

1 Convolutional neural network augmented soft-sensor for autonomous  
2 microfluidic production of uniform bubbles

3 Owen Land<sup>a</sup>, Warren D. Seider<sup>a</sup>, Daeyeon Lee<sup>a</sup>

4 <sup>a</sup>*Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, University of Pennsylvania,  
5 Philadelphia, USA*

6

7 Keywords: droplets, control, artificial-intelligence, disturbance rejection

8

10 **Abstract**

11 Microfluidics has emerged as a foundational process for creating highly uniform emulsions and  
12 bubbles. To enable integration of microfluidic platforms into industrial processes, achieving  
13 precise control over the size uniformity of microfluidic-generated bubbles and emulsions is  
14 crucial. Even if the external variables such as flow rates or pressures are kept constant,  
15 microfluidic processes can be easily disturbed by unknown factors that would substantially  
16 compromise the uniformity of resulting emulsions and bubbles. In this study, we introduce a  
17 two-step soft-sensor approach that combines a convolutional neural network (CNN) and an  
18 image recognition algorithm for feature extraction to detect both the flow regime and the size  
19 and uniformity of resulting bubbles. By using the CNN to detect flow regimes, our controller is  
20 able to restore the bubble-producing flow regime in response to disturbances. Beyond self-  
21 recovery, our controller actively adjusts to minimize errors, maintain setpoints, mitigate  
22 disturbances, and ensure system stability over extended periods. 99.2% of bubbles produced  
23 during an 8-hour period remain within 5% of the setpoint with our controller taking action. By  
24 leveraging the soft sensor and artificial intelligence-assisted feedback control, our work presents  
25 a widely applicable approach for precise and automated control of microfluidics in diverse  
26 applications.

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Microfluidics enables the production and manipulation of multi-phasic mixtures such as gas  
30 bubbles, liquid droplets and multiple emulsions with unparalleled precision and control.

31 Leveraging advanced techniques in micro/nano-fabrication, precise microchannels can be  
32 manufactured to control droplets and bubbles for a wide range of advanced applications [1]. For  
33 example, chemical reactions can be induced in single droplets, providing a unique platform to  
34 conduct high-throughput analyses and synthesis with minimal reagents use and reduced waste  
35 [2–4]. Furthermore, droplet microfluidics facilitates the encapsulation of delicate biological  
36 materials such as cells and proteins under mild conditions that preserve their functionality and  
37 viability, which is particularly well-suited for the development of low-cost and highly efficient  
38 biomedical diagnostics and therapeutics [5–7]. The precision and scalability of droplet  
39 microfluidics enables fabrication of functional particles such as microbubbles, microcapsules and  
40 nanoparticles with precisely designed morphology and functionality, enhancing disease  
41 diagnostics as well as controlled release and targeted delivery of various pharmaceutical actives  
42 [8–10].

43 Achieving consistent uniformity in the production of droplets and bubbles throughout the  
44 operation of microfluidic devices is crucial for harnessing the full benefits of this technology.  
45 The maintenance of uniformity is, however, challenged by several factors, which necessitates  
46 continuous user intervention to adjust flow rates and pressures, ensuring that the droplet and  
47 bubble production maintains the desired dimensions and properties. Even seemingly negligible  
48 changes in operating conditions can cause large fluctuations in performance of device output  
49 because of the sensitivity of flow behaviors of fluids at the microscopic scale. Over time, the  
50 performance of microfluidic devices may be further compromised by issues such as surface  
51 fouling, changes in wetting properties, channel clogging and the solvent-induced swelling of the  
52 microfluidic devices [11–13]. These factors introduce additional layers of complexity in

53 achieving and maintaining the uniformity of droplet and bubble generation, posing significant  
54 challenges to the scalability and reliability of microfluidic applications.

55

56 Developing autonomous microfluidic systems capable of self-adapting to changing conditions  
57 would enable the precise formation of a wide array of droplets and bubbles with complex  
58 composition and morphology without direct operator intervention [14]. The realization of such a  
59 capability will enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of droplet and bubble microfluidics and  
60 simultaneously lead to new applications that leverage the full potential of this versatile  
61 technology.

62

63 A few recent studies have demonstrated the ability to control droplet microfluidics, using  
64 technologies such as neural networks and reinforcement learning to gather insight on flow  
65 regimes in microfluidics over various flow conditions [15,16]. Other techniques involve the use  
66 of impedance electronics embedded into the microfluidic device as a sensor for measuring  
67 microbubble diameter as a function of the voltage measured or measuring the interference  
68 pattern created by focusing a laser on droplets in the outlet channel using piezoelectric transducer  
69 [17,18]. Vision Development Module within LabVIEW (National Instruments<sup>TM</sup>) has been used  
70 for droplet detection and control using a virtual instrument [19]. In addition, feedback sensors  
71 have been developed for precise control of flowrates and pressures in microfluidic devices off-  
72 chip [20,21]. Despite these advances, many of these approaches use highly sophisticated sensing  
73 techniques that involve specialized equipment not traditionally used in microfluidics, do not have  
74 the ability to easily measure process variables on-chip, and do not have the ability to control the

75 system when it is disturbed to reach different flow regimes, such as one in which bubbles or  
76 droplets are not produced.

77

78 In this study, we introduce an autonomous microfluidics system that relies simply on  
79 microscopic imaging and is trained with a convolutional neural network (CNN) to return the  
80 process to the desired microbubble production flow regime. Our system is able to control the size  
81 of microfluidic bubble production using only commercially available pressure controllers, a  
82 microscope, and a high-speed camera, all of which are commonly employed in microfluidic  
83 setups. We generate gas bubbles in a flow-focusing device by applying pressure to the dispersed  
84 gas phase using a high-pressure nitrogen canister. Additionally, we use pressure-driven flow,  
85 also from a high-pressure nitrogen canister, to pressurize a liquid reservoir, thereby pushing the  
86 liquid into the microfluidic chip. Pressure driven flow of the aqueous phase is chosen over  
87 commercially available syringe pumps because of their significantly reduced response times  
88 without periodic fluctuations [22]. Gas bubbles are selected over liquid droplets due to their  
89 greater size variability for various reasons including the compressibility of the gas phase, large  
90 interfacial tension, and significantly different viscosity of the two phases, necessitating enhanced  
91 control.

92

93 Our control system actively adjusts either the liquid driving pressure or gas pressure to ensure  
94 the bubbles being produced match the user-specified setpoint for the bubble diameter while  
95 showing effective setpoint tracking, disturbance rejection, and stability over an eight-hour  
96 period. Potentially, our approach can be trained to control the shape of particles produced by

