



Module 5A - Modeling and Simulation of 3D Robotic Printers

Module

Omar Betancourt, Payton Goodrich, Emre Mengi

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BETA DRAFT

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Objectives: Modeling and simulation of robots for 3D food-printing applications

Prerequisite Knowledge: High school physics

Prerequisite Modules: 1A - Calculus, 1B - Linear Algebra, 1D - Differential Equations, 2B - Continuum Mechanics, 2C - Particle Dynamics, 3C - Generic Time Stepping, 4A - Genetic Algorithms, 4B - Gradient-based Optimization

Difficulty: Hard

Summary: A 3D printer is modeled and then optimized using basic physics and genetic algorithms.

1 Theory

The goals are to explore the following topics:

- Modeling the dynamics of a 3D printing robot
- Dynamics and thermodynamics of printer material
- Time-discretization
- Machine-Learning for system training/optimization

Rapid free-form printing of particle-functionalized materials is an integral component of 3D printing and additive manufacturing. Such processes consist of attaching a dispenser to a robot arm which then releases droplets of specialized mixtures in free-space that are deposited onto a substrate. These approaches are popular because they utilize widely-available, highly-programmable, robots. However, often the release of a complex mixture in free-space is somewhat imprecise, thus electrodynamic field control has been proposed as a possible remedy to enhance the precision of such processes. Specifically, electrodynamic control of the material is achieved by electrifying the released material in the presence of a prescribed ambient electrical field generated from the substrate, in order to guide it to the desired position. There are many components that comprise such a system, thus motivating the construction of a simulation tool framework assembling submodels of the:

- kinematics of the robot arm and the dispenser-printer head,
- electrodynamic and gravitational forces on the released material,
- dynamics of the released material and
- conductive, convective and radiative cooling of the media.

The modular system structure allows for easy replacement of submodels within the overall framework. Numerical simulations are undertaken to illustrate the overall system model, which is comprised of an assembly of submodels. Afterwards, a Machine Learning Algorithm (MLA) is developed to identify and optimize the proper system parameters which deliver a desired printed pattern. Specifically, an MLA is developed to ascertain the appropriate combination of robotic motion and electrical fields needed to create structures which would be difficult or impossible by purely mechanical means alone. Afterwards, extensions involving more detailed models are then provided, based on the Discrete Element Method.

1.1 Introduction

As the rapid digitalization of industry has been taking place, manufacturers have been scrambling to meld simulation software with emerging technologies based on embedded sensor technology, autonomous robotics, virtual reality (VR) and artificial intelligence (AI). Integrated advanced sensors, controls, simulation platforms and modeling has made next-generation advanced manufacturing, sometimes referred to as Industry 4.0, possible (Zohdi and Dornfeld [1] and Huang et al [2]). For the purposes of this chapter, we refer to this entire evolving area as “Advanced Manufacturing”. Advanced Manufacturing requires the development of models and simulation tools that can be run rapidly for design purposes, which then naturally lend

themselves to optimization strategies such as Machine Learning Algorithms (MLAs), which require several hundred or thousand simulation runs during in an extremely short period of time.

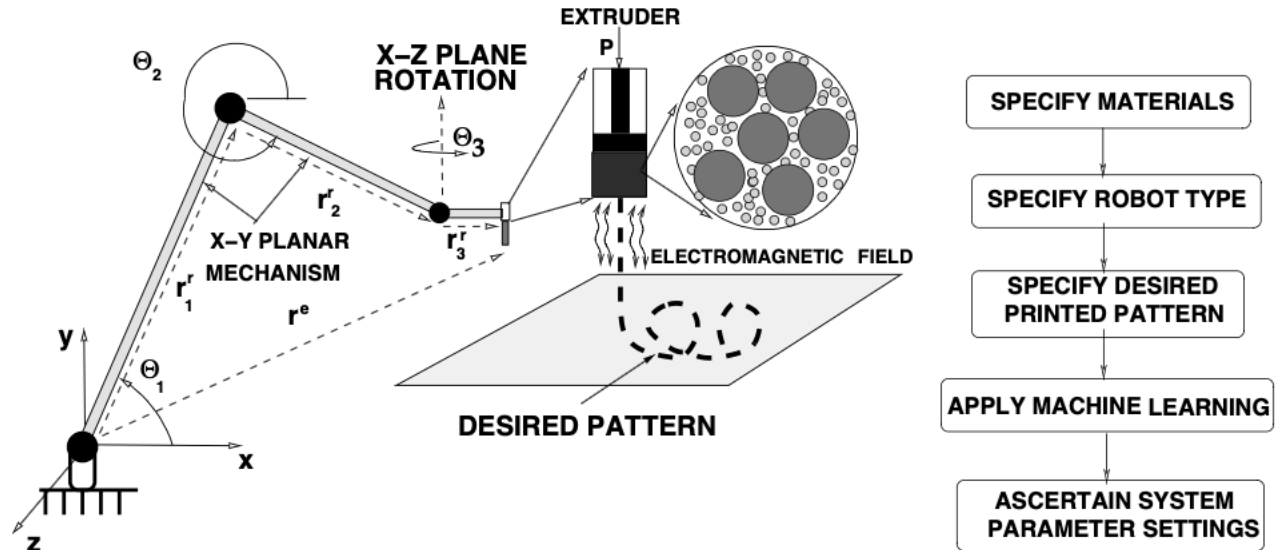


Figure 1.1: Model problem of a robot with a dispensing printer head.

Specialized MLAs, digital twin technology and complex materials are key factors in these processes, which have now become critical to industrialized economies. It is estimated that digitized manufacturing will generate \$1 trillion in net global value over the next four years by streamlining design, manufacturing processes and managing supply chain risks. One type of paradigm that is useful to determine the parameters needed for multicomponent systems to properly function is Machine Learning, which has now really become critical for all forms of advanced manufacturing, such as 3D printing. A particular type of 3D printing that is becoming popular is free-form printing, which is comprised of a multi-axis robot arm equipped with a dispenser that dispenses droplets of specialized mixtures. However, this type of process has many design parameters. These approaches are popular because they utilize widely-available highly-programmable robots that have been developed for decades in other fields. However, often the release of a complex mixture in free-space is somewhat imprecise, thus electrical field control has been proposed as one possible remedy to enhance the precision of such processes. Specifically, electrical control of the material is achieved by electrifying the released material in the presence of a prescribed electric field generated on the substrate, in order to guide it to the desired position. There are many components that comprise such a system, thus motivating the construction of a simulation tool framework in this chapter assembling submodels of:

- The kinematics of the robot arm and the dispenser-printer head,
- The electrodynamic and gravitational forces on the released material,
- The dynamics of the released material and
- The conductive, convective and radiative cooling of the media.

The modular system structure allows for easy replacement of submodels within the overall framework. In this work, numerical simulations are undertaken to illustrate the overall system model, which is comprised of an assembly of submodels. An MLA is then developed to identify and optimize the proper system parameters which deliver a desired printed pattern. Specifically, an MLA is developed to ascertain the appropriate combination of robotic motion and electric fields needed to create structures which would be difficult or impossible by purely mechanical means alone. Afterwards, extensions using more detailed models are then provided, based on the Discrete Element Method.

1.2 A model problem: free-form robotic printer

As a model problem, (Figure 1.1), we consider a robot linkage, with a mounted dispenser, described via vector loops which are widely used in the robotics literature (for example, see Hunt [3], Hartenberg and Denavit [4], Howell [5], McCarthy [6, 7], Reuleaux [8], Sandor and Erdman [9], Slocum [10], Suh and Radcliffe [11] and Uicker et al. [12]). Links one and two are x-y planar, while link three is in the x-z plane. We assume that we can precisely control the angles and angular velocities of all of the links in the system. The position vector (\mathbf{r}^d) to the dispenser is given by

$$\mathbf{r}^d = \mathbf{r}_1^r + \mathbf{r}_2^r + \mathbf{r}_3^r. \quad (1.1)$$

Differentiating, a velocity vector loop is generated

$$\mathbf{v}^d = \dot{\mathbf{r}}_1^r + \dot{\mathbf{r}}_2^r + \dot{\mathbf{r}}_3^r = \dot{\mathbf{r}}^d. \quad (1.2)$$

In component form, for the x components of position

$$r_x^d = r_1^r \cos\theta_1 + r_2^r \cos\theta_2 + r_3^r \sin\theta_3, \quad (1.3)$$

for the y components of position

$$r_y^d = r_1^r \sin\theta_1 + r_2^r \sin\theta_2 \quad (1.4)$$

and for the z components of position

$$r_z^d = r_3^r \cos\theta_3, \quad (1.5)$$

where the link lengths are given by $r_i^r = \sqrt{\mathbf{r}_i^r \cdot \mathbf{r}_i^r} = \sqrt{r_i^r r_i^r}$ (for $i = 1, 2, 3$) and the planar (x-y) angles are measured counter-clockwise from horizontal right (Figure 1.1). The velocities can subsequently be found from differentiating the component equations of Equation 1.3-1.5, yielding, for the x components of velocity

$$v_x^d = \dot{r}_1^r \sin\theta_1 - r_1^r \dot{\theta}_1 \cos\theta_1 + \dot{r}_2^r \sin\theta_2 - r_2^r \dot{\theta}_2 \cos\theta_2 + r_3^r \dot{\theta}_3 \cos\theta_3, \quad (1.6)$$

for the y components of velocity,

$$v_y^d = \dot{r}_1^r \cos\theta_1 + r_1^r \dot{\theta}_1 \sin\theta_1 + \dot{r}_2^r \cos\theta_2 + r_2^r \dot{\theta}_2 \sin\theta_2 \quad (1.7)$$

and for the z components of velocity

$$v_z^d = -r_3^r \dot{\theta}_3 \sin\theta_3. \quad (1.8)$$

The total velocity of the droplet coming out of the dispenser is the velocity of the dispenser plus the relative droplet dispenser velocity ($\Delta \mathbf{v}^e$):

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^d + (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}^d) = \mathbf{v}^d + \Delta \mathbf{v}^d. \quad (1.9)$$

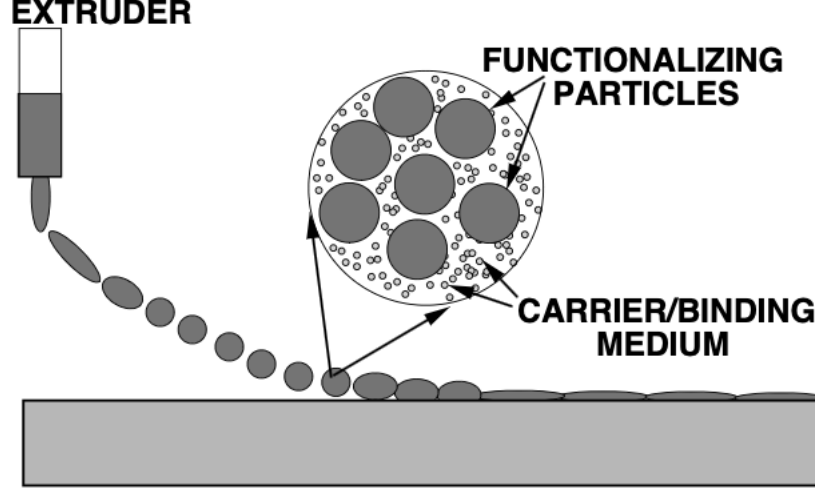


Figure 1.2: Deposition of “droplets” of a mixtures.

1.3 Dynamics of released material

The dispensed material, which is released as “syrup-like” droplets of multiphase mixtures as the robotic system moves (Figure 1.2), is represented by a series of lumped masses. Macro-particle interaction within the droplet mixture, as well as the interaction between the droplets of mixtures are not considered in this part of the analysis, since this is not relevant for the overall macroscale robot path planning calculations of the printing process. However, detailed modeling of the dynamics of the released material is discussed later in the chapter.

Accordingly, for the lumped mass analysis, at a snapshot in time, and an arbitrary i^{th} lumped mass in the system, whose dynamics are governed by

$$m_i \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_i = \Psi_i^{elec} + \Psi_i^{grav} + \text{other external forces} \Psi_i^{tot}(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_{N_m}), \quad (1.10)$$

where \mathbf{r}_i is the position vector of the i^{th} lumped mass, Ψ_i^{elec} are the externally applied electrical force, $\Psi_i^{grav} = m_i \mathbf{g}$ is the gravitational force and Ψ_i^{tot} is the total of the forces acting on the i^{th} lumped mass.

