Echinoderm-inspired Tube Feet for Robust Robot Locomotion and Adhesion

Michael A. Bell\textsuperscript{1,2}, Isabella Pestovski\textsuperscript{1,2}, William Scott\textsuperscript{3}, Kitty Kumar\textsuperscript{4}, Mohammad K. Jawed\textsuperscript{4}, Derek A. Paley\textsuperscript{3}, Carmel Majidi\textsuperscript{4}, James C. Weaver\textsuperscript{2}, and Robert J. Wood\textsuperscript{1,2}

Abstract—Movement in echinoderms is facilitated by the coordinated activity of thousands of individually addressable and reversibly adhesive tube feet. To investigate the potential applicability of these unique biological actuators as a locomotory structure for robotics applications, we describe here the design, fabrication, and evaluation of an elastomeric structural analogue. The synthetic tube feet were modeled as bi-stable deformable domes, containing an embedded magnet to facilitate the reversible attachment to ferromagnetic materials. Two unique robots were developed using the bi-stability of these domes—CircleBot, which is capable of rolling on ferrous surfaces using a pull and roll technique, and PlanarBot, which uses a programmed deflection direction in the domes to move in a plane.

Index Terms—Soft Material Robotics, Biologically-Inspired Robots, Hydraulic/Pneumatic Actuators, Climbing Robots.

I. INTRODUCTION

ECHINODERMS are a remarkably agile group of marine invertebrates [1] and in recent years have provided much inspiration for the design and fabrication of a wide range of soft robotic actuators [2], [3], [4], [5]. While most prior studies have focused on replicating their penta-radial body plans or, in the case of sea stars, their large-scale arm movements [6], [7], we instead have directed our present efforts toward developing a series of tube foot-inspired actuators, which complements other reversible adhesion mechanisms developed in recent years [8], [9], [10], [11], [12], [13]. In sea stars, the tube feet are highly maneuverable, hydraulically actuated cylindrical projections located on the animal’s oral surface, each of which is terminated by a reversibly adhesive disk-like structure (Figure 1) [14]. The coordinated action of thousands of these individual tube feet results in the large scale movement of these species across a wide range of heterogeneous topographies. Inspired by their highly distributed functionality and robust reversible adhesion, we developed a synthetic tube foot structural analogue for incorporation into a wide range of robots, two of which are highlighted in this work.

In the tube feet of most echinoderm species (sea stars, sea cucumbers, and sea urchins), reversible attachment is accomplished via a duo-gland adhesion system [15], which is based on the controlled, sequential secretion and degradation of protein-based underwater glues. In a robotic analogue, however, the implementation of this strategy is not tractable using conventional fabrication approaches employed in the field of soft robotics. To mitigate these fabrication challenges, we instead chose to focus on a more novel, robust, and scalable alternative that incorporates small permanent neodymium magnets for the reversible adhesion to ferromagnetic surfaces. In addition, we have incorporated a unique bi-stable deformable dome structure with an asymmetrical rib feature into our tube foot analogue that facilitate a robot’s movement in a preprogrammed direction.

II. TUBE FOOT DESIGN, FABRICATION AND TESTING

The tube foot structural analogues exhibit a bi-stable dome-like geometry, with the default molded shape in the retracted state [16], [17]. Iterations of geometries were numerically studied using finite element analysis and experimentally validated as described below.

A. Tube Foot Design and Fabrication

The 3D geometry of the tube foot was based on a fully parameterized 2D sketch that was revolved to produce a solid body. In the case of the programmed deflection direction (as
discussed in Sec. II-C), a loft extruded rib was created on both the positive and negative mirrored sides of the dome membrane to create an asymmetry that biased the buckling trajectory to create a preferential direction of motion. Figure 2 shows the cross-section of a typical tube foot. The base mating geometry of the foot remained universal during development such that the same characterization rigs could be employed – and various robots (including the CircleBot and PlanarBot, described here) could share feet. Parameters related to the dome angle, thickness, and actuation length were routinely modified in order to maintain a bi-stable architecture, while simultaneously maximizing magnet retention throughout development.

