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# 3D-Printed Electroactive Polymer Force-Actuator for Large and High Precise Optical Mirror Applications

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## Abstract:

We describe a new development for a full 3D-printed-force actuator based on an advanced electroactive polymer (EAP) dedicated to large and live optical mirror applications, i.e., Live-Mirror Project (<https://www.planets.life/live-mirror>). The thin-film casting method was used to additively manufacture actuators, and we developed an integrating 3D printing technology to the EAP force-actuator production. Our 3D-printed actuator consists of the plasticized terpolymer layer (polyvinylidene fluoride-trifluoroethylene-chlorotrifluoroethylene (PVDF-TrFE-CTFE) doped with diisononyl phthalate (DINP) plasticizer) sandwiched between two electrodes layers made of conductive terpolymer carbon black (CB) composite. The conductive CB layers were developed here to have a high electrical conductivity that can be used under significant voltage. We also made compatible blends with an actuator layer based on DINP polymer. Several fully 3D-printed EAP proof-of-concept actuator configurations were printed on a two-millimeters thick flat glass, i.e., an optical mirror surface. Its electromechanical performance was analyzed as a function of actuator volume, layer number, and electrical field intensity.

**Keywords:** Electroactive doped polymer, 3D printing, EAP force-actuator, active optical mirror, active control of glass deformation, flexible printed materials, optimization of printed electrodes.

## I. Introduction

3D printing technology offers several advantages for diverse materials processing such as rapid prototyping making use of an object from a computer-aided design (CAD). Additive manufacturing developments have improved and advanced 3D-printer technology by providing commercially customized products to overcome the time-consuming process of complex shape products [1,2]. In particular, *flexible printed materials* have been attractive for large-area electronic devices, e.g., wearable electronics of 3D tactile sensors [3,4], printed CNC (Computerized Numerical Control) process scaffolds for specific cell integration [5], polymer photo-detectors [6], and 3D-printed soft dielectric elastomer actuators [7,8].

Material extrusion printing is a common technique used to build a structure of any desired shape of dielectric elastomer [9]. This 3D printing process allows various kinds of material to be extruded to build up a platform along a predetermined path. The difficulty of this printing technique is the use of a fluid or solution-based material that requires the control of a variety of parameters that characterize the material/solvent: evaporation rate, viscosity grade, flow regulation, mold temperature, chemical compatibility for multi-material structure. These must be tuned to achieve an efficient and reproducible printing process. We recently reported the possibility of using a casting method to produce an EAP-based modified terpolymer as a force-actuator system for a highly accurate optical surface deformation and correction [10,11].

45 To fabricate active optics in Live-Mirror applications, we used the EAP that can shape and/or  
46 deform the mirror surface thanks to its electromechanical conversion. Recently, Thetraphi *et al.* [11]  
47 reported a handcrafted prototype [11], i.e., a film-casting actuator production. The design is a shear actuator  
48 (thin-film EAP glued with a single glass plate). To develop a unique force-actuator device that can be  
49 precisely integrated into certain mirror positions, we opted for an extrusion-based 3D printing technique  
50 through Hyrel System 30M 3D printer [12]. Based on this approach, it is possible to overcome the interface-  
51 related problems, which principally caused by a deficiency in force transferring between EAP to a glass  
52 surface (handcrafted prototype). Considering the customized electrode and actuator patterns, it is necessary  
53 to design each actuator matching individual optical surfaces. Thus, the integration of additive manufacturing  
54 is very important to fabricate a large area, unique and precise actuator to fulfill the requirement of the future  
55 Live-Mirror application. Additionally, the provision of extrusion-based 3D printing techniques will be  
56 essential for developing a wide range of smart mirror fabrication. In other words, a specified actuator shape  
57 is needed to accurately integrate it into certain mirror positions, from small-scale (lab-scale) to wide-reaching  
58 innovative applications. In this paper, we aim to fabricate a force-actuator using 3D printing technology  
59 and optimize its electromechanical performance with several configurations. The main purpose involves  
60 demonstrating the proof-of-concept of 3D printing multilayer EAP included with customized electrodes.  
61 Although researchers are actively investigating 3D printing technology, the full-printed actuator is still  
62 rather limited today because of incompatibility between polymer and electrode layers [1,7,13].

63 3D printing of the conductive electrode layer is the most challenging. Most conductive metallic  
64 inks require a sintering process to reach a good conductive range and bulk content. The sintering procedure  
65 of some conductive inks, e.g., silver ink, is 150°C and above. Nonetheless, stretchable electronic  
66 applications need to be fabricated at moderate temperatures to prevent sample damage and/or degradation  
67 of the incorporated materials. Dearden *et al.* [14] demonstrated the possibility of reducing the sintering  
68 temperature of organometallic inks lower than 150°C. Another option to avoid operating materials under  
69 high temperatures is to use intrinsically conductive polymer (ICP) and/or conductive polymer composite  
70 (CPC). Even though ICP and CPC exhibit lower conductivity than metallic ink, their advantages in terms  
71 of compliance, cost, resilience, density, and biocompatibility have attracted a great deal of research interest.

72 Recent studies have focused on the improvement of electrical conductivities of ICP and CPC for  
73 flexible actuator and sensor applications. Kayser *et al.* [15] described a stretchable scaffold made from an  
74 intrinsically synthesizing variant of PEDOT: PSS to develop soft and skin-like semiconductors and  
75 conductors. Cochrane *et al.* [16] used the evoprene 007 (EVO) ( $T_m \approx 82^\circ\text{C}$ ) for polymer hosts filled with  
76 carbon black (CB) powder as a smart flexible sensor. Kumar *et al.* [17] reported on an elastomer ethylene-  
77 vinyl acetate EVA ( $T_m \approx 75^\circ\text{C}$ ) doped with graphite and CNC-assisted manipulated as a three-dimensional  
78 flexible electrically conductive structure for soft robotics applications. Hence, ICP and CPC could intimate  
79 the printability to mitigate solvent evaporation under low temperature showing their high potential in  
80 applications of soft electronic devices. Numerous parameters must be considered to demonstrate the  
81 printability of materials in additive manufacturing, e.g., compatibility between conductive inks and substrate  
82 or cooperative materials, wettability (substrate-polymer), surface bonding (polymer-polymer), curing  
83 temperature, etc. Considering all such challenging complexities, we developed here a conductive ink made  
84 from P(VDF-TrFE-CTFE) fluorinated terpolymer doped with CB nanoparticles (Vulcan® XC72R) that is  
85 adaptable for extrusion 3D printing.

