

# A bio-inspired self-burrowing probe in shallow granular materials

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## ABSTRACT

Bio-inspired strategies have been used in recent years to solve engineering problems in geotechnics. Inspired by the dual-anchor locomotion mechanism of razor clams, researchers are developing a new generation of self-burrowing probes for a wide range of applications such as site exploration and sensor deployment. Due to inherent complexities of the bio-inspired self-burrowing mechanism, the interaction between the probe and soil is not fully understood, hindering the development of physical prototypes. In this study, a model based on the discrete element method (DEM) is used to prove feasibility, study and optimize the self-burrowing process of a probe. The probe burrows in a gravity-settled chamber filled with a scaled discrete analogue of a silica sand. A stepwise methodology including essential anchor expansion, tip penetration and anchor retraction behaviors is proposed to model the self-burrowing process. Tip oscillation is introduced to reduce penetration resistance, which enables efficient burrowing through continuous cycles. However, the reduction strategy of soil resistance consumes more than 50% of the total work done by the entire self-burrowing cycle. Micromechanical observations such as contact force network and particle displacement field are provided to clearly visualize the interaction between the soil and the probe. Whilst the total energy necessary to penetrate is larger than an equivalent constant rate penetration, the feasibility of such probe is numerically proven.

**KEYWORDS:** bio-inspiration, self-burrowing probe, discrete element method, granular materials

## 25 **List of Notations**

26	$D_{50}$	particle mean size
27	$D_C$	chamber diameter
28	$D_r$	relative density
29	$D_S$	original shaft diameter
30	$D_{SA}$	shaft anchor diameter
31	$D_{TA}$	tip anchor diameter
32	$d_c$	probe tip cone diameter
33	$ER_S$	shaft expansion ratio
34	$ER_T$	tip expansion ratio
35	$F_n$	normal contact force at particle scale
36	$F_{N,z}$	neck vertical force
37	$F_{SA}$	shaft anchor capacity
38	$F_{S,bot,z}$	vertical force on shaft bottom surface
39	$F_{S,r}$	actual shaft radial force
40	$F_{S,r,inc}$	shaft radial force increment
41	$F_{S,r,target}$	target shaft radial force achieved during expansion
42	$F_{S,r,tot}^t$	resultant shaft radial force
43	$F_{S,z}$	shaft vertical (anchor) force
44	$F_{S,z,max}$	maximum shaft vertical (anchor) force
45	$F_{Tcone,x}$	tip cone force along x-axis direction
46	$F_{Tcone,z}$	tip cone vertical force
47	$F_{Tcyl,top,z}$	vertical force on tip cylinder top surface
48	$F_{Tcyl,z}$	tip cylinder vertical force
49	$F_{Tcyl,z,max}$	maximum tip cylinder vertical force
50	$F_{Tcyl,r}$	radial force measured on tip cylinder
51	$F_{Tcyl,r,target}$	target radial force on tip cylinder achieved during expansion
52	$F_{TA}$	tip anchor capacity
53	$F_{top,z}$	vertical force on the probe top
54	$g$	gravitational acceleration
55	$G$	shear modulus
56	$H_C$	Chamber height
57	$h$	burrowing depth

58	$h_E$	height of probe embedment
59	$h_N$	height of probe neck
60	$h_S$	height of probe shaft
61	$h_{TCyl}$	height of probe tip cylinder
62	$l_p$	probe length
63	$m_p$	probe mass
64	$m_S$	shaft mass
65	$n$	number of load increments for shaft expansion
66	$n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4$ and $n_5$	scaling factors
67	$n_p$	probe/particle size ratio
68	$N$	particle number
69	$Q_T$	tip resisting force during penetration
70	$Q_S$	shaft resisting force during shaft retraction
71	$r_1, r_2$	rough model parameters
72	$R_d$	chamber/probe diameter ratio
73	$S_q$	surface roughness
74	$t_l$	tip oscillation time length
75	$v_{Tcyl,r}$	tip cylinder radial expansion velocity
76	$v_{S,r}$	shaft radial expansion velocity
77	$v_{S,r}^t$	shaft radial expansion velocity at time $t$
78	$v_{S,r}^{t+\Delta t}$	shaft radial expansion velocity at time $(t+\Delta t)$
79	$v_p$	tip penetration velocity
80	$v_{SC}$	shaft contraction velocity
81	$v_{SR}$	shaft retraction velocity
82	$v_{TC}$	tip contraction velocity
83	$v_{TO}$	oscillation velocity of tip point along one single vertical plane
84	$W_{CRP}$	work done by constant rate penetration
85	$W_{SC}$	work done by shaft contraction
86	$W_{SE}$	work done by shaft expansion
87	$W_{SR}$	work done by shaft retraction
88	$W_{TC}$	work done by tip contraction
89	$W_{TE}$	work done by tip expansion
90	$W_{TO}$	work done by tip oscillation
91	$W_{tot}$	total self-burrowing work

92	$W_{TP}$	work done by tip penetration
93	$\sigma_z$	vertical stress
94	$\mu$	friction coefficient of soil
95	$\mu_p$	friction coefficient of probe
96	$\delta$	contact overlap
97	$\delta_1, \delta_2$	rough model parameters
98	$\nu$	Poisson's ratio
99	$\Delta t$	time step
100	$\Delta \rho_{shaft}$	shaft penetration distance in one burrowing cycle
101	$\Delta \rho_{tip}$	tip penetration distance in one burrowing cycle
102		

103    **Abbreviations**

104	CPT	cone penetration test
105	CF	constant force
106	CR	constant radius
107	CV	constant velocity
108	DEM	discrete element method
109	ILC	incremental load control
110	PRM	particle refinement method
111	PSD	particle size distribution
112	QSP	quasi-static penetration
113	REM	radius expansion method
114	SC	shaft contraction
115	SE	shaft expansion
116	SPT	standard penetration test
117	SR	shaft retraction
118	TC	tip contraction
119	TE	tip expansion
120	TP	tip penetration
121	TO	tip oscillation
122		

## 1 Introduction

Strategies inspired by biology are multifunctional, redundant, robust and efficient and thus they have been applied in geotechnics to facilitate engineering advances and solve engineering problems (Martinez et al., 2021). In the last decade, ongoing research in bio-inspired geotechnics has emerged from four main areas: (a) snakeskin-inspired surfaces (O'Hara & Martinez, 2022; Martinez et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2021); (b) root-inspired anchorage systems and foundations (Bengough & Mullins, 1990; Burrall et al., 2021; Mallett et al., 2018; Mickovski et al., 2011); (c) burrowing probes (Chen et al., 2021; Huang & Tao, 2020; Tao et al., 2020; Winter et al., 2014), and; (d) robotic excavation (Carotenuto et al., 2020; De Macedo et al., 2021; Frost et al., 2017).

In particular burrowing robots, strategies inspired by the dual-anchor locomotion of razor clams (Trueman, 1967), the peristaltic locomotion of earthworms (Dorgan, 2015), and the rotational growth mode of seed roots (Taylor et al., 2021) have been employed to develop a new generation of self-burrowing robotic probes (Tao et al., 2020; Winter et al., 2014). Relevant studies of self-burrowing probes include numerical modelling, cavity expansion analyses and laboratory testing (Borela et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Huang & Tao, 2020; Martinez et al., 2020; Tang & Tao, 2022). In the future, self-burrowing robots could be used for site exploration, search and rescue, sensor deployment, inspection, monitoring, surveillance, transport, and construction purposes (Tao, 2021). These applications are expected not only on Earth but also on outer-space bodies such as Mars and the Moon.

Figure 1 illustrates the typical burrowing cycle of a razor clam employing a dual-anchor locomotion mechanism (Trueman, 1967), whose simplicity and efficiency have attracted particular attention for the development of self-burrowing probes. This mechanism cyclically alternates expansion and contraction of the back (shell) and front (foot) anchors to achieve forward movement. During a cycle, (i) the shell first expands to form an anchor to provide sufficient reaction force for the foot to (ii) penetrate further into the soil. Then, (iii) the foot expands and the shell contracts. In this stage, (iv) the foot acts as an anchor to drag the shell down into the soil. Inspired by this locomotion strategy, Winter et al. (2014) developed the '*RoboClam*' robot which uses a reduced amount of energy compared to what would be required quasi-statically pushing the probe into the soil. Soil fluidization is also used to aid in the burrowing with the Roboclam; however, field trials were only able to reach a depth of 0.3 m. Tao et al. (2019) and Tao et al. (2020) developed a self-burrow-out soft robot that uses cycles of longitudinal contraction and expansion. Borela et al. (2021) developed an earthworm-inspired robot which was tested in sands. Most of the tests in this study failed to self-burrow due to the limited length of the robot's anchor which resulted in insufficient mobilization of anchorage forces. The above studies highlight the challenges of developing self-burrowing robots or tools.

Researchers have performed numerical simulations to further understand the robot-soil interactions. For example, Huang & Tao (2020) used a discrete element method (DEM) model to study the influence

zone created by the body expansion of razor clams, but the DEM model simplified the dual-anchor system of razor clams to only one shaft anchor, which created impractical self-burrowing. Chen et al. (2021, 2022a, 2022b) investigated the effects of different soil conditions and probe configurations on the performance of the self-penetration process of a bio-inspired probe using DEM models. However, the probe control strategy was simplified, likely leading to limitations in the modeling of the soil-probe interactions. Martinez et al. (2020) proposed a cavity-expansion-theory method for modeling a self-penetrating bio-inspired probe. However, this method works only for vertical penetration and does not account for the interactions between periodic radial expansion and tip penetration. Indeed, a more versatile model employing more realistic self-burrowing mechanisms (e.g., dynamic and force-controlled) is still missing to achieve clear understanding of the soil-probe interaction.

In the following sections we describe the construction of a three-dimensional chamber filled with a calibrated discrete analogue of a representative silica sand. Then we describe the modeled self-burrowing probe and propose a basic methodology for modeling each step involved in the dual-anchor strategy through different mechanisms. These include oscillation of the tip to reduce penetration resistance and constant-force control of the back anchor to avoid loss of anchorage. The probe is finally able to burrow deeply into the soil after continuous self-burrowing cycles. The results presented cover both macroscale (e.g., penetration distance, mechanical work) and microscale (e.g., contact force chains between soil particles, particle displacement) variables that help explain the different interaction mechanisms occurring during locomotion and penetration.

## **2 Model construction**

### **2.1 Chamber-related model details**

#### ***2.1.1 Particle-based numerical model for Fontainebleau sand***

Fontainebleau sand is a fine silica sand that has been extensively used in geotechnical research. Table 1 lists its physical properties. In this study, we use a discrete analogue of the natural material in a calibrated DEM model consisting of spherical particles in the DEM code PFC3D (Itasca, 2017). Particle rotation was fully restricted by fixing all the rotational degrees of freedom of particles to roughly mimic the effect of non-spherical particle shapes. This simplified approach can be traced back to Ting et al. (1989) and was successfully used in previous penetration work in granular materials (Arroyo et al., 2011; Calvetti et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019).

