

Toward An Adhesion Based Measurement of Strain-Dependent Surface Stress in Soft Solids

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Abstract

Surface stress, or surface tension, is a fundamental material property of interfaces. However, our understanding of solid surface tension and how it changes with deformation remains limited because it is difficult to measure in traditional stiff materials. Soft materials, including gels, provide a unique opportunity to measure these fundamental properties because they can be stretched elastically to very large strains. In this thesis, we have developed a new, adhesion-based approach to measure the solid surface stress of compliant materials as a function of applied strain. This approach is applicable to a wide range of soft materials.

Return to this continually....

Executive Summary

This thesis describes a new method for measuring strain dependent surface stress in soft solids, as well as the corresponding measurements for two silicone polymer gels. Over the past several years, recent attempts to measure surface stress in gels have returned a cornucopia of conflicting results, differing significantly in similar materials. Recently, Xu, Jensen et al. suggested that this discrepancy is an artifact of the strain state of the gels, and made the first measurement of strain-dependent surface stress, $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$, in solids [1]. In this paper, the authors reported that the surface stress changed dramatically under applied strain. At 18% strain, the surface stress more than doubled.



Figure 1: This is first direct measurement of strain dependent surface stress in solids [1]. Using a compliant silicone gel, surface stress, Υ , was found to grow linearly as a function of strain, ϵ .

Over the past year, we have helped develop a new method for measuring $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ in soft solids. Our adhesion-based technique can be applied to a wide variety of stretchable materials. Additionally, we have build our own equibiaxial stretching apparatus, improving upon the earlier published design [1] to produce nearly twice the strain in identical materials. Using this technique we have measured the adhesion energy and surface stress in two types of silicone, as well as preliminary $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ measurements as we work towards recreate the controversial 2017 measurement.

Our results suggest that the surface tension in gels does significantly change under strain. The figure below is an example of how you can visually see this change for a single silica sphere sitting in a silicone substrate. As the underlying gel is stretched, the surface tension increases, reducing the depth into which the sphere sits.

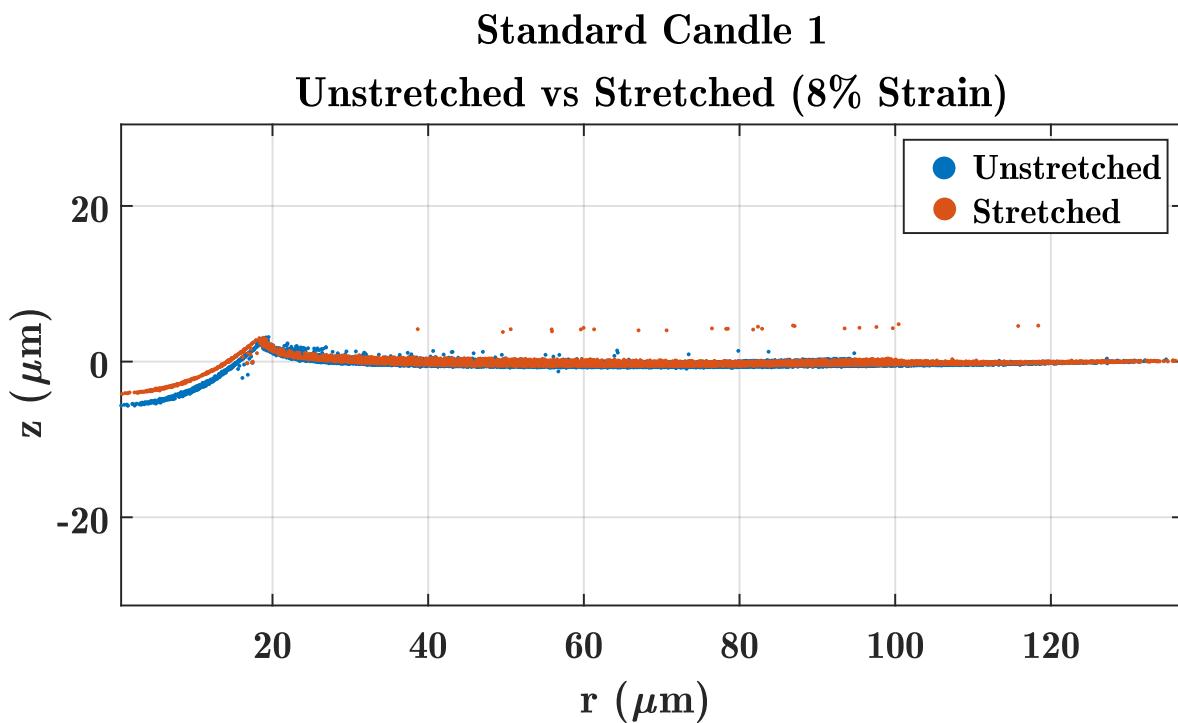


Figure 2: The side profile of the same silica sphere sitting in a silicone substrate before and after stretch. When a strain is applied, the sphere's indentation into the substrate is shallower. Substrate is Gelest PDMS with stiffness $E = 6.3 \text{ kPa}$.

I will continue to update this section. I hope to have a much more compelling graph to share, one more similar to Figure 1.

Acknowledgements

Make sure to include: KEJ, Mr. Josh Kang aka super soldier, Abdullah, Michael Taylor and Jason Mativi, Professor Strait for teaching me everything I know about Vibrations, Waves, and Optics. Professor Majumbles. Probably my track coaches. Parents I guess.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Motivations

Soft Condensed Matter Physics includes the study of colloids, liquid crystals, polymers, complex fluids, rubbers, foams, many biological materials, and - what we devote most of our time to studying in the Jensen lab - gels. From cosmetics to sticky notes, soft solids are ubiquitous in everyday life and are of growing interest due to their unique properties compared to traditional (hard) engineering materials. It is important to understand how such ubiquitous materials behave, especially when put under the strains of life. Accordingly, there

1.2 Historical Context

1.2.1 Development of Surface Tension

Though few people may know the term, surface stress is a familiar concept in everyday phenomena: water droplets bead up into spheres, paperclips can float on water despite being made of dense iron, and water striders navigate the water's surface thanks to their hydrophobic legs. Each of these marvels is a result of **surface stress**, γ , the energetic cost per unit area to create new surface [2]. The water strider, for example, exerts a force on the water due to gravity. Because creating new surface costs energy, the water resists deformation, providing a restorative force that effectively balances the insect's weight to keep it afloat. Likewise, water droplets bead up and liquid surfaces are smooth because γ opposes surface stretching, acting to minimize the surface-to-volume ratio of the liquid [3, 4]

Consider returning here and adding after reading de Gennes

The energy associated with particles in the bulk is less than that of the particles at the surface. Molecules beneath the surface are attracted by the particles around them in every

direction. In contrast, the particles at the surface are only attracted by the molecules directly adjacent to them. As a result of these less favorable interactions, they are in a state of higher energy compared to molecules in the bulk. The difference in energy between particles in the bulk compared to the surface is known as the **surface free energy**, γ , often written as just surface energy. Equivalently, γ can also be defined as the reversible work per unit area to create new surface by cutting. This exposes new particles to the surface. When the surface of a fluid is stretched, however, new atoms or molecules arrive at the surface, maintaining the number of atoms per unit area as a constant value. Therefore, the surface energy is the same as the surface stress for a fluid and equal to a constant value. Because of this, γ and Υ have are often referred to interchangeably as **surface tension**. While conceptually the energetics are similar in solid materials, the situation becomes more complicated for materials that cant flow.

1.2.2 Surface Tension in Solids

In metals, the origin of surface stress, on the atomic scale, derives from the crystalline structure. The epitaxial layer, or surface atoms, reside in a lower electron density and therefore a different equilibrium spacing than the bulk. The bulk atoms force the surface atoms to fit into the epitaxial overlayer of the crystalline substrate. As a result, the surface atoms are strained by the bulk, leaving the surface stressed by the underlying lattice [2].

Strain Dependency of Surface Stress in Traditional Solids

Although surface tension is most familiar in liquids, it is a property shared by solids as well. In contrast to liquids, when a surface of a solid is elastically stretched, the number of atoms per unit area changes, such that generally $\gamma \neq \Upsilon$ in solids [2]. The relationship between surface energy and surface stress can be derived through the use of the elastic deformation tensor ϵ_{ij} , where $i, j = 1, 2$. We can then define $d\epsilon_{ij}$ to be an infinitesimal and elastic (reversible) strain as a result in a variation of the surface area, A . The surface stress tensor, Υ_{ij} , is the work associated with the variation in the excess free energy of the surface due to strain, γA . Thus, we can write,

$$d(\gamma A) = A\Upsilon_{ij}d\epsilon_{ij}$$

Expanding out the first term, $d(\gamma A) = \gamma dA + Ad\gamma$. Utilizing symmetries, we can say that $dA = A\delta_{ij}d\epsilon_{ij}$, where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta. Making the substitution, we find

$$\gamma dA + Ad\gamma = \gamma A\delta_{ij}d\epsilon_{ij} + Ad\gamma = A\Upsilon_{ij}d\epsilon_{ij}$$

And thus,

$$\Upsilon_{ij} = \delta_{ij}\gamma + \frac{\partial\gamma}{\partial\epsilon_{ij}} \quad (1.1)$$

This is known as the Shuttleworth Equation (1.1), and clearly shows that both γ and Υ in solids are dependent on the strain state of the material.

Experimental measurements of surface stress have been around as early as the 1960, though measurements of strain-dependent surface stress have only been attempted much more recently and returned scant results [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]. Metals are an incredibly useful building tool due to their strength¹, but their stiffness² also makes measuring properties as a function of strain severely limited, as most metals will fracture after a few percent strain.

For most solids, these surface effects go unnoticed in everyday life due to the overpowering effects of the bulk's elasticity compared to any surface energies.

See Nat
Comm 2017
ref 7-12

1.2.3 Surface Stress Effects in Soft Solids

For solids of small enough size or soft enough composition, the surface energies can compete with or even dominate the effects of the bulk, resulting in strange and counterintuitive physics. For example, the addition of finite, microscopic, liquid droplets in a soft solid actually stiffens the material [10], and stiffening micropillars are far stiffer than conventional physical theory predicts.

Not toally sure what KEJ wants me to talk about. Would like ask in person.

- Contact Lines zoom in
- Liquid inclusions
- Rayleigh Plateau
- Instability
- Rounding corners
- adhsion (many?)

Revise af-
ter reading
papers

Early observations of γ in soft solids came from consiering the wetting behavior of liquid droplets on soft solid surfaces. The traditional Young-Dupre' picture of wetting is shown in Figure 1.1.

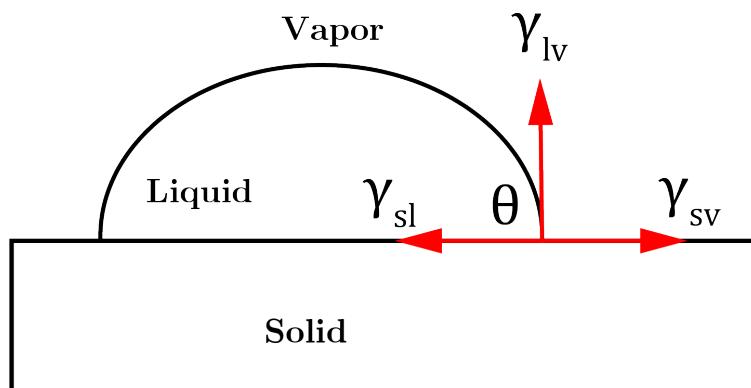


Figure 1.1: Classical Three-Phase Diagram]

¹Strength: the maximum force per unit area a material can withstand

²Stiffness: the material's resistance to deformation via strain

Include 3-phase zoom graphic

This is clearly an unbalanced force diagram in vertical direction; the only vertical force component drawn is the liquid-vapor surface tension, γ_{lv} . The normal force from γ_{lv} must be balanced by the elastic substrate's resistance to deformation. Calculating this value, however, is still an open question. According to continuum elastic theory, the stress exerted by γ_{lv} on the solid diverges at the contact line [11]. While Contact Mechanics dates back to the 18th century, seemingly simple problems like a liquid droplet on an elastic surface are still not yet well understood and provide challenging question when inspecting on a small enough scale.

The increased importance of surface stress in this regime leads to some material properties that are counter-intuitive to our everyday experiences. For example, soft solids can be stiffened with the inclusion of pockets of fluids below the elastocapillary length. In this regime, the surface tension dominates. Thus, the inclusion of a hole, while removing material affects the elastic stiffness, it also increases the surface area of the substrate. In this regime, this increase in surface area has a greater energetic cost, and thus leads to a solid of increased stiffness.

Jerison et al. 2011 [11] found modeling the deformation of the elastic substrate due to a liquid droplet fit best with a model that incorporated both the finite thickness and surface tension of the substrate. This new model solved many issues with the previous best solution by Boussinesq: taking into account the finite thickness ensured that the deformations would go to zero far from the contact line, and the substrate's surface tension resolves the single stress singularity, eliminating the divergence of strain and vertical displacement at the origin.

1.2.4 Direct Measurement of Solid Surface Stresses

Theoretical calculations for surface stress generally involve the taking the derivative of the predicted surface free energy with respect to strain. Various methods for metals involve calculating the electronic density, the kinetic energy, and the electrostatic exchange-correlation³ [12].

Measuring the surface stresses even in soft solids has proved experimentally challenging over the years. A modern method of measuring the deformation of a soft, elastic solid imposed by the liquid droplet in Figure 1.1 was introduced by Jerison in 2011 [11] and later utilized by Style et al. in 2013 [13]. They measured the 3-phase contact line geometry in figure 1.1 without requiring any prior knowledge about the bulk elastic properties of the substrate material.

While this technique is effective, it is limited in its applications due to material properties. The method only works for immiscible fluids such that the gel does not absorb the surface droplets. Furthermore, the fluid must also have a low volatility; otherwise, the droplet would begin to evaporate while waiting for the surface deformations to settle.

(Cite a few things here?)

³Forgoing the independent electron approximation, the electronic exchange is a measure of deflection due to the presence of other electrons

Puzzling Surface Stress Measurements in Gels

In contrast to hard materials, it has been widely assumed that the surface stress in soft matter would be nearly strain-independent. Gels, for example, are comprised mainly of a fluid phase trapped between a solid mesh of polymers⁴. Because the surface stress in liquids is constant and equal to the surface energy of the substance ($\Upsilon = \gamma$), it was largely assumed that deforming a gel would not have a significant effect on the surface tension, given that the fluid could flow back to the stretched surface of the gel.

In the following years, further tests of surface stress in soft solids (Table 1.1) were measured with wildly varying results. It began to become clear that the surface stress of soft solids was not simply that of the fluid phase, and there is more to the mystery.

Silicone	Young's Modulus (kPa)	Measured Υ (mN m ⁻¹)	Reference
Sylgard 184	770	19	[14]
Gelest	5.6	20	[15]
Sylgard 184	2400	26	[16]
Dow Corning CY52-276A/B	3	30	[13]
Sylgard 184	18	30-70	[17]
Sylgard 184	1000	40-50	[18]
Dow Corning CY52-276A/B	3	42-59	[19]

Table 1.1: A Collection of Previously Measured Υ Values

While gels are technically classified as solids, they exhibit many properties that are more closely associated with liquids. Most notably, gels are comprised mainly of fluid (by weight). Their rigidity is the result of a three-dimensional network of crosslinked molecules which entrap large amounts of liquid throughout via capillary forces. The result is a solid whose stiffness is determined by the composition and temperature. Surface stress in soft solids is a topic of growing interest. Unlike in metals, elastocapillary physics plays a crucial role in determining the material's behavioral properties. In 2011, Jerison et. al [11] found that deformations of a silicone substrate due to a liquid droplet on the surface required the inclusion of surface tension. Furthermore, they determined that γ_{sl} and γ_{sv} must be dramatically different from one another, despite the previous assumption that the terms would be equal.

Soft solids provide a unique opportunity to measure strain-dependent surface stress. Despite being a solid, soft solids, such as gels, can easily be stretched elastically. In 2017, Xu, Jensen et. al published a paper [1] making the first direct measurement of strain-dependent surface stress in solids. Their measurements suggest a surprisingly strong linear relationship between surface-stress and strain, measuring that the surface stress of their PDMS substrate more than doubled at 20% strain. *To measure the surface stress of the material, the group utilized Jerison's 2011 method [11]. First, a glycerol or flurinaeted oil droplet is placed atop*

⁴For a more in depth explanation, see section 4.1

a soft, elastic silicone gel substrate. To measure surface deformations, the substrate is first coated with fluorescent beads, which can subsequently be measured using confocal microscopy. The located positions of the fluorescent beads outline the surface and allows for reconstruction of the surface deformations. Additionally, their method of measurement is limited to a select combination of materials. We have developed a method for measuring strain dependent surface stress that is applicable to a wide variety of stretchable, soft materials. To provide greater evidence of strain dependent surface stress, we made a separate measurement in PDMS as well as a variety of other soft materials using soft adhesion. In this thesis, I present the full background, methods, and underlying physics of the process.

stretchable/
soft redundant?

Surface Tension and Contact with Soft Elastic Solids

Over the last few years, there has been a significant amount of work regarding adhesion in soft solids. We want to take advantage of what is known about the role of surface stress in the contact mechanics of soft solids to directly measure the surface stress while varying the properties of the underlying substrate. In doing so, we will have created a new form of measuring strain-dependent surface stress, applicable to a broad array of stretchable materials. The contact angle based method used in the first direct measurement of $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ [1] is limited to a select combination of materials, as the liquid droplet must be immiscible and non-volatile. We hope to apply Jerison's 2011 technique to stretchable substrates in order to measure $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ for a wider variety of materials. The specifics of this technique are covered in the following chapter.

