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Maeyama, Kohei Ishida, Shunichi Imai, Yohsuke

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Kohei Maeyama (前山公平), ២ Shunichi Ishida (石田駿一) and ២ Yohsuke Imai (今井陽介)

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# Peristaltic transport of a power-law fluid induced by a single wave: A numerical analysis using the cumulant lattice Boltzmann method @

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Kohei Maeyama (前山公平), Shunichi Ishida (石田駿一), 🛅 and Yohsuke Imai (今井陽介)<sup>a)</sup> 🛅

## AFFILIATIONS

Graduate School of Engineering, Kobe University, Kobe 657-8501, Japan

<sup>a)</sup>Author to whom correspondence should be addressed: yimai@mech.kobe-u.ac.jp. URL: https://www.lab.kobe-u.ac.jp/eng-afe/

#### ABSTRACT

Peristaltic pumping is the primary mechanism of food transport in the human intestine. Intestinal contents are often modeled as power-law fluids with low-behavior indices (n < 1). Peristaltic flows were studied for periodic contraction waves  $(L/\lambda = 1)$  with infinitely long wave-lengths  $(\lambda/D \to \infty)$  in the Stokes flow regime  $(Re \to 0)$ . However, the peristaltic flow generated by an isolated contraction wave with a short wavelength at nonzero Reynolds numbers is more relevant to physiological conditions. In this study, we investigated the peristaltic transport of a power-law fluid with a low behavior index of n = 0.21 at nonzero Reynolds numbers up to Re = 10, generated by a single short contraction wave. First, we investigated the analytical solution for the peristaltic transport of the power-law fluid for  $\lambda/D \to \infty$  and  $Re \to 0$ . The analytical solution shows that the discharge flow rate of a power-law fluid generated by a single contraction wave is much smaller than that of a Newtonian fluid (n = 1). Next, we investigated the peristaltic transport for  $Re \leq 10$  using the cumulant lattice Boltzmann method. The numerical results demonstrate that the discharge flow rate for the power-law fluid sharply increased owing to the inertia effect. The power-law fluid induces an asymmetric flow field with respect to the contraction wave at smaller Reynolds numbers than Newtonian fluids. The inertia effect was increased by the sharpness of the contraction wave. These results suggest that intestinal contents can be transported more quickly by an isolated contraction wave with a shorter wavelength when the contents have low consistency indices or when the contraction wave has a large propagation velocity.

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# I. INTRODUCTION

Peristaltic pumping is the mechanism of liquid transport generated by contraction waves along deformable channels. In the human intestine, chyme transformed from food is transported by peristaltic motions of the intestinal wall for digestion, absorption, and excretion. Peristaltic transport is also observed in other organs, such as the esophagus, stomach, and ureter. The most fundamental research on peristaltic flow is analytical solutions based on the lubrication theory. Shapiro et al.<sup>1</sup> derived an analytical solution for the peristaltic flow of Newtonian fluids for periodic contraction waves with infinitely long wavelengths at zero Reynolds numbers. Li and Brasseur<sup>2</sup> modified the classical lubrication theory model to investigate peristaltic flow generated by contraction waves with arbitrary wave numbers and channel lengths. Intestinal contents are often modeled as power-law fluids with low-behavior indices.<sup>3</sup> Shukla and Gupta<sup>4</sup> extended the theory of Shapiro et al.<sup>1</sup> to power-law fluids. They demonstrated that when the behavior index decreases, the amount of transported fluid decreased slightly. Power-law fluid flow through peristaltic channels with arbitrary axisymmetric shapes has also been investigated analytically. Srivastava and Srivastava<sup>5</sup> and Chaube *et al.*<sup>6</sup> investigated the peristaltic flow of power-law fluids through a nonuniform peristaltic channel. Misra and Pandey<sup>7</sup> studied the effect of single and train expansion waves on peristaltic transport of power-law fluids. Avvari<sup>8</sup> considered trade-off between the power consumption to propel power-law fluids and the local longitudinal shortening.

