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Propulsive Force Measurements and Flow Behavior of Undulatory Swimmers at Low Reynolds Number

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Abstract
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Disciplines
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Propulsive force measurements and flow behavior of undulatory swimmers at low Reynolds number

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The swimming behavior of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans is investigated in aqueous solutions of increasing viscosity. Detailed flow dynamics associated with the nematode’s swimming motion as well as propulsive force and power are obtained using particle tracking and velocimetry methods. We find that C. elegans delivers propulsive thrusts on the order of a few nanonewtons. Such findings are supported by values obtained using resistive force theory; the ratio of normal to tangential drag coefficients is estimated to be approximately 1.4. Over the range of solutions investigated here, the flow properties remain largely independent of viscosity. Velocity magnitudes of the flow away from the nematode body decay rapidly within less than a body length and collapse onto a single master curve. Overall, our findings support that C. elegans is an attractive living model to study the coupling between small-scale propulsion and low Reynolds number hydrodynamics. © 2010 American Institute of Physics. [doi:10.1063/1.3529236]

I. INTRODUCTION

Considerable progress has been made in the understanding of the motility of swimming micro-organisms at low Reynolds number (Re), which is defined as Re=UL/ν. Here, U is a characteristic velocity, L is a length scale, and ν is the fluid’s kinematic viscosity. For the case of swimming micro-organisms, the length scale is usually small and linear viscous forces typically dominate over nonlinear inertial forces.

In the absence of inertia (Re→0), the equations of motion become time-reversible and any net movement attained by the swimmer must result from nonreciprocal motion.1 Strategies for swimming at low Re include (i) rotation of a helical filament2–3 and (ii) actuation of a flexible tail to generate propulsive forces.4–8 The study of this latter mechanism has been motivated in part by early experimental observations of the propulsion of spermatozoa9 and has been investigated using resistive force theory by Gray and Hancock.10,11

In recent years, analytical studies of the motility of micro-organisms at low Re have been complimented by a growing number of experimental investigations. For example, scaled-up models of elastic tails12,13 and bacterial flagella14 are commonly used to measure filament shapes, velocity fields, and propulsive forces.15 At smaller scales, the kinematics of single bacterium have been investigated16 and the shapes of an oscillating passive actin filament have been probed.17 Force measurements using optical tweezers have been recently obtained on individual bacteria in an effort to test the validity of resistive force theory18 and to determine E. coli swimming efficiency.

Part of the motivation in studying low Re locomotion lays in the potential impact on technological applications. The development of individual micro- and nanoscale artificial swimmers has rapidly increased, driven by applications such as targeted drug delivery and robotic surgery. One of the leading avenues of such research has been in the use of magnetic fields to actuate artificial bioinspired helical structures in fluids.19–22 Alternatively, a number of studies have focused on the collective behavior of bacteria swarm, both experimentally23–27 and theoretically.23,28–32 Investigations have shown that bacterial suspensions develop transient patterns of coherent locomotion with correlation lengths much larger than the size of individual organisms.23,26,28 Such collective motion has been used, for example, to induce mixing in microfluidic devices.23

Despite recent efforts, there is still a dearth of experimental data on the dynamics of the fluid flows of individual swimming organisms. In particular, there still exist few available measurements of the propulsive force delivered by microswimmers. One limiting reason remains the difficulty in resolving the flows generated by individual micron-scale swimmers such as E. coli bacteria or spermatozoa. Perhaps the most well-known flow visualizations of individual undulatory swimming organisms date back to Gray and Lissmann33,34 nearly half a century ago in which the authors presented qualitative streaklines of freely swimming nematodes in water seeded with starch grains.

