

1 **Chiral Design of Tough Spring-Shaped Hydrogels for Smart**
2 **Umbrellas**

3
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22 **ABSTRACT:** Developing hydrogel-based artificial muscles to mimic the motion of
23 natural muscles have long attracted scientists from the perspective of materials science
24 for potential applications in soft robotics. However, rational design of hydrogel
25 artificial muscles with large stroke, rapid actuation speed, and high work capacity
26 remains a major challenge. Herein, we reported two kinds of chiral spring-shaped
27 hydrogels that were prepared *via* consecutive shaping process (e.g., stretching, twisting,
28 folding, coiling, and fixing). By switching the chirality of coil, homochiral muscle and
29 heterochiral muscle were obtained, respectively. Homochiral muscle could rapidly
30 expand to 560% with an average speed of $6.7\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ in response to NIR irradiation, whose
31 maximum work capacity reached 45 J kg^{-1} . On contrary, heterochiral muscle contracted
32 69% within 1 min under NIR irradiation with a maximum work capacity of 33 J kg^{-1} .
33 Interestingly, the parasol containing homochiral muscles opened autonomously during
34 dehydration process, while the umbrellas containing heterochiral muscle could opened
35 rapidly when water was applied. This work provided an innovative strategy for
36 developing tough hydrogel muscles with opposite chiralities.

37

38 **KEYWORDS:** Tough hydrogel, chirality, artificial muscle, high stroke, smart umbrella

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Thanks to their similarity with natural muscles (e.g., softness, high water content,
42 and biocompatibility) and responsiveness to external stimuli (e.g., temperature, light,
43 solvent, etc.), hydrogels are attractive candidates for artificial muscles, which have been
44 applied in various fields such as soft robotics, prosthetic limbs, and smart devices [1-
45 7]. Compared with artificial muscles composed of polymer fibers [8-10], elastomers
46 [11-14], and carbon materials [15, 16], hydrogels possess adequate scale of
47 deformations and good biocompatibility, thanks to the abundant presence of water
48 enabling exchanges between hydrogel networks and external environments under
49 stimuli [17]. However, hydrogels with homogeneous structure usually exhibit isotropic
50 swelling and shrinking, which could not meet the controllable deformation of artificial
51 muscles, such as linear expansion/contraction, bending, and torsion [18]. Inspired by
52 the well-defined anisotropic structure, complex morphing, and sophisticated motions
53 of natural organisms, hydrogels with highly ordered structure have been developed,
54 which provided opportunity for the construction of artificial muscles with multimodal
55 locomotion capabilities [19, 20].

56 Rational design of structure and shape of hydrogels would be conducive to achieve
57 large stroke, fast actuation, and high work capacity of artificial muscles. For example,
58 spring-shaped hydrogel could realize large deformation that could be controlled by the
59 index, pitch, and pitch angles of spring [21]. Despite the fact that these hydrogels
60 showed magnified deformation and improved sensitivity driven by external stimuli,

61 their soft and wet characteristics restricted them to work like skeletal muscles. Recently,
62 material scientists developed a series of fiber-shaped actuators with twisted and coiled
63 geometries, which exhibited high energy densities [15, 22-24]. After inserting twist into
64 hydrogel fibers, their load-maximized work capacity reached 11.8 J kg^{-1} at the applied
65 stress of 110 kPa [25]. Although the twisted design of hydrogel muscles could store
66 mechanical energy into fibers to achieve motion, their work capacity could not reach
67 the level of natural muscles (40 J kg^{-1}) [25, 26]. Double-helix actuators have been
68 constructed by using two swellable twisted hydrogel fibers, whose contraction stroke
69 reached 9% in addition to a long response time of 500 s during the hydration process
70 [27]. Two-ply twisted poly(acrylic acid) fibers converted to DNA-like supercoils by
71 swelling, exhibiting a large contraction stroke (90%) but demonstrated a low actuation
72 speed ($0.9\% \text{ s}^{-1}$) [28]. The twisted sericin-protein hydrogel fibers exhibited high-stroke
73 (80%) and high-work capacity (73 J kg^{-1}) under humidity stimuli, accompanied by an
74 average speed of $3\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ [29]. Spring-shaped hydrogel fibers with inserted twists could
75 rapidly contract to 90% with a contraction speed of $4.5\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ during hydration process,
76 but the contraction work was only 26.2 J kg^{-1} [30]. Therefore, the combination of large
77 stroke, fast actuation and high work capacity into hydrogel artificial muscles is still an
78 open issue hindering their practical applications.

79 In this work, we demonstrated a chiral design of spring-shaped artificial muscles
80 composed of double-stranded hydrogel fibers. Firstly, highly stretchable hydrogel
81 fibers were prepared by incorporating tunicate cellulose nanocrystals (TCNCs) and

82 PF127-DA micelles into polymeric networks. Subsequently, the hydrogel fibers were
83 shaped through a consecutive stretching, twisting, folding, and coiling process. Finally,
84 the spring-shaped artificial muscle was fixed by the formation of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{-COO}^-$ ionic
85 coordination. When the chirality of hydrogel fiber twist matched the coil's chirality, the
86 hydrogel muscle was named as a homochiral muscle. By wrapping the twisted fiber
87 around a mandrel to reverse the relative chirality, a heterochiral muscle was obtained.
88 The homochiral muscle that linearly expanded in response to NIR irradiation was used
89 to design a parasol, which could spontaneously open in a sunny day. Meanwhile, the
90 heterochiral muscle that linearly expanded under water spraying was employed to
91 design a rain umbrella, which could open in a rainy day.