These analytical solutions are applicable to the Stokes flow regimes. However, if we assume that the diameter of the intestine is  $D \sim 50-75$  mm,<sup>9,10</sup> the maximum peristaltic velocity is  $C \sim 30$  mm/s,<sup>9</sup> density is  $\rho \sim 10^3$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>, consistency index is  $k \sim 1-3000$  Pa s<sup>n</sup>, the behavior index is  $n \sim 0.21$ ,<sup>3</sup> and the Reynolds number reaches  $Re \sim O(1)$  at most. Analytical solutions are also valid for infinitely long wavelengths, but some contraction waves have wavelengths similar to or shorter than the diameter of the intestine. Agbesi and Chevalier,<sup>11</sup> for example, reported short wavelengths of  $\lambda/D \sim 0.5-1.5$  in the mice hindgut and chicken embryonic midgut.

In addition, the previous studies considered periodic waves, but contraction waves are often isolated in the intestine. Shikaya *et al.*<sup>12</sup> for example, visualized isolated contraction waves in the chicken embryonic gut. Thus, peristaltic flow generated by a single contraction wave with short wavelength at nonzero Reynolds number is more relevant to physiological conditions.

Recent studies have partly demonstrated the inertial effect on the peristaltic flow of power-law fluids.<sup>13–15</sup> Peristaltic transport by an isolated contraction wave has also been studied.<sup>8,11,16</sup> In addition, some studies focused on the dynamics of particles in peristaltic flows.<sup>17–19</sup> However, the peristaltic flow of power-law fluids with low-behavior indices is not fully understood. Motivated by the above, we investigate the peristaltic transport of a power-law fluid with a low-behavior index n = 0.21 at  $Re \leq 10$ , generated by a single contraction wave.

We present a computational framework for simulating the peristaltic flow of power-law fluids with low-behavior indices based on the lattice Boltzmann method (LBM).<sup>20</sup> The LBM does not directly solve the pressure and velocity fields and is efficient for parallel computing and complex wall boundaries. Furthermore, for power-law fluids, the shear rate is estimated locally using the LBM distribution function without finite differences. This benefit was first highlighted by Ginzburg.<sup>21</sup> However, the LBM for power-law fluids presents two difficulties in terms of numerical stability. First, the diffusion number (non-dimensional viscosity) can easily exceed the stable range in low-shear-rate regions. Second, the diffusion number (relaxation time) may be extremely small in high shear rate regions. Gabbanelli et al.<sup>22</sup> presented a truncated power-law model to limit the maximum and minimum viscosities. An improved LBM for power-law fluids was also developed in which additional forcing operators or reconstructed distribution functions were introduced.<sup>21</sup> <sup>5</sup> Stabilized LBMs, such as multi-relaxation-time (MRT) LBM and cascaded LBM, have also been used for this problem.<sup>26–28</sup> The numerical conditions were also studied by Conrad et al.<sup>29</sup> However, the LBM for the peristaltic transport of power-law fluids has not yet been established. In this study, we propose a numerical method based on the cumulant LBM.3

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: In Sec. II, we describe the problem statement and the numerical methods. In Sec. III, the analytical solution of the peristaltic flow is investigated for  $\lambda/D \rightarrow \infty$  and  $Re \rightarrow 0$ , where  $\lambda/D$  denotes the wavelength relative to the channel diameter. In Sec. IV, we present the numerical results to clarify the effects of  $\lambda/D$  and Re on peristaltic flow. Finally, we discuss our results with a focus on physiological conditions in Sec. V.

# **II. NUMERICAL METHODS**

#### A. Geometry

We consider the three-dimensional flow of power-law fluids driven by peristaltic contraction in a circular channel of length *L* and diameter *D* (Fig. 1). A contraction wave of wavelength  $\lambda$  propagates with contraction ratio  $D_p/D$  and wave speed *C*. The wave shape was determined by a sinusoidal function. The shape of the channel at position *X* and time *t* is expressed as follows:

$$H(X,t) = \begin{cases} D/2 - \frac{D_p}{4} \left\{ 1 + \cos \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (X - Ct) \right\} & \left( -\frac{\lambda}{2} \le X - Ct \le \frac{\lambda}{2} \right) \\ D/2 & \text{(otherwise).} \end{cases}$$
(1)

In this paper, the position and velocity vectors in the laboratory frame are denoted by X = (X, Y, Z) and U = (U, V, W), and those in the moving frame are x = (x, y, z) and u = (u, v, w). These parameters are transformed by the following equations:

$$x = X - Ct, \quad y = Y, \quad z = Z, \tag{2}$$

$$u = U - C, \quad v = V, \quad w = W.$$
 (3)

The shape of the channel in the moving frame is expressed as follows:

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} D/2 - \frac{D_p}{4} \left( 1 + \cos \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} x \right) & \left( -\frac{\lambda}{2} \le x \le \frac{\lambda}{2} \right), \\ D/2 & \text{(otherwise).} \end{cases}$$
(4)

Physical quantities are summarized in Table I.

