing code:

# LQR with incomplete state observation and sensorimotor delay

To investigate possible effects of a sensorimotor delay on the simulation results, we adapted the linear optimal control model above in accordance with [2]. This was done by changing the model from one of complete state observation to one of incomplete state observation:

$$y(t) = Hx(t) + \omega(t).$$

where H is the observation matrix and  $\omega(t)$  is a sensory noise term with mean 0 and covariance matrix  $\Omega^{\omega}$ . This formulation already implies a time delay of one time step. A sensorimotor delay of a total of 10 time steps (i.e. 100 ms, which is roughly the time to respond to a visual perturbation [3–5]) was implemented using the augmented state:

$$\tilde{x}(t) = [x(t), Hx(t-9), Hx(t-8), \dots, Hx(t-1)].$$

An augmented observation matrix  $\tilde{H}$  extracts the component Hx(t-9) of  $\tilde{x}(t)$ 

 $\tilde{H} = \begin{bmatrix} 0_{14 \times 14}, I_{14 \times 14}, 0_{14 \times 14}, \dots, 0_{14 \times 14} \end{bmatrix}$ 

and an augmented dynamics matrix  $\tilde{A}$  removes Hx(t-9), shifts the remaining sensory readings, and includes Hx(t) in the next state  $\tilde{x}(t+1)$ 

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		$I_{14 \times 14}$						
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The sensory noise terms were set to 0 except for the hand and object position and the hand and object velocity which were set to 0.01 m and to 0.1  $ms^{-1}$  respectively. All other parameter settings were kept the same as in the model without delay. The results of the simulations are displayed in Figure S1. The model predictions for the delayed linear optimal controller are quantitatively only slightly better (i.e. explain 1%-5% more of the variance than the non-delayed version of the model) but are qualitatively very much the same. This is due to the fact that there are no unanticipated perturbations in our task and that the trials we analyse are at the end of learning when subjects already have a very good idea of the dynamics of the objects. Therefore subjects are likely to have used mostly feed-forward control rather than correcting online using the visual- and haptic feedback provided by the virtual reality setup.

# Sensitivity Analysis

To analyse how sensitive both optimal control models are to the particular values of  $w_e$  and  $w_o$  chosen for the fits in the main article, we performed a sensitivity analysis on the data for condition B-low.

# Dependency of $R^2$ on the parameters $w_v$ , $w_e$ and $w_o$ (Figure S8)

We changed all three parameters from between one tenth to ten times of their initial fitted values and computed  $R^2$  values for all the different settings. Both models (Figure S8A) are very robust to increases in  $w_v$  and  $w_o$  or decreases in  $w_e$ , which do not affect the model predictions in the range of values investigated. In contrast, increases in  $w_e$  worsen the fits slightly as the controller becomes greedier and the hand moves more directly towards the target. Similarly, decreasing  $w_o$  down to one tenth of its initial value reduces the goodness of fit only slightly as the hand path becomes straighter and the object starts missing the target. Decreases of  $w_v$  again worsen the fits slightly as the hand path becomes more curved and looses its loop mid-way (see below for more details).

### Effect of $w_e$ on model predictions (Figure S9)

To provide an intuition of how the hand path depends on  $w_e$ , the object weight  $w_o$  and the velocity weight  $w_v$  were held constant and set to the value used in the paper (linear model:  $w_o = 0.05$ ,  $w_v = 0.1$ ; non-linear model:  $w_o = 10$ ,  $w_v = 0.1$ ).  $w_e$  was varied across ten orders of magnitude (linear model: from  $10^{-2}$  to  $10^{-12}$  - original fit:  $w_e = 10^{-8}$ ; non-linear model: from  $2 \times 10^3$  to  $2 \times 10^{-7}$  - original fit:  $w_e = 2 \times 10^{-3}$ ).

For larger values of  $w_e$  both controllers become greedier and the hand path looses its loop and becomes straighter. Eventually the hand does not even reach the target anymore as the effort term in the cost function becomes more important than the positional and accuracy component. Reducing the effort requirement did not result in any significant changes over the range of values investigated.