92

93 **2. Experimental section**

94 **2.1 Materials**

95 Tunicate cellulose nanocrystals (TCNCs) were isolated from *Halocynthia roretzi*
96 *Drasche*. Acrylic acid (AA), acrylamide (AM), ammonium persulfate (APS), ferric
97 chloride hexahydrate ($\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), triethylamine, sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4), and sodium
98 hydroxide (NaOH) were purchased from Sinocharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd., China.
99 Acrylic chloride was supplied by Shanghai Aladdin Co. Ltd., China. Pluronic F127
100 (PF127), poly (ethylene glycol)-*b*-poly (propylene glycol)-*b*-poly (ethylene glycol) was
101 obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Co. Ltd., China. Other reagents were used as received
102 unless otherwise noted.

103 *2.2 Synthesis of PF127-DA*

104 PF127 (2.54 g) and triethylamine (85 μ L) were dissolved in anhydrous
105 dichloromethane (20 mL) in an ice bath, degassing for 20 mins. Then, acryloyl chloride
106 (50 μ L) was slowly injected into above solution under a nitrogen environment. The
107 reaction was performed at room temperature for 24 h. Following the reaction, the
108 solvent was removed by rotational evaporation at 25 $^{\circ}$ C. The crude product was
109 dissolved in deionized water and dialyzed exhaustively against deionized water for 3
110 days. PF127-DA was obtained by lyophilization, whose chemical structure was verified
111 by FTIR and 1 H NMR spectra (**Figure S1**).

112 *2.3 Fabrication of chiral spring-shaped hydrogels*

113 The experimental details for the preparation of tunicate cellulose nanocrystals
114 (TCNCs) could be found in **Supporting Information**. The original hydrogel was
115 prepared by polymerization of AM and AA monomers in the presence of TCNCs and
116 PF127-DA micelles. In the mixture, the total concentration of AA and AM was 20 wt%
117 (the molar ratio of AM/AA was 3/7~7/3), the concentration of PF127-DA was from 1.5
118 wt% to 4.5 wt%, the concentration of TCNC was from 0.5 wt% to 1.5 wt%, and the
119 concentration APS was 0.5 wt%. The above mixture was injected into a
120 polytetrafluoroethylene tube (3 mm \times 120 mm) and polymerized at 55 $^{\circ}$ C for 6 h to
121 obtain original hydrogel. Then, the original hydrogel was pre-stretched (2000%),
122 twisted (500, 1000, 1500, and 2000 turns m^{-1}), and folded in half. Finally, the deformed
123 hydrogel was coiled on a polytetrafluoroethylene tube and immersed in FeCl₃ aqueous

124 solution for 0 h, 12 h, 24 h, and 36 h, respectively, to obtain spring-shaped hydrogel.

125 **2.4 Characterization**

126 The morphology of TCNCs was analyzed by TEM using a JEM-2100 microscope
127 (JEOL, Japan). The surface microstructure of the hydrogel was observed by field
128 emission scanning electron microscope (SEM) with a Zeiss SIGMA microscope (Zeiss,
129 Germany) operated at 5 kV. Polarizing microscopy (POM) was performed using an
130 Axio A1 polarizing microscope (Zeiss, German) to characterize the anisotropic
131 structure of the hydrogel. The mechanical performances of hydrogel muscles were
132 tested by a universal material testing machine with a 1000 N load cell (Instron 5967,
133 USA) at room temperature. Raman spectroscopy and Raman mapping of hydrogels
134 were performed using a Raman imaging microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
135 Fitchburg, WI, U.S.A.), where the multivariate curve resolution (MCR) method was
136 applied to Raman analysis. The chemical structure of PF127-DA was characterized by
137 ¹H NMR spectroscopy using a Bruker AVANCE III HD 400 MHz spectrometer
138 (Switzerland). The two-dimensional (2D) X-ray diffraction measurement was
139 performed on dry hydrogels using a Xenocs Xeuss 2.0 instrument (Xenocs, France)
140 with a Cu K α radiation source ($\lambda= 1.54 \text{ \AA}$) and a 2D detector (Pilatus 300 K, pixel size
141 172 μm). The data acquisition time was 600 s for WAXS patterns, and 2D scattering
142 images were obtained by analyzing with Fit2D software from European
143 Synchronization Radiation Facility. Herman's orientation parameters (f_c) were
144 calculated from the azimuthal-intensity distribution curves of the X-ray scattering

145 patterns according to follow **Equations**:

$$146 \quad f_c = \frac{3\langle \cos^2 \varphi \rangle - 1}{2} \quad (1)$$

$$147 \quad \langle \cos^2 \varphi \rangle = \frac{\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} I(\varphi) \cos^2 \varphi \sin \varphi d\varphi}{\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} I(\varphi) \sin \varphi d\varphi} \quad (2)$$

148 where φ is azimuthal angle, and $I(\varphi)$ is the 1-D intensity distribution along with φ .

149 $\langle \cos^2 \varphi \rangle$ is calculated by integrating the intensity of specific 2θ diffraction peak along

150 φ , using equation (2).

151 The water content of swollen hydrogels was calculated according to **Equation (3)**:

$$152 \quad W_{\text{water}} = \frac{M_0 - M_d}{M_0} \quad (3)$$

153 where M_0 and M_d are the weights of swollen and dried hydrogels, respectively.

154 The actuation strain (ε_{act}) of the hydrogel muscle was calculated according to

155 **Equation (4)**:

$$156 \quad \varepsilon_{\text{act}} = \frac{l_{\text{act}} - l_0}{l_0} \quad (4)$$

157 where l_{act} is the length of the hydrogel muscle after actuation and l_0 is the initial length

158 of the hydrogel muscle.

