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Bubble Casting Soft Robotics

Trevor J. Jones,¹ Etienne Jambon-Puillet,¹ Joel Marthelot,^{1,2} P.-T. Brun,^{1*}

¹Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08540, USA ²Aix-Marseille University, CNRS,

IUSTI, 13013, Marseille, France

Inspired by living organisms, soft robots are developed from intrinsically compliant materials enabling continuous motions mimicking animal and vegetal movement [1]. In soft robots, the canonical hinges and bolts are replaced by elastomers assembled into actuators programmed to change shape following the application of stimuli, e.g. pneumatic inflation [2–5]. The morphing information is typically directly embedded within the shape of these actuators, whose assembly is facilitated by recent advances in rapid prototyping techniques [6–11]. Yet, these manufacturing processes have limitations in scalability, design flexibility and robustness. Here we demonstrate a new all-in-one methodology for the fabrication and the programming of soft machines. Instead of relying on the assembly of individual parts, our approach harnesses interfacial flows in elastomers that progressively cure to robustly produce monolithic pneumatic actuators whose shape can easily be tailored to suit applications ranging from artificial muscles to grippers. We rationalize the fluid mechanics at play in the assembly of our actuators and model their subsequent morphing. We leverage this quantitative knowledge to program these soft machines and produce complex functionalities, e.g. sequential motion obtained from a monotonic stimulus. We expect that the flexibility, robustness and predictive nature of our methodology will accelerate the proliferation of soft robotics by enabling the assembly of complex actuators, e.g. long, tortuous or vascular structures, thereby paving the way towards new functionalities stemming from geometric and material nonlinearities.

Soft robots can achieve complex tasks such as gentle 1 gripping, crawling, or swimming [3, 12, 13] using low-2 complexity, muscle-like soft actuators that bend, twist, 3 contract, or elongate on demand [2, 5, 14-16]. This 4 unique combination of softness and bioinspired motion 5 make soft robots appealing for a variety of innovative ap-6 plications where rigid robots would fail [17]. This bloom-7 ing field is fueled by recent insights in modeling, compu-8 tations and manufacturing that enable the design, the 9 programming and the assembly of various kinds of soft 10 machines. While chemically, thermally, electrically or 11 magnetically activated soft actuators have been demon-12 strated [18–24], silicone bodied pneumatic robots pow-13 ered by pressurized voids have drawn considerable atten-14 tion owing to their simple and rapid actuation [25, 26]. 15 The kinematics of such robots is encoded in the actu-16 ator flesh, i.e. shape or material, such that a change 17 of internal pressure is mechanically converted into spe-18 cific motion [27]. Manufacturing soft pneumatic actu-19 ators, particularly the void, is non-trivial and is usu-20 ally accomplished with sequential molding procedures 21 and removable frameworks that are tailored for specific 22 actuators. Likewise, state-of-the-art film coating tech-23 niques [9–11] are restricted to simple geometries, while 24

freeform fabrication techniques [7,8] typically lack scal-25 ability and require long printing times. Often, the in-26 flation of these actuators is hard to predict such that 27 trial and error or long simulations are required to tailor 28 the shape of the actuator for specific applications. Ad-29 ditionaly, soft pneumatic robots assembled from these 30 actuators need to perform complex or sequential motion 31 which typically require several actuators with indepen-32 dent fluid sources [28]. 33

Here we introduce *bubble casting*, a simple and versa-34 tile fabrication methodology to assemble monolithic ac-35 tuators programmed using the rules and tools of fluid 36 mechanics. Fig. 1a and Movie S1 illustrate our ap-37 proach involving elastomers that spontaneously cure 38 when reagents are mixed (see Methods). We first fill 39 a tubular mold by injecting uncured elastomer melt. 40 While the melt is still liquid, we inject air to form an 41 elongated bubble that creates the inner void of the ac-42 tuator (Fig. 1ai). Gravity then sculpts the actuator by 43 draining the polymer film and allowing the bubble to 44 rise (Fig. 1aii). Eventually, as the melt solidifies this 45 shape is *frozen* and the actuator can be readily used 46 when de-molded, e.g. as a gripper (Fig. 1aiii). In the fol-47 lowing we demonstrate how to control bubble casting to 48