The tube foot molds (and the robot bodies with their associated fluid distribution networks) were 3D printed using an Objet Connex 500 3D printer (Stratasys, Eden Prairie, MN, USA) from VeroClear (RGD810) material. For the PlanarBot, the tube feet were produced in a nine-cavity mold with appropriate gates and runners for material evacuation during the molding process. The CircleBot utilized a 1×12 tube foot array that could be easily stretched and secured over the CircleBot frame. Figure 2B shows the top and bottom molds with the resulting tube foot array in between.

B. Molding Process and Magnet Encapsulation

Each tube foot contains a single encapsulated magnet within the dome tip to facilitate adhesion to ferrous substrates. Stabilizing the magnet within the center of the volume during elastomer encapsulation while preventing the magnet from pulling out of the silicone material during actuation and adhesion presented a challenge [18]. To address both issues, thin metal wire meshes (RadioScreen™, Less EMF Inc., Latham, NY, USA) were laser cut in a star-like geometry and surrounded each magnet during the molding process. The wire mesh allows the silicone to flow around the magnet and subsequently acts as a barrier to prevent the magnet from ripping through the surrounding elastomer. To align the magnet within the encapsulation volume, additional magnets were placed within the exterior of the mold such that the encapsulated magnet maintained a stable geometry during the molding process.

The silicone molding material was Smooth-On (Macungie, PA, USA), Smooth-Sil 950 for the PlanarBot and Smooth-Sil 945 for the CircleBot. An accelerator (4% by weight Smooth-On Plat-Cat) was added to the pre-polymer to accelerate the curing process. During molding, Ease Release 200 (Mann Formulated Products, Macungie, PA, USA) was used as a release agent for all surfaces of the mold. A small amount of Smooth-Sil was first poured into the top mold, degassed, and then the metal wire mesh was pushed through into the appropriate cavities, which allowed complete infiltration of the elastomer. Magnets were inserted shortly after, followed by the remaining Smooth-Sil. The molds were then married, clamped, and placed in a pressure chamber (0.5 MPa) until fully cured.

C. Modeling, Behavior and Mechanics

In the early stages of the tube foot design process, continuous feedback was provided by finite element simulations (Abaqus Standard 6.12; SIMULIA, Providence, RI, USA) in order to understand the factors controlling dome deformation and the directional control of the resulting buckling behavior. In order to capture the large deformations involved in the bistable structure under pressurization, the elastomer was treated as a Neo-Hookean solid with shear modulus 1.875 MPa and elastic coefficients of $C_1 = 0.938$ MPa and $D_{10} = 5.33 \cdot 10^{-2}$ MPa$^{-1}$ (values derived from the Smooth-Sil technical data sheet). These values correspond to compressible hyperelasticity, with a bulk to shear modulus ratio of 20. The surface mesh of the tube foot with and without ribs was constructed using second order tetrahedral hybrid elements, Abaqus code C3D10 and C3D10H, respectively, and the pneumatic actuation of the tube foot was simulated by applying pressure equivalent to 48 kPa to the top surface in the $y$-direction (Figure 3A). Gravity and self-contact during deformation were ignored in the simulations. The initial configuration of the model tube foot in the FEA was the same as in the experimental tests, with the foot clamped along the base flange.

The simulated behavior of the tube foot upon pressurization is presented in Figure 3. In the case of the tube foot structure with the smooth dome surface (Figure 3A), the elastic membrane buckles asymmetrically, which results in probabilistic deflection of the magnet in the direction determined by structural and material imperfections. Upon further pressurization, the quasi-stable structure deforms and stabilizes into the symmetrical second stable state. With the objective to minimize the detachment force, we optimized the dome geometry for maximum rotation angle of the magnet with respect to the vertical $y$-axis. In particular, we study the interrelationship between the slant angle $\theta$ (Figure 3B) of the dome wall and maximum rotation angle of the magnet in a quasi-stable state. As presented in Figure 3C, the magnet deflects farther away from the $y$-axis with the decrease in the slant angle from $\theta = 75^\circ$ to $0^\circ$. The domes with slant angle greater than $75^\circ$ do not show a secondary stable state upon retraction. To avoid possible failure at sharp edges created during casting and molding process, we selected a specific dome geometry with the dome slant angle of 15°.

With the addition of the asymmetrical axial rib feature (Figure 3D-F), the asymmetry in the deformation are directly influenced by the rib location. This programmed asymmetry
in the deformation regulates the deflection direction of the magnet, which we verified both numerically (Figure 3D), and experimentally (Figure 3F). Since the critical load required for the induction of this buckling behavior is lower than that which is observed in the smooth-domed control, the location of the axial rib feature can be tuned in order to achieve a specific directional deformation (a design element that is required for the successful operation of the PlanarBot).