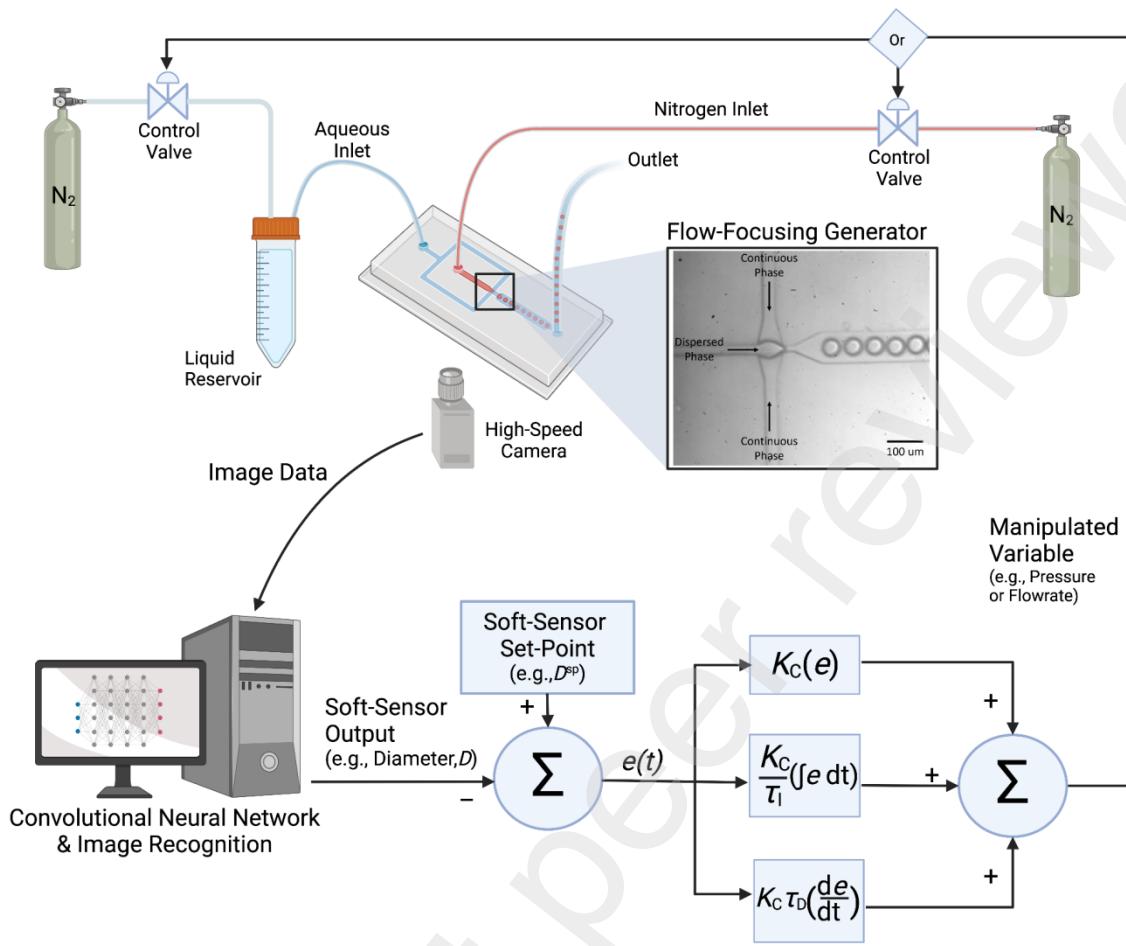
97 microfluidics such as rods and discs, and higher-order geometries such as double emulsions and  
98 Janus droplets.

99 **2. Materials and Methods**

100 *2.1. Flow focusing generator for gas-bubble production*

101 We use a well-established flow-focusing generator to produce gas bubbles [23,24]. This  
102 geometry splits the continuous phase into two streams which subsequently surround and pinch  
103 off the dispersed phase at a cross junction, as shown in Figure 1. The symmetry of the junction  
104 allows for more flexibility in the size and frequency of bubble generation. The immiscibility of  
105 the two phases forces bubbles to form through either a dripping or jetting mechanism [25]. The  
106 dripping regime involves the periodic breakup of a fluid stream into bubbles due to capillary  
107 instability. This instability arises from the interplay of surface tension and viscous forces. The  
108 dripping frequency is governed by the capillary number (Ca), representing the ratio of viscous to  
109 capillary forces. The jetting regime involves the stretching of a fluid stream into an extended jet  
110 due to the dominance of inertial forces or viscous forces over capillary forces. Microfluidic  
111 droplets and bubbles produced in the jetting regime are larger and less uniform compared to  
112 those formed in the dripping regime due to the unfixed interface position during breakup [26].  
113 Controlling the flows of the two fluid phases to maintain microfluidic generation in the dripping  
114 regime is critical to maintaining the uniformity of resulting droplets and bubbles [27].

115



116  
117 Figure 1. Control schematic using CNN & image recognition for PID control of microfluidic  
118 bubble generation. Created with BioRender.com.

119  
120 In this study, we use a flow-focusing geometry to produce nitrogen gas (dispersed phase)  
121 bubbles in an aqueous phase of 0.5 wt% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) dissolved in DI water  
122 (continuous phase). The dispersed phase is injected into the device as pressurized nitrogen gas  
123 controlled by a differential pressure controller and the continuous phase is injected by using a  
124 differential pressure controller to adjust the pressure in a pressurized liquid reservoir and thus  
125 drive flow into the microfluidic device as depicted in Figure 1. All microfluidic devices in this

126 study have undergone hydrophilic-surface treatment to ensure stable formation of gas bubbles  
127 using a 2 wt% polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) solution [12].

128 *2.2. Proportional-integral-derivative (PID) control*

129 PID control is one of the most fundamental types of control and is widely used in industrial  
130 applications due to its simplicity and effectiveness [28]. It has been widely studied, can address a  
131 wide range of process behaviors, and is straightforward to implement, making it a natural choice  
132 for control of microfluidics. PID feedback control operates by continuously comparing the  
133 desired setpoint to the process output, giving the error,  $e$ . The proportional term responds to the  
134 current error, the integral term accumulates past errors to eliminate steady-state discrepancies  
135 (offset), and the derivative term accounts for the rate of change of the error, as shown in  
136 Equation 1.

137 
$$u(t) = K_c e(t) + \frac{K_c}{\tau_I} \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_C \tau_D \frac{de}{dt} + c_s \quad (1)$$

138 where  $K_c$  is the proportional gain,  $\tau_I$  is the integral time-constant in minutes,  $\tau_D$  is the derivative  
139 time constant in minutes, and  $c_s$  is the controller bias (actuating signal when  $e=0$ ) [28]. These  
140 terms are combined to compute the controller output ( $u(t)$ ), aiming to reduce the error and  
141 maintain stable and precise control of the process. In this study, two separate control schemes are  
142 explored: manipulating the pressure of the dispersed air phase to control microbubble diameter  
143 and manipulating the liquid driving pressure of the continuous phase to control microbubble  
144 diameter as illustrated in the control scheme of Figure 1.

145

146 Altering the PID tuning parameters  $K_C$ ,  $\tau_I$ , and  $\tau_D$  can significantly influence the response of the  
147 controller; increasing the proportional gain enhances responsiveness, but may lead to

148 overshooting, while adjusting the integral and derivative time-constants affects the elimination of  
149 steady-state error and reduces the settling time, respectively. This method has been used in many  
150 applications, but it relies on measuring the process output in real-time. Numerous process  
151 parameters, including pressure and temperature, can be measured directly using commercially  
152 available real-time in-line sensors. However, microfluidic processes currently lack reliable,  
153 industry-proven inline sensor technologies that can directly measure the important process  
154 variables that need to be controlled such as size, shape, and flow regime. Thus, we use an  
155 artificial intelligence (AI)-based approach to create an indirect sensor, known as a soft-sensor,  
156 when controlling microfluidics.

157

### 158 *2.3. Soft sensors*

159 When sensor variables are difficult to measure, soft-sensors can be used to estimate them. There  
160 are three types of soft-sensor models: knowledge-based models that rely on first principles,  
161 black-box models that are data-driven, and hybrid models that combine the two [29]. In this  
162 study, a black-box model consisting of a two-step process is used to estimate the flow regime  
163 and diameter of the process output, gas bubbles. The first step in our process is using a  
164 convolutional neural network (CNN) for image classification. CNNs have played a crucial role in  
165 the development and advancement of computer vision and artificial intelligence (AI) [30]. In this  
166 study, a linear architecture CNN is used to classify the microfluidic output into one of three  
167 regimes: liquid-dominated flow, air-dominated flow, and microbubble flow, as shown in Figure  
168 2. The second step in our process is using a Hough image recognition algorithm for detection of  
169 the microbubbles. This algorithm is designed for feature extraction and gives outputs of their  
170 location and diameter.



171

172 Figure 2. Representative training three flow regimes for CNN: (a) A liquid-dominated flow  
173 regime without bubble generation, (b) bubble generation in the dripping regime, and (c) air-  
174 dominated jetting regime.

175

176 Our novel soft-sensor operates as follows: first, a CNN trained for image classification  
177 determines the current flow regime of the process from a snapshot of the device taken by a high-  
178 speed microscope camera. When the process is in a bubble producing dripping regime, an image  
179 recognition algorithm measures the diameter of the bubbles being produced. The combination of  
180 the CNN and image recognition is the soft-sensor output on which the controller acts to match  
181 the bubble diameter to the user-specified setpoint. When the process is not in a bubble producing  
182 flow regime, a direct controller action is taken to return the process to the production of gas  
183 bubbles. Our two-step approach is superior to other microfluidic control techniques because of  
184 its ability to return to the bubble-producing dripping regime when a disturbance causes it to  
185 move into a flow regime in which bubbles are not being produced. Our controller acts in real-

186 time and can obtain measurements and adjust setpoints with an average sampling frequency of  
187 108 milliseconds.

