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From Design to Applications of Stimuli-Responsive Hydrogel Strain Sensors

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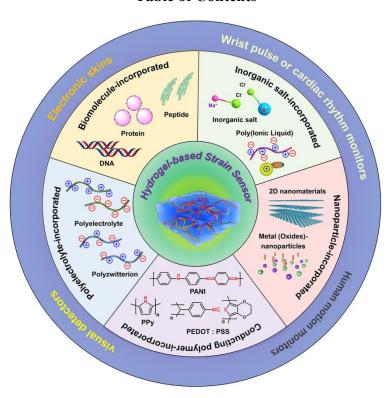
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Abstract

Stimuli-responsive hydrogel strain sensors that synergizes the advantages of both softwet hydrogels and smart functional materials have attracted rapidly growing interests for exploring the opportunities from materials design principles to emerging applications in electronic skins, health monitors, and human-machine interfaces. Stimuli-responsive hydrogel strain sensors possess smart and on-demand ability to specifically recognize various external stimuli and convert them into strain-induced mechanical, thermal, optical, and electrical signals. This review presents an up-to-date summery over the past five years on hydrogel strain sensors from different aspects, including materials designs, gelation/fabrication methods, stimuli-responsive principles, and sensing performance. Hydrogel strain sensors are classified into five major categories based on the nature of stimuli, and representative examples from each category are carefully selected and discussed in terms of structures, response mechanisms, and potential medical applications. In the end, current challenges and future perspectives of hydrogel strain sensors are tentatively proposed to stimulate the more and better research in this emerging field.

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1. Introduction

Hydrogels, as classical soft-wet materials containing a high-water content in flexible, 3D networks, possess many structural and functional advantages of hierarchical porous structures, viscoelasticity, transparency, stretchability, and biocompatibility. Particularly, recent studies have pushed the potential applications and development of hydrogels from traditional fields of cell/tissue scaffolds 1-4, drug/gene delivery carriers ⁵⁻⁷, wound dressings ⁸⁻¹¹, and contact lenses ¹²⁻¹⁴ to emerging fields of wearable devices ¹⁵⁻¹⁷, electronic skins ¹⁸⁻¹⁹, soft robotics ²⁰⁻²², and artificial intelligence sensors²³. Among them, stimuli-responsive hydrogel strain sensors have attracted significant and continuous efforts to be developed as a promising platform for disease diagnosis, health monitoring, damage/motion detection, water/food safety, and environmental monitoring²⁴⁻²⁸, because of their intelligent and programmable features capable of changing their shape/size/volume and probably other functional properties (e.g. conductivity, permeability, viscosity, and mechanics) in response to different stimuli. Different from those dry sensors made of elastomers, polymer/inorganic composites, and carbon-based materials without water, the presence of a high-water content enables hydrogel strain sensors to exhibit intrinsic swelling-induced viscoelastic, mechanical, self-recovery, self-healing properties²⁹⁻³⁶, rendering them great potentials to realize a variety of sensing actuations under different stimuli³⁷. On the other hand, due to high hydration nature of hydrogel sensors, all of stimuliresponsive polymers, crosslinkers, and incorporated entities need to be compatible with and workable under the wet or aqueous conditions. Another major difference is that mismatching mechanics among polymer networks, additives, and crosslinkers with different swollen extents at polymer/water interfaces will create asymmetric forces that drive shape and volume changes of the hydrogels even under subtle stimuli.

From a materials design viewpoint, all stimuli-responsive hydrogels could be potentially fabricated into hydrogel-based sensors. Several general design strategies have been proposed and demonstrated for the successful development of a wide variety of hydrogel sensors. First, a most commonly used design is to directly fabricate stimuliresponsive materials into hydrogels, which are sensitive to external stimuli of temperature, pH, salt, light, and electric. Several typical stimuli-responsive hydrogels include thermo-responsive poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) (polyNIPAM) and poly(vinyl methyl ether) (polyVME) hydrogels, pH-responsive carboxylated poly(2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate-ethylene glycol dimethacrylate) (poly(HEMA-EDMA)) hydrogels ³⁸, electronic-responsive conducting polymers-based (CPs) hydrogels ³⁹, light/forcesensitive poly(acrylamide (AAm)-co-methyl acrylate (MA))/spiropyran (SP) hydrogels ⁴⁰⁻⁴¹, and salt-responsive poly([2-(methacryloyloxy) ethyl]- trimethylammonium chloride)-[N-(2-hydroxyethyl) acrylamide])/ poly(3-(1-(4-vinylbenzyl)-1H-(poly(METAC-HEAA)/ benzo[d]imidazol-3-ium-3-yl)-propane-1-sulfonate) polyVBIPS) and polyNIPAM/ polyVBIPS hydrogels 42-43. Advances in chemical synthesis and gelation methods also allow to copolymerize or sequentially polymerize different stimuli-responsive monomers and crosslinkers to achieve dual or multiple in hydrogel stimuli-responsive properties embedded sensors, including polyAAm/poly(vinylalcohol)(PVA) humidity sensor ⁴⁴, poly(β-cyclodextrin (β-CD)methacrylic acid (AAc)) hydrogels ⁴⁵, and Eu³⁺/Tb³⁺-polyNIPAM hydrogel ⁴⁶. In general, since hydrogels are typically isotropic materials, use of pure polymer materials or simple polymer structures are unlikely to selectively trigger site-specific swelling or contraction, leading to shape adaptability and transformation in a controllable manner. To overcome this issue, another common design strategy is to incorporate stimuliresponsive entities (i.e. nanoparticles, nanoclay, nano-crystalline cellulose, and functional polymer chains) into hydrogel networks to create in-homogeneous structures, which in turn help to readily generate mismatch stress for a strain sensing purpose under the desired stimuli. These stimuli-responsive entities can be either physically added into or chemically crosslinked with hydrogel networks, both of which require the controlled orientation and spatial distribution to achieve well-defined network architectures and to maximize the sensibility to external stimuli. But, additional difficulty of snug-filling of small entities into hydrogel porous structures was needed to overcome for preventing dead zones upon deformation.

From a structural design viewpoint, constructing hybrid network structures in the hydrogel sensors, such as double-network structure, bilayer/multi-layer structure, interpenetrating structure, nanofilled structure, gradient structure, and other heterostructures, also allows to create a mismatch stress between polymer networks (e.g. softer vs. stiffer, swelling vs. non/less-swelling, hydrophobic vs. hydrophilic) for achieving different sensing actuations in response to various external stimuli. Moreover, the network structure of hydrogel sensors can be cross-linked using either irreversible or reversible crosslinkers/additives ⁴⁷⁻⁴⁸. Incorporation of single or multiple reversible crosslinkers/additives, in most cases, enable different components or regions of hydrogels to undergo different extents of volume expansion/contraction in certain positions, directions, or even swelling rates, thus leading to the programmable shape changes by bending, expanding, contracting, twisting, and fast buckling.

In all these designs, searching new responsive sensing materials/components and constructing well-defined network structures are equally important for the rational design of highly sensitive and robust hydrogel sensors. While it sounds simple and straightforward, the appropriate integration of sensing materials and entities into hydrogel networks still remains a challenge largely due to the incompatibility between materials, structures, and gelation methods. Moreover, on one hand, many hydrogel strain sensors exhibit the certain degree of reversible and multiple sensing ability due to their intrinsic stimuli-responsive nature; one the other hand, since the exposure of hydrogels to external stimuli often damages those irreversible bonds and crosslinkers in the hydrogels, hydrogel sensors also suffer from the loss of their original sensing ability. Thus, the introduction of self-healing functions in hydrogel sensors becomes necessary to rapidly recover the original network structure and to sustain their sensing ability through the dynamic reformation of reversible noncovalent interactions (e.g. hydrogen bonds, π - π stacking, hydrophobic interactions, host-guest interactions, and metal-coordination interactions) and/or reversible covalent bonds (e.g. imine bonds, disulfide bonds, acylhydrazone bonds, and boronate ester bonds) 49-51. Again, a cooperative and compatible fabrication of both self-healing and stimuli-responsive materials/entities in the same hydrogel may also face additional challenge. Similarly, hydrogel strain sensors must exhibit sensing-appropriate physical, mechanical, and biological properties. Generally, hydrogel strain sensors usually require high mechanical strength, toughness, and stretchability for transducing mechanical deformation into electrical/chemical/optical signals ⁵²⁻⁵⁵. Specifically, *in vivo* injectable hydrogel strain sensors must be biodegradable and biocompatible, and their degraded products also need to be biocompatible with minimal inflammatory response.

