Soft, Rotating Pneumatic Actuator

Alar Ainla,1,* Mohit S. Verma,1,* Dian Yang,2,* and George M. Whitesides1,3,4

Abstract

This article describes a soft pneumatic actuator that generates cyclical motion. The actuator consists of several (three, four, or five) chambers (arranged around the circumference of a circle surrounding a central rod) that can be actuated independently using negative pressure (or partial vacuum). Sequential actuation of the four-chamber device using reduced pressure moves the central rod cyclically in an approximately square path. We characterize the trajectory of the actuator and the force exerted by it, as we vary the material used for fabrication, the number of chambers, and the size of the actuator. We demonstrate two applications of this actuator: to deliver fluid while stirring (by replacing the central rod with a needle) and for locomotion that mimics a reptilian gait (by combining four actuators together).

Keywords: cyclic, locomotion, buckling, vacuum, stirrer, biomimetic

Introduction

Soft and hard actuators—as they are developing—seem to have different and complementary capabilities.1–19 Hard actuators, for example, are superior when high force, accuracy of positioning, repeatability, and speed of actuation are required. Soft actuators are more directly compatible with tasks requiring delicacy, adaptability, collaborativity (meaning the ability to operate safely with humans), resistance to damage by impact, and light weight.1–6,20,21 That complementarity in characteristics is not exclusive, and there are types of motion required by both soft and hard systems: one of these is what we will call “cyclical” motions.

Cyclical motion in a circular trajectory is very easily accomplished in hard systems using a wheel or ring, an axel, and bearings that allow motion of the axel relative to the bearing: the wheels in automobiles or the hands in an analog clock are examples. For soft systems, the design generating an analogous function is not immediately obvious. What would be a corresponding system—one capable of pointing in any direction relative to a central axis—for a device that does not have a wheel, axel, or bearings? There are a number of possible solutions for this problem. Here, we describe one, based on a circular array of pneumatically actuated subcomponents—which we call a cyclical vacuum-actuated machine (cVAM, Fig. 1). Mazzeo and colleagues have recently described a system that is related in concept, although different in execution and application.22

Prior work4,22–29 on soft actuators has suggested a number of approaches related to what we describe here. Wait et al. developed a spherical rolling robot using inflatable rubber bladders.23 Rus and colleagues demonstrated the coordinated use of pairs of soft bending actuators to achieve rolling motion.24 Mazzolai et al. demonstrated the use of shape memory alloys to mimic tentacles of octopus.25 We demonstrated pneumatic tentacles capable of pointing in any direction in the plane of their base (and by extension of the principle on which they operate) in directions spanning more than 90° from the perpendicular to that plane.4 We also demonstrated (in the course of research focused more in fabrication than in actuation) structures (“click-e-bricks”) capable of limited directional pointing.28 Rus and colleagues made a soft pneumatic belt that can roll by sequential actuation of the actuators arranged in a ring.26 Lazarus and Reis used an auxetic design to achieve bending and twisting in a cylindrical actuator.29 Mazzeo and colleagues demonstrated that sequential inflation of actuators positioned around the circumference of a circle can produce rotational motion; they thus created soft wheels.22

1Department of Chemistry and Chemical Biology, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
2School of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
3Wyss Institute for Biologically Inspired Engineering, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
4Kavli Institute for Bionano Science and Technology, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
*These authors contributed equally.
The structure shown in Figure 1 follows principles related to the pneumatic wheel of Mazzeo et al., but has three key differences. (1) A cVAM acts as a single part (because the central rod and the surrounding chambers are joined). Mazzeo’s rotary actuator has two parts—a stator and a rotor. (2) A cVAM uses negative pressure (vacuum) as the pneumatic source of power, as opposed to positive pressure; it thus has no risk of bursting from overpressure, and also a different relationship between power output and size/structure. (3) A cVAM is analogous to a joystick, whereas Mazzeo’s rotary actuator is similar to a stepper motor. The joystick design allows more degrees of freedom in actuation than a stepper motor, but also places greater demands on the part of the structure where “revolution” (perhaps better described in cVAMs as “flexing” or “wobbling”) occurs. Other technical differences are summarized in Table 1.