In this paper, we characterize the flow behavior of a small undulatory swimmer as function of fluid viscosity by tracking the swimmer’s kinematics and by using particle tracking and velocimetry methods. The manuscript is organized as follows. We describe in Sec. II the experimental setup, including the image processing methods and the rheological properties of the aqueous solutions. The organism of choice is the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans, a small (~1 mm long), free-living eukaryotic organism widely used...
as model system for biological research. In Secs. III A–III C the nematode’s swimming kinematics are investigated, and estimates of the drag coefficients are presented. In Secs. III D–III F velocity fields are investigated, and estimates of the drag coefficients are presented. We compare drag coefficient, force, and power estimates from the data to calculations based on resistive force theory. Summary and conclusions follow in Sec. IV. We find that the nematode C. elegans is a well-suited organism for low Re swimming investigations. Here, low Re refers to the case in which Re < 1 and inertial forces are negligible. The nematode’s periodic swimming behavior allows for high-resolution velocity fields that can be differentiated to estimate propulsive forces and used to characterize low Re flow properties. Kinematic swimming data are coupled with resistive force theory to estimate the ratio of the normal to tangential drag coefficients and compare with analytical values available.

II. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

A. Experimental setup and fluids

The swimming behavior of C. elegans is investigated in small, fluid-filled chambers using a microscope and a high-speed camera as shown in Fig. 1(a). Chambers are made of acrylic and are 1.5 mm wide and 600 μm deep. They are sealed with a thin (0.13 mm) cover glass and are filled with aqueous solutions of varying viscosity. The swimming motion of C. elegans is imaged using standard bright-field microscopy (1024 × 1024 pixels). The depth of focus of the objective (Apochromat 5×/0.16) is 30 μm. The focal plane is set on the longitudinal axis of the nematode body. The nematode beats primarily in the observation plane during the

![Image](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

**FIG. 1.** (Color online) (a) Visualization of the undulatory swimming of C. elegans. An instantaneous skeleton (red) of the nematode body is generated by in-house software. The centroid (dashed) and the trajectory of the tail (blue) are tracked at a sampling rate of 125 frames/s. (b) Fluid viscosities (μ) as a function of shear rate for all aqueous solutions. The shear rate ranges from 5 to 100 s⁻¹, and the temperature is maintained at 23 °C. Baseline data (■) correspond to the shear-viscosity of the buffer solution. Triangles (△) represent data for the shear-viscosity of CMC dissolved in buffer solution, at various concentrations by weight. From bottom to top, the concentrations of CMC are respectively 100, 300, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000, and 3000 ppm. The shaded area from 10 to 20 s⁻¹ represents the range of measured shear rates in the fluid surrounding the swimming C. elegans. Fluid viscosities remain nearly constant within the shaded area; average values in this range are used as the fluid viscosity.

Records of different viscosities (μ) are prepared by adding small amounts of carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) (MW=2.1 × 10⁶) to a M9 buffer solution. The concentration of CMC in buffer solution ranged from 100 to 3000 ppm. The solutions’ shear-viscosities range from 0.13 mPa s (buffer solution) to 12.0 mPa s, as shown in Table I. The polymer CMC has a flexible backbone such that viscoelastic effects are expected to arise in the fluids. However, the salt ions in the buffer solution screen the polymer molecules. This screening tends to keep the molecule in the coiled state even at moderate strain-rates (≈10 s⁻¹). As a result, viscoelastic and strain-rate dependent viscosity behaviors are minimized. Figure 1(b) shows the fluid shear-viscosity versus shear-rate for all solutions. Note that the shear-viscosities are nearly constant even for the highest concentration solutions investigated here. No appreciable first normal stress-difference (N1) is observed for all solutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CMC concentration (ppm)</th>
<th>Solution viscosity (mPa s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Nematode tracking: Kinematics

The nematode kinematics are characterized using in-house image analysis codes. In short, for each instantaneous snapshot of the swimming nematode, segmentation is used to extract the nematode’s body shapes and centroid positions. We track uniformly distributed points along the nematode’s body centerline (i.e., skeleton), which is described by a continuous, differentiable two-dimensional (2D) spline curve. Note that C. elegans does not possess an actual skeleton, and the nomenclature used here refers to topological skeletons. For this step, a morphological segmentation
is performed on the nematode’s binary images. This procedure removes pixels on the boundaries of the object but does not allow the object to break apart such that the pixels remaining make up an image skeleton. Next, a corner-detection algorithm is used to identify the x-y coordinates of the head and tail. Finally, in order to build smooth 2D curves, an algorithm is developed to sample the nematode’s skeleton using a sequential Monte Carlo Markov chain approximation. Hence, skeletons approximate the nematode’s body posture at any given instant in time [Fig. 1(a)] and the nematode swimming speed \( U \) can be calculated by differentiating the nematode centroid position with respect to time.