All of these challenges from both materials and structural viewpoints highlight the importance of fabrication methods. Hydrogel stain sensors can be rationally designed and fabricated from a large dataset of stimuli-responsive monomers and crosslinkers by different polymerization methods such as living cationic and anionic polymerization, reversible addition–fragmentation chain-transfer (RAFT) polymerizations, atom-transfer radical polymerization (ATRP), self-assembly, microfabrication, or laser writing, all of which can well control the chemistry and structure in hydrogel networks ⁵⁶⁻⁶¹. In some cases, polymer networks in hydrogel sensors are readily functioned with different stimuli-responsive pendent groups or additives even before gelation, and resultant hydrogels can be directly used for sensing applications without the need of additional substrates or matrixes being served as sensor platform.

As shown in **Table 1** and **Figure 1**, we summarize and classify some classical hydrogel sensors with different types of sensing ability. This review aims to highlight the most important and recent works on hydrogel sensors in the past five years, instead a comprehensive one. Specifically, the review mainly covers the design principles and synthesis strategies of hydrogel sensors from both materials and structural viewpoints, selectively highlights some classical and interesting hydrogel sensors for different sensing purposes and applications, and finally presents some of the current scientific/technological barriers and the future research directions that should be undertaken to overcome these barriers.

Table 1. A summary and classification of different types of hydrogel strain sensors.

Classify	Hydrogel	Signal	GF or LoD	Stretcha bility	Other	Reference
Conductive polymer- incorporate d	PEDOT: PSS- polyAAm array	Electric	GF=~20	~15%	Long-term sensing (~2 months), detect subtle force of 0.02~4.49N	Ref. ⁶²
	PANI-poly(AAm-co- HEMA)	Electric	GF=11	~300%	Detect wrist bending, speaking; biocompatible	Ref. ³⁹
	PANI/PSS-UPyMA	Electric	GF=3.4	~300%	Self-healing (<30 s); detect pulse beating, speaking, finger bending	Ref. ⁶³
	polyNIPAAm/PANI	Electric	GF=3.92	~200%	Stable performance (~350 cycles)	Ref. ⁶⁴
Polyelectro lyte- incorporate d	ACC-polyAAc/Sodium Alginate (SA)	Capacitan ce	LoD=~1k Pa	~55%	Self-healing; detect speaking, blood pressure, and finger bending	Ref. ⁶⁵
	Poly(MAA-co- DMAPS)	Electric	LoD= 0.6~0.7% °C ⁻¹	>10000%	Self-healing; Temperature-responsive sensor (10~80 °C)	Ref. ⁶⁶
Nanoparticl es- incorporate d	Chitosan-AuNPs	Color	LoD=2.4 µM of H ₂ O ₂	/	Wide detection range (8.0 μM- 15 mM)	Ref. ⁶⁷
	PNIPAM-AuNPs	Color	LoD=0.2 °C	>100%	Color-temperature sensor range (25~40 °C); detecting time (~1s)	Ref. ⁶⁸
	Fe ₃ O ₄ -poly(AAc <i>-co-</i> AAm)	Magnetic	LoD=0.1 pH unit	/	Repeatable, reversible detection; detecting time (<60 min)	Ref. ⁶⁹
	Platinum nanoparticles (PtNPs)-PANI array	Electric	LoD=~0. 2 mM of glucose	/	High selectivity; signal-to-noise ratio of ∼3	Ref. ⁷⁰

	PtNPs-PANI	Electric	LoD=~0. 7 μM of glucose	/	High selectivity; detecting time (<3 s)	Ref. ⁷¹
	AgNWs-polyAAm	Electric	GF=0.71	>22000%	Wide working condition (-20~80 °C); detect breathing, speaking, and finger bending	Ref. ⁷²
	Nano barium ferrite (BaFe ₁₂ O ₁₉)-polyAAc	Electric	/	>40%	High ionic conductivity (1.22×10 ⁻² S cm ⁻¹); good self-recoverability	Ref. ⁷³
	PDA-CNTs-poly(AAc-AAm)	Electric	/	~700%	Self-adhesive; wide working condition (-20~60°C); detect arm bending and wrist pulse	Ref. ⁷⁴
	MXene (Ti ₃ AlC ₂)- polyvinyl alcohol (PVA)	Electric	GF=25	>3400%	Self-healing; self-adhesive; detect human speaking, writing, and smiling	Ref. ⁷⁵
	PC/rGO-PVA	Electric	GF=14.1 4	>5000%	Self-healing (~3s); detect finger bending, smiling, speaking, and wrist pulse	Ref. ⁷⁶
	F-SWCNT-polyPDA- PVA	Electric	/	>100%	Self-healing; self-adhesive; detect bending and relaxing of walking, chewing, and pulse	Ref. ⁷⁷
	SWCNT/PVA	Electric	GF=1.51	>1000%	Self-healing; detect bending and relaxing of knee/finger (>1000 cycles)	Ref. ⁷⁸
	TA/sodium alginate (SA)-polyAAm	Electric	GF=2.0	>2100%	Self-healing; detect smiling, finger bending, and wrist pulse	Ref. ⁷⁹
	KCl-(κ- carrageenan)/polyAAm	Electric	GF=0.63	~1000%	Self-healing; detect finger bending	Ref. ⁸⁰
	Cu ²⁺ -polyAAm	Electric	LoD=~0. 005% Strain	>1500%	Detect finger bending, speaking, and wrist pulse	Ref. 81
	NaCl-gelatin/PVA	Electric	GF=~0.4	~715%	Lower working condition (- 20°C); detect finger and elbow bending, speaking	Ref. 82
	LiCl-poly(Acrylated thymine-AAm)	Electric	/	~2000%	Self-healing; self-adhesive; detect breathing, speaking and finger bending	Ref. 83
Inorganic electrolyte- incorporate d	NaCl-polyAAm	Capacitan ce	/	>590%	Detect finger bending (>4000 cycles) and location of touch	Ref. 84
u	LiCl-polyAAm	Capacitan ce	/	>1000%	Detect location of touch (work as smart screen)	Ref. 85
	NaCl-SA/ polyAAm	Electric	GF=2.0	~3120%	Detect speaking, finger bending, and wrist pulse	Ref. ⁸⁶
	NaCl/SDS-regenerated silk fibroin(RSF)/ HPAAm	Electric	GF=2.0	>1900%	Detect finger bending and location of touch	Ref. ⁸⁷
	LiCl-polyAAm	Capacitan ce	GF=4.0	>500%	Adhesive; Stable performance (over 1500 cycles)	Ref. 88
	PIL-BF₄/PEDGA	Electric	/	>1400%	Wide working condition (-75°C to 340°C); detect finger bending (>10000 fatigue cycles)	Ref. 89
Biomolecul e- incorporate	PVA/RSF/borax	Electric	/	~5000%	Track leg, knee bending and different gestures	Ref. ⁹⁰

d	Poly(AAm-co- aptamer)	Color	LoD=0.0 128HAU of H5N1	/	<30 min detection time	Ref. ⁹¹
	DNA-based	Cell	/	/	Detect live circulating tumor cells	Ref. ⁹²

Note: Gauge Factor (GF); Limit of Detection (LoD).