Results and Discussion

Schematics and operation of cVAM

A cVAM consists of four soft pneumatic chambers organized in a ring; these surround and steer a central rod whose top moves approximately in a two-dimensional plane (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Movie S1; Supplementary Data are available online at www.liebertpub.com/soro). The cVAM is fabricated by molding elastomers (using three-dimensional-printed parts) and positioning a rigid rod (in Fig. 1, a wooden dowel) in the center of the device by curing the elastomer around its base (Supplementary Fig. S1). When a differential pressure of \(-90 \text{ kPa}\) (partial vacuum inside the chambers) is applied to two adjacent chambers, the rod deflects from the vertical by \(\sim 16°\) (Fig. 1B). Figure 1C illustrates various positions that can be attained by applying vacuum to one or two neighboring air chambers. A neutral position is shown in the middle when no vacuum is applied. cVAM, cyclical vacuum-actuated machine.

We fabricated cVAMs using elastomers (Supplementary Table S1) with different values of stiffness (as characterized by their elastic modulus) and characterized their actuation with and without load using the setup illustrated in Figure 2A.
and respectively small actuation angles) are chambers). The deflection of the rod without applied negative pressure (relative to atmosphere) was ramped continuously with an electronic pressure control system as described in the supplementary information. The actuation angle \( \phi \) was recorded using a camera from the side. (B) Time-averaged actuation as seen from the side. (C) Actuation angle as a function of applied negative pressure for actuators made of different materials (no load was applied, \( \tau = 0 \)). Initial slopes (in the linear regime at relatively small actuation angles) are \( \sim 0.28^\circ/\text{kPa}, \sim 0.09^\circ/\text{kPa}, \) and \( \sim 0.06^\circ/\text{kPa}, \) respectively. (D) Maximum actuation \( \phi_{\text{max}} \) as a function of different loads (varying torque). The maximum actuation decreases with increased load but the effect is less severe for stiffer elastomers (they have smaller slope). Further characterization is provided in supplementary information.

where we evacuate two of the four chambers to move the central rod against gravity. Figure 2B shows a time-averaged image obtained for a typical actuator (as observed from a side view) with a load at the tip of the rod. The pressure difference between the inside and outside of the chambers was varied using a custom-built electronic pressure regulator (see Supplementary Data, Supplementary Table S6 and Fig. S8 for details on assembly and operation) over the range of 0 to \(-90\, \text{kPa}\) in increments of \( \sim 4\, \text{kPa} \) to obtain Figure 2C. As expected, actuators fabricated in stiffer elastomers show a smaller deflection of the rod at the same negative pressure. The actuator fabricated in 1:1 \( \text{v/v} \) mixture of Dragonskin:PDMS does not actuate completely under atmospheric conditions because the pressure difference is limited, but it could be useful for hyperbaric applications (such as deep-sea exploration).

When a load is added to the tip of the rod, Figure 2D shows the maximum angle of actuation (as illustrated in Fig. 2A; sometimes, failure is possible as seen in Supplementary Fig. S10) for actuators fabricated in different elastomers (when evacuated at \(-90\, \text{kPa}\)). The slopes of the lines in this plot (Supplementary Tables S2 and S7) confirm that stiffer elastomers are less affected by the addition of load than softer elastomers. The deflection of the rod without applied negative pressure and the work done by the actuators are presented in Supplementary Figure S3.

Scaling the size (by \(2 \times \) or \(3 \times \)) of the actuator shows the expected trends in its performance as indicated in Supplementary Figure S4 and explained in the Analysis section of Supplementary Data.

**Dynamic characterization of cVAM**

We also characterized the dependence of the angle of deflection (i.e., the angle between the initial position of the rod and its position upon actuation) of the rod on the frequency of revolution (number of revolutions per minute, or rpm, where one revolution is completed when the tip of the rod follows a trajectory that returns it to its initial position). By tracking the trajectory of the tip of the rod (see Supplementary Movie S3 for a typical video used for characterization), Figure 3 illustrates that the rod follows a trajectory whose shape is governed by the number of chambers (i.e., it will form a triangle, a square, or a pentagon, for three, four, or five chambers, respectively). One revolution involves 6, 8, or 10 steps for 3, 4, or 5 chambers as illustrated in Figure 3A.

