Traction reveals mechanisms of wall effects for microswimmers near boundaries

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The influence of a plane boundary on low-Reynolds-number swimmers has frequently been studied using image systems for flow singularities. However, the boundary effect can also be expressed using a boundary integral representation over the traction on the boundary. We show that examining the traction pattern on the boundary caused by a swimmer can yield physical insights into determining when far-field multipole models are accurate. We investigate the swimming velocities and the traction of a three-sphere swimmer initially placed parallel to an infinite planar wall. In the far field, the instantaneous effect of the wall on the swimmer is well approximated by that of a multipole expansion consisting of a force dipole and a force quadrupole. On the other hand, the swimmer close to the wall must be described by a system of singularities reflecting its internal structure. We show that these limits and the transition between them can be independently identified by examining the traction pattern on the wall, either using a quantitative correlation coefficient or by visual inspection. Last, we find that for nonconstant propulsion, correlations between swimming stroke motions and internal positions are important and not captured by time-averaged traction on the wall, indicating that care must be taken when applying multipole expansions to study boundary effects in cases of nonconstant propulsion.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The propulsion of microscopic organisms and engineered structures has been an area of recent interest. Microorganisms play an active role in nature [1–3], and many species swim through fluids. For example, a bacterium rotates its helical flagella [4] while a sperm propagates traveling wave on its flagellum [5–7] in order to achieve a forward motion. Artificial microrobots capable of propulsion in fluids have also been studied and fabricated [8–16] with many potential applications, such as microsurgery [17,18] and drug delivery [19,20]. To understand how microscale locomotion can be achieved, one can use simplified models of microscale propulsion, including the Taylor sheet [21–23], Purcell's three-link swimmer [24], the three-sphere swimmer [25,26], and the two-sphere swimmer [27].

In the low-Reynolds-number regime encountered by microswimmers, fluid dynamics are governed by the Stokes equation. Due to the linearity of the Stokes equation, a good approach to understand the behavior of microorganisms is to construct flow solutions as the superposition of a discrete set of or continuous distribution of fundamental singular solutions, such as the Stokeslet, which is the flow due to a point force acting on the fluid [28]. For instance, a bacterial flagellum can be modeled by a distribution of Stokeslets and Stokeslet dipoles [29,30], or the entire swimmer can be modeled by a surface distribution of singular solutions [31] or a collection of regularized solutions [32-36]. Reduced order models composed of a discrete set of singular solutions have also been useful, such as for Chlamydomonas [37]. Insight into the flows around swimming organisms can also be obtained by adopting the far-field approximation of a multipole expansion [28,38]. The induced flow field of a bacterium at large distances decays as r^{-2} , indicating that it can also be

treated as a force dipole in the far field [39–41]. Similarly, in the far field, a swimming spermatozoa can be modeled as a combination of Stokeslet dipole and quadrupole [42]. The far-field character can also be altered on time averaging, for example, the flow induced by a three-sphere swimmer modeled as three Stokeslets switches from dipolar to quadrupolar on time averaging [43].

Since microswimmers often swim in confined spaces near boundaries, there is interest in understanding the effects of boundaries on swimming [44–51]. In this case, it has also been useful to employ singularity approaches and far-field multipole expansions [50,52,53]. In the presence of a boundary, the image system method [54] can be applied to satisfy the noslip boundary conditions for singular solutions. Spagnolie et al. [55] have shown that for large distances from the boundary, a far-field multipole expansion and its image system can accurately predict the effects of boundaries on pitching movements for swimmers with steady propulsion mechanisms. However, they find that the closest approach to the boundary for which the approach is valid depends on geometry and mode of propulsion of the swimmer and could range from tenths of body lengths to approximately a single body length, with no a priori way of determining the range of validity.

Here we take advantage of the fact that the Lorentz reciprocal theorem implies that the flow field induced by a particular singularity and its images can also be expressed in terms of the traction exerted by the boundary on the fluid [28,56]. This is analogous to how in electrostatics the electric field near a conductor can be represented using either image charges or a charge distribution on the conducting surface. The image system method is usually simpler and the more common approach, but we suggest that examining the traction on the boundary can give additional insight into boundary effects that are harder to access by the image system approach.

In this article, we theoretically analyze the spatial pattern of traction on the wall induced by a swimmer in vicinity of an infinite planar wall. We use a three-sphere swimmer [25]

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initially placed parallel to the wall. We obtain exact solutions using the image system method to find the instantaneous forces acting on the three spheres and the instantaneous velocity of the swimmer. As a function of distance from the wall, we identify when far-field approximations of the swimmer based on multipole expansions and image velocity fields are appropriate to describe the effect of the boundary. We then evaluate the distribution of traction on the wall and show that examining the traction pattern gives insight into whether the far-field approximation applies or, in contrast, the internal structure of the swimmer must be taken into account. Thus the traction provides an independent way to check and understand when the multipole expansion is valid. We discuss the effect of time averaging on our results. The conclusions should be generalizable to more realistic swimmers in addition to the three-sphere swimmer.

II. SWIMMER MODEL

For a low-Reynolds-number swimmer swimming in vicinity of a planar wall, conventional methods apply the image system approach to solve for the forces acting on a swimmer and the flow field generated by the swimmer. For a three-sphere swimmer, we follow Zargar *et al.* [57] to find swimming velocities using the image system approach. Using the same method, we generate solutions for traction. We then compare this method to a method that relies solely on the traction on the wall and analyze the traction patterns for insights.