159 Work capacity (Q_{act}) of the hydrogel muscle was calculated by **Equation (5)**:

$$160 \quad Q_{\text{act}} = \frac{l_{\text{act}} * M_L}{M_0} \quad (5)$$

161 where M_L is the loaded weight upon the hydrogel muscle. The equivalent diameter (d_e)

162 of the two-ply hydrogel was calculated according to **Equation (6)**:

$$163 \quad d_e = 2^{0.5} d \quad (6)$$

164 where d is the diameter of the individual hydrogel fiber.

165 The spring index (c) of chiral spring-shaped hydrogel was calculated according to

166 **Equation (7):**

$$167 \quad c = \frac{d_c}{d_e} \quad (7)$$

168 where d_c is the diameter of the coil of chiral spring-shaped hydrogel.

169

170 **3. Results and discussion**

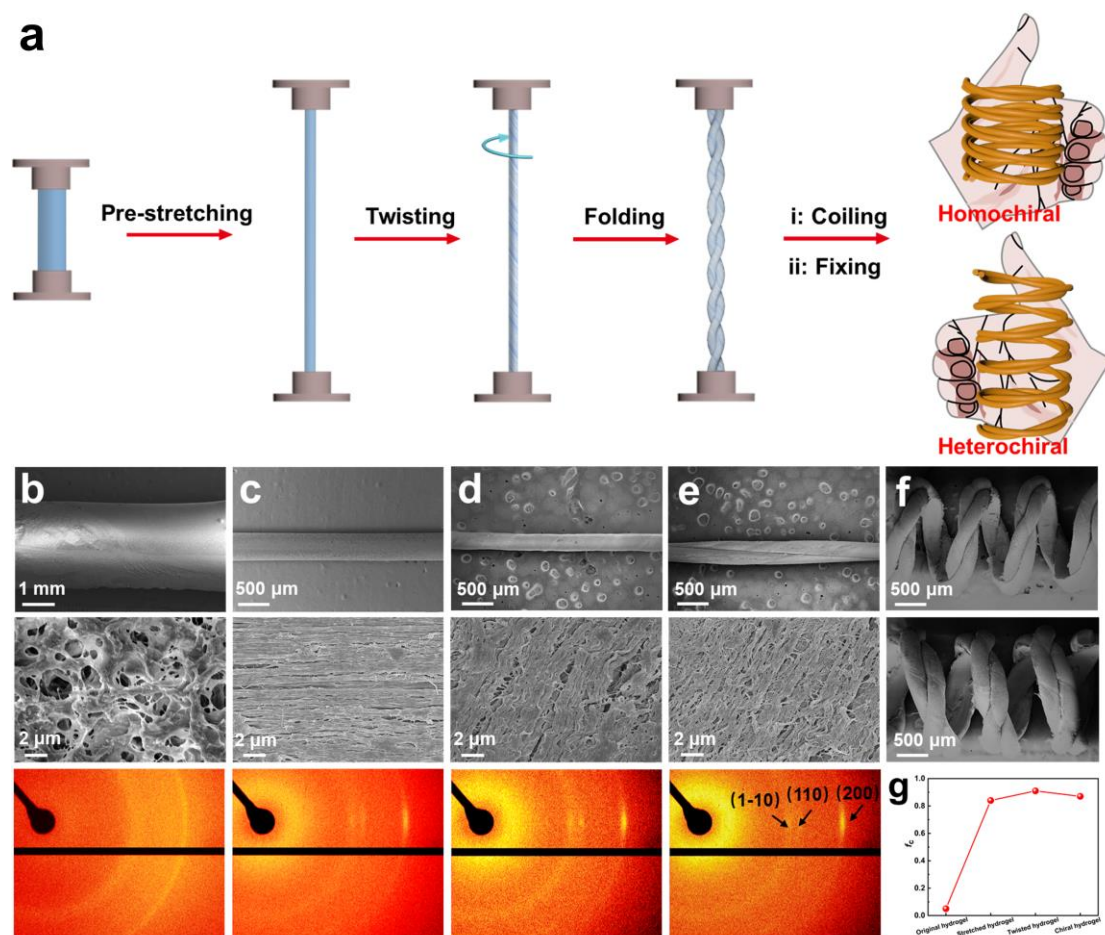
171 *3.1 Fabrication, morphology and structure of chiral spring-shaped hydrogels*

172 The original hydrogel was prepared by polymerization of acrylic acid (AA),
173 acrylamide (AM), and PF127-DA in the presence of tunicate cellulose nanocrystals
174 (TCNCs). PF127-DA was synthesized by modifying PF127 with acryloyl chloride in
175 dichloromethane, whose structure was confirmed by ¹H NMR and FTIR (**Figure S1**).
176 Due to its amphiphilicity, the PF127-DA could assemble into micelles with an average
177 diameter of 23.2 nm in an aqueous solution (**Figure S2**). After polymerization, the
178 micelles acted as multifunctional crosslinkers in the hydrogel networks (**Figure S3**).
179 Under large deformation, the original hydrogel could dissipate mechanical energy
180 through the disassembly of micelles, resulting in high stretchability. Needle-like
181 TCNCs (27.6 nm × 1.5 μm) were used as reinforcing components in hydrogel network
182 to improve the mechanical strength of the original hydrogel (**Figure S4**). Thanks to its
183 unique network structure, the original hydrogel could undergo various deformations,
184 such as stretching, twisting, folding and coiling.