Remarks: Often when a complex fluidized mixture exits a dispenser, a droplet is formed. However, it can initially exit as a long slender filament, that will break up into droplets, due to instabilities. The breakup of a long column of fluid from a dispenser, possessing slight perturbations (longitudinal waviness) was first experimentally studied by Plateau in 1873, who determined that a vertically falling water stream into drops if its wavelength is greater than approximately 3.13-3.18 times its diameter. Subsequently, Rayleigh analytically proved that a wavy falling column of liquid (with circular cross-section) will break up into drops if its wavelength exceeded its circumference. This type of instability is driven by surface tension, which forces fluids to minimize their surface area. See Papageorgiou [13] and Eggers [14] for more details. In the case of a dispensed viscous medium, the degree of fluidity/viscosity influences surface tension. We refer the reader to Zohdi [15] for detailed simulation of this phenomena. In the present analysis, we assume that the droplet has been formed. Later in the chapter this stream/droplet phenomenon is discussed further.

1.4 Construction of targeted electrified field

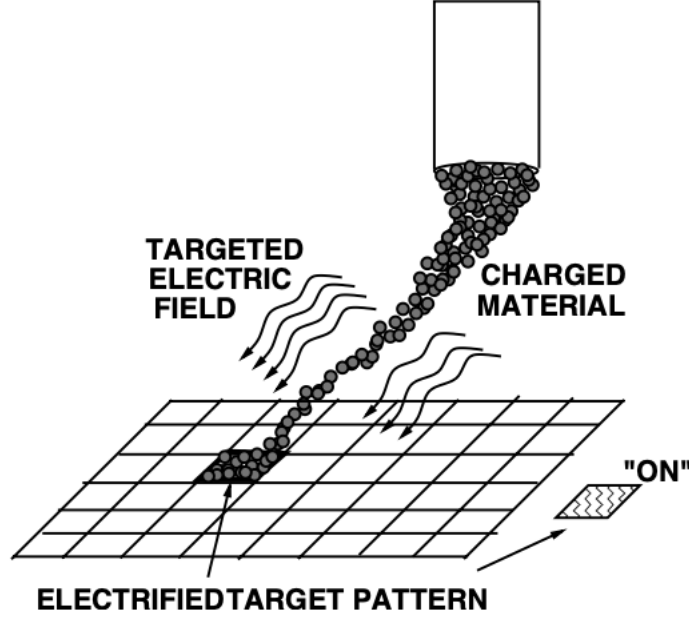


Figure 1.3: Highly targeted feature patterns that are electrified.

A key in digital printing is the targeted zonal electrification of the substrate to guide the material to the precise desired locations. This is done, as in the classical “xerox” process by charging pixels on the substrate, turning them on and off in a controlled manner, to attract the deposited material to key locations. To construct an electrified pattern, consider an electric field due to charged external point source, representing one pixel on the substrate (Figure 1.3), which is governed by Gauss’ law:

$$\int_A \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{n} dA = \epsilon E 4\pi \int_V Q_c dV = q_p \quad \mathbf{E} = \frac{q_p}{4\pi\epsilon_{jj} r_{oj}^2} \mathbf{n}, \quad (1.11)$$

where \mathbf{D} is the electric field flux, \mathbf{E} is the electric field ($\mathbf{E} = jj\mathbf{E}jj$), Q_c is the charge per unit volume, q_p is the total charge at the point source, \mathbf{n} is the normal-outward unit vector and $jj\mathbf{r} \ r_{oj}jj$ is the distance from the point source. To create the electric field associate with the entire set of pixels, one simply superposes the individual fields. Thus, using the point sources, the process is:

1. ACTIVATION OF POINT SOURCES:

$$\mathbf{E}_p = \frac{q_p}{4\pi\epsilon_{jj} r_i} \frac{1}{r_p jj^2} \mathbf{n}_{i! p}. \quad (1.12)$$

2. CONSTRUCTION OF INDUCED E-FIELD:

$$\mathbf{E}^{ext}(\mathbf{r}_i) = \sum_{p=1}^{N_c} \frac{q_p}{4\pi\epsilon_{jj} r_i} \frac{1}{r_p jj^2} \mathbf{n}_{i! p}, \quad (1.13)$$

where N_c are the number of charged point sources. The induced electrical force on the released material is $\Psi_i^{elec} = q_i \mathbf{E}^{ext}(\mathbf{r}_i)$, where q_i is the charge of released material and \mathbf{E}^{ext} is the electrical field constructed by the points on the substrate.

Remark: A general electromagnetic field (as opposed to the previous purely electrical field) can be introduced in two parts: (1) Lorentz forces (for charged/electrified materials) and (2) magnetic forces (for magnetic materials). In mathematical form,

$$\Psi_i^{e+m} = \Psi_i^{lor,e+m} + \Psi_i^{mag} = \underbrace{q_i(\mathbf{E}^{ext} + \mathbf{v}_i \times \mathbf{B}^{ext})}_{\Psi_i^{lor,e+m}} + \Psi_i^{mag}, \quad (1.14)$$

where Lorentz-induced forces from independent external fields are \mathbf{E}^{ext} and \mathbf{B}^{ext} is $\Psi_i^{lor,e+m}$. The terms \mathbf{E}^{ext} and \mathbf{B}^{ext} are considered to be externally controlled and uncoupled from one another (Jackson [17]). In addition to using electrical fields to guide material to the target location, electrical fields may be needed help extract the highly viscous particle-laden material complex from the dispenser. Although this issue is not simulated here, we refer the reader to Zohdi [16] for more details.

1.5 Drag forces

Because the process could be in an open air environment, drag effects can be relevant. For example, we will employ a general phenomenological model

$$\Psi_i^{drag} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a C_{Di} \mathbf{v}^f \cdot \mathbf{v}_i A_i^D, \quad (1.15)$$

where C_{Di} is the drag coefficient, A_i^D is the reference area, which for a sphere is $A_i^D = \pi R_i^2$, ρ_a is the density of the ambient fluid environment and \mathbf{v}^f is the velocity of the surrounding medium which, in the case of interest, is air which is included in the equation of motion for the i^{th} droplet in the system

$$m_i \dot{\mathbf{v}}_i = \Psi_i^{tot} = \Psi_i^{elec} + \Psi_i^{grav} + \Psi_i^{drag}. \quad (1.16)$$

The empirical drag coefficient varies with Reynolds number. For example, consider the following piecewise relation (Chow [18]):

- For $0 < Re < 1$, $C_{Di} = \frac{24}{Re}$,
- For $1 < Re < 400$, $C_{Di} = \frac{24}{Re^{0.646}}$,
- For $400 < Re < 3 \cdot 10^5$, $C_{Di} = 0.5$,
- For $3 \cdot 10^5 < Re < 2 \cdot 10^6$, $C_{Di} = 0.000366 Re^{0.4275}$,
- For $2 \cdot 10^6 < Re < 10^7$, $C_{Di} = 0.18$,

where the local Reynolds number for a drop is $Re = \frac{2R\rho_a \mathbf{v}^f \cdot \mathbf{v}_i}{\mu_f}$ and μ_f is the fluid viscosity.¹ We note that in the zero Reynolds number limit the drag is Stokesian. Using the piecewise relation reduces the drag at the lower Reynolds number regimes.

Remark: The piecewise drag law of Chow [18] is a mathematical description for the Reynolds number over a wide range and is a curve-fit of extensive data from Schlichting [98].

1.6 Heat transfer

For the thermodynamics of lumped masses/drop, we consider conduction, convection and radiation. Thus, for each lumped mass/drop ($i = 1, 2, \dots, N_d$),

$$m_i C_i \dot{\theta}_i = Q_i + H_{ci} + H_{ri} + H_{di}, \quad (1.17)$$

where θ_i is the temperature in degrees Kelvin, C_i is the heat capacity per unit mass, Q_i represents the conductive contribution from the substrate, when in makes contact, the robotic dispenser and support

¹The viscosity coefficient for air is $\mu_f = 0.000018$ Pa/s.

structures (if any), H_{ci} represents surrounding convection, H_{ri} represents the (infrared) radiation and H_{di} represents the drag heating. It is assumed that the temperature fields are uniform within the (small) elements surrounding the lumped masses. This assumption is justified, i.e. a lumped thermal model (associated with the lumped masses), ignoring temperature gradients and assuming a uniform temperature when the Biot number is small. The Biot number for a cylindrical element scales with the ratio of the element volume (V) to the element surface area (A^s), $\frac{V}{A^s} = \frac{4\pi R^3/3}{4\pi R^2} = \frac{R}{3}$ (R is the radius of the droplet), which indicates that a uniform temperature distribution is appropriate, since the elements, by definition, are small. Assuming that the fields are uniform in each element allows for the following (for the $i = 1, 2, \dots, N_d$ lumped masses)

$$Q_i = \underbrace{\frac{\theta_{sub} - \theta_i}{\underbrace{|\mathbf{r}_{sub} - \mathbf{r}_i|}_{\text{when in contact}}}}_{C_i} A_i^c, \quad (1.18)$$

where $\underbrace{\frac{\theta_{sub} - \theta_i}{|\mathbf{r}_{sub} - \mathbf{r}_i|}}_{C_i}$ is the conductivity, θ_{sub} is the temperature of the substrate, \mathbf{r}_{sub} is the position of the substrate and $A_i^c = \pi R_i^2$ is the contact area associated with the lumped mass/substrate pair (ij). This yields, including standard convection and radiation terms

$$m_i C_i \frac{d\theta_i}{dt} = \underbrace{\frac{\theta_{sub} - \theta_i}{|\mathbf{r}_{sub} - \mathbf{r}_i|}}_{C_i(\text{when in contact})} A_i^c \underbrace{h_i A_i^s(\theta_i - \theta_s)}_{H_{ci}} + \underbrace{\epsilon_i \beta A_i^s (\theta_i^4 - \theta_s^4)}_{H_{ri}}, \quad (1.19)$$

where h_i is the convection coefficient, $A^s = 4\pi R^2$, $0 \leq \epsilon_i \leq 1$ is the radiative efficiency and $\beta = 5.67 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ W}/(\text{m}^2 \text{ K}^4)$ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant. Upon contact the drop is assumed to stick and collapse into a roughly cylindrical shape with the following areas: (a) substrate contact area $= \pi R^2$ (b) convective area $= \pi R^2 + 2\pi RL$, where L is determined by the equating the volume of material in the spherical state to the cylindrical configuration ($\pi R^2 L = 4\pi R^3/3$) that is exposed and (c) radiative area $= \pi R^2 + 2\pi RL$ (neglecting the radiative exchange with the substrate). Finally, although potentially small, for the drag-heating rate, we take the inner-product of the drag force with the relative velocity of the drop to the surrounding environment, and insert it into the First Law of Thermodynamics:

$$H_{di} = \underbrace{\Psi_i^{drag}}_{\gamma_i} (\mathbf{v}^f \cdot \mathbf{v}_i) = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{C_{Di}}_{\gamma_i} |\mathbf{v}^f - \mathbf{v}_i| A_i^D (\mathbf{v}^f \cdot \mathbf{v}_i) = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{C_{Di}}_{\gamma_i} |\mathbf{v}^f - \mathbf{v}_i|^3 A_i^D; \quad (1.20)$$

where $0 \leq \gamma_i \leq 1$ is the frictional heating efficiency. If one then includes convective and radiative cooling, this yields

$$m_i C_i \dot{\theta}_i = \underbrace{\frac{\theta_{sub} - \theta_i}{|\mathbf{r}_{sub} - \mathbf{r}_i|}}_{C_i(\text{when in contact})} A_i^c \underbrace{h_i A_i^s (\theta_i - \theta_s)}_{H_{ci}} + \underbrace{\epsilon_i A_i^s (\theta_i^4 - \theta_s^4)}_{H_{ri}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} C_{Di} |\mathbf{v}^f - \mathbf{v}_i|^3 A_i^D}_{H_{di}}; \quad (1.21)$$

Remark: To quantify the convection coefficient (h), we consider the Nusselt number (Nu), which is the ratio between the heat transfer of convection to heat transfer of conduction

$$Nu = \frac{hL}{\kappa} \Rightarrow h = \frac{Nu \kappa}{L}, \quad (1.22)$$

where $L = 2R$ is the length scale associated with the particle radius R and κ is the fluid conductivity. The Nusselt number is related to the Reynolds number

$$Re = \frac{2\rho R |\mathbf{v}^f - \mathbf{v}_i|}{\mu}, \quad (1.23)$$

and Prandtl number

$$Pr = \frac{c_p \mu}{\kappa}, \quad (1.24)$$

by (Whitaker[20])

$$Nu = 2 + (0.4 Re^{1/2} + 0.06 Re^{2/3}) Pr^{0.4} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_s}\right)^{0.25}, \quad (1.25)$$

where μ is the surrounding fluid viscosity at the surrounding and μ_s is the viscosity of the fluid at the surface temperature. Thus, once one has the Nusselt number, one can post-process the convection coefficient.²

1.7 Effective properties

In the analysis to follow, the properties of a droplet, which is a mixture of microheterogeneous materials, will be determined from effective medium theories.