#### **B.** Governing equations

The governing equations are the Navier–Stokes and continuity equations for incompressible fluids as follows:

$$\rho\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{U} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{U}\right) = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma},\tag{5}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{U} = \boldsymbol{0}, \tag{6}$$

where  $\rho$  denotes the fluid density and  $\sigma$  denotes the stress tensor. The stress tensor is obtained as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = -p\boldsymbol{I} + 2\mu\boldsymbol{E},\tag{7}$$

where *p* denotes the pressure,  $\mu$  denotes the apparent viscosity, and *E* denotes the rate of strain tensor. The rate of strain tensor is obtained from the velocity gradients as follows:



FIG. 1. Wall geometry of the peristalsis. D denotes the channel diameter, R = D/2 denotes the channel radius, and L denotes the channel length.  $D_p$  denotes the amplitude of the contraction wave, and  $\lambda$  denotes the wavelength.

TABLE I. Physical quantities.

Symbols	Quantities
D	Channel diameter
L	Channel length
λ	Wavelength
$D_p$	Contraction amplitude
Ĉ	Wave velocity
$oldsymbol{U}$	Velocity vector in the laboratory frame
и	Velocity vector in the moving frame
Ϋ	Shear rate
Re	Reynolds number
P	Pressure
Q	Discharge flow rate

$$E_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial X_j} + \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial X_i} \right).$$
(8)

The apparent viscosity of power-law fluids is expressed as follows:<sup>31</sup>

$$\mu(|\dot{\gamma}|) = k |\dot{\gamma}|^{n-1}, \tag{9}$$

where the constants k and n are known as the consistency index and the behavior index, respectively, and  $\dot{\gamma}$  denotes the shear rate obtained as follows:

$$|\dot{\gamma}| = \sqrt{2E_{ij}E_{ij}}.\tag{10}$$

The governing equations are solved in the moving frame, with no-slip boundary conditions at the wall, and zero-pressure boundary conditions at both the ends of the channel. We define the Reynolds number as follows:

$$Re = \frac{\rho CD}{\mu(C/D)}$$
$$= \frac{\rho CD}{k(C/D)^{n-1}}$$
$$= \frac{\rho C^{2-n}D^n}{k}.$$
(11)

# C. Lattice Boltzmann method

We simulated the peristaltic transport of power-law fluids using LBM,<sup>20</sup> as in our previous study on the peristaltic transport of Newtonian fluids.<sup>16</sup> The time evolution equation of the distribution function  $f_{\zeta\eta\zeta}$  for the lattice direction  $\zeta, \eta, \zeta \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ reads

$$f_{\xi\eta\zeta}^*(\boldsymbol{x},t) = f_{\xi\eta\zeta}(\boldsymbol{x},t) + \Omega_{\xi\eta\zeta},\tag{12}$$

$$f_{\xi\eta\zeta}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}_{\xi\eta\zeta}\Delta t, t + \Delta t) = f^*_{\xi\eta\zeta}(\mathbf{x}, t),$$
(13)

where x denotes the position, t denotes time,  $c_{\xi\eta\zeta}$  denotes the particle velocity, and  $\Omega_{\xi\eta\zeta}$  denotes the collision operator.

In the case of power-law fluids with a low behavior index (n < 1), the apparent viscosity locally decreases in high shear rate regions, possibly resulting in numerical instabilities. Here, we use the D3Q27 cumulant model<sup>32</sup> as a stabilization technique for numerical simulations of power-law fluids. In the cumulant LBM, the collision of particles is modeled in a cumulant space. The cumulant  $C_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  for  $f_{\xi\eta\zeta}$  is defined as

$$C_{\alpha\beta\gamma} = c^{-\alpha-\beta-\gamma} \frac{\partial^{\alpha}\partial^{\beta}\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial\Xi^{\alpha}\partial\Upsilon^{\beta}\partialZ^{\gamma}} \ln\left(F(\Xi)\right)|_{\Xi=\Upsilon=Z=0}, \quad (14)$$