1.3 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis begins with a derivation of modern theory of contact mechanics for soft solids. With this in mind, we proceed to outline the experimental design and setup in chapter 2, followed with an example of data acquisition and image analysis in chapter 3. Chapter 4 contains our preliminary surface stress and adhesion results for various materials. Finally, chapter 5 looks ahead, discussing possibilities for future experiments and improvements to the experimental process.

Chapter 2

Experimental Approach: Setup, Data Acquisition, & Analysis

In this chapter we discuss the setup of the experiment from start to finish. First we discuss the underlying theory required for the technique. Next, we walk through the walk through the experimental setup, the process of acquiring data and processing it for a single sphere. Finally we address the stretching apparatus, including its calibration process, and analyzing the results. Further details can be found in the appendices.

2.1 Measuring Surface Stress via Adhesion

2.1.1 Beyond Hertzian Mechanics and JKR Theory

Hertzian Mechanics, developed by Heinrich Hertz in the 1800's, allows for the calculation of stress and deformation based on the elastic moduli of the contacted surfaces, as well as their radii of curvature and applied force. While Hertzian mechanics stood for a long time, it neglected to take into account the adhesion energy of the system.

In 1971, Johnson, Kendall, and Roberts (JKR) sought to remedy this omission by developing a classical theory of contact mechanics that balances the forces of adhesion with elasticity from the bulk and the surface free energy [20]. Today, it is still the standard theory used to interpret and soft contact situation. However, it has recently been shown that while JKR theory is a great improvement over Hertzian Mechanics, it breaks down in the elastocapillary regime. Specifically, at lengths where

$$L_c \leq \frac{\Upsilon}{E} \quad (2.1)$$

the surface energies compete with those of the bulk and can no longer be ignored. Fittingly, L_c is referred to as the elastocapillary length. By understanding the role of surface tension in soft adhesion, we can measure the physical properties of a balanced system in the elastocapillary regime and hence measure the surface stress and adhesion energy from the balance of forces.

[add citation](#)

2.1.2 Force Balance Derivation

When materials are soft or small enough, three main forces balance to determine the contact mechanics of the system. Consider a marble sinking into a soft, sticky substrate. Adhesive forces increase the contact area between the marble and the substrate. Increasing the contact area has the effect of “pulling” the marble into the gel. As a consequence, the substrate is being compressed [vertically], which is counteracted by the elastic forces within the bulk. This compression also has the effect of stretching the surface of the substrate, which is counteracted by substrate’s surface tension. Below, we calculate the energy term associated with each of the forces acting on a dense sphere sinking into a soft substrate. Note, for such a small sphere, the force of gravity is negligible and need not be taken into consideration. For example, a silica (silicon-dioxide) microsphere has a density is 2.65 g/cm³. For a very large sphere with radius 50 microns, gravity only applies a force of roughly 1.02e-08 N.

Elastic Energy

The energy required to make a circular indentation of radius R and depth d can be derived from Hertzian contact mechanics [21, 22, 23]. Contact between a sphere and an elastic half space¹ is a classic Hertzian contact problem. It is easiest to calculate the force and then integrate to determine the potential energy. For two elastic surfaces in contact with no externally applied forces, the force from elastic contact is:

$$F = \frac{4}{3} E^* R^{1/2} d^{3/2} \quad (2.2)$$

where

$$\frac{1}{E^*} = \frac{1 - \nu_{sphere}^2}{E_{sphere}} + \frac{1 - \nu_{substrate}^2}{E_{substrate}}$$

For a glass sphere sinking into a soft substrate, $E_{sphere} \gg 1 - \nu_{sphere}^2$, so this first term can be dropped as a reasonable approximation². Thus we can approximate $E^* \approx \frac{E_{substrate}}{1 - \nu_{substrate}^2}$. Substituting this into equation (2.2), we find:

$$F \approx \frac{4}{3} \frac{ER^{1/2}d^{3/2}}{1 - \nu^2} \quad (2.3)$$

Because $F = \frac{\partial U}{\partial d}$, we can simply integrate equation (2.3) to obtain the energy relation:

$$U_{elastic} \approx \frac{ER^{1/2}d^{5/2}}{1 - \nu^2} \quad (2.4)$$

¹i.e. the contact area is \ll the characteristic radius of the object. A flat plan can be thought of as $R = \infty$

² $\nu_{SiO_2} \approx .17$ and $E_{SiO_2} \approx 70 \times 10^9$ Pa

Adhesion Energy

The energy of adhesion is W multiplied by the surface area in contact (as found above). Namely,

$$U_{\text{adhesion}} \approx -2\pi WRd \quad (2.5)$$

where W is the adhesion energy.

I think I should explain adhesion somewhere and talk about the Dupre equation 1869.
Not sure where I want to put this, however.

Surface Energy

Υ is the surface stress, which is equal to the energy cost per unit area required to create surface via cutting or stretching the material. For a flat substrate being stretched via the indentation of a sphere, the energetic cost is

$$U_{\text{surface}} = \pi \Upsilon_{sv} \Delta A \quad (2.6)$$

where ΔA is the change in surface area when stretched by part of an indenting sphere (spherical cap). Determining the change in area is a simple geometrical problem.

$$\Delta A = A_{\text{cap}} - A_{\text{circle}}. \quad (2.7)$$

Let a be the base radius of the circle projected on the plane of the substrate's surface. Let R be the radius of the indenting sphere, and d be the depth into which it is stretching. We can find a relationship between these variables using the Pythagorean theorem.

$$\begin{aligned} a^2 + (R-d)^2 &= R^2 \\ a^2 + R^2 - 2Rd + d^2 &= R^2 \\ a^2 &= 2Rd - d^2 \\ a^2 + d^2 &= 2Rd \end{aligned}$$

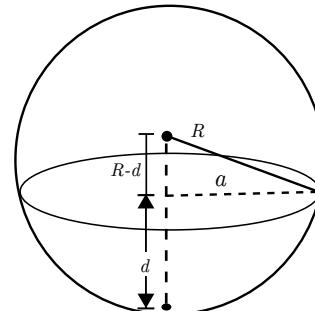


Figure 2.1:
Spherical
Cap
Geometry

Now, solving for ΔA and using the above relationship in the last step, we find:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta A &= 2\pi R d - \pi a^2 \\ &= \pi(a^2 + d^2) - \pi a^2 \\ &= \pi d^2 \end{aligned}$$

Rewriting (2.6), we can simplify surface energy in this geometry as

$$U_{\text{surface}} = \pi \Upsilon_{sv} d^2 \quad (2.8)$$

Force Balance

At static equilibrium, the sum of the energies is:

$$U_{total} = \Upsilon_{sv}\pi d^2 + \frac{cER^{1/2}d^{5/2}}{1 - \nu^2} - 2\pi WRd$$

where c is a geometric factor to be determined in the next step. We can re-arrange the equation such that the sum of forces is equal to zero and differentiate both sides with respect to depth.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial U_{total}}{\partial d} &= \Sigma F = 0 \\ 2\pi\Upsilon_{sv}d + \frac{5cER^{1/2}d^{3/2}}{2(1 - \nu^2)} - 2\piWR &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

Where $c = \frac{8}{5\sqrt{3}}$. This value of c is chosen to recover classical JKR theory, which predicts an indentation of $d = \left[\frac{\sqrt{3}\pi W(1-\mu^2)}{2E} \right]^{2/3} R^{1/3}$ [22, 20]. This energy balance was first published in 2013 by Styles et al. in *Nature Communications* [22].

KEJ: Why did you want me to mention Jensen PNAS 2015? Wasn't this the phase separation paper? What connection were you thinking I should make here?

2.1.3 Experimental Approach

Equation 2.9 gives us a quantitative relationship between the spontaneous indentation depth, d , sphere radius, R , and key material properties: Υ , E , ν , and W . The Young Modulus, E , and the Poisson ratio, ν of the substrate can be measured separately for the substrate material. The depth d , and the radius R of the sphere can be measured using fluorescent confocal microscopy, as described in section 3.1. The only remaining terms, W and Υ , the adhesion energy and the surface stress, respectively, can be determined with a two-parameter fit of d vs. R .

2.2 Preparing a Substrate

In the following section, we outline the process of preparing a soft substrate for testing. The process is similar for a zero strain sample and a stretchable sample, and we make clear any distinctions between the two processes. Specific details for our substrate types can be found in Chapter 4.

Before preparing the substrate, we prepare the surface on which the substrate will be held, from hereon referred to as the underlayer. For a non stretched sample, we use a glass coverslip, and for a stretched sample we use a thin PDMS sheet. We first coat this layer with fluorescent beads in order to later locate the bottom of our substrate. In preparing

I don't like underlayer name. Base plate? Substratum base?

our substrate, there are two important factors to consider: thickness and evenness of the surface. The substrate must be thick enough such that the indenting spheres do not feel a measurable force from the glass or PDMS underlayer. This bottom layer of fluorescent beads allows us to easily gauge the thickness of our substrate. It is important that our substrate has an even surface, otherwise it is difficult to determine the sphere's depth, d . To achieve this, we use a technique called spin-coating where we place our uncured substrate (when it still has liquid like viscosity) on the underlayer and spin it rapidly for a period of time. The angular momentum causes the flings the fluid away from the center of the underlayer. The result of this process is an even coating which will cure into our substrate over the next day.

Once cured, we deposit a second layer of fluorescent beads on the surface. These act as tracer particles which outline the indentation sphere. Using fluorescent confocal microscopy, we are able to precisely locate each fluorescent bead and outline the indentation sphere. It is important that the beads are dense enough to give a high resolution, yet not so dense as to become indistinguishable; this presents a challenge the MATLAB particle locating software. For a stretchable sample, we place the substrate, now cured onto the stretchable PDMS underlayer, onto the lubricated stretching apparatus. It is important remove any small bubbles on the stretcher's ring to ensure an airtight seal.

The final preparation step is to sprinkle silica spheres of a range in size on top of the silicone. This should be done at least 30 minutes before collecting data so that the spheres have time to settle into an equilibrium state into the silicone. From a side view, the final setup should look like Figure 2.2.

2.3 Stretching Apparatus

Our interest is not just in measuring, W and Υ for a given substrate, but in understanding how those values change when under strange As needed, we have built our own equibiaxial stretching apparatus capable of maintaining up to 35% strain in our silicone samples. The design is based off of previous work designed for stretching biological tissues [24] and is similar in design to the apparatus used in the 2017 $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ measurements [1]. Below is a general description of the design, though detailed design documents can be found in Appendix A.

2.3.1 Stretcher Design

Geometrically, the stretching apparatus is constructed of two concentric cylinders connected at the base to create a channel between them. The top of each ring is flat, apart from a slight chamfer to reduce the risk of ripping the sheet as it is stretched. Each ring is then coated in Dow Corning vacuum grease to make a seal. It is critical that the inner ring has an ample amount of grease so that when a vacuum is pulled in the channel, the sheet will stretch from the center outwards and not from the edges inwards. The sheet is held in place with an o-ring wrapped around the outside of the cylinder, which is then clamped down by a removable outer ring using a tension clamp. The tension provided by the o-ring and clamp

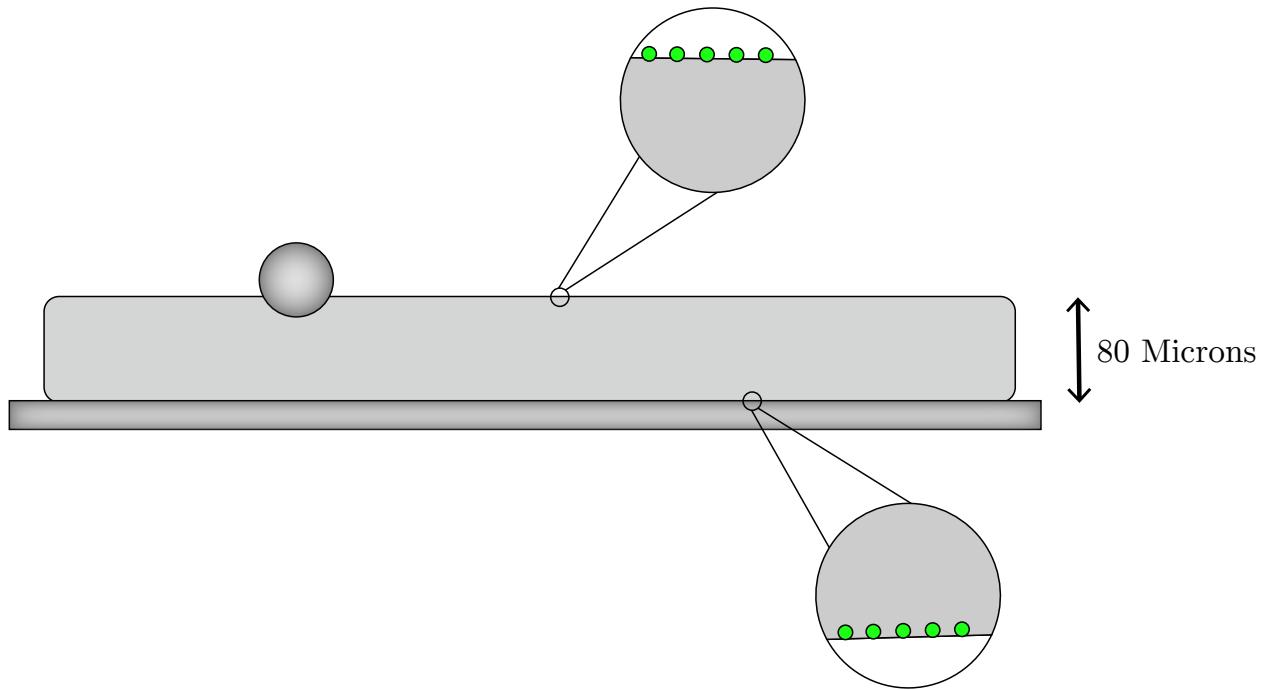


Figure 2.2: Above is the side profile of a prepared substrate sample. There are two layers of fluorescent beads: the bottom layer is used to measure the substrate's thickness, and the surface layer is used to outline the profile of the larger, indenting sphere. The soft substrate sits on an underlayer, namely glass or a stretchable PDMS silicone.

ensure that a solid vacuum is kept and the edges of the sheet are minimally stretched into the trough.add to appendix?

A tapped screw hole on the side of the apparatus connects the chamber to a syringe via thin, plastic tubing. To pull a vacuum in the channel, we withdraw air using a syringe pump. This allows us to have a consistent withdraw rate and control over the amount of air withdrawn to a high degree of precision.

2.4 Calibration

Originally, we intended to calibrate the strain value induced by the vacuum to the extent that we could predict the induced strain based on the amount of air withdrawn from the stretching apparatus. We withdrew air from the syringe and measured the movement of glass spheres adhered to the surface using a 10x air lens on our Nikon confocal microscope. Using the transmission detector allowed us to image the surface of our material with a wide field of view. Strain percentage was calculated using MATLAB code [1].

There are several obstacles in calibrating the induced strain. First, the stretching apparatus works best when a large strain is applied. Applying small strains one after another works but there is a threshold to induce stretch. No stretching change is visible if less than

Better/more citations for strain code?

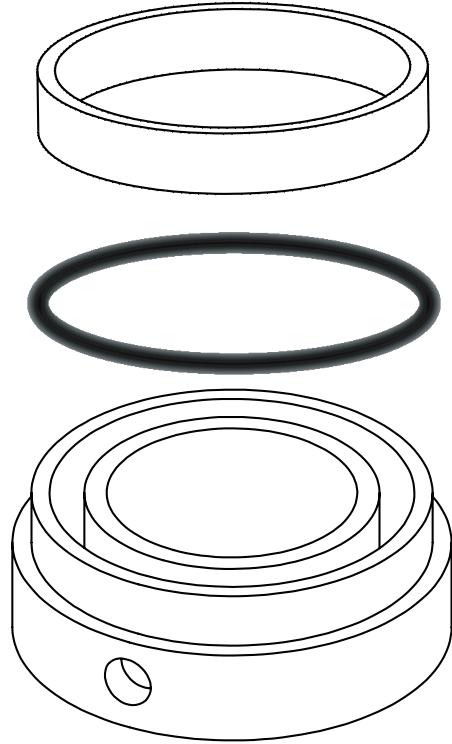


Figure 2.3: Here is an exploded view of the stretching apparatus. The substrate goes on top of the base (substrate side down). It is then held down with an o-ring, which sits on the outside ledge. A second ring sits on top of the o-ring and is then held down by the microscope mount (not pictured here).