1.7.1 Effective thermal conductivity

Over the last century, estimates for micro-heterogeneous materials, of which porous materials is a subclass, have been developed. A particularly useful set estimates, in fact rigorous bounds are those developed in the early 1960's by Hashin and Shtrikman[21-23]. For a two phase material, comprised of isotropic phases with an overall isotropic response, they specifically read as

$$\underbrace{1 + \frac{\nu_2}{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3_1}}}_{,} \quad \underbrace{2 + \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\nu_2}{3_2}}}_{,+} \quad (1.26)$$

where the conductivity of phase 2 (with volume fraction ν_2) is larger than phase 1 ($\nu_2 > \nu_1$). For the purposes of this present analysis ν_2 corresponds to the solid particle material and phase 1 will be considered as the binding "material". The volume fractions have to sum to unity:

$$\nu_1 + \nu_2 = 1 \quad \nu_1 = 1 - \nu_2. \quad (1.27)$$

The Hashin-Shtrikman bounds are the tightest bounds known when the only information is the volume fraction of the particles-in other words, no other structural or statistical information is known.

1.7.2 Effective density of the material

The effective density of a mixture for a two-phase materials can directly be determined by

$$\frac{m}{V} \rho = \frac{1}{V} \int_V \rho(\mathbf{x}) dV = \frac{1}{V} \left(\int_{V_1} \rho_1 dV + \int_{V_2} \rho_2 dV \right) = \nu_1 \rho_1 + \nu_2 \rho_2. \quad (1.28)$$

Furthermore, the heat capacity is approximated by

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \frac{1}{V} \int_V C(\mathbf{x}) dV \\ &= \frac{1}{V} \left(\int_{V_1} C_1 dV + \int_{V_2} C_2 dV \right) \\ &= \nu_1 C_1 + \nu_2 C_2 \end{aligned} \quad (1.29)$$

The density-oriented calculations are not estimates *they are exact*. The effective density of a mixture for a two-phase materials can directly be determined by

$$m = \rho V = (\nu_1 \rho_1 + \nu_2 \rho_2) \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3, \quad (1.30)$$

where $V = \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3$, while the effective thermal mass is

$$mC = \rho C V = (\nu_1 \rho_1 + \nu_2 \rho_2) (\nu_1 C_1 + \nu_2 C_2) \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3. \quad (1.31)$$

²In the analysis to follow, we assume $\mu_s = \mu$.

1.7.3 Effective charge-carrying capacity of the material

$$q \text{ h}q(\mathbf{x})_{iV} \frac{1}{V} \int_V q(\mathbf{x}) dV = \frac{1}{V} \left(\int_{V_1} q_1 dV + \int_{V_2} q_2 dV \right) = {}_1\text{h}q_1{}_{iV_1} + {}_2\text{h}q_2{}_{iV_2}. \quad (1.32)$$

Depending on the materials under consideration, either the carrier material and/or the particles could carry a charge.

Remark: There exist a large number of effective property estimation techniques, and we refer the reader to Torquato [24], Jikov et al. [25], Hashin [23], Mura [26], Markov [27] for theoretical aspects and for more computationally-oriented approaches, Ghosh [28], Ghosh and Dimiduk [29], Matous et al [30] and Zohdi and Wriggers [31], Zohdi [32]. It is important to note that direct numerical approaches, discretizing the entire particle-laden heterogeneous domain with a very fine mesh, are quite accurate, but inordinately computationally expensive. It is for this reason that multiscale models are frequently used, which employ less computationally-intensive effective property models in most of the domain and detailed microstructural models in critical regions (see Zohdi and Wriggers [31] for reviews).

1.8 Integration of the equations

With the governing equations established, one can then integrate Equation 1.10 to obtain the velocity for the i^{th} lumped mass with a simple Forward-Euler integration³

$$\mathbf{v}_i(t + \Delta t) = \mathbf{v}_i(t) + \frac{1}{m_i} \int_t^{t+\Delta t} \Psi_i^{\text{tot}}(t) dt = \mathbf{v}_i(t) + \frac{\Delta t}{m_i} \Psi_i^{\text{tot}}(t), \quad (1.33)$$

and the position for the i^{th} lumped mass by applying the integration process again:

$$\mathbf{r}_i(t + \Delta t) = \mathbf{r}_i(t) + \Delta t \mathbf{v}_i(t), \quad (1.34)$$

which provides an updating scheme for the set equations for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N_d$ lumped masses. For the thermal states

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_i(t + \Delta t) &= \theta_i(t) + \frac{1}{m_i C_i} \left(\int_t^{t+\Delta t} Q_i dt + \int_t^{t+\Delta t} H_{ci} dt + \int_t^{t+\Delta t} H_{ri} dt + \int_t^{t+\Delta t} H_{di} dt \right) \\ &= \theta_i(t) + \frac{\Delta t}{m_i C_i} (Q_i(t) + H_{ci}(t) + H_{ri}(t) + H_{di}(t)). \end{aligned} \quad (1.35)$$

1.8.1 Overall solution algorithm

The algorithm is as follows:

- | | |
|---|--------|
| <pre> (1) COMPUTE ROBOT SYSTEM POSITION TIME = t : (2) SET i = 1 : (3) IF i > N_d THEN GO TO (5) (4) IF i ≤ N_d THEN : (FOR LUMPED MASS i) (a) COMPUTE POSITION : r_i(t + Δt) (b) COMPUTE TEMPERATURE : θ_i(t + Δt) (c) GO TO (3) AND NEXT DROP=LUMPED MASS (i = i + 1) (5) INCREMENT TIME : t = t + Δt </pre> | (1.36) |
|---|--------|

³More sophisticated implicit solution methods for strongly interacting multi-component systems can be found in Zohdi [33-44].

Parameter	Value
Link one angular velocity	$\dot{\theta}_1 = 10 \text{ rad/s}$
Link two angular velocity	$\dot{\theta}_2 = 1 \text{ rad/s}$
Link three angular velocity	$\dot{\theta}_3 = 10 \text{ rad/s}$
Dispensing velocity	$v^d = 1 \text{ m/s}$
Link one	$L_1 = 1 \text{ m}$
Link two	$L_2 = 1 \text{ m}$
Link three	$L_3 = 0.5 \text{ m}$
Surrounding cooling fluid velocity	$\mathbf{v}_f = (10; 0; 0) \text{ m/s}$
Surrounding convective cooling coefficient	$h = 100 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K)}$
Volume fraction of phases 2	$v_1 = 0.75 \text{ and } v_2 = 0.25$
Phase 1 mass density	$\rho_1 = 2000 \text{ kg/m}^3$
Phase 2 mass density	$\rho_2 = 7000 \text{ kg/m}^3$
Temperature of the robot	400 K
Phase 1 heat capacity of the droplet	$C = 1000 \text{ J/(kg-K)}$
Phase 2 heat capacity of the droplet	$C = 1000 \text{ J/(kg-K)}$
Ambient temperature	$\theta_o = 325 \text{ K}$
Droplet radius	$R = 0.001 \text{ m}$
Phase 1 thermal conductivity	$k_1 = 10 \text{ W/(m-K)}$
Phase 2 thermal conductivity	$k_2 = 20 \text{ W/(m-K)}$
Pixel Charge	$q_p = (1 \cdot 10^{-7}; 0) \text{ C}$
Pixel Grid	$10 \cdot 10 \text{ pixels}$
Per unit volume charge for Phase 1	$q_1 = 0 \text{ C/m}^3$
Per unit volume charge for Phase 2	$q_2 = 1000 \text{ C/m}^3$
Radiative efficiency	$\epsilon = 0.75$

Table 2.1: Material parameters used in the example.

2 Example

Consider the three-link mechanism introduced at the beginning of this chapter, with material dispensed from the printer. The system parameters are shown in Table 2.1. The material that exits the printer initially has the temperature and velocity of the print head. The angular velocities are constant in this simple example. Ten-thousand time steps were used. The wall-clock simulation time was on the order of 0.03 seconds on a Macbook-Pro using a FORTRAN-90 code written by the author. The results are shown in Figures 2.4-2.6, with and without the electrical charging. Clearly, with the charge, one can print within the target, despite the inaccuracy of the robot. The speed at which this type of simulation can be completed allows one to answer the inverse question of what the combination of parameters should be for a desired result. In order to cast the objective mathematically, we set the problem up as a Machine Learning Algorithm (MLA). Following Zohdi [46], we formulate the objective as a cost-function minimization problem whereby a pattern at time $t = T = 1$ second is given by (Figure 2.1)

- Specifying the desired locations of the drops: $\mathbf{r}_i^{des}(t)$, $i = 1, \dots, N_d$ at time $t = T$,
- Determining where the drops have been placed by a trial set of parameter: $\mathbf{r}_i^{gen}(t)$, $i = 1, \dots, N_d$ at time $t = T$,
- Determining the difference the desired and generated patterns:

$$\Pi = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_d} \|\mathbf{r}_i^{des} - \mathbf{r}_i^{gen}\|}{\sum_{i=1}^{N_d} \|\mathbf{r}_i^{des}\|}, \quad (2.1)$$

- Systematically minimize Equation 2.1, $\min \Pi$, by varying the design parameters: $\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \Delta \mathbf{v}^d, q_p, g$.
- The system parameter search is conducted within the constrained ranges of $\dot{\theta}_1^{()}, \dot{\theta}_1^{(+)}, \dot{\theta}_2^{()}, \dot{\theta}_2^{(+)}, \dot{\theta}_3^{()}, \dot{\theta}_3^{(+)}, \Delta \mathbf{v}^{e()}, \Delta \mathbf{v}^d, \Delta \mathbf{v}^{e(+)}$ and $q_p^{()}, q_p, q_p^{(+)}$. These upper and lower limits would, in general, be dictated by what is physically possible with the machinery and materials available.

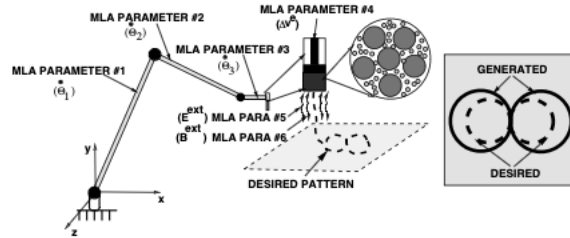


Figure 2.1: Machine Learning Algorithm model problem of a robot with a dispensing printer head.

2.1 System parameter search: Machine Learning Algorithm (MLA)

Here we follow Zohdi [45, 46] in order to minimize Equation 2.1, which we will refer to as a “cost function”. Cost functions such as Equation 2.1 are nonconvex in design parameter space and often nonsmooth. Their minimization is usually difficult with direct application of gradient methods. This motivates nonderivative search methods, for example those found in Machine Learning Algorithms (MLA’s). One of the most basic subset of MLA’s are so-called Genetic Algorithms (GA’s). Typically, one will use a GA first in order to isolate multiple local minima, and then use a gradient based algorithm in these locally convex regions or reset the GA to concentrate its search over these more constrained regions. GA’s are typically the simplest schemeto start the analysis, and one can, of course, use more sophisticated methods if warranted. For a review of GA’s, see the pioneering work of John Holland (Holland [47]), as well as Goldberg [48], Davis [49], Onwubiko [50], Lagaros et al. [51], Papadrakakis et al. [52-55] and Goldberg and Deb [56]. The GA approach is extremely well-suited for nonconvex, nonsmooth, multicomponent, multistage systems, and involves the following essential concepts:

1. **POPULATION GENERATION:** Generate system population: ${}^i \vec{r}_{1,2,3,4}, \dots, {}^i_N g = \vec{r}_{\dot{\theta}_1, \dot{\theta}_2, \dot{\theta}_3, \Delta v^d, q_p}^i$
2. **PERFORMANCE EVALUATION:** Compute fitness/performance of each genetic string: $\Pi({}^i)$ and rank them ($i = 1, \dots, N$)
3. **MATING PROCESS:** Mate pairs/produce offspring: ${}^i \Phi^{(I)} + (1 - \Phi^{(I)})^{i+1}$ where $0 \leq \Phi \leq 1$ (Figure 2.2)
4. **GENE ELIMINATION:** Eliminate poorly performing genetic strings, keep top parents and generated offspring
5. **POPULATION REGENERATION:** Repeat the process with the new gene pool and new *random* genetic strings
6. **SOLUTION POST-PROCESSING:** Employ gradient-based methods afterwards in the local “valleys”- *if smooth enough*

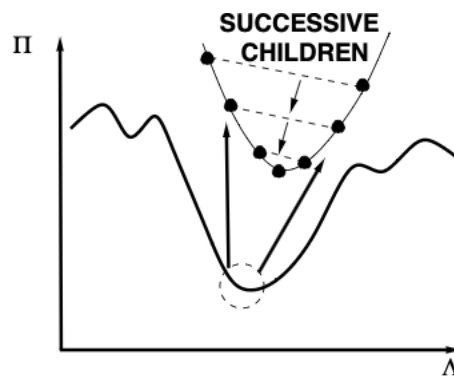


Figure 2.2: The basic action of a genetic algorithm.