where  $\Xi = (\Xi, \Upsilon, Z)$  is the momentum wave number,  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ ,  $\in \{0, 1, 2\}$  are the indices of the cumulant, and  $F(\Xi)$  is the Laplace-transformed distribution function. The collision of cumulant is described by the following equation:

$$C^*_{\alpha\beta\gamma} = (1 - \omega_{\alpha\beta\gamma})C_{\alpha\beta\gamma} + \omega_{\alpha\beta\gamma}C^{\rm eq}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}, \tag{15}$$

where  $C^*$  is the post-collision cumulant,  $C^{\text{eq}}$  is the equilibrium value of cumulant, and  $\omega_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  is the relaxation rate for cumulant LBM. The second-order cumulants relate to shear viscosity;  $\omega_{200} = \omega_{020} = \omega_{002} = \omega_{110} = \omega_{101} = \omega_{011} = \omega_1 = 1/\tau$  and they have leading influence on numerical results. The other relaxation rate can be selected arbitrary from a range of 0–2. In this study, we set the other relaxation parameter to 1. The post collision distribution function  $f^*_{\xi\eta\zeta}$  is calculated by the Laplace inverse transformation of cumulant  $C^*_{\xi\eta\zeta}$ .

In conventional numerical methods, the rate of strain tensor can be computed by finite-difference approximation using velocity data on neighboring nodes. However, in the cumulant LBM, the rate of strain tensor is locally discretized using the summation of the cumulant without adjacent information.<sup>30</sup> Then, the shear rate norm was approximated as follows:

$$|\dot{\gamma}| \approx \sqrt{2E_{ij}^{\rm d}E_{ij}^{\rm d}} + \varepsilon,$$
 (16)

where

$$E_{11}^{d} = -\frac{\omega_{1}}{2\rho} (2C_{200} - C_{020} - C_{002}) -\frac{1}{2\rho} (C_{200} + C_{020} + C_{002} - \kappa_{000}),$$
(17)

$$E_{22}^{\rm d} = E_{11}^{\rm d} + \frac{3\omega_1}{2\rho} (C_{200} - C_{020}), \tag{18}$$

$$E_{33}^{\rm d} = E_{11}^{\rm d} + \frac{3\omega_1}{2\rho} (C_{200} - C_{002}), \tag{19}$$

$$E_{12}^{\rm d} = -\frac{3\omega_1}{2\rho}C_{110}, \qquad (20)$$

$$E_{23}^{\rm d} = -\frac{3\omega_1}{2\rho}C_{011},\tag{21}$$

$$E_{31}^{\rm d} = -\frac{3\omega_1}{2\rho}C_{101},\tag{22}$$

and  $\varepsilon$  denotes the artificial shear rate (ASR). The notation  $\kappa_{000}$  denotes the central moment for  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 0$ . ASR was added to prevent the apparent viscosity from approaching infinity in low-shear-rate regions.

For curved moving wall boundary conditions, interpolated-bounce-back scheme<sup>33</sup> is used.

In the LBM, the collision step is characterized by the relaxation time  $\tau$ . This is a non-dimensional parameter defined as follows:



**FIG. 2.** Effect of ASR on the numerical solution of 2D Poiseuille flow for n = 0.21, where  $\varepsilon$  denotes the ASR, *B* denotes the parallel wall distance, *C* denotes the wave velocity, and  $\Delta x$  denotes the lattice spacing. The referential diffusion number is  $Df_{\rm ref} = 0.1$ . The results of a Newtonian fluid (n = 1) are also provided. The dashed line indicates second-order convergence.

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2} + 3Df, \qquad (23)$$

where *Df* denotes the diffusion number

$$Df = \frac{\mu \Delta t}{\rho \Delta x^2}.$$
 (24)

For power-law fluids, the diffusion number varies with the local shear rate. Thus, we introduce a reference diffusion number  $Df_{ref}$  as follows:

$$Df_{\rm ref} = \frac{k\Delta t}{\rho\Delta x^2} |\dot{\gamma}|_{\rm mean}^{n-1}.$$
 (25)

(b)

Here,  $|\dot{\gamma}|_{\text{mean}}$  denotes the mean shear rate, and we estimate it as  $|\dot{\gamma}|_{\text{mean}} = C/D$  to characterize the global viscosity in the computation domain.