The nematode’s swimming behavior is further characterized by measuring the bending curvature \( \kappa(s,t) \) along the nematode’s body centerline. The curvature is defined as \( \kappa(s,t) = d\phi/ds \). Here, \( \phi \) is the angle made by the tangent to the x-axis in the laboratory frame at each point along the body centerline and \( s \) is the arc length coordinate spanning the head of the nematode \( (s=0) \) to its tail \( (s=L) \). The largest bending amplitude \( A \) is computed at the nematode’s head.

C. Particle tracking: Velocity fields

Fluid velocity fields generated by swimming nematodes are obtained using both particle tracking and image velocimetry methods. For both methods, the fluid is seeded with 2.2 \( \mu \)m green fluorescent polymer microspheres (Duke Scientific Corp., CA). The seeding particles show negligible Brownian motion compared to the flow velocity \( V=0.5 \) mm/s. The Péclet number, defined as \( \text{Pe} = VL/D \), is on the order of \( O(10^3) \), where \( D \) is the diffusion coefficient of the aqueous solution. In particle tracking, the seeding particles are tracked continuously for the entire duration of the experiment. Velocities are computed from the local particle displacements. In particle image velocimetry (PIV), the instantaneous velocity field is obtained using cross-correlation methods with a window size of 16 by 16 pixels. Both tracking and PIV methods produce similar velocity fields.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Nematode kinematics

Nematodes are typically tracked over multiple bending cycles using image analysis. In Fig. 1(a), a representative \( C. elegans \) tracked over approximately 10 cycles in the pure buffer solution \( (\mu=1.0 \text{ mPa s}) \) is shown. We find that nematodes swim with an average speed \( U \) of \( 0.36 \pm 0.01 \) mm/s. Nematodes also display a characteristic periodic beating pattern as illustrated by the trajectories swept by the \( C. elegans' \) tail [Fig. 1(a)]. For such swimming behavior, the \( \text{Re} \) is approximately 0.38, based on the nematode’s body length \( L \) \( (1.06 \pm 0.06 \) mm) and swimming speed \( U \).

A contour plot of the spatiotemporal evolution of the curvature \( \kappa(s,t) \) for a \( C. elegans \) swimming in buffer solution \( (\mu=1.0 \text{ mPa s}) \) is shown in Fig. 2(a) for approximately ten beating (or swimming) cycles. The curvature values are color-coded, such that red and blue represent positive and negative values of \( \kappa \), respectively. In Fig. 2(a), the \( x \)-axis corresponds to time, while \( y \)-axis corresponds to the nondimensional position \( s/L \) along the length of the nematode’s body. The contour plot reveals the existence of periodic and well-defined diagonally oriented lines. These diagonal lines are characteristics of bending waves which propagate from head to tail. Such waves are known to correspond to the alternating phases of dorsal and ventral contractions driven by rhythmic activity of the 95 muscle cells that line the nematode’s body.\(^{44,45}\)

The nematode’s body bending frequency \( f \) is obtained by computing the one-dimensional fast Fourier transform of the spatiotemporal curvature field \( \kappa(s,t) \) at multiple body positions \( s/L \), as shown in Fig. 2(b).\(^{38}\) A single frequency peak in the Fourier spectrum is found at \( f = 2.0 \) Hz for the nematode shown in Fig. 1(a). This frequency is nearly independent of body position \( s/L \). This follows as the contour plot of curvature [Fig. 2(a)] shows a single traveling wave propagating in which the magnitude of the body curvature decreases from head to tail along the nematode body; the entire nema-
observed at the head. This asymmetry is perhaps a feature of the nematode beating pattern. The largest beating amplitudes are along the length of its body, but the swimming gait is asymmetric.