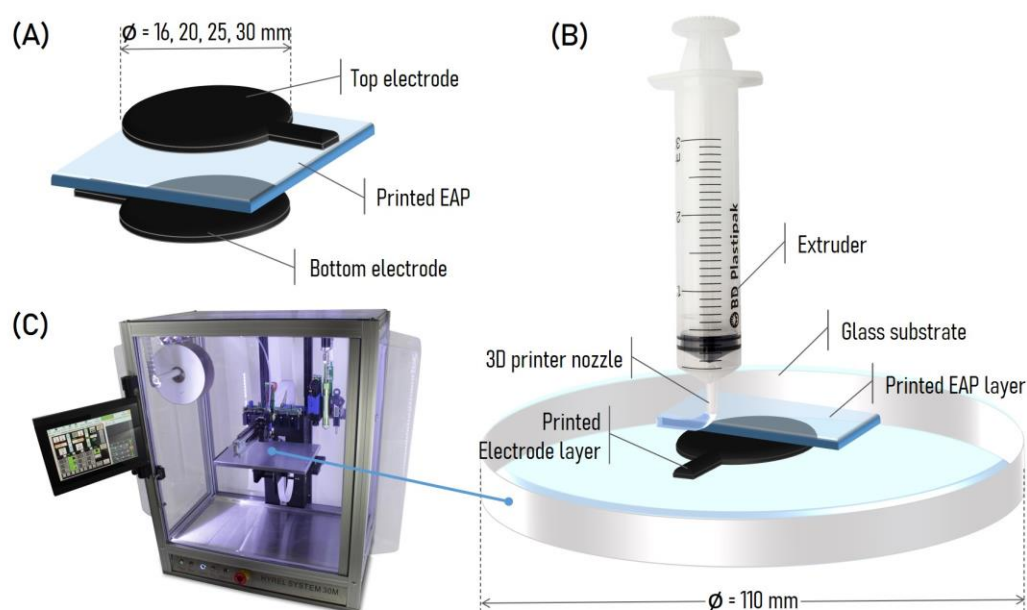
86

## 87 II. Fabrication process and method of characterization

### 88 i. Material design and 3D printing setup

89 The EAP solution is prepared in a liquid form ready for printing by dissolving terpolymer granules  
90 in methyl ethyl ketone (MEK, also known as butanone) solvent at a fraction of 20.25% wt. The fully printed  
91 force-actuator proof of concept includes the 3D printing of all layers, i.e., consisting of the EAP plasticized  
92 terpolymer sandwiched between the two terpolymer/CB composite (top and bottom) layers. Figure 1  
93 shows the extrusion-based 3D printing setup: (A) the electrode circular-shaped layers are printed with  
94 different diameters, and the EAP layer is designed to have a larger area than the electrode ones to avoid  
95 electrical arcing between these electrodes under high voltage; (B) the material extrusion setup consisted of  
96 a modular head sterile cold flow (SDS) [12] extruders (at room temperature); and (C) a glass platform that  
97 allowed translation in x-, y-, and z-directions. Here, we used commercial float glasses with 110mm-diameter  
98 and 2mm-thickness as the optical substrate. The mechanical properties of the glass are found on [18]. In  
99 the preparation process, the actuator was printed on one side of the glass (called “back surface”) while the  
100 other side was referred to as the control optical surface (called “front surface”). The front surface of the  
101 glass coated with a gold layer of 25nm thick allows obtaining its deformation measurement. On the other  
102 hand, this architecture prevents the reflection from the back surface of the glass. Consequently, the optical  
103 properties of EAP would not much affect the glass deformation, which is therefore not taken into  
104 consideration for the mirror application.

105 The extruder used in this work allows the use of sterile syringes at room temperature. The prepared  
106 solution was put in a syringe and printed at room temperature with a speed of 800 mm/min through a  
107 nozzle of 14G for the EAP, and 18G for the electrode. Using a smaller nozzle for printing electrodes leads  
108 to higher pattern precision, particularly in the case of complex shapes. Whatever actuator dimension, the  
109 printing configuration was carried out with 100% filling density in order to achieve the best material  
110 performance. To completely evaporate the solvent from the full-printed actuator (consisting of three layers  
111 of electrode/EAP/electrode), samples were put into an oven with temperature-controlled of 102°C for 2h,  
112 then cooled down slowly for 16h to room temperature. The average thickness of the whole sample is  
113 approximately 130  $\mu\text{m}$  including 90-100  $\mu\text{m}$  for the EAP layer and 15-20  $\mu\text{m}$  for the electrode circular-  
114 shaped layer. A control-software 3D printing code (Repetrel by Hyrel [12]) is used to control parameters  
115 such as tuning, speed, and pressure. This allows one to print the EAP force-actuator in optimized  
116 configurations similar to those in a COMSOL simulation.



117

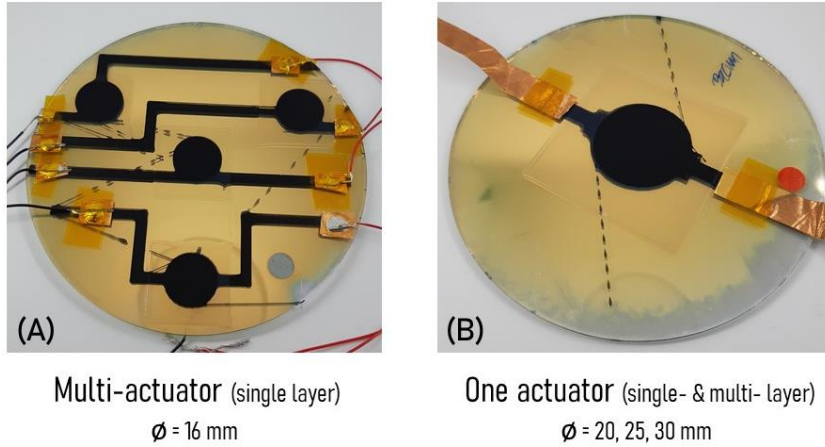
118 **Figure 1.** The full-printed actuator based EAP: (A) force-actuator made of plasticized terpolymer switched between two electrodes layers  
 119 of terpolymer/ CB composite; (B) 3D printing setup of actuator layers using (C) the commercial System 30M Hyrel 3D printer [12].

120 Thetraphi *et al.* [10,11,19] demonstrated the high potential of the stacked multilayer actuator  
 121 configuration, which successfully enhances the dielectric properties as well as the electromechanical  
 122 coupling of the EAP materials. Here, a stacked actuator consisting of three printed layers (i.e., one active  
 123 layer based EAP and two electrode layers-based conductive-ink) was investigated corresponding to layer-  
 124 by-layer extrusion (Figure 1B). Printed electrodes with a conductive polymer ink revealed their high  
 125 potential to implement flexible and stretchable electronic devices such as nanoparticles colloid suspension,  
 126 organometallic inks, carbon nanotube, graphene oxide, and reactive inks [20].

127 The first full-printed EAP prototype was fabricated on a single glass blank working in a shear-  
 128 mode actuator under various configurations. Such a single-layer actuator consists of a single EAP layer  
 129 (terpolymer doped 8 wt%DINP), and two electrode layers (terpolymer doped 5wt% CB composite). Figure  
 130 2 shows two different shear prototype configurations: (1) the full-printed multi-actuator prototype has four  
 131 individual single-layer actuators as shown in Figure 2A; (2) the full-printed single actuator prototype has  
 132 one actuator located at the central glass substrate (Figure 2B).

133 Since the 3D printing process is somehow analog to the thin-film casting method, we presumed  
 134 that the surface roughness of samples made by the new 3D technique is relatively smooth and thus would  
 135 not much affect the actuator performance. Indeed, both methods lead to a fabrication of thin film in which  
 136 the EAP and/or the electrode were fully coated on the glass substrate without any intermediary adhesive  
 137 layer. The SEM images (FlexSEM 1000II) illustrating the surface roughness of those samples fabricated by  
 138 3D printing or casting process are presented in Figure 3. The morphological observations of the film surface  
 139 in both techniques are homogeneous and undifferentiated. As observed in Figure 3 (A2) and (B2), few tiny  
 140 straight lines of  $\sim 2\mu\text{m}$ -width appear over both film surfaces, which is possibly originated from some  
 141 inevitable defects during the elaboration process.