2ml is withdrawn from the cylinder per increment. Thus, there is a limited resolution to our calibration data, which would not be a problem if the strain was linear. However, preliminary measurements indicated that the applied strain was nonlinear. This agrees with the previous results [24] obtained using a similar device. *note to self, double check this is where that graph I'm thinking about actually showed up.* Lastly, the greatest problem with calibrating strain is that we change substrates often. Even if we were to use the same exact sample, by removing it and setting up the device again, there is no way to standardize a zero-applied strain point. To prepare the stretching device, the sample is placed over the opening and a rubber o-ring is placed around the sample to help affix it in place. The sample must then be stretched and wiggled around slightly to remove any snags that could jeopardize the vacuum's efficacy. This means that every time a new sample is prepared, it is in an unknown and unique state of induced strain. It could even have less than zero strain if the sample is loose in large center opening *Think of better name for this.*

It was thus determined best to measure strain every time we applied a new strain to the silicone substrate and compare it to the substrate's original state. This also assured us that we knew the correct strain value to a higher precision for any given data set. Additionally, with the pleasantly unexpected ability to hold strains exceeding 30%, the $2\mu\text{m}$ resolution

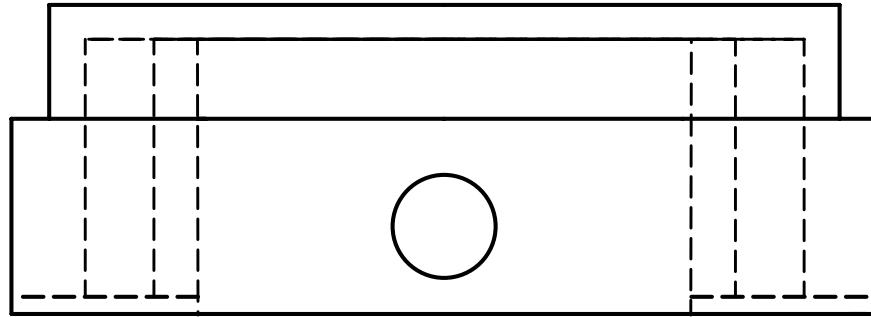


Figure 2.4: Above is the side profile of the stretching apparatus. Note the channel attached at the base, and the large center hole at the base where our substrate can be accessed by the microscope.

limit became superfluous in seeking to measure $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$.

2.4.1 Measuring Strain

To determine the induced strain, we maximized the field of view. This allows us to see how more spheres are shifting, and thus gives a more accurate estimate of induced strain. As such, we decided to switch to the bright-field and measure how the spheres were shifting when stretched. We used a 10x air lens in conjunction with the transmission detector on our Nikon Confocal. We adjust the settings to give decent contrast, but it is more important to have the spheres in focus. For our Nikon this usually means setting the Power (HV) to 80. Each sphere reflects light, and it is this reflection that our particle locating software tracks after some image processing. An example image is located below (Fig.2.5), next to the same image after adjusting the contrast to help our tracking software with particle locating:

To track how the substrate stretches, we first find a centrally located group of spheres, or “constellation.” A good constellation is one that easily identifiable for relocation and tracking purposes, and one that has many discrete points in the field of view - i.e. there are plenty of non-overlapping spheres. *It is an added bonus to find 4 spheres perpendicularly located, such that they form the tips of cross.* Though not necessarily, this is useful for a preliminary strain calculation using the built in measuring functions on the Microscope’s software. It is nice to track the progression of stretching and ensure the substrate is not preferentially stretching in one direction; this could indicate the substrate is caught in the apparatus. Not only does this ruin the symmetry assumptions being made for our calculation, but it could lead to the substrate tearing if more strain is being applied than expected.

To evacuate the cylinder, we use the Harvard Apparatus™ Elite Pro Syringe Pump with a 50ml Luerlock syringe. Before beginning any stretching, we withdraw a few ml of air to ensure the substrate is flat and not sagging. At this point we take a picture of the brightfield and call it the “zero applied strain” image. We compare all stretched data to this image in order to determine the induced strain. Because of the geometry of the stretching apparatus, along with the way the silicone cures, it is difficult *impossible??* to determine

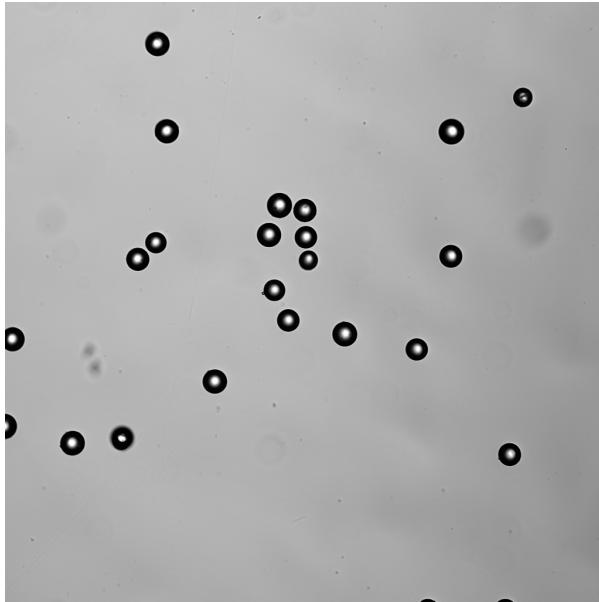


Fig. A



Fig. B

Figure 2.5: Figure A shows the calibration constellation before any strain is applied. Fig. B shows the same image after processing. Only the sphere reflections remain.

the true strain of the silicone. However, we are most interested in the slope of the Υ vs. ϵ curve, Λ , so this is not vitally important.

The induced strain is a tensor of rank two. Because we are stretching the substrate equally in all directions, we can just look at the magnitude of the tensor and treat the strain as a scalar.

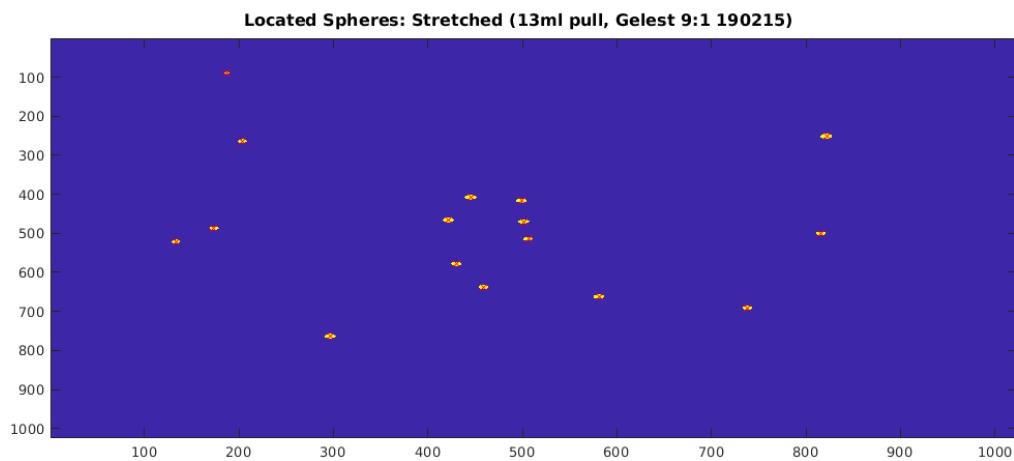


Figure 2.6:

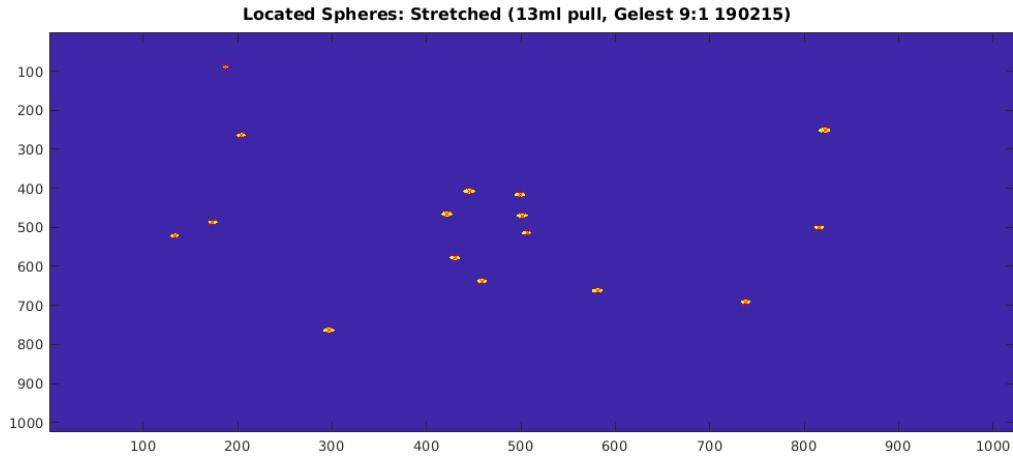


Figure 2.7: These are placeholders for now. I don't really like how they look and I don't think they're totally necessary. It might be nice to keep them if I can clean them up. Especially if I get some nice stretch data with the new DC

There's an alternate image where each point is an x for before after. Replace figure with that and zoom in on sphere cluster.

2.5 Material Characterization

To measure the stiffness of our substrate, we do not use the confocal measurement sample. Instead, when preparing the sample, we cure a surplus of the substrate material in a vial to test the bulk characteristics of the sample.

We take a standard bulk stiffness measurement using the texture analyzer. A rigid cylinder with radius $R = 1.5$ mm is slowly indented into the bulk substrate. The force response vs. indentation depth is recorded for several tests with varying starting heights and locations (See Figure 2.8). We use the average E value obtained from these tests in our W, Υ fitting. The fitting process will be reviewed in Chapter 3.

2.5.1 Hertzian Contact Mechanics Derivation?

We calculate the Young's modulus for the bulk sample using classic Hertzian Contact mechanics between a flat, rigid cylinder and an elastic half-space.

$$F = 2RE^*d \quad (2.10)$$

where

$$\frac{1}{E^*} = \frac{1 - \nu_1^2}{E_1} + \frac{1 - \nu_2^2}{E_2}$$

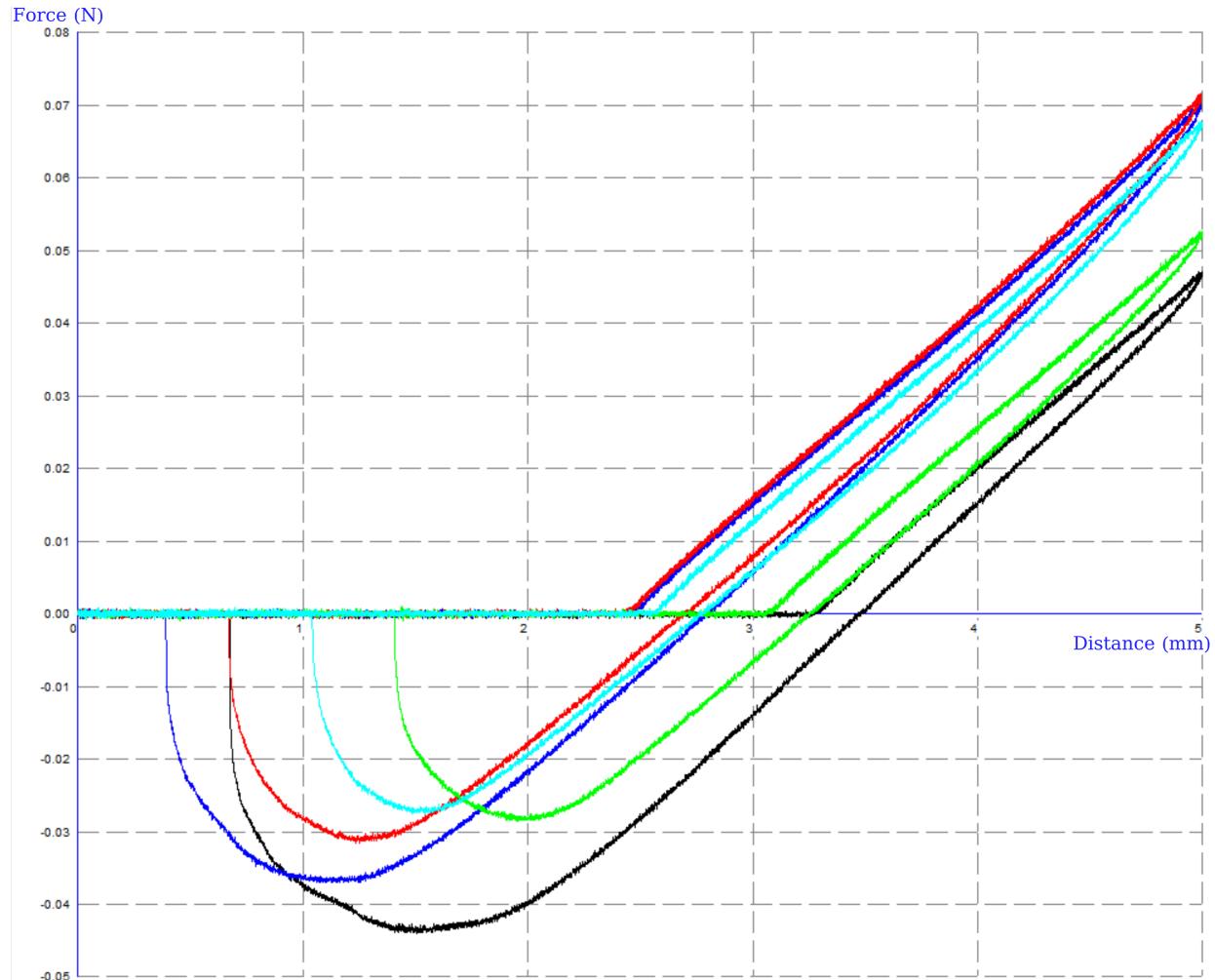


Figure 2.8: Force vs indentation depth for a bulk sample of silicone. Each color represents a separate measurement at varying starting heights and locations on the sample.

Do you think the axis values are too small? I haven't seen this printed yet.

For Silicone, $\nu \approx .5$ for low strains; for the rigid cylinder, $E \gg 1 - \nu^2$, so we can ignore that term. From the Force vs. depth information, we can write an equation for E.

$$\frac{1}{E^*} = \frac{2Rd}{F} \quad (2.11)$$

$$\frac{1 - \nu^2}{E} = \frac{2Rd}{F} \quad (2.12)$$

$$E = \frac{(1 - \nu^2) F}{2Rd} \quad (2.13)$$

$$E = \frac{(1 - .5^2) F}{2(1.5 \times 10^{-3})d} \quad (2.14)$$

Equation alignment
doesn't look
right

2.6 Putting it all Together

Using the texture analyzer, we can measure E and ν for our substrate. We can then use confocal fluorescent microscopy to measure d vs. R for many spheres per sample. We can then run a two parameter fit using this Equation 2.9 to determine Υ and W . Using our equibiaxial stretching apparatus, we can repeat the d vs. R measurements at a range of strain to determine $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$. The process of collecting the d vs. R measurements for a single sphere is explained in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3

Data Acquisition and Image Analysis

3.1 Fluorescent Confocal Microscopy

Confocal Microscopy is a technique capable of probing a sample with true 3-Dimensional optical resolution. The technique works by only allowing in focus light through a pinhole. By changing the plane of focus, one can traverse an object azimuthally or reconstruct a full three-dimensional image by compiling a “stack” of these images.

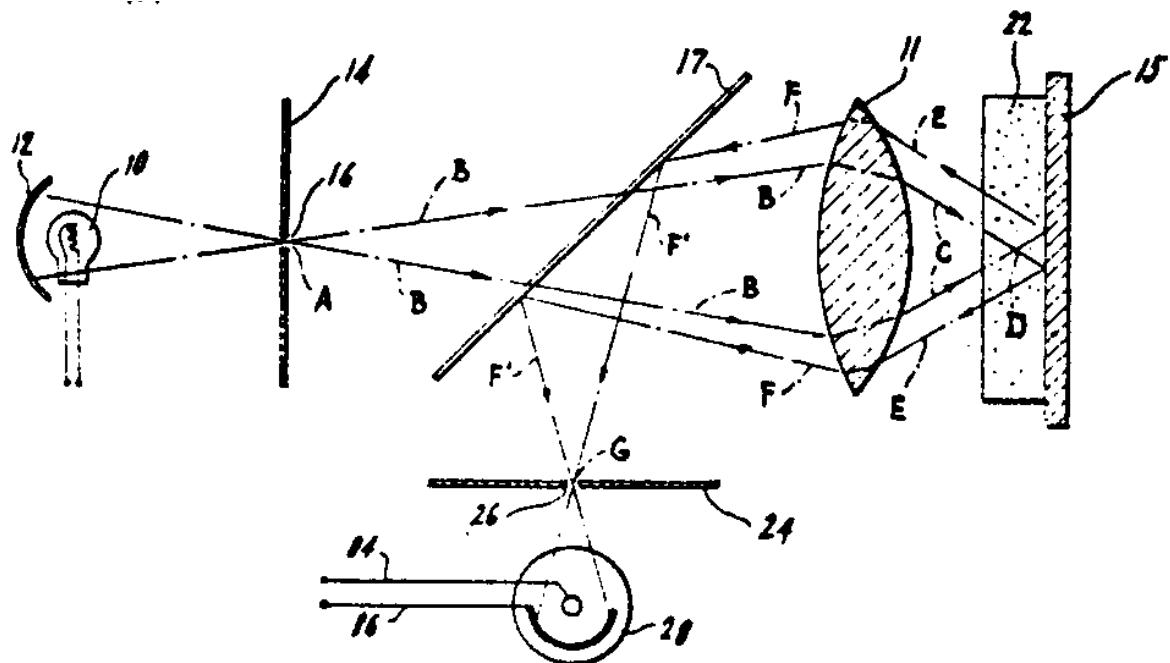


Figure 3.1: Above is a diagram from Marvin Minky's classic 1961 patent [25] for a confocal microscope. A pinhole before the photodetector blocks the out of plane light.