The frequency of revolution (See Supplementary Data, Supplementary Fig. S9, and Table S4 for details on the contributions of different components of the system to the time needed for actuation) is controlled by changing how long the rod is held at each of these steps (we will refer to this time as hold time). When two adjacent chambers of the cVAM are actuated, the rod is at the corner of its respective shape; actuating a single chamber brings the rod approximately halfway around the edge of its respective shape. The shape of the trajectory is relatively constant as the hold time changes from 200 to 50 ms (Fig. 3A) and the maximum angle of deflection (Fig. 3B) decreases more severely (\( \sim 0.005^\circ/\text{rpm} \)) for three- and four-chamber actuators than for the five-chamber actuator (\( \sim 0.001^\circ/\text{rpm} \)). As we increase the frequency of revolution further (hold time of 5 ms), the trajectory starts to become more circular (Fig. 3A).

**FIG. 2.** The effect of materials used for fabricating the actuators (all actuators are of the same size and have four chambers). (A) Schematic of the setup used for characterization: two chambers (highlighted with blue shading) were actuated and the actuator was used to lift weight. The negative pressure (relative to atmosphere) was ramped continuously with an electronic pressure control system as described in the supplementary information. The actuation angle \( \phi \) was recorded using a camera from the side. (B) Time-averaged actuation as seen from the side. (C) Actuation angle as a function of applied negative pressure for actuators made of different materials (no load was applied, \( \tau = 0 \)). Initial slopes (in the linear regime at relatively small actuation angles) are \( \sim 0.28^\circ/\text{kPa}, \sim 0.09^\circ/\text{kPa}, \) and \( \sim 0.06^\circ/\text{kPa}, \) respectively. (D) Maximum actuation \( \phi_{\text{max}} \) as a function of different loads (varying torque). The maximum actuation decreases with increased load but the effect is less severe for stiffer elastomers (they have smaller slope). Further characterization is provided in supplementary information.
FIG. 3. The effect of varying the number of chambers (three, four, or five) on the actuation of cVAMs. All actuators are made of the same material (Ecoflex 00–30) and are of the same size. Volume of each chamber is 137, 99, and 75 μL for actuators with three, four, and five chambers, respectively. (A) Schematic representation of the order of actuation of the chambers (6, 8, or 10 steps per revolution), blue shows evacuated chambers, and red circle shows movement of tip position. Changes in the angle of deflection were obtained as a function of frequency of revolution (adjusted by changing the hold time at each step of the revolution). Images show three representative data points whereas the plot in part (B) represents maximum deflected angle for the entire range of frequencies of revolution that were tested. (The trajectory of the rod is slightly off-center because the camera was not perfectly aligned with the center of the rod.) A pressure difference between the chambers and the atmosphere of 90 kPa was used. The pictures presented here are time-averaged by overlaying frames from the corresponding video. The red marks show the location of the center of the rod as obtained from image tracking whereas blue lines indicate the trajectory. (B) Changes in the angle of deflection plotted as a function of the frequency of revolution. The values are reported as mean ± SD obtained from the maximum deflection of the rod as the rod undergoes revolution at different frequencies (while being held at each frequency for 10 s and recorded in a video at 240 fps).

FIG. 4. Characterization of the cyclical actuation of cVAMs in fluids. (A) Schematic illustration of the experimental setup. (B) A sample image of the setup: the bottom view is obtained using a mirror placed at an angle. (C) Change in position of the ball as the frequency of revolution changes (by changing the hold time for each step of revolution; the hold time and frequency of revolution are shown above the plot). The oscillations are similar in air and water and also in the x and y directions because of symmetry. (D, E) Observations of underdamped oscillations (in water or air) and overdamped oscillations (in carboxymethylcellulose solution) during each step of the revolution. (F) Average power output of the cVAMs (calculated based on the estimates of work done by the rubber ball in viscous fluid) at different frequencies of revolution.
While the actuator functions with different numbers of chambers, the four-chamber design provides the most consistent trajectory over a wide range of frequencies of operation (Fig. 3). Similar trends are observed when the actuator is scaled in size (Supplementary Fig. S5), but the larger actuator (3 × scaled) shows a more dramatic drop in the angle of deflection \( \angle \) (°/rpm) as a function of frequency of revolution.

When two chambers are actuated simultaneously, the angle of deflection is approximately twice that achieved by a single chamber (Supplementary Fig. S6 and Table S3) and the hysteresis is negligible as the negative pressure is ramped up or down (Supplementary Fig. S6 and Table S3).