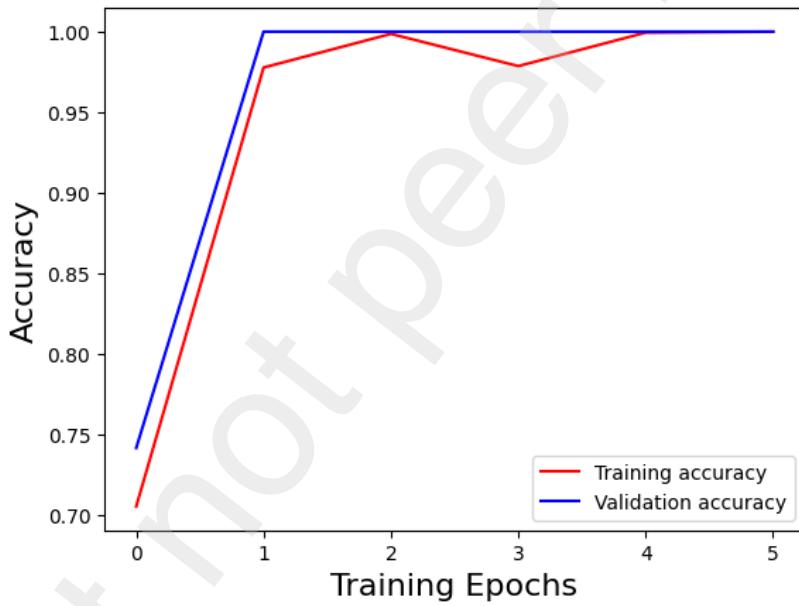
188 *2.4. Microfluidic fabrication and operation*

189 Photomasks for microfluidic geometries were purchased from Artnet Pro, Inc. Silicon wafers  
190 were cleaned with IPA and DI water before oxygen plasma cleaning (Anatech) for enhanced  
191 bonding. SU-8 2025 photoresist was spin coated onto the silicon wafer before soft-baking at  
192 65°C for 3 minutes, then at 95°C for 6 minutes. The wafer was exposed to 160 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> at 365 nm  
193 intensity (ABM). After exposure, the wafer was post-baked for 2 minutes at 65°C and then for 6  
194 minutes at 95°C. Lastly, the silicon wafer was gently agitated for 8 minutes in SU-8 developer.  
195 PDMS (SYLGARD 184) was mixed in a 10:1 weight ratio of elastomer to curing agent. The  
196 mixture was degassed in a vacuum chamber for 1 hour to remove all bubbles before curing for 1  
197 hour in an 80°F oven. The resulting elastomer mold was cut from the master and oxygen plasma  
198 bonded to a glass slide. 2 wt% PVA was surface coated onto the PDMS for a hydrophilic coating  
199 [12].

200 The aqueous phase in all experiments was 0.5 wt% SDS dissolved in DI water. The aqueous  
201 phase was administered using a differential pressure controller (Alicat) to pressurize a liquid  
202 reservoir to drive flow into the device. Compressed nitrogen (Airgas) was used for the dispersed  
203 phase and was controlled using a differential pressure controller (Alicat). Images used for the  
204 control scheme were taken on a Nikon eclipse TE200 inverted microscope with 3 different high-  
205 speed cameras, a Photron Mini AX-200, a Phantom Vision Research v7.3, and a Phantom Vision  
206 Research v611 proving the adaptability of this approach across multiple microfluidic setups.

207      *2.5. Neural network architecture and training*

208      A sequential 19-layer CNN was created using the Keras API inside of Tensorflow. The  
209      architecture contained 4 convolution layers using  $3 \times 3$  convolutions and  $2 \times 2$  max pooling. The  
210      remaining structure was flattened with a dropout layer set at 50%. There were two dense layers,  
211      one with rectified linear activation and the final layer with softmax activation function. The  
212      neural net was trained with  $128 \times 600$  resolution images. 43,554 images were used for neural net  
213      training and the net was validated with an additional 4,839 images. 100% accuracy was achieved  
214      for both training and validation sets within 5 epochs as shown in Figure 3.



215

216      Figure 3. Training and validation accuracy of CNN.

217      *2.6. Image recognition and feature extraction*

218      Image recognition was completed using Matlab image recognition functions. Since the bubbles  
219      in this work are circular, the function imfindcircles was used. This built-in function uses a Hough  
220      transform to isolate features and extract their location and size. Hough transforms are techniques  
221      used in computer vision and image analysis for feature extraction [31]. This is used to measure

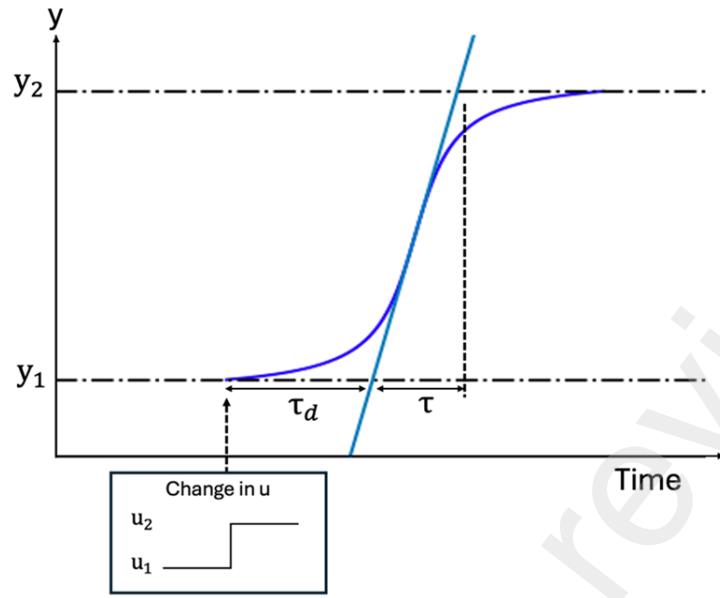
222 the size, position, and uniformity of every bubble present in an image as part of the soft-sensor  
223 output.

224 **3. Results and Discussion**

225 *3.1. Ziegler-Nichols tuning*

226 Tuning the PID control parameters is required to achieve reliable controller responses. In this  
227 study, we tune a single-input, single-output (SISO) controller to control the output diameter of  
228 bubbles made in a microfluidic device by varying either the air pressure of the dispersed phase,  
229 or the liquid driving pressure of the continuous phase. Ziegler-Nichols open-loop response  
230 tuning rules are used to acquire initial tuning parameters before adjustments are made to obtain  
231 the desired responses. Ziegler-Nichols tuning is appropriate because the system responses exhibit  
232 first-order plus dead-time behavior (FOPDT). Tuning parameters are obtained without the  
233 controller while monitoring the response to a step change in the manipulated variable. As shown  
234 in the process reaction-curve in Figure 4, a tangent line through the inflection point is drawn to  
235 estimate the delay time ( $\tau_d$ ) and response time ( $\tau$ ). Here,  $u$  is the step change in the process input,  
236 such as gas pressure, and  $y$  is the change in the measured process variable, which is the bubble  
237 diameter herein. These variables are used to calculate controller parameters, where  $K_C = 1.2$   
238  $\left(\frac{\tau_d u}{\tau_d \Delta y}\right)$ ,  $\tau_I = 2.0 \tau_d$  and  $\tau_D = 0.5 \tau_d$  [32]. Small changes in tuning parameters are then made to  
239 achieve the desired slightly overdamped response from our controller.