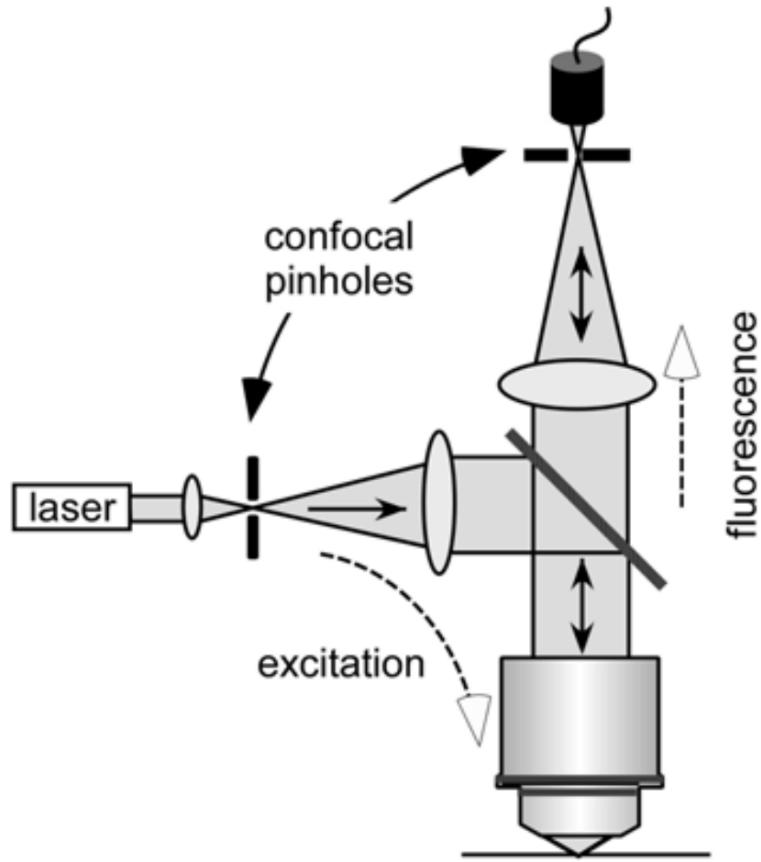


Figure 3.2: In fluorescent confocal microscopy, a diachroic mirror is used to separate the laser light from that emitted by the excited fluorophores.

cite or make own for this diagram.

Fluorescent Confocal Microscopy works by the same general principle, only with the added complexity of optically-exitable fluorophores. These fluorophores absorb light from a narrow range of frequencies and re-emmit fluorescent light at a different known and specific frequency, which can then be measured. This allows for a greater resolution to larger objects, as well as the ability to detect objects that would otherwise be invisible to the microscope.

Fluorescent Confocal Microscopy works by illuminating the specimen with a laser. The laser light passes through a pinhole, then is reflected by the dichroic mirror and then focused by the objective lens on a small area of the specimen. The re-emitted light from the fluorophores has a longer wavelength than the laser, so it is then transmitted through mirror. It then passes through the pinhole where it is travel to the photo-detector.

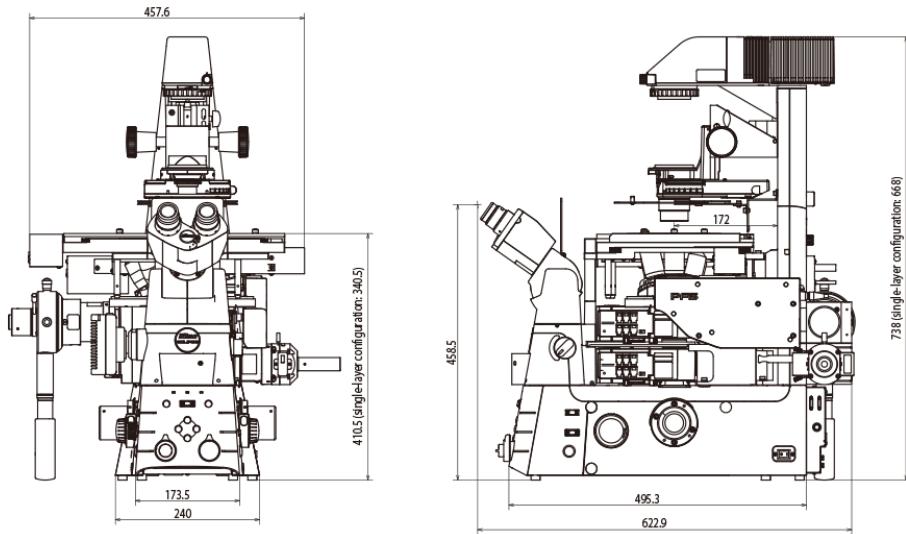


Figure 3.3: This may only be here because it's pretty....Also, I'd like to remove the measurements when I have time. Also, not sure how to cite the manual yet.

3.2 Applying Fluorescent Confocal Microscopy to our Sample

In order to see our substrate with fluorescent confocal microscopy, we need to coat the surface of our substrate with tiny fluorescent beads (fluorophores) on the order of 40nm in radius. The detection of these fluorescent beads allows us to see the outline of the substrate's surface, as well as the indenting sphere, which displaces the beads beneath it as it sinks into the substrate. Directions for preparing a fluorescent bead buffer can be found in Appendix section B.1.

Fluorescent Confocal Microscopy Data Collection

Data was obtained using the Nikon A1R+ Confocal Microscope. To take image stacks of the Fluorescent beads, we use a 50x water-immersion objective lens. We set the laser to 440nm and adjust the power (HV) and gain as needed. Generally these values are around 5.0% and 40 Volts, respectively. In order to get clear locating, it is important not to saturate the photo-detector.

For silica spheres ranging from $5 - 50\mu\text{m}$ in size, we have found the best scaling factor to be $.104\mu\text{m}/\text{pixel}$ in the horizontal plane for an image of 1024×1024 resolution. We set the vertical step size (z-direction) to $.225\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$ or $.25\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$ depending on what the confocal recommended. Both provided adequate vertical resolutions. 16x averaging using the resonant scanner took up to 5 minutes per scan, but provided excellent resolution.

3.2.1 Raw Data Files

Using confocal microscopy, we collect a “stack” of images, detecting the light from the fluorescent beads. Below (Fig. 3.4) is a raw data image of the surface of a soft substrate with a glass bead stuck below.

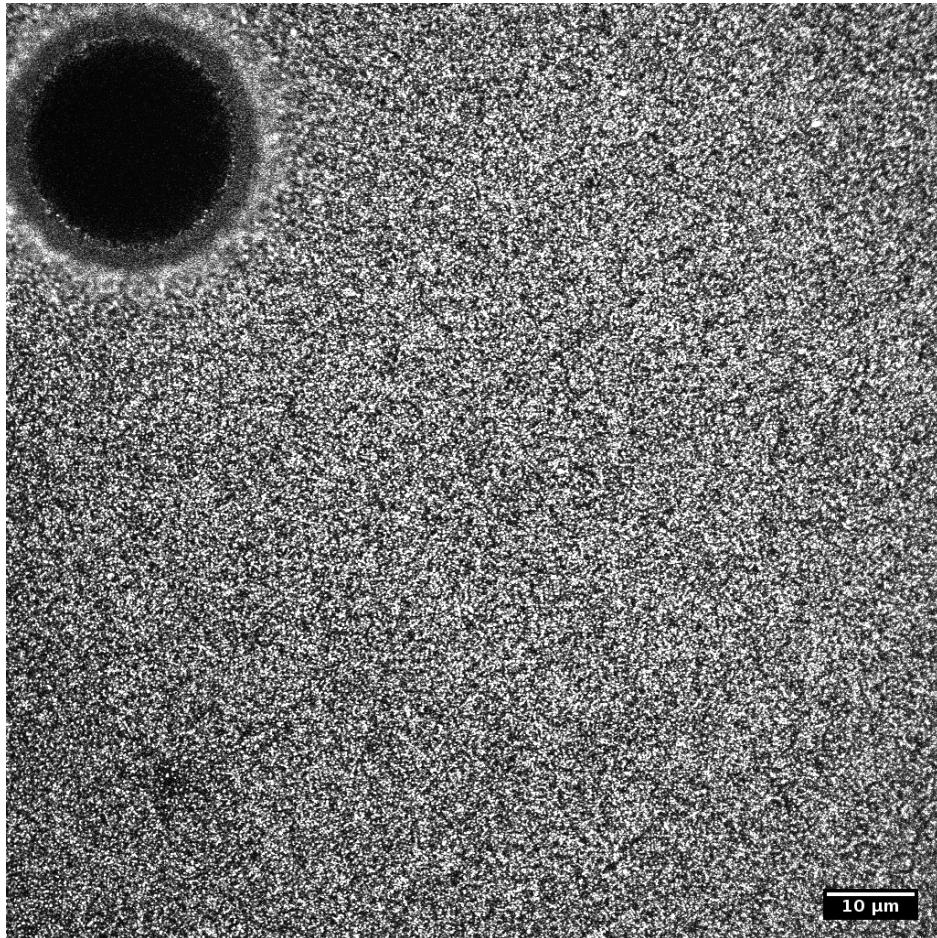


Figure 3.4: The surface plane of a silica bead in Gelest 9:1 Silicone ($E = 7.3$ kPa). Radius of sphere = $28.7\ \mu\text{m}$.

The “black hole” like image in the top-left corner is the silica sphere. Each small white dot represents a fluorescent bead; together they create a sea of stars that outline the surface plane and the silica sphere. Figure 3.4 is an example of the upper limit of bead coverage density. Any higher concentration of fluorescent beads could result in a difficulty in light bleeding. Note, the sphere is in the top corner of the image to provide maximum information about the leveling of the surface plane. We assume that the surface effects are symmetrical for zero applied strain and equibiaxial strain. Thus, it is more important to gather information in one direction to properly level the surface plane to determine the depth into which the sphere sinks.

For each sphere, we take a stack of 50-100 images, depending on the size of the sphere. Figure 3.2.1 shows several vertical slices from the bottom of the sphere to just above the surface of the substrate.

wrong auto fig ref?

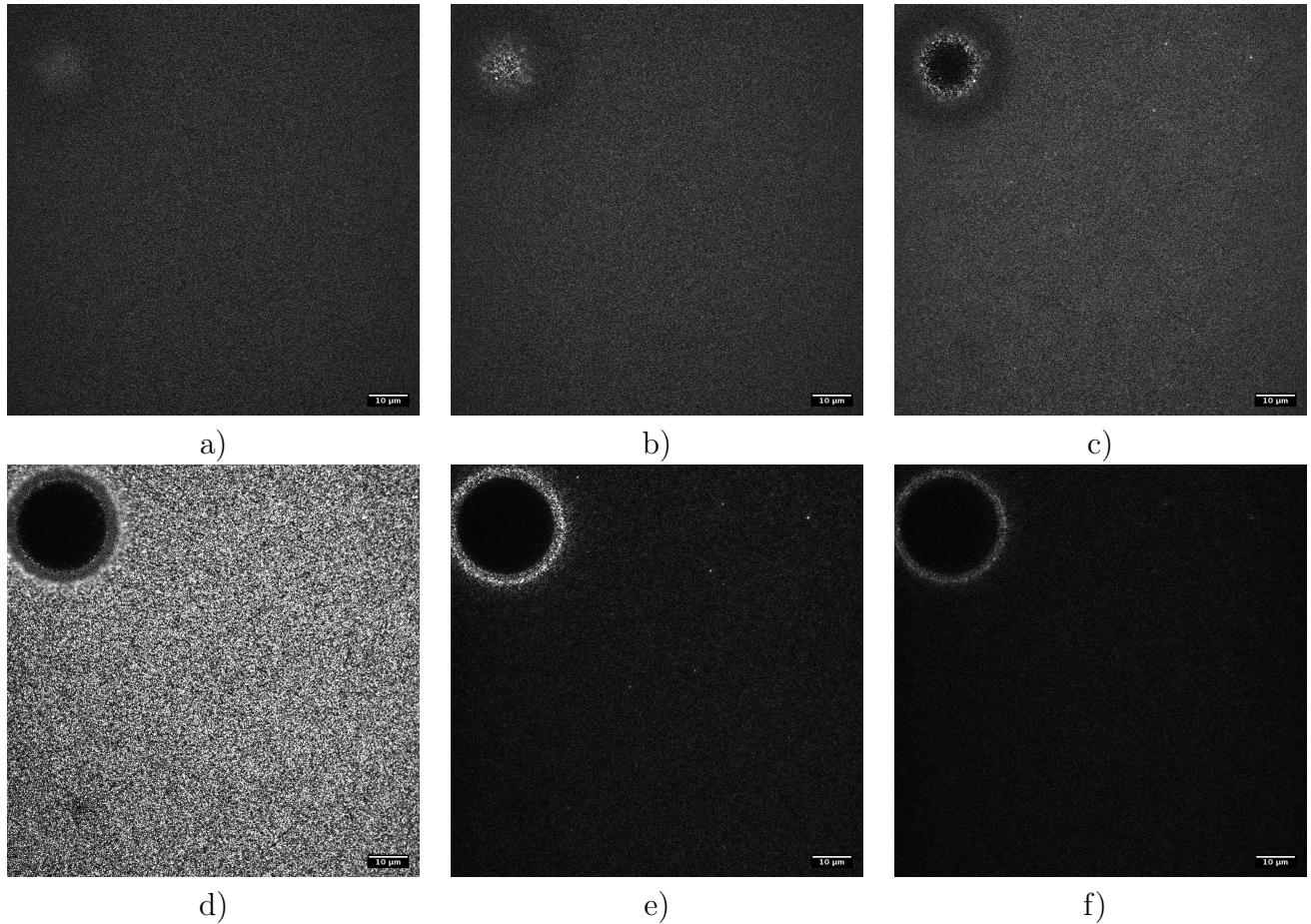


Figure 3.5: Images a-f display the x-y plane of the same sample traversing vertically from below the silica sphere to above the surface plane. The scale bar in the bottom right corners represent 10 μm .

3.3 Image Analysis

In the following section, we will step through the process of analyzing a single sphere. Recall that in order to determine the surface stress and adhesion energy, we must fit equation 2.9 to the depth vs. radius measurements for a collection of spheres.

3.3.1 Particle Location

To turn a raw image file (saved as a .ome.tif) into usable data, we use a MATLAB program to locate each fluorescent bead. This is plotted in Figure 3.6. The flat orange plane of points is the surface, and the dark blue are the fluorescent beads pushed underneath the microsphere as it sinks into the substrate. It is easy to see the outline of the microsphere, and we can use this information to determine d and R for the sphere. Figure 3.7 shows the same sphere but stretched in the vertical axis to see the fluorescent bead density towards the bottom of the sphere.

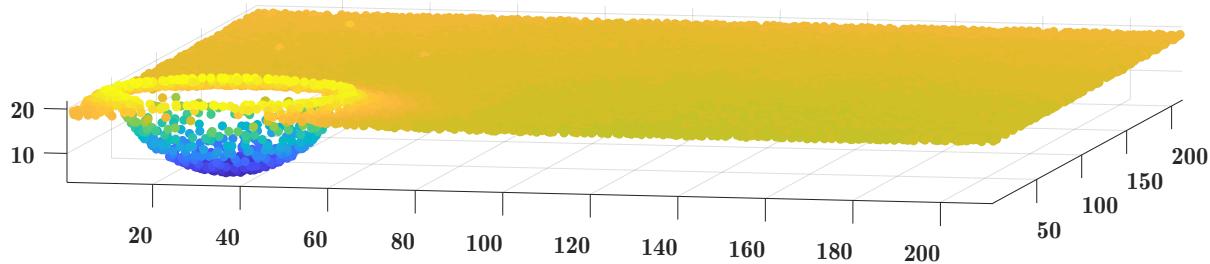


Figure 3.6: Using MATLAB software, we can locate each of the fluorescent beads in a given image stack. Here, we've plotted the located beads for the same sphere as in Figure 3.4 and 3.2.1. The dense blanket of orange points represents the surface of the substrate, and the blue points are the fluorescent beads pushed beneath the silica sphere during indentation.

3.3.2 Depth and Radius Determination

After locating all the fluorescent beads and reconstructing our raw image in a useful format, we can then use this information to extract the depth and the radius of the sphere. To accomplish this, we first determine the center of our sphere from the top (x-y plane) and collapse the side profile of the sphere. Figure 3.9 depicts the x-z plane as a cross-section through center of the sphere. We only need half of the sphere's profile to fit a circle. This ensures we have a large field of view to properly level and determine the substrate's surface. Figure 3.10 provides a zoomed in view of Fig. 3.9 to better indicate the resolution to which we try to fit a circle. Note the abrupt cut off around $26 \mu\text{m}$ and how the substrate is lifted up above the zero-plane due to adhesion. Also notice the flatness of the substrate between $26 - 29 \mu\text{m}$. Not all samples have this flat ridge; many spheres lift the substrate to a point which then immediately slopes downward back to the zero-plane. This behavior depends slightly on the sphere size, but it is mainly a reflection of the amount of phase-separation induced. This is a property of the each silicone which depends on the environmental conditions.