Figure 1: From flow to programmed actuation. (a) Schematic of the *bubble Casting* fabrication methodology. A bubble is injected (i) in a mold previously flooded with polymer melt. The residue of polymer drains (ii) and cure to provide a anisotropic actuator that can be readily used when de-molded, e.g. as a gripper (iii) (scale-bar: 1 cm). (b) Contractile coiling of long actuators yielding: (i) muscle-like contraction and (ii) linear translation (scale-bars: 5cm). (c) The bubble casting dynamics is used to program the deformation of an actuator, i.e. displaying sequential flexion of the four labeled digits following inflation via a simple pressure ramp (scale-bar: 1 cm). Morphing dynamics of (d) a curvilinear actuator (experiments and numerical simulation) submerged in a density matched fluid (scale-bar: 2 cm). (e) (i) Spiral shaped actuator and (ii) cross-like actuator, both attached to a thin membrane (scale-bars: 2 cm). (f) "Fish tail" motion is obtained using bubble-casting in a branched network (scale-bar: 1 cm). (g) Actuator displaying curvature of equal magnitude but opposite signs obtained by rotating the mold at the gelation point of the polymer (scale-bar: 1 cm) (see Movie S4).

achieve versatile and programmable actuators. We first 49 fully rationalize the fluid mechanics at play during the 50 bubble injection and the drainage to predict the shape 51 of the actuators' cross-section. We then turn to the elas-52 tic problem to elucidate how the bending motion upon 53 inflation is determined by the shape previously sculpted. 54 We leverage these quantitative results to design actua-55 tors programmed for specific tasks through bubble cast-56 ing such as soft robotic muscles with tunable strength 57 capable of lifting objects (Fig. 1b and Movie S2) and soft 58 fingers with sequential actuation from a single pressure 59 source (Fig. 1c and Movie S3). Additionally, controlled 60 folding in three dimension is demonstrated using curvi-61 linear actuators, either free (Fig. 1d) or attached to thin 62 membranes (Fig. 1e-f). Finally, we show that bending in 63 different directions can be achieved by rotating portions 64 of the mold relative to each other around the gelation 65 point of the polymer [29] (Fig. 1g and Movie S4). 66

The shape of the cross section of our actuators is im-67 parted by a two-fold process (Fig. 1a). First, the injec-68 tion of the air bubble in the uncured melt results in the 69 deposition of a thin polymer annulus in the mold, then 70 the concomitant gravity-driven drainage and curing of 71 the elastomer sculpt the final shape. We first consider 72 the shape of the cross-section prior to drainage, right 73 after the bubble injection. The flow at the front of the 74 advancing bubble (Fig. 2a) leaves an annulus of constant 75 thickness h_i . Fig. 2b shows this thickness in dimension-76 less form h_i/R as a function of the dimensionless bubble 77 speed or capillary number $Ca = \mu U/\gamma$, with R the ra-78 dius, μ the melt viscosity, U the bubble velocity, and γ 79 the melt surface tension. The data for different polymers 80 and tube radii fall on a master curve showing that the 81 thickness first increases with the velocity until it even-82 tually saturates for $Ca \gtrsim 3$. 83

This master curve can be understood from balanc- 84



fined in Fig. 2a, the final shape consists of an upper thin film $(\psi \leq \pi/4)$ of quasi uniform thickness connected to a thicker region at the bottom.

We first consider the upper thin film drainage driven 99 by gravity g and resisted by viscosity [33]. To predict 100 the final thickness, we must account for the time varying 101 viscosity of our melt $\mu(t)$ as it solidifies. Our rheological 102 measurements (see SI S3.1) are well described by the 103 function $\mu(t) = \mu_0 (1 - t/\tau_c)^{-n}$ which diverges at $t = \tau_c$ 104 the curing time. The values of the initial viscosity μ_0 , 105 the curing time τ_c and the exponent and $n \simeq 2$ are fitted 106 from the data, while the density of the melt ρ is assumed 107 constant (see Table S1). Accounting that the drainage 108 starts at a time $t=\tau_w$ after the reagents are mixed and 109 finish at $t = \tau_c$, we include the viscosity variations in our 110 drainage model [34] (see SI S2.4) and predict the final 111 thickness to be: 112

$$h(\tau_c) = \sqrt{\frac{3\mu_0 R(n+1)\tau_c^{n+1}}{2\rho g \tau_c (\tau_c - \tau_w)^{n+1}}}.$$
 (2)