185 As illustrated in **Figure 1a**, chiral spring-shaped hydrogels were fabricated by
186 consecutive stretching, twisting, folding, and coiling of original hydrogel, and then the
187 deformed hydrogel was fixed in FeCl₃ aqueous solution. By switching the direction of

188 coiling, homochiral muscle and heterochiral muscle were obtained, respectively. The
189 original hydrogel exhibited porous morphology and a nearly uniform diffraction pattern
190 (**Figure 1b**), indicating that the TCNCs were randomly distributed in the hydrogel
191 networks. After pre-stretching (2000%), the diameter of the hydrogel decreased sharply,
192 the surface morphology of the hydrogel converted from isotropic to anisotropic, and
193 the equatorial arcs of the hydrogel could be observed in WAXD pattern (**Figure 1c**).
194 These results revealed that both hydrogel networks and TCNCs aligned along the
195 direction of the external force. When the isobaric twist was inserted into the pre-
196 stretched hydrogel with a rotation speed of 100 revolutions per minute (rpm), the
197 diameter of hydrogel fiber further decreased, hydrogel networks oriented along the
198 twisting direction, and the diffraction arcs assigned to (1 $\bar{1}$ 0), (110) and (200) planes of
199 TCNCs were clearer in the WAXD pattern (**Figure 1d**). A two-ply hydrogel was
200 obtained by folding the twisted hydrogel in the middle through a self-balance process,
201 whose pitch strongly depended on the twist density of the twisted hydrogel (**Figure S5**).
202 The surface morphology of the hydrogel and the orientation of TCNCs changed slightly
203 during the folding process (**Figure 1e**). Finally, the two-ply hydrogel was coiled upon
204 a polytetrafluoroethylene tube and immersed into in a FeCl₃ aqueous solution, where
205 the spring-shaped hydrogel was fixed by the formation of -COO⁻/ Fe³⁺ ionic
206 coordination. The chemical composition of the spring-shaped hydrogel was evaluated
207 by a Raman technology (**Figure S6**). The reconstructed Raman image that derived from
208 multivariate curve resolution could be divided into green (OH- and NH-rich regions)

209 and blue (OH- and NH-poor regions) domains, which represented the characteristic
 210 regions of TCNCs and polymeric matrix, respectively, indicating the uniform
 211 distribution of TCNCs in hydrogel networks.
 212



213
 214 **Figure 1. Chiral design, morphology and structure of spring-shaped hydrogels.** (a)
 215 Fabrication of chiral spring-shaped hydrogels via consecutive stretching, twisting,
 216 folding, coiling and fixing process. (b-e) SEM images and WAXD patterns of hydrogels
 217 before (b) and after pre-stretching (c), twisting (d) and folding (e). (f) SEM images of
 218 homochiral hydrogel (top) and heterochiral hydrogel (bottom). (g) Influence of shaping
 219 process on orientation parameter (S_c) in WAXD.

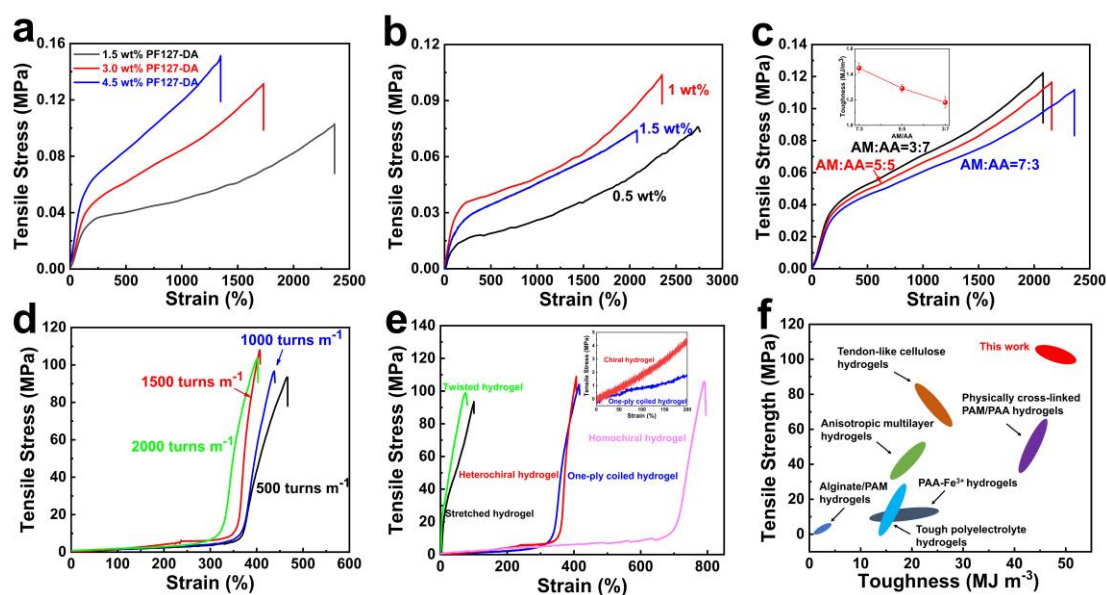
220 When the coiling of hydrogel was in the same direction as hydrogel's twist, the
221 spring-shaped hydrogel was defined as the homochiral muscle (**Figure 1f**, top). As the
222 homochiral muscle was removed from the polytetrafluoroethylene tube, the untwisting
223 of hydrogel pulled coils together (**Figure S7a**), which could be confirmed by the
224 orientation parameter (f_c) value of TCNCs decreased from 0.91 to 0.87 (**Figure 1g**).
225 Similarly, the homochiral muscle rapidly contracted along the coil axis through
226 hydration (water spraying), whereas a linear expansion of the homochiral muscle
227 occurred after the dehydration (NIR irradiation). On the contrary, by wrapping the
228 twisted hydrogel around a mandrel to reverse the relative chirality, a heterochiral
229 muscle was obtained (**Figure 1f**, bottom). The heterochiral muscle contracted under
230 NIR irradiation due to its dehydration, which reversibly returned to the original state
231 after water spraying (**Figure S7b**). These results revealed that chiral hydrogel muscles
232 with opposite actuation performances were designed by changing the coiling direction
233 of the highly twisted hydrogel fibers and then stabilizing the coils by the formation of
234 $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{-COO}^-$ ionic coordination in the hydrogel networks.