The influence of the ASR on the numerical solution of a twodimensional (2D) Poiseuille flow (see Appendix A) is shown in Fig. 2, where the distance between the parallel plates is denoted by *B*. The cumulant LBM has a second-order accuracy with respect to the grid size for Newtonian fluids (n = 1). When ASR is set as  $eB/C = 10^{-4}$ , the proposed method also has second-order accuracy for the powerlaw fluid with n = 0.21, at least for a range from  $\Delta x/B = 1/25$  to  $\Delta x/B = 1/400$ . Second-order schemes have also been presented in the previous studies.<sup>23–29,34</sup> Hereinafter, we use  $\varepsilon B/C = 10^{-4}$  ( $\varepsilon D/C = 10^{-4}$  for peristaltic transport) unless otherwise noted.

#### **III. ANALYTICAL SOLUTIONS**

First, we investigated the analytical solution of the peristaltic flow generated by a single contraction wave for  $\lambda/D \rightarrow \infty$  and  $Re \rightarrow 0$ . The analytical solution was obtained using the lubrication theory.<sup>1,2,4</sup> For a three-dimensional channel, the relationship between the pressure gradient and flow rate is as follows:

$$\frac{dp}{dx} = -2k \left(\frac{3n+1}{\pi n}\right)^n \frac{1}{h^{3n+1}} (q + \pi Ch^2) |q + \pi Ch^2|^{n-1}, \qquad (26)$$

where the flow rate is as follows:

$$q = \int_0^h 2\pi u r dr, \qquad (27)$$

and the derivation of the analytical solution is presented in Appendix B. The flow rate in the laboratory frame is defined as follows:

$$Q = \int_0^h 2\pi (u+C) r dr = q + \pi C h^2,$$
 (28)

called discharge flow rate. In this study, the discharge flow rate at the outlet (X = L) was calculated.

The contraction ratio may vary over a wide range in physiological conditions. Agbesi and Chevalier,<sup>11</sup> for example, observed  $D_p/D \sim 0.12$ –0.88 in their animal experiments. Figure 3(a) shows the change in the discharge flow rate with the contraction ratio, where  $L/\lambda = 5$ . The discharge flow rate gradually increases with the contraction ratio for n = 1. In the case of n = 0.21, however, the discharge flow rate does not increase with the contraction ratio for the low and middle values of  $D_p/D$  but steeply increases for large values  $(D_p/D \sim 0.75 \text{ or larger})$ .

Figure 3(b) compares the discharge flow rate between n = 1 and n = 0.21 as a function of  $L/\lambda$ . When  $L/\lambda$  is larger, the discharge flow rate decreases for n = 1 and n = 0.21, but the discharge flow rate for n = 0.21 more quickly decays. This results in a large difference in the discharge flow rate between Newtonian and power-law fluids for a single contraction wave. The discharge flow rate for power-law fluids highly depends on the channel length relative to the wavelength.



**FIG. 3.** Analytical solutions of discharge flow rate for  $Re \rightarrow 0$  and  $\lambda/D \rightarrow \infty$  (a) as a function of contraction ratio  $D_p/D$  for  $L/\lambda = 5$  and (b) as a function of  $L/\lambda$  for  $D_p/D = 0.5$ .

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0.25

(a)

Q/D<sup>2</sup>C

0.8

0.4

0.0

0.00



**FIG. 4.** Validation of the present method for peristaltic flow of a power-law fluid with n = 0.21, where Re = 10,  $D_p/D = 0.75$ ,  $L/\lambda = 5$ , and  $\lambda/D = 1$ . (a) Nonphysical oscillations appear at the contracted region of the channel in BGK-LBM, whereas such oscillations do not appear in the cumulant LBM. (b) Effect of the lattice spacing and referential diffusion number on discharge flow rate.

#### IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS

In the present problem, four parameters were expected to influence the flow characteristics:  $D_p/D$ ,  $L/\lambda$ ,  $\lambda/D$ , and *Re*. The effects of  $D_p/D$  and  $L/\lambda$  are discussed in Sec. III, using analytical solutions. In this section, numerical simulation are used to examine the effect of  $\lambda/D$  and *Re*.