The nematode beating amplitudes remain constant at approximately 0.25 mm [Fig. 3(b)] and is independent of fluid viscosity. Concurrently, wild-type C. elegans are able to modulate their beating frequency [Fig. 3(c)]; we note a decrease in the magnitude of the nematode beating frequency (f) from 2.0 to 1.6 Hz over the viscosity range. Such findings are supported by previous work demonstrating C. elegans ability to adapt its motility behavior to different fluidic solutions. It is interesting to mention that if the beating frequency decreases [Fig. 3(c)] and the amplitude remains constant [Fig. 3(b)], one would expect the swimming speed (U) to decrease for increasing fluid viscosity. However, the validity of such statement is mainly based on the assumption that C. elegans is power-limited and thus unable to sustain a constant swimming speed. In contrast, we find that the mean power (⟨P⟩) of swimming nematodes increases with fluid viscosity [Fig. 3(d)]; details on the computation of ⟨P⟩ are provided in Sec. III F. Such results are also supported by a previous experimental investigation where mechanosensory input affects the temporal frequency of the nematode’s swimming gait. Despite the nematodes’ ability to adapt to the fluidic environment, it still remains unclear why the temporal gait is modulated, and how does it not simultaneously affect the spatial form of the swimming gait.

B. Nematode motility: Fluid viscosity effects

Motility metrics including nematode’s swimming speed (U), amplitude (A), and beating frequency (f) are shown as a function of fluid viscosity in Figs. 3(a)–3(c), respectively. While the fluid viscosity yields more than a tenfold increase in the effective mechanical load on swimming C. elegans, we note that the nematode swimming speed (U) remains constant at approximately 0.35 mm/s over the viscosity range [Fig. 3(a)]; such viscosity-independent results are in accordance with Taylor’s predictions for swimming speeds of an undulating filament.

The nematode beating amplitudes remain constant at approximately 0.25 mm [Fig. 3(b)] and is independent of fluid viscosity. Concurrently, wild-type C. elegans are able to modulate their beating frequency [Fig. 3(c)]; we note a decrease in the magnitude of the nematode beating frequency (f) from 2.0 to 1.6 Hz over the viscosity range. Such findings are supported by previous work demonstrating C. elegans ability to adapt its motility behavior to different fluidic solutions. It is interesting to mention that if the beating frequency decreases [Fig. 3(c)] and the amplitude remains constant [Fig. 3(b)], one would expect the swimming speed (U) to decrease for increasing fluid viscosity. However, the validity of such statement is mainly based on the assumption that C. elegans is power-limited and thus unable to sustain a constant swimming speed. In contrast, we find that the mean power (⟨P⟩) of swimming nematodes increases with fluid viscosity [Fig. 3(d)]; details on the computation of ⟨P⟩ are provided in Sec. III F. Such results are also supported by a previous experimental investigation where mechanosensory input affects the temporal frequency of the nematode’s swimming gait. Despite the nematodes’ ability to adapt to the fluidic environment, it still remains unclear why the temporal gait is modulated, and how does it not simultaneously affect the spatial form of the swimming gait.

C. Nematode kinematics: Swimming speed and drag coefficients

In this section, the nematode’s swimming speed is compared to predictions obtained using resistive force theory. We note that the ratio between the nematode’s length (L=1 mm) and diameter (d=80 μm) is approximately L/d ~ 12. Hence, in the limit of low Re, nematodes can be treated as slender bodies moving in viscous fluids where inertial effects are negligible. Under such conditions, the net thrust of propulsive force (Fprop) produced by an undulating filament is balanced by the drag force (Fdrag) imposed from the surrounding fluid, such that Fprop + Fdrag = 0. An expression for the swimming speed (U) of an undulating filament was proposed by Gray and Hancock, and is given by

\[ U = 2\pi^2 f \frac{\left( \frac{A}{\lambda} \right)^2 \left( \frac{C_N}{C_T} - 1 \right)}{1 + 2\pi^2 \left( \frac{C_N}{C_T} \right) \left( \frac{A}{\lambda} \right)^2}. \]  

We find that, for a nematode swimming in a waterlike, Newtonian
TABLE II. Drag coefficient ratio ($C_N/C_T$) and corresponding swimming speed obtained using Eq. (1) as estimated from experiments and analytical values from previous studies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$C_N/C_T$</th>
<th>$U$ (mm/s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiments</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gray and Lissmann$^a$</td>
<td>1.4–1.6</td>
<td>0.36–0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lighthill$^b$</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gray and Hancock$^c$</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katz et al.$^d$</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Reference 34.  
$^b$Reference 48.  
$^c$Reference 9.  
$^d$Reference 47.