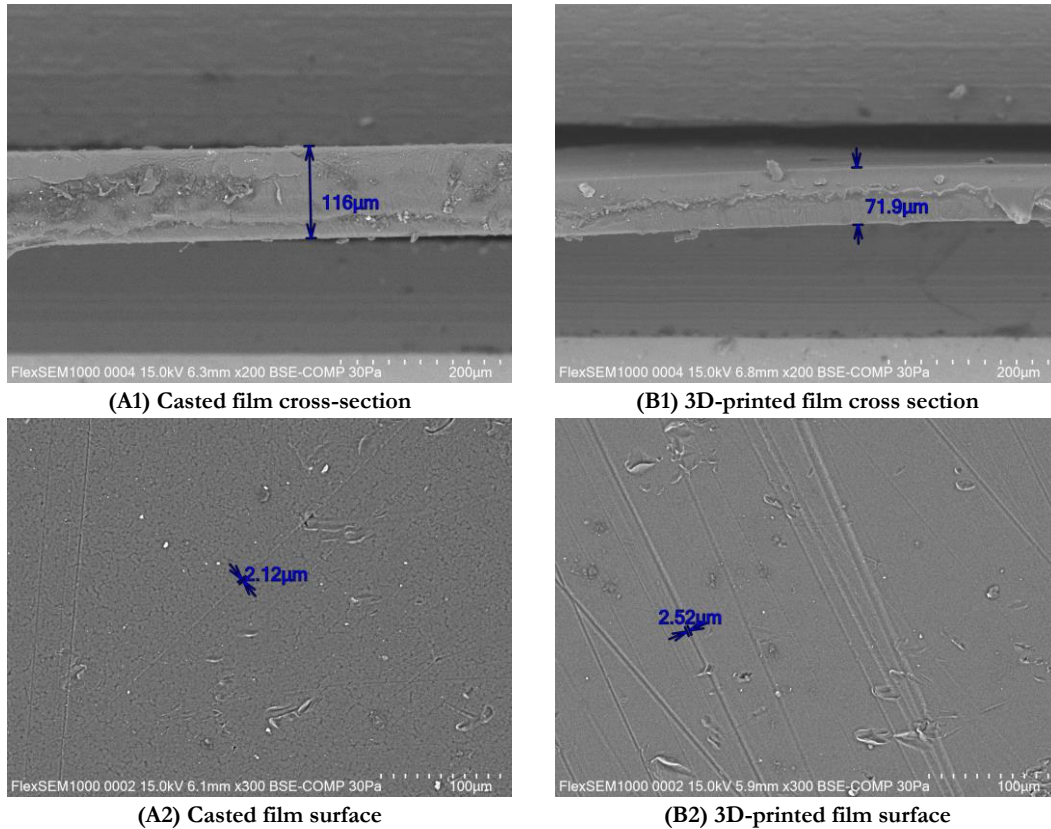




142

143 **Figure 2.** The full-printed actuator prototype: (A) Multi-actuator configuration consisting of four actuators with a 16-mm-diameter  
 144 electrode; and (B) single actuator at the central mirror glass which has three different electrodes sizes. The single actuator is printed as a  
 145 multilayer stacked actuator by successively depositing 3 layers of electrode/EAP/electrode.

146



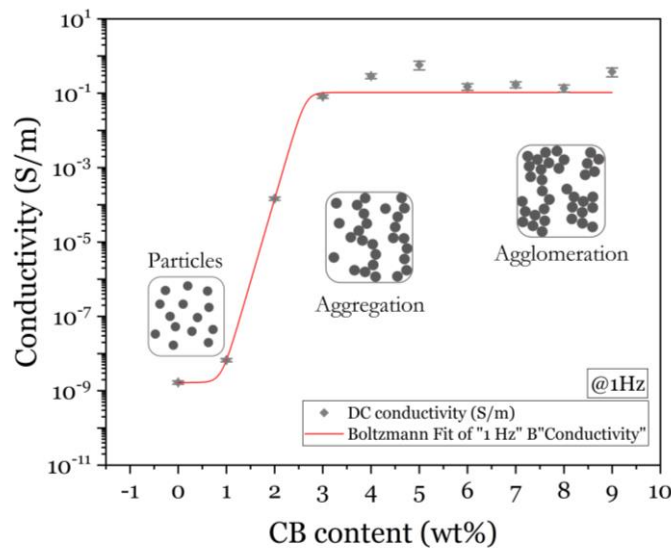
147 **Figure 3.** SEM micrographs of plasticized terpolymer thin films prepared by (A1-2) film casting method, and (B1-2) 3D-printed  
 148 method.

149 **ii. Electrical characterization of CB electrode layers**

150 Here a conductive polymer composite (CPC) was selected to print the two electrode layers of the  
 151 actuator design (Figure 1A). This approach uses the same polymer host between the electrode and EAP  
 152 actuator layer. It reduces the complexity of ink preparation and avoids material compatibility issues. **Because**  
 153 **the deformation needed to shape the mirror is less than 1%, we exclusively focus on the linear elastic**  
 154 **domain [21] of the terpolymer in this investigation. Based on the linear stress/strain curve characterized in**

our previous work [22], it is possible to deduce the Young modulus of the plasticized terpolymer, i.e. approximately 30 MPa. This property is perfectly suitable for dedicated optical applications. Indeed, the EAP is flexible enough to deform itself, but it is somehow strong enough to generate sufficient force to shape the mirror. A compromise between force and deformation makes terpolymer one of the most appropriate choices for the design of actuator devices [21]. It is worth noting that the low percentage of CB powder dispersed into the terpolymer matrix would not significantly modify its Young modulus. For more details about the mechanical properties of terpolymer composites doped with different DINP or CB fraction content, the readers can refer to [11,23–25].

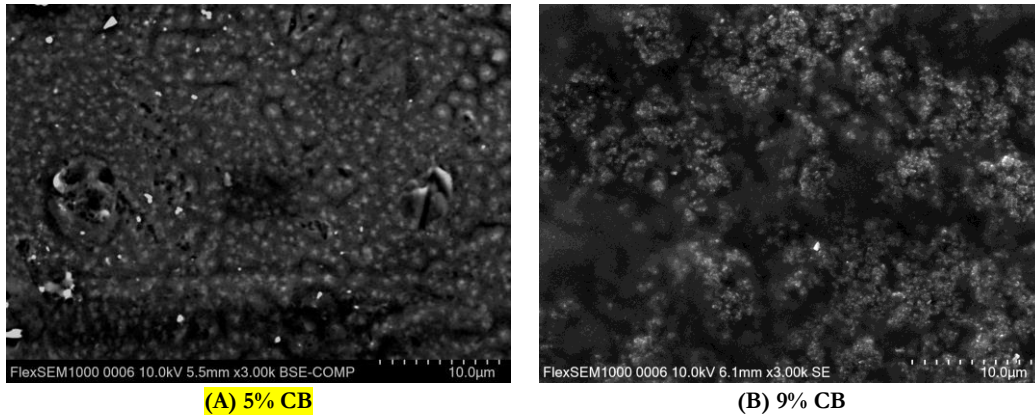
The CB particles were well-dispersed in the Terpolymer/MEK solution thanks to an ultrasonic probe (UP400S from Hielscher). Figure 4 outlines the S-shaped electrical conductivity of the printed Terpolymer/CB ink with different weight fractions of CB particles. Beyond 1 wt% of CB content, the conductivity drastically increases confirming that the percolation threshold of the composite is approximately 4 -5 wt%. At 5 wt% of CB filler, the electrode layer became conductive and reached a small overshoot of  $0.57 \pm 0.14$  S/m. Beyond the percolation transition, the conductivity of the composite ink somehow dropped and was in the saturation regime. Such a slight decrease in the electrical conductivity can be explained by the fact that higher CB concentration probably generated a cluster of particle agglomeration, leading to reduced efficacy in the conductive pathway. All these experimental results indicate that the transition from insulation polymer to high conductivity composite depends on the formation of an interconnected conductivity network. In other words, superior conductivity arises from the high dispersion and the formation of a network structure in the polymer matrix. It can be concluded that many factors comprising intrinsic electrical properties of the doped particles, aspect ratio, dispersion state, and contact resistance between particle/particle and particle/matrix might greatly affect the electrical conductivity of the whole composites [26,27].



178  
179 **Figure 4.** The electrical conductivity of terpolymer filled with carbon black (CB) particles accurately obtained from the dielectric broadband  
180 spectroscopy (DBS) system operated at a sinusoidal voltage of 1V amplitude and 1 Hz frequency.