2. General Design Strategy and Categories of Hydrogel Strain Sensors

To better understand the structure-function relationship of hydrogel strain sensors, here we classified hydrogel strain sensors into five basic groups of nanoparticleincorporated, conducting polymer-incorporated, polyelectrolyte-incorporated, inorganic salt-incorporated hydrogel, and biomolecule-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors, mainly depending on structural-dependent network structures, gelation methods, and sensing mechanisms, not depending on the nature of the stimuli. Since the five types of hydrogel strain sensors possess anisotropic structures, a general working principle is to create non-uniform spatial stresses in different regions/parts of the hydrogels to realize different stimuli-responsive sensing properties via straininduced shape-adaptive actuations. On the other hand, while the five types of hydrogel strain sensors can achieve the similar or same stimuli-responsive sensing capacity (i.e. thermo, light, electric, and pH sensing capacity)⁹³, they are driven by different sensing mechanisms strongly depending on their network structures (Figure 1). The inorganic nanofillers-incorporated hydrogel sensors are constructed by adding nanofillers or crosslinkers in polymer networks to create hybrid polymer/inorganic structures where both materials contribute unique and beneficial properties to hydrogel sensors, while the latter hydrogel sensors are likely constructed by different polymers to create an overall heterogeneous polymer/polymer structures. All these network structures allow to create and maximize the stress mismatch for strain-induced actuation upon external stimuli, and such sensing mechanics of these hydrogel sensors can further be tuned and optimized by changing the compositions in hydrogel matrix, tailoring to specific applications.

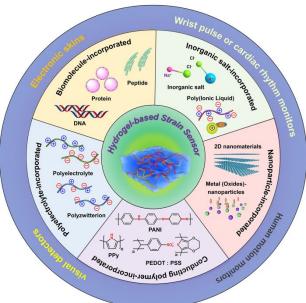


Figure 1. Overview of five typical types of hydrogel strain sensors.

2.1. Nanoparticle-incorporated hydrogel sensors

Due to the unique and superior optical, conductive, and magnetic properties of

nanoparticles (NPs), physical incorporation or chemical crosslinking of nanoparticles into polymer network enables to construct hybrid inorganic NPs/polymer network structures, which help to translate the conformational change of the surface bound stimuli-responsive polymers into observable optical property changes and improve mechanical property, making them as promising materials for the desirable sensing applications^{72-73, 76, 94}. A number of the widely used one/two/three-dimensional NPs of gold nanoparticles (AuNPs), gold nanorods (AuNRs), silver nanoparticle (AgNPs), carbon nanotubes, graphene oxide, and MXenes, and magnetic nanoparticles (Fe₃O₄) have been incorporated into polyAAm, polyNIPAM, PVA, poly(NIPAM-co-AAm), and poly(AAc-co-AAm) to produce several representative strain sensors of pH, temperature, color and human movements 95. As a typical example, AuNPs are often incorporated into a hydrogel matrix containing -SH, -CN or -NH₂ groups via the formation of dynamic covalent bonds, which are responsive to different stimuli in different strain sensors. AuNPs can be readily self-assembled on amine-rich chitosan hydrogel matrix through horseradish peroxidase (HRP) immobilization, producing AuNPs-incorporated hydrogel biosensor ⁶⁷, which showed a wide range of response to H₂O₂ (8.0~15 μM), a lower detection limit of 2.4 μM, and long-term sensing stability up to 4 weeks. Moreover, AuNPs can also be modified by plasmonic nanostructures with different plasmonic materials, cluster structures, and geometries, and the modified AuNPs are used as real-time colorimetric indicators for hydrogel color sensors. As shown in Figure 2a, combining of plasmonic AuNPs with thermo-responsive polyNIPAM hydrogels, a smart colorimetric stretchable hydrogel biosensor was able to achieve rapid, reversible, and strain-insensitive color shifts between red and gravish violet in response to a temperature change from 25 °C~40 °C within 1 s ⁶⁸. Apart from conventional AuNPs, AgNPs, and plasmonic nanoparticles, the incorporation of magnetic Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles into poly(AAc-co-AAm) hydrogels enabled to produce a pH sensor, which displayed a repeatable and reversible response to the pH change, with a sufficient sensitivity to detect 0.1 unit change in pH (Figure 2b).⁶⁹

Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) and reduced graphene oxide (rGO) as typical twodimensional carbon materials have been widely integrated into and used as different electronic sensing devices made of elastomers, polymers, and organics due to their superior electronic properties of Fermi velocity, thermal conductivity, charge carrier mobility, and mechanical strength ⁹⁶⁻⁹⁹. But, strong hydrophobicity and poor solubility of CNTs and rGO make it very challenging to directly incorporate them into highly hydrophilic hydrogels (70-90% water content) and to avoid their aggregation in hydrogel matrix, while still retaining their electronic sensing functions. To overcome this issue, a common strategy is to modify these hydrophobic carbon materials with hydrophilic/charge phenol hydroxyl, carboxylic acid, epoxide, and oxide groups to not only improve the dispersion of CNTs and strengthen interfacial interactions with polymer network, but also enhance mechanical and electrical properties via electrostatic and π - π interactions, hydrogen bonding. Consequently, different modified CNTs have been incorporated into polyAAm, polyAAc, polysaccharides, gelatin, collagen, and polyethylene glycol (PEG) hydrogels via hydrothermal and solvothermal reactions, cross-linking gelation, doping methods, and template-based synthesis. Among different CNTs-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors, flexible and wearable strain sensors become immense importance for ultrasensitive human-machine interaction, healthcare monitoring, and human motions. As a classical example, conductive functionalized single-wall carbon nanotube (FSWCNT), biocompatible polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), and polydopamine (PDA) were crosslinked to form a healable and adhesive PVA-

FSWCNT-PDA hydrogel with dynamic supramolecular structures, which exhibited fast self-healing ability (within 2 s), high self-healing efficiency (99%), and robust surface adhesion on different substrates (Figure 2c). PVA-FSWCNT-PDA hydrogel was further fabricated into a wearable soft strain sensor for real-time detection of different human motions of finger bending and relaxing, walking, chewing, and pulse (Figure 2d).⁷⁷ To expand this idea, single wall carbon nanotube (SWCNT), GO, and silver nanowire (AgNWs) were separately incorporated into PVA hydrogels to produce different types of NPs/PVA hydrogels as conductive strain sensors, all of which achieve fast and high self-healing efficiency (98%) of electric signals within ~3 s, sustain extreme elastic strain of 1000% with a gauge factor of 1.51, and effectively monitor and distinguish multifarious human motion of finger, elbow, knee, and neck. ⁷⁸ More impressively, MXene (Ti₃C₂T_x) as another 2D carbonitrides/metal carbides was incorporated into PVA hydrogel to MXene-based hydrogel strain sensor, which can detect various bodily motions (hand gestures and facial expressions) and to monitor vital signals (human pulse and vocal sound) (Figure 2e) 75. Such high strain-induced electromechanical sensitivity is largely attributed to the 3D network structure of the MXene nanosheets embedded within the hydrogel matrix. Large deformation reduces the spacing between the nanosheets, yet increase surface contacts between MXene nanosheets, transform face-to-edge interconnections into face-to-face interconnections, all of which decrease M-hydrogel resistance and thus increase detection sensitivity. We that except for the above-mentioned examples, nanoparticle/polymer hydrogel strain sensors can only be stretched to a strain of ~200%, thus the breaking of conducting contacts during deformation usually leads to the poor and irreversible detection sensitivity of these strain sensors. Additional efforts should be made to increase the stretchability and self-healing properties of these nanoparticle/polymer hydrogel strain sensors.

