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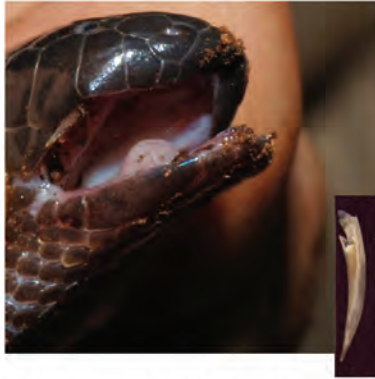
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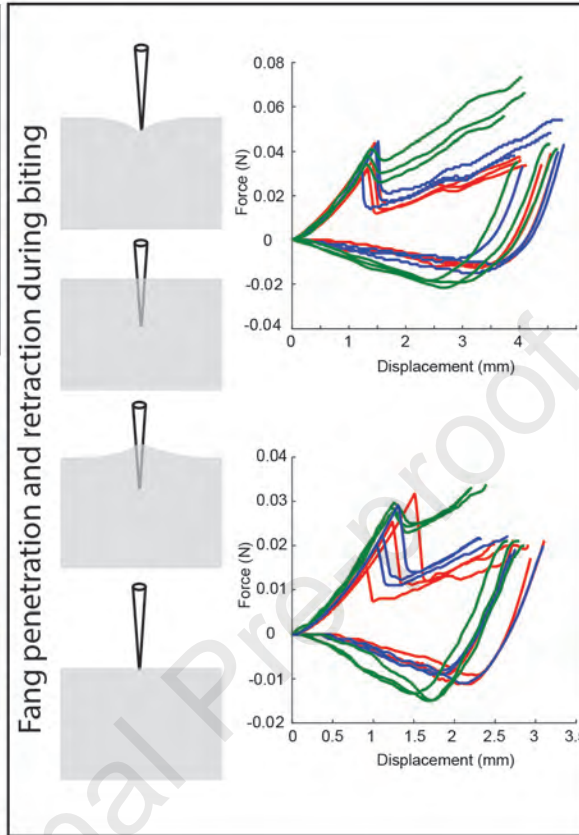


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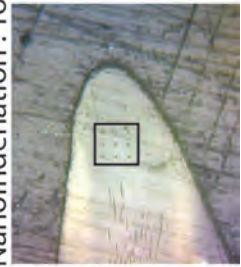
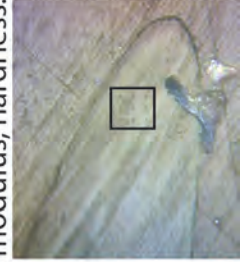
A. Viper (*Bitis arietans*)



D. Burrower (*Atractaspis aterrima*)



Nanoindentation : Young's modulus, hardness.



Mechanics of snake biting: Experiments and Modelling

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Abstract

29 Among all the vertebrates, snakes possess the most sophisticated venom delivering
30 system using their fangs. Fangs of many animals are well adapted to the mechanical loads
31 experienced during the functions such as breaking the diet and puncturing the skin of the
32 prey. Thus, investigation and modelling of puncturing mechanics of snakes is of
33 importance to understand the form-function relationship of the fangs and tissue-fang
34 interactions in detail. We have thus chosen fangs of two snake species i.e. viper (*Bitis*
35 *arietans*) and burrowing snake (*Atractaspis aterrima*), with different shape and size, and
36 performed insertion experiments using tissue phantoms. Our results showed that the fangs
37 of both species have similar mechanical properties but there was a difference in the
38 insertion forces owing to the difference in shape of the fang. Also, our modelling of the
39 fang-tissue interactions predicted some material parameters close to the experimental
40 values. Thus, our study can help in the development of bioinspired needles that can
41 potentially have reduced insertion forces and less damage to the tissue.

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56 Keywords: Viper; Burrower snake; Puncture; Nanoindentation; Modelling.
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61 1. Introduction

62 Biological structures like teeth are known to adapt well to mechanical loading conditions [1].
63 Among all the vertebrates, snakes possess the most sophisticated venom delivering system
64 using their fangs [2]. Fangs are the special teeth that are used to inject venom in to prey by
65 many species, using a venom canal that runs through [3]. Their long tubular fangs facilitate
66 injection of venom deep into the skin of the prey [4]. In order to cut through the prey tissue,
67 the material of the fang must be of similar or of stiffer material [5]. As mentioned, teeth and
68 fangs of many animals are well adapted to the mechanical loads experienced during the
69 function of either breaking the diet or puncturing the skin of the prey. Spider fang was
70 observed to have a design with fine mechanical tuning of properties at different locations for
71 easy piercing, reducing wear and withstanding stresses [5]. Changes in the shape and size of
72 the fang during evolution could have occurred also with the goal of injection system [6].
73 Investigating mechanics of puncturing by various snakes is of importance to understand the
74 form-function relationship of the fangs.

75 Understanding the tissue-fang interaction is important to get an overall idea of the
76 biomechanics of insertion during biting. There are many earlier studies which addressed the
77 needle-tissue interactions with the goal of designing needles that induce minimum pain [7,8].
78 Modelling of the forces involved in puncturing is done by separating the contributions
79 coming from the stiffness of the tissue or phantom material, the piercing force during the
80 initial phase of insertion and the frictional force at the interface of the needle the substrate
81 [9]. Most of these studies are based on standard suture needles or needles specially developed
82 for the percutaneous use. There are a very few studies which directly used a fang or a
83 piercing organ of an animal to study the interaction [10,11]. Using natural piercing organs
84 also present more challenges but the experiments helps in understanding the interaction in a
85 better way.