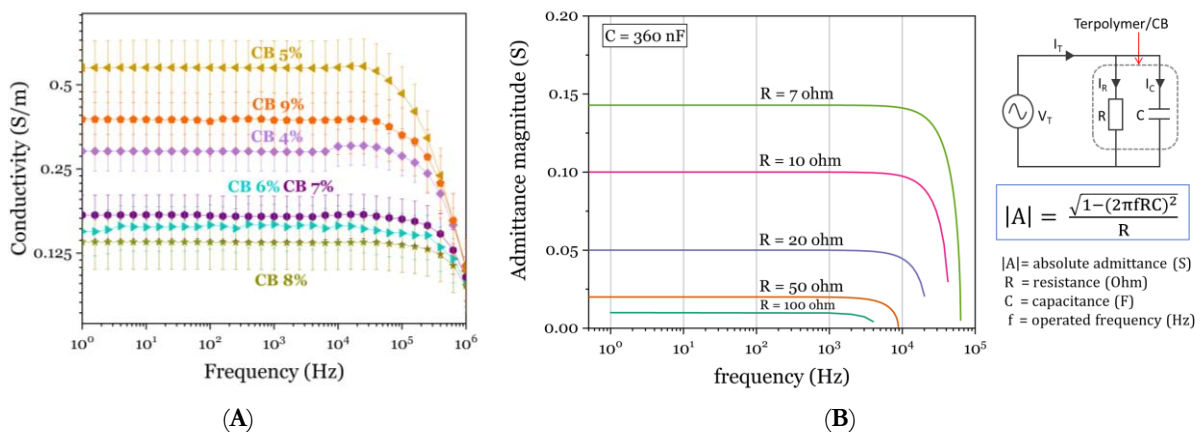
181 Considering the dispersion of CB particles in the polymer matrix, Figure 5 presents micrograph  
182 images via scanning electron microscope (SEM, FlexSEM 1000II) analysis of samples elaborated with 5%  
183 and 9% of CB concentration. A higher agglomeration of CB particles is observed on the 9% composite,  
184 which is consistent with the fact that its electrical conductivity is lower than the one of the 5%. To some  
185 extent, the conductivity slightly increases again at 9%, i.e., maybe due to measurement uncertainties and  
186 random particle formation in the conductivity network.

187 Controlling cluster formation of CB composite above percolation is complex, especially when  
 188 particles are dispersed randomly. In this study, we demonstrated that the electrical conductivity of the  
 189 printed electrodes is sufficient for a satisfying actuation response. Due to the low operating frequency, the  
 190 EAP has such a high electrical impedance as compared to the electrodes. Finally, the 5wt% of CB composite  
 191 is the most favorable material to be used as the printable electrode, because of its homogeneous dispersion  
 192 in the polymer host, as well as its good electrical conductivity at the low percentage of doping filler.  
 193 Furthermore, the 5wt% EAP layer somehow remains a relatively low Young modulus with respect to the  
 194 9% counterpart [23,25,28].  
 195



196 **Figure 5.** SEM micrographs of the terpolymer doped with CB (A) 5wt% and (B) 9wt% respectively. Compared to the 5% CB  
 197 concentration, the 9% counterpart seems to provide a larger cluster of CB particle agglomeration, creating the disconnected path within the  
 198 polymer matrix.

199 Figure 6A shows the electrical conductivity evolution of CB composite above the percolation  
 200 regime in a large frequency range of [1 Hz, 1 MHz]. Whatever the weight fraction of CB powders, the  
 201 conductivity values are stable under low frequencies while being dropped over high frequencies of around  
 202  $10^5$  Hz. Despite this non-perfect conductive behavior, the terpolymer/CB composite remains an interesting  
 203 solution for 3D printing electrodes because of its good conductivity and high adaptability to the EAP  
 204 actuator layer.



205 **Figure 6.** The electrical conductivity of terpolymer doped with CB composite above the percolation region characterized as a function of  
 206 frequency: (A) the experimental characterization measured with Solartron; and (B) the admittance  $|A|$  evaluation calculated through  
 207 the real capacitance and the resistance values of terpolymer/CB composite-based RC parallel circuit.

208 The polymer composite is a capacitive-like material that could be modeled as an RC parallel circuit  
 209 [29,30]. Its admittance value  $\mathbf{A}$  (Siemen: S) is determined according to Figure 6B. Similar to the conductivity  
 210 property, the admittance magnitude is also frequency-dependent where a significant fall has been observed



211 under high frequencies. The identification between the experimental data and the analytical model of the  
212 EAP's admittance allows us to predict the RC components of the terpolymer doped with high CB  
213 concentration (4%-9% by mass). The estimated resistance and capacitance of the 64  $\mu\text{m}$ -thick films are  
214 approximately 2-10 ohms and 360 nF, respectively.

215 The conductivity evolution is given by the experimental measurement (Figure 6A) and the theoretical  
216 modeling (Figure 6B). It behaves as a low-pass filter response where the cut-off frequency is around  $73 \pm 5$   
217 kHz. The small discrepancy between experiment and model is possibly due to the composite particle  
218 agglomeration, which provides an inconsistent resistance value to the material composite. Here, we operate  
219 the polymer actuator in a low-frequency range (lower than 50 mHz), which is compliant to large and  
220 accurate optical active surface mirror low-frequency correction and not a high bandwidth requirement. This  
221 means that the effect of the AC filter at a very high-frequency range could be neglected (at least for this  
222 application).

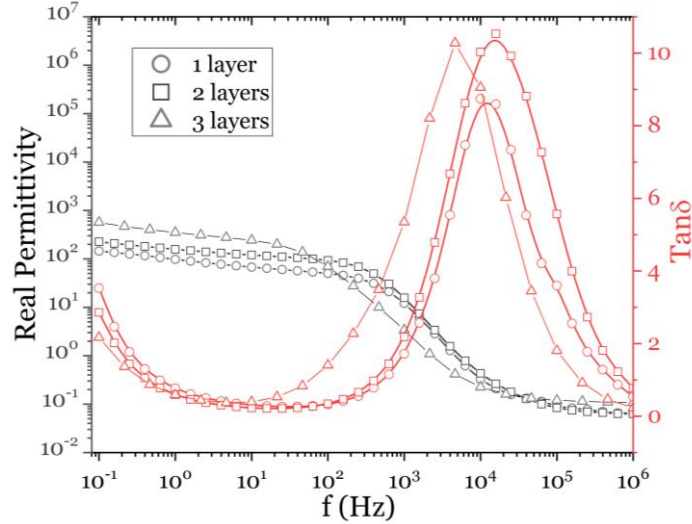
223 The main goal here is to achieve active shape control with many-degree-of-freedom force actuators  
224 created by an additive 3D printing-based technology. Based on an optimized EAP force actuator system in  
225 a sandwich of specified shaped/slumped glass surfaces, it is possible to create a novel actively controlled  
226 **hybrid meta-material** with a superior stiffness-to-density ratio dedicated to optical quality mirror surfaces.

### 227 **iii. Dielectric characterization of force Actuators**

228 The dielectric permittivity is one of the most important intrinsic parameters of an EAP. A higher  
229 dielectric constant implies a higher efficiency of the mechanical energy density for actuation performance  
230 [21]. The full-printed actuator ability was assessed by their dielectric characterization as a function of  
231 frequency. Figure 7 illustrates the relative permittivity real part ( $\epsilon_r$ ) as well as the loss factor (**Tan $\delta$** ) of the  
232 modified terpolymer under a large frequency range of 0.1 Hz – 1 MHz. When the DINP plasticizer is  
233 incorporated within the terpolymer matrix, it strongly promotes the mobility of dipolar relaxation and thus  
234 enhances the dielectric permittivity [22,24,31]. However, too much DINP quantity could decrease the  
235 electrical strength of the blend producing dielectric breakdown. Thetraphi *et al.* [11] reported that the  
236 terpolymer must be integrated with an 8-10 wt% plasticizer to get the best trade-off between the dielectric  
237 property and the breakdown strength. Here, terpolymer doped with 8 wt % DINP was employed. Figure 7  
238 shows that the full-printed multilayer actuator leads to substantial enhancement in dielectric permittivity  
239 concerning the neat terpolymer ( $\epsilon_r \sim 70$ ), i.e., 150 for the single-layer actuator and 450 for the three-layer  
240 actuator, respectively.