We consider a three-sphere swimmer [25] with spheres of equal radius a swimming in a fluid with viscosity μ near an infinite planar wall at $x_1 = 0$ (Fig. 1). The three spheres from left to right are labeled as sphere 1, 2, and 3, respectively, and the prescribed lengths of the left and right arms, l^{12} and l^{23} , are

$$l^{12}(t) = L + \zeta \cos(\omega t), \tag{1}$$

$$l^{23}(t) = L + \zeta \cos(\omega t + \phi). \tag{2}$$

Initially, the swimmer is placed parallel to and at a distance h from the infinite wall. In this paper we nondimensionalize all physical parameters using the viscosity μ , the angular

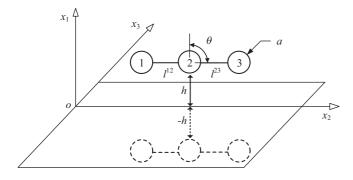


FIG. 1. A three-sphere swimmer and its image system with respect to an infinite planar wall. Spheres with radius a are labeled $\alpha=1,2,3$ from left to right. The two arms l^{12} and l^{23} perform periodic motions. Initially, the swimmer is placed parallel to the wall $(\theta=\pi/2)$.

frequency ω , and the characteristic length of the swimmer L; for example, the nondimensionalized arm length $\tilde{l}^{12}=1+\tilde{\zeta}\cos(t)$. For convenience, in the remainder of the paper, we drop tildes and all variables refer to dimensionless quantities unless otherwise specified. All results presented are for sphere radii a=0.01, amplitude of the harmonic motion $\zeta=0.1$, and phase angle $\phi=\pi/2$. For $a\ll 1$ and as long as $a\ll h$, each sphere can be modeled as a Stokeslet placed at its geometric center. Note that we set the axis of the swimmer to coincide with the plane $x_3=0$ so the swimmer's motion remains in the x_2 - x_1 plane.

The position of each sphere can be related to the center of mass of the swimmer \mathbf{x}^0 ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{\alpha} \\ x_2^{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^{0} \\ x_2^{0} \end{bmatrix} + G^{\alpha} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}, \tag{3}$$

where \mathbf{x} is the position vector, the superscript $\alpha = 1,2,3$ represents the sphere number, subscripts denote directional components, and

$$G^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} (-2l^{12} - l^{23})/3, & \alpha = 1\\ (l^{12} - l^{23})/3, & \alpha = 2.\\ (l^{12} + 2l^{23})/3, & \alpha = 3 \end{cases}$$
 (4)

Differentiating Eq. (3) relates the velocity of each sphere \mathbf{v}^{α} , to the swimmer's velocity \mathbf{v}^{0} , rotation rate $\dot{\theta}$, and arm lengths l:

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1^{\alpha} \\ v_2^{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1^{0} \\ v_2^{0} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -\sin\theta \\ \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \dot{\theta} G^{\alpha} + \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \dot{G}^{\alpha}. \tag{5}$$

To find the velocity of the swimmer, we utilize the Blakeslet [54], which is the solution to a point force acting on a fluid in the presence of a no-slip boundary [57]. The Blakeslet consists of a Stokeslet (S) and a set of images (St) placed below the boundary, which are explicitly defined in Appendix A. Following the conventions of Appendix A, the velocity of sphere α can be represented as

$$v_i^{\alpha} = \sum_{\beta=1}^{3} [S_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{\beta}) + St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{\beta*})] f_j^{\beta}, \tag{6}$$

where \mathbf{f}^{β} is the force acting on sphere β , \mathbf{x}^{β} is the Stokeslet location, and $\mathbf{x}^{\beta*}$ the corresponding image location.

Since inertia is negligible at low Reynolds number, the total force and torque acting on the three-sphere swimmer are zero,

$$\sum_{\beta=1}^{3} \mathbf{f}^{\beta} = 0,\tag{7}$$

$$\sum_{\beta=1}^{3} -G^{\beta} \sin \theta f_{1}^{\beta} + G^{\beta} \cos \theta f_{2}^{\beta} = 0.$$
 (8)

Equations (3)–(8) are a linear system which can be solved to obtain \mathbf{v}^0 , \mathbf{v}^{α} , and \mathbf{f}^{β} .

In the following we decompose the total velocity of the swimmer into two parts, $\mathbf{v}^0 = \mathbf{v}^{0*} + \mathbf{u}^{0*}$. The first is due to the

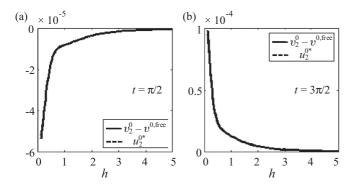


FIG. 2. The change in swimming velocity due to the wall (solid line), $v_2^0 - v^{0,\text{free}}$, and the wall-induced velocity (dashed line), u_2^{0*} , versus the (nondimensional) initial distance from the wall at (a) $t = \pi/2$ and (b) $t = 3\pi/2$. Note that both lines coincide.

three Stokeslets,

$$v_i^{0*} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{\alpha\beta} [S_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{\beta})] f_j^{\beta}, \tag{9}$$

and the other due to their corresponding images, which we call the wall-induced swimming velocity,

$$u_i^{0*} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{\alpha\beta} [St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{\beta*})] f_j^{\beta}. \tag{10}$$

On the other hand, in the absence of the wall, the velocity of the free swimmer can be expressed as

$$v_i^{0,\text{free}} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{\alpha\beta} [S_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{\beta})] f_j^{\beta,\text{free}}.$$
 (11)

The change in swimming velocity due to the wall, $\mathbf{v}^0 - \mathbf{v}^{0,\text{free}}$, is not precisely equal to \mathbf{u}^{0*} because the forces \mathbf{f}^β differ from $\mathbf{f}^{\beta,\text{free}}$. However, they are quite close, meaning that most of the change in velocity is caused by the wall-induced velocity rather than changes in the internal forces of the swimmer (Fig. 2). Thus, in the following, we concentrate on how well the wall-induced velocity \mathbf{u}^{0*} can be approximated by a far-field approach and how that is reflected in the traction. Last, we define the wall-induced velocity field at any point \mathbf{x}^p , calculated as

$$u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^p) = \sum_{\beta=1}^3 St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^p, \mathbf{x}^{\beta*}) f_j^{\beta}.$$
 (12)