The contact model developed by Otsubo et al. (2017) for rough particles was chosen. The model was developed based on the standard Hertzian model with the following characteristics: contacts between particles are assumed to be elasto-plastic; the slip behavior at contacts is defined by the friction coefficient  $\mu$ ; each contact presents non-linear stiffness controlled by the elastic properties of material particles, e.g., shear modulus  $G$ , and Poisson's ratio  $\nu$ . The developed model is able to more completely

consider soil characteristics than the standard Hertzian model by incorporating measurable surface roughness  $S_q$ . Roughness is particularly relevant at small strain levels where deformation and breakage of asperities occur. This effect is described by a three-stage relationship between the normal force,  $F_n$ , and the normal displacement,  $\delta$ , originated from the standard Hertzian model (Figure 2). The  $F_n$ - $\delta$  relationship describes three successive contact regimes (i.e., asperity-dominated, transitional, and Hertzian) separated by two points T1 and T2.  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  are model parameters that are a function of the particle roughness  $S_q$ :

$$\delta_1 = r_1 S_q \quad (1)$$

And,

$$\delta_2 = r_2 S_q \quad (2)$$

where  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are model parameters. When  $S_q = 0$ , the standard Hertzian relationship is recovered.

The calibrated parameters of the rough contact model for Fontainebleau sand are provided in Table 2 (Zhang et al., 2021). Wishing to use realistic material-based values,  $G$  was assigned as 32 GPa and  $\nu$  as 0.19, which are appropriate values for  $\text{SiO}_2$  according to industrial databases (Zhang et al., 2021).  $S_q$  was set as 0.6  $\mu\text{m}$ , considered as a realistic roughness value for silica sand. The values of  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  were set as 0.05 and 5, respectively after calibration against the results of contact experiments on Leighton Buzzard Sand (LBS) fraction A reported by Nardelli & Coop (2019) as shown in Figure 3a. To further validate this set of parameters, DEM models using uncrushable spheres were run to capture the initial loading behaviour of high-pressure oedometer tests, using a 4 mm sided cube of frictionless rigid walls filled with 10,000 spherical particles (Figure 3b). Particle diameter ranged from 0.1 to 0.4 mm matching the particle size distribution (PSD) of Fontainebleau NE34 sand. Figure 3c shows a close match between the initial non-crushing loading stages measured in both the experiments and DEM models, successfully validating the calibrated parameters.

### 2.1.2 Chamber construction

A three-dimensional cylindrical chamber was constructed using wall elements. All the chamber walls were set to be frictionless. Geometrical model details can be found in Figure 4 and Table 3. Discrete elements filling up the chamber have the same contact properties and size distribution as those used for the particle assembly calibration shown in Figure 3. The particle sizes were upscaled applying five distinct scaling factors following the particle refinement method (PRM) (Ciantia et al., 2018; Huang & Tao, 2020; McDowell et al., 2012; Sharif et al., 2020). This method allows to achieve sufficient contacts between the particles and the probe whilst reducing the number of particles in the whole system. In detail, a scaling of 35 was used to multiply the particle sizes at the center of the chamber. Particles further away from the center were upscaled using factors with the central scaling multiplied by a



uniform set of multipliers (1.5, 2.25, 2.7 and 3.24). That means the five scaling factors used from the center to the boundary are 35, 53, 79, 95 and 113, termed as  $n_1$ ,  $n_2$ ,  $n_3$ ,  $n_4$  and  $n_5$ , respectively. The multipliers ( $\leq 1.5$ ) can effectively prevent particle migration between adjacent zones (McDowell et al., 2012). A specific dimensional configuration of the five zones was chosen as: the outermost ring and innermost zone have a greater dimension with 14 cm, while the intermediate three rings have smaller thicknesses acting as filter layers. The upscaling of particle sizes does not affect the overall response as the particle mechanical properties remain unchanged (McDowell et al., 2012).

The simulations are desired to initiate from the free ground surface to evaluate the self-burrowing performance of the probe at shallow depths. The radius expansion method (REM) was used to fill the chamber at the porosity of 0.40. Then, the top wall was deleted and gravity was applied to settle the soil mass until reaching equilibrium state. During gravity settling, the inter-particle friction was set to a relatively small value of 0.05 to attain a dense uniform sample with a clear vertical stress gradient induced by gravity (Figure 4b). At the bottom of the specimen, the vertical effective stress is 10.9 kPa, matching the stress level of a real soil column. This inter-particle friction to settle the soils was chosen balancing acceptable sample quality and computation time. Figure 4c shows a spatially uniform distribution of  $D_r$  owing to the specimen generation method employed in the simulations, and the average  $D_r$  value is 0.86. After equilibrium, the inter-particle friction coefficient was reset to the calibrated value (Table 1). All the chamber walls were fixed throughout simulations. In all simulations, a local damping of 0.05 (Cundall, 1987) was employed and no viscous damping was considered.

## 2.2 Probe-related model details

### 2.2.1 Bio-inspired probe

Inspired by the burrowing strategies of the razor clam, here we provide a feasibility study of a dual-anchor self-burrowing probe. Geometrical details of the probe are shown in Figure 5 and Table 4. The probe is composed of three connected segments: shaft, neck and tip. All the segments were created using rigid walls, which don't interact with each other. The tip consists of a cone with the apex angle of  $60^\circ$  and a cylinder that can expand to behave as an anchor. The diameter of the tip and neck  $d_c$  was selected as 3.56 cm in consistency with conventional cone penetration test (CPT) probe sizes and the height of the tip cylinder  $h_{T_{cyl}}$  was set equal to  $d_c$ . The neck height  $h_N$  is equal to its diameter and the shaft height is  $5d_c$ . An embedment extends into the shaft and has a length equal to the shaft length. *The shaft diameter  $D_s$  was enlarged to 1.05 times  $d_c$  to avoid repeated calculation of probe-particle contacts at the overlapping of the shaft and the embedment.* The shaft can expand to form another anchor with the soil to facilitate sufficient tip penetration distance during one burrowing cycle. To prevent particles from flowing into the probe, each probe segment was created with end caps whose diameter also changes as the sections are expanded during anchor deployment.

The total length of the probe is 24.4 cm, and therefore the ratio of probe length to tip diameter is 6.8. As reported by Martinez et al. (2020), this ratio falls into the normal range (2-9) of razor clam species. Also, the shaft anchor has a length of 4 times the tip diameter, fulfilling the requirement that anchor length should cover 2.0 to 4.5 times tip diameter to generate sufficient anchorage forces as determined by Martinez et al. (2020) using cavity expansion simulations. The probe mass  $m_p$  is 2.23 kg which was assumed to remain unchanged during the whole self-burrowing simulation including anchor expansion stages. The probe/particle diameter ratio  $n_p$  and chamber/probe diameter ratio  $R_d$  are two key factors influencing soil penetration results. In this study, the  $n_p$  in the central portion is 4.8 and the  $R_d$  is 20. Both values are higher than most of the values chosen in previous three-dimensional soil penetration studies as summarized by Chen et al. (2021). The contact model between probe and particles was also a simplified Hertz-Mindlin. The parameters for the probe were given in Table 2.

## 2.2.2 Methodology for a stepwise self-burrowing cycle

A stepwise self-burrowing methodology is designed following closely the locomotion mechanism of razor clams. As illustrated in Figure 6, one single self-burrowing cycle of the probe, following an initial penetration phase in which the probe is fully inserted into the sand material to reach the condition of mobilizing shaft friction, is completed in six individual steps. It is assumed that during each step, relevant segments move only with the motions specified in this section of the probe, while other motions of these segments and all motions of the other segments are restricted. The six steps are:

### I. Shaft Expansion (SE)

To form the shaft anchor, the shaft expands radially under incremental load control (ILC) to reach a target force  $F_{S,r,target}$ . The expansion aims to provide sufficient reaction force for tip penetration in step TP. The load control allows gradual increase of the radial force with a relatively small loading increment  $F_{S,r,inc}$ . At each increment, the force is held constant until the shaft expansion rate is zero, similar to typical loading procedures of the pressuremeter test. After stabilization, new increments are applied to reach the target force. The shaft radial expansion velocity is updated using the following equation:

$$v_{S,r}^{t+\Delta t} = v_{S,r}^t + \frac{F_{S,r,tot}^t}{m_s} \Delta t \quad (3)$$

where,  $v_{S,r}^{t+\Delta t}$  and  $v_{S,r}^t$  are the shaft radial velocities in all radial directions at time  $(t+\Delta t)$  and  $t$ , respectively,  $\Delta t$  is the time step,  $m_s$  is the shaft mass (1.57 kg), and  $F_{S,r,tot}^t$  is the resultant radial force acting on the shaft:

$$F_{S,r,tot}^t = nF_{S,r,inc} - F_{S,r}^t \quad n=1, 2, \dots, [F_{S,r,target} / F_{S,r,inc}] \quad (4)$$

Where,  $n$  is the number of load increments, and  $F_{S,r}$  is the actual shaft radial force.

The use of force control algorithm enables the consideration of soil-robot interaction that can lead to a more realistic performance (Barasuol et al., 2018). This loading algorithm corresponds to the criterion  $C1$  in Figure 6.

Similar to the expansion limitations of animals due to muscular capacity, the probe also imposes a limit in shaft expansion ratio  $ER_S$ . The expansion magnitude is calculated as a ratio of the shaft anchor diameter  $D_{SA}$  and a limit value of 50% ( $C2$ ) is adopted in consistency with that required in the pressuremeter tests (Houlsby & Withers, 1988):

$$ER_S = \frac{D_{SA} - D_S}{D_S} \leq 50\% \quad (5)$$

The expansion terminates in the case that one of the two criteria ( $C1$  or  $C2$ ) is met. The actual shaft radial force  $F_{S,r}$  may be smaller than  $F_{S,r,target}$  if the  $C2$  criterion is triggered.

A slight upward movement of the shaft anchor is needed to mobilize its anchorage force to resist tip penetration in the next step. However, due to the motion restriction stated above, during tip penetration the shaft anchor does not displace in any direction. Therefore, we assume to use  $F_{S,r}$  and the shaft friction coefficient to determine the anchor capacity (i.e., the maximum vertical anchor force  $F_{S,z,max}$ ), which will be constantly compared with penetration resistance during TP:

$$F_{S,z,max} = \mu_p F_{S,r} \quad (6)$$

## II. Tip Penetration (TP)

With the help of the shaft anchor, the probe extends and pushes its neck and tip downwards for a distance of  $\Delta\rho_{tip}$  with a constant velocity  $v_p$ . The vertical forces resisting penetration include  $F_{N,z}$ ,  $F_{Tcyl,z}$  and  $F_{Tcone,z}$ , which are vertical forces measured along the neck, tip cylinder and tip cone, respectively. To simplify expressions, these three resisting terms can be combined as one single soil resistance term  $Q_T$ :

$$Q_T = F_{N,z} + F_{Tcyl,z} + F_{Tcone,z} \quad (7)$$

To balance resisting forces, the static shaft anchor force  $F_{S,z}$ , which is smaller than  $F_{S,z,max}$ , is mobilized as a reaction force. As a potential source of reaction force, the soil weight acting onto the shaft top surface  $F_{top,z}$  is, however, not considered due to its negligible magnitude at the shallow depths modeled here.

Shaft anchor capacity  $F_{SA}$  is composed of the maximum vertical anchor force  $F_{S,z,max}$  (Eq. 6) with the assistance of the probe's self-weight  $m_p g$ :

$$F_{SA} = \mu_p F_{S,r} + m_p g \quad (8)$$

Where,  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration. Note that as stated before, it is assumed that the anchor does not displace to mobilize the anchor capacity, while the maximum anchorage force is mathematically

calculated using Eq. 6. In this manner, the balance between the actual vertical anchorage force, which remains lower than its possible maximum value, and the soil resisting force is satisfied, as defined in the C3 criterion:

$$F_{SA} \geq Q_T \quad (9)$$

In addition, to constrain excessive penetration, another limiting condition *C4* is defined so that the penetration magnitude  $\Delta\rho_{tip}$  cannot exceed  $d_c$ .