DESIGN	Θ_1	Θ_2	Θ_3	Δv^d	q_p	Π
1	-5.94	-0.79	12.20	1.13	0.0000001285	0.0077391595
2	-8.48	-0.62	12.23	1.59	0.0000001169	0.0077464996
3	-9.13	-0.61	12.62	1.28	0.0000001214	0.0077469398
4	-7.91	-0.77	8.47	1.57	0.0000001237	0.0077470045
5	-9.06	-0.54	8.12	1.36	0.0000001122	0.0371113337
6	-8.47	-0.75	7.97	1.53	0.0000001310	0.0403717650
7	-8.50	-0.81	7.78	1.27	0.0000001207	0.0414568277
8	-9.00	-0.55	10.80	1.46	0.0000001462	0.0455584033
9	-8.37	-0.75	7.82	1.24	0.0000001463	0.0462887025
10	-8.74	-0.68	10.53	1.28	0.0000001227	0.0560576224

Table 2.2: The top 10 system parameter performers.

2.1.1 Algorithmic specifics

Following Zohdi [45, 46], the algorithm is as follows:

- **STEP 1:** Randomly generate a population of S starting genetic strings, i , ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, S$) :
 $i \Gamma_{1,2,3,4, \dots, N}^{i} g f \Theta_1, \Theta_2, \Theta_3, \Delta v^d, q_p g$
- **STEP 2:** Compute fitness of each string $\Pi(i)$, ($i=1, \dots, S$)
- **STEP 3:** Rank genetic strings: i , ($i=1, \dots, S$)
- **STEP 4:** Mate nearest pairs and produce two offspring, ($i=1, \dots, S$)
 $i \Phi^{(I)i} + (1 - \Phi^{(I)})^{i+1}, \quad i+1 \Phi^{(II)i} + (1 - \Phi^{(II)})^{i+1}$
- **STEP 5:** Eliminate the bottom $M < S$ strings and keep top $K < N$ parents and top K offspring (K offspring + K parents + $M = S$)
- **STEP 6:** Repeat STEPS 1-6 with top gene pool (K offspring and K parents), plus M new, randomly generated, strings
- **NOTE:** $\Phi^{(I)}$ and $\Phi^{(II)}$ are random numbers, such that $0 \leq \Phi^{(I)} \leq 1$, $0 \leq \Phi^{(II)} \leq 1$, which are different for each component of each genetic string
- **OPTION:** Rescale and restart search around best performing parameter set every few generations

Remark 1: If one selects the mating parameter Φ to be greater than one and/or less than zero, one can induce “mutations”. i.e. characteristics that neither parent possesses. However, this is somewhat redundant with introduction of new random members of the population in the current algorithm.

Remark 2: If one does not retain the parents in the algorithm above, it is possible that inferior performing offspring may replace superior parents. Thus, top parents should be kept for the next generation. This guarantees a monotone reduction in the cost function. Furthermore, retained parents do not need to be re-evaluated-making the algorithm less computationally expensive, since these parameter sets do not have to be re-evaluated (or ranked) in the next generation. Numerous studies of the author have shown that advantages parent retention outweighs inbreeding, for sufficiently large population sizes. Finally, we remark that this algorithm is easily parallelizable.

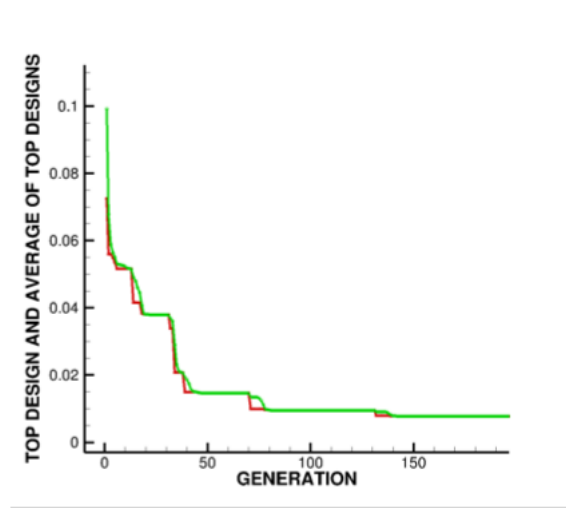


Figure 2.3: LEFT-USING THE Objective FUNCTION (II). Machine learning output, generation after generation. Shown are the best performing gene (design parameter set, in **red**) as a function of successive generations, as well as the average performance of the population of the top four genes (designs, in **green**).

2.2 MLA electrodynamic example

As a model problem, we used the result of the previous numerical example that generated the results and pattern in Figure 2.4 using

- $\dot{\Theta}_1 = 10$ rad/s,
- $\dot{\Theta}_2 = 1$ rad/s,
- $\dot{\Theta}_3 = 10$ rad/s,
- $\Delta v^d = 1$ m/s and
- $q_p = 10^{-7}$ C.

We used the following MLA settings:

- Number of design variables: 5,
- Search domain for $\dot{\Theta}_1$: $\dot{\Theta}_1 = 5 \quad \dot{\Theta}_1 = 30 = \dot{\Theta}_1^+$,
- Search domain for $\dot{\Theta}_2$: $\dot{\Theta}_2 = 0.5 \quad \dot{\Theta}_2 = 3 = \dot{\Theta}_2^+$,
- Search domain for $\dot{\Theta}_3$: $\dot{\Theta}_3 = 5 \quad \dot{\Theta}_3 = 30 = \dot{\Theta}_3^+$,
- Search domain for Δv^d : $\Delta v^{e,} = 0.5 \quad \Delta v^d = 3.5 = \Delta v^{e,+}$,
- Search domain for q_p : $q_p = 0 \quad q_p = 3 \cdot 10^{-7} = q_p^+$,
- Population size per generation: 20,
- Number of parents to keep in each generation: 4,
- Number of children created in each generation: 4,
- Number of completely new genes created in each generation: 12 and
- Number of generations: 200.

The algorithm was automatically reset every *30 generations*. The entire 200 generation simulation, with 20 genes per evaluation (8000 total designs) took on the order of 5 minutes of a laptop, *making it ideal as a design tool*. Figure 2.3 (average top four genes performance and top gene performance) and Table 2.2 (values of the gene components) illustrate the results. The MLA/GA is able to home in of a variety of possible designs, including the one corresponding to the original set of parameters that generated the test pattern and alternatives that achieve virtually the same results. This allows system designers to more flexibility in parameter selection. We note that, for a given set of parameters, a complete simulation takes on the order of 0.03 seconds, thus over 100,000 parameter sets can be evaluated in an hour, *without even exploiting the inherent parallelism of the MLA*. For more detailed micromechanical information on the behavior of the optimal result, Discrete Element Methods (DEM) are needed, and are discussed in the summary of this chapter.

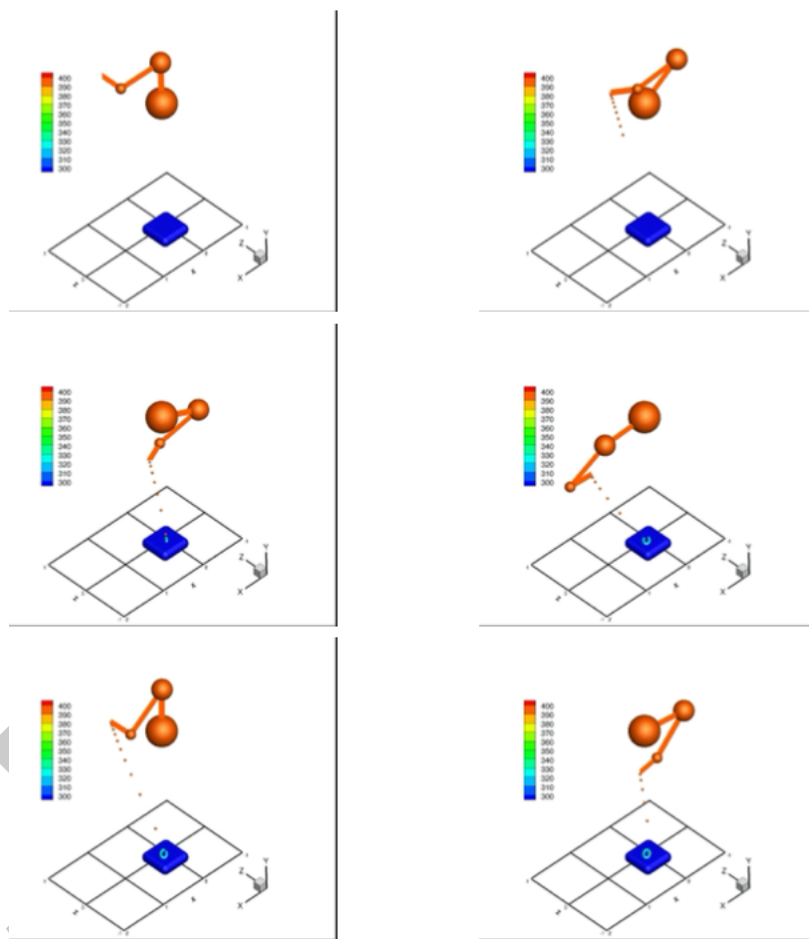


Figure 2.4: **WITH FAULT-TOLERANCE CHARGING**-A deposition pattern: left to right and top to bottom. The colors indicate the temperature. The robot temperature was 400 K (color coded orange) while the substrate was set as 300 K (color coded dark blue). The total time was $T = 1$ second and the time slabs are $\bar{T} = 0, 1/6, 1/3, 1/2, 2/3$ and 1 seconds. The robot started at position $\Theta_1 = \pi/2$, $\Theta_2 = 0$ and $\Theta_3 = 0$.

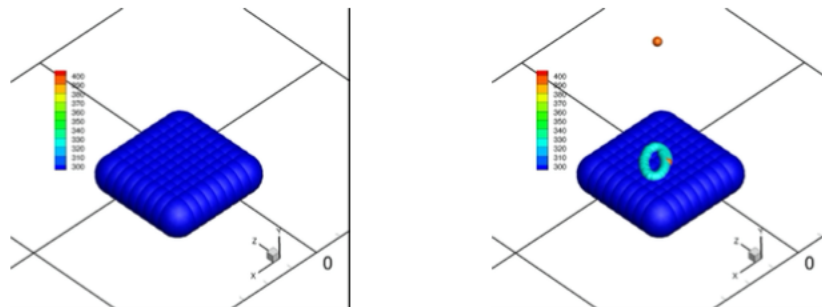


Figure 2.5: A zoom on the drops being deposited on the electrified pattern in Figure 2.4.