86 The goal of our study is threefold. Firstly, to perform piercing experiments on a substrate that
87 has material properties such as Young's modulus close to that of a human or an animal skin,
88 to understand the mechanics of fang insertion. Secondly, to determine the mechanical
89 properties of the fangs for comparison. Finally, to analytically model the insertion process at
90 various stages and further validate the model with the experimental data. We used fangs of
91 two snake species with fangs of different shape and size, respectively the Puff adder (*Bitis*
92 *arietans*) a large viperid snake, with long, hollow, articulated fangs which fold against the
93 roof of the mouth when the jaws are closed, mainly feeding on small mammals and birds and
94 with a bite that is considered a medical emergency in humans; and the Slender burrowing asp

95 (Atractaspis aterrima), a fossorial snake with relatively long fangs able to envenomate preys
96 with a unilateral backward stab of one fang projected from a partly open or closed mouth.
97 They have long fangs which can rotate and are hollow [12]. On the other hand, burrowing
98 snake has relatively shorter fangs and preys upon relatively small animals as compared to the
99 viper species. In order to understand the role of speed on the insertion force, we have
100 performed experiments at three piercing speeds. This study would help in understanding the
101 mechanics of fang insertion during biting and can also be extended to aid in the development
102 of needle design in biomedical applications.

103 **2. Materials and Methods**

104 **2.1. Microscopy**

105 Images of the fangs are taken using an optical microscope (Lynx LM-1322, OLYMPUS) and
106 a CCD camera (Nikon) attached to the microscope. The dimensions from the optical images
107 are quantified using the standard calibration.

108 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was performed on the prepared fangs post mechanical
109 tests. They are carefully mounted on double-sided carbon tape, stuck on an aluminium stub
110 followed by sputter coating (Manual sputter coater, Agar scientific) with gold. A SEM (EVO
111 40 XVP, ZEISS, Germany) was used with accelerating voltages between 5 and 20 kV.
112 ImageJ software was used for all the dimensional quantification reported in this study [13].

113 **2.2. Gel preparation**

114 Food grade gelatine was used to make the phantom gels. The plate-like gelatine was broken
115 into pieces and measured in the weighing balance to mix right proportions (1 g gelatine in 5
116 ml of water). The pieces of gelatine were soaked in water for 10 minutes and later thoroughly
117 mixed in water with a temperature around 80°C. The gel was then poured in Teflon moulds
118 for curing and later placed inside a refrigerator for gelation. The cured gels were carefully
119 taken out of the moulds and used for experiments.

120 **2.3. Compression testing**

121 We have estimated the bulk mechanical properties of the gelatine hydrogels using rectangular
122 blocks (15 mm × 10 mm × 9.5 mm). We applied force on the gels (number of samples = 4)
123 using a flat platen at a rate of 0.01 mm/sec, using Messphysik MIDI 10 (MESSPHYSIK,
124 Germany) Universal Testing Machine and the forces were recorded using transducer of

125 (LEANE Corp., ± 2 N). The initial linear region of the stress-strain curve is used to estimate
126 the Young's modulus of the material.

127 **2.4. Wire cutting**

128 We used wires of three different diameters (0.18, 0.4 and 0.8 mm) to determine the fracture
129 toughness of the gels (2 samples for each diameter) which are used in the piercing
130 experiments. The wires were kept taught between two points on the custom made set up and
131 are pushed in the gel along the width of the gel block. The gels used in these experiments
132 were prepared as mentioned in the corresponding section. The wires were pushed at a rate of
133 0.1 mm/s through the gels.

134 **2.5. Piercing force experiments**

135 The fangs were fixed in resin at the base of the fang to aid in holding the samples without
136 causing damage. Piercing experiments were performed using a Messphysik MIDI 10
137 (MESSPHYSIK, Germany) Universal Testing Machine and the forces are obtained using
138 transducer of (LEANE Corp., ± 0.25 N). Specimens ($n = 3$, at each rate) were pierced in
139 displacement-control mode at different rates (0.01, 0.1 and 1 mm/s) until the straight portion
140 of the fang was inserted into the gel. The various stages of gel deformation and needle
141 insertion and retraction are depicted in the schematic (Figure 1).

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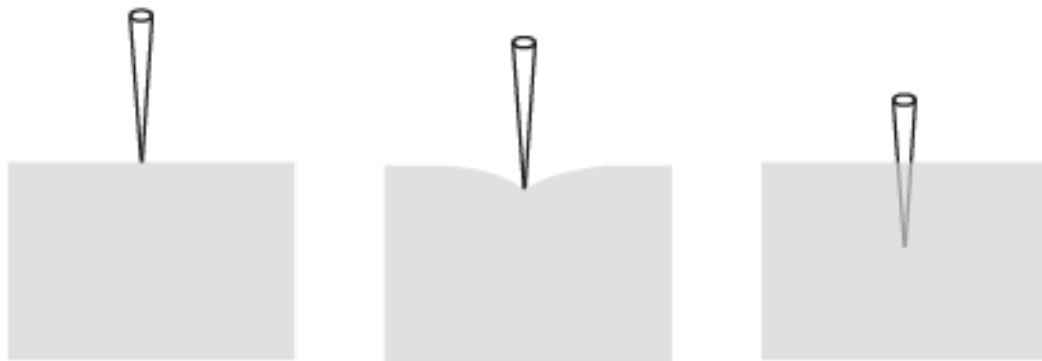
143 **2.6. Nanoindentation**

144 All fangs are embedded in a resin and polished using a series of 400, 800, 1200, 2000 and
145 4000 grade sand papers. Finally, the sample was polished using a diamond paste of particle
146 sizes in the range of 6 μ m and 1 μ m, to obtain a surface of minimal roughness. The material
147 properties of fangs are then determined using nanoindentation. We used Berkovich indenter
148 to perform nanoindentation experiments with a maximum load of 30 mN on the polished
149 cross-sectional surface of the tooth samples. We used a matrix format (3 \times 3) to perform a total
150 of 18 indentations with 9 at each location with a prescribed distance between them. A
151 Poisson's ratio of 0.31 was used for estimating the Young's modulus.

