THE PERFORMANCE OF A NEW IMMERSED BOUNDARY METHOD ON SIMULATING UNDERWATER LOCOMOTION AND SWIMMING

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ABSTRACT

We report the benchmark results of a new Immersed Boundary Method (IBM) incorporated into Direct Numerical Simulation (DNS) of a pitching panel, representing fish-like swimming, using foam-extend-3.2. The panel is flat and thin, and it has a triangular (convex) trailing edge, similar to that seen in the caudal fin of some fish. The accuracy of the solver is verified by comparing four cases of bluff body wake simulations with reported experimental and numerical studies. For example, the structure of the mean wake compared well with that obtained using PIV in a companion experiment. The differences in thrust generation and propulsion efficiency of square and convex thin panels are examined to identify the effect of trailing edge shape using proper orthogonal decomposition. The effect of Reynolds number is also evaluated by comparing the wake at Reynolds numbers of 2,000 and 10,000.

INTRODUCTION

Many biological species have evolved to develop efficient propulsive systems for swimming that also exhibit high speed and maneuverability (Sambiley, 1990; Sumich & Morrissey, 2004). Understanding the mechanics of aquatic propulsion has attracted the attention of many researchers over the years. Such explorations can yield valuable information on designing energy efficient and fast systems with high maneuverability and stealth that match and possibly surpass the performance of biological species. In this regard, it is often useful to focus on simple systems that can be used to study fundamental aspects of swimming performance. For instance, the implications of the trailing-edge shape of a tail fin as well as its orientation and movement (that is, harmonic fin motion) on the formation of vortex structures, wake dynamics and thrust generation plays a dominant role in understanding physics of fish-like swimming (Van Buren et al., 2016).

The oscillating motion of a NACA 0012 airfoil was studied by Triantafyllou et al. (1991) as a representative of swimming motion by fish, which demonstrated a maximum propulsive efficiency of 25% for the Strouhal number \( St = 0.25 - 0.35 \), where \( St = f_p/c \), \( f_p \) is the frequency of oscillation, \( c \) is the fin characteristic length, and \( U \) is the swimming speed. The extensive study by Buchholz & Smits (2006) on the wake of a pitching rigid rectangular panel at moderate Reynolds numbers \( Re = U/c/v \) revealed that the flow is dominated by horseshoe-like structures. The aspect ratio of the panel was identified to impact the wake, and thus, the propulsive performance efficiency, which ranged from 9% – 21%. Green & Smits (2008) investigated the distribution of pressure on the pitching panel, which revealed that the favorable streamwise pressure gradient that is present over most of the panel reversed near the trailing edge. There are many experimental challenges, however, in determining detailed surface pressure distributions in unsteady wakes, and it is even more difficult to determine the instantaneous shear stress distributions. In contrast, computational fluid dynamics (CFD) can be used to give insight into the stress distributions, and characterize the wake and identify implications of the wake dynamics on thrust generation. CFD simulations can also be helpful in providing insight into wake structures, their formation and interactions, and the effects of Reynolds number.

Numerical simulations of Blondeaux et al. (2005) on a pitching foil showed vortex-loop (chain-like) structures dominate the wake at \( Re = 1000 \), as found experimentally by Green et al. (2011). Blondeaux et al. (2005) used a distinctly developed CFD solver based on the Immersed Boundary Method (IBM). Jantzen et al. (2014) also used an IBM-based CFD solver to evaluate the wake of pitching rigid rectangular panels at \( Re = 300 \). This study provided details on the vortex formation process in the wake of rectangular panels of aspect ratios 2 and 4, revealing that the Reynolds number influences the formation frequency and length of leading edge vortices, and that higher aspect ratios result in early detachment of leading edge vortices.