The image system method is analogous to that used in electrostatics to find electric fields near conducting planes. In the electrostatic case, the field is physically produced by the combined effect of the original charge and the surface charge distribution on the conductor. Similarly, in the hydrodynamic case, the wall-induced velocity can be represented as that due to a force distribution (traction) on the boundary, which is the wall's portion of the single-layer representation of the velocity field [56]. Details are written explicitly in Appendix B, but, to summarize, in our case we first evaluate the traction on the wall $\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}$ due to a Blakeslet at \mathbf{x}^{β} with force \mathbf{f}^{β} , which we write as $\tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}},\mathbf{x}^{\beta})f_{j}^{\beta}$. For three spheres with forces \mathbf{f}^{β} , the traction

at \mathbf{x}^{w} induced by the three sphere swimmer can be obtained as

$$T_i(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_{\beta=1}^{3} \tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{x}^{\beta}) f_j^{\beta}.$$
 (13)

Further substituting $T(x^w)$ into Eq. (B13) allows us to evaluate the flow field at x^p by integrating the flow produced by the traction forces acting over the entire wall surface S,

$$u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{p}}) = \int_{S} S_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{p}}, \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{w}}) T_j(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{w}}) dS.$$
 (14)

This is an alternative way to compute the result of Eq. (12) and suggests that analyzing the traction will give insight into the nature of the effect of the wall on swimming velocities.

III. INSTANTANEOUS RESPONSE

In this section, we use the image system method to calculate the swimming velocity of the swimmer as a function of the distance from the wall and then analyze the wall contribution in terms of a multipole expansion. Comparing the two, we determine when the multipole expansion is valid and the internal structure of the swimmer can be ignored. Then we turn to the traction and show that the range of validity of the multipole expansion can be independently determined by observing when the spatial pattern of the traction resembles those expected from pure multipoles.

The image system method follows the results reported by Zargar et al. [57]. To analyze the instantaneous flow field, we set our point of interest \mathbf{x}^p to be at the instantaneous positions of the three spheres \mathbf{x}^{α} . The average of the three velocities at these positions yields the instantaneous flow velocity at thecenter of mass of the swimmer due to its image system \mathbf{u}^{0*} . Our focus is the instantaneous velocity along the x_2 direction since $u_2^*(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha})$ is significantly larger than the translational velocity in the x_1 direction and the rotational velocity. Since both forces on three spheres and sphere positions vary with time, the magnitude of wall-induced velocities and the multipole expansions both vary over a cycle. However, at all times we checked throughout the cycle we find the behavior described below; as representative examples we plot the x_2 component of the instantaneous wallinduced velocities $u_2^*(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha})$ and u_2^{0*} at two time points $t = \pi/2$ and $t = 3\pi/2$ are shown in Fig. 3 (solid blue lines).

We perform a multipole expansion on Eq. (12) by defining $\mathbf{d}^{\beta*} = \mathbf{x}^{\beta*} - \mathbf{x}^{0*}$ as the image displacement vector from the image center of mass of the swimmer to the image sphere β . The expansion is expected to be valid when the swimmer is far away from the wall, or $|\mathbf{x}^{\alpha} - \mathbf{x}^{0*}| \gg |\mathbf{d}^{\beta*}|$ for any α , β . Performing a Taylor expansion around the image center of mass of the swimmer, we obtain

$$u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}) = \sum_{\beta=1}^3 St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{0*}) f_j^{\beta}$$

$$+ \partial_k St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{0*}) f_j^{\beta} d_k^{\beta*}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \partial_l \partial_k St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}, \mathbf{x}^{0*}) f_j^{\beta} d_k^{\beta*} d_l^{\beta*} + \cdots, \qquad (15)$$

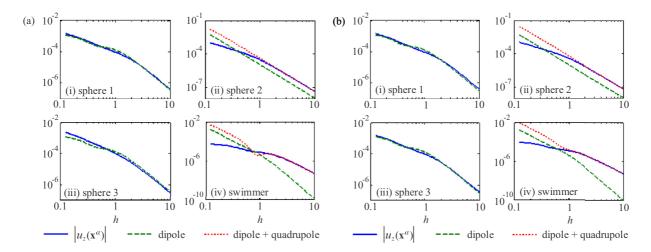


FIG. 3. The log-log plots of the magnitude of velocities versus the (nondimensional) initial distance from the wall at (a) $t = \pi/2$ and (b) $t = 3\pi/2$. The solid blue line represents the exact wall-induced velocity of (i) sphere 1, (ii) sphere 2, (iii) sphere 3, and (iv) the swimmer. The dashed green line represents the corresponding dipolar model. The dotted red line represents the corresponding combination of the dipole and quadrupole model.

where the derivatives act on the second argument of St. The first three terms in the expansion represent the wall contribution of a Stokeslet, a Stokeslet dipole, and a Stokeslet quadrupole, respectively. The first term vanishes since the swimmer is force free, so the subsequent dipolar term is the leading-order contribution to the wall-induced velocity. As seen from Figs. 3(a) and 3(b) in panels (i) and (iii) (dashed green lines), the dipole model matches well with the actual wall-induced velocity (solid blue lines) at \mathbf{x}^1 and \mathbf{x}^3 for h > 2, which indicates that the image system of a three-sphere swimmer at a large distance to the wall is well represented by that of a Stokeslet dipole. However, the velocity $\mathbf{u}^*(\mathbf{x}^2)$ is much smaller than $\mathbf{u}^*(\mathbf{x}^1)$ or $\mathbf{u}^*(\mathbf{x}^3)$ [note the vertical scale on Figs. 3(a) and 3(b), panels (ii)]. This is due to the fact that $\mathbf{x}^2 - \mathbf{x}^{0*}$ and the image displacement vectors $\mathbf{d}^{\beta*}$ are almost perpendicular to the forces \mathbf{f}^{β} , and the wall-induced velocity of a dipole image vanishes in that direction. Therefore the subsequent term in the multipole expansion, the quadrupole, is needed to accurately describe the actual wall-induced velocity for sphere 2 [Figs. 3(a) and 3(b), panels (ii)].