It is important to be careful with the circle-fits in the case where the sphere is small enough to sink into the substrate with a depth $d > r$. In these instances, the side profile

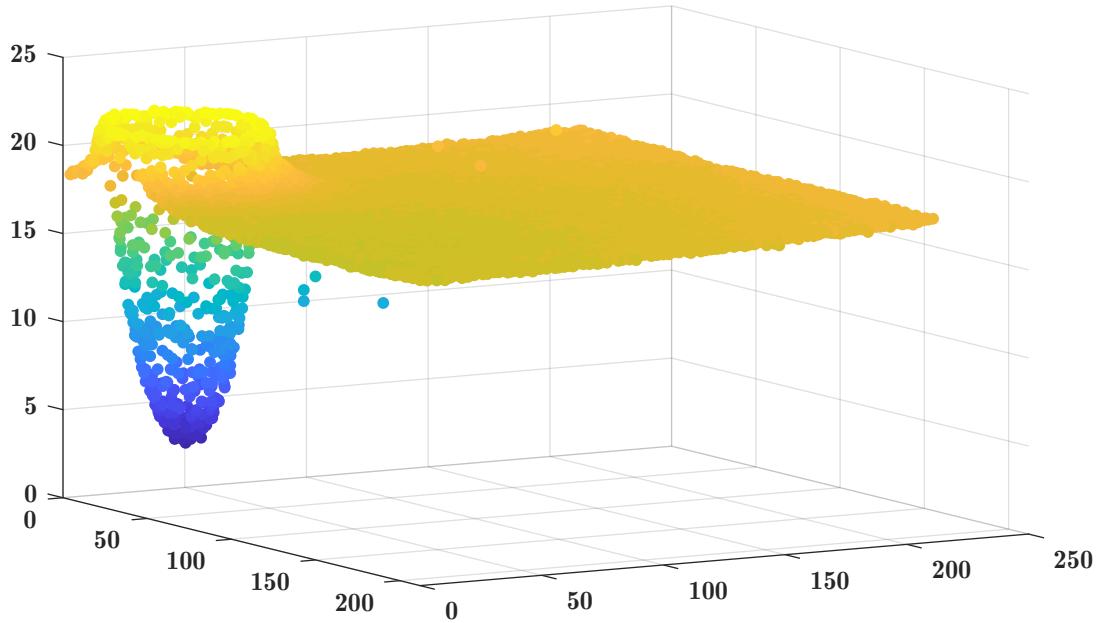


Figure 3.7: Fluorescent bead location for the same sphere as Fig. 3.6, only now it is stretched vertical axis to showcase the bead density under the bottom of the sphere.

is non-continuous, and we only fit the sphere to the bottom portion of the profile before the break. An example of one of these sphere is shown in figures 3.11 and 3.12.

After fitting the circle to the substrate's side profile, we can add the depth vs the radius. The radius of the sphere is obviously just the radius of the circle, and the depth is the lowest point of the circle in the z-plane, which we center at $x = 0$ in Figures 3.13 and 3.14.

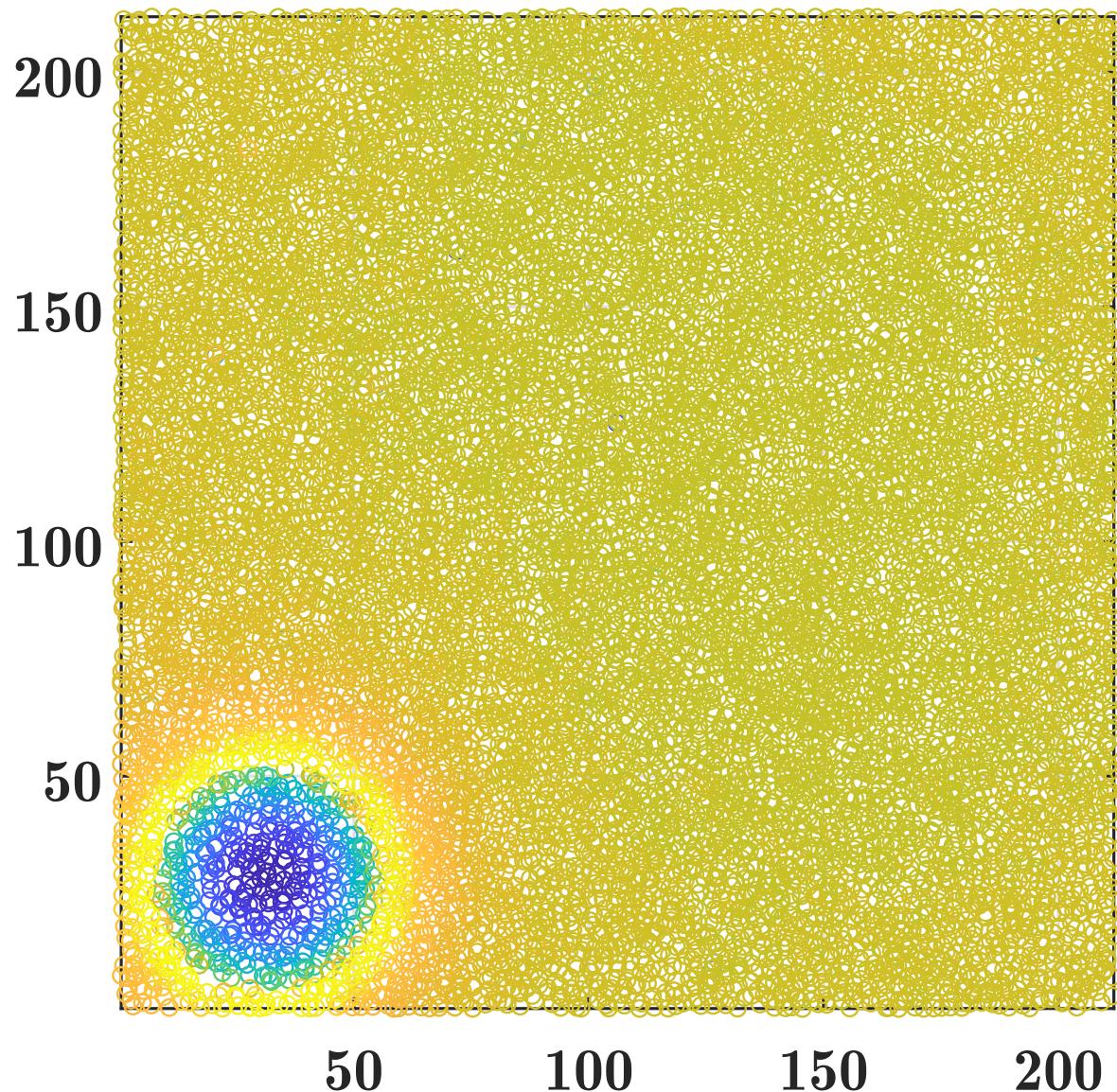


Figure 3.8: Here is the top view of the same sphere as in the previous figures. This allows us locate the center of the base of the sphere. From this we can construct a side profile (3.9)

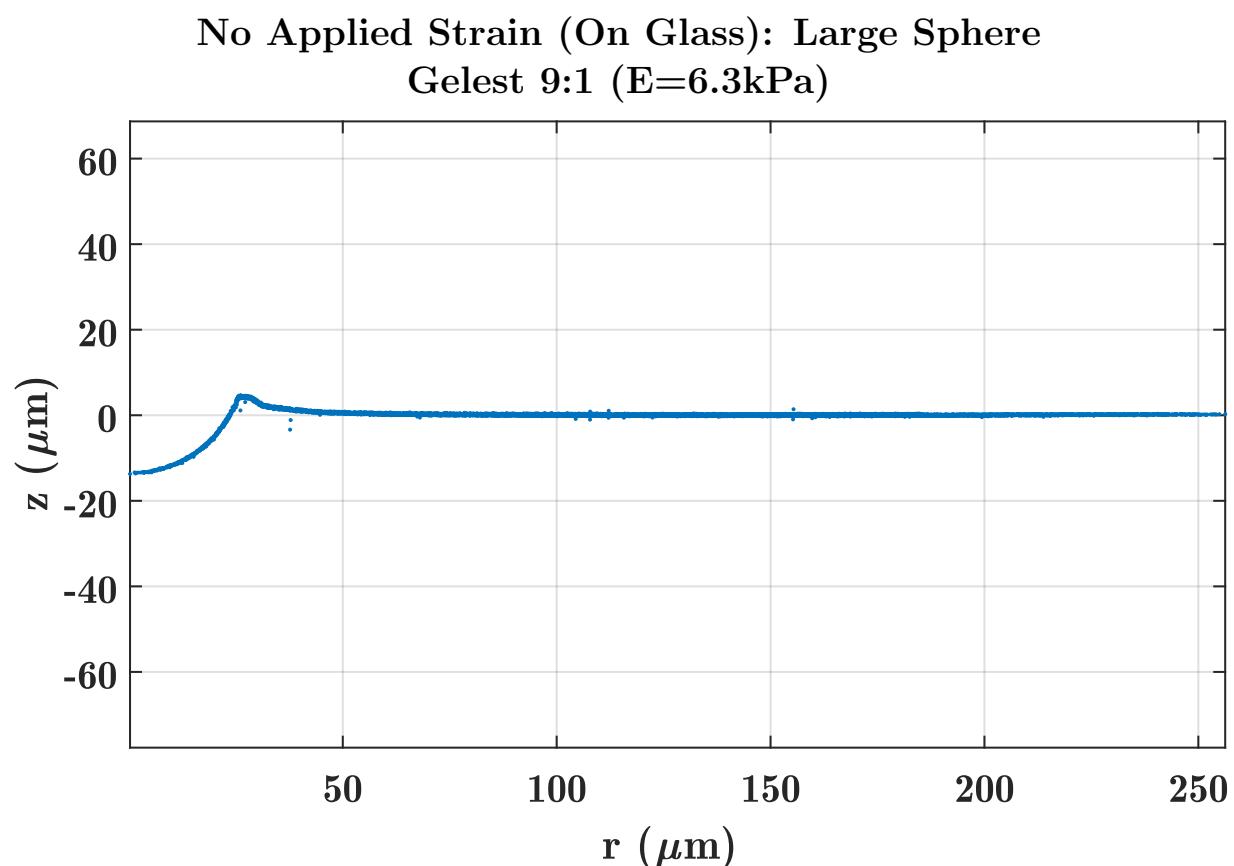


Figure 3.9: The constructed image of the outlined sphere with normalized axes. The Axes are in microns.

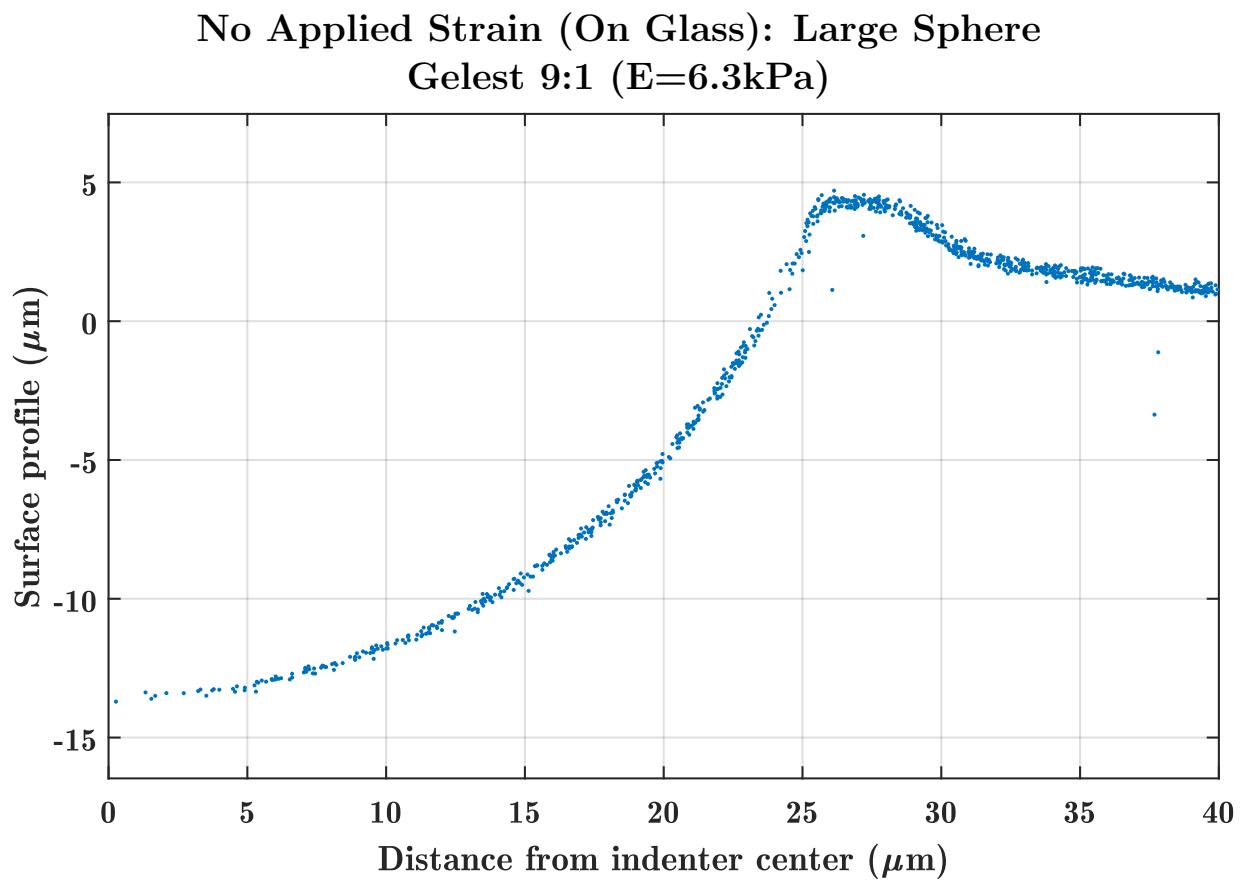


Figure 3.10: This is a zoomed-in version of figure 3.9. It is useful to zoom in and see the the quality of the collapse. A dense collapse leads to a smaller margin of error in fitting a circle to the profile (See Fig. 3.13).

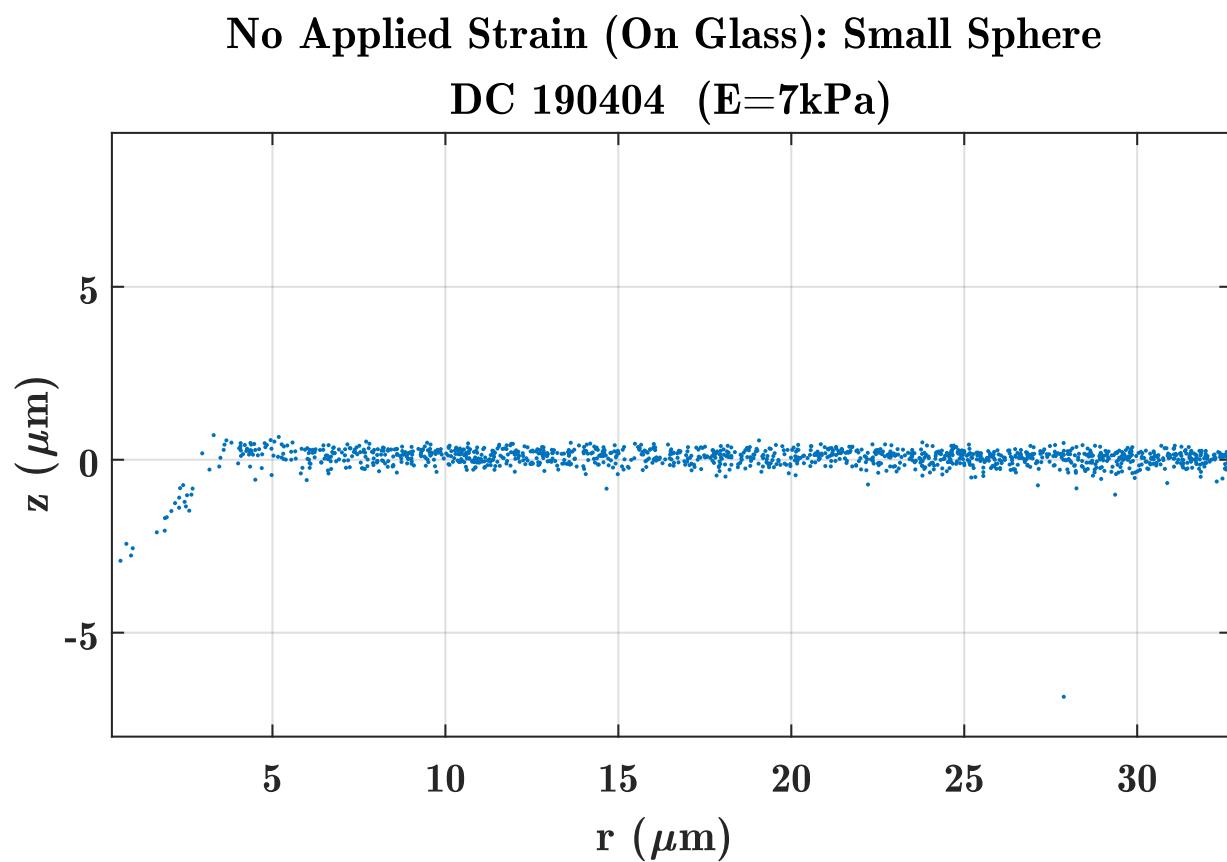


Figure 3.11: The collapse side profile for small spheres has fewer fluorescent tracer particles to outline there sphere. There is often a cutoff if the sphere sinks in deeper than its “waist.”