![Diagram of tube foot designs and buckling behavior](image)

Fig. 3. (A) Simulated buckling behavior of tube foot without the asymmetrical axial rib feature. (B) Geometry of the tube foot with the dome-shaped elastomer membrane (L₁ = 1 mm, L₂ = 2 mm, L₃ = 1 mm, R₁ = 1 mm, R₂ = 1 mm, t (membrane thickness) = 0.4 mm, m₁ = 1.7 mm, mₓ = 6.4 mm, bₓ = 1 mm (irrelevant), bᵧ = 2 mm (irrelevant) and slant angle \( \theta \). (C) Rotation angle \( \psi \) of the magnet with respect to the vertical \( y \)-axis as a function of slant angle \( \theta \) of the dome wall. Simulated (D) and experimental (F) buckling behavior of tube foot designed with the asymmetrical axial rib feature (E). The addition of rib element results in controlled directional deflection of the embedded magnet.

D. Experimental Characterization

Each tube foot used in the CircleBot contained an N52 grade cylindrical magnet, 1/8” dia. \( \times \) 1/4” long (D24-N52, K&J Magnetics, Plumsteadville, PA, USA). The pull force of each magnet is 4.67 N (as reported by the manufacturer) when directly in contact with a ferrous surface. Through tensile testing measurements performed on an Instron 5566 (Instron, Norwood, MA, USA), however, the pull-off force of the encapsulated magnet behind the metal mesh and silicone stack-up was 3.51 N as seen in Figure 4. With the Instron programmed to remain stationary, we applied a vacuum to the tube foot while measuring the resulting tensile force. During magnet retraction, the dome of the tube foot buckled, which caused the magnet to rotate and eventually release with a maximum tensile force of only 1.10 N. Compared to the nominal strength of the magnet, dome buckling resulted in a two thirds reduction in the detachment force, demonstrating that the buckling instability and the bistable mechanics of the tube foot allowed for controlled detachment with significantly less energy.

![Graph of pull-off forces](image)

Fig. 4. (A) Normal vs. angular pull-off forces of the embedded magnet detaching from a ferrous surface. (B) Demonstration of normal tensile pull-off test, and (C) demonstration the rotation due to dome buckling, which produces significantly less force upon retraction.

III. CIRCLEBOT DEMONSTRATOR

The CircleBot (Figure 5) demonstrates the concepts of integrated robust adhesion and ease of release. It rotates by actuating or retracting one of the four sets of tube feet (denoted by groups A, B, C, and D, Figure 5A). In order to optimize the CircleBot’s gait for a coordinated forward motion, a mathematical motion model was developed and simulations were carried out to identify the specific order of tube foot actuation to achieve a rolling motion, the results of which were verified experimentally as described below. Though the model is idealized, with damped springs taking the place of the soft tube feet, we demonstrate that numerical simulations match closely with the motion of the experimental device.

A. Mathematical Gait Model

We modeled the CircleBot as a rigid body moving in a plane with mass \( m \) and moment of inertia \( I \) as follows: The shape of the body is a regular polygon with \( n = 12 \) sides, and apothem distance \( a \), so that each side has length \( lₙ = 2a \tan(\pi/n) \). The radial angle between sides is \( \alpha = 2\pi/n \). A pneumatic tube foot actuator is attached at the midpoint of each side, having a base with width \( w \) and length \( l₀ \) out from which the magnetic tip can extend, with a pressure-controlled nominal distance \( lᵢ(uᵢ) \), where \( uᵢ \) is a control input representing the applied pressure for foot \( i = 1, \ldots, n \).
Fig. 5. (A) CAD model of CircleBot which includes four (color-coded) barbed input fittings, and a circular array of tube feet. (B-D) Assembly steps of the CircleBot. (B) A silicone molded linear tube foot array is stretched around a frame. (C) A laser cut nylon sleeve is then placed around the tube feet and the surface. (D) Two 1.5 mm disk wheels are placed on either side of the CircleBot for balance and tubing is installed.