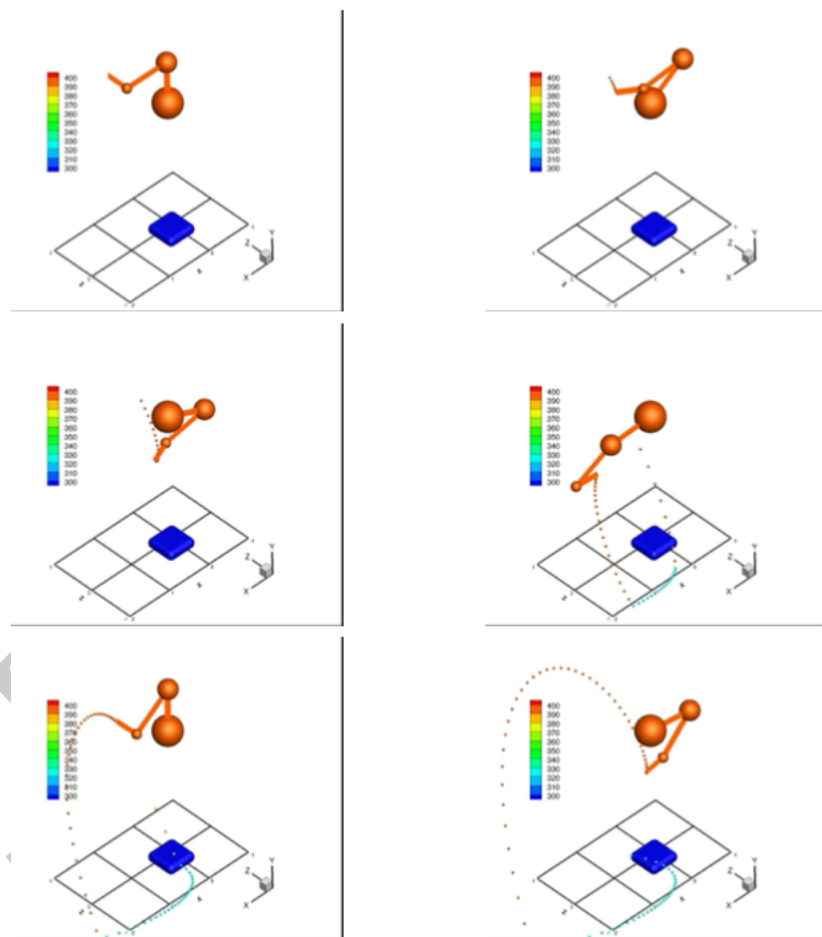


Figure 2.6: **WITHOUT FAULT-TOLERANCE CHARGING:** A deposition pattern: left to right and top to bottom. The colors indicate the temperature. The robot temperature was 400 K (color coded orange) while the substrate was set as 300 K (color coded dark blue). The total time was $T = 1$ second and the time slabs are $T = 0, 1/6, 1/3, 1/2, 2/3$ and 1 seconds. The robot started at position $\Theta_1 = \pi/2$, $\Theta_2 = 0$ and $\Theta_3 = 0$.

2.3 Extensions

In addition to the obvious use for industrial additive manufacturing processes, application of the methodology to the 3D bioprinting of flowing media containing cells is quite relevant. Over the last decade, there has been a steady increase in so-called bioprinting technology, whereby cells are combined with fluids containing nutrients, growth factors, etc, to make what is called a bioink. The slurry of material is then loaded into a 3D bioprinter that deposits the mixture, layer by layer onto a surface to build tissue-like structures, ligaments, cartilage, organs, for example on scaffolds or to make scaffolds. The liquid that the cells are immersed into provide the nutrients for the cells to remain alive. In some cases, the cells are encapsulated in a spherical shell within the fluid in order to keep the cells healthy. The field is relatively wide now (see [57-67]), but still has a common theme: the attempted deposition of a particle-embedded slurry. Some emerging variants of this technology have attempted to utilize electromagnetic fields. For example, magnetic 3D bioprinting attaches biocompatible magnetic nanoparticles to cells in order to magnetize them. Thereafter, the cells can be precisely and rapidly deposited onto patterns following the electromagnetic fields (see [68-76]). In this case, only a magnetic field is needed, since the cells are rendered magnetically sensitive due to added surfactants. We note that intrinsic magnetic (non-electromagnetic) forces can be approximated by a simple model, $\Psi^{mag} = r(\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{B}^{ext}) = r(\gamma \mathbf{B}^{ext} \cdot \mathbf{B}^{ext})$ (independently of the Lorentz forces), where γ is a material parameter that is related to the magnetization (\mathbf{m} ; magnetic dipole properties, susceptibility, permeability, moment density, etc.) of the element (see Feynman et al. [77], Cullity and Graham [78], Boyer [79] or Jackson [17]). Thus, for a spatially varying magnetic field we have

$$\Psi^{mag} = r(\gamma \mathbf{B}^{ext} \cdot \mathbf{B}^{ext}) = \gamma r(\mathbf{B}^{ext} \cdot \mathbf{B}^{ext}) = 2\gamma(r \mathbf{B}^{ext}) \cdot \mathbf{B}^{ext}, \quad (2.2)$$

or explicitly

$$\Psi^{mag} = 2 (r \mathbf{B}^{ext}) \cdot \mathbf{B}^{ext} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_3} \end{bmatrix}^{ext} \cdot \begin{Bmatrix} B_1 \\ B_2 \\ B_3 \end{Bmatrix}^{ext}; \quad (2.3)$$

In this case, we could construct the following additional genetic string

$$mag = f_{\frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_3}} g; \quad (2.4)$$

which would generalize the one used previously to read

$$= f_{\dot{\theta}_1, \dot{\theta}_2, \dot{\theta}_3, \Delta v^d, E^{ext}, B^{ext}, r B^{ext}} g, \quad (2.5)$$

explicitly,

$$= f_{-1, -2, -3, v^d, E_1^{ext}, E_2^{ext}, E_3^{ext}, B_1^{ext}, B_2^{ext}, B_3^{ext}, \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial B_1}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial B_3}{\partial x_3}} g. \quad (2.6)$$

3 Assignment

MODELING AND SIMULATION OF ROBOTIC 3D PRINTERS (100 POINTS)

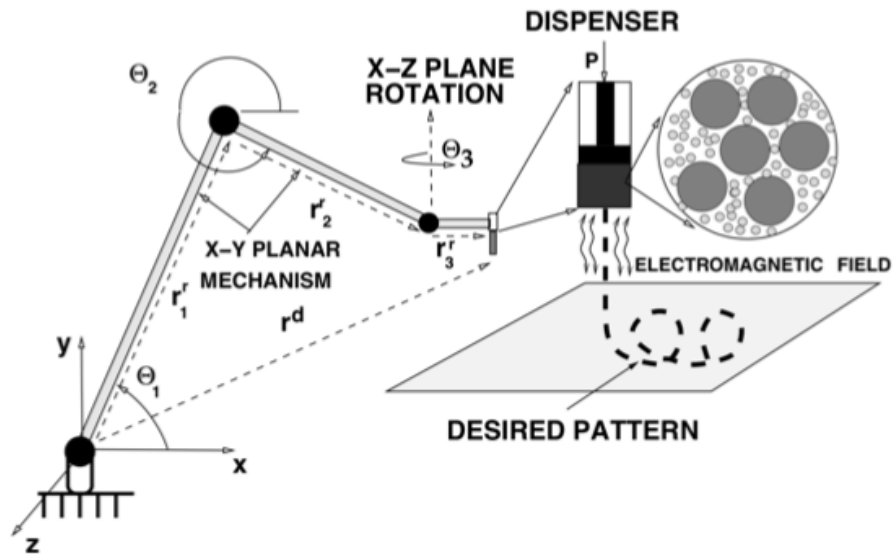


Figure 3.1: Coordinate System and Robot Schematic

Overview

In this project, you will simulate the operation of a free-form robotic 3D printer. Referring to Figure 1, the printer arm deposits electrically charged droplets above a substrate, with the substrate electrically charged in certain areas to attract the droplets. Using the simulation, you will employ a genetic algorithm to find control parameters that generate a printed pattern as close to a desired pattern as possible.

Problem Description

Part 1

The overall goal is to model the motion of the droplets. First, the robot arm dynamics can be modeled in order to obtain the starting position of the particles as they are released from the extruder located at the tip of the arm. The robot arm is modeled as a three-rod linkage system that has two rods rotating in the x-y plane and one rotating in x-z plane. Given the rod lengths $L_1; L_2; L_3$ and rod angular velocities $\dot{\theta}_1; \dot{\theta}_2; \dot{\theta}_3$, the dispenser position can be found using the equations below:

$$x_d = L_1 \cos \theta_1 + L_2 \cos \theta_2 + L_3 \sin \theta_3 \quad (3.1)$$

$$y_d = L_1 \sin \theta_1 + L_2 \sin \theta_2 \quad (3.2)$$

$$z_d = L_3 \cos \theta_3 \quad (3.3)$$

where the rod angles are changing with respect to the constant rod velocity components and initial rod angles:

$$\theta_j = \theta_j^0 + \dot{\theta}_j t \quad j = 1; 2; 3 \quad (3.4)$$

Dispenser velocity components can be found using the dispenser positions:

$$x_d = L_1 - 1 \sin \theta_1 - L_2 - 2 \sin \theta_2 + L_3 - 3 \cos \theta_3 \quad (3.5)$$

$$y_d = L_1 - 1 \cos \theta_1 + L_2 - 2 \cos \theta_2 \quad (3.6)$$

$$z_d = L_3 - 3 \sin \theta_3 \quad (3.7)$$

When the droplet is generated in the simulation at each time step, it starts at the dispenser position $\mathbf{r}_i^0 = \mathbf{r}^d = r_0 + (x_d; y_d; z_d)$ and has the velocity $\mathbf{v}_i^0 = \mathbf{v}^d + \mathbf{v}^d$ where \mathbf{v}^d is the extrusion speed of the dispenser. Now, the droplets can be initialized and therefore the droplet dynamics need to be defined.

In Part 1, the defined forces on the droplets are electric forces, drag forces, and gravitational forces. The gravitational force \mathbf{F}_i^{grav} is defined as:

$$\mathbf{F}_i^{grav} = (g_x; g_y; g_z) = (0; m_i g; 0) \quad (3.8)$$

where m_i is the mass of a droplet and $g = 9.81 m/s^2$.

The electric force F_i^{elec} is defined as:

$$F_i^{elec} = \sum_{p=1}^{N_c} \frac{q_p q_i}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r r_{ip}^2} (\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_p) \quad (3.9)$$

where q_p and r_p are the fixed point charges and the respective locations, ϵ_0 is the electric permittivity (equal to permittivity of free space), q_i and r_i are the droplet charges and locations, and N_c is the number of fixed point charges. The fixed-point charges are laid onto the printed in a grid-fashion. The electric forces between droplets are neglected in this model.

The drag force \mathbf{F}_i^{drag} is defined as:

$$\mathbf{F}_i^{drag} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a C_{Di} k v^f \mathbf{v}_i k (\mathbf{v}^f - \mathbf{v}_i) A_i^D \quad (3.10)$$

where ρ_a is the medium density, v^f is the medium velocity, v_i is the droplet velocity, A_i^D is the drag reference area (equal to $A_i^D = \pi R^2$), and C_{Di} is the drag coefficient. C_{Di} depends on the Reynolds number of the droplet, which is defined as:

$$Re = \frac{2R \rho_a k v^f}{\mu_f} \quad (3.11)$$

where μ_f is the medium viscosity and R is the droplet radius. The drag coefficient C_{Di} as a function of Reynolds number is as follows:

$$C_{Di} = \begin{cases} \frac{24}{Re}; & 0 < Re < 1 \\ \frac{24}{Re^{0.646}}; & 1 < Re < 400 \\ 0.5; & 400 < Re < 3 \cdot 10^5 \\ 0.000366 Re^{0.4275}; & 3 \cdot 10^5 < Re < 2 \cdot 10^6 \\ 0.18; & Re > 2 \cdot 10^6 \end{cases} \quad (3.12)$$

The previously mentioned density and charge values for the droplets are functions of the materials that make up the mixture. Therefore, the effective density ρ_i and effective charge q_i for the droplets can be calculated using the volume fractions of the materials that compose the droplet mixture.

$$\rho_i = (1 - v_2) \rho_1 + v_2 \rho_2 \quad (3.13)$$

$$q_i = (1 - v_2) h q_1 i + v_2 h q_2 i \quad (3.14)$$

where $\rho_1; \rho_2$ are the material density values and $h q_1 i; h q_2 i$ are material charge capacity values.

These values will also be used to calculate the lumped droplet charge $q_i = V_i q$ and droplet mass $m_i = V_i \rho_i$.

The forces on the droplets then can be combined to obtain the governing equation for a given i -th droplet:

$$m_i \mathbf{r}_i = \mathbf{r}_i^{tot} = F_i^{grav} + F_i^{elec} + F_i^{drag} \quad (3.15)$$

To obtain the time update equation for our model, velocity terms $v(t + \Delta t)$ and $v(t)$ and position terms $r(t + \Delta t)$ and $r(t)$ can be expanded using Taylor series about t to obtain the Forward Euler scheme:

$$r_i(t + \Delta t) = r_i(t) + \Delta t v_i(t) \quad (3.16)$$

$$v_i(t + \Delta t) = v_i(t) + \Delta t \mathbf{r}_i(t) \quad (3.17)$$

The main reason Forward Euler is used is because of its explicit nature, meaning that it requires no iteration to convergence the solution at a given time step. The position/velocity of the particle can be calculated at the next time step directly. However, it is conditionally stable (depending on time step size) and needs smaller time steps for accuracy. Time-stepping is only used in the first part of the project. The droplets that reach the printed bed are removed from the time-stepping algorithm and are permanently placed at their last calculated location.