241 Another key parameter relating to actuator performance is dielectric loss. As indicated in Figure 7,  
242 the resulting loss tangent of the fabricated composite is relatively high, which might originate from the low  
243 conductivity (higher resistivity) of the printed electrode layers. Our printed electrodes are not perfectly  
244 conductive versus an ideal electrode (e.g., one made of gold or copper). This is because their conductivity  
245 (i.e. 0.5 S/m shown in Figure 4) is the same order of magnitude as that of typical semiconductors like Si  
246 and Ge. The actuator with high losses can be minimized by improving the conductivity of the printed  
247 electrode. Live-Mirror systems are operated at very low frequency ( $\sim 50$  mHz), and the loss issue at high  
248 frequency can be neglected. In contrast, the loss is principally generated by the Ohmic conduction  
249 mechanism under a quasi-static regime as in our application [32]. Pedroli *et al.* proposed a different approach  
250 to reducing the conduction loss effect in the EAP. This matter will be considered in future studies to  
251 improve the conductive property of our printed electrode.

252



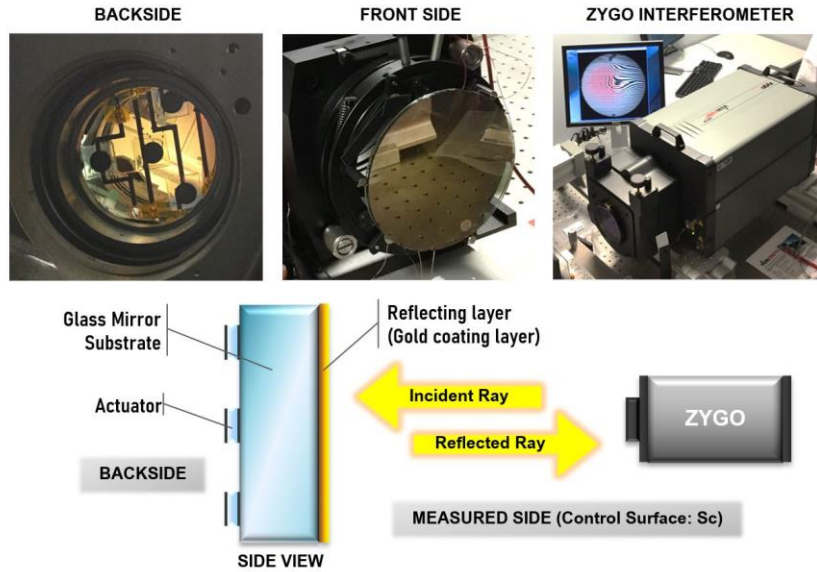
253

254 *Figure 7. The dielectric broadband spectroscopy of full-printed EAP with different layers operated under a sinusoidal voltage of  $1V_{AC}$ -*  
 255 *amplitude at room temperature. The gray curves are related to the real permittivity while the red curves are dedicated to the  $\tan\delta$  losses.*

256

### 257 III. Customized Full Printed Force-Actuator — Live Mirror Application

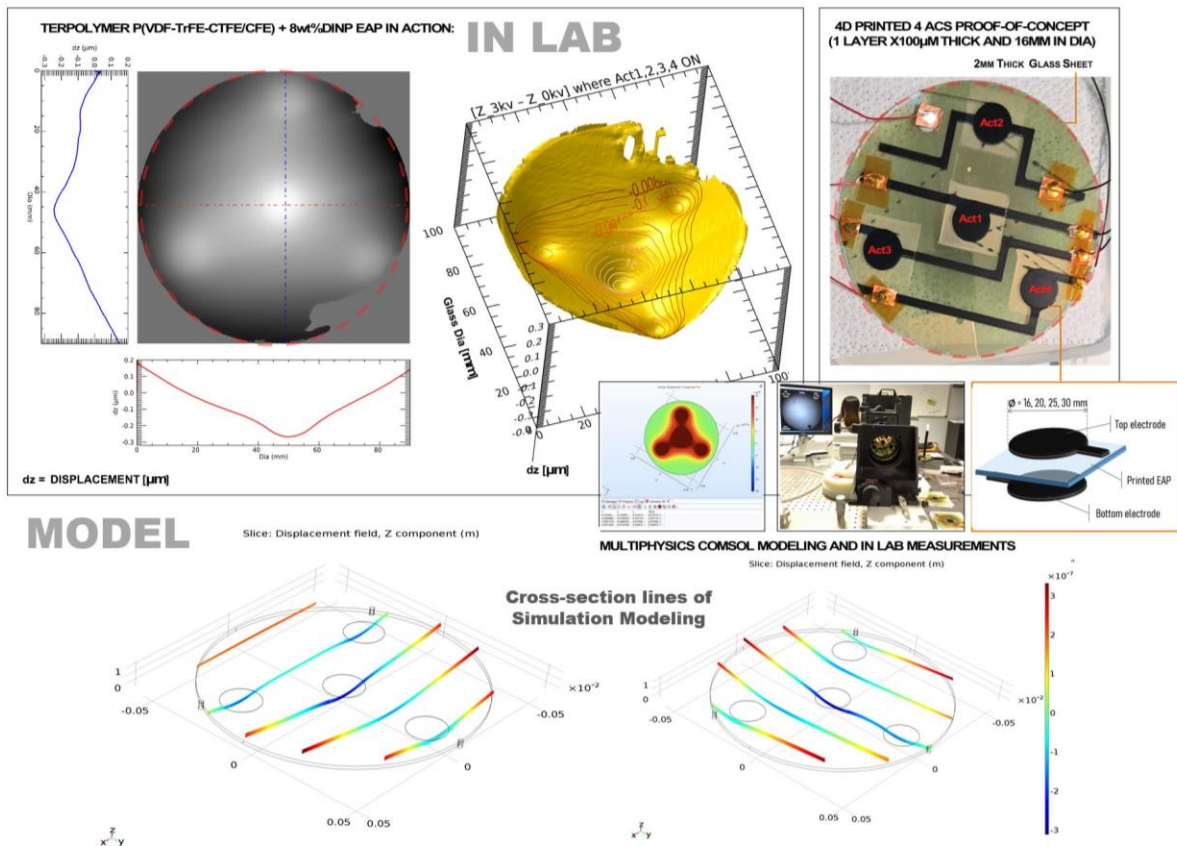
258 The full-printed actuator was prepared through a shear prototype configuration that uses the advantage  
 259 of the transversal strain ( $S_{31}$ ) generated by the EAP actuator. This mechanical transverse expansion creates  
 260 a shear force that can shape the glass surface. After electrical polishing, the system relied on the actuator  
 261 configuration. An effective electrical polishing implies high DC fields swept from 10-30 V/ $\mu\text{m}$  applied  
 262 directly through the electrode layers printed on the backside of the glass substrate. The control surface Sc  
 263 is where the EAP force-actuators are also 3D printed in a stacked configuration (Figure 2). The Sc  
 264 deformations (overall surface wavefront fringes) are measured through a laser interferometer instrument  
 265 (Figure 8). These measurements are front-side reflective mirrors. The fact is that the front surface is covered  
 266 by metallic deposition, while the EAP actuator is translucent and its optical properties [33,34] do not affect  
 267 the mirror deformation. On one hand, the measurement was performed on the front-side mirror. This  
 268 means that the incident and reflected rays driven by the Zygo interferometer appear only on the front-side  
 269 of the mirror called the control surface (Sc), correspondingly. As observed in Figure 8, actuators were fixed  
 270 on the backside of the mirror where the interaction with light rays is not significant. In other words, the  
 271 EAP layer does not have an impact or absorb this quality of the reflective coating on the front side.  
 272 Consequently, the EAP actuator was entirely operated the glass deformation without being influenced by  
 273 light.



274

275 **Figure 8.** The experimental setup of the glass surface deformation presents the measurement configuration: backside, front side, and side  
 276 view of the mirror prototype. The control surface: Sc (front surface) coated with gold layer was faced to the laser interferometer (Zygo  
 277 Verifire™) to obtain its deformation when actuators, fixed on the backside, were actuated.