Figure 2: (a) Schematic of the Bretherton problem and photographs of the subsequent final cross-section post drainage. VPS-32 actuators with working time $\tau_w = 300$ s and radius $R = \{3.2, 2.4, 1.6\}$ mm, the red lines show our prediction (See SI S2). (b) Dimensionless Bretherton film thickness h_i/R plotted against the Capillary Number Ca = $\mu_0 U/\gamma$. The solid line is theory (Eq. 1) with $\beta = 2.65$. (c) Film thickness of the samples in (a) plotted against the central angle ψ . The red lines are theoretical predictions (identical to a). (d) Average thickness of the membrane h_f over a meter long sample (R=2.4mm). The black line shows our prediction while the green band accounts for parameters uncertainty.

ing viscous and capillary forces in the advancing meniscus [30-32] (see SI S1) yielding:

$$\frac{h_i}{R} = \frac{1.34 \text{Ca}^{2/3}}{1 + 1.34\beta \text{Ca}^{2/3}}.$$
(1)

We plot Eq. 1 with $\beta = 2.65$ along our data in Fig. 2b and find a good agreement. The melt annulus thickness, and hence the void fraction of the actuator, can thus be tuned by controlling the bubble velocity. In particular, using Ca $\gtrsim 3$ robustly results in $h_i \sim 0.3R$.

The drainage of the annular polymer film left after bubble injection eventually sculpts the cross-section of our actuators shown in Fig. 2a. As evident from Fig. 2c which shows the thickness along the central angle ψ deNote that the final film thickness does not depend on ¹¹³ the initial film thickness. ¹¹⁴

We then consider the lower thick part of the cross-115 sections in Fig. 2a. The shape of this bath results from 116 the competition between gravity and capillarity, yield-117 ing the Young-Laplace equation that we solve numeri-118 cally under the proper constraints (see SI S2.2). Finally, 119 we match the upper film and lower bath to obtain the 120 final thickness profile along the whole cross-section (see 121 SI S2.5). Our model produces the curves overlaid on 122 images of the cross-section in Fig. 2a and the theoretical 123 thickness profile plotted along typical experimental data 124 on Fig. 2c. The agreement is favorable, demonstrating 125 that we have accurately modeled the flow physics of our 126 method. 127

Note that *bubble casting* does not require external 128 control so that fluid mechanics alone dictates the ac-129 tuator shape, thereby making this methodology ex-130 tremely robust. While the membrane thickness is the 131 order 100 μ m, we obtain meter long samples that are 132 virtually uniform (see Fig. 2d). Importantly, we can 133 continuously and predictably tune the membrane av-134 erage thickness h_f through the waiting time τ_w since 135 $h_f \sim (\tau_c/(\tau_c-\tau_w))^{\frac{n+1}{2}}$ (see Eq. 2). In turn, the mem-136 brane thickness will play a key role in the actuator re-137 sponse to inflation as detailed next. 138

Upon inflation, the upper membrane of our *bubble* ¹³⁹ *casted* actuators stretches significantly more than its ¹⁴⁰ lower part, thereby creating a torque that bends the ¹⁴¹



Figure 3: (a) Pictures of a VPS-16 actuator at rest and inflated at constant pressure: the actuator bends with a uniform curvature κ (Scale-bar: 1 cm). Inset: actuator curvature κ as a function of applied pressure P as the thickness is independently varied: $h_f = \{130, 165, 273\} \ \mu m.$ (b) Rescaled dimensionless curvature $\kappa R^2/h_f$ plotted against the rescaled pressure PR/Gh_f . The solid blue lines correspond to the energy minimization theory Eq. S28 for the relevant range of parameters (see SI S4.3). The dashed line is the scaling law Eq. 3 with a prefactor of 0.52. The gray shaded region represents the propagated experimental uncertainty. (c)Pictures of VPS-08 at rest and inflated in a blocking force configuration (Scale-bar: 1 cm). The force F is measured and reported in (d). The black (resp. reddotted) line shows the linear (nonlinear) beam theory prediction (see SI S5.2).

actuator (Fig. 3a). In absence of other forces, the ac-142 tuator bends on its whole length and adopts a uniform 143 curvature κ as shown in Fig. 3a. The pressure required 144 to bend the actuator is independent of its length but 145 increases with the elastic shear modulus G, outer ra-146 dius R and most importantly with the membrane thick-147 ness h_f (Fig. 3a and Fig. S6c). Predicting the defor-148 mation of an actuator is amenable to 3D finite element 149 simulations (see SI S4.2), which further confirm that 150

the lower region of the actuator is virtually undeformed 151 while the upper thin membrane is under quasi isotropic 152 stretch (Fig. S5a). This observation allows us to derive 153 a simplified theoretical treatment of the problem (see SI 154 S4.3), which combined with dimensional analysis suggests that the rescaled curvature $\kappa R^2/h_f$ only depends 156 on the rescaled pressure PR/Gh_f (see SI S4.4). 157

In Fig. 3b we show that following this rescaling provides a reasonable collapse of our data. The resulting 159 master curve exhibits a power law in the useful range of 160 curvature ($\kappa/R > 10^{-2}$) that we fit and recast to obtain 161 the relationship: 162

$$\kappa R \sim \left(\frac{P}{G} \left(\frac{R}{h_f}\right)^{\frac{\alpha-1}{\alpha}}\right)^{\alpha},$$
(3)

163

with $\alpha = 3.72 \pm 0.07$.