Fluid $C_N/C_T$ is approximately 1.4. This value is very similar to the ones reported by Gray and Lissmann, who dropped thin wires into viscous fluids and estimated swimming speeds ranging from 0.36 to 0.50 mm/s using Eq. (1). By comparison, Lighthill obtained $C_N/C_T$=1.5 for the case of an undulating filament swimming in an infinite fluid medium at low Re. The estimated swimming speed for $C_N/C_T$=1.5 using Eq. (1) is 0.43 mm/s. A larger value of the ratio of drag coefficients ($C_N/C_T=4.1$) is obtained using the corrections of Katz et al. who incorporated wall-effects into their analysis. Correspondingly, the estimated swimming speed is 1.4 mm/s. By using resistive force theory, which does not consider hydrodynamic interactions, Gray and Hancock showed that the value of $C_N/C_T$ is equal to 2; the estimated swimming speed using Eq. (1) is 0.7 mm/s. Results are summarized in Table II.

Overall, the analytical values of the ratio $C_N/C_T$ provide reasonably good estimates for the swimming speed of a finite undulating slender body, such as C. elegans, moving in a viscous fluid. The analysis proposed by Lighthill, in which hydrodynamic interactions are considered, provides good estimates for the swimming speed (or drag coefficients). The estimated swimming speed is 0.43 mm/s which is higher than the experimental value of 0.35 mm/s. A possible source of error may be confinement effects. However, the relatively small values of the drag coefficient ratio obtained using experimental data ($C_N/C_T=1.4$) suggest that confinement effects may not be important. We note that for fixed waveforms, an increase in inertial effects (i.e., Re increases) for an undulating sheet in a viscous fluid will lead to a decrease in its resulting self-propulsive speed; such analytical prediction may help understand the difference observed between the theoretical speed, where Eq. (1) is valid at Re=0, and the smaller measured speeds, which correspond to a departure from Re=0.

D. Velocity fields

The fluid flow behavior of swimming nematodes is investigated using particle tracking and velocimetry methods. An example of particles trajectories over one beating cycle for a nematode swimming in buffer solution is shown in Fig. 4(a). The trajectories are color-coded such that red and blue correspond to long and short displacements, respectively. Long particle displacements and recirculating trajectories are observed near the nematode’s body. Such patterns are similar to the qualitative visualizations of Gray and Lissmann, who associated the circulation of particles around a nematode’s body with regions of maximum transverse body displacement.

Figure 4(b) shows instantaneous, two-dimensional velocity fields for a nematode swimming in buffer solution. Velocity fields are presented at equal time intervals ($\Delta t=0.1$ s) over a representative body bending cycle. A common feature of the flow field over time is the regions of fluid recirculation that are aligned along the nematode’s body. These recirculation regions persist throughout the bending cycle, but their exact location varies. In general, three to four recirculation regions are observed along the nematode’s body for fluid viscosities ranging from 1.0 to 34.5 mPa s. Recirculating flow structures, or vortices, exhibits a typical length scale on the order of $L/4$ to $L/3$, and pairs of adjacent vortices are seen to rotate in opposite directions. The vortices generated by C. elegans swimming remain attached within the vicinity of the nematode’s body rather than being shed off into the fluid, which is a hallmark of low Re flows.

Next, the temporal properties of the velocity fields are investigated as a function of fluid viscosity. Figure 5 (left column) shows the spatially averaged velocity magnitude $\langle|V|\rangle$ as a function of time and the corresponding normalized power spectra $P(f)$ (right column). The fluid viscosities are 1.0 mPa s [Figs. 5(a) and 5(b)], 3.6 mPa s [Figs. 5(c) and 5(d)], 12.0 mPa s [Figs. 5(e) and 5(f)], and 34.5 mPa s [Figs. 5(g) and 5(h)], respectively. The quantity $\langle|V|\rangle$ is computed by defining a region of interest in the flow where velocities are larger than 10% of the maximum velocity magnitude in each instantaneous velocity field. This region spans
The nematode undulates alternately on its dorsal and ventral sides throughout one beating cycle. In the power spectra, the nematode resurges twice in each period because the nematode beats two primary frequencies in addition to small noise associated with Re from 0.4 to 0.01. Hence, one can safely consider C. elegans to be a low Reynolds number swimmer. For the experiments performed here, the Re based on the nematode’s length and swimming speed ranges from 0.4 to 0.01 as the fluid viscosity is increased from 1 to 34.5 mPa s. The fluid flow of low Re swimmers is governed by linear viscous forces. Hence, the form of the velocity decay normal to the swimming nematode should be independent of viscosity.