During penetration, a simple way to deal with the shaft anchor is to maintain its radius as constant, which can be described as constant radius (*CR*) condition. However, this strategy may not be able to provide sufficient anchorage for tip penetration. As demonstrated by Chen et al. (2021) and Chen et al. (2022), tip penetration causes a continuous reduction on shaft anchor force due to interactive effects between the tip and the shaft. Therefore, it is necessary to maintain the constant force (*CF*) of the shaft employing a servo control mechanism to enable tip penetration, which means the shaft continues to expand. Hence, the criterion *C2* needs to be re-activated to impose an expansion limit on the shaft anchor.

### III. Tip Expansion (TE)

Similar to the shaft anchor expansion procedure, the tip cylinder is expanded to form another anchor using the ILC algorithm. The tip cone is not expanded as that would reduce the anchor effect due to vertical force generation at the cone. The expansion aims to achieve a target radial force of the tip anchor of  $F_{Tcyl,r,target}$  (*C5*) which must enable successful shaft retraction in step V. Radial velocity algorithms similar to Eq. (3) & (4) are employed to update the tip radial velocity  $v_{Tcyl,r}$ . As can be seen from the criterion *C6*, a limit of 50% is also imposed to the tip expansion ratio  $ER_T$ , which is calculated from the tip anchor diameter  $D_{TA}$ :

$$ER_T = \frac{D_{TA} - d_c}{d_c} \quad (10)$$

The actual tip cylinder radial force  $F_{Tcyl,r}$  may be smaller than  $F_{Tcyl,r,target}$  if the *C6* criterion is triggered.  $F_{Tcyl,r}$  is used to calculate the maximum vertical force of tip anchor  $F_{Tcyl,z,max}$  that can be mobilized to resist shaft retraction in step V:

$$F_{Tcyl,z,max} = \mu_p F_{Tcyl,r} \quad (11)$$

### IV. Shaft Contraction (SC)

The shaft is contracted back to its original size with a constant velocity  $v_{SC}$ , as defined in the criterion *C7*. Shaft contraction requires a smaller force compared with shaft expansion, enabling the feasibility of employing a much faster contraction rate than expansion (Table 5).

## V. Shaft Retraction (SR)

The shaft is dragged downwards with a constant velocity  $v_{SR}$  until the shaft penetration distance  $\Delta\rho_{shaft}$  is equal to  $\Delta\rho_{tip}$  as defined in the criterion C8. At this point, the original probe length is recovered. The tip anchor capacity  $F_{TA}$  is composed of the maximum vertical force of the tip anchor  $F_{T_{cyl,z},max}$  (Eq. 11), vertical force at the tip anchor top surface  $F_{T_{cyl,top,z}}$ , and the probe self-weight  $m_p g$ . Thus, the expression of  $F_{TA}$  is written as:

$$F_{TA} = \mu_p F_{T_{cyl,r}} + F_{T_{cyl,top,z}} + m_p g \quad (12)$$

During retraction, the shaft experiences soil resisting forces at both the shaft body and shaft bottom surface:

$$Q_S = F_{S,z} + F_{S,bot,z} \quad (13)$$

Where,  $Q_S$  is the shaft resisting force, and  $F_{S,bot,z}$  is the vertical force at the shaft bottom surface. During retraction, the force criterion C9 (Eq. 14) check for the sufficiency of tip anchor needs to be fulfilled:

$$F_{TA} \geq Q_S \quad (14)$$

## VI. Tip Contraction (TC)

The tip is contracted with a constant velocity  $v_{TC}$  to its original size, as defined in the criterion C10. Similarly, the tip contraction requires a smaller force compared with tip expansion. So, the contraction rate can be faster (Table 5).

## 3 Efficient configurations for self-burrowing

This section attempts to identify appropriate parameters and configurations to produce efficient self-burrowing behaviours. Particular attention is paid to the shaft expansion, tip penetration, tip expansion and shaft retraction steps, while the shaft and tip contraction steps are not evaluated since they appear to be feasible in a wider range of conditions.

### 3.1 Preparation actions before self-burrowing

Razor clams can initiate burrowing from ground surface taking advantage of their flexible foot. This initial embedment is modelled by an initial embedment of the probe into the soil with a constant velocity  $v_p$  of 40 cm/s until the tip reaches a depth of 34 cm, at which the entire probe is fully embedded. Figure 7 shows the evolution of  $Q_T$  and  $Q_S$  against the penetration depth  $h$ .  $Q_T$  increases almost linearly with  $h$  due to gravitational pressure gradient, and the particle displacements show a shallow failure of the soil. The maximum value of  $Q_T$  is 2.19 kN at the depth of 34 cm, which could be used as a reference value for tip penetration. After reaching the target depth, a servo control mechanism was enabled to allow the probe to equilibrate under its own weight by solving Newton's second law. During this stage,  $Q_T$

decreases rapidly to almost zero due to very slight upward movement and finally an equilibrium state between the probe self-weight and soil resisting forces was attained. At this point, the model was deemed to be in an appropriate state for launching self-burrowing cycles.

### 3.2 Shaft expansion: target force determination

After the initial penetration, the shaft is expanded to reach a target radial force  $F_{S,r,target}$  that has to be sufficient for subsequent tip penetration. This target force needs to be determined and assigned before shaft expansion. After determining a target force, the ILC algorithm is used for reaching the target force determined based on the initial penetration resistance during shaft expansion. First, this target force strategy, as described in section 3.1, is evaluated. Then,  $F_{S,r,target}$  is determined using an alternate strategy based on the maximum normal force that can be mobilized by the anchor.

Shaft expansion has been shown to reduce the tip penetration resistance (i.e., Chen et al. 2021); however, a conservative assumption to ensure the sufficiency of radial normal shaft force to enable tip penetration is to use the maximum resisting force  $Q_T$  recorded during the initial penetration phase (Figure 7) and the shaft's friction coefficient  $\mu_p$  to calculate  $F_{S,r,target}$ . The relevant expression is given as:

$$F_{S,r,target} = \frac{Q_T}{\mu_p} \quad (15)$$

Taking  $Q_T=2.19$  kN and  $\mu_p=0.35$  into Eq. (15), the value of  $F_{S,r,target}$  is 6.25 kN. Following the ILC algorithm, a loading increment  $F_{S,r,inc}$  of 200 N was adopted to gradually approach  $F_{S,r,target}$ , as shown in Figure 8a. While the shaft expansion terminated after meeting the C2 criterion with an  $ER_S=50\%$ , only about 2 kN of force was mobilized, which is significantly smaller than the calculated  $F_{S,r,target}$  of 6.25 kN. It is also observed from the velocity profile in Figure 8b that the expansion velocity of the anchor outer surface  $v_{S,r}$  is relatively large at the termination point. In addition, it takes longer to reach equilibrium ( $v_{S,r}=0$ ) at the loading increments close to the termination point than at initial increments, indicating continuous softening of the soil likely caused by the observed shallow passive failure. Although the strategy is simple, the soil surrounding the anchor cannot mobilize the required resistance.

An alternate strategy for determining  $F_{S,r,target}$  is to use the maximum normal anchorage force that can be mobilized. To estimate the soil strength around the shaft before expansion, solutions such as cavity expansion theory can be used. Here benefiting from the created DEM model, a loading algorithm with constant velocity (CV) was used as a simple way to determine  $F_{S,r,target}$ .

During CV expansion, the shaft radius increases with a constant rate of 0.02 m/s, interacting quasi-statically with the surrounding particles. As shown in Figure 9, the shaft radial force during CV expansion gradually increases to a peak value. This peak value can thus be used as  $F_{S,r,target}$  considering a reduction factor of 0.8 (i.e. factor of safety of 1.25), leading to an  $F_{S,r,target}$  of 1.6 kN. The ILC algorithm was again used with an increment of 200 N to reach the target force, which was achieved with only 17.6% of  $ERs$  (Figure 9). This target force determination strategy was used for shaft expansion in the self-burrowing simulations presented in section 4 due to its satisfactory performance.

### 3.3 Tip penetration strategies

#### 3.3.1 Quasi-static penetration

The SE stage is followed by tip penetration. We first try using Quasi-Static Penetration (QSP) in which the tip is simply pushed with a constant rate of 0.05 m/s. The quasi-static condition of the system was ensured by satisfying the inertial number upper bound ( $<10^{-2}$ ) for quasi-static conditions, and the inertial number in the system was calculated following Ciantia et al. (2019). QSP was conducted under two shaft control strategies (CR and CF) as mentioned in section 2.2.2. Figure 10 shows the force against penetration depth obtained from the two shaft control strategies. Tip resisting force  $Q_T$  rapidly rises to meet the C3 criterion after a negligible penetration distance, i.e., 0.05 cm for CR condition and 0.06 cm for CF condition. Therefore, an effective approach to reduce tip resistance is needed to increase the penetration distance.

#### 3.3.2 Implementation of tip oscillation in penetration

To reduce locomotion resistance in the development of a soft robot, Ortiz et al. (2019) employed bi-directional head oscillation strategy inspired by *Polychaeta*, which allowed it to achieve longer locomotion distance. In this study, we adopt a similar oscillation strategy for the tip cone that occurs simultaneously with downward penetration. The oscillation algorithm is illustrated in Figure 11. The cone tip point oscillates horizontally to the right and left in planar movement with the velocity of  $v_{TO}$  in each oscillation cycle time  $t_l$ . At  $t = 0.25t_l$  and  $0.75t_l$  the tip point reaches the far right and the far left, respectively, while at  $t = 0.5t_l$  and  $t_l$  the tip point returns to the original middle position. Stress concentration occurs around the tip during oscillation as illustrated by the contact force network in Figure 11. Note that only vertical forces are checked via the criteria described in section 2.2.2, while the real torque balance resulting from tip oscillation is not considered because the probe shaft is fixed.

The vertical penetration velocity  $v_p$  and the two parameters defining oscillation ( $v_{TO}$  and  $t_l$ ) are controlling parameters that can be adjusted to optimize tip penetration. We explored various sets of parameters combining different values. Eventually, values of  $v_p = 0.05$  m/s,  $t_l = 0.1$  s and  $v_{TO} = 0.8$  m/s

were chosen for this study due to their sufficient performance in enabling tip advance. The oscillation amplitude ( $0.25 \times v_{TO} \times t_I$ ) is 2 cm, similar to the probe radius 1.78 cm. The CF shaft control was employed to maintain the shaft normal force. Without violating the  $C3$  force criterion, the tip advances 2 cm (Figure 12a) until the  $C2$   $ER_S$  limit is triggered (Figure 12b). Then, the probe oscillates back to the middle position to terminate tip penetration.