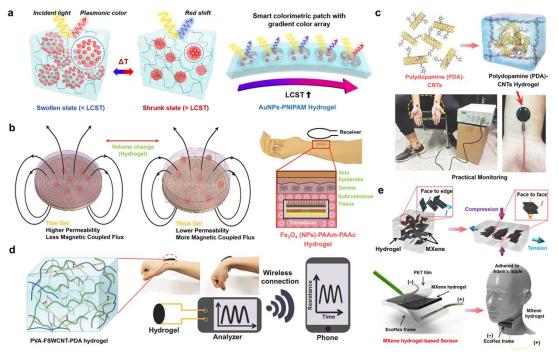


Figure 2. Nanoparticle/polymer hydrogel sensors. (a) Thermo-responsive colorimetric plasmonic AuNPs-PNIPAM hydrogel sensors, enabling to exhibit rapid and reversible color shifts from red to violet in response to a temperature change (25~40 °C) within 1 s. [Adapted with permission from (⁶⁸), copyright 2018 Nature Publishing Group]. (b)

Wireless iron oxide nanoparticle (Fe₃O₄NPs)-embedded poly(AAc-*co*-AAm) hydrogel sensors that can detect subtle pH changes (0.1 unit) in response to a magnetic field. [Adapted with permission from (⁶⁹), copyright 2014 Elsevier]. (c) Mussel-inspired PDA-CNTs-incorporated poly(AAm-AAc) hydrogels with highly adhesive, tough, and conductive properties for detecting human wrist pulse even under -20 °C. [Adapted with permission from (⁷⁴), copyright 2018 Wiley-VCH]. (d) Automatous healable and adhesive PVA-FSWCNT-PDA hydrogel strain sensor for real-time detection of human motions of finger bending and relaxing, walking, chewing, and pulse with fast self-healing ability (within 2 s) in response to external changes of stress or strain ⁷⁷. (e) MXene-PVA hydrogel sensors for monitoring electromechanical signal changes with a gauge factor of 25. [Adapted with permission from (⁷⁵), copyright 2018 American Association for the Advancement of Science].

2.2. Conducting polymer-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors

Conducting polymers such as polypyrrole (PPy), polyaniline (PANI), and poly(3, 4-ethylene-dioxythiophene) (PEDOT) are π -conjugated polymers with alternating single and double covalent bonds for conducting electrons $^{100\text{-}102}$. Use of conducting polymers to make hydrogel strain sensors possesses several intrinsic advantages: (1) conductive polymers themselves are able to carry solvent ions for electrical conduction with fairly low resistance in the hydrogel networks; (2) as opposite to rigid NPs and metallic additives in polymer hydrogels to empower electronic conductivity, conductive polymer chains are very flexible and compatible with other polymers in the same hydrogel systems for empowering their high stretchability. Less structural disparity in network length scales can reduce the source of inhomogeneity in mechanical and electrical properties; (3) obviously, conductive polymers can be simply fabricated with other elastomeric and polymers substrates into electronic sensors, so that conjugated polymers inside hydrogel networks possess high conductivity and thermal stability for piezoresistive strain sensors $^{64, 103\text{-}105}$.

A general working mechanism for conducting hydrogel strain sensors is the delocalization of π -bonded electrons over the conjugated backbone structures. To this end, PANI, as firstly described in the mid-19th century by Henry Letheby, has been widely used for hydrogel bioelectronics ¹⁰⁶⁻¹⁰⁷. As an interesting example, a triplex biosensor made of nano-patterned PANI hydrogels and different enzymes were able to detect triglycerides, lactate, and glucose, with good selectivity and high sensitivity in both PBS and human serum samples.⁷⁰ The hydrophilic porous microstructure of the PANI hydrogel was favorable for the transportation of electrons generated from hydrogen peroxide in the enzymatic reactions. To enhance the electronic conductivity of hydrogel strain sensors, another common design strategy is to integrate conducting polymers with various ionic or organic dopants and nanoparticles. The incorporation of such dopants enables to not only create free radicals that can pair with the dopant to form polarons, but also oxidize (p-doping) or reduces (n-doping) the conducting polymer at the π -bond sites by removing or donating electrons, both of which offer additional paths for charge carriers along with the conducting polymer backbone ¹⁰⁸. Following this working principle, the incorporation of platinum nanoparticles (PtNPs) into PANI hydrogel allowed to construct a glucose sensor, with a ultrahigh low detection limit of 0.7 µM glucose with 3 s (Figure 3a).⁷¹ The significant increase of glucose detection ability of PtNPs/PANI hydrogel sensors is attributed to enhance electrocatalytic activity for oxidizing H₂O₂. Similarly, polyAAm hydrogel doped with poly(3, 4-ethylenedioxythiophene):polystyrene sulfonate (PEDOT: PSS) conductive polymers create a classical piezoresistive tactile sensor (Figure 3b).⁶² However, additional challenge still remains. Simple doping/mixing of additives into conductive polymer network usually does not necessarily to enhance mechanical strength, instead make the hydrogels become more brittle due to over-crosslinking effect.⁶³ To address this issue, the rational design of interpenetrating network (IPN) between conducting polymers and other polymers is a possible solution to minimize potential trade-offs between mechanical and electrical properties via in situ polymerization or in-growth polymerization. Using this design strategy, a number of conducting hydrogels with IPN have been developed by polymerizing conducting polymers (e.g., PEDOT: PSS and PANI) with other polymers (e.g. polyAAm, polyAAc, and gellan gum)). All of these conductive IPN hydrogel sensors displayed the enhanced mechanical properties as compared to conductive hydrogel sensors without IPN, while still retaining high sensing ability (e.g. gauge factor=11) (**Figure 3c**). ³⁹ Moreover, considering that doublenetwork (DN) structure is a special case of IPN, several recent attempts have fabricated the two different polymers to form conductive hydrogels with DN structure for imparting both high electronic conductivity and mechanical toughness, including PEDOT: PSS/PDMAAm DN hydrogels 109 and polyAAc/PEDOT: PSS DN hydrogel

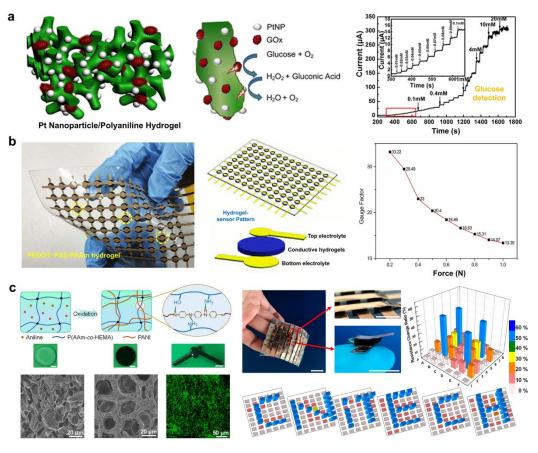


Figure 3. Conductive polymer hydrogel strain sensors. (a) PtNPs/PANI hydrogels as a glucose sensor with high sensitivity of 96 μ A·mM⁻¹·cm⁻², low detection limit of 0.7 μ M, and fast response time of ~3 s. Such unprecedented sensitivity is largely attributed to synergistic integration of PtNPs catalysts into 3D-microstructured PANI hydrogel matrix for promoting the electro-oxidation of hydrogen peroxide. [Adapted with permission from (⁷¹), copyright 2013 American Chemical Society]. (b) PolyAAm/PEDOT:PSS piezoresistive hydrogel sensors with high gauge factor of

13~33 in response to subtle force of 0.2~1.0 N. The blending of PEDOT: PSS into PAM hydrogels allows to reduce output impedance ($k\Omega$) so as to promote piezoresistive sensitivity. [Adapted with permission from (62), copyright 2018 IEEE. (c) Conductive PANI-poly(AAm-co-HEMA) hydrogel sensors with high sensitivity (GF = 11) at low strain and outstanding linearity at high strains for detecting human motions of speaking, wrist pulse, and hand writing. [Adapted with permission from (39), copyright 2018 American Chemical Society].