Further, we model our actuators as elastic rods [35] 164 with effective natural curvature κ varying according to 165 Eq. 3 when pressure is applied. We solve this centerline 166 based model to predict the deformation of the actua-167 tors in the presence of external loads (see SI S5.2), e.g. 168 when blocked from bending by a wall (Fig. 3c). We find 169 that the overall shape of the actuator and the blocking 170 force F(P) exerted in this setup are well captured by our 171 reduced order model when varying independently the 172 actuator bending stiffness B, shear modulus G, length 173 L, radius R, and thickness h_f (see Fig. 3d), thereby 174 validating the approximations introduced in our model. 175 Importantly, this model allows us to program the me-176 chanical response of our actuators via the shape of their 177 cross-section as detailed next. In our framework, solv-178 ing the inverse design problem, i.e. finding the actuator 179 that will morph to a target curvature, merely requires 180 to invert the scaling law in Eq. 3. 181

Now that we have modeled how our actuators bend and behave as elastic rods, we demonstrate how to leverage this knowledge to design soft robotic muscles inspired by cucumber tendrils [36]. These muscles can be used over a wide range of size and strength (Fig. 4a,b) and can be integrated to programmable soft machines (Fig. 4c).

When subject to gravity, the curvature imparted 189 by the actuation pressure competes with the actuator 190 weight and generates a curling motion (see Fig. 4a). 191 These shapes are analogous to the static configurations 192 obtained with naturally curved elastic rods [37] and are 193 well captured by our centerline-based theory. In Fig. 4d 194 we show that our robotic muscles can contract up to 195 $1 - \ell/L \approx 80\%$ of their initial length before entering in 196 self-contact, exceeding the stroke of typical pneumatic 197



Figure 4: (a) Contractile coiling of an actuator formed in a rectilinear mold. Experiments and model are shown side-by-side (see SI S5; scale-bar: 5 cm). (b) Pictures of two VPS-16 robotic muscles of R = 6.4 and 0.5 mm lifting an empty bottle and a paperclip (scale-bars: 4 cm). (c) Pictures of a soft machine gripping and lifting a ball from a narrow cylinder (scale-bar: 5 cm). (d) Contraction ℓ/L (see a) as a function of the applied pressure for actuators with different apex thicknesses $h_f = \{0.14, 0.17, 0.22\}$ mm. (e) Same data shown as a function of the dimensionless pressure. The red curve is the result of Kirchhoff rod simulations (see SI S5). VPS-16, shear modulus G = 172 kPa, outer radius R = 1.6 mm and length L = 320 mm. (f) Force-elongation curves of a typical actuator at different pressure. The solid curves are the result of the equivalent Kirchhoff rod simulations (see SI S5).

muscles [38]. As evident from the figure, the transition 198 between the extended and contracted configurations is 199 sharp and occurs for values of pressure varying with h_f . 200 In Fig. 4e we show that the variation of the free-hang 201 length with pressure collapses when using Eq. 3 com-202 bined to our rod model, further confirming the validity 203 of our rod theory in the limit of very large deforma-204 tions. As such, we can predict and tune the pulling 205 force exerted by these muscles. For instance, in Fig. 4f 206 we show that the effective stiffness of our muscles can 207 be smoothly varied via the applied pressure. This level 208 of control allows us to program soft machines capable of 209 achieving complex tasks, such as fetching a ball sitting at 210 the bottom of a narrow cylinder (Fig. 4c and Movie S5). 211 This contraption comprises two interconnected building 212 blocks reverse engineered using Eq. 3 to sequentially grip 213 and then pull a ball following the monotonic increase of 214

a *single* pressure source.