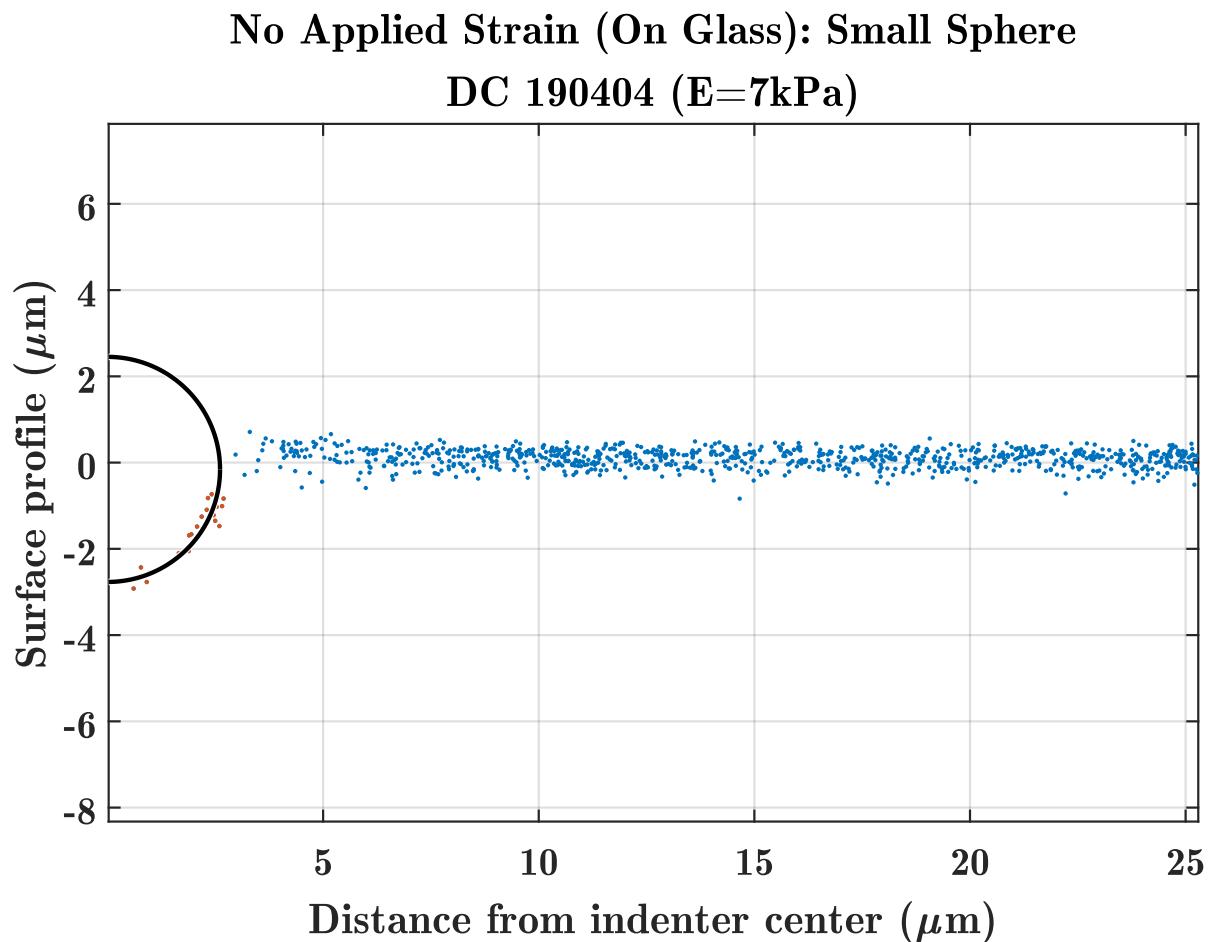


Figure 3.12: For a small sphere where $d \ll r$, there is generally a break in the sphere outline. For these circle fits, only the fluorescent beads up to the break are taken into account for the fit.

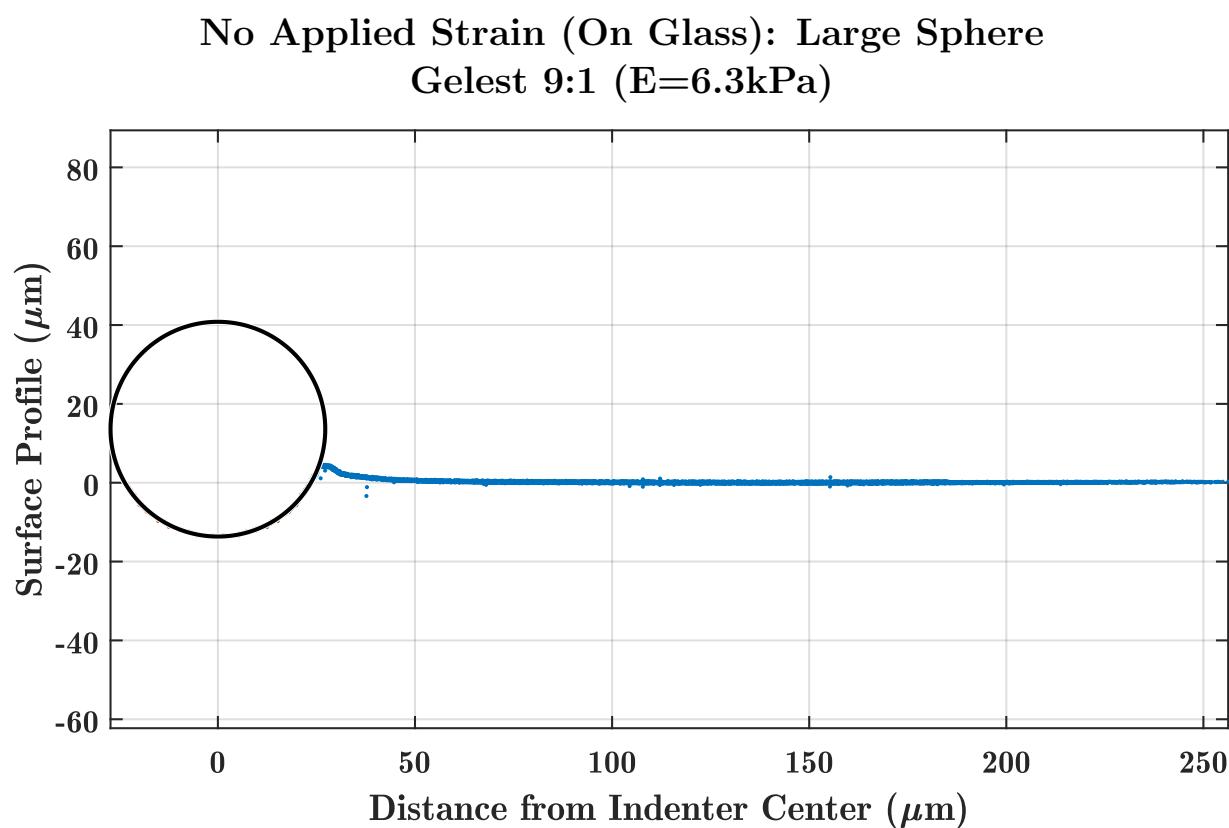


Figure 3.13: This is figure 3.9, only with a circle fitted to the indentation sphere. Notice how the surface plane is completely flat and centered at a depth of 0.

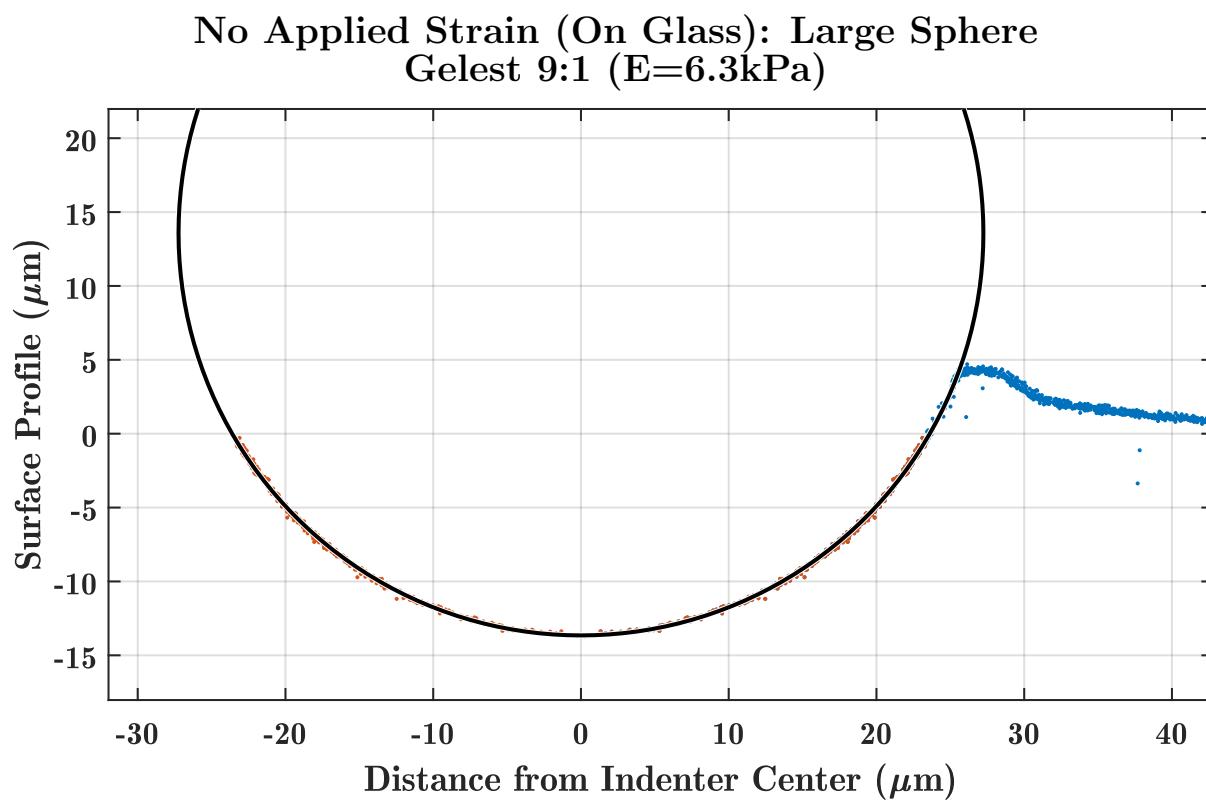


Figure 3.14: This is simply a zoomed in version of Figure 3.13. The orange dots are the data points being used to fit the circle. Notice how the sphere fits nicely in the indentation all the way up to the cusp, past the points being used for the fit.

**No Applied Strain (On Glass): Large Sphere
Gelest 9:1 (E=6.3kPa)**

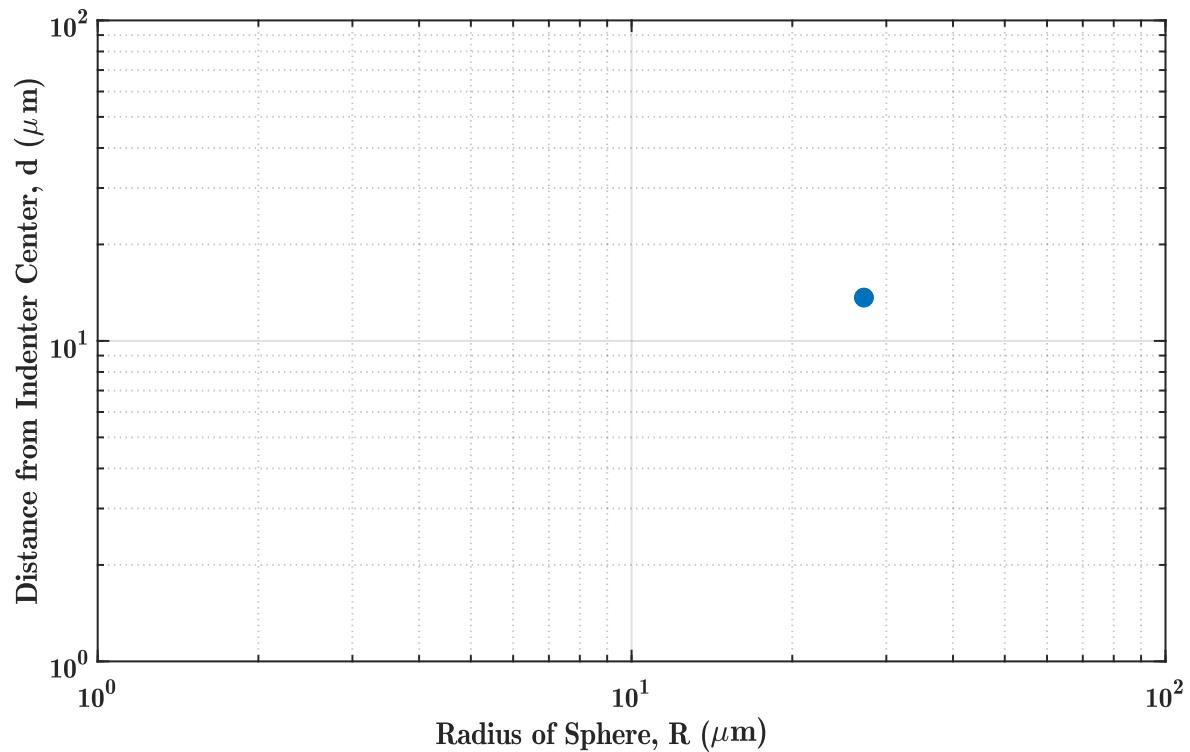


Figure 3.15: All the above analysis leads to this single point, the depth, d vs. radius r for a given sphere. By repeating this process for many spheres of varying size, we can fill out the plot and fit equation 2.9 to the points. Examples of these fits can be found in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

Surface Stress and Adhesion Results

In this chapter I present the surface stress and adhesion energy data collected for two types of silicone with various stiffnesses. We first used Gelest to obtain our preliminary data and tune the operation of our device. We then switched to Dow-Corning to continue more extensive measurements. First we give a brief background of the materials used.

4.1 Organosilicon Polymer Chemistry

I think this section might belong elsewhere. Thoughts?

PDMS, or Poly-Dimethyl-Siloxane, is a commonly used gel in the field of soft condensed matter. The gel is composed of a polymer network of crosslinkers, as well as a second polymer in the fluid phase. When stretched, the configuration of the system changes such that the tangled crosslinkers begin to unwind and untangle. From a statistical mechanics perspective, this decreases the configurational entropy, thus increasing the free energy.

I got this from that unpublished review article...Not sure how to cite yet...

Below (Fig. 4.1) is the chemical structure for the vinyl-terminated PDMS (Gelest) that comprises the fluid phase.

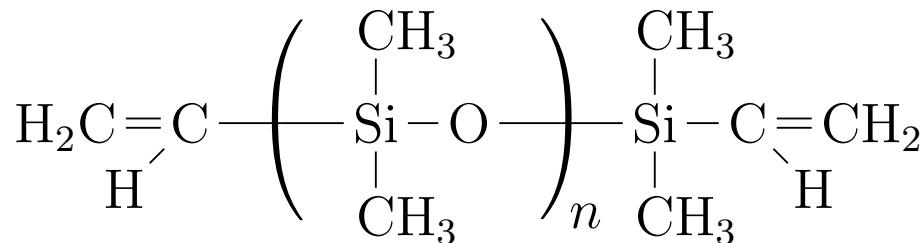


Figure 4.1: Divinyl-terminated Polydimethylsiloxane (DMS-V31)

The crosslinker for the system is a trimethylsiloxane terminated 25-35% methylhydrosiloxane - dimethylsiloxane copolymer. The crosslinker is much shorter on average than the

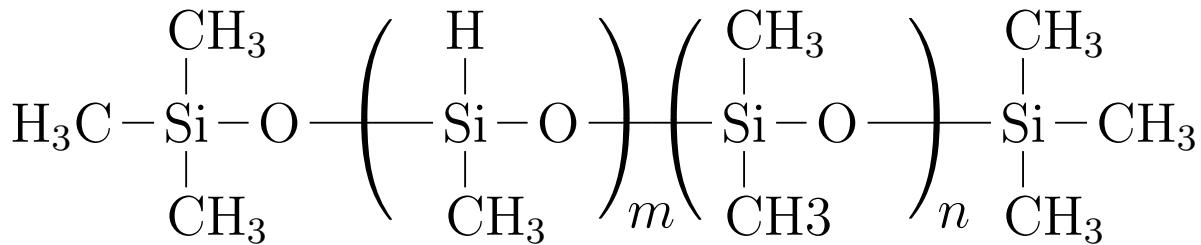


Figure 4.2: Trimethylsiloxane terminated 25-35% methylhydrosiloxane (m) - dimethylsiloxane (n). This is the crosslinker. *I could make that lone H red to help make clearer where the crosslinker bonding is happening. Thoughts?*

PDMS, containing roughly 20-30 repeating monomer groups. The single hydrogen on the methylhydrosiloxane is weakly bound, and can be replaced by one of the hydrogen atoms in the PDMS. This bonding happens over and over again, creating the long twisted chains that create the mesh network of the gel. Increasing density of crosslinkers provides an easy and controllable method to vary the gel's stiffness.

Table 4.1: PDMS gel characterization.

Mix Ratio (A&B)	Young's Modulus (kPa)	Sol Fraction (%)
7.5 : 1	2.5 ± 0.1	65.2
9 : 1	5.0 ± 0.1	64.7
11 : 1	10.0 ± 1	63.7

I think I will just delete this rather than try to expand it

Silicone Preparation and Spin Coating

Need to make sure this isn't too repetitive for the ch2 section.

Before spin-coating it is useful to coat the underlayer with fluorescent beads. It is not vital, but this is helpful in determining the substrate's thickness. The only information obtained by this coating is the location of the substrate's bottom surface, so a dense bead coverage is not required, and could potentially be harmful if there is light bleeding. We coat the bottom surface with 40nm beads for 30seconds - 1 minute. Full directions for preparing a fluorescent bead solution can be found in Appendix B. After this time, we return the fluorescent beads back to the solution for re-use. A significant number of beads will remain on the underlayer, however. To remove some excess, we gently wash the substrate with de-ionized water. For a coverslip, simply submerge the entire slip in water and gently remove it at a 45°angle, trying to prevent the water from breaking-up into smaller droplets. This process is slightly more difficult for the petri dish due to the larger size. We have had success

using a very large container of water (large opening, not depth). Generally, we have used a 1000mL beaker tilted at an angle. It is also possible to use an autopipet for washing - simply repeat the same process used for the fluorescent bead coating, only use water this time. I have had mixed success with this technique, however, as it leaves a water droplet and often creates an uneven coating of fluorescent beads, manifested as streaks across the surface.