278



279

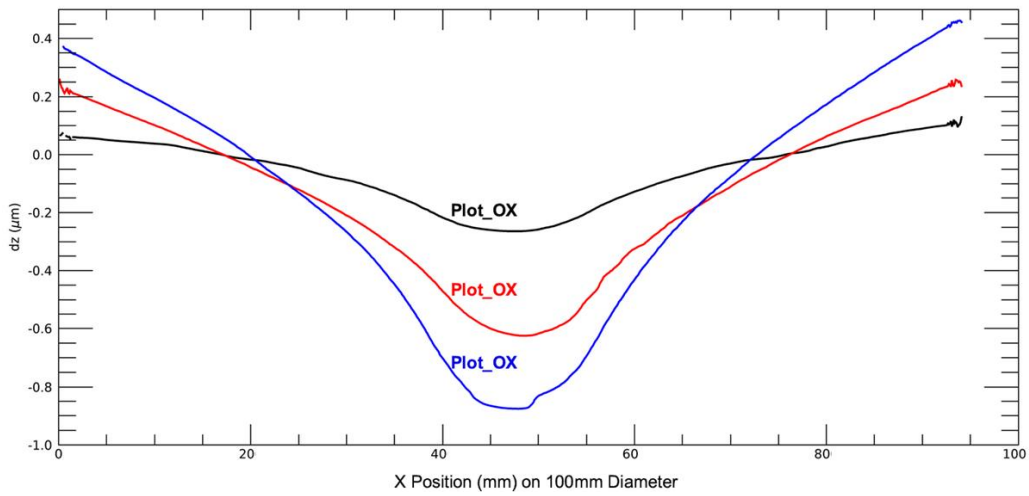
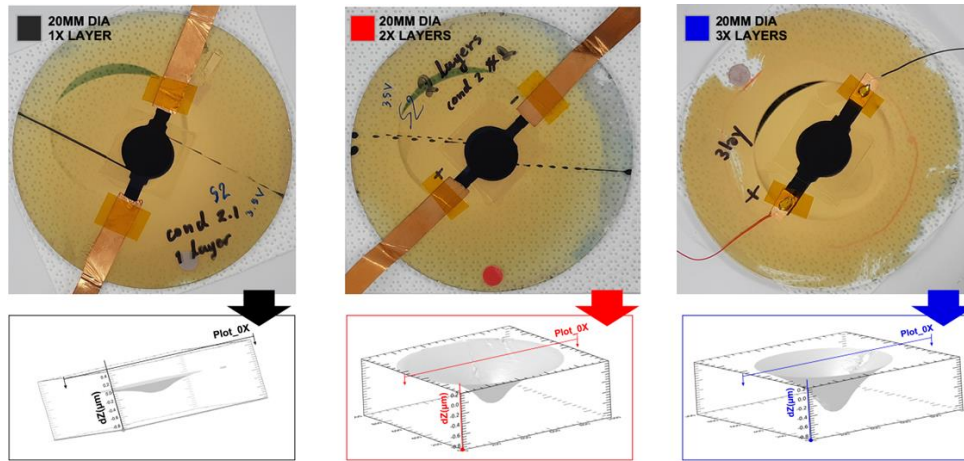
280 **Figure 9.** The experimental control surface: Sc (front glass) measurement of the full-printed 4-multi actuator prototype. The evaluation  
 281 of surface deformation was obtained from interference fringes providing the surface plot (black and white deformation graph and 3D-surface  
 282 yellow graph) accompanied by COMSOL simulation modeling that is coherent in empirical results. The float glass substrates are 110 mm  
 283 in diameter and 2 mm thick. Fringe measurements are accomplished by a Fizeau-type laser interferometer (Zygo Verifire™).

284 In Figure 9, surface displacement ( $\mathbf{dz}$ ) is between 0.05 to 2.00  $\mu\text{m}$  during the application of an  
285 electric field ( $E = 30 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$ ). The electrode size (diameter and thickness) and construction configuration  
286 (single layer and/or multilayer) were also measured. Figure 10 and 11 show the  $S_e$  deformation when the  
287 sample was subjected to the DC voltage input. Naturally, a larger electrode and a multilayers force actuator  
288 can produce larger surface deformation  $\mathbf{dz}$ . However, the multilayer structure was fabricated using the  
289 shear-mode and can be limited by its number of actuator layers, which is generated by the non-transferable  
290 shear force from the top layer and/or actuator interlayer clamping. This influence would make the glass  
291 deformation reach a *saturation regime*. Despite that, a stronger electric field can drive the EAP actuator to  
292 create higher transversal strain as well as reinforce the ability to transfer shear force from the top EAP layer  
293 in the multilayer structure.

294 The shear actuator seems to deform the glass locally in consonance with its shape. Thetpraphi *et*  
295 *al.* [11] has reported that dielectric permittivity as a function of an applied electric field can be modeled via  
296 Debye/Langevin formalism, which enabled the possibility to predict the actuation ability of electrostrictive  
297 effects in modified terpolymer composite. The success of the modeling leans on COMSOL Multiphysics®  
298 software used Debye/Langevin formalism and provided impressive glass deformation modeling results  
299 resembling the experimental measurement analysis (Figure 12). The spatial optimized simulation  
300 corroborates the related deformation magnitude and also demonstrated harmonized cross-section  
301 curvatures considering the four activated actuator prototypes (Figure 9). The appeal of these simulated and  
302 experimental models (Figure 9 to 12) goes beyond scientific difficulties and carefully unravels the  
303 electromechanical behavior of the terpolymer/plasticizer composite.

304

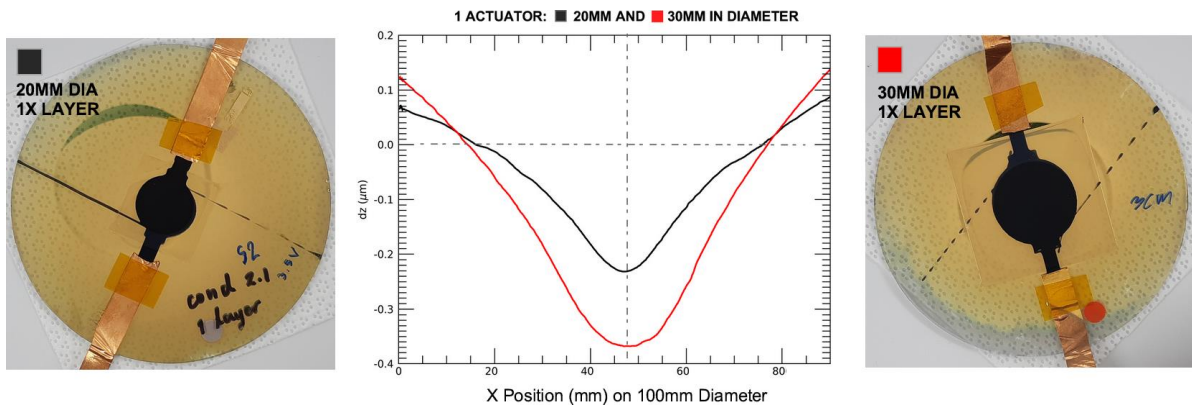




305

306 *Figure 10.* The control surface ( $S_c$ ) deformation represents the actuated regime under a  $30 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$  applied electric field of multilayer  
 307 sample (1 actuator of 20 mm diameter) that consists of 1 layer (black), 2 layers (red), and 3 layers (blue), respectively.