The model is simulated for 3 seconds and the dispenser is extruding a droplet per time step, where the time-step size is $\Delta t = 0.001$ s. After all the droplets exit the dispenser, the model is run for an extra time to let all droplets settle on the printed bed.

Parameters used to model the system are given in the variable glossary.

Part 2

In this part of the project, the simplified free-fall model used enables us to analytically compute the droplet final locations, using $m \mathbf{r} = F^{grav}$. The electric and drag forces are removed to simplify the algorithm for the optimization process. Now, the inverse design problem is considered where a desired droplet pattern is provided and the required robot design parameters are requested. Instead of a gradient-based approach, a genetic algorithm is used to randomly generate design strings and use natural selection to find the best-fit string that produces a pattern closest to the given one.

A genetic algorithm is chosen over a gradient-based method as a way of avoiding calculating derivatives for a Newton-Raphson type of optimization. Also, gradient-based methods' inability to work with non-smooth and non-convex systems is avoided.

For the modeled system, the input parameters are the robot arm angular velocity components and the extrusion speed, which can be written as a design string:

$$\mathbf{\Lambda}^i = \{ -1^i; -2^i; -3^i; \mathbf{v}^d \} \quad (3.18)$$

For each design string, the model can be run to calculate the droplet final positions. The generated positions are then compared to the desired positions using a cost function:

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_d} \| \mathbf{r}_i^{des} - \mathbf{r}_i^{gen} \|}{\sum_{i=1}^{N_d} \| \mathbf{r}_i^{des} \|} \quad (3.19)$$

For applying a genetic algorithm, the algorithm is as follows:

Step 1: Generate S random genetic strings, where $i \in [1; \dots; S]$

$$= (\mathbf{\Lambda}^{(1)}; \mathbf{\Lambda}^{(2)}; \dots; \mathbf{\Lambda}^{(i)}; \dots; \mathbf{\Lambda}^{(S)})$$

where

$$\mathbf{\Lambda}^{(i)} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1^{(i)} & -1^+ \\ -2 & -2^{(i)} & -2^+ \\ -3 & -3^{(i)} & -3^+ \\ \mathbf{v}^d & \mathbf{v}^d(i) & \mathbf{v}^d,+ \end{pmatrix}$$

Step 2: Compute fitness of each string by evaluating $f(c^{(i)})$.

Step 3: Rank the genetic strings where top rank has the minimum cost function $f(c^{(i)})$.

Step 4: Mate the top pairs of genetic strings to obtain 2 children, such that:

$$c^{(i)} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{p^i}{1} + \frac{p^{(i+1)}}{1} (1 \quad 1) \\ -\frac{p^i}{2} + \frac{p^{(i+1)}}{2} (1 \quad 2) \\ -\frac{p^i}{3} + \frac{p^{(i+1)}}{3} (1 \quad 3) \\ \sqrt{d, p^i} + \sqrt{d, p^{(i+1)}} (1 \quad 4) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\alpha_j \in \text{rand}[0,1]$.

$$c^{(i+1)} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{p^{(i+1)}}{1} + \frac{p^i}{1} (\alpha_1 \quad 1) \\ -\frac{p^{(i+1)}}{2} + \frac{p^i}{2} (\alpha_2 \quad 2) \\ -\frac{p^{(i+1)}}{3} + \frac{p^i}{3} (\alpha_3 \quad 3) \\ \sqrt{d, p^{(i+1)}} + \sqrt{d, p^i} (\alpha_4 \quad 4) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\alpha_j \in \text{rand}[0,1]$.

Step 5: Generate $S - P$ new random genetic strings. Remove bottom $S - P$ original strings from population.

Step 6: Repeat steps 2-5 with new population until:

- G generations has been reached.
- $\min(f) < TOL$.

In this model the number of strings used is $S = 100$, while the number of parents and children are equal to $P = 10$. The GA is run until an error tolerance of $TOL = 0.02$ or $G = 100$ generations is reached. The rest of the parameters used in this optimization process are given in the variable glossary.

Deliverables

PART 1: FULL MODEL WITH ELECTRICAL FORCES

In the first part of this assignment we model the droplets' dynamics, with droplets deposited for each of N_t time steps, not including $t = 0$, for a total droplet count $N_d = N_t$: We place several point charges on a print surface at $y = 0$, with a 10-by-10 grid of points each with charge q_p . Center the grid at the origin within a square with sides of length L_{bed} . To generate the grid positions (same for both x and z components), you can use `linspace(-Lbed/2; Lbed/2; 10)` and `meshgrid()`. We model the printer arm extruding for a total simulation time $T = 3$ seconds, such that the time step size $\Delta t = T/N_t$ with $\Delta t = 0.001$ seconds. After all the droplets are extruded, continue the simulation with the same time step size until all droplets land on the substrate.

1. For all requested plots below, plot the point charges on the same figure. For visualization, let the boundary created by the point charges define the boundary created by the print bed.
2. Provide a plot of the final droplet pattern in a "top-down" ($z - x$) view. Color each droplet according its flight time (i.e. time in the air) using scatter and show the color axis with colorbar. Be sure to label your color-bar with title and units.
3. Provide a 3D plot of the tool path of the robot arm's dispenser end with the beginning and end of the tool-path marked on the same plot as the print pattern on the print bed with the first and last droplet marked. Be sure to label these points using a legend.
4. Explain why you think the resulting droplet pattern occurred.
5. Set the electrical force to 0. Compare the animations and final configurations of the droplets with and without the electrical force. What role does the electrically charged substrate have on the motion of the droplets? It is up to you how to present this comparison, but be sure it is clear in your report. What adversary force does the electrical force assist against?

PART 2: SIMPLIFIED FREE FALL MODEL WITH GENETIC ALGORITHM

For the simplified model, we change the following:

- Remove drag from the model.
- Remove the electrical forces, leaving only gravity.

In doing so, our droplet dynamics reduces to a free fall model. The extruder model does not change from Part 1. Because our droplets only move by gravity, they are under constant acceleration, and thus the final position of the droplets can be solved for analytically. You should solve for that analytical solution and use it in your code. Do not use time stepping for this part of the project.

Here, we provide a data file `robotprintdata.mat` which contains a variable `r_i`, a $3 \times N_d$ array where each column is a droplet's final position components with the columns ordered according to extrusion time. The aim of your genetic algorithm is to try and reproduce the design string \mathbf{d}^{des} that produced the desired droplet positions r_i^{des} by minimizing \mathcal{J} . It is your discretion how low to set your cost tolerance based on physical performance. You will not be evaluated on the final value of your cost function but rather if it converges and the pattern follows relatively closely to the desired pattern.

1. Analytically solve for the final position of the droplets on the print if they are in free fall. Show the steps to your derivation. Hint: Use constant acceleration kinematic equations from physics.
2. Describe the parameters you used in your GA. Use $S = 100$ genetic strings, $P = 10$ parents which generate $P = 10$ children in the same ordering as previous projects.
3. Provide a $z \times x$ "top-down" plot of the final droplet pattern on the same plot as the desired droplet pattern provided in the data file. How well does your design string follow the desired pattern?
4. Provide a convergence plot showing the total cost of the best design, the mean of all parent designs, and the mean of the overall population for each generation.
5. Report your best-performing 4 designs in a table.

VARIABLE GLOSSARY

Table 3.1: Model Parameters.

Symbol	Units	Value	Description
r_0	m	(0, 0.5, 0)	Fixed arm end position
$\Theta_1^0, \Theta_2^0, \Theta_3^0$	rad	$\pi/2, 0, 0$	Initial rod angles
$\dot{\Theta}_1^0, \dot{\Theta}_2^0, \dot{\Theta}_3^0$	rad/s	0.2, -0.2, 10	Link 1,2,3 angular velocity
L_{bed}	m	0.8	Charged grid side length
L_1, L_2, L_3	m	0.3, 0.2, 0.08	Rod lengths
g	m/s^2	9.81	Gravitational acceleration
ϵ	F/m	8.854×10^{12}	Electric permittivity
R	m	0.001	Droplet radius
v_2	-	0.25	Phase 2 volume fraction
ρ_1	kg/m^3	2000	Phase 1 density
ρ_2	kg/m^3	7000	Phase 2 density
q_1	C/m^3	0	Phase 1 charge capacity
q_2	C/m^3	1e-3	Phase 2 charge capacity
Δv^d	m/s	(0, -1.2, 0)	Relative extrusion velocity
q_p	C	8 105	Grid pixel charge
v^f	m/s	(0.5, 0, 0.5)	Surrounding medium velocity
ρ_a	kg/m^3	1.225	Surrounding medium density
μ_f	Pa/s	18 10	Surrounding medium viscosity
Δt	s	0.001	Time Step Size
T	s	3	Total Simulation Time
Θ_1^+, Θ_1^-	rad/s	[15, 16]	Search bounds for $\dot{\Theta}_1$
Θ_2^+, Θ_2^-	rad/s	[15, 16]	Search bounds for $\dot{\Theta}_2$
Θ_3^+, Θ_3^-	rad/s	[6, 7]	Search bounds for $\dot{\Theta}_3$
$\Delta v^{d,+}, \Delta v^{d,-}$	m/s	[-3.5, -3]	Search bounds for Δv^d

4 Solution

The assignment solution is encoded in Matlab below.

```

1
2 %% Part 1 - Full Model with Electrical Forces
3
4 close all; clear all; clc; %house-keeping
5
6 % Video start
7 tic
8 % v = VideoWriter('robotic.avi');
9 % open(v);
10
11 % Variables
12
13 %time
14 T = 3; %total simulation time [s] - exclude t=0
15 del_t = 0.001; %time step size [s]
16 N_t = T / del_t; %number of time steps
17 %values for bed + arm
18 L_bed = 0.8; %charged grid side length [m]
19 r_0 = [0,0.5,0]; %Fixed arm end position [m]
20 theta_0 = [pi/2,0,0]; %Initial rod angles [rad]
21 thetad = [0.2, -0.2,10]; %Link 1,2,3 angular velocity [rad/s]
22 L_rod = [0.3,0.2,0.08]; %Rod lengths [m]
23
24 %droplet
25 N_d = N_t; %number of droplets
26 R = 0.001; %droplet radius [m]
27
28 V_i = (4/3 pi R^3); %droplet volume [m3]
29 v_2 = 0.25; %phase 2 volume fraction
30 rho_1 = 2000; %phase 1 density [kg/m3]
31 rho_2 = 7000; %phase 2 density [kg/m3]
32 q_1 = 0; %phase 1 charge capacity [C/m3]
33 q_2 = 1e-3; %phase 2 charge capacity [C/m3]
34 del_v = [0, -1.2, 0]; %relative extrusion velocity [m/s]
35 %effective properties
36 rho_s = (1-v_2) rho_1 + v_2 rho_2; %effective density [kg/m3]
37 q_s = (1-v_2) q_1 + v_2 q_2; %effective charge capacity [C/m3]
38 %droplet charge
39 q_i = V_i q_s; %droplet charge [C]
40 %droplet mass
41 m_i = V_i rho_s; %droplet mass [kg]
42
43 N_t = round(1.2 N_t); %add time for particle settling
44
45
46 %gravity
47 g = -9.81; %gravitational acceleration [m/s2]
48 F_g = [0, g m_i, 0]; %gravity force [N]
49
50
51 %e+m grid