After the first layer of fluorescent beads is coated, it is time to spin coat the soft substrate. We aim to make our spin-coated substrates around $100\ \mu m$. Generally, ours are between $80 - 100\ \mu m$. Depending on the silicone, a different amount of time should be waited before spin coating onto the desired surface. We coat our substrate onto glass for "zero applied strain" data or onto PDMS *yeah I gotta look up the brand when I get back. I totally forget.* for stretching data. It is best that the silicone is far enough along in the curing process that it has enough stiffness and cohesiveness to remain on the underlayer when spun. As an extreme example, consider trying to spin-coat water; it would all fling off the underlayer. *is there a better term than underlayer. I'm thinking of the general term for what we use a coverslip or stretchy circle.* For Gelest 9:1, there is no waiting time necessary; Gelest 9:1 cures rapidly. For Dow Corning 1:1, a wait time before spinning of 1 hour was observed.

To help with the evenness of the coating, we degas the gel by leaving it in a vacuum chamber for a few minutes. A few small bubbles are not of concern, as the process of transferring the gel to the underlayer is enough to pop any remaining stragglers. We have found that a "glob" of gel roughly half the diameter of the underlayer, with the spin-coater set to 500rpm for 40sec, is enough to create an even coating of roughly $100\ \mu m$ for both Gelest 9:1 and Dow-Corning 1:1 PDMS.

Coating a coverslip with silicone is a straightforward process where hardly anything can go wrong. Coating the stretchable PDMS underlayer, however, requires some creativity to find the steps necessary to return the best results. I cut the PDMS disk with an X-acto knife and using a standard Petridish (2.5in diameter) as a template. In order to avoid snagging, we cut out the circle before removing the paper sheets on both sides of the silicone. Taping the Petri dish to the paper is also helpful prevent the dish from slipping while cutting. Unlike the glass coverslip, the PDMS underlayer is not rigid and must be placed on a rigid surface, such as a Petri dish, for spin coating. This leaves the possibility for air bubbles to become trapped in between the PDMS and the Petri dish. This is a surefire way to ensure an unevenly coated substrate. To avoid this, we remove the top paper sheet of the newly cut PDMS, then place the Petri dish down upon the exposed silicone. This creates dish with a silicone disk on top and a paper sheet on top of that. We then push all the air bubbles out from the center outwards with our thumbs. Finally, any tiny air bubbles can hopefully be removed by placing the Petri dish in a vacuum chamber for a few minutes. It is at this point that we coat the PDMS with fluorescent beads and wash as desired before placing the petri dish onto the spin-coater and proceeding as described above.

...double check

After spin-coating, the silicone requires time to cure. We cure Dow-Corning 1:1 for at room temperature for at least 24 hours. For Gelest 9:1, we oven cure at $70^\circ C$ for at least 24 hours. Either silicone can be cured at room temperature or in the oven so long as a sufficient amount of time is waited, however, we have used this methods to maintain consistency, as

well as parallel the techniques used in previous literature [1].

After the silicone cures, we coat the surface with fluorescent beads again. It is important that the beads are dense enough to give a high resolution, yet not so dense as to become indistinguishable. For the 40nm bead solution prescribed in Appendix B, we allow the solution to soak for up to 1.5 minutes before removing and washing the substrate. While the fluorescent beads chosen are most susceptible to light at 440 nm, there is still the risk of photo-bleaching the fluorophores, and it is worth dimming the lights in the lab when working with them.

4.2 Preliminary Data: Gelest

Because Figure 1 was obtained using Dow-Corning silicone gel, our intention from the start was to use this material in our adhesion based measurements. Because the material was back-ordered, we used Gelest instead while we calibrated the process. I present this preliminary data because it shows clear incremental steps of evidence that the surface stress for the substrate is increasing under strain.

4.2.1 Standard Candles

Not only do we measure the depth and radii for a range of spheres, but we also measure a select few spheres at every strain. This allows us to track how any given sphere is changing, increasing our confidence that the shift in Υ and W is not just an artifact of noise. Below is the side profile for Gelest 9:1 ($E = 6.3$ kPa). Notice how the profile shifts noticeably upwards to be flattened when the substrate is stretched. This shift is expected if the surface stress is increasing (see equation 2.9).

There is a lot of noise for D vs. R data collected with substrates on our stretching apparatus have a lot of noise. As seen in figure 4.4, the D vs. R data collected on glass is far cleaner than that collected on the stretcher when strained. We can see the trend that under strain, the spheres sink into the substrate less deep. At 22% strain, we expect zero strain-stiffening of our elastic substrate, and conclude that this change in depth is a result of an increase of surface stress, Υ . Unfortunately, the d vs. R values are too noisy/scattered to make a reasonable fit to extract W and Υ values.

4.3 Dow-Corning PDMS

Because the $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ measurement in *Nature Communications* 2017 [1] was conducted using a Dow-Corning PDMS substrate, we are especially interested in using this material for our $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ measurements. Because there has only been one measurement of $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ in soft matter, in order to have value to use as comparison, we need to use the same material.

Our first measurements with Dow-Corning PDMS returned largely varying results; the stiffness of the silicone varied by a factor of 2 from the expected value, and the stiffness

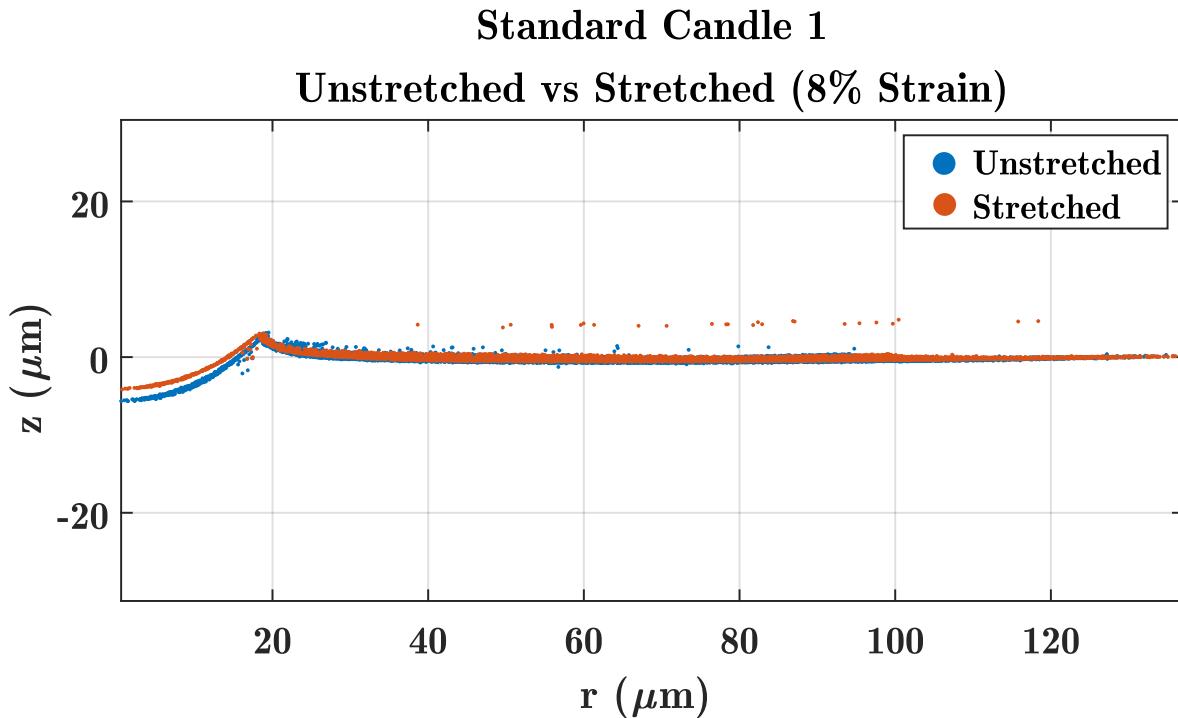


Figure 4.3: The side profile of the same sphere before and after stretch. Notice how after stretching, the sphere's indentation into the substrate is shallower. Substrate is Gelest 9:1 ($E = 6.3 \text{ kPa}$).

continued to increase as the silicone cured over a period of several weeks, as opposed to the usual 24hr time-frame. Furthermore, the adhesion of the PDMS varied from sample to sample. Often the silica sphere would not adhere to the surface. It was eventually discovered that the Dow-Corning PDMS being used expired several years prior. Some of the measurements conducted, however, returned results of interest, and thus have been included here.

TexStudio broke the figures and writing up weirdly. Will fix later. Also, I have a stretchable Dow-corning substrate ready to go. I'd like to take this $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ measurement next week.

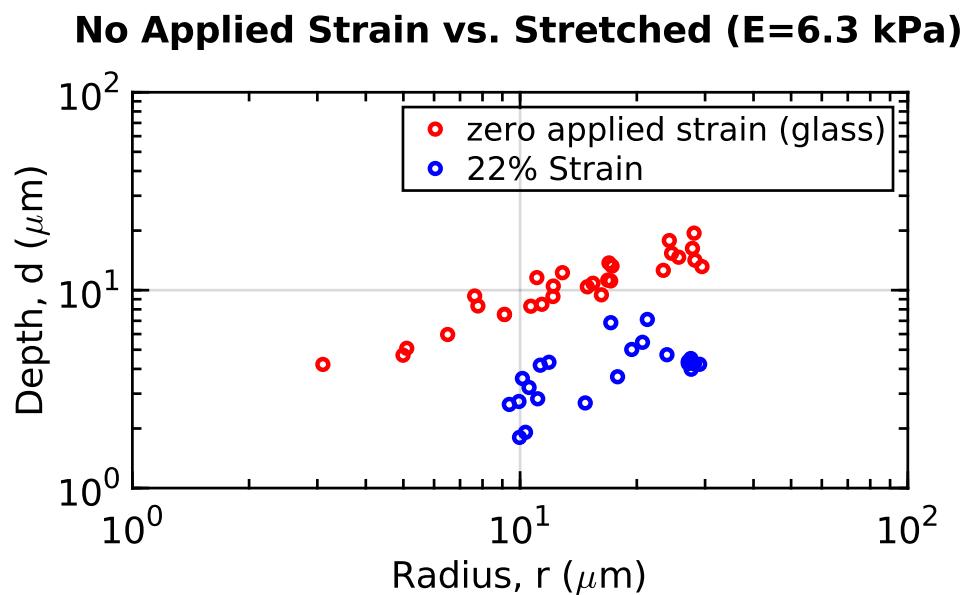


Figure 4.4: For Gelest 9:1, the silicone under strain (blue) on average sinks less deep into the silicone than for the same silicone spun on glass (zero applied strain). The large noise for the strain-data meant we could not meaningfully determine Υ and W to measure the variation in $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ and $W(\epsilon)$. *COME BACK TO THIS AND FIX THE PLOT TO MAKE IT MATCH THE OTHERS*

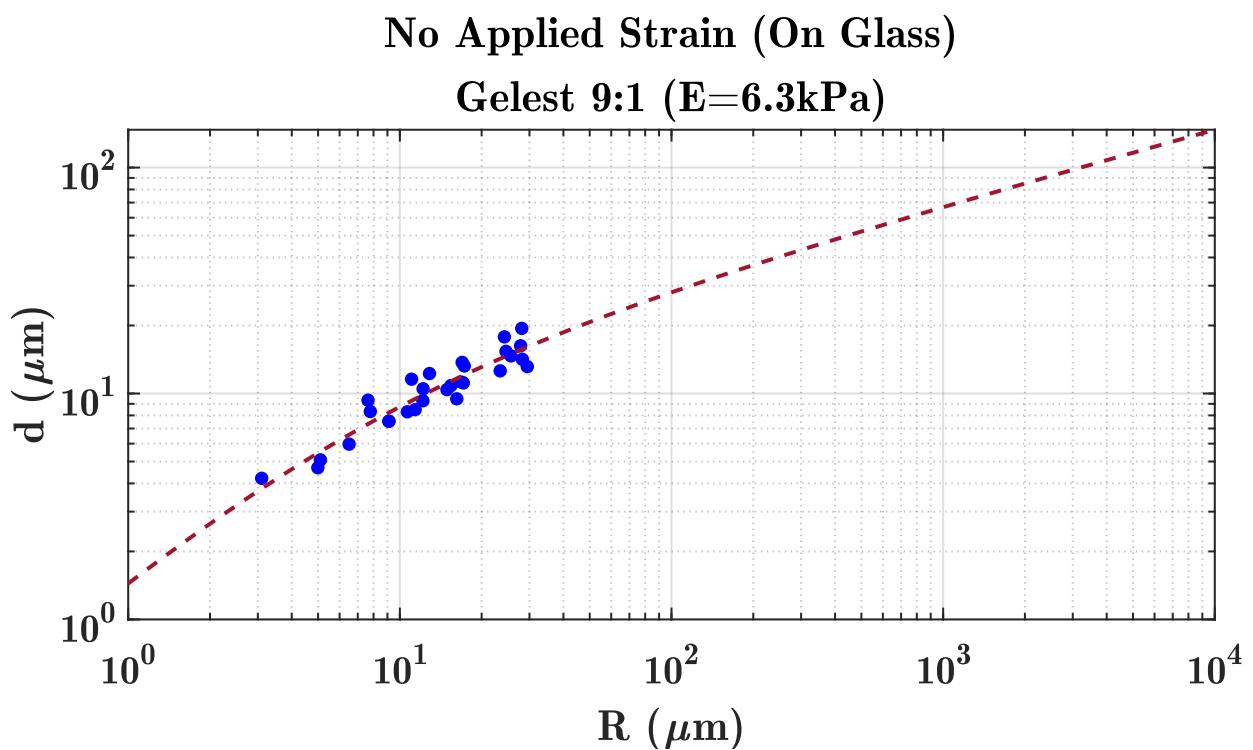


Figure 4.5: We fit Equation 2.9 to the d vs. R plot for a Gelest 9:1 sample. The best fit line returns parameters of $W = 53$ and $\Upsilon = 32 \text{ mNm}^{-1}$.

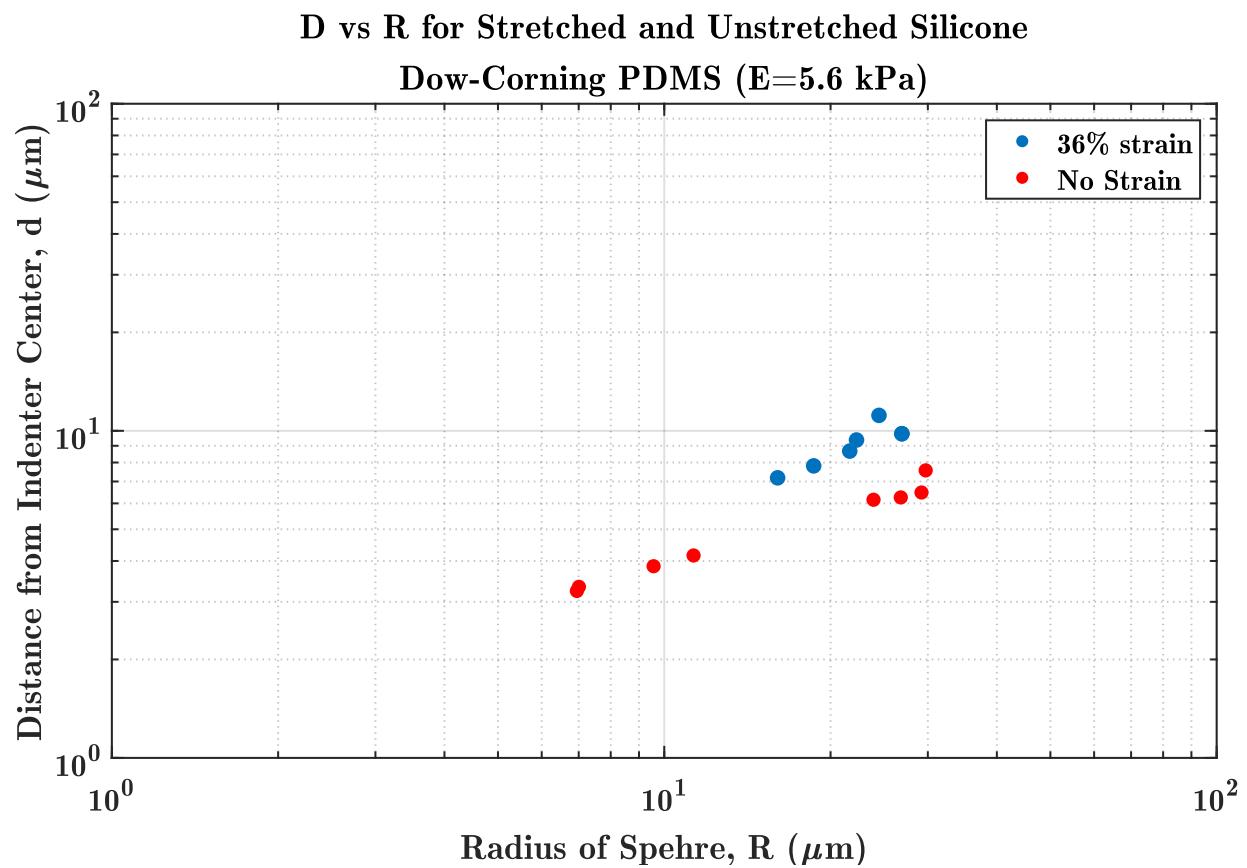


Figure 4.6: Here we plot D vs. R for a Dow-Corning PDMS Substrate at two different strains. Notice how at higher strains, the spheres sink in less deep. This can be explained by an increase in Υ or an increase in E for the substrate.