308



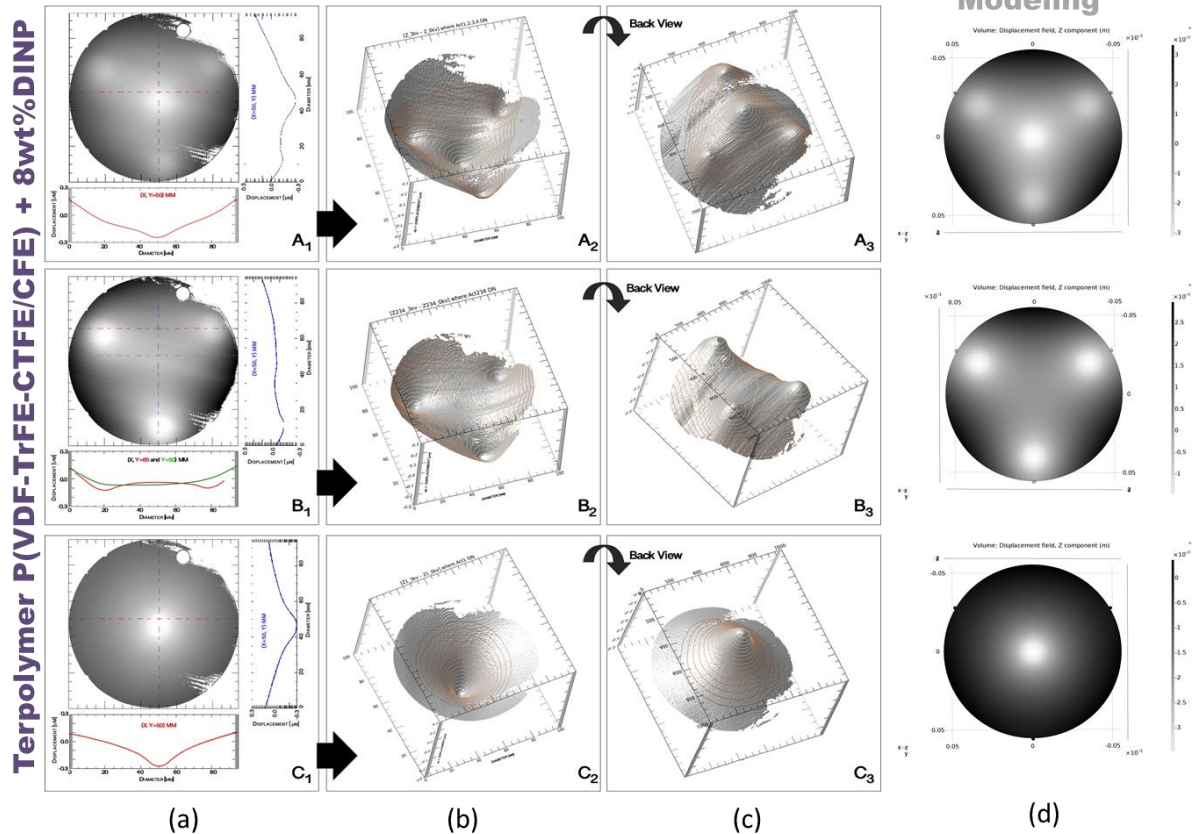
309

310 *Figure 11.* The control surface ( $S_c$ ) deformation represents the actuated regime (X-cross section) under a  $30 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$  applied electric field  
 311 of a single-layer actuator prototype (1 actuator, 1 layer) with a 20 mm diameter (black) and a 30 mm diameter (red), respectively.

312



# EAP IN ACTION



313

314 *Figure 12.* The control surface ( $S_c$ ) deformation with their cross-section  $[(X, Y), dZ]$  of the single-layer multi-actuator prototype with 16-  
 315 mm-diameter electrodes driven by a  $30 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$  electric field. Black and white illustrations show the control surface buckling comparing  
 316 between experimental results and simulation models: row (a) illustrated the deformation scale plotted with their cross-section  $[X, dZ]$  and  
 317  $[Y, dZ]$  lines, respectively; row (b) and (c) displayed the 3D surface plot of front and backside of the control surface, respectively; and row  
 318 (d) describes COMSOL simulations of glass surface deformation under similar conditions.

319

320 Table 1 shows the maximum deformation of the front glass surface generated by shear EAP to  
 321 optimize the EAP sizes as well as the number of layers of the multilayer structure. Each measurement  
 322 averages from 5 samples, together with the standard deviation provided in Table 1, confirming very small  
 323 dispersion of the measured data. As expected, the higher displacement induces to smaller variation  
 324 coefficient, i.e., defined as the SD over the mean value. This, to some extent, is reflected by the less  
 325 dispersion of measures performed on the 5 tested samples when being subjected to a higher applied electric  
 326 field. On the other hand, with a very low input electric field (e.g.,  $10 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$ ), as the samples deform very  
 327 little, measurement in displacement with high precision becomes challenging. For instance, it has been  
 328 pointed out in practice that for a sample of 20 mm diameter, a small displacement of  $0.061 \mu\text{m}$  leads to a  
 329 significant error of around 24%, while only 7.2% in the case of  $0.705 \mu\text{m}$ . Both experimental and modeling  
 330 displacement of all prototypes depend on actuator size and number of multilayers and coincide with a range  
 331 of inaccuracy measurements. Note that the surface maximum deformation in Figure 13(a) increases  
 332 proportionally to an external applied electric field (E) as well as EAP actuator size (diameter & thickness).  
 333 Figure 13(b) & (c) compare actuation displacements from two methods of predicting model values  
 334 (COMSOL™) and measurements (maximum  $S_c$  deformation).

335 Table 1 indicated that the evaluation model results are very close to the empirical data (around 94-  
 336 99%) in the case of varying electrode sizes. This small discrepancy is possibly originated from Ohmic  
 337 heating because the composite electrode layer has low conductivity (high resistivity) versus an ideal  
 338 conductive electrode (e.g., gold electrode). This resistive heat can indeed impact glass deformation especially  
 339 in the particular case of large electrode areas having a higher amount of leakage current (Figure 13(b)).

340 The multilayer actuator has a controversy of observed displacement against the empirical model in  
 341 Figure 13(c). Thetraphi *et al.* [11] reported that EAP pre-polish shear actuators can facilitate strain-  
 342 generated transfer onto the glass at certain sample thicknesses. The main attribution parameters disrupting  
 343 an actuation efficiency in the real-scale experiment might come from the rough interface and the stresses  
 344 in the layers [35] especially the 3D printed multilayer topology. This inter-stress in multiple-layered  
 345 structures impedes the effort to reinforce transferable transversal strain by increasing the number of layers.  
 346 The interlayer stress algorithm of the multilayer structure must be re-optimized in future modeling to have  
 347 a better accurate model prediction performance.

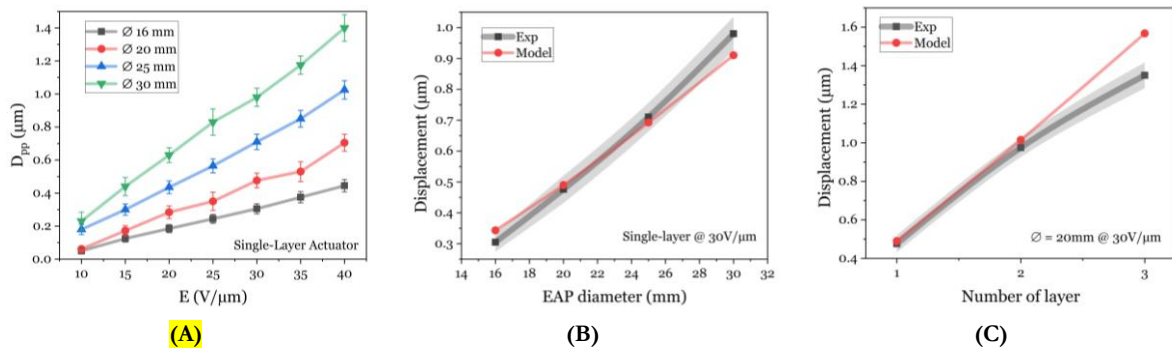
348

349 **Table 1.** The maximum displacement at the central  $S_c$  as measured by interferometric dynamic calibrator (in lab measurements) and  
 350 COMSOL<sup>TM</sup> model evaluation (modelization & simulation) as a function of applied electric fields, actuator size, and the number of  
 351 layers.