In Fig. 6, the velocity magnitude of the fluid (∥V∥) is shown as a function of the normalized distance (r/L) away from the nematode body for fluids of different viscosities. Here, the velocity is normalized with respect to its maximum value (∥V∥max). Curves are obtained from ensemble averages over eight cross-sectional locations uniformly distributed along the nematode body and five instantaneous time points within a representative body bending cycle, i.e., T/4, T/2, 3T/4, and T. The distance r away from the nematode is measured in the normal direction away from the body boundary, as schematically illustrated in the inset of Fig. 6. Once normalized, the velocity decay profiles collapse onto a single master curve. Beyond one body length (L) away from the nematode, the fluid flow is quiescent. This collapse indicates that the flows in the vicinity of the nematodes are largely similar with Re from 0.4 to 0.01. Hence, one can safely consider C. elegans to be a low Re swimmer for the viscosity range investigated here. We note that the normalized velocity decay follows closely an exponential decay of the form ∼exp(−2πr/λ) obtained by Lighthill for an undulating sheet in Stokes flow (i.e., Re=0), where λ is the characteristic wavelength and r is the distance from the swimming body.
F. Velocity fields: Propulsive force and power

The propulsive force generated by the nematode *C. elegans* swimming at low Reynolds number is calculated using the fluid velocity fields and nematode body postures. The velocity fields are differentiated in space and time to obtain velocity gradients and the corresponding strain-rate field. The fluid shear-stress is then calculated using the known values of the fluid viscosity [see Fig. 1(b) and Table I]. The drag force on the nematode body is calculated by integrating the shear-stress over the nematode body surface. In the limit of low Re, the total force on the swimming nematode is zero and the nematode propulsive force is balanced by the fluid drag force, such that $F_{\text{prop}}(t) + F_{\text{drag}}(t) = 0$.

The hydrodynamic drag force $F_{\text{drag}}$ on the swimming nematode is calculated on a body of thickness $d$ that is bounded by a shape contour $C$. The body’s thickness is 80 μm, corresponding to the nematode diameter, and the shape contour is experimentally obtained using image analysis. The drag force on each area segment $dS$ (Fig. 7) is given by $F_{\text{drag}} = \hat{n} \cdot \tau dS$, where $\hat{n}$ is the unit normal vector and $\tau$ is the fluid stress defined as $\tau = \mu(\nabla \vec{V} + \nabla \vec{V}^T)$. Here, $\vec{V}$ is the shear-rate. Hence, the local fluid stress and the local drag force on each segment can be obtained. The total drag force is computed by integrating over the entire body surface, such that $F_{\text{drag}} = \int_C F_{\text{drag}} = \int_C \hat{n} \cdot \tau d$. Using the overall force balance, the propulsive force is then $F_{\text{prop}}(t) = -F_{\text{drag}} = -\int_C \hat{n} \cdot \tau d$. The corresponding mechanical power is $P(t) = -\int_C \hat{n} \cdot \tau d$. Thus, the total propulsive force and mechanical power can be obtained at each instant over a swimming cycle. Here, the power dissipated in viscous shear ($P$) represents a lower limit on the total power that the nematode uses to swim. In addition, one should note that estimates of $F_{\text{prop}}$ and $P$ include only the contributions of fluid stresses on the sides of the model body shape (Fig. 7) but neglect the additional contributions from top and bottom surfaces, where velocimetry data are unavailable. Hence, our approximation should be interpreted as an underestimate of the total propulsive force and power delivered in reality by nematodes.