The IBM is routinely used in fluid flow simulations as an alternative to the boundary-fitted method due to its lower computational cost. The IBM formulation in foam-extend-3.2 uses a discrete forcing approach based on a weighted least square approximation to impose boundary conditions independent of the actual boundaries. This approach can capture the boundary as a sharp interface, which eliminates the issue of smearing. It also mitigates the distortion of cells around the moving boundaries, while alleviating errors that arise from transformation of curvilinear grids (Lundquist et al., 2009). See also Iaccarino & Verzicco (2003) and Mittal & Iaccarino (2005).

Jasak et al. (2014) incorporated the IBM forcing approach into OpenFOAM as part of foam-extend-3.2. Case studies included flows over fixed bodies. In particular, a high \( Re \) flow case using the \( k-\varepsilon \) model showed a lack of stability for extreme mesh refinements. Şentürk et al. (2016) extended this work to consider the (a) 2D flow over a stationary circular cylinder, (b) 2D wake of a transversely
oscillating cylinder, (c) 3D wake of a stationary flat plate of aspect ratio 1.0, and (d) 3D wake of a pitching flat plate of aspect ratio 1.0. The accuracy of this solver was evaluated by comparing the results of these cases against those of available experimental and numerical studies, and the results showed generally very good agreement.

The current study further extends to provide a more comprehensive description of the IBM tools incorporated in foam-extend 3.2, and then uses the computations to study the physics of the harmonic motion of two panels: a square flat panel, and one with a triangular trailing-edge (TE) with a trailing-edge corner angle of 135°. These two cases were chosen because of the observation by Van Buren et al. (2016) that the triangular TE panel displayed higher efficiency and larger thrust generation than the square panel under similar conditions. Specifically, it examines the effect of Reynolds number and the shape of trailing edge on the physics of the harmonic motion of two panels: a square flat panel, and one with a triangular trailing-edge (TE) with aspect ratio 1.0. The accuracy of this solver was evaluated to investigate the effect of Reynolds number. Experimental results on these flow cases were obtained by Van Buren et al. (2016) at $Re = 6000$.

The computational domain (Figure 1) was designed following Taira & Colonius (2009) and Jantzen et al. (2014). Details of the numerical simulations (i.e., domain size, boundary conditions, etc.) can be found in Şentürk et al. (2016). The 3D cartesian coordinate system was used with the origin located at the panel geometrical center. The computational domain size was $[8, 5, 5]$ in the $[x, y, z]$ directions, respectively, where $x$ aligns with the streamwise (direction of the flow), $y$ with the spanwise, and $z$ with the chordwise directions. The inlet was located $2c$ upstream of a pitching rigid panel. All side boundaries were separated by $2.5c$ from the panel centroid. The panel was set to oscillate freely about the $z$–axis (Figure 1),

$$\theta(t) = \theta_{\text{max}} \sin(2\pi f_p t)$$  

where $\theta$ is the pitch angle (Figure 1), $\theta_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum pitch angle set at $8^\circ$, and $f_p = 0.718$ is the pitching frequency. The symmetric triangular trailing edge shape of the convex panel represent pointed-tail fish type based on the panel trailing edge corner angle of 135° shown in Figure 1. The uniform flow condition was enforced on the inlet boundary, where $u = U_\infty$, $v = w = 0$ and $\partial p/\partial n = 0$. The Neumann outflow condition ($\partial u/\partial n = \partial p/\partial n = 0$) was assigned to the outlet boundary. All side boundary conditions were set as slip condition with $\partial u/\partial t = 0$, $u = 0$, and $\partial p/\partial n = 0$. The slip condition was also imposed on the panel surfaces. The panel thickness is of one spatial grid element constituted the case of a zero-thickness flat panel.

A total of 3.24 million hexahedral elements were used for the non-homogeneous spatial grid distribution. The smaller elements were concentrated around the panel and its immediate wake and larger elements formed at the boundaries. The temporal grid was uniform with a fixed timestep resulting in a maximum Courant number of 0.5. The pressure and velocity tolerance of $10^{-6}$ was set as the convergence criterion using a combined pressure-implicit split-operator (PISO) and semi-implicit method for pressure-linked equations (SIMPLE) algorithms which is referred to as PIMPLE.