152

153

Penetration

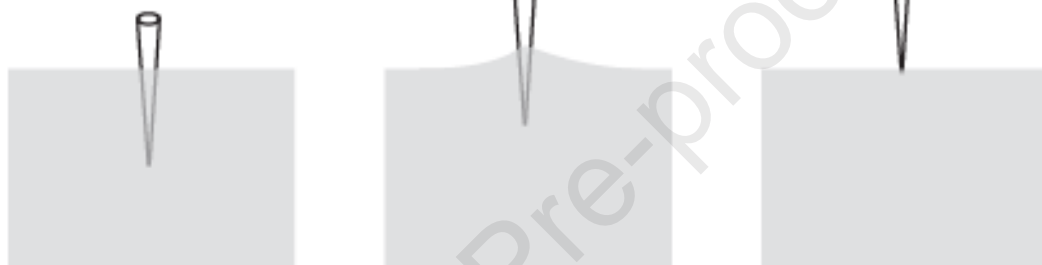


A.

B.

C.

Retraction



D.

E.

F.

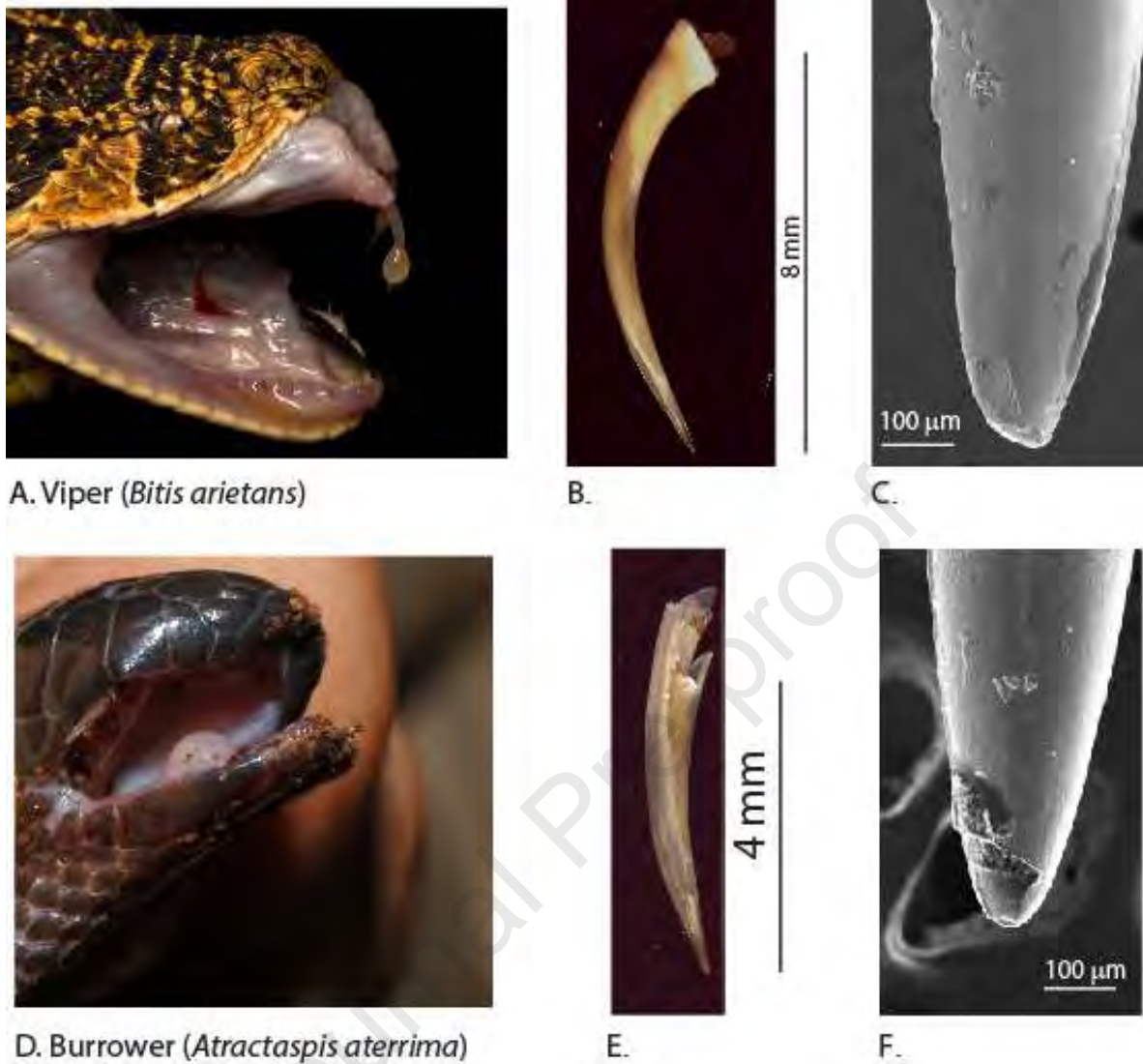
154

155 **Figure 1.** Different stages of needle movement during penetration and retraction.

156 **3. Results and Discussion**

157 **3.1. Morphology and properties of fangs**

158 The shape and tip morphology are determined to see their effects on the insertion force
 159 during the experiments of the two selection snake species, viper (*Bitis arietans*) and
 160 burrowing snake (*Atractaspis aterrima*) (Figure 2A & 2D). The optical images show that the
 161 fang of the viper is longer and has more curvature as compared to the burrower (Figure 2B &
 162 2E). Scanning electron images of the fang tips show that the tip sharpness is almost similar in
 163 both the species (Figure 2C & 2F).



164

165 **Figure 2. Images of viper snake A.** head and mouth parts (Image: ©Tyrone Ping
 166 (www.tyroneping.co.za)). **B.** Fang **C.** SEM image of it. **Images of burrower snake D.** head
 167 and mouth parts **E.** Fang **F.** SEM image of it.

168 The mechanical properties of the fangs were determined by performing nanoindentation at
 169 different locations on the polished sample surfaces (Figure 3). The measured elastic modulus
 170 and hardness of the fangs of the burrower and viper are found to be similar (Table 1). There
 171 are no significant differences in the measured properties at the tip region and the base region
 172 of the fang. These values are in agreement with the reported values of Young's modulus
 173 (15.3-24.6 GPa) of fangs of some snake species [14].