### 3.4 Tip expansion strategy

The soil around the tip is able to provide more resistance at greater depths than the shaft. Therefore, the target force of tip expansion  $F_{T_{cyl,r},target}$  is determined from the recorded shaft friction  $Q_S$  and the current value of  $Q_T$  since they both act in an upward direction, as described:

$$F_{T_{cyl,r},target} = \frac{Q_S + Q_T}{\mu_p} \quad (16)$$

Taking  $Q_S$  as 0.6 kN which is three times the maximum  $Q_S$  recorded in Figure 7 and the value of  $Q_T$  as 0.12 kN from the termination point of tip penetration into Eq. (16), the value of  $F_{T_{cyl,r},target}$  was calculated as 2.0 kN. The incremental load control algorithm was used to gradually reach the target force. Figure 13 shows the loading stages of tip radial force and tip radial expansion velocity against tip expansion magnitude ( $ER_T$ ). The target force was attained at  $ER_T$  of 25.7%, indicating a satisfactory performance of the target force determination strategy.

### 3.5 Shaft retraction strategy

The shaft contracts back to its original diameter with  $v_{SC} = -0.1$  m/s after tip expansion. Then, the shaft was dragged down with  $v_{SR} = -0.1$  m/s doubling the TP velocity to recover the neck extension attained in TP. Figure 14 shows the evolution of  $F_{TA}$  and  $Q_S$  against retraction distance  $\Delta\rho_{shaft}$ . Without violating the force criterion  $C9$ , the retraction distance reaches 2 cm, which is equal to the distance achieved during TP. This full recovery proves that the tip anchor is able to provide enough reaction force to overcome the force resisting shaft retraction. The evolution of  $F_{TA}$  is relatively stable indicating less notable influence from the retraction action, while  $Q_S$  presents more oscillations due to particle rearrangements triggered by the shaft retraction. Interestingly,  $F_{S,z}$  and  $F_{S,bot,z}$ , as the two components of  $Q_S$ , appear to be nearly identical during the whole process of retraction. Explanations of this phenomenon are provided in section 4.1 with contact force visualizations. After retraction, the tip is contracted with  $v_{TC} = -0.1$  m/s to its original diameter, after which a new cycle can initiate.

### 3.6 Summary of simulation configurations

Table 5 summarizes the key parameters used in each stage of the self-burrowing simulations and the corresponding results. According to the trials presented above, an initial self-burrowing cycle can be completed from where more cycles can be performed to burrow deeper into the soil as is presented later.



## 4 Self-burrowing with a dual-anchor probe

### 4.1 One complete self-burrowing cycle

Significant interactions between the three force variables can be observed throughout the burrowing cycle, as shown in the evolution of three representative force variables  $Q_T$ ,  $F_{S,r}$ , and  $F_{T_{cyl},r}$  presented in Figure 15a. The interactions between the shaft and tip during the SE and TP stages as reported by Chen et al. (2021) and Chen et al. (2022) are not clear in these simulations due to the constant normal force algorithm used to control the shaft expansion. However, the following interactions take place:

- TE: when the tip expands to a target  $F_{T_{cyl},r}$ , the shaft radial force  $F_{S,r}$  decreases dramatically.
- SC: when the shaft contracts,  $F_{S,r}$  drops to near zero, causing  $F_{T_{cyl},r}$  to also reduce significantly.

With the implementation of tip oscillation, the tip could eventually advance 2 cm, which was then fully recovered through shaft retraction. This is shown in the evolution of the shaft and tip displacement measured during one complete self-burrowing cycle presented in Figure 15b.

Figure 16 shows the development of both the contact force network and displacement field at the end of steps I-VI. The left and right side of each image presents contact force and particle displacement, respectively. The presented particle displacements are accumulated from the beginning of the first step in the self-burrowing cycle (step I) and only displacements above a certain value of 0.1 mm are shown in the images. These images present important micromechanical observations in each step:

I: SE. The contact force is mainly concentrated at the shaft, particularly at the area near the neck. This is due to the concentration of contact forces around the probe induced during initial penetration and to the gravity-induced stress gradient in the specimen. The uniform shaft expansion can be reflected from the relatively uniform distribution of particle displacement along the shaft. The displacement field shows a passive soil wedge that propagates to the free surface due to the shallow embedment.

II: TP. During this step, the tip advances into the soil while the tip oscillates horizontally and the normal force is maintained on the shaft. To maintain the shaft force, the shaft expands continuously with a relatively slow rate, leading to a more uniform distribution of contact force and greater particle displacements along the shaft.

III: TE. The contact force concentration shifts from locations near the shaft to locations around the tip. The contact forces along the shaft become less notable compared to the previous steps. Correspondingly, the particles around the tip anchor displace radially as the target anchorage force is mobilized.

IV: SC. The shaft contraction leads to a decrease of the contact forces around the shaft and the tip. The particle displacement mobilized during shaft expansion is now recovered to a certain extent.

V: SR. During shaft retraction, the contact forces around the tip barely change, while contact force concentration appears at the bottom of the shaft with an angle of  $45^\circ$  because of the equal magnitudes of  $F_{S,z}$  and  $F_{S,bot,z}$  as shown in Figure 14.

VI: TC. After tip contraction, the contact force network shows smaller magnitudes along the entire probe length compared with Figure 7c, indicating a relaxation effect of the self-burrowing behaviors on the contacts between surrounding soil particles.

## 4.2 Work done during self-burrowing

Comparing the work done during each of the self-burrowing steps can shed light on the soil-probe interactions. Zhang et al. (2021) validated the computation correctness of energy components involved in DEM simulations of the standard penetration test (SPT) in virtual calibration chambers. In this study, we extend this strategy to quantify the work during each simulation stage.

The work done by shaft expansion,  $W_{SE}$ , can be calculated by time-integrating the product of the absolute magnitude of the shaft radial force with the expansion velocity, as follows:

$$W_{SE} = \int |F_{S,r}(t)v_{S,r}(t)|dt \quad (17)$$

During TP, both tip penetration and oscillation require work. The work done by tip penetration,  $W_{TP}$ , can be calculated by time-integrating the product of the absolute  $Q_T$  magnitude with the penetration velocity:

$$W_{TP} = \int |Q_T(t)v_p(t)|dt \quad (18)$$

The work done by tip oscillation,  $W_{TO}$ , can be computed by time-integrating the product of the absolute magnitude of tip cone force along x-axis,  $F_{Tcone,x}$ , with the average tip oscillation velocity:

$$W_{TO} = \int |F_{Tcone,x}(t)v_{TO}(t)/2|dt \quad (19)$$

The work contributed by the tip cylinder expansion,  $W_{TE}$ , is computed by time-integrating the product of the absolute radial force magnitude at the tip cylinder with the expansion velocity:

$$W_{TE} = \int |F_{Tcyl,r}(t)v_{Tcyl,r}(t)|dt \quad (20)$$

The work done by shaft retraction,  $W_{SR}$ , can be computed considering the contribution of both the vertical force components  $F_{S,z}$  and  $F_{S,bot,z}$ , as follows:

$$W_{SR} = \int (|F_{S,z}(t)v_p(t)| + |F_{S,bot,z}(t)v_p(t)|)dt \quad (21)$$

The work done by shaft contraction  $W_{SC}$  and the work done by tip contraction  $W_{TC}$  can be calculated using Eq. 17 and Eq. 20, respectively.

The evolution of the work components during one self-burrowing cycle is presented in Figure 17. Shaft contraction, shaft retraction and tip contraction result in a negligible amount of work, so these three components are not included in Figure 17. The total work summing up all the work items is termed as  $W_{tot}$  and its evolution to the final value of 60 J is also plotted. Surprisingly, the most work is done by tip oscillation with more than 50% of the total work, while tip penetration only does a relatively small amount of work of 5%. To maintain constant shaft force, the shaft does more work during the TP stage than during the SE stage. Tip expansion does 12.3 % of the total work, which is also more than the initial shaft expansion.

### 4.3 Assessment of multiple cycles

The self-burrowing cycle was repeated three times to achieve a deeper penetration into the soil. The parameters listed in Table 5 for each self-burrowing step remain unchanged except for the shaft retraction velocity  $v_{SR}$  which was doubled in the second and third cycle to speed up contraction. The burrowing depth and mechanical work recorded in each of the three cycles are listed in Table 6. Figure 18a shows the displacement of the tip and shaft during the three cycles. The burrowing distance increases with the cycle number due to the increase of soil stress at greater depths which requires less shaft radial deformation to maintain the target force level. Figure 18b shows the evolution of the three representative forces during the self-burrowing cycles.

To compare the work done by constant rate penetration over the same distance, a separate simulation was carried out where the initial penetration in section 3.1 was continued to a depth of 43 cm. Figure 19 shows that the work during self-burrowing (i.e.,  $W_{tot}$ ) is greater than the work done during constant rate penetration,  $W_{crPenet}$ . The work done during the constant rate penetration increases linearly with depth, while there are energy oscillations in  $W_{tot}$  due to the tip oscillations and the expansion of the shaft and tip. The self-burrowing curve departs from the constant-rate one more and more with the cycles, due to the shaft expansions that caused three rises on the curve and tip oscillations that influenced the curve's slope.

## 5 Conclusions

In this study, we present the results of DEM simulations of a bio-inspired self-burrowing probe in a chamber filled with a coarse-grained soil. A rough contact model has been selected to consider the micromechanical behavior of a silica sand in a realistic way. The contact model parameters for the sand have been calibrated to element tests on silica sand. The simulated self-burrowing cycle consists of six individual steps including shaft expansion, tip penetration, tip expansion, shaft contraction, shaft retraction, and tip contraction. During tip penetration, the tip oscillation strategy has been successfully

employed to reduce penetration resistance and thus has significantly increased penetration efficiency. The simulation of the self-burrowing probe cycles reveals the following main findings:

- Force control algorithms employed in both shaft and tip expansion behaviors enable realistic soil-probe interaction.
- Quasi-static tip penetration can hardly achieve tip advancement due to exceeding soil resistance, with a maximum advancement of 0.06m. The tip oscillation strategy can increase the advancement in each burrowing cycle to minimally 2 cm.
- During tip expansion and shaft contraction, the radial force at the shaft and tip interacts significantly with each other.
- Microscale variables including particle displacement field and contact forces provide insightful particle-scale observations during one self-burrowing cycle. A passive failure wedge propagating from the shaft to ground free surface is caused by shaft expansion. The self-burrowing behavior produces a relaxation effect on contacts between surrounding soils.
- Through work computation, it is interesting to find that tip oscillation contributes more than 50% of the total work done by the entire self-burrowing stages.
- The probe can burrow deeper into the soil through continuous cycles. The burrowing distance increases with cycles due to soil pressure increase with depth. The work done through cycles is slightly greater than constant rate penetration resulted from shaft expansions and tip oscillations.

The results of the simulations can guide the construction of self-burrowing probe prototypes. A sophisticated device would still need a broad investigation to gain further understanding of the probe-soil interaction and open more possibilities in application. For example, the tip penetration with oscillations strategy can be optimized to balance the reduction of penetration resistances with limiting soil disturbance. Additionally, additional studies on the effects of soil type, density, confining stress, degree of saturation, depth and gravity magnitude on the self-burrowing performance are required for a broad understanding of the probe's self-burrowing ability.