If we let \( \mathbf{r} = (x, y)^T \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) be the location of the center of the robot in an inertial coordinate frame, and \( \theta \in \mathbb{S} \) its orientation relative to that frame, then the nominal, or unforced, location of the tip of tube foot \( i \) is

\[
\mathbf{r}_i = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} R(\theta + \alpha i) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a + l_0 + l_i(u_i) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},
\]

where \( R \) is the standard 2D rotation matrix.

If the \( x \)-axis represents a solid ferromagnetic surface, such that no part of the robot can pass through it, locomotion can be achieved through controlled interaction between the tube feet and the surface.

The equations of motion for the rigid body are

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} &= m\mathbf{g} \cos \gamma + \sum F_i^x, \\
\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{y}} &= m\mathbf{g} \sin \gamma + \sum F_i^y, \\
\mathbf{I} \ddot{\mathbf{\theta}} &= \sum \tau_i,
\end{align*}
\]

where \( F_i^x, F_i^y \), and \( \tau_i \) are the forces and torque exerted on the robot due to tube foot \( i \), and \( g \) is the gravitational acceleration acting in direction \( \gamma \).

1) Tube foot attachment: In a simplified model for the magnetic interaction between the tube foot and the surface, each tube foot has a binary state of attachment or detachment. When a tube foot is not attached to the surface, no external forces act on it. In contrast, the tube foot becomes attached when its distance to the surface is less than or equal to a threshold attachment distance \( y_a \) and the location of the tube foot tip becomes fixed, at \( \mathbf{p}_i = (x_i, 0)^T \). When the tube foot is attached, it can exert both normal and shear forces on the surface, which depend on the material properties of the both the magnet and the surface. In the normal direction, \( F_d \) is the force of detachment (shown in Figure 4B), and once the force exerted by the tube foot in the direction normal to the surface exceeds \( F_d \), the tube foot detaches.

2) Tube foot deformation: The relationship between deformation and applied force on the tube foot was modeled as a damped spring with spring constant \( k \) and damping constant \( d \). The applied force thus varies linearly with the displacement of the actual tube foot tip location \( \mathbf{p}_i \) from its nominal location \( \mathbf{r}_i \), with \( F_i = (F_{i}^x, F_{i}^y)^T = k(u_i)(\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{r}_i) - d \mathbf{r}_i \). The applied torque \( \tau_i \) about the center of the CircleBot due to \( F_i \) is the scalar part of the vector \((\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{r}) \times F_i \).

The linear damped spring model was chosen for the tube foot for its simplicity and low number of parameters while still retaining the qualitative behavior of the CircleBot device. To achieve higher fidelity, more features may be added to the model, such as allowing the spring constant to vary with the applied pressure in the tube foot, or specifying a nonlinear relationship between force and displacement.

B. Control design

The goal was to design a gait, or periodic trajectory in the applied control variables, that gave rise to a repeated net displacement of the robot in a desired direction. For design of a rolling trajectory, we separated the action of a single tube foot into four distinct phases:

1) Reaching out: the free tube foot extends outward, reaching towards the surface;
2) Pulling in: once attached, the tube foot retracts in order to pull the robot in that direction;
3) Pushing out: as the robot rolls over the tube foot (still attached but fully retracted) it begins to extend again, to push the robot along; and
4) Detachment: at full extension, the tube foot pulls in sharply to achieve detachment until the robot rolls around far enough to restart the cycle.

The possible number of tube feet attached at any given time will depend on the geometry of the robot. The number of feet \( n \) determines the angle \( \alpha = 2\pi/n \) between the feet. The maximum extended length determines at what orientation in which the tube foot can become attached. If \( l_0 \) is the maximum extended length under high pressure input, then the maximum angle from vertical where attachment can occur, for the robot up against the surface with \( y = a + l_0 \), is \( \bar{\theta} = \cos^{-1}((a + l_0)/(a + l_0 + l_e)) \). Climbing ability on an inclined surface will depend on the possible number of attached feet, since if the robot cannot stay attached to the surface in a static configuration it will not be able to climb it either.