The foam-extend-3.2, which is an extension to OpenFOAM, was used to carry out these simulations. The capabilities of this finite-volume solver to work with unstructured, collocated and body-fitted grids make it suitable for a wide range of large-scale industrial problems. The recent implementation of IBM capabilities to foam-extend-3.2, which was achieved without significant alterations to structure of the existing code, has made it attractive for problems with a moving mesh (Blondeaux et al., 2005; Jantzen et al., 2014; Şentürk et al., 2016). More detailed discussion of the discretization methods can be found in Jasak (1996) and Tukovic & Jasak (2012).

A background grid and an immersed boundary (IB) surface are required for the IB solvers. The latter was introduced as an STL (STereoLithography) file that triangulates the IB grid data and perform dot product procedures between the normal of its triangular and background grid cell centers through a loop on the IB surface. Thus, the cells inside the IB surface were tagged as solid cells and did not contribute to the solution, whereas faces that were not mutual between a solid and a non-solid cell were marked as IB cells and constituted the discitized domain. The boundary
conditions were enforced on the IB surface using a weighted least square interpolation to assign appropriate values to variables in IB cells. Thus, the interpolation of any variable \( \phi \) was carried out by minimizing \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i (\phi_i - \bar{\phi})^2 \) for \( n \) number of cells. The unknown coefficients for the interpolation of \( \phi_i \) were determined using \( C = (M^T W A)^{-1} M^T W A \), where components of \( A \) were defined in terms of \( \phi \), where \( W \) is the weight matrix and \( M \) is the design matrix. Thus, the elements of matrices \( A, M \), and \( W \) differ based on the assigned boundary condition. For example, in case of the Dirichlet velocity boundary condition, \( \phi \) is defined as

\[
\phi_i = \bar{\phi}_{ibp} + C_0 x_i + C_1 y_i + C_2 x_i y_i + C_3 x_i^2 + C_4 y_i^2, \tag{4}
\]

where \( \bar{\phi}_{ibp} \) represents the point on IB surface closest to the \( i \)th cell and \( C \) is the unknown coefficient. Thus, elements of \( A \) are of the type \( \bar{\phi} - \bar{\phi}_{ibp} \), and \( M \) is built solely on the geometric information. The corresponding weights on matrix \( W \) are defined as

\[
w_{ii} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \cos \left( \frac{\pi r_i}{S r_{\text{max}}} \right) \right], \tag{5}
\]

where \( r \) is the distance between the interpolation cell and the nearest IB cell, and \( S \) is a tweaking parameter that prevents the exclusion of the furthest interpolation cell.

#### RESULTS & DISCUSSION

We begin by identifying the main structures and characteristics of the wake for the two panels considered here (square and triangular trailing edge) at \( Re = 10,000 \) to evaluate the effect of trailing edge shape. This discussion is followed by a more detailed analysis of the wake at \( Re = 2000 \) and 10,000 along with comparison to experimental results of Van Buren et al. (2016) at \( Re = 6000 \).

**Effect of Trailing Edge**

The wake of a square panel is dominated by chain-like structures as shown in Figure 2, which is consistent with the wake model hypothesized by Buchholz & Smits (2006) and the numerical results of Şentürk & Smits (2016). The contours of the vorticity components normal to the surface in the numerical results of Şentürk & Smits (2016). The contours of the vorticity components normal to the surface in Figure 2a identified the vortex breakdown at only \( x^+ \approx 2.2 \) (where \( x^+ = x/c \)) downstream of the trailing edge. The trailing-edge vortex formed at the advancing face of the panel during the down-stroke motion \( (T_1) \), and it included a region of fluid with opposite vorticity at its core. A similar behavior was observed for \( S_1 \), which is the previously detached structure from the trailing edge relative to \( T_1 \). The structures broke down at \( x^+ \approx 2.2 \), as is apparent by the shape of \( S_2 \) and \( S_3 \). Furthermore, compressed vortex pairs (i.e., \( VP_3 \) compared to \( VP_1 \) and \( VP_2 \)) shown in Figure 2b demonstrate the vortex interactions and breakdown of structures in the wake. These observation are in complete agreement with the findings of Buchholz & Smits (2006) and Şentürk & Smits (2016).