2.3. Polyelectrolyte-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors

Polyelectrolytes (e.g. poly(2-acrylamido-2-methylpropane-1-sulfonic acid) [poly(AMPS)], polyAAc, polyzwitterions) are among the most studied macro-ionic molecular systems. Considering the ionic nature of polyelectrolytes, polyelectrolyte hydrogels by copolymerizing these electrolyte monomers into hydrogel networks possess intrinsic ionic groups and the counterions, thus they commonly undergo a volume shrinking or swelling in response to pH and ionic changes 111-113. As compared polymer hydrogels, polyelectrolyte hydrogels usually "polyelectrolyte effect" behavior, i.e. polyelectrolyte chains undergo a fully stretching (swelling) conformation in water, but adopt a collapsed (shrinking) conformation into salt solution, simply because the introduction of polyelectrolytes will screen out longrange electrostatic repulsions and short-range excluded volume interactions between and within polyelectrolyte chains, leading to ion/pH-responsive volume changes ¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁵. Moreover, strong binding of counterions to polyelectrolyte chains creates additional crosslinks in hydrogel network, which influences mechanical properties of polyelectrolyte hydrogels and even causes gel collapse in some cases. Moreover, the presence of the charged groups allows to introduce metal ion coordination and supramolecular interactions in hydrogel networks and thus to promote the hydroelectricity separation and conductivity of the hydrogels.

Copolymerization of charged monomers [e.g. AMPS, AAc, 2-(methacryloyloxy) ethylldimethyl-(3-sulfopropyl) ammonium hydroxide (SBMA), 3-dimethyl (methacryloyloxyethyl) ammonium propanesulfonate (DMAPS)] with neutral acrylamide monomers [e.g. AAm, NIPAM, HEMA]^{66, 116-118} and introduction of these charged monomers into hydrogel network (e.g. PVA, P2VP, SA or polyAAm) to form IPN structures ¹¹⁹⁻¹²³ are two common strategies to construct polyelectrolyte hydrogel sensors. The copolymerization strategy can achieve poly(SBMA-co-HEMA) hydrogel sensor polyelectrolyte hydrogels with high fracture elongation of 2000~10000 %, fracture strength of 0.2~0.6 MPa, and gauge factor of more than 1.5 (Figure 4a). Another zwitterionic poly(MAA-co-DMAPS) hydrogel sensors with UCST and LCST characteristics display ultrastretchability up to 10000%, which can converse forces to electrical signals for tracking human movements and perceiving changes in external temperature (Figure 4b) 66. IPN structures can slightly enhance the tensile strength or sensitivity of hydrogel sensors by improving the integrity of network structures. For instance, polyAAc/SA, polyAAc/PAAm, polySBMA/PVA strain sensors exhibited 300~1000% of stretchability, ~0.6 MPa of tensile strength, and high detection capacity for multiple-time elbow/finger bending. Moreover, polyAAc/SA hydrogel sensors also exhibited high and sustainable sensitivity for detecting a wide range of pressures between 0.17~1000 kPa (Figure 4c). 65

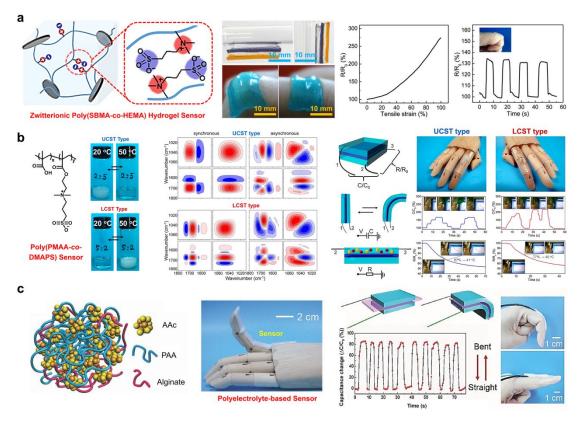


Figure 4. Polyelectrolyte-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors. (a) Poly(SBMA-*co*-HEMA) hydrogel sensors with high strain conductivity and sensitivity (gauge factor=1.8), high fracture toughness of 2.45 MJ m⁻³, fracture strain of 2000%, fracture strength of 0.27 MPa, and compliant adhesion on different surfaces (hydrogels, skin, glasses, silicone rubbers, and nitrile rubbers) [Adapted with permission from (¹¹⁶), copyright 2019 American Chemical Society]. (b) Zwitterionic poly(MAA-*co*-DMAPS) hydrogel sensors to detect the movements of the wooden prosthetic finger and environmental temperature changes by tuning UCST and LCST for conversing forces to electrical signals. [Adapted with permission from (⁶⁶), copyright 2018 American Chemical Society]. (c) PolyAAc/SA hydrogels used as skin-mimic sensors for detecting subtle pressure changes as induced by a gentle finger touch, human motion, or small water droplets. [Adapted with permission from (⁶⁵), copyright 2017 Wiley-VCH].

2.4. Inorganic salt-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors

Different from polyelectrolyte hydrogel strain sensors, electrolyte hydrogels are typically prepared by direct physical or chemical doping of sodium chloride (NaCl), lithium chloride (LiCl), and cupric ion (Cu²⁺) into polyAAm, HPAAm, and PVA hydrogels. Direct physical doping of NaCl, LiCl, and Cu²⁺ salts into polyacrylamide (polyAAm) hydrogels provide a simple and straightforward route to form ion-doped hydrogels.84-85 electrolyte The resultant NaCl/polyAAm, LiCl/polyAAm, Cu²⁺/polyAAm hydrogel strain sensors are not only highly stretchable up to 15-times in their original length and stable to sustain over 1000 pressure-capacitance cycles, but also detect any subtle human motion such as smiling, speaking, and finger bending. Moreover, such electrolyte hydrogels can also be fabricated into epidermal touch panel used as human skin-machine interfaces for writing words, and playing games and piano. (Figure 5a). To enhance mechanical property, doping of different salts in DN network structure has produced different hydrogel strain sensors, including (i) kcarrageenan/polyAAm DN hydrogel doped with KCl to achieve a great strain sensitivity with a gauge factor of 0.63 at the strain of 1000%, elastic modulus of 280 kPa, and a fracture energy of 6150 J/m².⁸⁰; (ii) PVA/ gelatin doped with NaCl to achieve fracture stress of 1 MPa, fracture strain of 715%, elastic modulus of 157 kPa, and toughness of 3605 kJ/m³; ⁸² (iii) SA/tannic acid (TA)/polyAAm hydrogel with ternary ionic multibond network with high sensitivity (GF of 2.0) (**Figure 5b**) ⁷⁹. All of these salt-doped hydrogels were fabricated into stretchable wearable strain sensors for real-time monitoring of various human motions and physiological signals. While physical doping could achieve the regeneration of electrical conductivity by simple re-soaking methods, strong dependence of salt concentrations on ion-doped polyelectrolyte hydrogels would also affect the sensitivity and specificity of hydrogel sensors in real-world applications.

Different from direct physical doping, chemical doping strategy helps to enhance mechanical property of hydrogels. Usually, chemical doping strategy drives free salt ions to strongly bind to polymer network via metallic ion coordination and supramolecular assembly. Such interactions reduce the possibility of salting-out phenomena and blockage of the network channels of hydrogel sensors, both of which would cause the failure of hydrogel sensors. Chemical doping of sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)/NaCl into polyAAm or HPAAm hydrogel network containing sodium alginate (SA) nanofibrillar, regenerated silk fibroin (RSF), and cellulose derivatives allows to improve mechanical properties. NaCl/SA/polyAAm⁸⁶ and NaCl/SDS-RSF/HPAAm⁸⁷ hydrogel sensors (0.65-1.2 MPa) possessed 2~7 times higher tensile stress than pristine hydrogel sensors (0.1-0.2 MPa), with maximum stretchability up to 1800%~3100%. For NaCl/SDS-RSF/HPAAm DN gel (Figure 5c), SDS not only promoted the rapid formation of the first SDS-RSF network, but also forms SDS micelles to act as cross-linked points for second HPAAm network. All of these tough electrolyte hydrogels can also be used as touchable or resistance-sensitive devices for sensing electronic signals.