Programming can also be achieved using fluid mechan-216 ics alone, i.e. modulating the membrane thickness h_f via 217 eq. 2. For instance, using a programmed sequence of in-218 jection of the bubble where τ_w increases by step across 219 a sample, we readily cast an actuator with four different 220 values of h_f , each confined to a "finger" of the actuator 221 (see Fig. 1c). As a result, an increase of the pressure in 222 this monolithic actuator leads to the sequential bending 223 of each finger shown in Fig. 1c and Movie S3. Likewise, 224 we can solve the inverse problem where a simple target 225 shape can be obtained by carefully choosing τ_w across 226 the actuator (see Movie S6). 227

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In closing, we note that *Bubble casting* is a bondingfree fabrication method that relies on the fluid flow instead of an internal template to build a void. This reliance on continuum mechanics as opposed to machined 231

parts allows for defect free fabrication of soft pneumatic 232 actuators over a wide range of sizes (see Fig. 1 and 4) 233 and previously impossible aspect ratios. In particular, 234 the thin membranes we achieve optimize the eccentric 235 void topology and outperform most inflatable actua-236 tors in terms of bending coefficients (defined as the ra-237 tio between the curvature and the applied pressure at 238 a bending deformation of 90° [25]). Further, the un-239 constrained internal surface makes the construction of 240 curved and network actuators that achieve 3D folding 241 shapes (Fig. 1d-f and Movie S4) as simple as building 242 straight actuators. These new capabilities will resonate 243 in the soft matter community, and, in particular could 244 lead to new generation robotic materials suited to move 245 and interact with their environment while maintaining 246 tractable complexity. More generally, our methodology 247 falls under the category of approaches leveraging out-of-248 equilibrium fluidic processes to revolutionize our ability 249 to build structures, e.g. relying on instabilities [39, 40], 250 shear-flow [41], Marangoni effects [42] and centrifugal 251 forces [43]. 252

253 Methods

To make our actuators we used vinvl polysiloxane 254 (VPS), Zhermack elite double 8, 16, and 32 silicone elas-255 tomers (G = 72.4, 172, 368 kPa respectively). The cat-256 alyst and prepolymer base were mixed in a 1:1 weight 257 ratio in a centrifugal mixer for 10 s at 2,000 rpm (clock-258 wise) and 10 s at 2,200 rpm (counterclockwise) at room 259 temperature. The resulting polymer melt (rheology de-260 scribed in SI S3.1) was injected into a mold where we 261 then followed our *bubble casting* method, as described 262 in the text. For the molds we used cellulose tubes 263 (R = 1.6, 2.4, 3.2, 6.4 mm), glass tubes (R = 0.5 mm), 264 and cast acrylic sheets carved with a cnc milling tool on 265 one side. 266

Schematics for our experiments are shown in Fig. S4. 267 The bubble velocity, curvature data, and free-hang 268 length was recorded using a camera and image process-269 ing in Python. Since the final drainage loses memory of 270 the initial condition (as described in the text), we often 271 injected the bubble early and reset τ_w by flipping the 272 mold. This allowed us to maintain constant drainage 273 timing along the length of long actuators. To attach 274 the thin membranes shown in Fig. 1e,f, the two sides of 275 the carved molds (see Fig. 1a) were separated. Some 276 more polymer was then spin-coated on top of the actu-277 ator still encased in the mold. We realized the experi-278 ment show in Fig. 1g by joining two tubes using a 3D 279

printed tube connector. When the polymer is at the 280 gelation point one tube is carefully rotated relative to 281 the other (see Fig. S8). The cross-section profiles were 282 obtained post curing using an optical microscope and 283 ImageJ. Pressure data was measured using a differen-284 tial pressure sensor (MPX5100dp) connected to a data 285 acquisition board (Arduino). To measure the pulling 286 force, we attached the actuator to an Instron and per-287 formed tensile tests. The blocking force was measured 288 by placing the free end of the actuator on a plate fit-289 ted to a load cell. The curvature of our actuators was 290 measured without external forces (e.g. gravity) by float-291 ing the elastomer on a water bath. Actuator mechanics 292 were measured quasi-statically by slowly injecting air in 293 1 s pulses and waiting 4 s between pulses. All actuators 294 were pierced with syringe needles and inflated by a sy-295 ringe mounted on a syringe pump (Harvard Apparatus). 296

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Author Contributions

T.J.J., J.M., and P.-T.B. conceived the project. T.J.J., 304 E.J.-P., and P.-T.B. conducted the experiments and analyzed the data. T.J.J. performed the Kirchhoff rod 306 simulations. E.J.-P. performed the finite element simulations. All authors wrote the manuscript. 308

Data availability

The authors declare that the main data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article and its Supplementary Information files. Extra data are available from the corresponding author upon request. 313

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