The wall-induced contribution to the center-of-mass swimming velocity [Figs. 3(a) and 3(b), panels (iv)] is the average of the wall-induced velocities of the three spheres. The dipolar wall-induced center-of-mass swimming velocity nearly vanishes because the contribution of sphere 2 is negligible and the contributions of sphere 1 and 3 nearly cancel: \mathbf{x}^1 and \mathbf{x}^3 are almost symmetric about \mathbf{x}^0 but the x_2 component of the dipolar velocity is odd in the x_2 direction. Therefore, the multipole expansion of the center-of-mass swimming velocity requires the quadrupolar term to be accurate. At a given distance from the wall, the instantaneous validity of the multipole expansion holds for all times during the cycle. In summary, the multipole expansion is valid for h > 2 both for individual spheres and the center-of-mass velocity, as long as both dipole and quadrupole contributions are included.

The multipole expansion, however, is not suitable to describe a three-sphere swimmer close to the wall (h < 2). When the swimmer approaches the wall, distances from spheres to

the image center-of-mass \mathbf{x}^{0*} approach similar magnitude to the image displacements $\mathbf{d}^{\beta*}$. As a result, our assumption for the multipole expansion breaks down. Instead, one must use the full expression for the velocity field which for our simple swimmer includes a separate Stokeslet for each sphere. For a more complicated swimmer, this corresponds to contributions to the velocity field which depend on the detailed internal structure and movement of parts of the swimmer rather than a far-field representation as a series of pointlike singularities.

As mentioned earlier, the wall-induced velocity can also be calculated using the wall traction approach. We verified that the wall traction approach yields the same results as the image approach by comparing $\mathbf{u}^*(\mathbf{x}^\alpha)$ obtained using Eq. (12) and Eq. (14) (data not shown). Here we examine the spatial pattern of the traction on the wall more closely. The traction on a fixed point \mathbf{x}^w due to the Blakeslet system of all the three spheres β can be written as

$$T_i(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_{\beta=1}^{3} \tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{x}^{\beta}) f_j^{\beta}.$$
 (16)

When the swimmer is placed far from the wall, we are able to expand the traction expression above as

$$T_i(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_{\beta=1}^{3} \tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{x}^0) f_j^{\beta} + \partial_k \tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{x}^0) f_j^{\beta} d_k^{\beta}, \qquad (17)$$

where the derivative is taken on the second argument of τ , and the displacement vector $\mathbf{d}^{\beta} = \mathbf{x}^{\beta} - \mathbf{x}^{0}$. The first and second terms represent the contribution of the Blakeslet and Blakeslet dipole, respectively. The force-free condition eliminates the first term in the expansion. We expect the multipole expansion for the velocity to be valid if and only if the expansion in Eq. (17) is valid for the traction. Hence, examining when the traction resembles that of a pure dipole should provide a way to gain a diagnosis of validity for the multipole expansion that does not require calculating the exact result. In Fig. 4, we plot the instantaneous traction exerted by the three-sphere swimmer

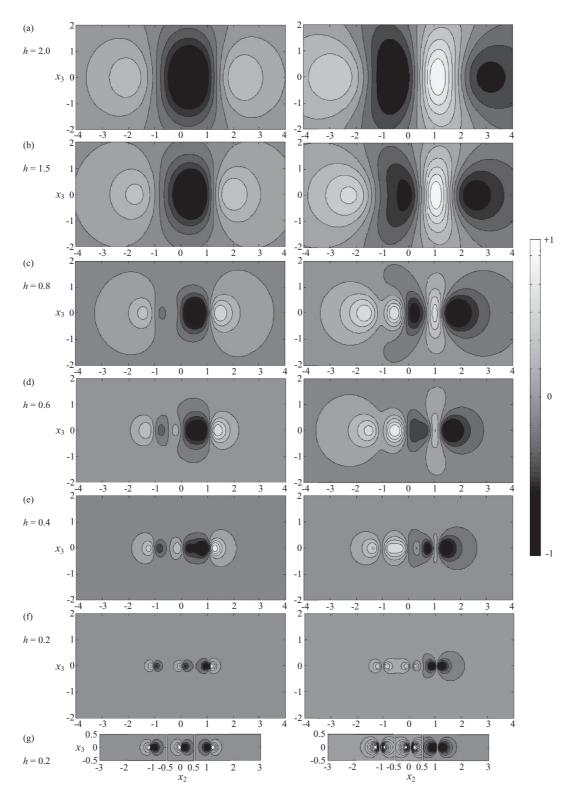


FIG. 4. The instantaneous traction in the x_1 direction (left) and in the x_2 direction (right) exerted by a three-sphere swimmer at $t = \pi/2$ when the (nondimensional) initial distance from the wall is (a) h = 2.0, (b) h = 1.5, (c) h = 0.8, (d) h = 0.6, (e) h = 0.4, and (f) h = 0.2. The instantaneous traction exerted by individual spheres at h = 0.2 is shown in (g). In each panel, the values are scaled by the largest magnitude traction in that panel.

at selected initial distance from the wall. For comparison, the Blakeslet dipole traction is plotted in Fig. 5(a).