E (V/ $\mu$ m)	Maximum Displacement ( $\mu$ m)																	
	1 layer												2 layers		3 layers			
	$\varnothing$ 16 mm			$\varnothing$ 20 mm			$\varnothing$ 25 mm			$\varnothing$ 30 mm			$\varnothing$ 20 mm					
	Exp.	$\pm \mu$ m	Model	Exp.	$\pm \mu$ m	Model	Exp.	$\pm \mu$ m	Model	Exp.	$\pm \mu$ m	Model	Exp.	$\pm \mu$ m	Model			
10	0.050	0.018	0.058	0.061	0.015	0.083	0.180	0.030	0.118	0.230	0.055	0.155	0.230	0.012	0.173	0.278	0.014	0.267
15	0.125	0.021		0.173	0.031		0.300	0.034		0.440	0.055		0.390	0.020		0.525	0.026	
20	0.185	0.024	0.194	0.284	0.039	0.278	0.435	0.038	0.392	0.630	0.045	0.515	0.555	0.028	0.575	0.777	0.039	0.888
25	0.244	0.027		0.350	0.055		0.565	0.042		0.830	0.080		0.745	0.037		1.010	0.051	
30	0.305	0.03	0.343	0.476	0.044	0.490	0.710	0.046	0.693	0.980	0.055	0.910	0.975	0.049	1.015	1.350	0.068	1.568
35	0.375	0.034		0.530	0.06		0.850	0.051		1.175	0.055		1.193	0.060		1.564	0.078	
40	0.445	0.037	0.475	0.705	0.051	0.678	1.025	0.056	0.959	1.400	0.080	1.260	1.493	0.075	1.405	1.838	0.092	2.170

352

353



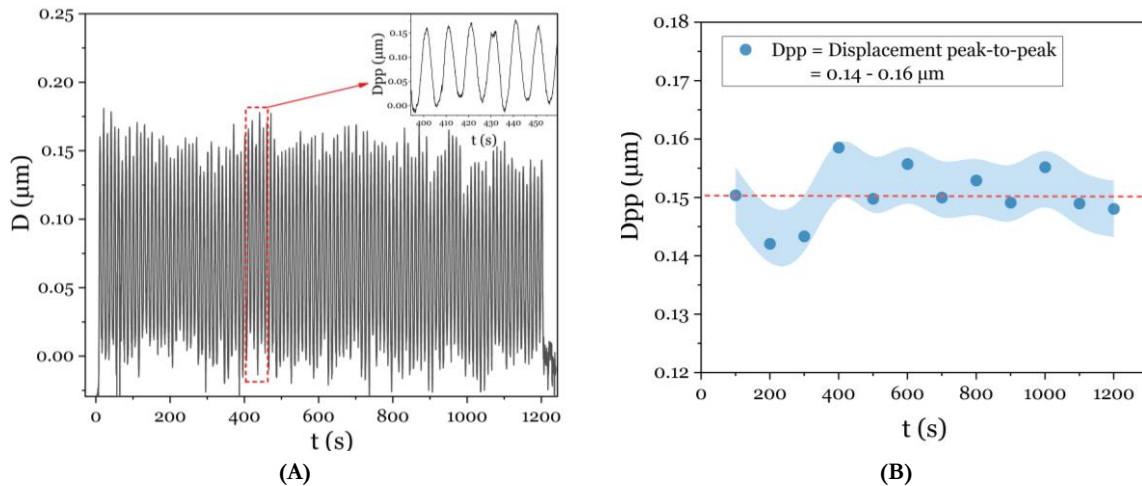
354 **Figure 13.** (A) Experimental maximum displacement as a function of electric fields of the full-printed single-layer sample with different  
 355 diameter sizes. Comparison between experimental measure and modeling analysis of the same sample under a 30 V/ $\mu$ m electric field in  
 356 terms of displacement versus (B) EAP diameter sizes and (C) the number of layers.

357 These results allow the assessment of this extensive actuator assembly. However, one must  
 358 remember the homogeneous solvent evaporative control and stress distribution on the surface and between  
 359 the interlayer and buckle delamination. Such fabrication process control is critical for an optimized  
 360 mechanism. Figure 9 and Figure 12 show experimental results and confirm the compliance between  
 361 electrode shape and glass optical surface deformations under an applied electric field ( $E=30$  V/ $\mu$ m). Such  
 362 a conclusive result paves the way for the next generation of 3D-printed multi EAP force-actuators, which

363 are a crucial part of hybrid dynamic structures for quality optical surface shape control, i.e., *electrical polishing*  
364 for Live-Mirror.

365 To assess the reliable operation of the live mirror under an applied high voltage, an actuation test  
366 consisting of 120 cycles was performed on a full-printed single-layer sample with a 20mm-diameter. Note  
367 that this tested sample was fabricated last year and was left at room temperature for 12 months. Figure 14  
368 (A) displays the time evolution of the central displacement of  $S_c$  when being subjected to an alternating  
369 electric field of  $15 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$  amplitude and 0.1 Hz frequency. As observed, the sample provided a satisfactory  
370 actuation response for 20 minutes and seems to be unchanged in terms of electromechanical properties  
371 even 1 year after the fabrication. The small variation of the displacement (peak-to-peak) amplitude is  
372 demonstrated in Figure 14 (B). This result confirms the reliability of using the full-printed EAP actuator  
373 for several actuation cycles as well as the long-time storage possible. Last but not least, the implications of  
374 the physical aging of our advanced EAP actuator will be considered when assessing its long-term stability  
375 under several conditions, e.g., temperature, humidity, high-frequency operation, etc.

376



377 **Figure 14.** The test of 120 actuation cycles (sinusoidal electric field of  $15 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$ ,  $100 \text{ mHz}$ ) on a 20mm-diameter full-printed single-  
378 layer sample: (A) the real-time displacement measurement, and (B) the displacement peak-to-peak value with an area error considered as  
379 the central displacement of  $S_c$ .

380

#### 381 IV. Conclusion

382 The Live-Mirror was prototyped from lab-scale fabrication for a breakthrough in automated  
383 production via additive manufacturing. The extrusion/3D printing technique underscores the feasibility of  
384 scale-up in a conventional EAP fabrication process. This offers a more automatic soft actuator fabrication  
385 suited for active optical applications. The printable advanced EAP and its compatible electrode (the  
386 optimized terpolymer carbon black composite) led to a full-printed actuator qualifying as a Live-Mirror 3D  
387 printed prototype. Modeling with COMSOL Multiphysics® showed an admirable result in excellent  
388 agreement with the experimental measurements. 3D printed actuator technology could offer several  
389 opportunities to create unique soft actuator applications like system controlling receiver mirrors for  
390 astronomy and communication systems as well as many other modern electronic devices.

391 To enhance the electrical conductivity of the printable electrode, a new process relying on  
392 dielectrophoresis of terpolymer/CB composite will be investigated, allowing to create alignment of  
393 anisotropic particles. This architecture favors the electrical conduction pathway, making it possible to avoid  
394 resistive self-heating under high voltage operation. Another alternative consists of using other conductive

395 particles with high shape anisotropy, such as fiber or flake shape. As a next step, the results motivate the  
396 development of a hybrid electrode pattern, in which an electrical connecting path (e.g., Ag ink) linked with  
397 the conductive polymer composite (CB), successfully used for a large optical area.

398 Future work will include the mirror surface combined with the particular shape of the EAP actuator  
399 designed to achieve local surface correction. Simultaneously, the curvature of a glass sample without EAP  
400 curvature distortion will be studied in detail to estimate the electrode and approximate the local glass  
401 curvature with an EAP electrode geometry. Both experiments and models will be determined. Moreover,  
402 we aim to scale up the Live-Mirror prototype for challenging real-scale receiver mirror production.

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411

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