```



```

52 x_grid = linspace(=L_bed/2,L_bed/2,10);
53 z_grid = x_grid;
54 [X_grid, Z_grid] = meshgrid(x_grid, z_grid); %create grid of point charges
55 Y_grid = zeros(10,10);
56 r_p = [X_grid(:), Y_grid(:), Z_grid(:)]; %point charge positions [m]
57
58 %e+m charge
59 eps = 8.854e-12; %electric permittivity [F/m]
60 q_p = =8e=5; %grid pixel charge [C]
61
62 %drag
63 v_f = [0.5, 0, 0.5]; %surrounding medium velocity [m/s]
64 rho_a = 1.225; %surrounding medium density [kg/m3]
65 mu_f = 1.8e=5; %surrounding medium viscosity [Pa/s]
66 A_i = pi *R^2; %drag reference area[m2]
67
68 % Robotic Arm Dynamics
69
70 theta = theta_0;
71
72 %pre= allocations
73 x_d = [];
74 y_d = [];
75 z_d = [];
76 r_drop = NaN(N_d,3);
77 v_drop = NaN(N_d,3);
78 r_disp = NaN(1,3);
79 v_disp = NaN(1,3);
80 F_tot = NaN(1,3);
81 F_elec = NaN(1,3);
82 F_drag = NaN(1,3);
83
84 %color plot code
85 c = linspace(1,10,N_d);
86 t_fly = NaN(N_d,1);
87
88
89 for i= 1:N_t
90     if i<=N_d
91         %%%% Robotic Arm Dynamics %%%%
92         %dispenser position
93         theta = theta + thetad * del_t;
94         x_d = L_rod(1)*cos(theta(1)) + L_rod(2)*cos(theta(2)) + L_rod(3)*sin(
           theta(3));
95         y_d = L_rod(1)*sin(theta(1)) + L_rod(2)*sin(theta(2));
96         z_d = L_rod(3)*cos(theta(3));
97         r_disp = r_0 + [x_d,y_d,z_d]; %dispenser position
98
99         r_drop(i,:) = r_disp;
100
101         %robot arm location
102         x_a1 = r_0(1) + L_rod(1)*cos(theta(1));
103         y_a1 = r_0(2) + L_rod(1)*sin(theta(1));
104         x_a2 = x_a1 + L_rod(2)*cos(theta(2));

```

```

105     y_a2 = y_a1 + L_rod(2) sin(theta(2));
106     x_a = [0, x_a1, x_a2, r_disp(1)]; % x-coord of robot arm
107     y_a = [0, y_a1, y_a2, r_disp(2)]; % y-coord of robot arm
108     z_a = [0, 0, 0, r_disp(3)]; % z-coord of robot arm
109
110     %dispenser velocity
111     xd_d = -L_rod(1) thetad(1) sin(theta(1)) + -L_rod(2) thetad(2) sin(
            theta(2)) + L_rod(3) thetad(3) cos(theta(3));
112     yd_d = L_rod(1) thetad(1) cos(theta(1)) + L_rod(2) thetad(2) cos(theta
            (2));
113     zd_d = -L_rod(3) thetad(3) sin(theta(3));
114     v_disp = [xd_d, yd_d, zd_d]; %dispenser velocity
115
116     v_drop(i, :) = v_disp + del_v;
117 end
118
119 %%%% Droplet Dynamics %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
120
121
122
123 %forward euler
124 if i <= N_d
125     for k = 1:i
126         if r_drop(k, 2) <= 0
127             r_drop(k, 2) = 0;
128             if isnan(t_fly(k))
129                 t_fly(k) = i;
130             end
131         else
132             %e+m
133             F_elec = [0 0 0]; %reset elec force
134             for m = 1: numel(r_p(:, 1))
135                 F_elec = F_elec + (q_p - q_i) / (4 pi eps (norm(r_drop(k, :) -
                    r_p(m, :)))^3) (r_drop(k, :) - r_p(m, :));
136             end
137             %drag
138             Re = (2 R rho_a norm(v_f - v_drop(k, :))) / (mu_f);
139             if Re < 1
140                 CD_i = Re / 24;
141             elseif Re <= 400
142                 CD_i = 24 / Re^0.0646;
143             elseif Re <= 3e5
144                 CD_i = 0.5;
145             elseif Re <= 2e6
146                 CD_i = 0.000366 Re^0.4275;
147             else
148                 CD_i = 0.18;
149             end
150             F_drag = (1/2) rho_a CD_i norm(v_f - v_drop(k, :)) (v_f - v_drop(k
                , :)) A_i;
151             %total force
152             F_tot = F_g + F_drag + F_elec;
153             r_drop(k, :) = r_drop(k, :) + del_t . v_drop(k, :);
154             v_drop(k, :) = v_drop(k, :) + del_t ./ m_i . F_tot;

```

```

155         end
156     end
157 else
158     for k = 1:N_d
159         if r_drop(k,2)<=0
160             r_drop(k,2)=0;
161             if isnan(t_fly(k))
162                 t_fly(k)=i;
163             end
164         else
165             %e+m
166             F_elec = [0 0 0]; %reset elec force
167             for m = 1:numel(r_p(:,1))
168                 F_elec = F_elec + (q_p - q_i)/(4 pi eps (norm(r_drop(k,:)-
169                     r_p(m,:))^3) (r_drop(k,:)-r_p(m,:)));
170             end
171             %drag
172             Re = (2 R rho_a norm(v_f-v_drop(k,:)))/(mu_f);
173             if Re<1
174                 CD_i = Re/24;
175             elseif Re<=400
176                 CD_i = 24/Re^0.0646;
177             elseif Re<=3e5
178                 CD_i = 0.5;
179             elseif Re<=2e6
180                 CD_i = 0.000366 Re^0.4275;
181             else
182                 CD_i = 0.18;
183             end
184             F_drag = (1/2) rho_a CD_i norm(v_f-v_drop(k,:)) (v_f-v_drop(k
185                 ,:)) A_i;
186             %total force
187             F_tot = F_g + F_drag + F_elec;
188             r_drop(k,:) = r_drop(k,:) + del_t . v_drop(k,:);
189             v_drop(k,:) = v_drop(k,:) + del_t./m_i . F_tot;
190         end
191     end
192 end
193
194 %%%% Plotting %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
195
196 if mod(i,10) == 0 % update movie frame
197     figure(1)
198
199     scatter3(r_drop(:,1), r_drop(:,3), r_drop(:,2), [], c)
200     %scatter(x,y,[],c)
201     hold on
202     plot3(x_a, z_a, y_a, 'o-', 'Color', 'r', 'LineWidth', 3)
203     scatter3(r_p(:,1), r_p(:,3), r_p(:,2), 'd', 'm', 'filled')
204     xlim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
205     ylim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
206     zlim([0, 2]);

```

```

207 xlabel('X[m]');
208 ylabel('Z[m]');
209 zlabel('Y[m]');
210 view(45, 45);
211 grid on;
212 title('Full Model')
213 cb = colorbar ; %Create Colorbar
214 cb.Ticks = linspace(1, 10, 2) ;
215 cb.TickLabels = f'old', 'new'g ;
216 set(get(cb, 'title'), 'string', 'Particle Deposition');
217 % frame = getframe(gcf);
218 % writeVideo(v, frame);
219 end
220
221
222 % if i == N_t % figures for t=1,2,3,final
223 % figure(1)
224 % scatter3(r_drop(:,1), r_drop(:,3), r_drop(:,2), [], c)
225 % %scatter(x,y,[],c)
226 % hold on
227 % plot3(x_a, z_a, y_a, 'o-', 'Color', 'r', 'LineWidth', 3)
228 % scatter3(r_p(:,1), r_p(:,3), r_p(:,2), 'd', 'm', 'filled')
229 % xlim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
230 % ylim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
231 % zlim([0, 2]);
232 % xlabel('X[m]');
233 % ylabel('Z[m]');
234 % zlabel('Y[m]');
235 % view(45, 45);
236 % grid on;
237 % title('Full Model')
238 % cb = colorbar ; %Create Colorbar
239 % cb.Ticks = linspace(1, 10, 2) ;
240 % cb.TickLabels = f'old', 'new'g ;
241 % set(get(cb, 'title'), 'string', 'Particle Deposition');
242 % end
243
244 hold off
245 end
246
247 % t_fly = t_fly - [1:1:N_d]'; % figure for flight time
248 %
249 % t_fly_act = t_fly del_t;
250 % %
251 % c = linspace(min(t_fly_act), max(t_fly_act), length(t_fly_act));
252 % figure(1) % figure for droplet pattern w/ flight time
253 % scatter3(r_drop(:,1), r_drop(:,3), t_fly_act, [], c)
254 % hold on
255 % %plot3(x_a, z_a, y_a, 'o-', 'Color', 'r', 'LineWidth', 3)
256 % scatter3(r_p(:,1), r_p(:,3), r_p(:,2), 'd', 'm', 'filled')
257 % xlim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
258 % ylim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
259 % zlim([0, 2]);
260 % xlabel('X[m]');

```

```

261 % ylabel('Z[m]');
262 % xlabel('Y[m]');
263 % view(90, 270);
264 % grid on;
265 % title('Full Model')
266 % cb = colorbar ; %Create Colorbar
267 % %cb.Ticks = linspace(1, 10, 2) ;
268 % %cb.TickLabels = 'old', 'new'g ;
269 % set(get(cb, 'title'), 'string', 'Flight Time [s]');
270
271
272
273 % frame = getframe(gcf); %video write
274 % writeVideo(v, frame);
275 % hold off
276 % close(v);
277 toc;
278
279 %% Part 2 – Simplified Free Fall Model with Genetic Algorithm
280
281 close all; clear all; clc; %house-keeping
282
283 tic
284 % Variables
285
286 %import data file
287 load('robotprint_data.mat', 'ri')
288 ri = ri';
289
290
291 %time
292 T = 3; %total simulation time [s] – exclude t=0
293 del_t = 0.001; %time step size [s]
294 N_t = T / del_t; %number of time steps
295 %values for bed + arm
296 L_bed = 0.8; %charged grid side length [m]
297 r_0 = [0, 0.5, 0]; %Fixed arm end position [m]
298 theta_0 = [pi/2, 0, 0]; %Initial rod angles [rad]
299 %thetad = [0.2, -0.2, 10]; %Link 1,2,3 angular velocity [rad/s] – OPTIMIZED
300 L_rod = [0.3, 0.2, 0.08]; %Rod lengths [m]
301
302 %droplet
303 N_d = N_t; %number of droplets
304 R = 0.001; %droplet radius [m]
305
306 V_i = (4/3 * pi * R^3); %droplet volume [m3]
307 v_2 = 0.25; %phase 2 volume fraction
308 rho_1 = 2000; %phase 1 density [kg/m3]
309 rho_2 = 7000; %phase 2 density [kg/m3]
310 %del_v = [0, -1.2, 0]; %relative extrusion velocity [m/s] – OPTIMIZED
311 %effective properties
312 rho_s = (1-v_2) * rho_1 + v_2 * rho_2; %effective density [kg/m3]
313 %droplet mass
314 m_i = V_i * rho_s; %droplet mass [kg]

```

```

315
316
317 %gravity
318 g = -9.81; %gravitational acceleration [m/s2]
319 F_g = [0, g * m_i, 0]; %gravity force [N]
320
321 %total force
322 F_tot = F_g;
323
324 %%%GENETIC ALGORITHM START%%
325
326 %general GA parameters
327 S = 100; % # of genetic strings
328 P = 10; % # of parents
329 C = 10; % # of children
330 TOL = 0.02; % error tolerance
331
332 %%Step 1: Create S design strings
333 thetad = zeros(S,3);
334 del_v = zeros(S,3);
335
336 thetad(:,1) = 15 + (16-15). rand(S,1);
337 thetad(:,2) = 15 + (16-15). rand(S,1);
338 thetad(:,3) = 6 + (7-6). rand(S,1);
339 del_v(:,2) = -3.5 + (-3-(-3.5)). rand(S,1);
340
341 time = [del_t:del_t:T];
342
343 %pre-allocation
344 r_drop_all = NaN(N_d,3,S);
345 Pi = NaN(S,1);
346
347 n_gen = 0; %number of generations counter
348 j = 1; %while loop counter
349 Pi(1)= 1000; %high Pi to start while loop
350
351 while min(Pi)>TOL
352     for k = 1:S %string loop
353         %determine dispenser position & velocity for each droplet
354         theta = theta_0 + thetad(k,:). time(:);
355         x_d = L_rod(1). cos(theta(:,1)) + L_rod(2). cos(theta(:,2)) + L_rod(3).
            sin(theta(:,3));
356         y_d = L_rod(1) sin(theta(:,1)) + L_rod(2) sin(theta(:,2));
357         z_d = L_rod(3) cos(theta(:,3));
358         r_disp = r_0 + [x_d,y_d,z_d]; %dispenser position
359
360         %dispenser velocity
361         xd_d = -L_rod(1) thetad(k,1) sin(theta(:,1)) + -L_rod(2) thetad(k,2) sin(
            theta(:,2)) + L_rod(3) thetad(k,3) cos(theta(:,3));
362         yd_d = L_rod(1) thetad(k,1) cos(theta(:,1)) + L_rod(2) thetad(k,2) cos(
            theta(:,2));
363         zd_d = -L_rod(3) thetad(k,3) sin(theta(:,3));
364         v_disp = [xd_d,yd_d,zd_d]; %dispenser velocity
365