To quantify how much the traction due to the threesphere swimmer differs from that expected from a farfield Blakeslet dipole, we analyze the spatial distribution of these two tractions using a traction correlation coefficient modified from the statistical two-dimensional correlation coefficient. The traction correlation coefficient, R,

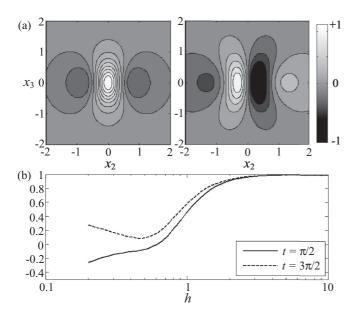


FIG. 5. (a) The traction plot in the x_1 direction (left) and in the x_2 direction (right) of a Blakeslet dipole when the only nonzero component of dipole strength is $f_2d_2 = 1$. The dipole is placed at a (nondimensional) distance h = 1 from the wall. In each panel, the values are scaled by the largest magnitude traction in that panel. (b) Instantaneous traction correlation coefficient, which quantifies the correlation between the instantaneous traction due to the swimmer and a Stokeslet dipole with corresponding dipole strength $\sum_{\beta} \mathbf{f}^{\beta} \mathbf{d}^{\beta}$ at $t = \pi/2$ (solid line) and $t = 3\pi/2$ (dashed line).

is defined as

$$R = \frac{\int_{S} \frac{T_{i} T_{i}^{BD}}{r^{2}} dS}{\sqrt{\left[\int_{S} \frac{T_{i} T_{i}}{r^{2}} dS\right] \left[\int_{S} \frac{T_{i}^{BD} T_{i}^{BD}}{r^{2}} dS\right]}},$$
 (18)

where T_i and $T_i^{\rm BD}$ are the spatial distribution of the traction in the i direction (i=1,2,3) due to the swimmer and the Blakeslet dipole, respectively; 1/r is the reciprocal of the three-dimensional distance from the point on the wall to the center of mass of the swimmer or multipole, which takes into account the decay of the Blakeslet velocity from the traction point to the swimmer; and S is the area of integration on the wall. R=0 represents no correlation between the two tractions being compared while R=-1 and R=+1 represent prefect negative and positive correlation, respectively. We find that the correlation coefficient can be evaluated using S with linear dimension approximately one order of magnitude larger than h (details in Appendix D). Note that a correlation coefficient similar to Eq. (18) but without the 1/r factor yields similar results.

As seen from Fig. 5(b), the correlation coefficient in both directions approaches 1 as h passes 0.8 and becomes close to 1 at $h \approx 2$ ($R \mid_{t=\pi/2} = 0.91$ and $R \mid_{t=3\pi/2} = 0.93$ at h=2.0). The same conclusion can be drawn by visually examining the traction pattern: For h>2, the traction pattern [Fig. 4(a)] resembles that of a pure dipole with force and displacement in the x_2 direction [Fig. 5(a)]. This traction results from the far-field superposition of the tractions from all three spheres. As the swimmer approaches the wall, the internal structure of

the swimmer becomes visible as individual contributions of the spheres become distinguishable and one can visually see that the traction becomes different from that of a pure dipole. We show this in Fig. 4 for decreasing h: At h=1.5 [Fig. 4(b)] the traction has visible distortion, at h=0.8 [Fig. 4(c)] hints of the influence of sphere 2 appear as an additional positive peak at $x_2 \approx -0.75$, at h=0.6 [Fig. 4(d)] the influence of sphere 2 causes an additional positive peak at $x_2 \approx -0.25$ in the x_1 component of traction, at h=0.4 [Fig. 4(e)] the right lobe of the traction of sphere 2 [Fig. 4(g), middle panel] begins to be visible at $x_2 \approx 0.25$ in the x_2 component of traction and the left lobe is at $x_2 \approx -0.25$ in the x_1 component, and at $x_2 \approx 0.25$ in the $x_2 \approx 0.25$ in

In summary, because the dipole term is the first nonvanishing term of the multipole expansion, by calculating the correlation [Eq. (18)] or visually examining whether the traction resembles that of a pure dipole one can determine at what distance from the boundary the far-field multipole expansion treatment of images becomes an accurate representation of the effect of the boundary on swimming. Note that for a swimmer with complex geometry, if the traction can be observed (experimentally or numerically, see discussion), this avoids the need for a numerical model to calculate the exact boundary traction and opens the door to justify the use of simplified models of boundary effects. In that regard, however, one should keep in mind that higher-order terms (but perhaps not too many) of the multipole expansion may be necessary to accurately find the velocity, as can already be seen in the example of the three-sphere swimmer we have investigated.

IV. TIME-AVERAGED RESPONSE

We have shown that traction patterns can be used to indicate when far-field approximations accurately represent boundary effects for instantaneous velocities. It has been suggested [55] that swimmers with a constant or time-averaged propulsion mechanism may have boundary effects that differ from those with time-varying strokes. We address this question by examining whether the traction approach could be used to correlate time-averaged traction with time-averaged swimming velocities. To proceed, we first use the image system method to calculate the exact time-averaged velocity of a swimmer as a function of distance from the wall. We use angular brackets ($\langle \cdot \rangle$) to signify time averaging over one period of the swimming stroke.