Characterizing cyclical motion in a fluid

We used the actuator fabricated in Ecoflex 00–30 at 1 × scale (Supplementary Fig. S1), with four chambers to characterize the cyclical motion in a fluid. Figure 4A shows a schematic of the setup used to characterize the motion of cVAMs in fluids. Three fluids with different viscosities were used to characterize it: air (\( \eta \approx 0.02 \text{ mPa·s} \)), water (\( \eta \approx 0.89 \text{ mPa·s} \)), 2% w/v carboxymethylcellulose (\( \eta \approx 2300 \text{ mPa·s} \)) in water. Figure 4B shows sample images of the side view and bottom view of the stirrer. We operated the cVAMs at frequencies from 7.5 to 750 rpm by changing the hold time (ranging from 1000 to 10 ms) between each of the eight steps (Fig. 3A) that make up one complete revolution.

As expected, the cVAMs produce a periodic response (Fig. 4C), the frequency of revolution increases as the frequency of operation of its pneumatic valves (Supplementary Data, Fig. S7, and Table S5 provide details of the controller used for the valves) increases, while the amplitude of oscillation is approximately constant (±10%). At a frequency of revolution of 375 rpm (hold time of 20 ms), the amplitude of oscillation increases (by ~60%), probably because the actuator is operating closer to resonance frequency. When the frequency of revolution is 750 rpm (hold time of 10 ms), the amplitude drops considerably (from ~4 to ~1 mm—a decrease of ~80%). In comparison with the setup used in Figure 3, here we have added a load (a 2.4-g spherical rubber ball) to a needle (instead of a wooden dovel, such that fluid could be delivered or extracted as shown in Fig. 5) and thus, the response time (time between the signal from the solenoid valve and the movement of the ball) of the cVAM increases. Thus, a hold time of 10 ms is insufficient to achieve complete movement of the central rod.

We also observe that at the end of each of the eight steps of the revolution, the stirrer oscillates (with a decay) due to elasticity of the cVAMs (Fig. 4D). We can use these decaying oscillations to estimate the angular spring constant of the actuator as \( 0.0045 \text{ N·m·rad}^{-1} \) and the angular damping constant because of the elastomer in air as \( 3.9 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N·m·s·rad}^{-1} \) (see details in Supplementary Data). The damping of the amplitude of this oscillation can be affected by the viscosity of the fluid, if the viscosity is high enough. For example, when the viscosity of the fluid is significantly higher (2300 mPa·s) than water (0.89 mPa·s), then the oscillator operates in an overdamped regime (Fig. 4E).
Using the viscous drag force exerted by the fluids, we calculated the power output of the actuator as a function of frequency of revolution (Fig. 4F, details of calculations are given in the Supplementary Data). For the different frequencies of revolution, the work done per revolution by the actuator on the fluid remains approximately constant (because the force and displacement are the same for each step for the different frequencies of revolution).

As the frequency of revolution increases, the time period over which this work is done decreases, and hence the power dissipated while stirring increases. As expected, frequency of revolution and power are linearly related (Fig. 4F). The only exception is when the hold time (10 ms, with frequency of revolution of 750 rpm) for each step is shorter than the time interval required for the actuator to respond. In this regime, incomplete actuation leads to a decrease in the dissipated power.

Supplementary Figures S2 and S3 characterize the performance of the actuator when a load is applied at one end of the rod. These characteristics can be used to estimate the spring constant at 0.0095 N·m·rad⁻¹, which is about double compared with the previous estimate (0.0045 N·m·rad⁻¹). In addition, the thermodynamic efficiency is ~2% and the power dissipated is about 2.3 mW (see Supplementary Data for details on calculations; for comparison, we have reported a soft linear actuator showing efficiency of ~27%²⁰ and biological muscles have efficiency of about 20–40%³⁰,³¹). These characteristics could be improved by optimizing the design of the actuator, for example, by making the external walls thicker to minimize losses of energy by compression of the actuator.

Using cVAMs for delivering fluid while stirring

We replaced the central wooden dowel with a stainless steel needle (16G, 10 cm) and connected the needle to a tube (Tygon® S3) for delivering fluids. We attached a spherical ball at the base of the needle (see Supplementary Movie S2 for a demonstration of stirring) for two reasons: (1) to increase the drag force in viscous fluid and hence, the stirring ability and (2) to aid in characterization because a spherical shape simplifies force calculations (as discussed in the previous section).