#### A. Validation

We first investigated whether the cumulant LBM can suppress the numerical instability that occurs in power-law fluid simulations. We compared the numerical results between the Bhatnagar–Gross–Krook LBM (BGK-LBM) and cumulant LBM for  $D_p/D = 0.75$ , Re = 10,  $\lambda/D = 1$ , and  $L/\lambda = 5$  in Fig. 4(a). In BGK-LBM, nonphysical oscillations appear in the contracted region of the channel. The shear rate increases in this region, and the apparent viscosity decreases according to the power law. This cause Df to be small, resulting in a numerical instability. However, such oscillations were not observed in the cumulant LBM. These results suggest that a cumulant LBM

can be used to avoid the numerical instability problem of power-law fluids.

We also test the convergence of the numerical solution with respect to  $\Delta x/D$  and  $Df_{ref}$ . Figure 4(b) shows the effect of  $\Delta x/D$  and  $Df_{ref}$  on the discharge flow rate. The numerical results were almost the same for  $\Delta x/D = 1/100$  and  $\Delta x/D = 1/125$  for  $0.1 \le Df_{ref} \le 0.5$ . Therefore, in Secs. IV B–IV D and V and Appendix C,  $\Delta x/D = 1/125$  and  $Df_{ref} = 0.1$  are used.

#### **B.** Effects of $\lambda/D$

Next, we investigated the effects of  $\lambda/D$  at a low Reynolds number of Re = 0.1. Figures 5(a) and 5(b) show the discharge flow rates for n = 1 and n = 0.21 as a function of  $\lambda/D$ , where  $D_p/D = 0.5$  and  $L/\lambda = 1$ . Newtonian and power-law fluids exhibit nearly the same dependence on  $\lambda/D$ . The effect of  $\lambda/D$  on the discharge flow rate is limited to short wavelengths of approximately  $\lambda/D \sim 1$ . When  $\lambda/D$  increases, the discharge flow rate converges to that obtained from the analytical solution for  $\lambda/D \to \infty$ .





**FIG. 6.** Discharge flow rate as a function of *R*e, where  $L/\lambda = 5$  and  $D_p/D = 0.5$ : (a) n = 1 and (b) n = 0.21

#### C. Effects of Re

Subsequently, we investigated the effect of *Re* on the peristaltic flow of a power-law fluid. In Fig. 6, the discharge flow rate is shown as a function of *Re* for  $D_p/D = 0.5$  and  $L/\lambda = 5$ , where  $\lambda/D$  varies from 0.8 to 1.2 (approximately 1). For n = 1, there was little change in the discharge flow rate, even when *Re* increased to 10. In contrast, the discharge flow rate increases sharply for n = 0.21. In addition, the discharge flow rate began to increase at a lower *Re* value when  $\lambda/D$  decreased. This indicates that the peristaltic transport of power-law fluids induced by a single contraction wave is highly dependent on *Re* and  $\lambda/D$ .

#### D. Velocity field and pressure

To find the mechanism of changes in the discharge flow rate with Re, we studied the velocity and pressure fields generated by a single contraction wave. We compare streamlines on the laboratory frame between Re = 0.1 and Re = 10 in Fig. 7, where  $L/\lambda = 5$ ,  $\lambda/D = 1$ , and  $D_p/D = 0.5$ . In the case of n = 1, the velocity fields were almost the same for Re = 0.1 and 10. In contrast, the case of n = 0.21, an asymmetric velocity field appears with respect to the contraction wave for Re = 10, with stronger retrograde flow than the other cases.

The analytical solution suggests that the flow rate is proportional to  $(dp/dx)^{1/n}$  for power-law fluids because of apparent viscosity (see

Appendix B). The cross-sectional mean pressure is presented for  $L/\lambda = 5$ , L/D = 1, and  $D_p/D = 0.5$  in Fig. 8, where the numbers with arrows indicate the slope of the least squares fit in the straight region of the channel. For n = 0.21, because of the strong retrograde flow, the pressure drop occurring in the contracted region is much larger for Re = 10 than for Re = 0.1 and increases the magnitude of the pressure gradient in the straight region of the channel. In Fig. 8(b), the pressure gradient for Re = 10 becomes approximately 1.3 times larger than that for Re = 0.1, and this pressure gradient may cause three times larger flow rate in Fig. 6(b).