Ionic liquids (ILs) are composed of cation-anion pairs of an organic ion and inorganic counterion. Different from those inorganic salts, ILs are hydrophobic and difficult to add into hydrophilic hydrogels directly. Using click reaction and solvent exclusion methods, PIL-BF₄ ⁸⁹, 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride (BMIMCl) ¹²⁴, and [C16mim]⁺Cl⁻ ¹²⁵ were encased or cross-linked into PEDGA/PETA, xanthan gum, bulk g-C₃N₄ hydrogels. The resultant hydrogel sensors possessed high tensile strength of 1.5~2.2 MPa, stretchability of 1500% up to 10000 fatigue cycles, and broad thermal responsive range of -75 °C~340 °C. Due to the high ionic conductivity (0.83 S m⁻¹ at room temperature), hydrogel sensors can retain their high and stable electric sensitivity even at extremely low (-60 °C) or high (200 °C) temperature (**Figure 5d**). Furthermore, ILs are promising for preparing anti-freezing organogel or hydrogel sensors, which require further research efforts in this aspect.

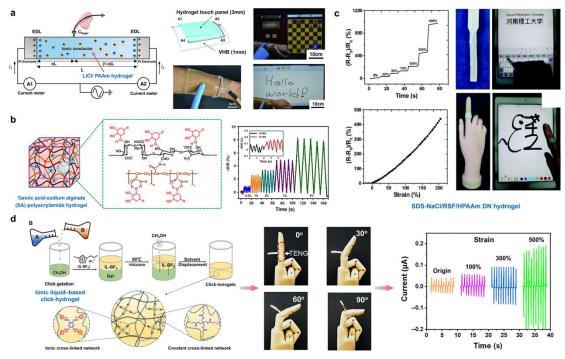


Figure 5. Inorganic salt-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors. (a) LiCl-polyAAm hydrogel sensor with high stretchability and transmittance, which is further used as ionic touch panel for writing words and playing games and piano. [Adapted with permission from (85), copyright 2016 American Association for the Advancement of Science]. (b) SA/TA/polyAAm hydrogel sensor with a high gauge factor of 2-9 at a subtle (<100%) and large (2100%) strains for monitoring large limb motions of the human body (finger, knee, and elbow) and subtle muscle movements (smiling, chewing, and wrist pulse). Adapted with permission from (⁷⁹), copyright 2019 American Chemical Society]. (c) NaCl/SDS-RSF/HPAAm hydrogel sensor with high compression/tensile strength of 122/1.2 MPa, large extensibility of 19, high toughness of 1769 J/m², and high ionic conductivity of 0.012 S/cm. High ionic conductivity and strain sensitivity enable the RSF/HPAAm DN gel to be used as touching screen pen and electronic skin. [Adapted with permission from (87), copyright 2019 Royal Society of Chemistry]. (d) Ionic liquid-based PIL-BF₄/PEDGA hydrogel strain sensor with high ionic conductivity (0.83 S m⁻¹ at room temperature) for detecting finger bending under wide temperature range (-75 °C~340 °C) over 10,000 fatigue cycles. [Adapted with permission from (89), copyright 2019 American Association for the Advancement of Science].

2.5. Biomolecule-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors

Hydrogels integrating with biomolecules (e.g. proteins, peptides, antibody, DNAs, enzymes) presents many general bio-related advantages of biodegradability, biocompatibility, and biostability, as well as specific bio-functionalities of drug/gene carriers, bioactivity, and bioimaging ¹²⁶⁻¹²⁸. From a fabrication viewpoint, biomolecule-based hydrogels are often fabricated via a variety of methods, including click chemistry, Michael addition of cysteine residues to vinyl sulfones or maleimides, UV-initiated cross-linking, native chemical ligation, nonspecific amine-carboxylic acid couplings, and self-assembly ¹²⁹⁻¹³¹. Functionally, biomolecule-based hydrogels achieve their specific functions via simple sequence design, but stimuli-responsive sensing properties from the coupling of functional biomolecules with the physical properties of polymers. Incorporation of biomolecules into synthetic polymer networks also could influence the

swelling, structure, and mechanical properties of the hydrogels. Practically, most of biomolecule-based hydrogels are dominantly used for tissue engineering and extracellular matrix (ECM) mimics, but stimuli-responsive biomolecule-based hydrogels have attracted increasing interests for the next-generation bioelectronic interfaces over the last decade, due to their similarities to biological tissues and versatility in electrical, mechanical, and biofunctional engineering.

For protein/polymer hydrogels formed by native proteins (e.g. collagen, gelatin, silk fibroin, bovine serum albumin, β-lactoglobulin, YajC-CT, and ovalbumin) and synthetic polymers, they achieve stimuli-responsive proprieties mainly through conformational changes between native and denaturation states upon external simulation ¹³². For example, a series of PEG/protein hydrogels were synthesized with different proteins of soy protein, hydrolyzed soy protein, pea albumin, and casein¹³³⁻¹³⁵. Due to polyelectrolyte nature of the proteins, the resultant PEG/protein hydrogels exhibited pH responsiveness of drug release, but mechanical properties of these hydrogels were still weak. Apart from PEG, other polymers including PVA, poly(propylene oxide) (PPO), polyAAc, and polyHEMA have been used to fabricate with RSF to produce polymer/RSF hybrid hydrogels, which can be regulated by heating, variation of pH 136 , alcohol, ions 90 , and shearing. RSF usually adopts β -sheet structures and favors to aggregate these β-sheets into crystalline fibrous structures in polymer networks, and such hierarchical structures are main contribution to the excellent mechanical property of polymer/RSF hybrid hydrogels. Some PVA/RSF/borax hydrogel can also be used as a physical sensor to detect the bending and release of the leg, hand, and finger (Figure 6a). However, the low stability and ease denaturation of proteins make protein/polymer hydrogels vulnerable for their sensing, mechanical, and biological properties. As an alternative, small peptides can mimic main function of natural proteins, be facile synthesized and precise modified by simply controlling their sequences at large-scale and low-cost level via gene expression in bacteria, recombinant technology, and solid-phase peptide synthesis, and be easily incorporated with polymers via the click chemistry. One design strategy to introduce stimuli-responsive properties for these peptides is to control their conformational changes via sol-to-gel transition by various environmental stimuli. For instance, FEFEFKFK/polyNIPAAm and POG8/PEG hydrogel exhibited thermo-responsive properties that can be tuned by self-assemble of FEFEFKFK into β-sheet-rich fibers and POG8 into triple-helix fibers¹³⁷⁻¹³⁸

Compared to proteins and peptides, DNA possesses enhanced stability under intensive heating, pressure, and chemical processing. DNA-functionalized hydrogels are still a relatively new field. The most important property of DNA hydrogel is that nucleobases including adenine (A), thymine (T), guanine (G), cytosine (C), and uracil (U) serve as programmable microscopic motifs or crosslinkers for constructing predictable secondary structural network from bottom up via the base-pairing hybridization¹³⁹. The hybridization of complementary DNA strands leads to the crosslinking of polymer chains and hydrogel formation with precise structural control and specific responses. DNA generally behaves like a long linear polymer and forms a hydrogel via physical entanglement or by chemical crosslinking of other polymers, composites, and small molecules. As nucleobases was independently introduced into polyacrylamide, DNA-polyAAm hydrogels can greatly enhance their elastic modulus of 0.43 MPa by several orders of magnitude¹⁴⁰, as well as surface adhesion (220-780 N/m) on various solid materials, including polytetrafluoroethylene, plastics, glasses,

rubbers, metals, and woods.¹⁴¹ Such mechanical enhancement in DNA (linear)-polyacrylamide hydrogels is largely attributed to their DNA-self-assembled supramolecular structures. Apart from linear DNAs, DNA can also be precisely designed and self-assembled into different branched architectures of X, Y, T, cross-shapes, which were further self-assembled into large-scale, three-dimensional hydrogel structure via efficient, ligase-mediated reactions, but such branched DNA hydrogels were very weak with tensile modulus of 1-50 KPa and tensile strain of 0.42-0.57 ¹³⁹.