240



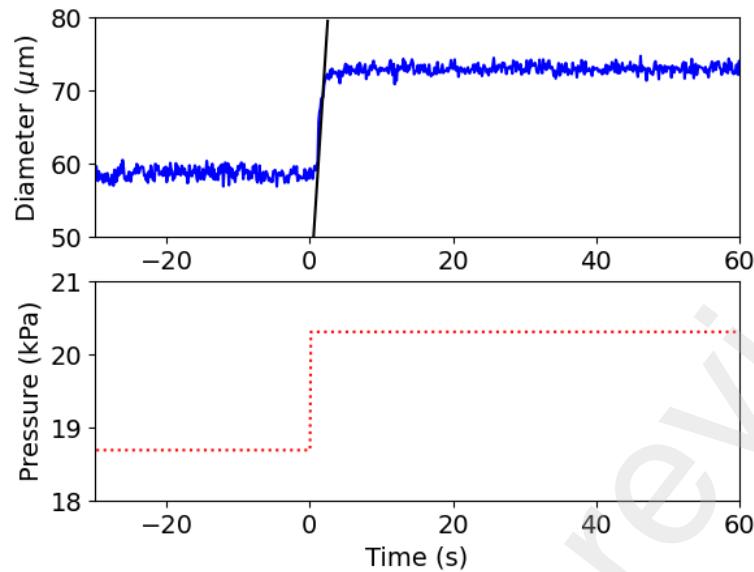
241

242 Figure 4. Process reaction curve for a first-order plus dead time (FOPDT) response in the process  
 243 variable to a step change in the manipulated variable used for Ziegler-Nichols open-loop tuning  
 244 [31].

245

246 For a step pressure increase from 18.7 to 20.3 kPa, an increase in diameter is shown in Figure 5.  
 247 Plotting the tangent line to the curve, the delay time is 1.1 second and the response time is 1  
 248 second. These yield  $K_C = 0.125 \text{ kPa}/\mu\text{m}$ ,  $\tau_I = 2.2$  seconds, and  $\tau_D = 0.55$  seconds.

249

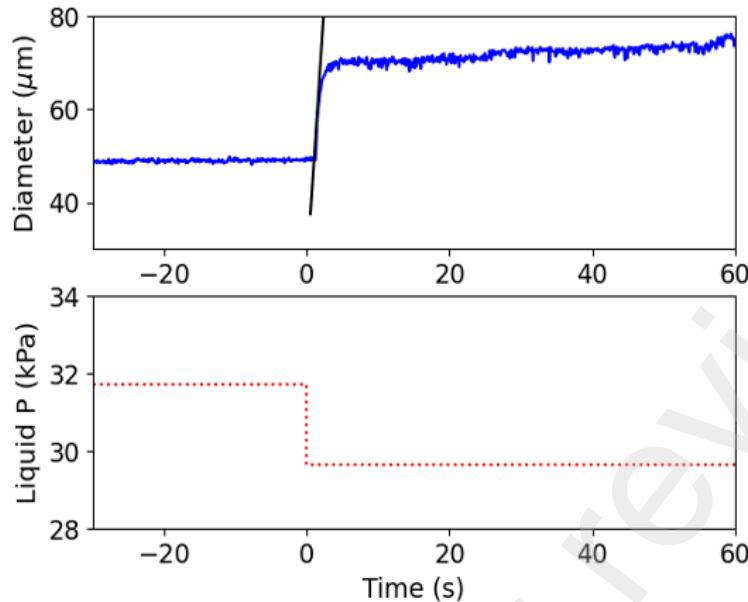


250

251 Figure 5. Diameter response (a) from open-loop step change in pressure from 18.7 kPa to 20.3  
 252 kPa (b) using Ziegler-Nichols tuning.

253

254 Instead of the gas pressure, the flowrate of the continuous phase is manipulated by varying the  
 255 liquid driving pressure. For a driving pressure step change from 31.7 kPa to 29.6 kPa, the delay  
 256 time is 1.2 seconds, and the response time is 2.3 seconds, yielding  $K_C = -0.21 \text{ kPa}/\mu\text{m}$ ,  $\tau_I = 2.4$   
 257 seconds, and  $\tau_D = 0.6$  seconds, as shown in Figure 6.



258

259 Figure 6. Diameter response (a) from open-loop step change in flowrate created by a step change  
 260 in liquid pressure from 31.7 kPa to 29.6 kPa (b) using Ziegler-Nichols tuning.

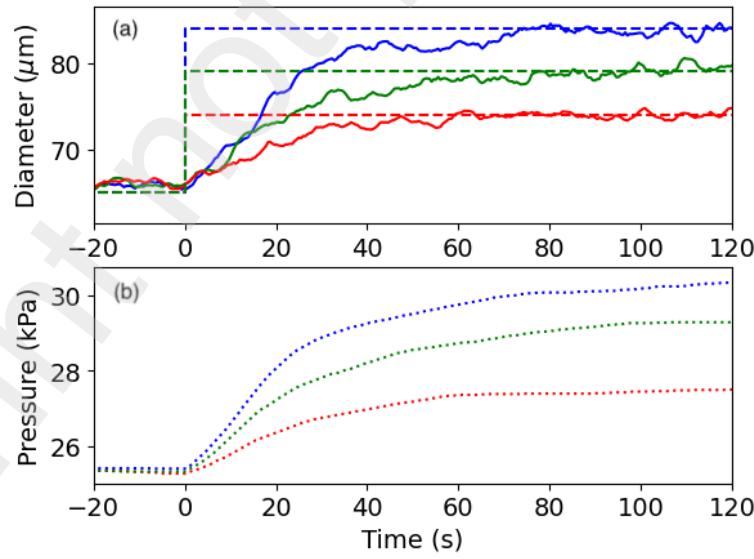
261

262 *3.2. Setpoint Tracking*

263 Setpoint tracking by PID control holds significant importance in optimizing process  
 264 performance, ensuring close adherence to desired operating conditions and allowing for switches  
 265 to new operating setpoints. For many microfluidic processes, effective changes in bubble/droplet  
 266 diameters are required for different applications. For example, the gas bubble diameter is crucial  
 267 in determining its resonance frequency, particularly in applications where bubbles serve as a  
 268 contrast agent in ultrasound sonography [33]. In the context of microfluidic reactors, the droplet  
 269 diameter plays a crucial role in influencing the reaction rates and kinetics of associated chemical  
 270 processes [34].

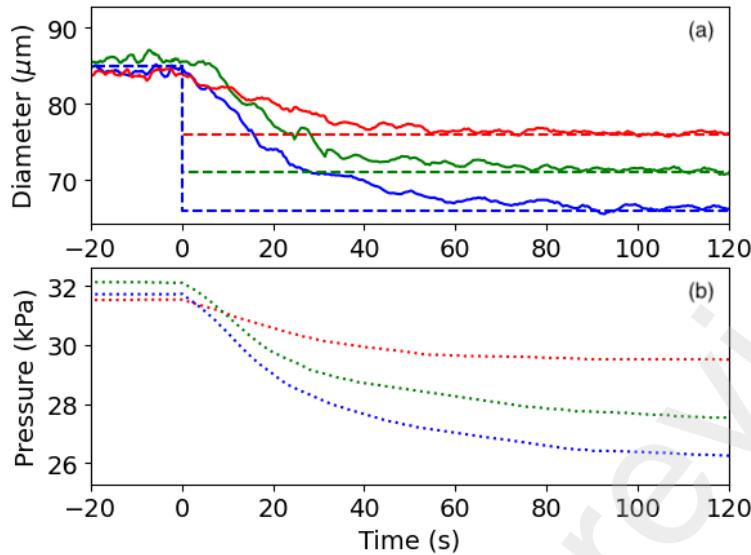
271

272 With our controller, we can dynamically manipulate either the continuous phase (aqueous  
273 flowrate via liquid driving pressure), or the dispersed phase (air pressure) to reach a desired  
274 setpoint, output bubble diameter. Figures 7-10 show the experimental controller actions after a  
275 diameter setpoint changes at time zero. Each color represents a different setpoint change: dashed  
276 lines for setpoint changes, and solid lines for process variable changes. The liquid driving  
277 pressure (aqueous flowrate) is kept constant, and the air pressure is manipulated by the controller  
278 to reach the new setpoint in Figures 7 and 8, where the first shows the response for an increase in  
279 the diameter setpoint and the latter for a decrease in the diameter setpoint. Both responses are  
280 adjusted to be slightly overdamped; that is, having small overshoot before settling to the desired  
281 value, with all responses settling to the new setpoint in under 100 seconds – similar to those in  
282 other microfluidic control studies [20]. This response is more reliable compared to underdamped  
283 systems having large oscillations in diameter and long settling times. Underdamped tuning  
284 parameter responses are shown in Figures S1 and S2.