Since the cVAMs produce a cyclical motion without rotating the needle, it is possible to deliver fluids without entangling the tubes. Using fluorescein (1 mM in water) as a model dye, we demonstrated that the cVAMs can be used to deliver fluid (at the rate of 10 mL/min) into a water bath (150 mL) while stirring at 375 rpm (hold time of 20 ms). Qualitatively, Figure 5 and Supplementary Movie S4 show that stirring using cVAMs can achieve a homogeneous solution (i.e., fluorescein is dispersed throughout the water bath) within 10 s while delivering fluorescein continuously. On the contrary, when the cVAM is not stirring, the delivery of fluorescein is heterogeneous even after 20 s (i.e., the convection created by stirring by cVAM is considerably more effective for mixing than diffusion alone, Fig. 5).

Using cVAMs for locomotion

Actuating the ring of pneumatic chambers in clockwise or counter-clockwise sequence causes the tip of the central rod to move in a cyclical manner while following an

![Diagram](image-url)
approximately square trajectory (Fig. 3). We took advantage of this motion to build a quadrupedal soft robot that uses this cyclical movement to walk (Fig. 6). In designing a gait, we mimicked the walking gait of a reptile. While walking, a reptile moves its diagonal limbs simultaneously (Supplementary Fig. S1132) and so does our soft robot (Supplementary Movies S5–S7).

Conclusions

cVAMs offer a new method to generate a cyclical motion using a soft actuator. It is useful to compare the cVAM with the related device described by Mazzeo and colleagues.22 Four advantages can be listed. (1) The cVAMs do not require a lubricant. (2) They cannot burst at actuation pressures more than their operating specifications because they operate under negative pressure (partial vacuum) rather than positive pressure. (3) The frequency of revolution is controlled by the hold time between steps while the negative pressure (in the chambers) controls the shape of the trajectory; Mazzeo’s rotational actuator requires a critical pressure less than which there is no rotation because the inflation of the chambers depends on the pressure applied (and if the pressure is too low, the sequential inflation of chambers does not lead to rotation). This relationship allows us to achieve rapid revolutions (~750 rpm without altering the trajectory) compared with that in the actuator by Mazzeo et al. (~20 rpm at a comparable pressure difference of 90 kPa). (4) cVAMs contract rather than expand when being used, and thus can be used in space-constrained environments. The elastomers are less strained when operated using reduced pressure relative to operation under positive pressure and thus can have increased lifetime (we tested cVAMs with 106 cycles and the actuation remained unchanged, as seen in Supplementary Fig. S12).

cVAMs exhibit three limitations. (1) Under ambient conditions, the pressure difference is limited to ~100 kPa because cVAMs actuate using vacuum. This property governs the force that can be applied by the cVAMs. The limitation might become an advantage in hyperbaric conditions such as in deep-sea applications. (2) Operation of the cVAM involves many cycles of low amplitude stretching and compressing of the elastomer ‘‘hub,’’ and failure in this region is a possibility (although unlikely for at least a million cycles, as seen in Supplementary Fig. S12). (3) cVAMs are not directly suitable for causing an axle and wheel to rotate because the central rod does not actually rotate, instead it follows an approximately square trajectory. Table 1 summarizes additional technical differences.

The cVAMs can be used to deliver fluids, or to sample, while stirring without entangling the tubes used for delivery (or sampling) as demonstrated by the stirring of fluorescein in Figure 5. Since the actuators are pneumatic, cVAMs can be used in operations that are sensitive to electromagnetic fields, or use flammable liquids, wherein unshielded electric motors could cause interference or explosion.

These cVAMs can be coupled to each other to mimic some parts of the motion used by animals (reptiles) to move their limbs in walking. In reptilian walking, several joints function together in each step. One characteristic of this gait is that diagonal limbs move simultaneously (or almost simultaneously)32; we implemented this diagonal co-ordination in our crude biomimetic model.

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Authors’ Contributions


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References


Address correspondence to:
George M. Whitesides
Department of Chemistry and Chemical Biology
Harvard University
12 Oxford Street
Cambridge, MA 02138

E-mail: whitesides@gmwgroup.harvard.edu