Linear-log and absolute log-log plots of the x_2 component of the normalized wall-induced average velocity of the swimmer $(\langle u_2^*(\mathbf{x}^0) \rangle / \langle v^{0,\text{free}} \rangle)$ as a function of h are shown in Figs. 6(a) and 6(b) (solid blue lines), respectively. When h > 16.8, the swimmer is sped up by the wall. For h < 16.8, the swimmer is slowed down by the wall. The change in sign of the boundary effect around h = 16.8 manifests as the negative divergence of the logarithm in Fig. 6(b).

At h = 20 [Fig. 7(a)], which is deep in the far field, the traction appears to be nearly the same as that produced by a pure quadrupole near a boundary [Fig. 8(a)]. This is consistent with the fact that, due to the symmetry of the stroke, the time-averaged velocity field is quadrupolar, not dipolar [43]. Using this insight, we can model the effect of the wall on the swimming velocity by expressing it as the extra advection at

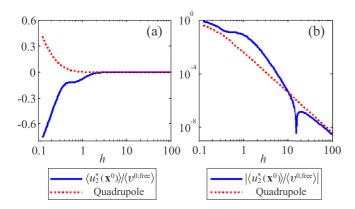


FIG. 6. (a) Semilog and (b) absolute log-log scale of the normalized time-averaged wall-induced velocity of a three-sphere swimmer in the x_2 direction $\langle u_2^*(\mathbf{x}^0) \rangle / \langle v^{0,\text{free}} \rangle$ (solid blue line) and a Stokeslet quadrupole model (dotted red line) versus the (nondimensional) initial distance from the wall.

the time-averaged center-of-mass location of the swimmer ($\overline{\mathbf{x}}^0$) due to the quadrupolar image system located at $\overline{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}$,

$$\langle u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^0) \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\beta=1}^3 \partial_l \partial_k St_{ij}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}^0, \overline{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}) \langle f_j^\beta d_k^{\beta*} d_l^{\beta*} \rangle, \tag{19}$$

where $\mathbf{d}^{\beta*} = \mathbf{x}^{\beta*} - \overline{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}$ is now defined as the image displacement vector from the time-averaged image center of mass to image sphere β , and the derivatives act on the second argument of **St**. The last term in brackets is the quadrupole strength. For h > 16.8, the change in velocity due to the boundary predicted

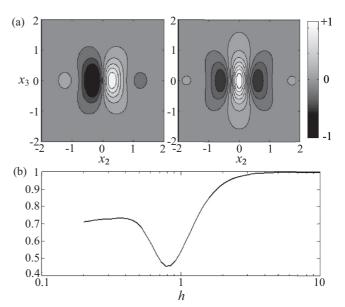


FIG. 8. (a) The traction plot in the x_1 direction (left) and in the x_2 direction (right) of a Blakeslet quadrupole when the only nonzero component of quadrupole strength is $f_2d_2d_2=1$. The quadrupole is placed at a (nondimensional) distance h=1 from the wall. In each panel, the values are scaled by the largest magnitude traction in that panel. (b) Traction correlation coefficient quantifying the correlation between the time-averaged traction due to the swimmer and a Stokeslet quadrupole with corresponding quadrupolar strength $\sum_{\beta} \mathbf{f}^{\beta} \mathbf{d}^{\beta} \mathbf{d}^{\beta}$.

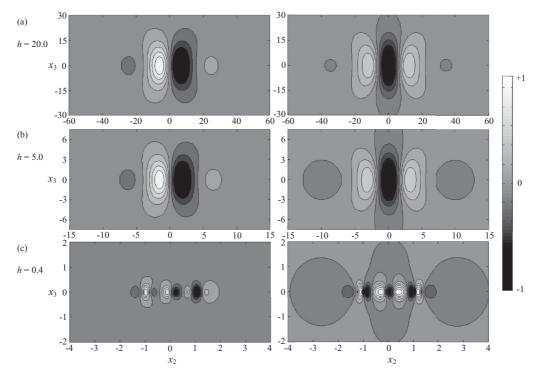


FIG. 7. The time-averaged traction in the x_1 direction (left) and in the x_2 direction (right) exerted by a three-sphere swimmer at the (nondimensional) initial distance from the wall (a) h = 20.0, (b) h = 5.0, and (c) h = 0.4. In each panel, the values are scaled by the largest magnitude traction in that panel.

by this model (Fig. 6, dotted red lines) agrees well with the actual wall-induced velocity (Fig. 6, solid blue lines).

It is apparent that for h < 16.8, the quadrupolar model of Eq. (19) does not do well. In fact, the quadrupolar model always predicts an increase in swimming speed of the swimmer, while for h < 16.8, the swimming speed is decreased by the wall, so the quadrupolar model is qualitatively inaccurate. However, if one examines the traction as h decreases, one finds that the traction pattern continues to resemble that of a pure quadrupole until $h \approx 5$ [Fig. 7(b)]. We adopt the same traction correlation coefficient analysis defined in Eq. (18) except using the time-averaged traction of the swimmer and the corresponding Blakeslet quadrupolar traction. As seen from Fig. 8(b), it is only for $h \lesssim 2$ that the traction reveals signatures of the individual spheres, i.e., the internal structure of the swimmer in the near-field [e.g., Fig. 7(c) at h = 0.4]. Thus, for time-averaged velocities, the traction does not seem to reflect the accuracy of a corresponding multipole model for the wall-induced velocity.