174

175

176 **Table 1.** Elastic modulus and hardness of the fangs

Sample	Region	Elastic modulus (GPa)	Hardness (GPa)
Viper	Tip	17.8 ± 2.3	0.71 ± 0.06
	Base	19.2 ± 0.4	0.75 ± 0.01
Burrower	Tip	18.9 ± 4.7	0.92 ± 0.05
	Base	18.7 ± 2.0	0.86 ± 0.03

177



178

A. Viper

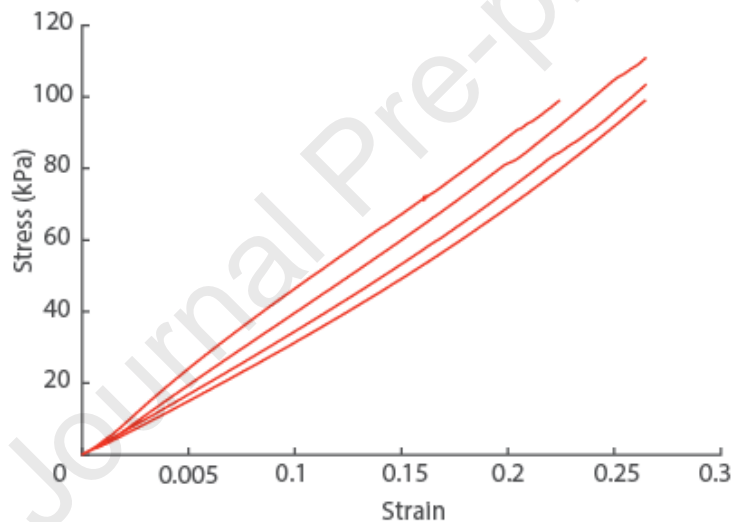
A. Burrower

179 **Figure 3.** The indentation marks are clearly visible on the polished fang cross-sections of **A.**
 180 **Viper** and **B.** **Burrower**.

181 3.1.1. Compression testing and piercing testing

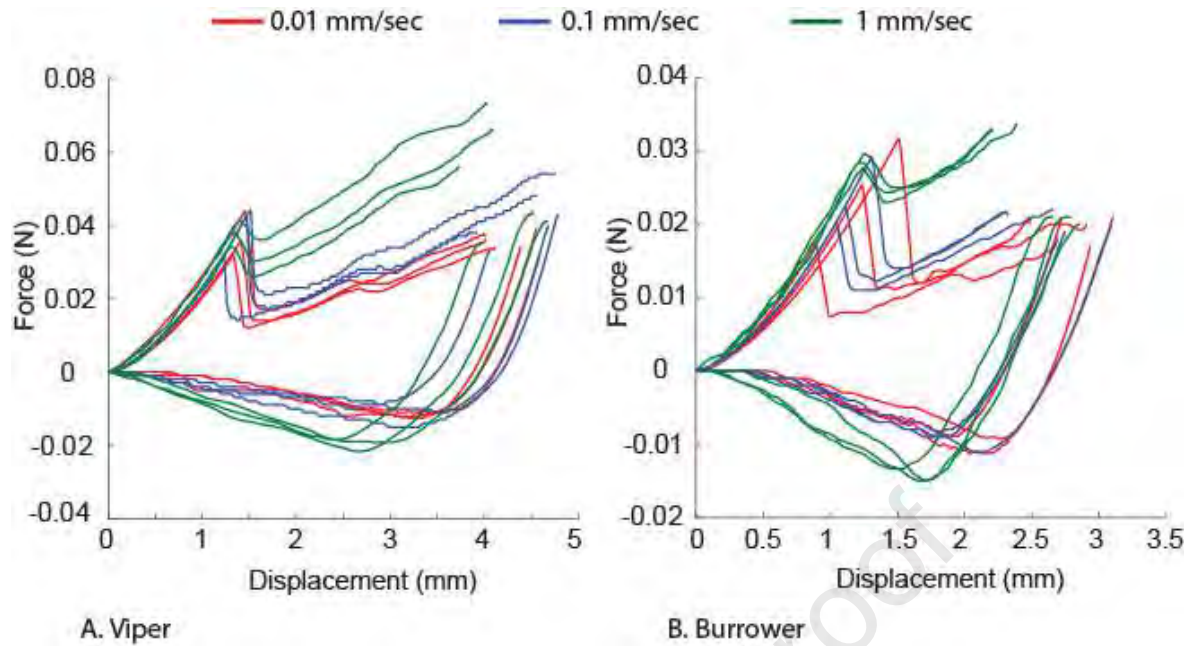
182 The stress-strain curves from the compression testing of the gelatine hydrogels showed good
 183 repeatability (Fig. 4). The Young's modulus of the gelatine hydrogels was measured to be
 184 380 ± 65 kPa. Using gels of same composition, the force-displacement curves are obtained
 185 from the piercing tests performed at different rates. The curves resembled standard piercing
 186 tests with a linear increase in force with increase in displacement, followed by a sudden drop

187 in force and then a gradual increase (Fig. 5). Using the curves, the force and depth values at
188 the beginning of piercing are obtained and the values from tests at different piercing rates are
189 compared. We also measured the force value drop just after the initial piercing. The piercing
190 forces of burrowing snake fang are 23 ± 9 , 23 ± 3 and 27 ± 1 mN for rates of insertion 0.01,
191 0.1 and 1 mm/s, respectively. The values of substrate surface deflection at the time of
192 piercing varied a bit. The piercing forces of viper snake fang are found to be 36 ± 6 , 37 ± 8
193 and 37 ± 8 mN for rates of insertion 0.01, 0.1 and 1mm/sec respectively. In both the species,
194 the piercing force and substrate surface deflection at the time piercing did not vary
195 significantly with increase in speed of insertion. We also observed that the fangs experience a
196 negative pull while the fangs were being retracted because of frictional and adhesive effects
197 at the fang-gel interface (Fig. 5). The retraction forces were observed to be decrease with the
198 decrease in the speed of insertion (Table 2).