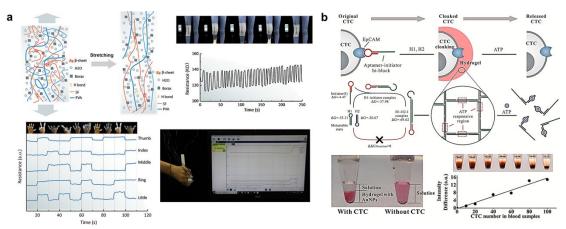


Figure 6. Biomolecule-incorporated hydrogel strain sensors. (a) Protein-based PVA/RSF/borax hydrogel sensor with high stretchability, self-healing, and adhesion properties, which are integrated together and used as a physical sensing platform for human motion detection [Adapted with permission from (90), copyright 2019 American Chemical Society]. (b) ATP-aptamer-responsive DNA hydrogel sensor for capturing and releasing of circulating tumor cells with high cell viability. [Adapted with permission from (92), copyright 2019 American Chemical Society].

Different from pure DNA hydrogels, due to a negatively charged nature of DNA, DNA is also used to form a responsive complex through physical interactions with cationic polyelectrolytes or nanocomposites or chemical grafting onto synthetic polymers ¹⁴²⁻¹⁴³. Physical DNA-polymer or DNA-composite hydrogels undergo reversible and switchable changes in the morphology, color, and size in response to external stimuli, and thus are often used as smart sensors and devices to monitor binding events. However, physical DNA-polymer hybrid hydrogels usually suffer from weak mechanical strength and poor sensitivity, presumably due to the lack of precise controlling to form ordered structures. Instead of using physical interactions, DNA can be covalently grafted onto or crosslinked with polymers or proteins to construct programmable structures in hydrogel networks. For example, co-assembles with an octapeptides and DNA allowed to fabricate DNA-inspired hydrogel sensors, which can selectively hybridize DNA and generate a fluorescence, with a detection limit of 22 pM. DNA-poly(phenylenevinylene) hybrid hydrogels (DNA/SP-PPV) have been developed for monitoring drug release driven by media pH ¹⁴⁴. An ATP-responsive DNA hydrogel can achieve a controllable capture and release of cells by incorporating an ATP aptamer in the clamped HCR (aptamer-triggered clamped HCR, atcHCR) (**Figure 6b**) 92. Overall, the unique properties of DNA-based hydrogels are particularly useful for biomolecule detection under biologically-relevant conditions, minimize unwanted probe-probe interactions, and have the potential to hugely increase the analyte storage capacity of these devices. In addition, unlike traditional reversible crosslinks such as DHEBA, the DNA-crosslinks do not require the addition of an initiator-catalyst system to re-establish dissociated crosslinks.

3. Applications of hydrogel-based sensors

3.1. Hydrogel strain sensors as electronic skins

Human skin as naturally evolved product combines multiple sensations and excellent mechanical properties, which offer a perfect example for developing biomimic devices with stimuli-responsive properties for human-machine interactions. "Hydrogel electronic skins" are considered as artificially intelligent skins, which marry the mutual advantages of hydrogels (e.g. high-water content, soft, biocompatibility, and high stretchability/toughness) and electronic devices (e.g. high electrical conductivity and stimuli-responsiveness) ^{15, 145-146}. A transparent LiCl-polyAAm hydrogel sensor was designed as the electronic skins, which can sense 0~1 kPa of pressure change and subtle human movements up to more than 1000 times⁸⁴. Following the similar design strategy, bioinspired mineral ACC/polyAAc/alginate hydrogel electronic skins were developed to sense a gentle human motion (e.g. finger touch, speaking and laughing) with very high pressure sensitivity up to 1 kPa⁶⁵. Zwitterionic poly(MMA-co-DMAPS) hydrogels strain sensors by integrating a parallel-plate capacitor with an ionic resistor enabled to mimic mechanoreceptor (detection for 10000 strain change) and thermo-receptor in human skin (10~80 °C) due to temperature-sensitive transition between LCST and UCST. 66 However, challenges still remain—most of hydrogel-based electronic skins still possess relatively unitary functions. To end this, a more precise and multifunctional electronic skins—LiCl-PVA hydrogel strain sensors (>2000% of biaxial strain) combining with a flexible unit bearing power supply, control, readout and communication units, a stretchable transducer batch, and printed circuit board was successfully constructed as an intelligence electronic skins. 147 This LiCl-PVA hvdrogel electronic skin can real-time monitor and control the human body temperature, collect some health information (e.g. blood pressure, heart beating), and trigger drug releases for treatment whenever abnormal physiological signals were received. This electronic skin outperforms most of current hydrogel electronic skin, which is worthy of further exploration of potential bioelectronic applications.

3.2. Hydrogel strain sensors as wrist pulse or cardiac rhythm monitors

Artery pulse in (pre)clinical practice is a significant indicator of arterial blood pressure, cardiac rhythm, and aged blood vessel, which often provides useful information for real-time, non-invasive diagnosis of possible cardiovascular diseases ¹⁴⁸⁻¹⁴⁹. Due to the highly flexible and soft matrix of hydrogel strain sensors, hydrogel sensors enable to closely fit the curvature and surface of human skins with underneath of blood vessels, so as to precisely detect three symbolic pulse waves as induced by wrist pulse, blood-pressure, and cardiac rhythm: percussion wave (P or P₁ wave), tidal wave (T or P2 wave), and diastolic wave (D or P3 wave), where P1/P2 waves are early/late systolic peak pressure and P₃ wave is the diastolic pulse waveform¹⁵⁰⁻¹⁵¹. More interestingly, P₁-wave/P₂-wave (radial artery augmentation index) and the time delay between these two-wave peaks largely reflect the arterial stiffness level, which is highly related to the health condition of people¹⁵². For instance, a number of hydrogelbased wrist pulse/blood-pressure sensors made of PANI-poly(AAm-co-HEMA)³⁹, FpolyNIPAM/PANI⁶⁴, AgNWs-polyAAm-PVP⁷², SA/TA/polyAAm⁷⁹, Cu²⁺/polyAAm⁸¹, LiCl-PVA⁸⁵, NaCl-SA/polyAAm⁸⁶, PANI/PSS ⁶³, polySBMA/ PVA ¹²³, Ca²⁺-SA-polyAAc ¹⁵³, Agar/NaCl/polyAAm¹⁵⁴, Chitosan-PPy-polyAAc¹⁵⁵, and SA-CNC/polyAAc¹⁵⁶ possessed high sensitivity with a gauge factor of 0.5~3, allowing for tracking irregular pulses, waves, and intervals within 0.1 s. However, the shape, frequency, and amplitude of pulse signals collected by these hydrogel sensors were still somehow rough, and in some cases, they cannot accurately distinguish percussion (P_1) , diastolic (P_2) and tidal (P_3) waves, limiting their further practical applications.

To overcome this detection sensitivity issue, the incorporation of nanoparticles into hydrogels, i.e. PDA-CNTs-poly(AAm-AAc) ⁷⁴, MXene-PVA ⁷⁵, FSWCNT-PDA-PVA ⁷⁷, PDA-PPy-polyAAm ¹⁰⁵, CNTs-Egg white ¹⁵⁷, SWCNT/polyAAm ¹⁵⁸, allows to increase a gauge factor to 3~80 so as to distinguish different pulse waves under 10 kPa. Meanwhile, these wrist pulse/blood-pressure hydrogel sensors enabled to transmit wireless signals to smart phones. Besides hydrogel detection sensitivity (gauge factor), specific contacting area between hydrogel sensors and human body is also important for wrist pulse or blood-pressure. An wireless pressure-sensing device incorporating Ca²⁺-SA ¹⁵⁹ hydrogel microspheres can continuously detect and distinguish characteristic pulse waves from human skin (~25 Pa), consistent with the clinically used wrist pulse detectors. On the other hand, hydrogel strain sensors are still inferior to metal/organic-based (e.g. ZnO-, Pt-, CNT-, Au nanowires-based) pulse sensors in terms of both detection sensitivity and specificity, presumably due to the irreversible fatigue and damage of network structure in hydrogels. Thus, some reversible bonds or self-healable materials should be introduced in such hydrogel sensors.