We can understand why one must be careful in connecting time-averaged tractions to time-averaged swimming velocities as follows. The wall-induced swimming velocity can be written as the average of the time-averaged wall-induced velocity over the three spheres:

$$\langle u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^0) \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{\alpha\beta} \langle St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^\alpha, \mathbf{x}^{\beta*}) f_j^\beta \rangle. \tag{20}$$

In the far field, where $h \gg 1$, we can expand this as follows:

$$\langle u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^0) \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{\alpha\beta} St_{ij}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^0, \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}) \langle f_j^{\beta} \rangle$$

$$+ \partial_k^{(2)} St_{ij}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^0, \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}) \langle d_k^{\beta*} f_j^{\beta} \rangle$$

$$+ \partial_k^{(1)} St_{ij}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^0, \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}) \langle d_k^{\alpha} f_j^{\beta} \rangle$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \partial_k^{(1)} \partial_l^{(1)} St_{ij}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^0, \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}) \langle d_k^{\alpha} d_l^{\alpha} f_j^{\beta} \rangle$$

$$+ \partial_k^{(1)} \partial_l^{(2)} St_{ij}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^0, \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}) \langle d_k^{\alpha} d_l^{\beta*} f_j^{\beta} \rangle$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \partial_k^{(2)} \partial_l^{(2)} St_{ij}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^0, \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}) \langle d_k^{\beta*} d_l^{\beta*} f_j^{\beta} \rangle. \tag{21}$$

where $\mathbf{d}^{\beta*} = \mathbf{x}^{\beta*} - \overline{\mathbf{x}}^{0*}$, $\mathbf{d}^{\alpha} = \mathbf{x}^{\alpha} - \overline{\mathbf{x}}^{0}$, while $\partial^{(1)}$ and $\partial^{(2)}$ denote derivatives taken with respect to the first and second arguments of St, respectively. The last term in this expression gives the quadrupolar model. While the first and second term involve the total average force on the swimmer and the average dipole of the swimmer, respectively, and hence vanish, the averages in the third term do not vanish in general. These averages capture the correlation between the motion of the spheres and the hydrodynamic influence of one sphere on another, which are crucial to correctly determining average swimming speeds. On the other hand, the time-averaged traction is evaluated at a fixed point on the boundary [see Eq. (13)], and hence cannot capture these correlations, and provides an inaccurate picture of the contributions to the time-averaged wall-induced velocity. We conclude that while the instantaneous traction is useful to understand when far-field models will be accurate representations for the effects of boundaries on instantaneous swimming speeds, one must

be more careful about using time-averaged traction to make conclusions about time-averaged swimming speeds.

V. DISCUSSION

We have investigated the effect of a boundary on a threesphere swimmer to exemplify the use of wall tractions for understanding boundary effects. For instantaneous swimming velocities, the boundary effect on the swimming velocity of the three-sphere swimmer is first calculated using the image system method, which allowed us to establish the limits of validity of a multipole representation of the boundary effects. We show that the range of validity of the multipole representation can be independently be diagnosed by comparing the wall traction to that of a pure multipole, either using a correlation coefficient or by visual inspection. When the wall traction is dissimilar to that of a pure multipole, the multipole representation is not valid and the inner structure of the swimmer is important for the swimmer-boundary interaction. However, we find that one should be cautious when using the time-averaged traction to draw conclusions about the validity of multipole approximations for boundary effects on time-averaged swimming speeds. Although the three-sphere swimmer is rather simple, it is a clear realization of a swimmer that, like many biological swimmers, has near-field velocity fields that differ considerably from a far-field multipole representation. Thus, we expect that the insights gained can be applied to similar transitions in the validity of multipole expansions for more realistic swimmers compared to models that incorporate near-field details.

This work has some practical use since it demonstrates an independent way to find the limit of validity of the multipole representation for boundary effects. For numerical calculations, we can leverage our findings to determine whether the multipole representation of boundary effects is valid without having to do a full calculation of the boundary effects including near-field details, which was not possible in previous approaches [55]. Our results suggest that simply analyzing the correlation between the velocity field for an unconfined swimmer and the corresponding multipole expansion is enough to make conclusions about the range of validity of using the multipole expansion for boundary effects. To test this, we have analyzed the velocity and stress fields due to an unbounded three-sphere swimmer on an imaginary plane parallel to the axis of the swimmer. Using a correlation coefficient similar to Eq. (18), but in the absence of a boundary, we determine how far away from the swimmer the stress or velocity field of the swimmer is similarly to a multipole-like stress-velocity field. When the distance from the swimmer to the imaginary plane is more than 2L, the unbounded swimmer behaves like a Stokeslet dipole (velocity: $R \mid_{t=\pi/2} = 0.97$ and $R \mid_{t=3\pi/2} = 0.97$; stress: $R \mid_{t=\pi/2} = 0.91$ and $R \mid_{t=3\pi/2} = 0.93$) (Fig. 9). Therefore, even without calculating full boundary effects, one could diagnose whether to use images of a detailed discretization or of an image multipole to treat boundary effects accurately in a computation.

Experimentally, one could apply our results and test the correlation of the wall traction with that of a pure multipole by using traction force microscopy (TFM) [58] to directly measure the wall traction near a swimmer. In short, the

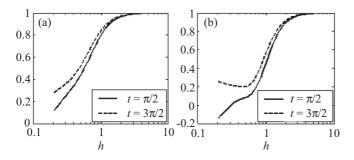


FIG. 9. (a) Velocity correlation coefficient and (b) stress correlation coefficient quantifying the correlation between the unbounded swimmer and a Stokeslet dipole at $t = \pi/2$ (solid lines) and $t = 3\pi/2$ (dashed lines).

forces on the boundary are quantified by the deformation of a thin layer (\sim 20 μ m) of substrate on glass slides, and the strain on substrate is quantified through tracking the lateral displacement of nanoscale fiducial markers embedded in the substrate. TFM can measure the magnitude of the deformation down to tens of nanometers at submicrometer spatial resolution [59,60] corresponding to nanonewtons of force. However, note that if the frequency of the swimming stroke is higher than or in the same order of the microscopy video frequency. TFM can only capture the time-averaged traction due to the microswimmer, resulting in qualitative conclusion of the wall traction approach. Experiments on traction measurement could be feasible for pelagic crustaceans with characteristic length up to several millimeters but would be technically challenging for microscale microswimmers. Following the observations made in the previous paragraph, an additional experimental way to apply our results is to measure velocity fields of freely swimming microorganisms away from boundaries via particle image velocimetry (PIV) and compare those to pure multipoles, which can be achieved for microorganisms as small as Chlamydomonas (10–30 μ m) [37,61]. The results would indicate whether models of wall effects on swimming behavior require detailed treatments of near-field hydrodynamics or could use simplified multipole representations.