285

286 Figure 7. Setpoint tracking diameter responses (a) while varying pressure (b) while at constant  
287 aqueous flowrate for increases in diameter setpoint.



288

289 Figure 8. Setpoint tracking diameter responses (a) while varying pressure (b) while at constant  
290 aqueous flowrate for decreases in diameter setpoint.

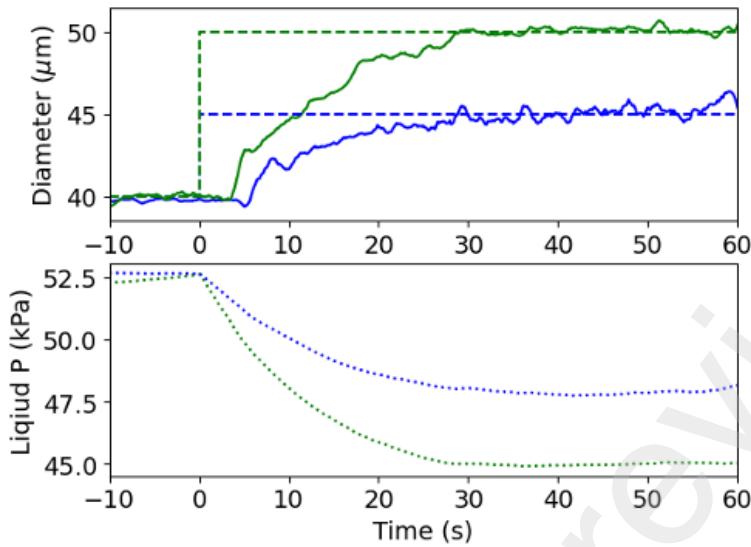
291

292 We also perform tests with constant pressure while manipulating the aqueous flowrate via liquid  
293 driving pressure to achieve the new setpoint as shown in Figures 9 and 10. The controller can  
294 achieve changes in setpoint for increases in diameter as shown in Figure 9 and for decreases in  
295 diameter as shown in Figure 10. Again, these responses are overdamped, not allowing any  
296 overshoot, and it is seen that response times are considerably faster using pressure driven flow  
297 for the aqueous phase than widely used commercially available syringe pumps seen in Figures  
298 S3 and S4.

299

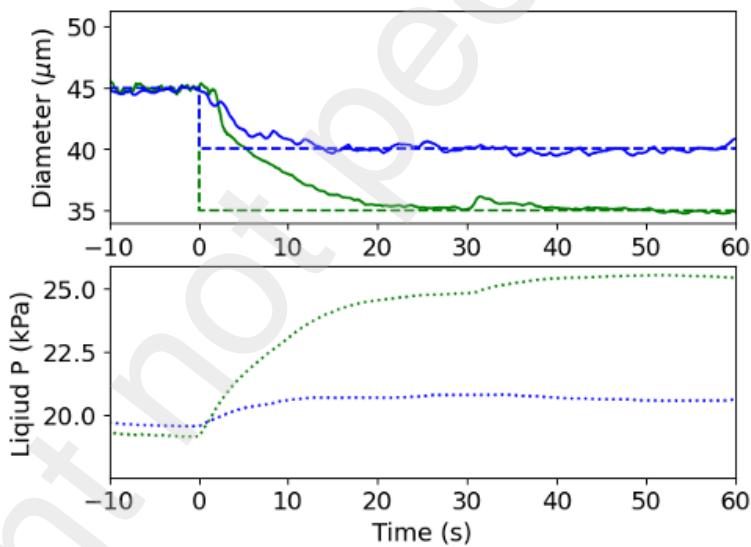
300

301



302

303 Figure 9. Setpoint tracking diameter responses (a) while varying liquid driving pressure (b) while  
 304 at constant air pressure for increases in diameter setpoint.



305

306 Figure 10. Setpoint tracking diameter responses (a) while varying liquid driving pressure (b)  
 307 while at constant air pressure for decreases in diameter setpoint.

308

309      *3.3. Disturbance Rejection*

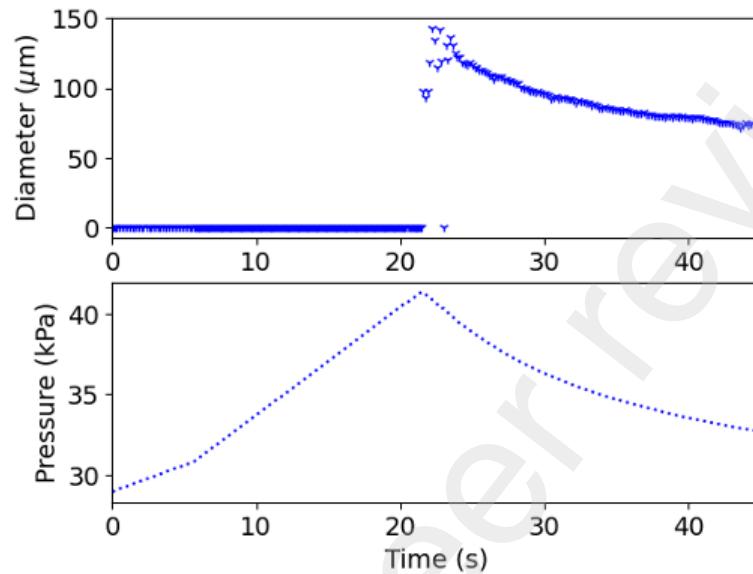
310      Disturbance rejection is needed to overcome all potential disruptions during process operation.  
311      This is especially important in intricate microfluidic processes in which minute variations can  
312      have large impacts on the process outputs due to inherently-small length scales. Such  
313      disturbances in microbubble production occur due to changes in air pressure, aqueous phase  
314      flowrate, fouling, clogging, changes in wetting properties, and external factors that cannot be  
315      anticipated [11,12,14]. For example, a random physical vibration such as one produced by  
316      motion of a person near the microfluidic set-up can significantly impact the uniformity of the  
317      resulting bubbles.

318

319      Our control system is superior to many microfluidic controllers because its CNN architecture  
320      allows it to recover from sharp disturbances that would otherwise move to non-bubble generating  
321      flow regimes, as shown in Figures 11 and 12. In Figure 12a, there are no bubbles being produced  
322      at a pressure of 29.3 kPa, so the controller linearly increases the pressure until bubbles are  
323      generated and the controller obtains an error for PID diameter control. The onset of bubble  
324      production occurs 21.5 seconds later at a breakthrough pressure of 41.9 kPa shown in Figure  
325      12b. Now that bubbles are being produced and the controller can measure an error, PID control  
326      takes over and reduces the pressure to 35.7 kPa to reach the intended setpoint shown in Figure  
327      12c. Basic PID control cannot achieve this transition to bubble creation because without bubbles,  
328      there is no way to obtain the current error. A recovery of flow regime video is shown in Video  
329      S5. Although neural networks for microfluidics control have been reported, their controllers are  
330      trained in the bubble generating regime only and do not account for the complex nature of bubble

331 breakup at elevated pressures or flowrates often needed to achieve breakthrough and induce  
332 breakup [16].

333



334

335 Figure 11. Diameter responses (a) while varying air pressure (b) to overcome liquid-dominated  
336 flow by reaching the breakthrough pressure of 41.9 kPa and tapering down to 35.7 kPa to  
337 achieve a setpoint of 70  $\mu\text{m}$  corresponding to images in Figure 12. Diameter values of zero  
338 indicate no bubbles production.