The magnitude of the propulsive force $\langle F_{\text{prop}} \rangle$ and the mechanical power $\langle P \rangle$ averaged over one swimming cycle is shown in Fig. 8. The error bars are the standard deviations of the averages. The calculated experimental values for the force and power are 3.0 nN and 1.7 pW, respectively. The values of propulsive force and power computed using the experiments (Fig. 8) are similar to those obtained using analytical predicted values of the ratio of normal to tangential drag coefficient $C_N/C_T$ as discussed in Sec. III C. One should note that analytical values of the propulsive force and power, where $\langle P \rangle = \frac{1}{T} \int_t^{t+T} F_{\text{prop}}(s,t)^2 dt$ (this expression is also used to compute the data of Fig. 3(d)), where $C_N$ and $C_T$ are obtained from Katz et al., still require the use of kinematic data for the velocity distribution along the nematode body (i.e., normal $u_n$ and tangential $u_t$ velocities). That is, the experimental data obtained here are used in conjunction with theoretical values of $C_N$ and $C_T$ to compute the so-called analytical values of $\langle F_{\text{prop}} \rangle$ and $\langle P \rangle$. In contrast, experimental values of $\langle F_{\text{prop}} \rangle$ and $\langle P \rangle$ rely on velocimetry data only, as obtained from PIV measurements. The ratio $C_N/C_T = 1.4$ is shown in Fig. 8 for clarity, relative to analytical predictions of the ratio $C_N/C_T = 1.5$, 2.0, and 4.1. To our knowledge, these measurements are among the first estimations of propulsive force and power performed for low Re swimmers.

In order to gain further insight into the nematode’s swimming mechanism, the propulsive force is decomposed into a tangential force ($F_T$) and a normal force (lateral force) $F_N$, as shown in Fig. 9. The tangential force is the component of the propulsive force along the swimming direction, and the normal force is the component of the propulsive force in the direction perpendicular to the swimming direction. The normalized profile of the tangential and normal components of the propulsive force as a function of a swimming cycle is shown in Fig. 9. The force components
are normalized with respect to their maximum absolute values. The time signal of the experimentally determined tangential force exhibits an impulsive pattern that differs from the patterns seen in the other three results. All four normalized normal forces share a similar profile. The relative error of the experimental force measurement data is 11%, 8% of which is contributed by the small deviations of the nematode swimming gaits between periods.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we present an experimental investigation of undulatory swimming phenomena for the nematode C. elegans. Here, nematodes are observed swimming in aqueous solutions of increasing viscosity (1–34.5 mPa s). Using kinematic data for nematode locomotion such as swimming speed (U), beating amplitude (A), and frequency (f), we estimate the ratio of normal to tangential drag coefficients (C_N/C_T) using resistive force theory; our experimental value of C_N/C_T = 1.4 compares well with analytical predictions from previous studies (Table II). Conversely, we find that analytical values of C_N/C_T provide reasonably accurate predictions of the nematode swimming speed. To the best of our knowledge, we provide the first noninvasive estimations of propulsive force and power delivered by C. elegans based solely on flow velocimetry data. We find that experimental values are close to estimates using resistive force theory. In addition, the magnitudes of our measured forces are supported by recent experimental measurements of force delivered by crawling C. elegans using force-sensing micropillars, with (F_{prop}) ~ 2 nN.

By investigating the dynamics of fluid flow, we have attempted to answer the question whether the nematode C. elegans is a low Reynolds number swimmer. First, we find that the nematode’s characteristic Reynolds number, based on body length and swimming speed, ranges between Re = 0.4 and 0.01 as the fluid viscosity is increased; such values always remain below unity. Our velocimetry data exhibit hallmarks of low Reynolds number flows. Namely, the dynamics of the flow are overwhelmingly independent of the fluid viscosity. This is shown at all viscosities investigated in (i) the recirculating flow structures which remain attached along the swimming nematode (Fig. 4) as well as in (ii) the frequency responses of the flow which display a characteristic double period signature across (Fig. 5). Finally, normalized velocity profiles of the flow away from the nematode collapse onto a single master curve (Fig. 6). Such rapid velocity decay away from the body follows closely the exponential form predicted for an undulating sheet subject to Stokes flow conditions. Altogether, our results suggest that the nematode C. elegans provides an attractive model to study low Reynolds number locomotion. Such living organism offers an ideal candidate to bridge our understanding of low Reynolds number hydrodynamics with small-scale propulsion.

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