# V. DISCUSSION

First, we considered the analytical solution of this problem for  $\lambda/D \rightarrow \infty$  and  $Re \rightarrow 0$ . The discharge flow rate of the power-law fluid is much smaller than that of Newtonian fluids. Shukla and Gupta<sup>4</sup> compared the peristaltic flows generated by periodic contraction waves ( $L/\lambda = 1$ ) between Newtonian and power-law fluids. They reported that the flow rates were almost identical. The discrepancy between their results and ours is likely caused by the difference between the isolated and periodic waves, in particular, by the effect of  $L/\lambda$  on the discharge flow rate. As shown in Fig. 3(b), although the discharge flow rates are nearly the same for n = 1 and n = 0.21 at



**FIG. 7.** Laboratory frame streamlines with x-directional velocity magnitude *U/C* at the center plane (XZ plane) of the channel, where  $L/\lambda = 5$ ,  $\lambda/D = 1$ , and  $D_p/D = 0.5$ : (a) Re = 0.1 and n = 1; (b) Re = 0.1 and n = 0.21; (c) Re = 10 and n = 1; and (d) Re = 10 and n = 0.21.



**FIG. 8.** Cross-sectional mean pressure along the channel for  $L/\lambda = 5$ ,  $\lambda/D = 1$ , and  $D_p/D = 0.5$ : (a) n = 1 and (b) n = 0.21. The numbers with arrows indicate the slope of the least squares fit at the straight region of the channel.

 $L/\lambda \sim 1$ , the discharge flow rate of n = 0.21 is much smaller than that of n = 1 at a large value of  $L/\lambda$ .

Next, we performed numerical simulations to investigate the peristaltic flow of the power-law fluid at nonzero Reynolds numbers up to Re = 10. We present a computational framework for power-law fluids based on a cumulant LBM with an ASR. The numerical results demonstrate that the discharge flow rate for the power-law fluid with n = 0.21 sharply increased even at Re = 10, owing to the inertia effect. When a power-law fluid is transported by a single contraction wave with a short wavelength, an asymmetric flow field appears with respect to the contraction wave at Re = 10. Such an asymmetric velocity profile is not an inherent property of peristaltic flow of power-law fluids. As demonstrated in a previous study,<sup>16</sup> an asymmetric velocity profile appears at Re = 100 for Newtonian fluids. These results indicate that power-law fluids with low behavior indices tend to generate asymmetric flows, even at lower Reynolds numbers, than Newtonian fluids.

The inertia effect was increased by the sharpness of the contraction wave, or  $\lambda/D$ . In Fig. 6, we changed the channel length relative to the channel diameter, L/D, but the discharge flow rate at a fixed L/Dmay be more useful under physiological conditions. Figure 9 shows the discharge flow rate at L/D = 5 as a function of *Re*, where  $D_p/D = 0.5$ . At a low *Re*, the discharge flow rate is higher for larger



**FIG. 9.** Discharge flow rate as a function of *Re*, where L/D = 5,  $D_p/D = 0.5$ , and n = 0.21.

values of  $\lambda/D$ ; this relationship is inverted at  $Re \sim 10$ . This suggests that the intestinal contents can be transported more quickly by an isolated contraction wave with a shorter wavelength when Re is increased. In the human intestine, the Reynolds number may reach  $Re \sim O(1)$  for intestinal contents with low consistency indices or fast propagation of contraction waves under pathological conditions. For example, in patients with irritable bowel syndrome, in which diarrhea is the predominant symptom, intestinal contents are transported more rapidly.<sup>35,36</sup> This may be associated with an increase in the Reynolds number and a decrease in the wavelength. Our results would be help-ful for understanding intestinal transport in such patients.

### **VI. CONCLUSIONS**

We have presented the peristaltic transport of a power-law fluid with a low behavior index of n = 0.21, induced by a single contraction wave. The discharge flow rate for the power-law fluid sharply increased owing to the inertia effect. The power-law fluid induces an asymmetric flow field with respect to the contraction wave at smaller Reynolds numbers than Newtonian fluids. The results suggest that intestinal contents can be transported more quickly when the contents have low-consistency indices or when the contraction wave has a large propagation velocity.

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#### AUTHOR DECLARATIONS Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts to disclose.