235 ***3.2 Mechanical performance of various hydrogels***

236 Since PF127-DA micelles worked as multifunctional cross-linkers, the
237 stretchability of the original hydrogel was dominated by the content of PF127-DA
238 (**Figure S8**). The fracture strains of original hydrogels decreased from 2430% to 1310%,
239 when the PF127-DA content raised from 1.5 wt% to 4.5 wt% (**Figure 2a**). This result
240 indicated that more PF127-DA micelles increased the crosslinking density of polymeric

241 networks but decreased the elasticity of the original hydrogel. To ensure the high
 242 stretchability of the original hydrogel, PF127-DA content of 1.5 wt% was selected for
 243 the preparation of the original hydrogel. On the other hand, TCNCs were used as
 244 reinforcements, whose content affected the mechanical strength of hydrogel. As TCNC
 245 content increased from 0.5 wt% to 1wt%, the tensile strength of the hydrogel increased
 246 from 0.07 MPa to 0.10 MPa (**Figure 2b**). When the TCNC content exceeded 1wt%, the
 247 mechanical strength of the hydrogel decreased significantly due to the aggregation of
 248 TCNCs in hydrogel networks. Additionally, we further investigated the effects of
 249 AM/AA molar ratio on the mechanical properties of original hydrogel (**Figure 2c**).
 250 When AM/AA molar ratio was 7/3, the hydrogel had the highest toughness of 1.46 MJ
 251 m^{-3} , because PAM segments enabled the hydrogels with good elasticity. Therefore, the
 252 TCNC content of 1 wt% and AM/AA molar ratio of 7/3 were used to prepare the
 253 original hydrogel.

254



255

256 **Figure 2. Mechanical performance of various hydrogels.** Tensile stress-strain curves
257 of original hydrogels with various PF127-DA content (a), TCNC content (b) and
258 AM/AA molar ratio (c). (d) Tensile stress-strain curves of heterochiral hydrogel with
259 various twist densities. (e) Tensile stress-strain curves of various shaped hydrogels. (f)
260 Comparison of the tensile strength and toughness of the hydrogel muscle with reported
261 hydrogels [31-36].

262

263 The process of twisting further improved the orientation of polymer chains and
264 TCNCs in hydrogel networks, so the mechanical property of hydrogel strongly
265 depended on the inserted twist density. As shown in **Figure 2d**, the chiral hydrogel with
266 an inserted twist density of 1500 turns m^{-1} showed the highest tensile strength (109
267 MPa), which could be attributed to the improvement of the compactness and friction of
268 the polymer chains in hydrogel networks with an increase of the inserted twist [26].
269 However, a high twist density (> 1500 turns m^{-1}) inserted into hydrogel caused that
270 polymer chains became increasingly oblique to the hydrogel axis, decreasing their
271 contribution to mechanical strength along axial direction [26, 30, 37]. Additionally, the
272 tensile stress-strain curves of various shaped hydrogels are shown in **Figure 2e** in which
273 the tensile strength of pre-stretched hydrogel was 94.5 MPa that were further increased
274 to 99.5 MPa after inserting twist. Compared with an one-ply coiled hydrogel (104 MPa),
275 the tensile strength of the chiral hydrogel further increased to 109 MPa, due to the
276 existence of internal stress and friction force in the two-ply self-balanced structure of