~~Particularly, it is interesting to discuss the self burrowing behavior in saturated sands because razor clams burrow there. In self burrowing, the two main steps controlling the probe performance are SE and TP. In SE, there are two factors that are contradictiously affecting the expansion: the saturated unit weight of the sand is slightly greater than its dry unit weight, which then would require less expansion to reach a target expansion force; however, water as a low viscosity material could significantly lubricate contacts of the sand grains at shallow depth, which then would require more expansion to reach the target force. Referring to a quasi-static penetration study where lower penetration resistances were observed in saturated sand than dry sand at comparably low stress levels (Kluger et al., 2021), we~~

would suppose that the later factor was dominating for shallow soils, so more expansion was required to reach the target force. In TP, the fast tip oscillation could increase pore water pressure and thus reduce effective stress, causing a reduction to tip penetration resistance; however, due to the fact that the 50% shaft expansion ratio was always triggered to terminate TP in the current study and more expansion during SE was necessary, less shaft expansion remains for TP, meaning that the final penetration distance would be smaller. In future studies, efforts are required to simulate self-burrowing in saturated sands using multi-phase pore fluid-discrete particulate modelling tools to evaluate the self-burrowing performance of the proposed probe.

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## Tables

Table 1 Physical properties of Fontainebleau sand (Ciantia et al., 2019).

Variable (unit)	Symbol	Value
Mean size (mm)	$D_{50}$	0.21
Maximum void ratio	$e_{max}$	0.9
Minimum void ratio	$e_{min}$	0.51
Specific gravity (kN/m <sup>3</sup> )	$\rho_s$	2.65

Table 2 DEM contact model parameters (Zhang et al., 2021).

<i>Element</i>	<i>G /GPa</i>	<i>v</i>	$\mu$	$S_q / \mu m$	$r_1$	$r_2$
F-sand	32	0.19	0.275	0.6	0.05	5
Probe	74	0.265	0.35	-	-	-

Table 3 Geometrical properties of the chamber.

Variable (unit)	Symbol	Value
Height (cm)	$H_C$	70
Diameter (cm)	$D_C$	70
Particle size scaling factors	$n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4$ and $n_5$	35, 53, 79, 95, 113
Number of particles	$N$	104,320

Table 4 Key geometrical and physical properties of the probe.

Variable (unit)	Symbol	Value
Probe total length (cm)	$l_p$	24.4
Cone diameter (cm)	$d_c$	3.56
Probe material density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	$\rho_p$	8,050
Probe mass (kg)	$m_p$	2.23
Chamber / probe diameter ratio	$D_C / D_T = R_d$	20
Probe / particle ratio in the core	$D_T / n_1 D_{50} = n_p$	4.8

Table 5 Key parameters used in self-burrowing steps and corresponding results.

Step	Parameters	Results
I: SE	$F_{S,r,target} = 1.6 \text{ kN}$ , $F_{S,r,inc} = 200 \text{ N}$	$F_{S,r,target} = 1.6 \text{ kN}$ , $ER_S = 17.6\%$
II: TP	$v_p = 0.05 \text{ m/s}$ (Tip penetration) $t_I = 0.1 \text{ s}$ , $v_{TO} = 0.8 \text{ m/s}$ , amplitude = $0.25 \times v_{TO} \times t_I = 2 \text{ cm}$ (Tip oscillation)	$\Delta \rho_{tip} = 2 \text{ cm}$
III: TE	$F_{Tcyl,r,target} = 2 \text{ kN}$	$F_{Tcyl,r,target} = 2 \text{ kN}$ , $ER_T = 25.7\%$
IV: SC	$v_{SC} = -0.1 \text{ m/s}$	$D_{SA} = D_S$
V: SR	$v_{SR} = -0.1 \text{ m/s}$	$\Delta \rho_{shaft} = \Delta \rho_{tip} = 2 \text{ cm}$
VI: TC	$v_{TC} = -0.1 \text{ m/s}$	$D_{TA} = d_c$

Table 6 Measured data from multiple self-burrowing cycles

	1 <sup>st</sup> cycle	2 <sup>nd</sup> cycle	3 <sup>rd</sup> cycle
Self-burrowing distance, $\Delta \rho / \text{cm}$	2	3.5	4
Work, $W / \text{J}$	60	84	107

## Figures

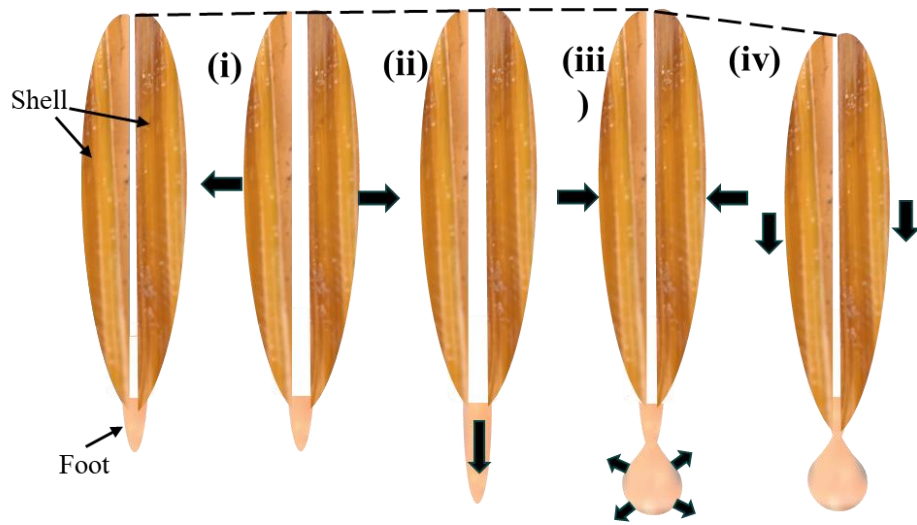


Figure 1 Typical burrowing steps of a razor clam: (i) the shell forms an anchor, (ii) the foot probes downward, (iii) the foot expands and the shell contracts, and (iv) the foot drags the shell downward. The dotted line denotes burrowing depth, and the arrows indicate movement direction of the shell and foot. Adapted from Trueman (1967) and Huang and Tao (2020).

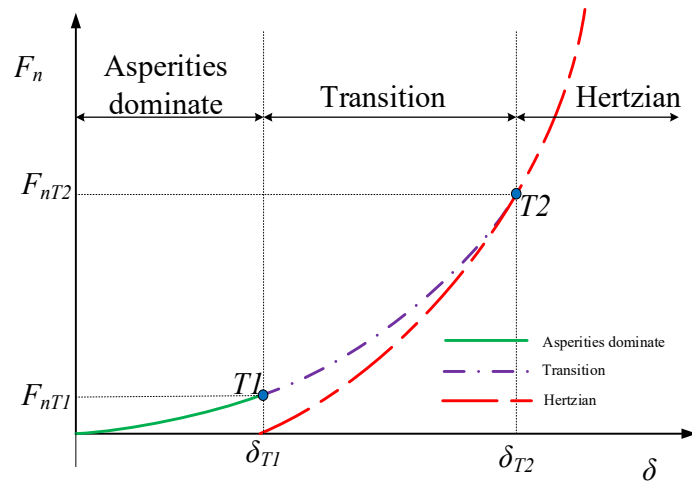


Figure 2 Schematic illustration of the rough surface contact model (after Otsubo et al., 2017).

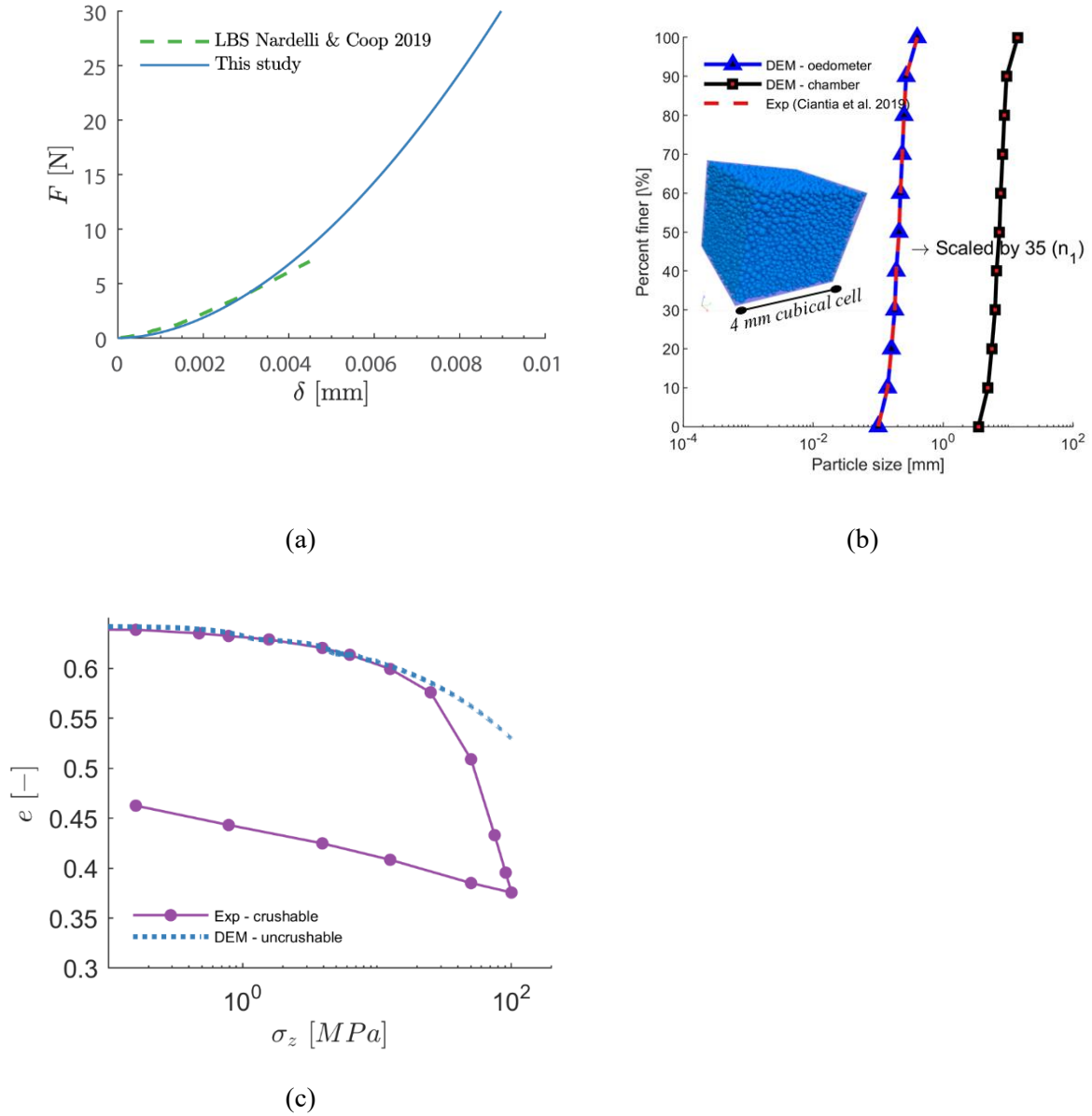


Figure 3 (a) Reproduction of load displacement curve of single grain test; (b) particle size distribution of Fontainebleau sand and DEM models for calibration; (c) reproduction of initial non-crushing loading stages of high pressure oedometric compression tests using the rough model (Zhang et al., 2021).