199

200 **Figure 4.** Stress-strain curves from the compression testing of the gelatine blocks.



201

202 **Figure 5.** Force-displacement curves during insertion and retraction tests performed at
 203 different rates. **A.** Viper **B.** Burrower snake.

204

205 **Table 2.** Piercing force of burrowing snake and Viper snake

	Insertion speed (mm/sec)	Piercing force (mN)	Deflection at piercing (mm)	Force drop (mN)	Retraction force (mN)
Burrower	0.01	23 ± 9	1.5 ± 0.4	24 ± 4	12.3 ± 1.5
	0.1	23 ± 3	1.1 ± 0.1	22 ± 4	12.6 ± 2.1
	1	27 ± 1	1.2 ± 0.1	6 ± 1	20.3 ± 1.5
Viper	0.01	36 ± 6	1.3 ± 0.1	15 ± 5	12.3 ± 1.5
	0.1	37 ± 8	1.3 ± 0.2	12 ± 4	12.6 ± 2.1
	1	37 ± 3	1.3 ± 0.05	4 ± 1	20.3 ± 1.5

206

207 3.1.2. Wire cutting tests

208 Wire-cutting tests were performed to determine the Griffith critical energy release rate (G_c).
 209 The average cutting force values were determined from the force-insertion curves. These
 210 values were divided by the corresponding breadth of the gel block and are plotted against the
 211 diameter of the corresponding wire diameters. A straight line is fit to the data points using the

212 equation below [15] and the intercept of the line-fit represents the Griffith critical energy
 213 release rate (Fig. 6).

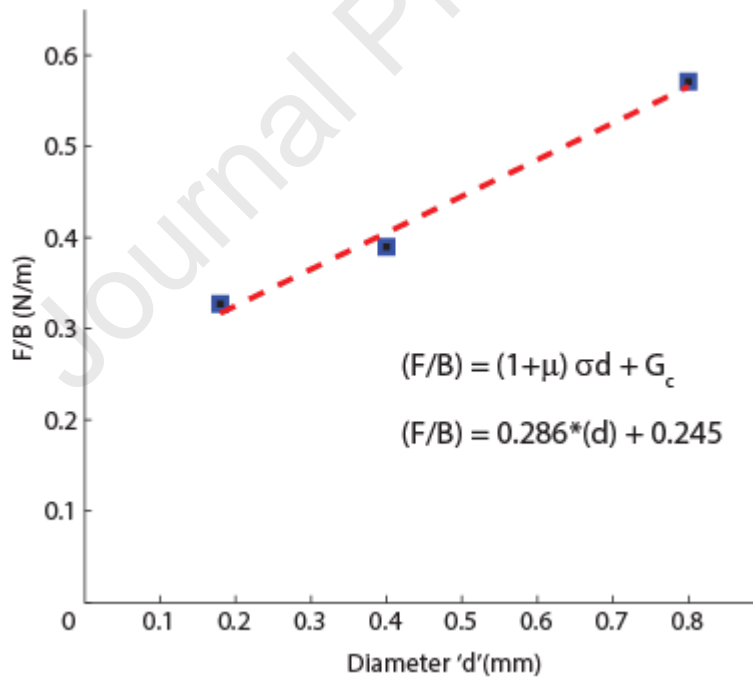
$$214 \quad \left(\frac{F}{B}\right) = (1 + \mu)\sigma d + G_c \quad (1)$$

215 where,

216 B = sample width, μ = kinematic friction coefficient, σ = characteristic stress, and G_c =
 217 Griffith critical energy release rate. From the fit, we estimate the values of G_c to be 0.245
 218 J/m^2 . Using this value of G_c and the average Young's modulus ($E \approx 380$ kPa) determined
 219 from the compression experiments and the Poisson's ratio ($\nu \approx 0.3$), we estimate the stress
 220 intensity factor (K_c) using:

$$221 \quad K_c = \sqrt{G_c \frac{E}{1-\nu^2}} \quad (2)$$

222 Thus, we get $K_c \approx 0.33$ kPa $\sqrt{\text{m}}$.



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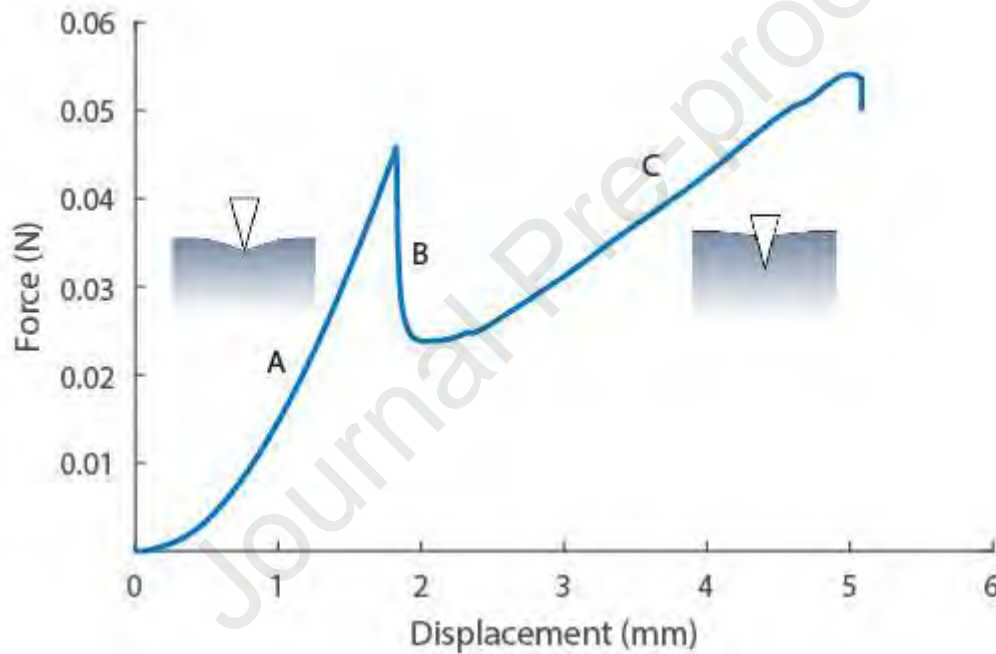
224 **Figure 6.** Wire cutting test results from three different diameter wires.