3.3. Hydrogel strain sensors as visual sensors

Stimuli-responsive hydrogels (e.g. thermal-responsive, glucose-responsive, pHresponsive, and cocaine-responsive hydrogels) possess a general ability to induce volume/size changes (i.e. shrinking or swelling) upon external stimuli. Particularly, when incorporating photonic crystals (PCs) or nanoparticles (PNs) into hydrogel network, it would alter the periodicity layout of PCs and PNs to trigger the transformation of bio-/physical-signals into colorimetric signals, eventually achieving optical changes. A colorful poly(St-MMA-AAm) hydrogel sensor embedded PCs were successfully designed to realize reversible color change from transparent to violet, blue, cyan, green and red in response to different humidity conditions, and the color change almost covered a whole visible range¹⁶¹. Such real-time, optical visual change was determined by expanding or contracting the crosslinked networks upon the increase or decrease of external humidity. Similarly, when incorporating PCs into Si structure, poly(HEMA-co-MMA)-PCs hydrogel sensors can achieve color changes in response to temperature (25 °C~50°C) due to swelling/shrinking-induced viscoelastic deformation. A hybrid protein kinase A (PKA)/PCs hydrogel sensor enables color changes for the label-free detection of kinase (PKA) as evidenced by a redshift, with a lowest detection limit of 2 U/μL for 2 h). 162 Moreover, the modified AuNPs with plasmonic nanostructures can also be incorporated into hydrogel sensor as real-time colorimetric visual detectors. A smart colorimetric stretchable plasmonic AuNPs-polyNIPAM hydrogels biosensor was able to achieve rapid, reversible, color changes between red and grayish violet in response to a temperature change from 25 °C~40 °C within 1s ⁶⁸. In general, PCs/AuNPs-incorporated hydrogel sensors hold great promise for wearable healthcare, due to their visual signals by naked eyes, without the needs for any additional detection instruments. However, when applying these visual sensors to wearable healthcare devices, epidermal contortion or human activity often inevitably causes irreversible damage of hydrogel networks and structures, which in turn compromise the performance of these hydrogel sensors. To overcome this issue, we propose to introduce some pattern structures to minimize the stretching of PCs so as to protect their colorimetric response.

3.4 Hydrogel strain sensors as human motions

Like other strain sensors, hydrogel strain sensors enable to capture or distinguish different human motion activities. Current commercial or representative organic/inorganic-based strain sensors made of a combination of CNT, GO, and other conductive materials with elastomeric substrates usually have limited stretchability up to 200%, while hydrogel strain sensors tend to adopt more complex and considerable deformation detection with their higher stretchability (300%~10000%) ¹⁶³⁻¹⁶⁴. Multiscale strains of human motions include large-scale motions (e.g., bending and twisting of hands, arms, and legs with a minimal strain >200%) and small-scale motions (e.g., subtle movements of face, chest, and neck during emotional expression, breathing, and speaking with a minor strain of <50%). Both single-network hydrogel strain sensors (e.g. Cu²⁺-polyAAm ⁸¹, MXene-PVA ⁷⁵) and double-network hydrogel sensors (e.g. KCl-κ-carrageenan/polyAAm⁸⁰, NaCl-SA/polyAAm⁸⁶, NaCl/SDS-RSF/HPAAm⁸⁷, SA/TA/polyAAm⁷⁹) were able to detect these human motions. However, it is generally difficult for hydrogel networks to recover to the initial state immediately after undergoing large deformation, thus re-calibration of signal baseline of many hydrogel sensors after several-round tests is required. Therefore, ultra-stretchable hydrogel sensor with good mechanical self-recovery is expected to improve the substantial detection ability for human motion. For instance, when incorporation of PVP-capped AgNWs into polyAAm hydrogel, the resultant hydrogel sensor exhibited extremely high stretchability (>22000%), autonomous self-healing, mechanical compliance, and ultrawide linear response range from a gauge factor of 0.15 at 0-430% of tensile strain to 0.71 at 430-18100% of tensile strain.⁷² Another typical MXene-PVA hydrogel sensor with 3400% of stretchability and good self-recovery were designed to track facial expressions, hand gestures, finger bending, hand writing, and vocal motions. Due to its soft and sticky characteristics, MXene-PVA sensor can readily adhere onto various positions of human skins to a stable and repeatable detection.⁷⁵ Such sensor with great self-recovery can real-time and in situ track large body deformations, spatial gesture movements, and physiological signals for motion behaviors, as well as provide some health evaluation without any calibration, because the quick recovery of cross-linked network would maintain the relatively stable signal baseline.

4. Conclusion and Perspectives

This review provides an update on the current status and developments in hydrogel strain sensors, including their design strategies, preparation methods, functional properties, mechanical sensing mechanisms, and practical applications. Despite great advancements, functional hydrogel strain sensors with excellent electrical, magnetic, optical, and biocompatibility properties are still in their infancy. Current research to date still mainly focuses on the exploration of new stimuli-responsive hydrogel systems, but some fundamental issues need to be addressed.

Conventional hydrogels used for strain sensors usually possess limited mechanical strength and are prone to permanent breakage. Such intrinsic mechanical weakness often renders hydrogel sensors vulnerable to damage under continuous and responsive actions, resulting in the unstable sensitivity and specificity of hydrogel sensors. Lack of dynamic cues and mechanical strength within the hydrogels limit their sensing ability. To remedy this issue, on one hand, introducing self-healing properties to hydrogel sensors would repair structural damage, increase reusability and stability, and restore sensing ability to some extents. On the other hand, use of tough hydrogels (e.g. double-network hydrogels and nanocomposite hydrogels) as a structural platform

to integrate different sensing components is considered as alternative design strategy to enhance their sensing capacity of hydrogel sensors. However, it still remains a great challenge to design and construct self-healing hydrogel sensors, which combines several properties of rapid autonomous self-healing ability, high-mechanical healing efficiency, and easily distinguishable response signals. Also, retaining long-time selfhealing of hydrogel sensors is another critical concern particularly under harsh conditions (e.g. underwater, freezing temperature, or salt/acidic solution). When applying hydrogel strain sensors to wearable devices, apart from ultra-stretchability and high mechanical strength, additional robust adhesion to various solid surfaces (e.g. metal, glass, ceramic, wood) and soft materials (e.g. rubber, skin, tissue, organ) are required to maintain high strain sensitivity and stability to detect large human motions and tiny physiological signals. Another research direction is to apply hydrogel sensors for bio-applications, in this regard, hydrogels themselves must be also nontoxic and biocompatible for hydrogel-based skin sensor, blood-pressure sensors, implanted/injectable sensors. From an experimental viewpoint, it is always unstoppable motivation for materials researchers to explore cutting-edge chemistries and fabrication technologies for designing and synthesizing novel hydrogels with desired properties towards specific sensing applications. In addition, beyond hydrogels, it is also interesting to develop and study organic gels prepared in or containing non-water solvents of varied polarities so as to understand the solvent effect on different aspects of organic gels, to reveal the differences and similarities in gelation process, mechanical properties, toughening mechanisms, and network structures between hydrogels and organic gels, and to expand completely different gel systems for different applications.

In parallel, future efforts should be made to use computational modeling and machine learning technologies, along with polymer chemistry, synthesis, and gelation, to better understand the component-structure-performance relationship of hydrogel materials and to improve the structural-based design of hydrogel sensors and their interactions with target components or exogenous stimuli. Multi-scale simulations should study the deformation and recovery of hydrogels at the atomic, molecular, and macroscopic levels to clarify these issues. Very little work has been down on this front.

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