Closed-loop feedback control can be achieved if the robot has an onboard sensor to measure its orientation, such as an accelerometer. Let \( u_i \) be the control input to foot \( i \), taking values in the set \( \{-1, 0, 1\} \) corresponding to applied vacuum, vent, and applied pressure, respectively. We propose a control law based on the four phases of foot motion described above:

\[
u_i(\theta_i) = \begin{cases} 
+1, & \theta_{push} < \theta_i \leq \theta_{reach} \\
0, & \theta_{push} < \theta_i \leq \theta_{pull} \\
+1, & \theta_{detach} < \theta_i \leq \theta_{push} \\
-1, & \theta_{end} < \theta_i \leq \theta_{detach}
\end{cases}
\]
where $\theta_i = \theta + i\alpha$ is the orientation of foot $i$. Parameters $\theta_{reach} > \theta_{pull} > \theta_{push} > \theta_{detach} > \theta_{end}$ refer to switching surfaces, such that the control input changes as the foot orientation crosses those values. By choosing $\theta_{reach} - \theta_{end} = 2\pi/3$, we ensure that only one foot out of a given control group is under control at a given moment – as one foot, $i$, reaches $\theta_{end}$, the next foot controlled by the same input, $i+4$, reaches $\theta_{reach}$, assuming $\dot{\theta} < 0$ (clockwise rolling).

C. Simulation

A simulation was performed in MATLAB version R2017a (Mathworks, Inc, Natick, MA, USA) based on forward Euler integration with a fixed time step $\Delta t = 0.001$ s. The following parameter values were derived from the fabricated device: $n = 12$, $\alpha = 39.4$ mm, $w = 13.9$ mm, $l_0 = 10.4$ mm, $l_c = 4.5$ mm, $m = 35.3$ g, $I \approx ma^2 = 5.480$ g-mm$^2$ (assuming most mass is concentrated at radius $a$), $y_a = 1$ mm, $F_d = 3.51$ N (based on normal pull-off test), $g = 9.81$ m/s$^2$, and $\gamma = -\pi/2$ (gravity directly downwards). The extended length of tube foot varies with the applied pressure. For vacuum, $l_i = -l_c$; for ambient pressure, $l_i = 0$; and for high pressure, $l_i = l_c$. The spring constant of $k = 0.743$ N/mm is estimated from the slope of the force-displacement curve from the normal pull-off test. The tube foot springs are assumed to be highly damped with a damping ratio $\zeta = 0.7$, corresponding to $d = 2.86$ N-s based on the spring constant and the mass of an individual tube foot measured as 1.38 g.

Figure 6 shows snapshots before, during, and after a single step in a rolling trajectory for the experimental device along with a simulation using the same input timing.

D. Experimental Results

The fabricated CircleBot was tested using a custom LabVIEW 2016 (National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) GUI sequencer and two 3-way valves per channel, with four channels in total, which enabled each tube foot to have positive, negative, and ambient air pressure. As no more than four tube feet can be in contact through any sequence, only four channels were required to drive a total of 12 tube feet (three feet per channel), which greatly reduced the required number of tubes and control lines. In addition, electro-pneumatic regulators were employed to adjust the positive and negative pressures for each test. Each channel was supplied with identical positive and negative pressures, which were maintained during continuous cycling once the required actuation and retraction pressures were determined.

Figure 6 shows a quarter cycle, switching the normal tube foot on the substrate from “B” to “C”. Step 2 of Figure 6 shows the transition step where all tube feet can be observed momentarily being actuated as a rotation is occurring.

The CircleBot achieved a velocity of $3.2$ mm/sec with minimally tunned actuation timing (with a $78.8$ mm diameter CircleBot, this is $0.04$ body lengths per second (BL/s)). While the current CircleBot design was not able to climb inclines greater than $ca. 15^\circ$, which was likely due to the lack of movement during the step transition and the weight of the robot, the presence of additional parallel tube foot arrays or the incorporation of larger, stronger magnets would likely provide enough additional adhesive force to allow the robot to climb walls.

IV. PLANARBOT DEMONSTRATOR

Guided by the FEA simulations investigating induced directionality during tube foot buckling, we fabricated a PlanarBot to exploit this directional anisotropy. The PlanarBot design consists of up to 12 tube feet hydraulically controlled through the use of a syringe pump. Through multiple cycles, it can move along a path described by the rib orientation. Figure 7 captures the actuation “kick” of the PlanarBot from rest to standing, and retracting. Each foot contributes to the locomotion of the robot on both actuation and retraction cycles.