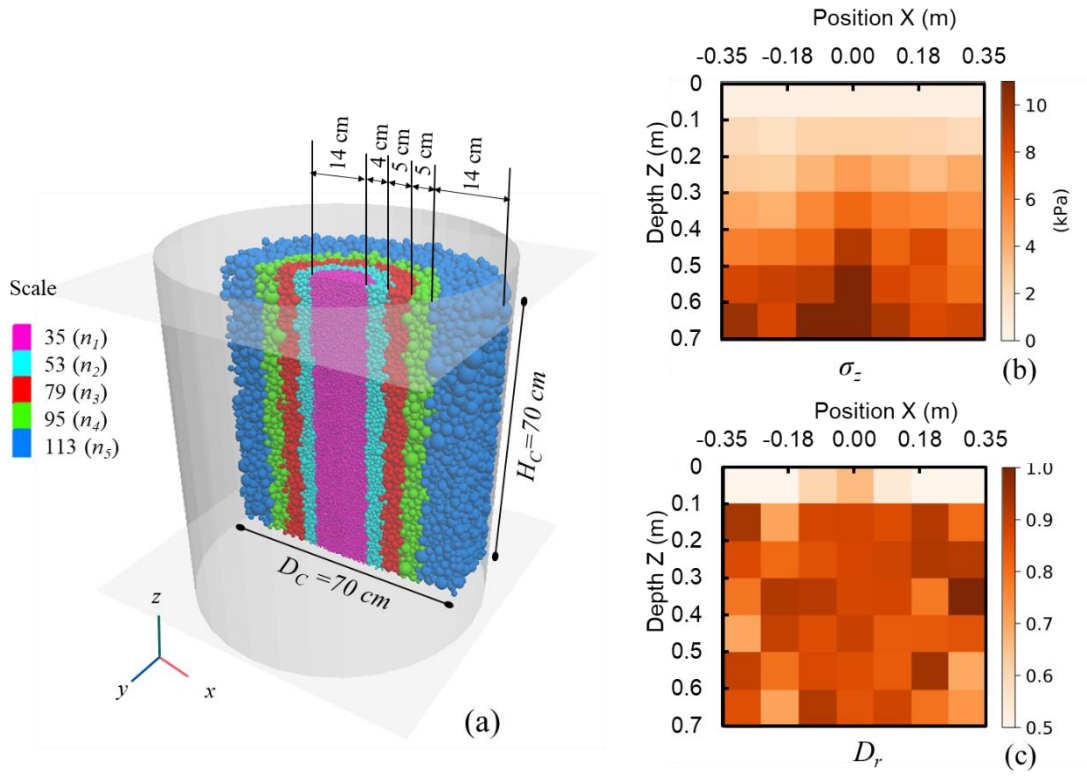


Figure 4 (a) View of DEM model with multi-upscaled particles, and sample quality check with (b) vertical stress distribution  $\sigma_z$  and (c) relative density  $D_r$ .

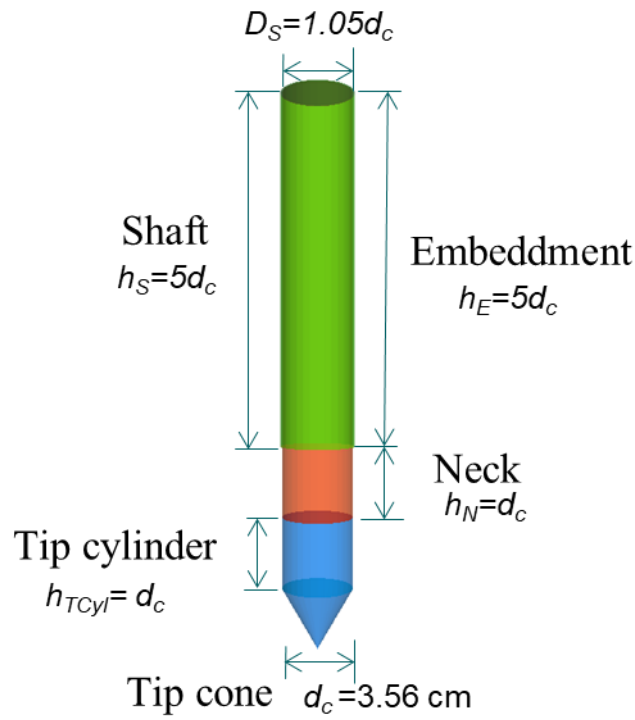
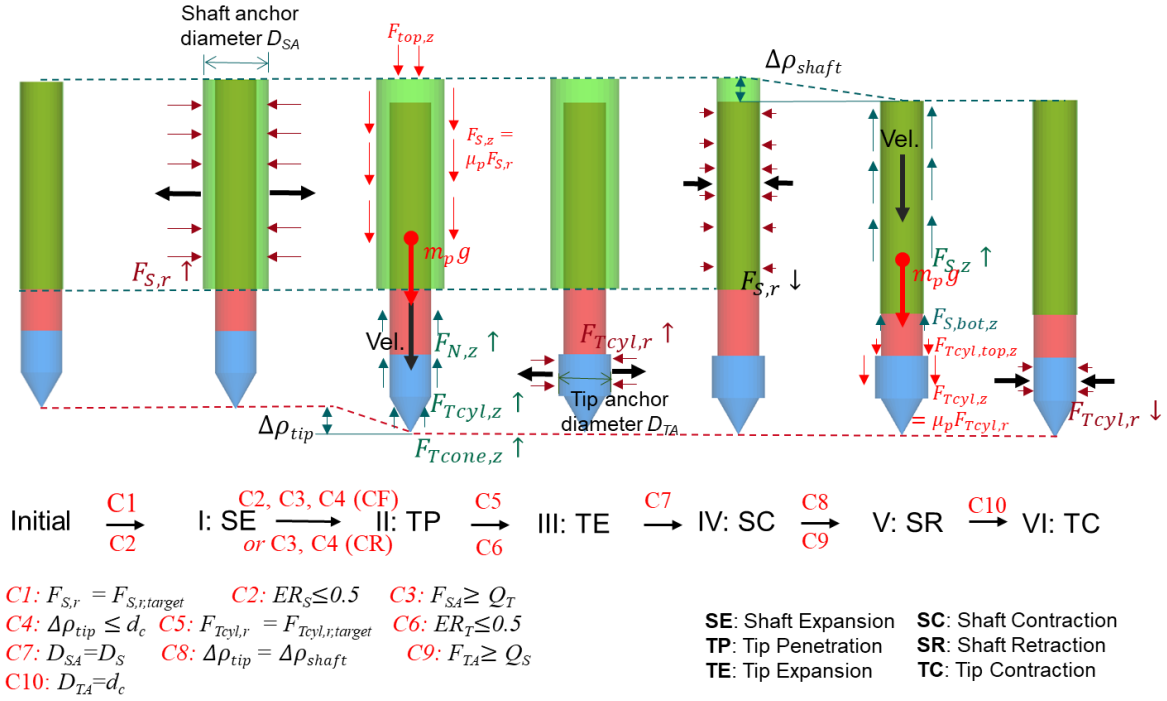


Figure 5 View of bio-inspired dual-anchor probe prototype.

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Figure 6 Schematic illustration of controlling criteria defined in each stage of one single self-burrowing cycle. Thick black arrows indicate movement direction of specific probe segments. Light blue and red arrows indicate the direction of forces. The 'up' or 'down' arrow after one force indicates increase or decrease of the force. The criteria defined in each stage present an 'OR' relation.

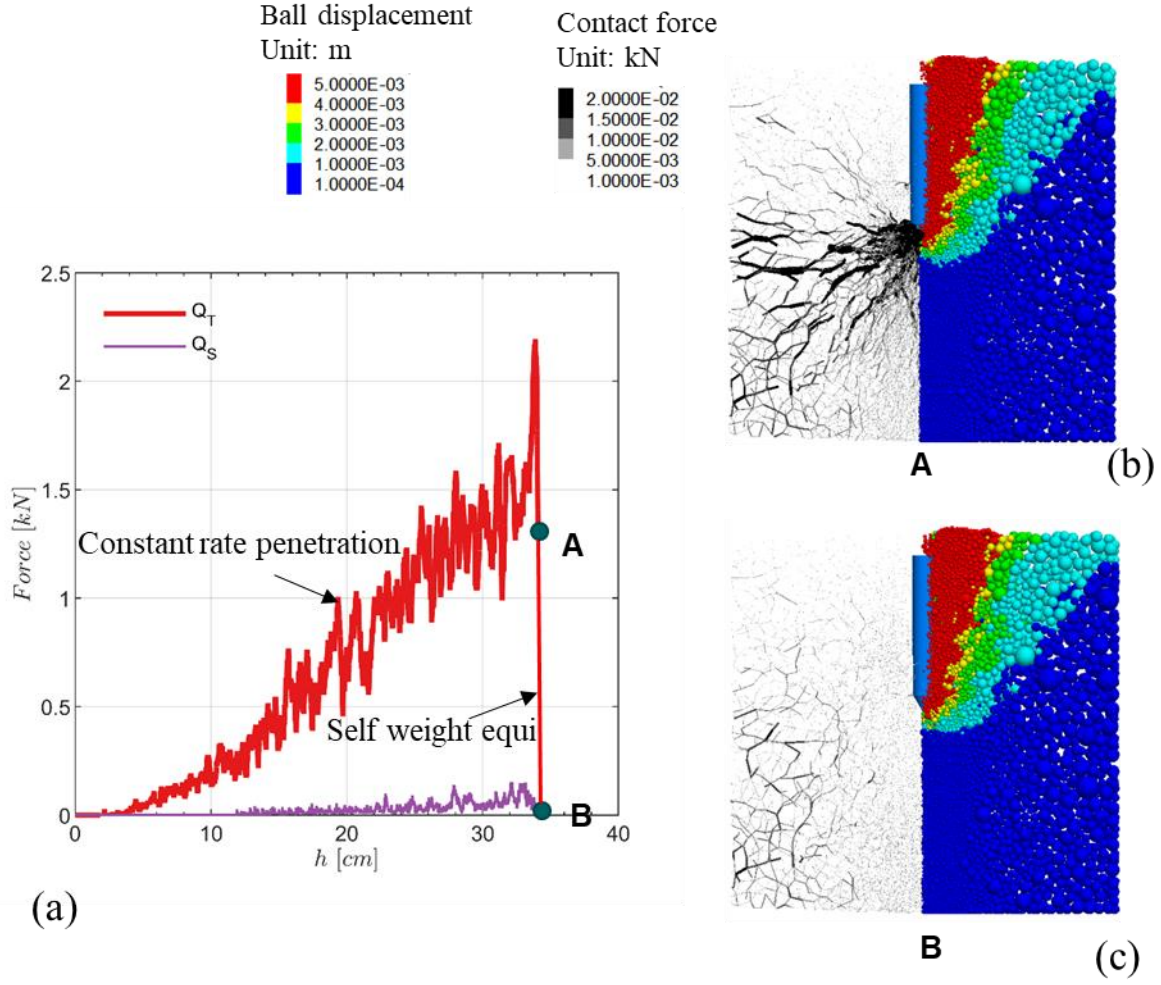


Figure 7 Preparations for self-burrowing: (a) tip resistance evolution with depth, (b) and (c) contact force (left half) and displacement field (right half) at point A and B in (a), respectively.