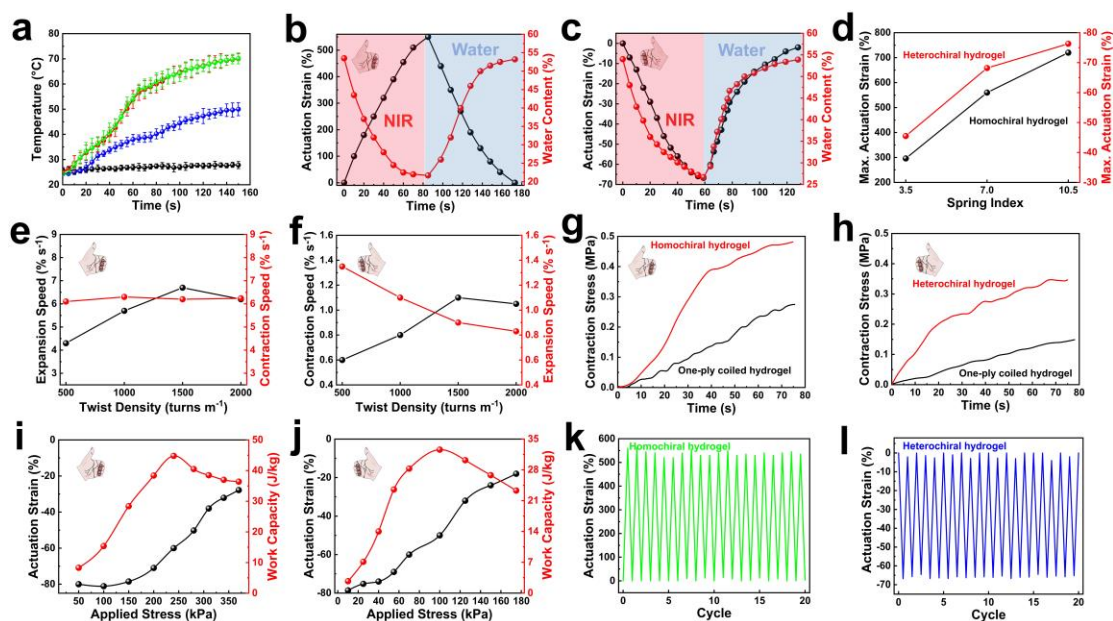
277 heterochiral hydrogel [26]. Moreover, the elastic modulus of the chiral hydrogel (1.9
278 MPa) was higher than that of a one-ply coiled hydrogel (1.1 MPa), which would be
279 beneficial for the work capacity of hydrogel muscle during any actuation processes.
280 Moreover, the mechanical property of the chiral hydrogel was compared with other
281 reported hydrogels (**Figure 2f**). The reported hydrogels with anisotropic structures
282 endowed them with excellent tensile strength, but their fracture strains were very low
283 in contrast to those of the chiral hydrogel, limiting their toughness. The tensile strength
284 and toughness of chiral hydrogel muscles were 95~109 MPa and 46.7~53.5 MJ m⁻³,
285 respectively, which were superior to those of most reported hydrogels. The stretching
286 and twisting process not only oriented the TCNCs in hydrogel networks, but also made
287 polymer chains compact, enhancing the mechanical performance of the chiral
288 hydrogels.

289 *3.3 Actuation performance of chiral hydrogel muscles*

290 The actuation mechanism of hydrogel muscles is the swelling/shrinking of
291 polymeric networks during a hydration/dehydration process, resulting in large strokes
292 of muscles. Taking the advantage of the network structure of the chiral hydrogels, near
293 infrared (NIR) irradiation and water spraying were employed to achieve the dehydration
294 and hydration of muscles, respectively. The homochiral hydrogel muscle linearly
295 expanded under NIR irradiation and recovered after water spraying, whereas the
296 heterochiral hydrogel muscle contracted under NIR irradiation and reversibly expanded
297 after water spraying (**Figure S7**) due to their opposite chiralities. We investigated the

298 influence of different immersing time on the temperature change of hydrogel under NIR
 299 irradiation. The surface temperature of hydrogel without Fe³⁺ changed slightly within
 300 150 s. After an immersion for 12 h, the surface temperature of chiral muscles increased
 301 with the extension of NIR irradiation time, which raised from 25 to 50 °C within 150 s
 302 (**Figure 3a**). When the immersing time was 24 h and 36 h, the surface temperature of
 303 chiral muscles raised from 25 to 70 °C within 150 s under the NIR irradiation, indicating
 304 that the formation of Fe³⁺/-COO⁻ ionic coordination in network promoted photothermal
 305 conversion of hydrogel muscles, resulting in the decrease of relative humidity around
 306 the hydrogel and release of water from hydrogel muscles [38].

307



308

309 **Figure 3. Actuation performance of chiral hydrogel muscles.** (a) Temperature-time
 310 curves of hydrogels with different immersing time under NIR irradiation. Actuation
 311 strain and water content of homochiral (b) and heterochiral hydrogel (c). (d) Effects of
 312 spring index on the stroke of chiral hydrogels. Expansion and contraction speed of

313 homochiral (e) and heterochiral hydrogel (f) with different twist densities. Contraction
314 stress of homochiral (g) and heterochiral hydrogel (h) is as a function of time. The
315 dependence of the actuation strain and work capacity upon applied stress for
316 homochiral (i) and heterochiral hydrogel (j). Cycling performance of homochiral (k)
317 and heterochiral hydrogel (l).

318

319 The homochiral muscle could linearly expand 560% within 80 s under NIR
320 irradiation, where its water content decreased from 54% to 21% (**Figure 3b**). After
321 water spraying, the homochiral hydrogel muscle recovered to its original state
322 (appearance and water content) within 95 s, revealing its reversible actuation
323 performance. Conversely, the heterochiral muscle linearly contracted -69% within 60 s
324 in the response to NIR irradiation because its water content decreased from 55% to 23%,
325 which returned to its original state after water spraying for 63 s, as shown in **Figure 3c**.
326 These results revealed that the reversible actuation of the chiral hydrogel muscles with
327 large strokes could be achieved in the response to the NIR irradiation/water spraying.
328 Hydrogel muscles with different chirality exhibited opposite actuation performance,
329 where NIR irradiation induced dehydration increased the twist density of hydrogel
330 fibers and generated a twisting torque, leading to the expansion of the homochiral
331 muscle and the contraction of the heterochiral muscle, respectively [25]. Meanwhile,
332 chiral hydrogel muscles could recover to their original states after hydration of
333 polymeric networks *via* water spraying. The stroke of spring-shaped hydrogels could

334 be controlled by their spring index. As the spring index increased from 3.5 to 10.5, the
335 maximum expansion strain of the homochiral muscle increased from 295% to 720%
336 (**Figure S9a**), while the contraction strain of the heterochiral muscle increased from -
337 46% to -77% under NIR irradiation (**Figure S9b, Figure 3d**). The homochiral hydrogel
338 muscle with a spring index of 7.0 exhibited a maximum expansion speed of $6.7\% \text{ s}^{-1}$
339 (**Figure S9c**), and the heterochiral hydrogel muscle with the same spring index showed
340 a maximum contraction speed of $-1.1\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ under NIR irradiation (**Figure S9d**).