225 3.2. Modelling

226 Modelling of the fang-gel interaction was done in three parts. The first part of interaction is
 227 the indentation of the gel surface without any insertion (Figure 7, A). The second part of
 228 interaction includes sudden piercing of the gel (Figure 7, B), followed by the third interaction

229 that is the continuous insertion of fang into the gel (Figure 7, C). As the fang is pushed more
 230 into the gel, there is an increase in the recorded force because of the compression of higher
 231 gel volume as a result of the increase in the diameter of the fang from tip to the base. In
 232 contrast, the experimental results based on cylindrical needles, the insertion force is almost
 233 constant after piercing because of the constant diameter [9,16]. We approximate the fangs as
 234 cones and assume the substrate as a linear elastic material to perform modelling of insertion
 235 force curve.

236 Since we are using the insertion equation to model also the fracture part, here we will discuss
 237 first the indentation and insertion phenomena.



238
 239 **Figure 7.** Force-displacement curve with a schematic view of the indentation (left, A) and
 240 insertion (right, C) mechanisms. (Example data for the viper fang, $s = 0.1$ mm/s, test no. 1).

241

242 3.2.1. Indentation

243 The initial interaction of the fang and gel is modelled as a non-adhesive and frictionless
 244 indentation of an elastic half-space by a rigid cone-shaped indenter as shown in Figure 8A.
 245 The derived relationship between insertion depth (δ), contact radius (a) and indenter half
 246 cone angle (β) can be written as [17]:

$$247 \quad \delta = \frac{\pi}{2} \frac{a}{\tan \beta} \quad (3)$$

248 The corresponding indentation force F_i is given by:

$$249 \quad F_i(\delta) = \frac{2E}{1-\nu^2} a \left(\delta - \frac{\pi a}{4 \tan \beta} \right) = \frac{2E}{1-\nu^2} \frac{\tan \beta}{\pi} \delta^2 \quad (4)$$

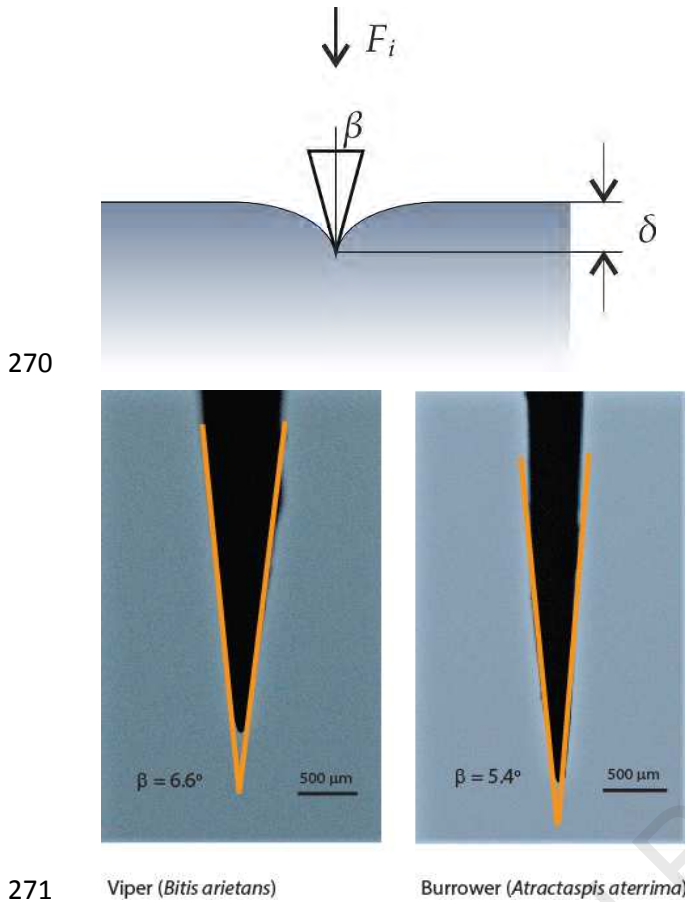
250 where E is the Young's modulus and ν is the Poisson's ratio of the substrate. We employ
 251 equation (4) to fit the experimental data of the indentation part of the curves, by assuming $\nu =$
 252 0.5 for the gelatin [18] and the experimental value $E = 380$ kPa, measured independently as
 253 reported above. The results of the fits allow us to determine the equivalent half cone angles of
 254 the fangs, i.e., $\beta = 3.4 \pm 0.4^\circ$ for the viper fang and $\beta = 2.5 \pm 0.4^\circ$ for the burrowing snake fang.
 255 These results are in reasonable agreement with the optical measurements of the fangs shown
 256 in Figure 8B, suggesting that the equivalent angles are nearly half of the macroscopic
 257 geometrical ones and therefore, even more efficient shape of the fangs. The deformed shape
 258 of the surface outside of the contact area (i.e., for $x > a$) is given by [17]:

$$259 \quad u(x) = \frac{2\delta}{\pi a} \left[a \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{a}{x} \right) - x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} \right] \quad (5)$$

260 Some earlier studies in the literature make use of a two-term equation for fitting indentation
 261 data, i.e. [9,16]:

$$262 \quad F_i(\delta) = A \delta^2 + B \delta \quad (6)$$

263 where A and B are fitting parameters. Although we are not providing an analytical derivation
 264 of this additional term, it might be related to one or more of the introduced approximations,
 265 i.e., the nonlinear elasticity of the material and the geometry of the fang. The differences are
 266 observed between the values of experiments and modelling primarily because of the
 267 assumption that fang tips are perfect cones. The results do not appear to be strongly affected
 268 by the velocity; instead, the effect of fang-shape is more relevant, given the lower values of
 269 modulus for the burrowing snake fang.