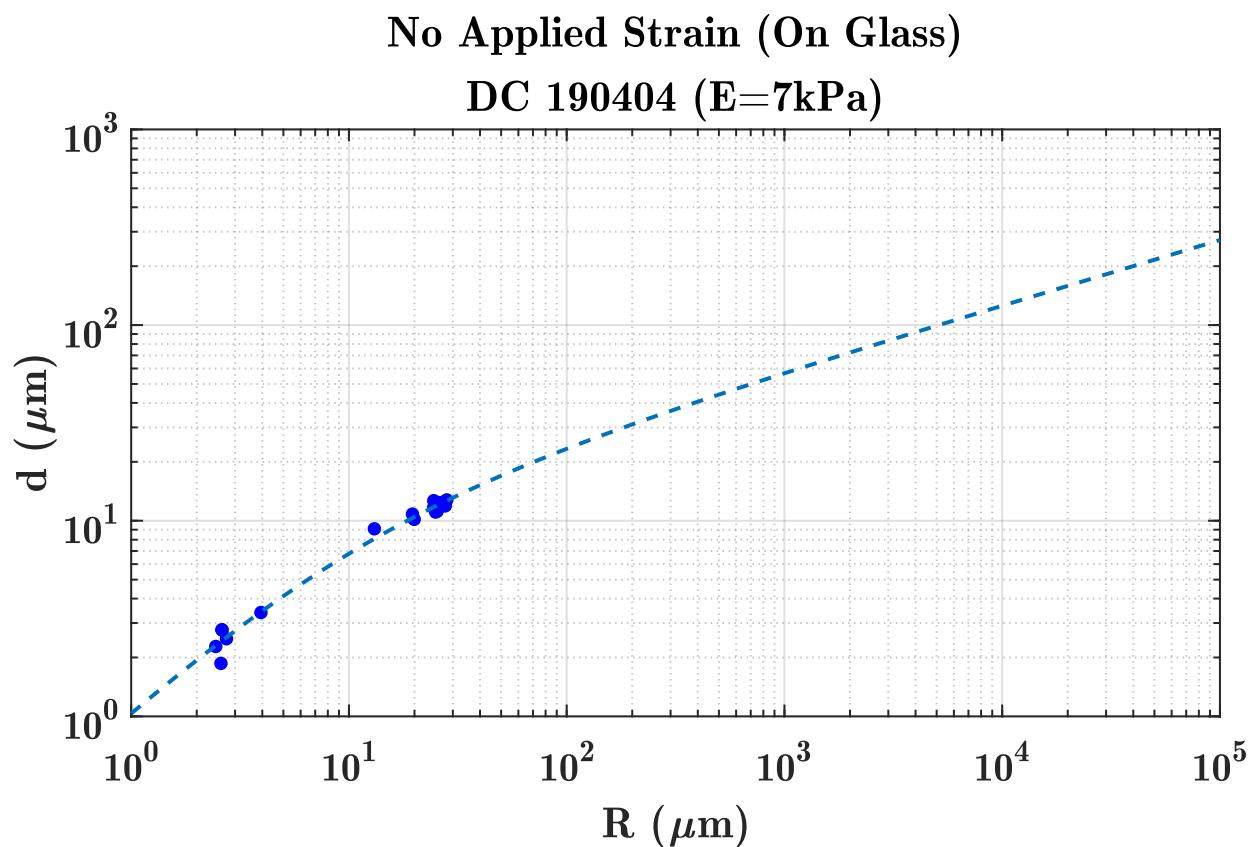


Figure 4.7: The surface stress and adhesion energy fit for Dow Corning PDMS silicone with no applied strain. Given the d vs. R values, the fitting parameters to make the best fit line are $W = 48.6$ and $\Upsilon = 43.5 \text{ mNm}^{-1}$.

Chapter 5

Future Work

The adhesion based technique for measuring $\Upsilon(\epsilon)$ should be applicable to virtually any soft solid capable of being stretched. Naturally, we would like to expand our measurements beyond silicone. Hydrogels, aerogels, and gelatins, to name a few, are materials of interest. Commercial adhesives are a subject of financial interest, with possible consequential technological developments.

5.1 Neue Materialen: Gummibärli

Measuring the strain dependent surface stress of a gummy bear presents challenges not present in PDMS silicone. For example, gummy bears come in a predefined size and shape. In order to spin coat them on our apparatus, we must first melt down the gummies. Gummy bears are composed primarily of gelatin and a glucose syrup. When melted...

I need to chat with Adam about this. This is what he's been doing. I'll send him an email.

5.2 Future Techniques

Currently, we use equation 2.9 to run a two parameter fit for the surface stress, Υ , and the adhesion energy, W . Alternatively, it is possible to measure the adhesion energy separately. This technique, though not critically important to the experiment, is worth exploring. Measuring W separately and comparing the measured value to the calculated value via the two parameter fit would inform us about the accuracy of our fit.

Appendix A

Stretching Apparatus Engineering Design Documents

A.1 Details of Stretcher Design

Aluminum was chosen as the base material because of its sturdy yet malleable nature, making it an excellent material with which to mill. Acrylic was considered, but was not chosen because of its brittle nature; we were concerned about cracking when drilling the UNF threads connecting to the Luer-lock syringe.

The stretched sheet is laid over the lubricated apparatus and fixed in place using a 48.7mm diameter by 1.6mm thick rubber O-ring. A removable plastic ring is then placed on top of the o-ring and clamped down using a tension clamp attached to a fitted plastic base slotted for the stretching apparatus to sit. The plastic ring is constructed from an engineering plastic that came from a similar but malfunctioning device used by our colleagues at ETH Zürich. The outer ring could easily be laser cut from a plastic or milled out of aluminum if desired.

To pull a vacuum, a 1/4-28 UNF to female Luer connects the apparatus to a plastic 100ml Luer-lock syringe. We found a more consistent stretch was held by lining the inner walls of the syringe in more Dow Corning vacuum grease. The UNF to female luer connector is stainless steel, and *sealed into place with epoxy resin. Note: I haven't done this yet 190322, but I think I should. But make sure to get the o-ring size first...and i think one size smaller would actually work better coated with Dow Corning vacuum grease.* The inclusion of a small o-ring between the UNF threads and the cylindrical base proved critical in holding vacuum for sustained periods of time.

The vacuum pull was controlled by a Harvard Apparatus Elite 11 Syringe Pump. This allows us to have a consistent withdraw rate and control over the amount of air withdrawn down to the pico-liter level, a far greater precision than needed. Stretching was found to work best at maximum withdrawal rate. Our stretching apparatus has sustained a constant equibiaxial stretch at 36% strain for as long as 5 hours. Maximum strain percentage and during of maintained stretch is yet to be fully tested.

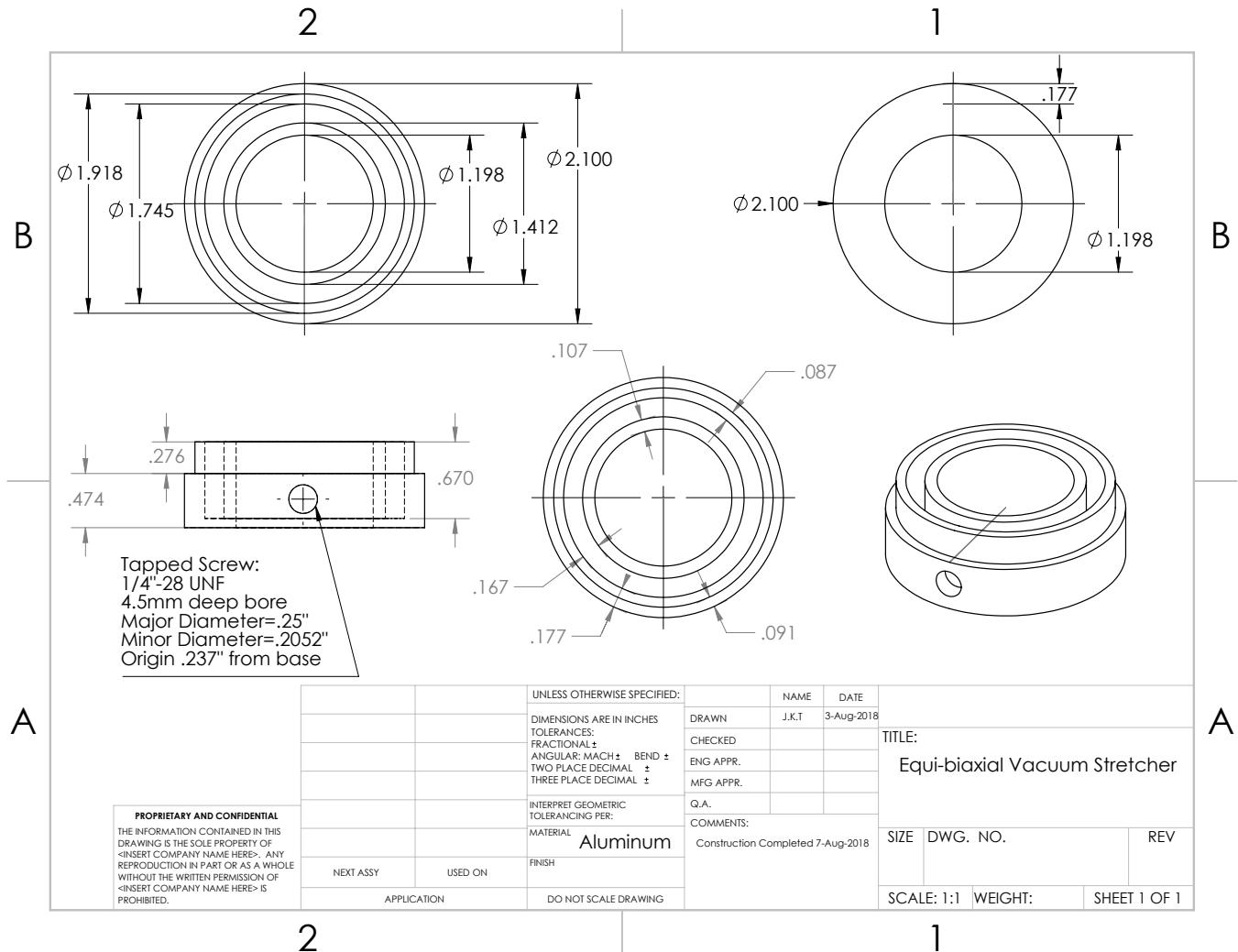


Figure A.1: The equi-biaxial vacuum stretcher design document. Note: all measurements are in inches.

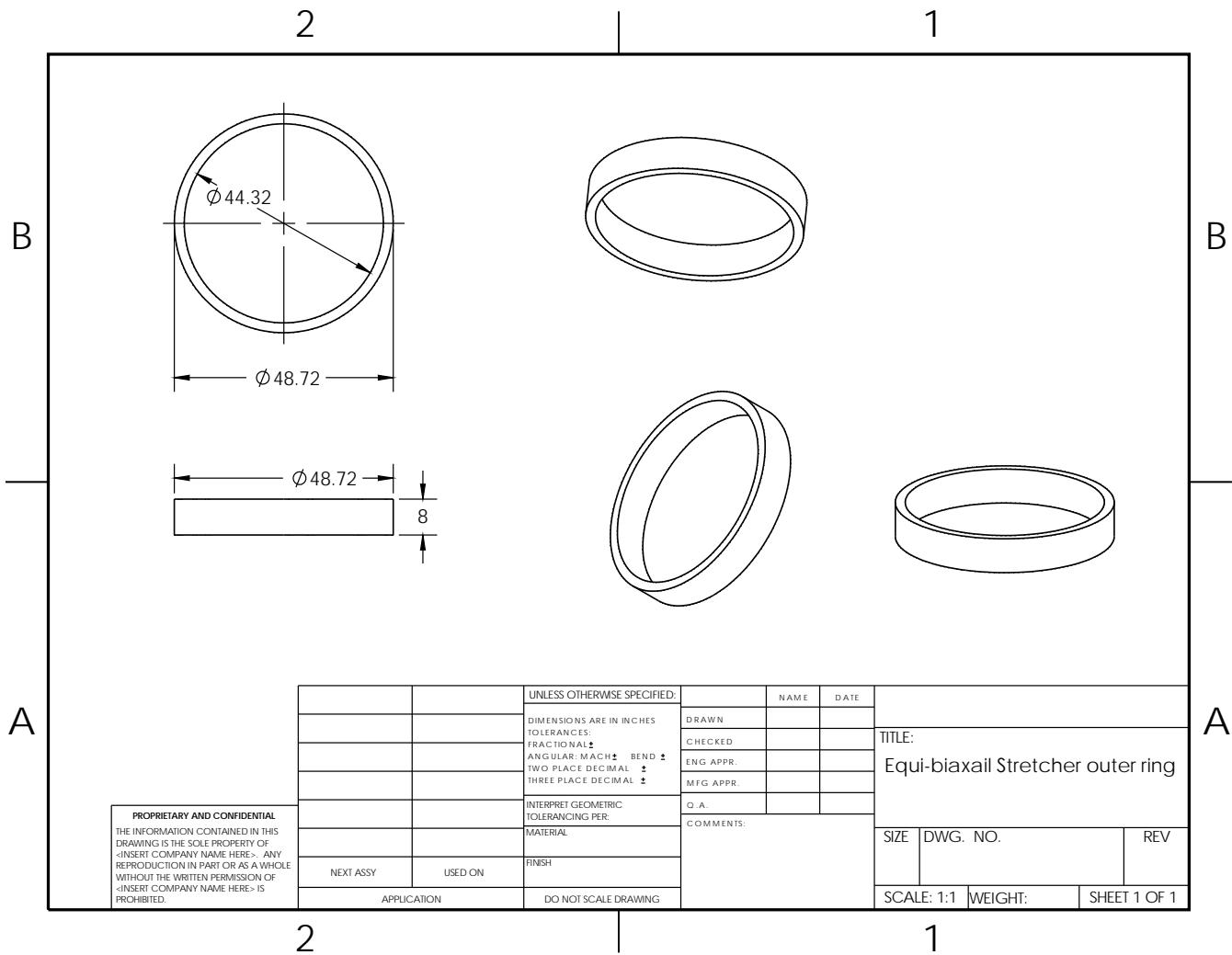


Figure A.2: Engineering Design Document of the outer-ring for the Stretching Apparatus.
Note: all measurements are in millimeters.

UGH, why is the base in imperial and the ring in metric?! Must fix this

Appendix B

Fluorescent Bead Recipe

B.1 Preparing a Fluorescent Bead Solution

Ok, the recipe is in my lab notebook in lab. IT won't take me long to write this appendix. Here's what to include

- Directions and Recipe with the borate buffer solution - Make sure to also note that the solution should be wrapped to avoid light exposure and to keep them in the refrigerator.

Appendix C

MATLAB Code

Looking at previous majumder theses, they all seem to include appendices with their matlab code. I think I have too much to include the actual code, but I think it would be useful to include what .m files I use, what they do, and in what order to run them. How else will someone know what to do with them? I also think it would be useful to put them in my github account in a new project folder and permilink there.

C.0.1 Confocal Analysis Codes

Below I list the MATLAB codes used in analyzing the raw .ome.tif files obtained from the confocal imaging process. I will list them in the order executed to obtain the desired d vs. R values. In each description, I will also include the required files needed to run the script.

`iterative_locating_input_parameters_2018.m`

- Set particle locating parameters such as estimated particle size, brightness intensity range, and minimum separation
- Define the image stack to be analyzed
- Rescale the image from pixels to microns

`iterative_particle_locating.m`

- Locates the fluorescent beads
- Returns a .txt file with the locating information and creates a figure
- INCLUDE FIGURE HERE

process_and_collapse_confocal_data.m

- Estimate the center point of the sphere in the format of `[x,y] + return`
- Follow the directions printed on the screen to collapse the side profile of the sphere
- INSERT SIDE PROFILE. CAPTION: A PROPERLY COLLAPSE SIDE PROFILE LOOKS AS FOLLOWS

circle_fit_confocal_profiles.m

- You must edit this script for the first time you analyze a sphere for a given data set.
- This script fits a circle to the collapsed side profile
- Script saves the d vs r value as a .mat file, adds the `[d,r]` data to a list of all `[d,r]` values (or creates that list if it's the first time being run for a data set), and plots the d vs. r data

C.0.2 Strain Calculation Codes

The codes used for calculating the strain are credited to Rob Styles (I think. I need to check who wrote what).

master_tracking_gui.m**C.0.3 Silicone Characterization Measurements**

To measure the stiffness of our silicone (Young's Modulus, E), we use the *something something Texture Analyzer*. We measure the force of resistance (N) vs. depth of compression (m) for several points near the center of the bulk. We only use points near the center to isolate the silicone. Measuring near the sides could include the restorative force from the walls of the container.

measure_modulus.m

- Calculates the average slope of this curve. This is the Young's Modulus of the substrate. (σ/ϵ)
- The requested starting position is the x-axis value where the linear slope approximately begins. It is better to overshoot the starting value than undershoot it

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