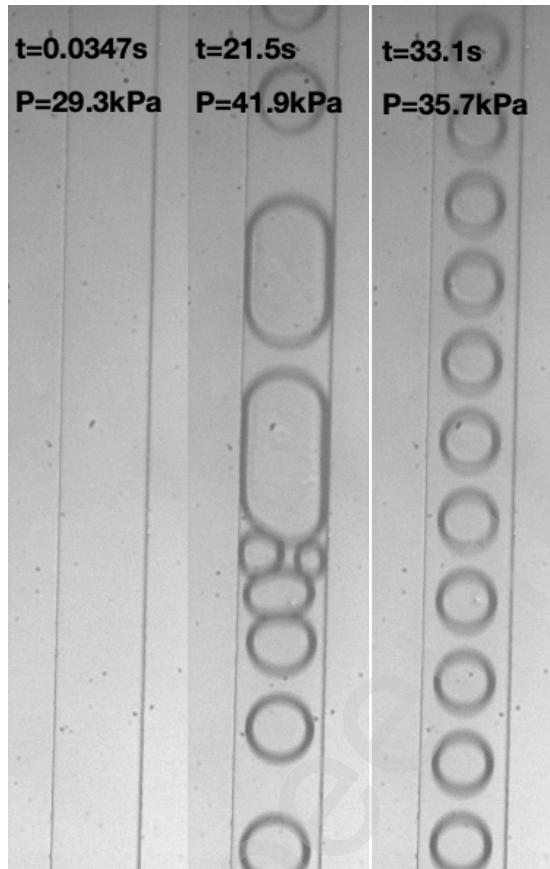
339

340

341

342

343



344

345

(a)

(b)

(c)

346 Figure 12. Time series response to sharp disturbance knocking flow out of a bubble producing  
347 flow regime. (a) System that has been disturbed and is in a liquid dominated flow regime – no  
348 longer producing bubbles. (b) Moment breakthrough pressure is reached by CNN allowing  
349 bubbles to be produced. (c) Controller continued to reduce the pressure from the breakthrough  
350 pressure to reach the setpoint diameter of 70  $\mu\text{m}$ .

351

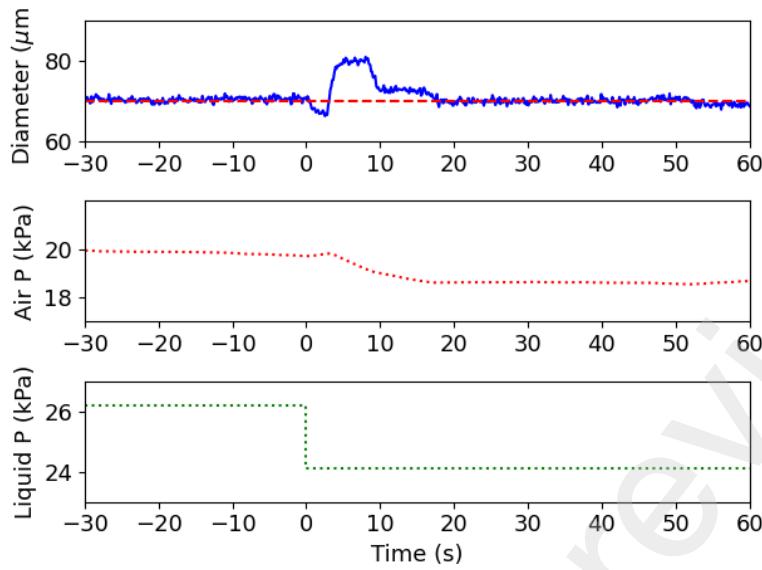
352 To track the CNN's activation frequency in disturbance recovery, a one-hour test is conducted at  
353 a constant setpoint, beginning with a dispersed phase pressure of 0 kPa. The CNN increases the  
354 pressure to initiate bubble production, after which PID control maintains the setpoint. The CNN  
355 activates if disturbances push the system into liquid- or air-dominated flow regimes. Over the

356 hour, PID control maintained the setpoint 99.2% of the time, but the CNN's disturbance recovery  
357 is crucial for sustained bubble production, as shown in Figure S6. This experiment demonstrates  
358 the controller's ability to start from a zero pressure condition using the CNN to drive the pressure  
359 up into the bubble production regime.

360

361 In addition to large disturbances, our controller overcomes disturbances small enough to create  
362 error only in the bubble diameter. As mentioned, two separate control schemes can be employed:  
363 altering dispersed phase pressure to regain the setpoint after a disturbance in flowrate as shown  
364 in Figure 13 and manipulating flowrate by changing liquid driving pressure to maintain setpoint  
365 after a disturbance in pressure as shown in Figure 14. The former shows a slightly overdamped  
366 response as the pressure slowly decreases without overshoot to regain the diameter setpoint after  
367 the flowrate disturbance. The pressure response is able to regain the setpoint in under 20  
368 seconds. The latter is also a slightly overdamped response to return the diameter to the setpoint  
369 following a sharp increase in dispersed phase pressure that causes the diameter to increase  
370 quickly above the setpoint. The controller increases the liquid driving pressure and thus the  
371 aqueous flowrate returns the bubbles to the setpoint in only 20 seconds.

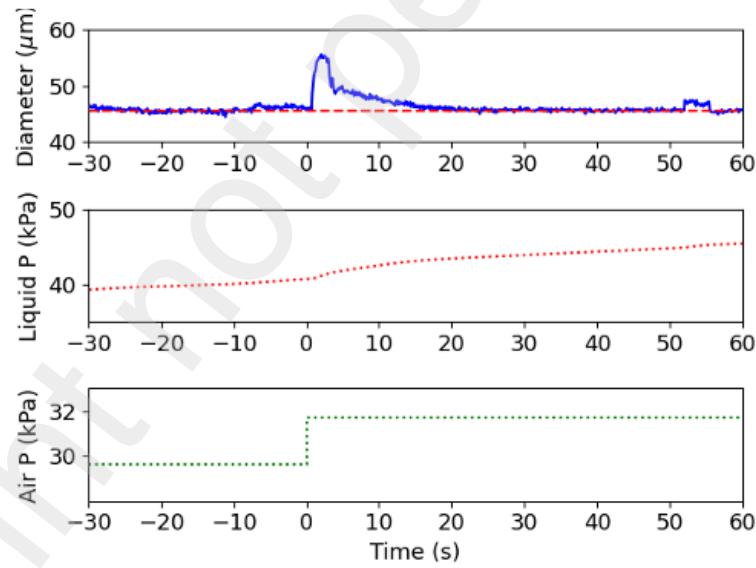
372



373

374 Figure 13. Diameter response (a) to maintain the setpoint value by varying the air pressure (b) to  
 375 overcome a flowrate disturbance caused by a change in liquid driving pressure (c).

376



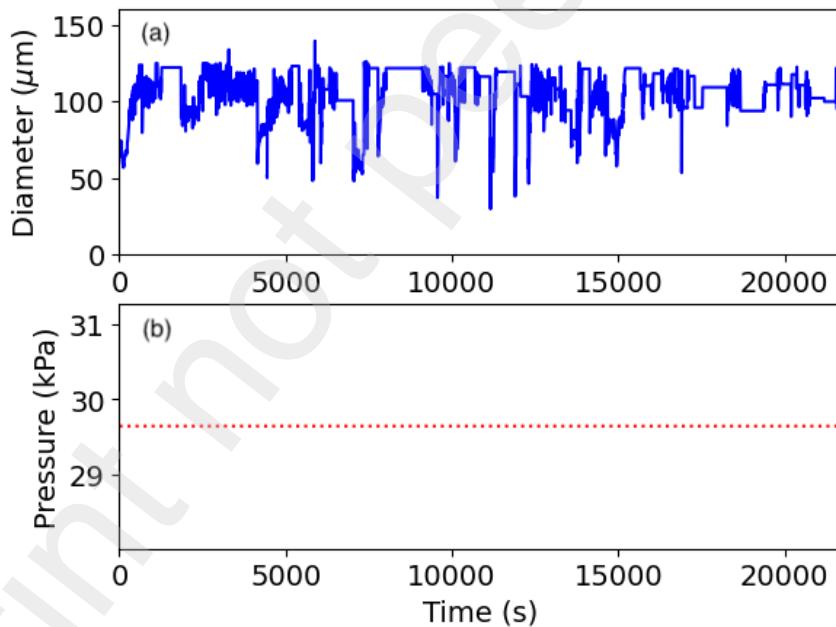
377

378 Figure 14. Diameter response (a) to maintain the setpoint value by varying the liquid driving  
 379 pressure (c) to overcome an air pressure disturbance (b).