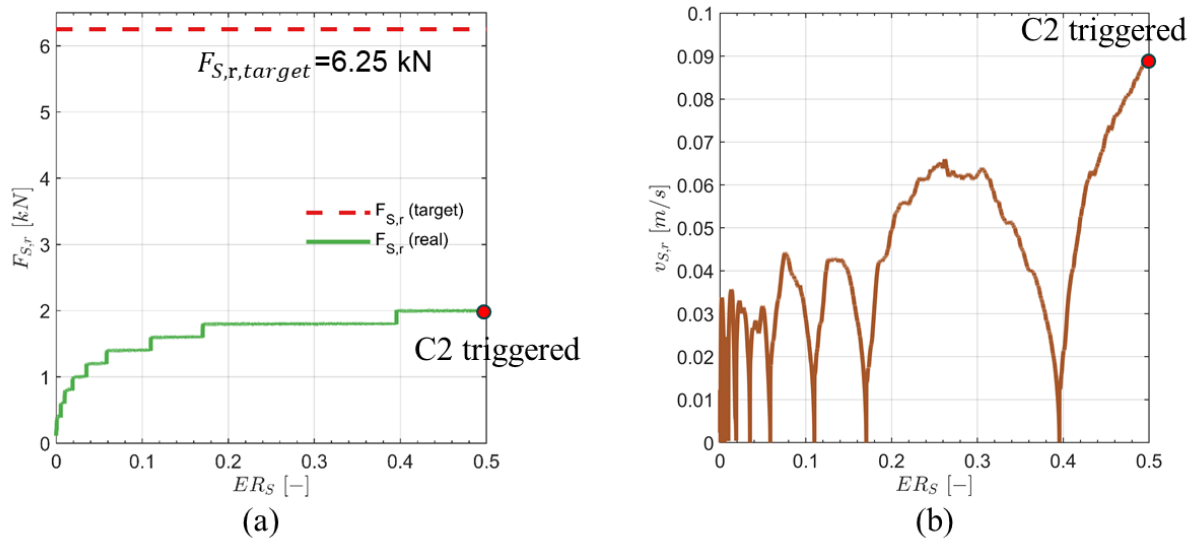


Figure 8 Loading strategy based on initial penetration resistance: (a) Radial force evolution and (b) radial velocity against shaft expansion ratio.

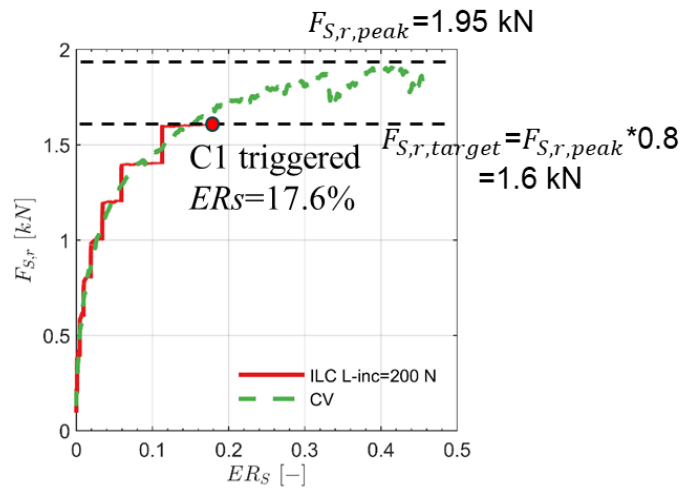


Figure 9 Shaft radial force against expansion ratio in loading strategy based on maximum anchorage force.

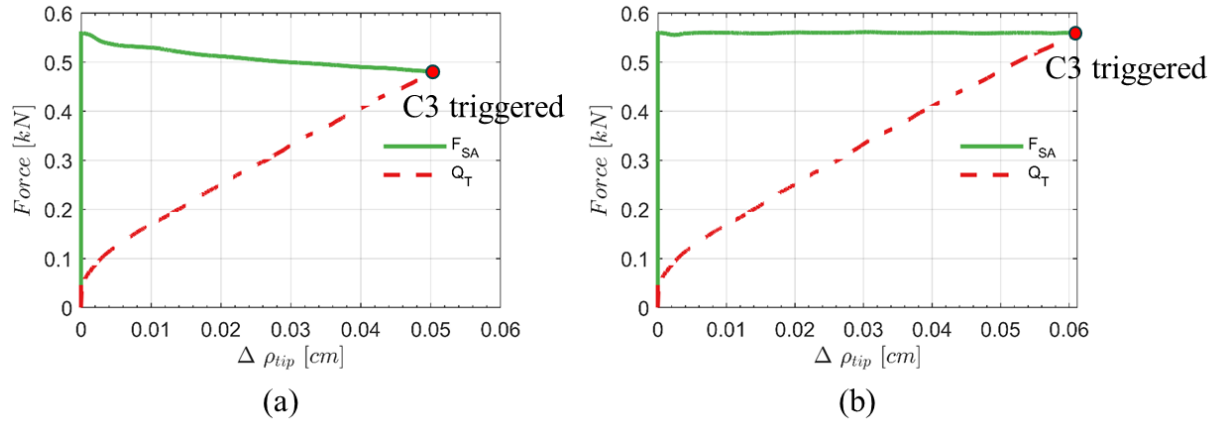


Figure 10 Force evolution against penetration depth under (a) CR and (b) CF shaft boundary condition.

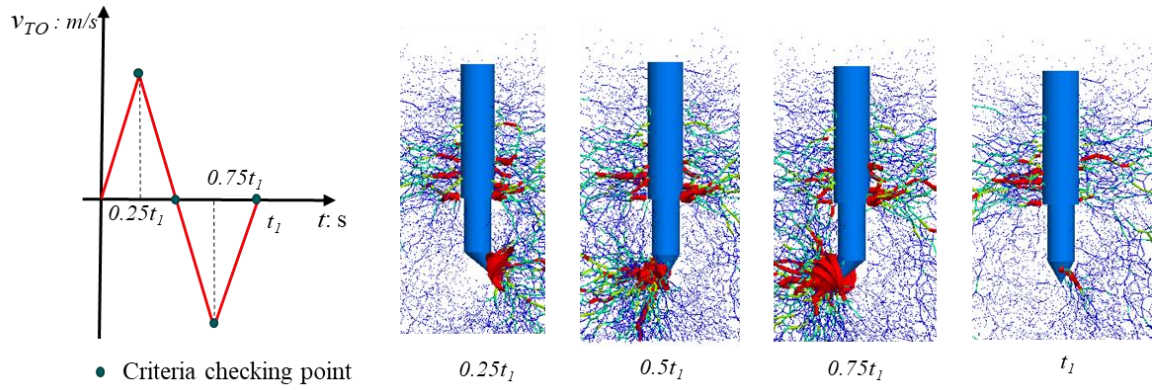


Figure 11 Tip oscillation algorithm and contact force development during oscillation. Contact force scales are the same as in Figure 7.

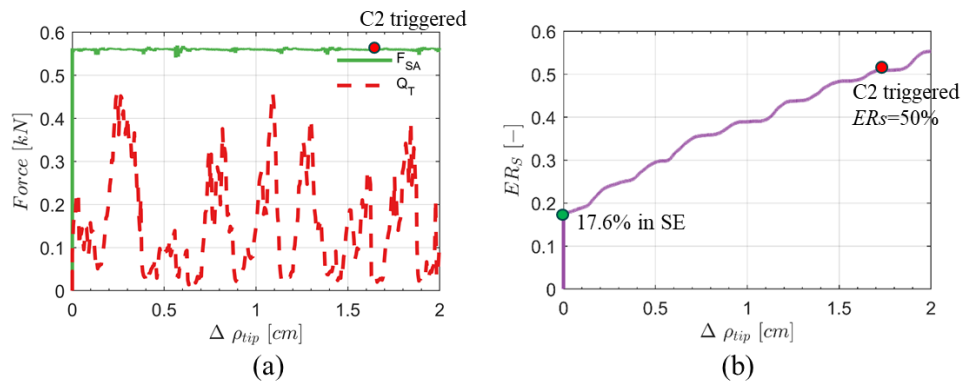


Figure 12 (a) Force evolution and (b) shaft radial expansion against penetration under CF shaft boundary condition.

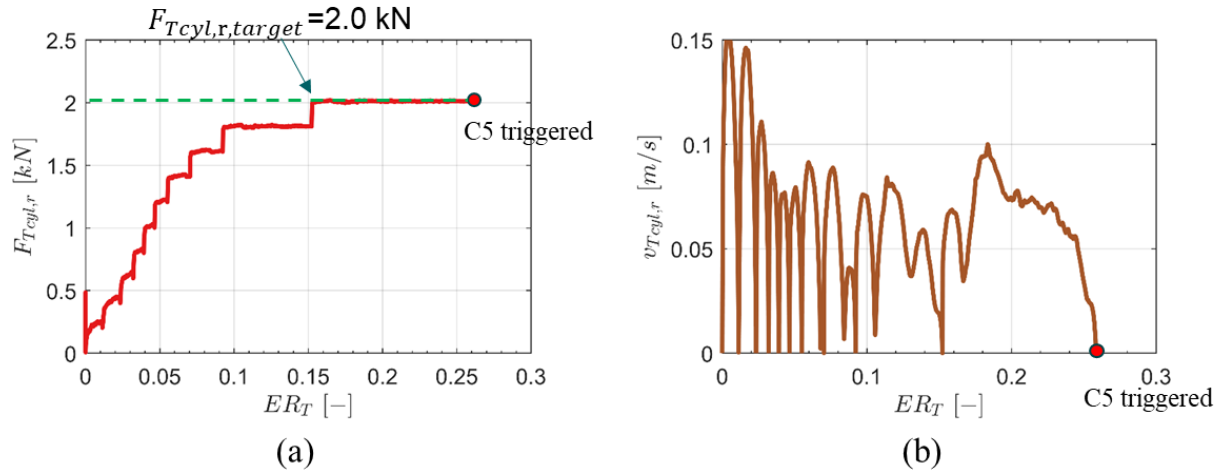


Figure 13 Incremental loading for tip expansion: (a) tip radial force and (b) radial velocity.

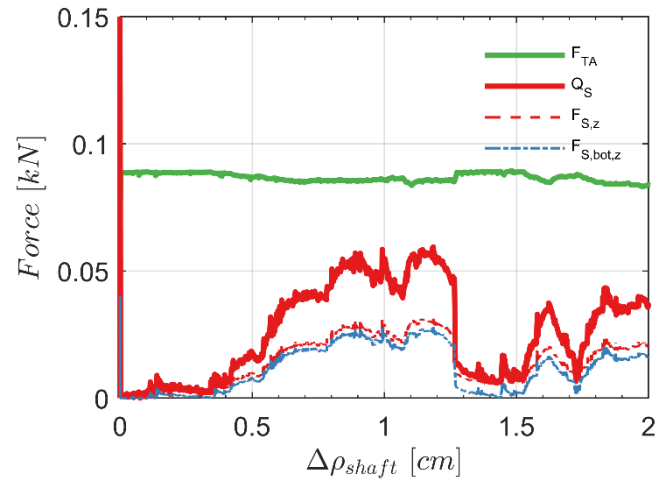


Figure 14 Evolution of relevant force elements with shaft retraction distance.