341 The inserted twist density was another important factor affecting the actuation
342 performances of hydrogel muscles. As the inserted twist density increased from 500 to
343 2000 turn m^{-1} , the hydrogel fiber bias angle raised from 21.9° to 66.7° (**Figure S10**).
344 The expansion strain of the homochiral muscle monotonously increased from 350% to
345 560% (**Figure S11a**), whereas the contraction strain of the heterochiral muscle
346 increased from -57% to -69% in the response to NIR irradiation (**Figure S11b**). Besides,
347 when the inserted twist density of hydrogel fibers increased from 500 to 1500 turn m^{-1} ,
348 the expansion speed of the homochiral hydrogel muscle increased from $4.3\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ to 6.7%
349 s^{-1} under NIR irradiation, but its contraction speed basically maintained at $-6.2\% \text{ s}^{-1}$
350 after water spraying (**Figure 3e**), because the actuation strains increased with a rise of
351 the inserted twist density, which improved the average expansion speed of chiral
352 hydrogels during dehydration process, but the hydration time of hydrogel networks with
353 a higher twist density was longer during water spraying [39, 40]. The contraction speed
354 of heterochiral hydrogel muscle increased from $-0.6\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $-1.1\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ under NIR

355 irradiation but its expansion speed decreased from 1.3% to 0.8% s⁻¹ after water spraying
356 (**Figure 3f**), as the inserted twist density of hydrogel fiber increased from 500 to 1500
357 turn m⁻¹. It is noteworthy that the expansion speed of the homochiral muscle and the
358 contraction speed of the heterochiral muscle decreased slightly with further increasing
359 of inserted twist density to 2000 turn m⁻¹, because excessive inserted twists destroyed
360 the oriented polymer chains [30]. We have compared the actuation performance of
361 novel hydrogels with those reported in the literatures (**Figure S12**). Solvent-responsive
362 hydrogel actuators had large actuation strain under external stimuli but required long
363 actuation time [25, 41]. Carbon nanotube (CNT)-based artificial muscles showed high
364 actuation speed, however, their actuation strains were limited during actuation because
365 of small deformation [42, 43]. Our spring-shaped hydrogels exhibited larger stroke due
366 to unique structure and good water exchange capacity. Moreover, the formation of
367 Fe³⁺/-COO⁻ ionic coordination promoted photothermal conversion of hydrogels,
368 resulting in the fast release of water from hydrogel networks and high actuation speed
369 of hydrogels.

370 In addition to actuation strain and speed, work capacity is a key factor of hydrogel
371 muscle, which was dominated by the maximum contraction stress. The contraction
372 stress of homochiral hydrogel reached 0.47 MPa by water spraying for 100 s, which
373 was higher than that of a one-ply hydrogel (0.24 MPa), as shown in **Figure 3g**. Similarly,
374 the contraction stress of heterochiral hydrogel increased gradually from 0.0 to 0.35 MPa
375 under the NIR irradiation within 75 s (**Figure 3h**). These results revealed that chiral