272 **A.** **B.**

273 **Figure 8A.** Schematic view of the indentation process, as described in Equations (3,4). **B.**
 274 Viper (left) and Burrowing snake (right) fangs and extracted cone angles.

275
 276

277 3.2.2. Insertion

278 The insertion part of the curves is modelled by considering the fracture propagation and the
 279 strain energy developed during the progressive piercing. The mechanics of insertion into a
 280 soft substrate is driven by the work required to create a unit surface of the crack dW_{crack} and
 281 the stored strain energy per unit volume dU_{strain} [8]. Thus, the insertion work expended by the
 282 tip must balance the sum of dW_{crack} and dU_{strain} :

$$283 F_{p,0} d\delta = dW_{\text{crack}} + dU_{\text{strain}} \quad (7)$$

284 where $F_{p,0}$ is the insertion force. The infinitesimal lateral area changes of the cone penetrating
 285 the substrate of an infinitesimal displacement $d\delta$ is given by:

$$286 \quad dA = \pi (r + r + dr) dl \approx 2\pi \frac{\tan \beta}{\cos \beta} \delta d\delta \quad (8a)$$

287 where we have neglected the high-order terms, and used the expressions for radius, $r =$
 288 $\delta \tan \beta$ and cone length, $l = \delta / \cos \beta$. In the volume-related term of Equation (7), i.e. the
 289 strain energy, we assume that the stresses arising from the insertion process involve a
 290 spherical area around the tip, with radius equal to the insertion depth δ . Therefore, we get:

$$291 \quad dV = 4\pi \delta^2 d\delta \quad (8b)$$

292 Here we assume that during insertion there is a stable crack propagation and the crack
 293 maintains a conical shape. Thus, the work required to create an incremental opening of the
 294 crack must equal the critical strain energy release rate [8], which, for a mode-I crack opening,
 295 is related to the material fracture toughness K_{Ic} through:

$$296 \quad G_{Ic} = \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} K_{Ic}^2 \quad (9)$$

297 valid for plane-strain conditions. Therefore, by making use of Equation (8a), we get:

$$298 \quad dW_{\text{crack}} = G_{Ic} dA \approx 2\pi \frac{\tan \beta}{\cos \beta} \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} K_{Ic}^2 \delta d\delta \quad (10)$$

299 The strain energy, considering the involved volume from Equation (8b), is given by:

$$300 \quad dU_{\text{strain}} \approx \frac{1}{2} \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} \sigma^2 dV \approx 2\pi \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} \sigma^2 \delta^2 d\delta \quad (11)$$

301 where σ can be assumed to be an average stress around the tip during insertion and, again, the
 302 plane-strain Young's modulus is employed.

303 Finally, we can insert Equations (10) and (11) into Equation (7), to obtain:

$$304 \quad F_{p,0} d\delta \approx 2\pi \frac{\tan \beta}{\cos \beta} \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} K_{Ic}^2 \delta d\delta + 2\pi \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} \sigma^2 \delta^2 d\delta \quad (12)$$

305 Since Equation (12) must hold for any $d\delta$, the force-displacement relationship during
 306 insertion is:

$$307 \quad F_{p,0}(\delta) \approx 2\pi \frac{\tan \beta}{\cos \beta} \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} K_{Ic}^2 \delta + 2\pi \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} \sigma^2 \delta^2 \quad (13a)$$

308 Equation (13a) is obtained by considering the surface of the substrate as flat. Due to friction,
 309 this does not happen in experiments, thus the substrate surface remains deflected of a small

310 quantity $\alpha \delta_{cr}$, with $\alpha < 1$ and δ_{cr} is the critical displacement related to fracture. This effect
 311 can be considered, as shown in Figure 9, by:

- 312 • considering the effective insertion depth, i.e. applying the change of variable $\delta \rightarrow \delta -$
 313 $\alpha \delta_{cr}$;
- 314 • adding a term due to the indentation of the substrate (up to a depth $\alpha \delta_{cr}$), as the
 315 indentation by an equivalent rigid flat punch of radius a_{cr} , assumed to be constant in a
 316 first approximation. This assumption is reasonable considering that, after the initial quasi-
 317 conical shape, the diameter of the fangs becomes almost constant (Figure 8B).

318 Accordingly, Equation (13a) modifies as follows:

$$319 \quad F_p(\delta) \approx \pi \frac{\beta}{\cos \beta} \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} K_{Ic}^2 (\delta - \alpha \delta_{cr}) + 2\pi \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} \sigma^2 (\delta - \alpha \delta_{cr})^2 + \frac{4}{\pi} \tan^2 \beta \delta_{cr}^2 p_{eq} \quad (13b)$$

320 where p_{eq} is an equivalent pressure related to the flat punch indentation described above,
 321 acting on the area πa_{cr}^2 , and a_{cr} related to δ_{cr} through Equation (3). The result can be
 322 considered a measure of the effect of friction and/or adhesion between the fang and the
 323 substrate. Rearranging and neglecting high-order terms (i.e. assuming $\alpha^2 \ll 1$), we get:

$$324 \quad F_p(\delta) \approx A \delta^2 + B \delta + C \quad (14)$$

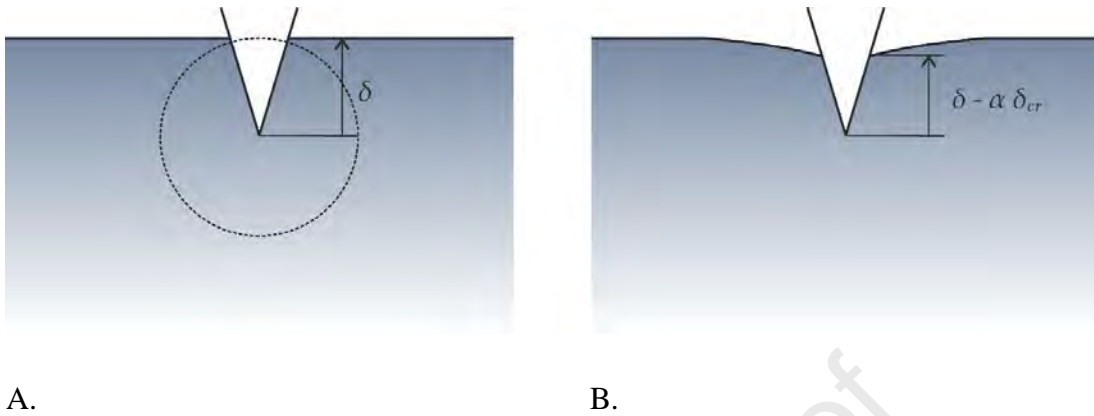
325 with:

$$\begin{cases} A = 2\pi \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} \sigma^2 \\ B = 2\pi \frac{\tan \beta}{\cos \beta} \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} K_{Ic}^2 - \alpha \delta_{cr} 4\pi \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} \sigma^2 \\ C = \frac{4}{\pi} \tan^2 \beta \delta_{cr}^2 p_{eq} - 2\pi \alpha \delta_{cr} \frac{\tan \beta}{\cos \beta} \frac{1-\nu^2}{E} K_{Ic}^2 \end{cases}$$

326 The experimental data was fit to Equation (14) to estimate the average stress during insertion
 327 σ and the equivalent pressure p_{eq} , as listed in Table 3. The values of the Young's modulus and
 328 of the fracture toughness of the material, instead, are taken from the experimental
 329 measurements reported in Section 3.2.1. Finally, we have chosen $\alpha \approx 0.1$, from experimental
 330 observations.

331 We find values of stresses (namely, σ and p_{eq}) that are almost independent on the insertion
 332 speed (ν), but rather they are different between the two considered geometries. Interestingly,
 333 we observe that the fang of the burrowing snake presents lower values of stress during

334 insertion (σ): this can be seen as a more optimal insertion mechanism, due to the different
 335 fang geometry with respect to the viper's fang.



338 **Figure 9A.** Geometry during penetration with spherical volume considered for the strain
 339 energy in Equation (11) **B.** effective penetration depth with substrate surface deflection.

340

341 **Table 3.** Estimated values of various parameters obtained from the fitting of the indentation
 342 and insertion parts of the experimental curves.

343

sample	Insertion speed (v) (mm/s)	σ (kPa) from Equation (14)	p_{eq} (kPa) from Equation (14)
viper	0.01	11.0 ± 0.5	2200.0 ± 156.7
	0.1	11.7 ± 1.0	2447.1 ± 474.6
	1	10.2 ± 0.8	4247.3 ± 163.1
burrowing snake	0.01	10.7 ± 0.7	3733.7 ± 1397.8
	0.1	9.4 ± 0.1	4063.6 ± 647.8
	1	9.5 ± 0.3	4754.1 ± 188.0

344

345 3.2.3. Fracture

346 The fracture part of the force-displacement curves is characterised by an instantaneous drop
 347 in the force, due to the initial crack formation. We estimate this force drop by making use of
 348 the Equations (4) and (14), related to the indentation and insertion part, respectively. In order
 349 to employ a formulation of the same type of Equation (14), we introduce the (empirical)

350 dimensionless coefficient $\eta \geq 1$, which multiplies the volume-dependent term in the
 351 expression of the insertion force (i.e. the term related to strain energy). It is, in other words, a
 352 measure to introduce the fracture phenomenon, happening for $\delta = \delta_{cr}$. Thus, we get the
 353 following semi-analytical expression:

$$354 \quad F'_p(\delta) \approx A \delta^2 \eta + B \delta + C \quad (15)$$

355 which reduces to Equation (14) for $\eta = 1$.

356 Thus, it is possible to extract η from Equations (15) and (4) evaluated at $\delta = \delta_{cr}$ (this latter
 357 quantity taken from the experimental data), obtaining:

$$358 \quad \eta \approx \frac{\frac{2E}{1-\nu^2} \frac{\tan\beta}{\pi} \delta_{cr}^2 - B \delta_{cr} - C}{A \delta_{cr}^2} \quad (16)$$

359 Consequently, the corresponding force drop is found by subtracting Equation (14) from
 360 Equation (15) at the critical displacement δ_{cr} :

$$361 \quad \Delta F \approx A \delta_{cr}^2 (\eta - 1) \quad (17)$$

362 The estimated values of force drop are very close to those observed in the experiments (Table
 363 4), confirming the good quantitative performance of the proposed model. The observed
 364 differences between the model estimations and experimental values can be attributed to the
 365 introduced assumptions on material and geometry, as already discussed in the derivation of
 366 the indentation and insertion laws.

367 **Table 4.** Estimated values of the force drop ΔF and comparison with experiments.

Sample	Insertion speed (ν) (mm/s)	Force drop (model) (mN)	Force drop (experiments) (mN)
Viper	0.01	19 ± 2	24 ± 4
	0.1	18 ± 7	22 ± 4
	1	1 ± 1	6 ± 1
Burrowing snake	0.01	11 ± 6	15 ± 5
	0.1	9 ± 3	12 ± 4
	1	4 ± 1	4 ± 1

369 4. Conclusions

370 We compared mechanical properties of fangs of two snake species with different sizes and
371 their also piercing process using gelatine hydrogels. The fangs of both the species appear to
372 have similar mechanical properties but there was a difference in the insertion forces owing to
373 the difference in their shape. Our analytical modelling results show that we are able to model
374 the interaction between the fang and the substrate, obtaining a good agreement with the
375 experimental evidence. Despite we have introduced some simplifying assumptions, we have
376 been able to provide interesting insights into fang insertion mechanisms, highlighting the
377 smaller values of stresses, and thus a higher efficiency, associated with the insertion of the
378 burrowing snake's fang. Our findings may aid in understanding mechanics and design of
379 bioinspired surgical needles into soft materials such as human skin.

380

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