#### **Author Contributions**

Kohei Maeyama: Data curation (lead); Formal analysis (lead); Investigation (lead); Methodology (equal); Software (equal); Validation (lead); Visualization (lead); Writing – original draft (lead); Writing – review & editing (equal). Shunichi Ishida: Data curation (supporting); Formal analysis (supporting); Investigation (supporting); Methodology (equal); Resources (equal); Software (lead); Validation (supporting); Visualization (supporting); Writing – review & editing (supporting). **Yohsuke Imai:** Conceptualization (lead); Funding acquisition (lead); Investigation (supporting); Methodology (equal); Project administration (lead); Resources (lead); Supervision (lead); Writing – original draft (supporting); Writing – review & editing (lead).

### DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

# APPENDIX A: ANALYTICAL SOLUTION OF 2D POISEUILLE FLOW

The analytical solution of the 2D Poiseuille flow for power-law fluids is obtained as follows:

$$u = \frac{n}{n+1} \left( \frac{1}{k} \frac{dp}{dx} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \left\{ \left( \frac{B}{2} \right)^{1+\frac{1}{n}} - |y|^{1+\frac{1}{n}} \right\},$$
 (A1)

where x and y are the components of the position vector, u denotes the x-directional velocity, p denotes the pressure, B denotes the distance between parallel plates, and k and n denote the consistency and behavior indices, respectively. In Fig. 2, the numerical error is defined as follows:

$$Error = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{node}^{N} \left(\frac{u_{\text{LBM},node} - u_{\text{th},node}}{u_{\text{th},node}}\right)^2},$$
(A2)

where  $u_{\text{LBM,node}}$  and  $u_{\text{th,node}} \neq 0$  denote the numerical and analytical solutions at computational node, respectively, and *N* denotes the number of computational nodes.

## APPENDIX B: ANALYTICAL SOLUTION OF 3D PERISTALTIC FLOW

Using the lubrication theory, the cylindrical form of Eq. (5) can be simplified as follows:

$$\frac{dp}{dx} = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial r}\right) \frac{k}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \left|\frac{\partial u}{\partial r}\right|^n\right),\tag{B1}$$

where r and u denote the radial position and axial velocity, respectively. Using the following boundary conditions:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = 0$$
 at  $r = 0$ ,  $u = -C$  at  $r = h$  (B2)

we obtain the Poiseuille-type velocity profile as follows:

$$u = -C - \text{sgn}\left(\frac{dp}{dx}\right) \left|\frac{1}{2k}\frac{dp}{dx}\right|^{\frac{1}{n}} \frac{n}{n+1} \left(h^{1+\frac{1}{n}} - r^{1+\frac{1}{n}}\right).$$
(B3)

Then, the flow rate is expressed as follows:

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$$q = \int_0^{h(x)} 2\pi r u dr,$$
  
=  $-\pi C h^2 - \pi \operatorname{sgn}\left(\frac{dp}{dx}\right) \left|\frac{1}{2k}\frac{dp}{dx}\right|^{\frac{1}{n}} \frac{n}{3n+1} h^{3+\frac{1}{n}}$  (B4)

and we obtain the following:

$$\frac{dp}{dx} = -2k \left(\frac{3n+1}{\pi n}\right)^n \frac{1}{h^{3n+1}} \left(q + \pi C h^2\right) \left|q + \pi C h^2\right|^{n-1}.$$
 (B5)

#### APPENDIX C: D3Q27 MRT-LBM

We also tested D3Q27 multiple-relaxation-time (MRT) LBM. In this paper, we follow Geier *et al.*<sup>32</sup> The moment  $M_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  is given by

$$M_{\alpha\beta\gamma} = c^{-\alpha-\beta-\gamma} \frac{\partial^{\alpha}\partial^{\beta}\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial \Xi^{\alpha}\partial \Upsilon^{\beta}\partial Z^{\gamma}} F(\Xi)|_{\Xi=\Upsilon=Z=0}.$$
 (C1)

The collision of the particles is written as

$$M^*_{\alpha\beta\gamma} = (1 - s_{\alpha\beta\gamma})M_{\alpha\beta\gamma} + s_{\alpha\beta\gamma}M^{\rm eq}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}, \qquad (C2)$$

where  $M^*_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  denotes the post-collision moment,  $M^{eq}_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  denotes the moment for equilibrium, and  $s_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  denotes the relaxation parameter for MRT-LBM. In this paper, we set the relaxation parameter as

We simulated the same problems as Fig. 4 using MRT-LBM. The MRT-LBM can be applied to this problem, but a slight oscillation near the contraction appears (Fig. 10). The relaxation parameter must be optimized to obtain more proper result.



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