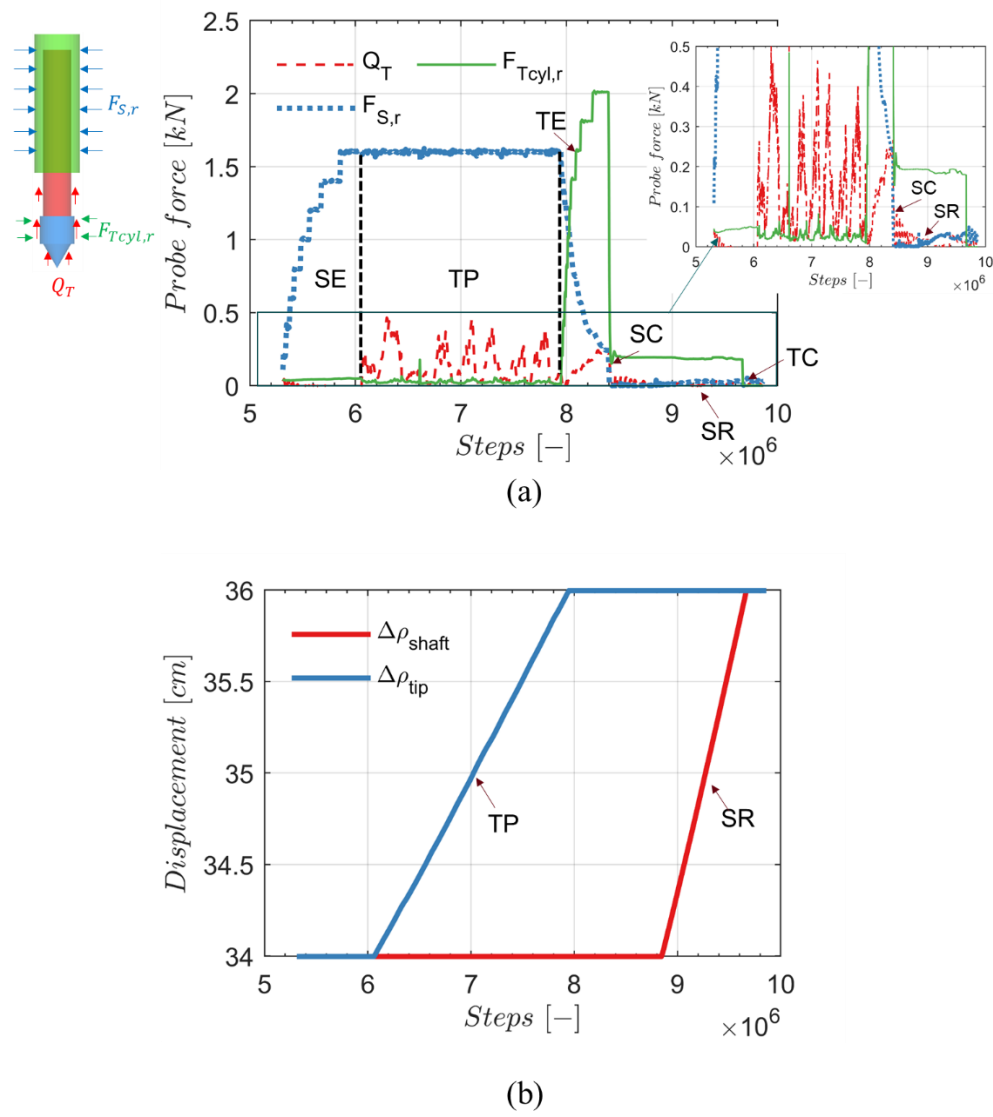


Figure 15 (a) Force evolution and (b) displacement during one single self-burrowing cycle against numerical steps.

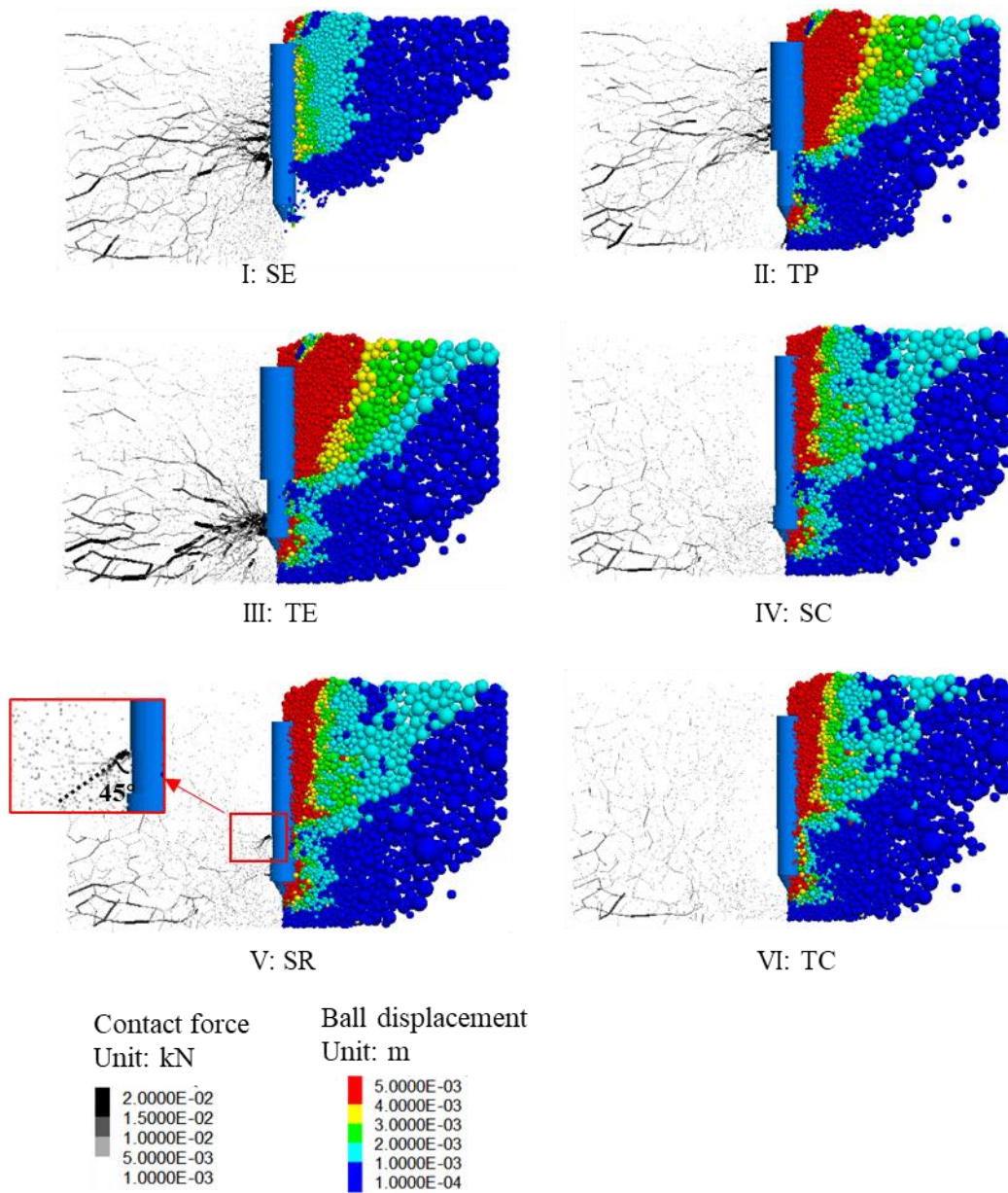


Figure 16 Micromechanical observations in each self-burrowing step. Left half of each image presents contact force network and right half presents particle displacement fields accumulated after initial penetration.

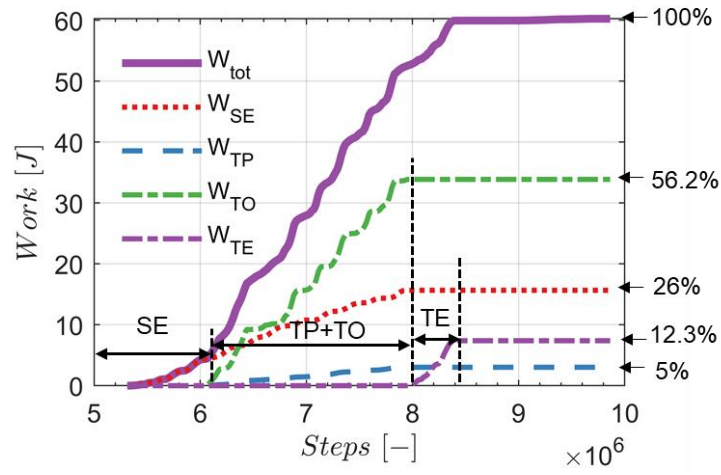
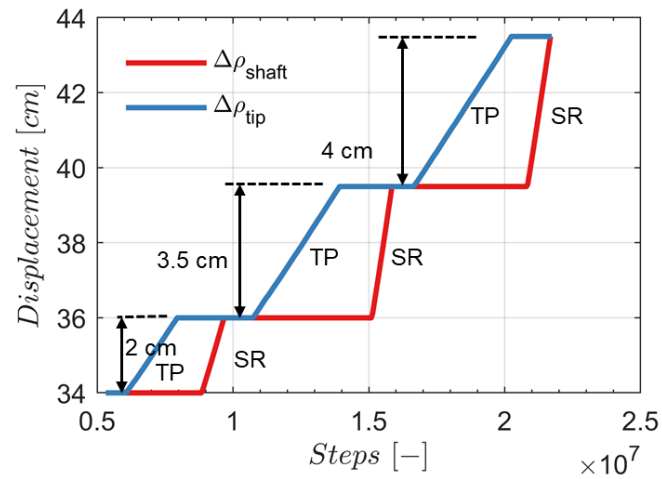
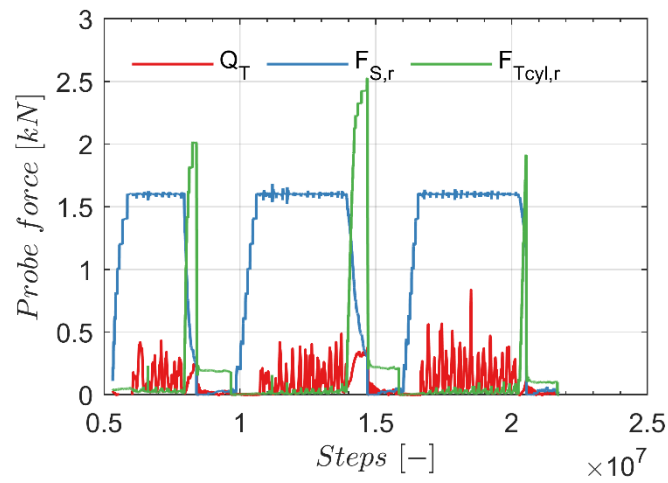


Figure 17 Evolution of work done through self-burrowing steps.



(a)



(b)

Figure 18 (a) Achieved burrowing distance and (b) measured force components during multiple cycles.

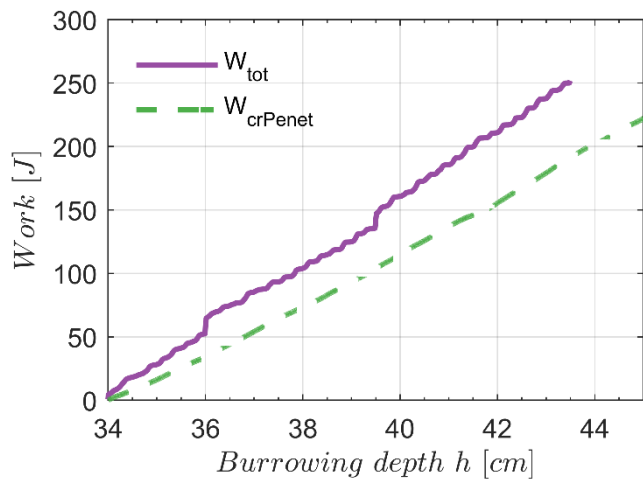


Figure 19 Energy comparisons measured in constant rate penetration and self-burrowing cycles.