380

381 Another important aspect of disturbance rejection is the ability to remain stable for long periods  
382 of time. A typical operating shift in manufacturing industries in the US and many countries is  
383 eight hours [35] during which many changes in operating conditions can occur. Figure 15 shows  
384 performance of a gas bubble generation process left unattended without control measures (i.e.,  
385 the flowrate and the pressure are kept constant). Over extended durations, frequent disruptions in  
386 flow conditions lead to significant variations in the output bubble size. Remarkably, only 2.16%  
387 of the produced bubbles fall within 5% of the initial bubble diameter. The exact cause of these  
388 disruptions is unknown, necessitating the implementation of a control system to counteract them,  
389 as they cannot be systematically eliminated from the process.

390



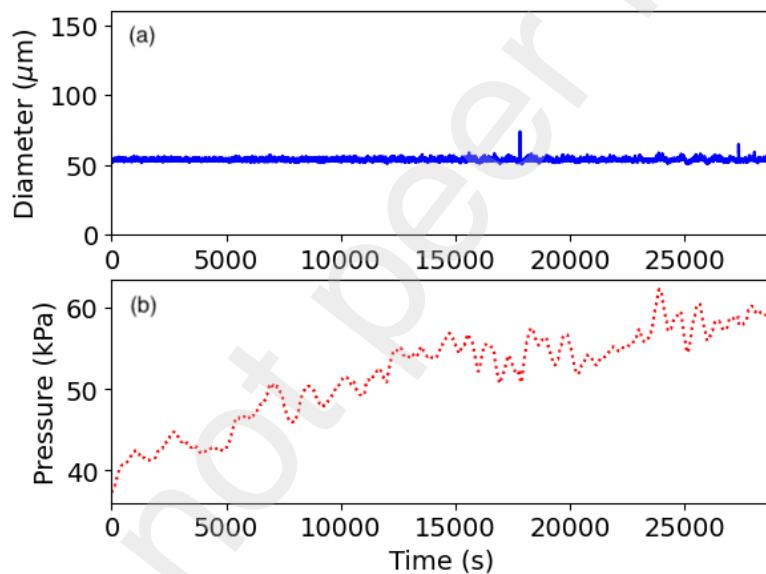
391

392 Figure 15. Long-term diameter response (a) of an open-loop control system with constant air  
393 pressure (b) at constant aqueous flowrate.

394

395 This drastic variability is avoided with control action, as shown in Figure 16. Despite  
396 disturbances, the controller adjusts the pressure to maintain the setpoint. Throughout the eight-  
397 hour period, our controller achieved 99.2% accuracy, with bubbles deviating by no more than  
398 5% from the setpoint. Notably, the pressure required to satisfy the setpoint must be increased  
399 gradually by over 50%; while we do not fully understand the physical origin of such an  
400 adjustment in the pressure, this result nevertheless highlights the importance of feedback control  
401 to enable stable and robust microfluidic manufacturing.

402



403  
404 Figure 16. Long-term diameter response (a) of a closed-loop control system with varying air  
405 pressure (b) at constant aqueous flowrate.

#### 406 4. Conclusions

407 Microfluidic devices offer precise control for producing droplets and bubbles crucial for various  
408 industries. Transitioning from laboratory to industrial-scale operations poses challenges  
409 presented by disturbances, fouling, and changes in device performance. These necessitate

410 continuous monitoring and adjustments to manipulated variables that maintain user-specified  
411 setpoints. The integrating feedback controllers herein enhance product uniformity and reduce  
412 the labor-intensive tasks associated with process maintenance, addressing a critical need in  
413 scaling-up microfluidic processes for industrial applications. Our experimental results show that  
414 PID control is a resilient feedback control mechanism, relying on a soft-sensor to obtain error  
415 measurements using artificial intelligence in the face of unreliable physical measurements. Our  
416 CNN-driven, soft-sensor identifies flow regimes enabling the controller to regain bubble-  
417 producing flow regimes when shifted by disturbances to undesired regimes. In addition to self-  
418 recovery, our controller reduces errors while maintaining setpoints, countering disturbances, and  
419 stabilizing operation over long times. Our controller permits over 99% of bubbles produced  
420 during 8-hours to fall within 5% of setpoint diameters; in contrast to only 2.16% when control  
421 action is not implemented. Leveraging a combination of machine learning and image recognition  
422 software, soft-sensors herein enable feedback control in droplet-based microfluidic systems,  
423 potentially enhancing control over the size, shape, and functionality of microfluidic-generated  
424 emulsions.

425

#### 426 **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

427 **Owen Land:** Writing – review and editing, Writing – original draft, Conceptualization, Data  
428 curation, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Validation, Visualization,  
429 Formal analysis **Warren Seider:** Writing – review and editing, Supervision, Project  
430 administration, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization, Formal analysis **Daeyeon**  
431 **Lee:** Writing – review and editing, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Funding  
432 acquisition, Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Resources

433

434 **Declaration of competing interest**

435 Daeyeon Lee is a co-founder of InfiniFluidics.

436 **Data availability**

437 Data will be made available on request.

438 **Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the writing process**

439 During the preparation of this work the author(s) used OpenAI's ChatGPT to produce code for  
440 creation and training of neural network models. After using this tool/service, the author(s)  
441 reviewed and edited the content as needed and take(s) full responsibility for the content of the  
442 published article.

443

444 **Acknowledgments**

445 This work was supported by the National Science Foundation Research Traineeship (NRT)  
446 Program - Interdisciplinary Training in Data Driven Soft Materials Research and Science Policy  
447 – Grant No. 2152205.

448 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

449 Supplementary data to this article can be found online at

450

451

452

453 **References**

454

455 [1] M.I. Hajam, M.M. Khan, Microfluidics: a concise review of the history, principles, design,  
456 applications, and future outlook, *Biomater. Sci.* 12 (2024) 218–251.  
<https://doi.org/10.1039/D3BM01463K>.

457 [2] A.J. deMello, Control and detection of chemical reactions in microfluidic systems, *Nature*  
458 442 (2006) 394–402. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature05062>.

459 [3] K.S. Elvira, X.C. i Solvas, R.C.R. Wootton, A.J. deMello, The past, present and potential  
460 for microfluidic reactor technology in chemical synthesis, *Nature Chem* 5 (2013) 905–915.  
<https://doi.org/10.1038/nchem.1753>.

461 [4] H.K. Bui, K.Y. Kim, H. Kim, J.-P. Ahn, T. Yu, T.S. Seo, Total Integration of the Sample  
462 Injection, Microdroplet Reaction, Phase Separation, Real-Time Optical Detection, and  
463 Recovery of Diverse Silver–Gold Bimetallic Nanoalloys in a Continuous Process, *Particle*  
464 & *Particle Systems Characterization* 38 (2021) 2000244.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ppsc.202000244>.

465 [5] S.D. Ling, Y. Geng, A. Chen, Y. Du, J. Xu, Enhanced single-cell encapsulation in  
466 microfluidic devices: From droplet generation to single-cell analysis, *Biomicrofluidics* 14  
467 (2020) 061508. <https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0018785>.

468 [6] Z. Wang, A.S. Huang, L. Tang, J. Wang, G. Wang, Microfluidic-assisted single-cell RNA  
469 sequencing facilitates the development of neutralizing monoclonal antibodies against  
470 SARS-CoV-2, *Lab Chip* 24 (2024) 642–657. <https://doi.org/10.1039/D3LC00749A>.

471 [7] A. Reece, B. Xia, Z. Jiang, B. Noren, R. McBride, J. Oakey, Microfluidic techniques for  
472 high throughput single cell analysis, *Current Opinion in Biotechnology* 40 (2016) 90–96.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2016.02.015>.