The formation of vortices on leading edge of the triangular trailing edge (convex) panel \( (L_3 \) and \( L_4 \)) in Figure 3a) were similar to that seen for the square panel \( (L_1 \) and \( L_2 \) in Figure 2a). However, structures in the wake of the convex panel \( (L_3 \) and \( L_4 \) in Figure 3a) exhibited no sign of breakdown. Moreover, the vortex connections remained intact further downstream in the wake and there was evidence for the presence of vortex pairs at \( x^+ \geq 3 \), in contrast to that seen for the square panel \( (L_2 \) in Figure 2a). Vortex pairs shown in Figure 3b underwent more severe spanwise negative-straining (vortex compression) relative to the square panel. Thus, one can argue that smaller vortex distortion on the plane of oscillation along with larger distortion on the plane parallel to the axis of oscillation results in higher propulsive performance (efficiency) and faster swimming (larger thrust).

The wake evolution for the two panel types are compared in Figure 4, in which the iso-surface of \( \lambda_2 \) criterion is presented at \( Re = 10,000 \). Here, \( \lambda_2 \) is defined as the second eigenvalue of \( S_1 S_{ij} + \Omega_{ij} \Omega_{ij} \), where \( S_{ij} \) is the strain rate and \( \Omega_{ij} \) is the rotation rate tensor (Jeong & Hussain, 1995). The chain-like vortex structures dominate the wake for both panels (Figure 4). The wake of the square panel (Figure 4a)
Figure 4: Isosurface plot of $\lambda_2 = -1.5$ for (a) square and (b) convex panels at $Re = 10,000$.

diffused more quickly compared to that of the convex panel (Figure 4b). Wake structures for the latter appeared more strained than the former with the wake experiencing a split at the centerline ($S_7$ in Figure 4b compared to $S_3$ in Figure 4a). The trailing-edge-vortex for the convex panel ($T_2$ in Figure 4b) retained the shape of the trailing edge, which remained unchanged despite severe straining in the wake.

**Effect of Reynolds Number**

Sentürk & Smits (2016), using a similar computational study, showed that the wake for the pitching square panel appeared to become Reynolds number independent at $6000 \leq Re \leq 8000$. In the current study, the wake of the convex panel is examined at $Re = 2000$ and 10,000. Contours of time-averaged velocity magnitude ($|\overline{u}|$) on $xy$- and $xz$-planes are compared for the two Reynolds numbers in Figures 5 and 6. Figures 5a and 6a show a significant reduction of the base vortex size at higher Reynolds numbers; the length of the recirculation region shortens by a factor of about $c$ as the Reynolds number increases by a factor of 5. The larger fluid velocity at the panel leading edges at the higher Reynolds number was accompanied with a smaller width of the wake in the spanwise ($y$) direction.

The effects of Reynolds number on time-averaged characteristics of the wake are more significant on the chordwise ($xz$-) plane (Figures 5b and 6b). The base vortex is significantly smaller and narrower for the higher Reynolds number, while the flow velocity in the region connecting the panel to the base vortex is significantly larger. In addition, the volume of low velocity flow formed at the leading edge reduces downstream at a slower rate at higher Reynolds numbers, which is apparent with the smaller region of low velocity flow on the panel surface (Figures 6b and 5b).

The coefficient of thrust generated by the convex pitching panel was $+0.021$ at $Re = 10,000$, while it was $-0.0031$ at $Re = 2000$. Thus, the smaller wake and the restriction of low velocity fluid to the vicinity of the leading edge at higher Reynolds number assisted in increasing thrust by minimizing drag on the panel surfaces. Moreover, the higher propulsive efficiency at $Re = 10,000$ relative to 2000 was attributed to the smaller wake and lower drag. The iso-

Figure 5: Contour of time-averaged velocity magnitude ($|\overline{u}|$) on the $xy$— (a) and $xz$— (b) planes for $Re = 2000$.