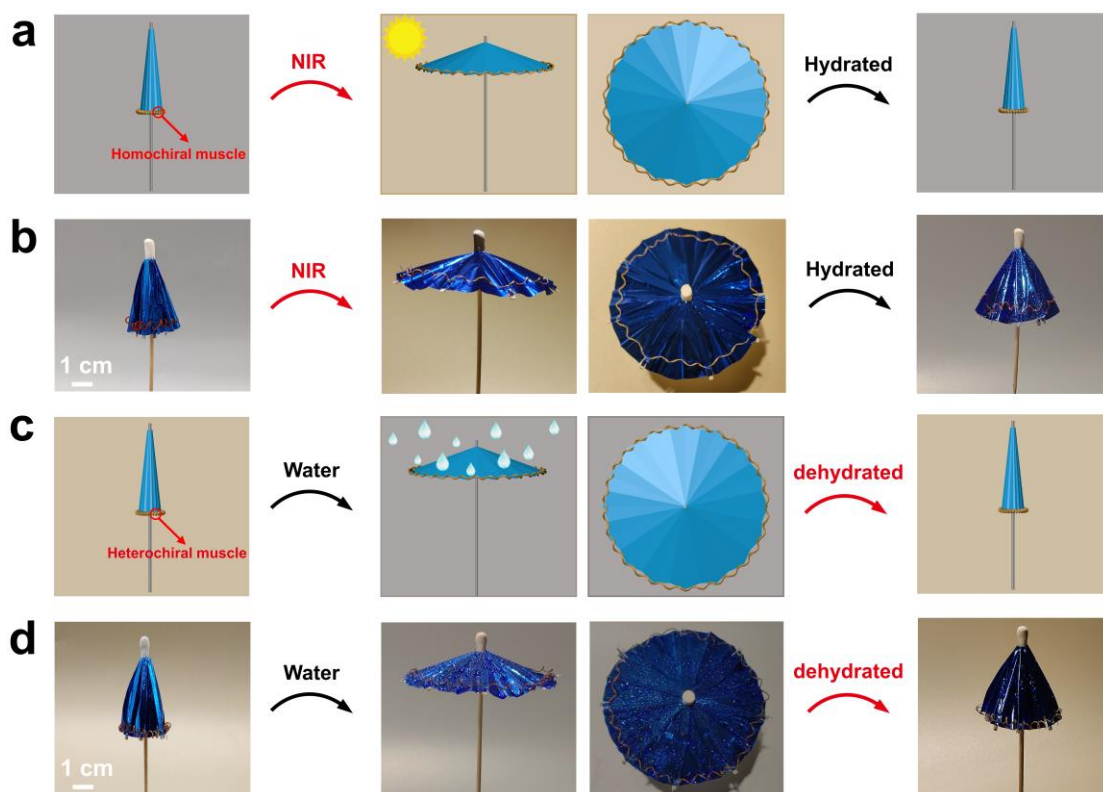
376 muscles had higher contraction stress in comparison with a one-ply hydrogel.
377 Benefiting from their excellent contraction stress, the chiral hydrogels could be used to
378 lift objects under the NIR irradiation and water spraying (**Movie S1, S2**). The actuation
379 strain and work capacity as a function of the applied stress for homochiral muscle are
380 shown in **Figure 3i**. When the applied stress increased from 50 kPa to 350 kPa, the
381 actuation strain of homochiral muscle changed from -81% to -30% under water
382 spraying. The maximum work capacity of the homochiral muscle reached 45 J kg^{-1} with
383 an applied load of 250 kPa. For the heterochiral muscle, its actuation strain decreased
384 from -79% to -20% with the increase of the applied stress from 10 kPa to 180 kPa in
385 response to the NIR irradiation (**Figure 3j**). The maximum work capacity of
386 heterochiral muscle was 33 J kg^{-1} at the applied stress of 100 kPa, which was much
387 higher than the reported hydrogel muscle [25], because the two-ply design of hydrogel
388 had higher contraction stress in comparison with the one-ply hydrogel. Chiral hydrogel
389 muscles with an inserted twist density of $1500 \text{ turns m}^{-1}$ exhibited the highest work
390 capacity, which was consisted with the results of tensile strength and actuation speed.
391 Moreover, the homochiral hydrogel muscle showed a large stroke of $\sim 540\%$ even after
392 20 dehydration/hydration cycles (**Figure 3k**), while the contractile stroke of the
393 heterochiral hydrogel muscle could maintain at $\sim 65\%$ (**Figure 3l**). The hydrogel
394 muscles exhibited stable appearance and morphology after 20 repeated actuations
395 (**Figure S13**). These results revealed that the actuations of chiral hydrogel muscles were
396 reversible and repeatable, indicating good stability of hydrogel muscles, which was

397 conductive to their practical applications.

398 **3.4 Application of chiral hydrogel muscles**

399 According to their excellent mechanical properties, good actuation performances,
400 opposite chirality, homochiral and heterochiral hydrogel muscles were employed to
401 design the parasol and rain umbrella, respectively. **Figure 4a** shows the schematic
402 diagram of parasol model with homochiral hydrogel muscle, where the parasol was
403 expected to automatically open in a sunny day. Under NIR irradiation, homochiral
404 hydrogel muscle could rapidly expand through a dehydration process, thus opening the
405 parasol (**Figure 4b**). Reversibly, the parasol returned to its closed state after spraying
406 water or increasing ambient humidity, because the homochiral hydrogel contracted *via*
407 hydration of polymeric networks. On the other hand, the rain umbrella integrated with
408 the heterochiral hydrogel muscle was also designed (**Figure 4c**). In a rainy day, the
409 heterochiral hydrogel could expand through after absorbing water, leading to the
410 opening of the rain umbrella. Under sunshine or decline of humidity, the heterochiral
411 hydrogel contracted due to dehydration, resulting in the closing of the rain umbrella
412 (**Figure 4d**). These results indicated that the chiral muscles could reversibly open/close
413 the smart umbrella as the humidity of the external environment changed, revealing their
414 potential application in the field of smart devices.

415



416

417 **Figure 4. Application of chiral hydrogel muscles.** The schematic diagram (a) and
 418 photograph (b) of the parasol containing homochiral hydrogel, and the schematic
 419 diagram (c) and photograph (d) of the rain umbrella containing heterochiral hydrogel.

420

421 **4. Conclusion**

422 We have successfully fabricated spring-shaped hydrogel muscles with opposite
 423 chirality through a consecutive stretching, twisting, folding, coiling, and fixing process.
 424 The presence of PF127-DA micelles that acted as multifunctional cross-linkers
 425 endowed the original hydrogels with high stretchability, while the incorporation of
 426 TCNCs significantly improved the mechanical strength of hydrogels, enabling them to
 427 undergo various large deformations. The formation of $\text{-COO}^-/\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ionic coordination
 428 further enhanced the crosslinking density of hydrogel networks and firmly locked the

429 shaped hydrogel networks. Homochiral muscle could rapidly expand to 560% with an
430 average speed of $6.7\% \text{ s}^{-1}$ under an NIR irradiation, whose maximum work capacity
431 reached 45 J kg^{-1} . By contrary, heterochiral muscle contracted 69% within 1 min under
432 NIR irradiation with a maximum work capacity of 33 J kg^{-1} . Thanks to their excellent
433 mechanical properties, high stroke, high actuation speed, and high work capacity, chiral
434 hydrogel muscles were used to design smart umbrellas, where homochiral muscle could
435 spontaneously open the parasol under NIR irradiation and heterochiral muscle could
436 open rain umbrella by spraying water. This work provided an innovative strategy for
437 developing tough hydrogel muscles with opposite chiralities which could have potential
438 applications in the field of smart umbrellas.

439

440 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

441 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
442 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
443 paper.

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449 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

450 Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

451

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