473 [8] L. Shang, Y. Cheng, Y. Zhao, Emerging Droplet Microfluidics, *Chem. Rev.* 117 (2017)  
474 7964–8040. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemrev.6b00848>.

475 [9] S. Damiati, U.B. Kompella, S.A. Damiati, R. Kodzius, Microfluidic Devices for Drug  
476 Delivery Systems and Drug Screening, *Genes (Basel)* 9 (2018) 103.  
<https://doi.org/10.3390/genes9020103>.

477 [10] S. Mehrabi, D.L. DeVoe, Microfluidic synthesis of lipid-based nanoparticles for drug  
478 delivery: recent advances and opportunities, *Lab Chip* 24 (2024) 1154–1174.  
<https://doi.org/10.1039/D3LC00821E>.

479 [11] C. Duchêne, V. Filipe, S. Huille, A. Lindner, Clogging of microfluidic constrictions by  
480 monoclonal antibody aggregates: role of aggregate shape and deformability, *Soft Matter* 16  
481 (2020) 921–928. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C9SM01583C>.

482 [12] T. Trantidou, Y. Elani, E. Parsons, O. Ces, Hydrophilic surface modification of PDMS for  
483 droplet microfluidics using a simple, quick, and robust method via PVA deposition,  
484 *Microsyst Nanoeng* 3 (2017) 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1038/micronano.2016.91>.

485 [13] E.J. Kappert, M.J.T. Raaijmakers, K. Tempelman, F.P. Cuperus, W. Ogieglo, N.E. Benes,  
486 Swelling of 9 polymers commonly employed for solvent-resistant nanofiltration  
487 membranes: A comprehensive dataset, *Journal of Membrane Science* 569 (2019) 177–199.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.memsci.2018.09.059>.

488 [14] M. Armani, Z. Cummins, J. Gong, P. Mathai, R. Probst, C. Ropp, E. Waks, S. Walker, B.  
489 Shapiro, Feedback Control of Microflows, in: J.J. Gorman, B. Shapiro (Eds.), *Feedback*  
490 *Control of MEMS to Atoms*, Springer US, New York, NY, 2012: pp. 269–319.  
[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-5832-7\\_9](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-5832-7_9).

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499 [15] O.J. Dressler, P.D. Howes, J. Choo, A.J. deMello, Reinforcement Learning for Dynamic  
500 Microfluidic Control, *ACS Omega* 3 (2018) 10084–10091.  
501 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsomega.8b01485>.

502 [16] P. Hadikhani, N. Borhani, S.M. H. Hashemi, D. Psaltis, Learning from droplet flows in  
503 microfluidic channels using deep neural networks, *Sci Rep* 9 (2019) 8114.  
504 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-44556-x>.

505 [17] X. Duan, Z. Zheng, Y. Luo, C. Song, Closed-loop feedback control for droplet-based  
506 microfluidics: a characteristic investigation on passive and on-demand droplet generation,  
507 in: International Conference on Optical and Photonic Engineering (icOPEN 2022), SPIE,  
508 2023: pp. 196–201. <https://doi.org/10.1117/12.2666602>.

509 [18] Y. Xie, A.J. Dixon, J.M.R. Rickel, A.L. Klibanov, J.A. Hossack, Closed-loop feedback  
510 control of microbubble diameter from a flow-focusing microfluidic device,  
511 *Biomicrofluidics* 14 (2020) 034101. <https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0005205>.

512 [19] E. Miller, M. Rotea, J.P. Rothstein, Microfluidic device incorporating closed loop feedback  
513 control for uniform and tunable production of micro-droplets, *Lab Chip* 10 (2010) 1293–  
514 1301. <https://doi.org/10.1039/B925497H>.

515 [20] Smart Microfluidics - Fluigent, (n.d.). <https://www.fluigent.com/> (accessed January 30,  
516 2024).

517 [21] OB1 Mk3+ Flow Controller, Darwin Microfluidics (n.d.). [https://darwin-](https://darwin-microfluidics.com/products/ob1-mk3-flow-controller)  
518 [microfluidics.com/products/ob1-mk3-flow-controller](https://darwin-microfluidics.com/products/ob1-mk3-flow-controller) (accessed February 8, 2024).

519 [22] W. Zeng, S. Li, Z. Wang, Characterization of syringe-pump-driven versus pressure-driven  
520 microfluidic flows, in: 2015 International Conference on Fluid Power and Mechatronics  
521 (FPM), 2015: pp. 711–715. <https://doi.org/10.1109/FPM.2015.7337207>.

522 [23] A.M. Gañán-Calvo, J.M. Gordillo, Perfectly Monodisperse Microbubbling by Capillary  
523 Flow Focusing, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 87 (2001) 274501.  
524 <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.87.274501>.

525 [24] S.L. Anna, N. Bontoux, H.A. Stone, Formation of dispersions using “flow focusing” in  
526 microchannels, *Applied Physics Letters* 82 (2003) 364–366.  
527 <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1537519>.

528 [25] J. Wu, S. Yadavali, D. Lee, D.A. Issadore, Scaling up the throughput of microfluidic  
529 droplet-based materials synthesis: A review of recent progress and outlook, *Applied  
530 Physics Reviews* 8 (2021) 031304. <https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0049897>.

531 [26] A.S. Utada, A. Fernandez-Nieves, H.A. Stone, D.A. Weitz, Dripping to Jetting Transitions  
532 in Coflowing Liquid Streams, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 99 (2007) 094502.  
533 <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.99.094502>.

534 [27] A.S. Utada, L.Y. Chu, A. Fernandez-Nieves, D.R. Link, C. Holtze, D.A. Weitz, Dripping,  
535 Jetting, Drops, and Wetting: The Magic of Microfluidics, *MRS Bulletin* 32 (2007) 702–  
536 708. <https://doi.org/10.1557/mrs2007.145>.

537 [28] G. Stephanopoulos, Chemical Process Control: An Introduction to Theory and Practice, 3rd  
538 ed., Pearson, 1984.

539 [29] V. Brunner, M. Siegl, D. Geier, T. Becker, Challenges in the Development of Soft Sensors  
540 for Bioprocesses: A Critical Review, *Frontiers in Bioengineering and Biotechnology* 9  
541 (2021). <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fbioe.2021.722202> (accessed January  
542 11, 2024).

543 [30] L. Alzubaidi, J. Zhang, A.J. Humaidi, A. Al-Dujaili, Y. Duan, O. Al-Shamma, J.  
544 Santamaría, M.A. Fadhel, M. Al-Amidie, L. Farhan, Review of deep learning: concepts,

545 CNN architectures, challenges, applications, future directions, Journal of Big Data 8 (2021)  
546 53. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40537-021-00444-8>.

547 [31] T. Ferguson, D. Baker, Feature Extraction Using the Hough Transform, in: 2002.  
548 <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Feature-Extraction-Using-the-Hough-Transform-Ferguson-Baker/ea0cdf30a4d2c915c5008c97dbdeaed6cdff5e55> (accessed January 11,  
549 2024).

550 [32] Open Loop Tuning, (n.d.).  
551 <https://www.homepages.ed.ac.uk/jwp/control06/controlcourse/course/map/ZN/opennotes.html> (accessed January 11, 2024).

552 [33] J.J. Choi, J.A. Feshitan, B. Baseri, S. Wang, Y.-S. Tung, M.A. Borden, E.E. Konofagou,  
553 Microbubble-size dependence of focused ultrasound-induced blood-brain barrier opening in  
554 mice in vivo, IEEE Trans Biomed Eng 57 (2010) 145–154.  
555 <https://doi.org/10.1109/TBME.2009.2034533>.

556 [34] S.H. Al-Mutairi, H.A. Nasr-El-Din, A.D. Hill, A.D. Al-Aamri, Effect of Droplet Size on the  
557 Reaction Kinetics of Emulsified Acid With Calcite, SPE Journal 14 (2009) 606–616.  
558 <https://doi.org/10.2118/112454-PA>.

559 [35] Average Workweek by Country 2023, Wisevoter (n.d.). <https://wisevoter.com/country-rankings/average-workweek-by-country/> (accessed February 14, 2024).

560

561

562

563