The PlanarBot, as seen in Figure 7, was constructed with a central 3D printed hub that allowed for rapid iteration on tube foot design. The tube feet fit over a barbed feature, and a 3D printed snap clip retained each of the tube feet (while allowing rapid replacement and repositioning for the exploration of different gait configurations). The hub also contained four threaded inlet ports for barbed fittings and, through its four internal chambers, equally distribuiteed a channel’s pressure to the three attached hydraulic distribution tubes. For this demonstrator, two channels were merged to control six tube feet at once.

The tube feet achieved a linear motion of $4.4$ mm per cycle using hydraulic actuation, with a full cycle taking $3.87$
Hydraulics were required in place of pneumatics since the expansion of air in a tube foot post-buckling is uncontrollable, which resulted in very quick impulses from the foot (5 ms). These impulses can not be adequately dampened with magnetic forces, weights, or surface friction in order to achieve controlled linear motion. In contrast, hydraulic fluid is incompressible and the tube foot expansion was thus limited by the compression rate of the syringe pump, resulting in an amplified kicking motion and locomotion with a controlled linear response – features that are not possible with pneumatics. If pneumatic actuation is employed, however, we could potentially achieve a seven-fold increase in speed (0.55 BL/s).

V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

In the present study, a mechanical analogue of an echinoderm’s tube foot was explored and demonstrated for robust adhesion and locomotion. The tube foot fabrication strategy employed traditional techniques from soft robotics, with new methods introduced to embed magnets during the molding process. FEA simulations demonstrated a buckling instability that occurred during tube foot actuation that could be harnessed for controlling directionality via the incorporation of an asymmetric axial rib-like feature. Using these design strategies, the CircleBot implementation illustrated robust attachment of the magnetic tube feet and ease of release, while tube feet with programmed directional deformation were demonstrated through the PlanarBot to create a kick-like gait.

To achieve additional functionality, future iterations of the CircleBot demonstrator could incorporate parallel arrays of tube feet, allowing vertical surface climbing. It could also gain the ability to steer by incorporating additional parallel tube feet arrays with a slight angular offset which could be controlled through differential actuation timing. Lastly, the CircleBot could turn into a full SphereBot and take the form of a controlled-movement tumbleweed.

Future modifications to the PlanarBot model would include more complex programmable deformation directions of a larger tube foot array, which would facilitate omnidirectional locomotion. By combining programmed tube foot buckling direction with magnetic attachment and release, the Planarbot would be able to navigate any ferrous object. With a modified hub geometry into which the tube feet integrate, such as a bellow-type actuator [20], it could feasibly traverse substrates with nonuniform topographies such as the hull of a ship.

Small fluidic actuators are highly advantageous in soft robotic systems as distributed actuator arrays can conform around surfaces to provide uniform attachment forces. The resulting soft robot would also be highly robust, allowing many actuators to be potentially impaired without compromising the locomotion or grasping performance (compared with motion or manipulation using a small number of actuators). On a large-scale – mimicking the number of tube feet in a large sea star – one could foreseeably imagine adhesion forces in the range of hundreds to thousands of kilograms of pull force [1]. When a large load is applied normal to the plane of attachment in a living sea star, the adhesion is frequently stronger than the cohesive strength of the soft tissue, and the tube feet will fail internally. From an engineering perspective in a robotic analogue, this effect would be highly undesirable (as there is no internal healing modes), but this information would enable more cost-effective fabrication by balancing the known strength of the elastomer with that of the pull force of the encapsulated magnets.

A future direction to take the tube foot concepts and the demonstrators is in a fully untethered, teleoperated, or autonomous robot. The pressures required to actuate both types of tube feet described here are on-par with or significantly below those pressures employed for the actuation of previous soft robotic prototypes designed for deep sea exploration [20]. In addition, the opportunity to create fully autonomous robots can be achieved (depending on the habitat of interest) through the incorporation of small pneumatic, hydraulic, or peristaltic pumps, as has been demonstrated on previous untethered soft robotic systems [2]. Other advantages of the locomotory scheme described here is that it results in very low deflection of the robot along the z-axis, while possessing the ability to maintain high adhesion strength during all stages of forward motion. As such, these soft robotic prototypes (especially the PlanarBot configuration) could subsequently maintain a low profile body plan for maneuverability in high flow situations and could therefore be useful in applications including deep sea salvaging and exploration, inspection of pipes and structures, or the inspection of ship hulls.

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