## Effect of $w_o$ on model predictions (Figure S10 and S11)

The effort weight  $w_e$  and the velocity weight  $w_v$  were held constant and set to the value of the original fit (linear model:  $w_e = 10^{-8}$ ,  $w_v = 0.1$ ; non-linear model:  $w_e = 2 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $w_v = 0.1$ ).  $w_o$  was varied across six orders of magnitude (linear model: from  $5 \times 10^{-5}$  to 5 - original fit:  $w_o = 0.05$ ; non-linear model: from 0.01 to 1000 - original fit:  $w_o = 10$ ).

Results of the simulations for the linear model are depicted in Figure S10 and for the non-linear model in Figure S11. When the object weight  $w_o$  gets smaller, the hand path becomes straighter and the object starts missing the target. Similarly, when the object weight  $w_o$  gets larger the object path becomes straighter and eventually the hand starts missing the target (non-linear model:  $w_o = 10^3$ ).

### Effect of $w_v$ on model predictions (Figure S12 and S13)

The effort weight  $w_e$  and the object weight  $w_o$  were held constant and set to the value of the original fit (linear model:  $w_e = 10^{-8}$ ,  $w_o = 0.05$ ; non-linear model:  $w_e = 2 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $w_o = 10$ ).  $w_v$  was varied across six orders of magnitude (linear model: from  $10^{-4}$  to 10 - original fit:  $w_v = 0.1$ ; non-linear model: from  $10^{-4}$  to 10 - original fit:  $w_v = 0.1$ ; non-linear model: from  $10^{-4}$  to 10 - original fit:  $w_v = 0.1$ ; non-linear model: from  $10^{-4}$  to 10 - original fit:  $w_v = 0.1$ ).

Results of the simulations for the linear model are depicted in Figure S12 and for the non-linear model in Figure S13. When the velocity weight  $w_v$  gets smaller, the hand and object path become more curved and the hand path looses its loop mid-way. Increasing the velocity requirement did not result in any significant changes over the range of values investigated.

### LQR with model uncertainty and incomplete learning

To investigate the effects of model uncertainty and incomplete learning, we adapted the linear optimal control model above in accordance with [6]. Incomplete learning of the internal model was implemented by multiplying all entries in the A-matrix relating to the object dynamics by the scaling factor  $\alpha = 0.8$  ( $\alpha = 1$  would correspond to fully learned object dynamics as before):

In addition model uncertainty was introduced by adding state dependent noise to the dynamics:

$$x_{t+1} = (A + \gamma_t V)x_t + Bu_t + \sum_{i=1}^2 \epsilon_t^i C_i u_t$$

where  $\gamma_t$  is a Gaussian scalar random variable with mean 0 and standard deviation 1, and V is a scaling parameter matrix which scales the variance of the model parameter uncertainty:

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	•		•	• • •		•		•••
	$\sigma  imes \mathcal{A}_{k_x}$	$\sigma imes \mathcal{A}_{b_x}$	$\sigma \times (-\mathcal{A}_{k_x})$	• • •	$\sigma  imes \mathcal{A}_{k_{xy}}$	$\sigma  imes \mathcal{A}_{b_{xy}}$	$\sigma \times (-\mathcal{A}_{k_{xy}})$	• • •
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	$\sigma  imes \mathcal{A}_{k_{yx}}$	$\sigma  imes \mathcal{A}_{b_{yx}}$	$\sigma \times (-\mathcal{A}_{k_{yx}})$		$\sigma  imes \mathcal{A}_{k_y}$	$\sigma  imes \mathcal{A}_{b_y}$	$\sigma \times (-\mathcal{A}_{k_y})$	
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For the simulations  $\sigma$  was set to 0.2. The implementation is based on incomplete state observation and the sensory noise terms were set to 0 except to 0.01 m for hand and object position and to 0.1  $ms^{-1}$ for hand and object velocity. All other parameter settings were kept the same as in the model without delay.

## References

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