```

```

366 %analytical solution for particle final position
367 t_fly = -(v_disp(:,2)+del_v(k,2))-sqrt((v_disp(:,2)+del_v(k,2)).^2-2
      F_tot(2)./m_i. r_disp(:,2))./(F_tot(2)./m_i);
368 r_drop = F_tot./(2 m_i). t_fly.^2 + (v_disp+del_v(k,:)). t_fly + r_disp;
369 r_drop(:,2) = 0; %correction for truncation error when t_fly plugged in
370
371 %record droplet position of all strings
372 r_drop_all(:, :, k) = r_drop;
373
374 errNum = 0; % initialize error numerator as zero
375 errDen = 0; % initialize error denominator as zero
376 %%Step 2: Evaluate fitness of strings
377 r_diff = ri-r_drop;
378
379 for m = 1:N_d
380     errNum_e = norm(r_diff(m,:));
381     errDen_e = norm(ri(m,:));
382     errNum = errNum + errNum_e;
383     errDen = errDen + errDen_e;
384 end
385 Pi(k) = errNum/errDen;
386 end
387
388 %%Step 3: Rank the strings by ascending value of Pi
389 [Pi,ind] = sort(Pi); % keep the original indices for finding associated
      Lam,uh
390 r_drop_all = r_drop_all(:, :, ind); %align des strings and sol vectors in
      order it was sorted above
391 thetad = thetad(ind, :);
392 del_v = del_v(ind, :);
393
394 %%Step 4: Mate top strings
395 %mate for thetad
396 phi = rand(P,3); % calculate phi
397 ind1 = [1:2:P]'; % child 1 index pair
398 ind2 = [2:2:P]'; % child 2 index pair
399 thetad = vertcat(thetad(1:P,:), phi(ind1). thetad(ind1, :)+(1-phi(ind1)).
      thetad(ind2, :), ...
400     phi(ind2). thetad(ind2, :)+(1-phi(ind2)). thetad(ind1, :)); %
      concatenate c on p
401 %mate for del_v
402 phi = rand(P,1); % calculate phi
403 del_v = vertcat(del_v(1:P,:), phi(ind1). del_v(ind1, :)+(1-phi(ind1)). del_v
      (ind2, :), ...
404     phi(ind2). del_v(ind2, :)+(1-phi(ind2)). del_v(ind1, :)); % concatenate
      c on p
405
406 %%Step 5: Generate S-2P new strings
407
408 thetad = vertcat(thetad, [15 + (16-15). rand(S-2 P,1), 15 + (16-15). rand(S
      -2 P,1), 6 + (7-6). rand(S-2 P,1)]);
409 del_v = vertcat(del_v, [zeros(S-2 P,1), -3.5 + (-3-(-3.5)). rand(S-2 P,1),
      zeros(S-2 P,1)]);
410

```

```

411 %Save generation-based outputs
412 Min(j)=min(Pi);
413 Ave(j)=mean(Pi);
414 Ave_parent(j)=mean(Pi(1:P));
415
416 n_gen = n_gen + 1; %number of generations counter
417 j = j + 1; %while loop counter
418
419 if n_gen >= 100
420     break
421 end
422 end
423
424
425
426
427 %%%% Gen Plotting %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
428 figure(1)
429 plot(1:n_gen,Min,'b',1:n_gen,Ave,'r',1:n_gen,Ave_parent,'g')
430 legend('Best Design','Mean of Population','Mean of Parents')
431 xlabel('Generation')
432 ylabel('Error')
433 title('GA Results')
434 xtickformat('%0f')
435 hold off
436
437 %%%%Obtain Best Design Parameters%%%%%%%%%
438 Lambda = horzcat(thetad(1,:), del_v(1,2));
439
440 r_drop_best = r_drop_all(:, :, 1);
441 %%%% Plotting %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
442 figure(2)
443 plot3(r_drop_best(:,1), r_drop_best(:,3), r_drop_best(:,2), '--', 'Color', 'r
444     ')
445 %scatter3(r_drop_best(:,1), r_drop_best(:,3), r_drop_best(:,2), 'b', 'filled
446     ')
447 hold on
448 plot3(ri(:,1), ri(:,3), ri(:,2), '-', 'Color', 'b')
449 %scatter3(r_drop_best(:,1), r_drop_best(:,3), r_drop_best(:,2), 'b', 'filled
450     ')
451 %xlim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
452 %ylim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
453 zlim([0, 2]);
454 xlabel('X[m]');
455 ylabel('Z[m]');
456 zlabel('Y[m]');
457 view(90, 270);
458 grid on;
459 hold off
460 toc;
461
462 figure(3)
463 comparepattern(Lambda(1),Lambda(2),Lambda(3),Lambda(4))
464
465

```



```

462 %% EXTRA - Simulate best design
463 % Video start
464 tic
465 % v = VideoWriter('roboticGA.avi');
466 % open(v);
467
468 % Variables
469
470 %time
471 T = 3; %total simulation time [s] - exclude t=0
472 del_t = 0.001; %time step size [s]
473 N_t = T / del_t; %number of time steps
474 %values for bed + arm
475 L_bed = 0.8; %charged grid side length [m]
476 r_0 = [0,0.5,0]; %Fixed arm end position [m]
477 theta_0 = [pi/2,0,0]; %Initial rod angles [rad]
478 thetad = Lambda(1:3); %Link 1,2,3 angular velocity [rad/s]
479 L_rod = [0.3,0.2,0.08]; %Rod lengths [m]
480
481 %droplet
482 N_d = N_t; %number of droplets
483 R = 0.001; %droplet radius [m]
484
485 V_i = (4/3 pi R^3); %droplet volume [m3]
486 v_2 = 0.25; %phase 2 volume fraction
487 rho_1 = 2000; %phase 1 density [kg/m3]
488 rho_2 = 7000; %phase 2 density [kg/m3]
489 q_1 = 0; %phase 1 charge capacity [C/m3]
490 q_2 = 1e-3; %phase 2 charge capacity [C/m3]
491 del_v = [0, Lambda(4), 0]; %relative extrusion velocity [m/s]
492 %effective properties
493 rho_s = (1-v_2) rho_1 + v_2 rho_2; %effective density [kg/m3]
494 q_s = (1-v_2) q_1 + v_2 q_2; %effective charge capacity [C/m3]
495 %droplet charge
496 q_i = V_i q_s; %droplet charge [C]
497 %droplet mass
498 m_i = V_i rho_s; %droplet mass [kg]
499
500 N_t = round(1.2 N_t); %add time for particle settling
501
502
503 %gravity
504 g = -9.81; %gravitational acceleration [m/s2]
505 F_g = [0, g m_i, 0]; %gravity force [N]
506
507 % Robotic Arm Dynamics
508
509 theta = theta_0;
510
511 %pre-allocations
512 x_d = [];
513 y_d = [];
514 z_d = [];
515 r_drop = NaN(N_d,3);

```

```

516 v_drop = NaN(N_d,3);
517 r_disp = NaN(1,3);
518 v_disp = NaN(1,3);
519 F_tot = NaN(1,3);
520
521
522 for i= 1:N_t
523     if i<=N_d
524         %%% Robotic Arm Dynamics %%%
525         %dispenser position
526         theta = theta + thetad * del_t;
527         x_d = L_rod(1)*cos(theta(1)) + L_rod(2)*cos(theta(2)) + L_rod(3)*sin(
                    theta(3));
528         y_d = L_rod(1)*sin(theta(1)) + L_rod(2)*sin(theta(2));
529         z_d = L_rod(3)*cos(theta(3));
530         r_disp = r_0 + [x_d,y_d,z_d]; %dispenser position
531
532         r_drop(i,:) = r_disp;
533
534         %robot arm location
535         x_a1 = r_0(1) + L_rod(1)*cos(theta(1));
536         y_a1 = r_0(2) + L_rod(1)*sin(theta(1));
537         x_a2 = x_a1 + L_rod(2)*cos(theta(2));
538         y_a2 = y_a1 + L_rod(2)*sin(theta(2));
539         x_a = [0,x_a1,x_a2,r_disp(1)]; % x=coord of robot arm
540         y_a = [0,y_a1,y_a2,r_disp(2)]; % y=coord of robot arm
541         z_a = [0,0,0,r_disp(3)]; % z=coord of robot arm
542
543         %dispenser velocity
544         xd_d = L_rod(1)*thetad(1)*sin(theta(1)) + L_rod(2)*thetad(2)*sin(
                    theta(2)) + L_rod(3)*thetad(3)*cos(theta(3));
545         yd_d = L_rod(1)*thetad(1)*cos(theta(1)) + L_rod(2)*thetad(2)*cos(theta
                    (2));
546         zd_d = L_rod(3)*thetad(3)*sin(theta(3));
547         v_disp = [xd_d,yd_d,zd_d]; %dispenser velocity
548
549         v_drop(i,:) = v_disp + del_v;
550     end
551
552     %%% Droplet Dynamics %%%
553
554
555
556     %forward euler
557     if i<=N_d
558         for k = 1:i
559             if r_drop(k,2)<=0
560                 r_drop(k,2)=0;
561             else
562                 F_tot = F_g;
563                 r_drop(k,:) = r_drop(k,:) + del_t .* v_drop(k,:);
564                 v_drop(k,:) = v_drop(k,:) + del_t./m_i .* F_tot;
565             end
566         end
567     end

```

```

567 else
568     for k = 1:N_d
569         if r_drop(k,2)<=0
570             r_drop(k,2)=0;
571         else
572             %total force
573             F_tot = F_g;
574             r_drop(k,:) = r_drop(k,:) + del_t . v_drop(k,:);
575             v_drop(k,:) = v_drop(k,:) + del_t./m_i . F_tot;
576         end
577     end
578 end
579 %%%% Plotting %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
580
581 if mod(i,10) == 0 % update movie frame
582 figure(4)
583
584 scatter3(r_drop(:,1), r_drop(:,3), r_drop(:,2), 'r', 'filled')
585 hold on
586 plot3(x_a, z_a, y_a, 'o-', 'Color', 'g', 'LineWidth', 3)
587 plot3(ri(:,1), ri(:,3), ri(:,2), '-', 'Color', 'b')
588 xlim([-2, 2.5]);
589 ylim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
590 zlim([min(ri(:,3)), 2+min(ri(:,3))]);
591 xlabel('X[m]');
592 ylabel('Z[m]');
593 zlabel('Y[m]');
594 view(225, 45);
595 %view(90, 270);
596 grid on;
597 title('Full Model')
598 %     frame = getframe(gcf);
599 %     writeVideo(v, frame);
600 end
601 hold off
602
603 %     if i == N_t % figures for t=1,2,3,final
604 %         figure(1)
605 %         scatter3(r_drop(:,1), r_drop(:,3), r_drop(:,2), 'r', 'filled')
606 %         hold on
607 %         plot3(x_a, z_a, y_a, 'o-', 'Color', 'g', 'LineWidth', 3)
608 %         plot3(ri(:,1), ri(:,3), ri(:,2), '-', 'Color', 'b')
609 %         xlim([-2, 2.5]);
610 %         ylim([-L_bed/2, L_bed/2]);
611 %         zlim([min(ri(:,3)), 2+min(ri(:,3))]);
612 %         xlabel('X[m]');
613 %         ylabel('Z[m]');
614 %         zlabel('Y[m]');
615 %         view(225, 45);
616 %         grid on;
617 %         title('Full Model')
618 %     end
619
620 end

```

```
621
622
623 % frame = getframe(gcf);
624 % writeVideo(v,frame);
625 % hold off
626 % close(v);
627 toc;
```

BETA DRAFT

5 Ethical Considerations for this Project

A goal of this project is to enable advancements in science and engineering through to address critical national challenges associated with next generation food systems. There are deep ethical considerations associated with any technology, in particular for food systems. While technology has tremendous potential to identify greater efficiencies, when it is created without appropriate consideration for who will have access to and control over new resources, or how the new technologies will impact those who work in the system, the efficiencies identified may come at the cost of greater societal inequity. It is important to pursue harnessing technology to disrupt existing inequities, rather than further entrench existing power structures. The following areas should be considered:

- Labor: 1) occupational health, 2) food manufacturing, and 3) outdoor agriculture labor;
- Producers: 1) Small- to mid-size farms, 2) urban agriculture, and 3) research in farm transitions;
Technology: 1) research in technology and democracy;
- Health Human Rights: 1) land rights, 2) social justice, and 3) decolonization in agriculture;

Please consider the following questions:

- What are the societal implications of the technology that you are developing?
- Can this technology be distributed fairly and equitably to a wide variety of entities in agricultural industry?
- Are there any potential unintended consequences of this technology becoming available?
- Are there any harmful “spinoffs” of this technology?
- Are there any useful “spinoffs” of this technology?

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