Figure 6: Contour of time-averaged velocity magnitude ($|\overline{u}|$) on the $xy$— (a) and $xz$— (b) planes for $Re = 10,000$. 

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surfaces of time-averaged velocity magnitude for the two cases in Figure 7 provide further evidence of the smaller time-average wake (compare the iso-surface of $|u^\ast| = 1.01$ at $Re = 10,000$ in Figure 7b with $Re = 2000$ in Figure 7a). Also, the region of higher velocity (say, $|u^\ast| = 1.04$) indicates that there are lower velocity gradients in the base region at higher Reynolds number. Moreover, the shape of the trailing edge of the convex panel resulted in a four-branched base vortex compared to the square panel (Sentürk & Smits, 2016; Van Buren et al., 2016), which may be associated with higher thrust and efficiency.

The iso-surface plot of the time-averaged streamwise velocity ($u^\ast$) obtained by the DNS at two Reynolds numbers are compared against experimental (PIV) results of Van Buren et al. (2016) at $Re = 6000$ in Figure 8. The mean wake for the DNS and the PIV both show higher speed fluid forming four branches in the wake extending from the trailing edge top and bottom corners, helping to validate the accuracy of the numerical results.

**Dominant Structures**

The proper orthogonal decomposition (POD) is used to examine the temporal evolution of the wake at $Re = 2000$. The iso-surfaces in Figure 9 are the streamwise component of the four most energetic POD modes. The faster movement of vortices on the wake centerline relative to its edges resulted in a deformation of the structures shed from the panel trailing edge. The first and second modes capture the wake splitting (2P mode) as previously seen for higher oscillating frequencies for rectangular panels (Buchholz & Smits, 2006; Sentürk & Smits, 2016). The split was less evident in Modes 3 and 4. The wavelength of the second mode pair (Figure 7b) was half of the first mode, while the wavelength of Modes 3 and 4 were half of Modes 1 and 2, respectively. Moreover, Mode 2 appeared to be more significantly influenced by the edges relative to Mode 1.

**CONCLUSIONS**

The wake of a simple oscillating flat panel was evaluated using a new Immersed Boundary Method incorporated into DNS at $Re = 2000$ and 10,000. The foam-extend 3.2, which is an extension to OpenFOAM, was used to carry out these simulations. Following the initial verification of the solver capabilities, the wake characteristics were evaluated to determine the implications of the trailing edge, the effect of Reynolds number and the dominant features of wake structures using POD.

The higher efficiency and larger thrust generation by the triangular panel, compared to the square panel, were attributed to a smaller wake, shorter recirculation region, and
larger velocity at the sharp edges of the panel. The smaller vortex distortion on the plane that is perpendicular to the axis of pitching, and larger distortion on the plane parallel to the panel surfaces coincided with the higher efficiency and thrust.

The effect of Re on the time-averaged wake characteristics was significant between Re = 2000 and 10,000. The higher Re shortened the base region while forming a smaller low velocity region on the panel. The latter restricted low velocity fluid to close vicinity of the leading edge and resulted in lower drag, and thus, higher thrust and efficiency.

The POD modes confirmed split of the wake to two separate streets at the lower Re of 2000.Moreover, the distortion of shed off structures was suspended shortly after the initial detachment, which was recognized by the downstream structures retaining the shape of the trailing edge. The structures in all POD modes were relatively symmetric or anti-symmetric.

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Figure 9: Isosurface of streamwise component (blue: 10% of minimum value, and red: 10% of maximum value) of the four most energetic POD modes at Re = 2000. (a) Mode 1, (b) Mode 2, (c) Mode 3, and (d) Mode 4.