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APPENDIX A: IMAGE SYSTEM METHOD

The fundamental solution of the Stokes equation at low Reynolds number is the Stokeslet, or the velocity at an arbitrary point \mathbf{x}^p due to a point force \mathbf{f} acting at \mathbf{x}^0 [28],

$$u_i^{\mathrm{s}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{p}}) = S_{ii}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{p}}, \mathbf{x}^0) f_i, \tag{A1}$$

where the Stokeslet kernel $S_{ij} = \frac{\delta_{ij}}{8\pi r} + \frac{(x_i^p - x_i^0)(x_j^p - x_j^0)}{8\pi r^3}$ and $r = [(x_i^p - x_i^0)(x_i^p - x_i^0)]^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

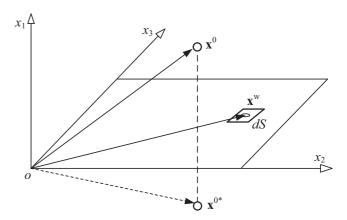


FIG. 10. A Stokeslet at \mathbf{x}^0 and its image system at \mathbf{x}^{0*} with the infinite wall located at $x_1 = 0$ plane. An infinitesimal area dS on the wall is centered at \mathbf{x}^w .

The method of images for a Stokeslet is commonly used to satisfy the no-slip boundary condition of an infinite planar wall at $x_1 = 0$ (Fig. 10) [54]. The entire space above the wall is filled with viscous fluid, and a Stokeslet $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$ is placed at $\mathbf{x}^0 = (h, x_2, x_3)$, where h is the distance to the wall. A set of singular images consisting of an image Stokeslet, a potential dipole, and a Stokeslet doublet are placed at the image location \mathbf{x}^{0*} such that $\mathbf{x}^{0*} = \mathbf{x}^0 - 2(\mathbf{x}^0 \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n}$, where $\mathbf{n} = (1,0,0)$ is the unit vector perpendicular to the wall. Thus, the velocity of a point \mathbf{x}^p due to the image system of a Stokeslet, named the wall-induced velocity $\mathbf{u}^*(\mathbf{x}^p)$, is

$$u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^p) = u_i^{s*}(\mathbf{x}^p) + u_i^{pd}(\mathbf{x}^p) + u_i^{sd}(\mathbf{x}^p),$$
 (A2)

where

$$u_i^{s*}(\mathbf{x}^p) = S_{ii}(\mathbf{x}^p, \mathbf{x}^{0*})(-f_i),$$
 (A3)

$$u_i^{\text{pd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\text{p}}) = \frac{q_i}{4\pi r^{*3}} - \frac{3q_j(x_j^{\text{p}} - x_j^{0*})(x_i^{\text{p}} - x_i^{0*})}{4\pi r^{*5}}, \quad (A4)$$

$$u_{i}^{\text{sd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\text{p}}) = \frac{n_{j}g_{j}(x_{i}^{\text{p}} - x_{i}^{0*}) + n_{j}(x_{j}^{\text{p}} - x_{j}^{0*})g_{i}}{8\pi r^{*3}} - \frac{g_{j}(x_{j}^{\text{p}} - x_{j}^{0*})n_{i}}{8\pi r^{*3}} - \frac{3n_{j}(x_{j}^{\text{p}} - x_{j}^{0*})g_{k}(x_{k}^{\text{p}} - x_{k}^{0*})(x_{i}^{\text{p}} - x_{i}^{0*})}{8\pi r^{*5}}, \quad (A5)$$

 $\mathbf{q} = -h^2[2(\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{f}], \quad \mathbf{g} = 2h[2(\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{f}], \quad \text{and} \quad r^* = [(x_i^p - x_i^{0*})(x_i^p - x_i^{0*})]^{\frac{1}{2}}.$ The superscript s*, sd, and pd correspond to the image Stokeslet, the Stokeslet dipole, and the potential dipole, respectively. For simplicity, since both \mathbf{q} and \mathbf{g} are functions of \mathbf{f} , we define \mathbf{St} using

$$u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^p) = St_{ii}(\mathbf{x}^p, \mathbf{x}^{0*}) f_i, \tag{A6}$$

where \mathbf{f} is the strength of a Stokeslet and \mathbf{St} is the kernel of the image system of the Stokeslet, which only depends on the position of the Stokeslet's image system \mathbf{x}^{0*} and the evaluation point \mathbf{x}^p . Incorporating the contribution of the original Stokeslet with its images, the net velocity due to a

Blakeslet can be expressed as $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}^p) = \mathbf{u}^s(\mathbf{x}^p) + \mathbf{u}^*(\mathbf{x}^p)$ or

$$v_i(\mathbf{x}^p) = [S_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^p, \mathbf{x}^0) + St_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^p, \mathbf{x}^{0*})]f_j. \tag{A7}$$

APPENDIX B: WALL TRACTION APPROACH

An alternative approach to find $\mathbf{u}^*(\mathbf{x}^p)$ due to a single Blakeslet is to utilize a boundary integral representation of the flow due to the traction distribution on the wall. We refer to this approach as the wall traction approach. The stress at any point in the flow \mathbf{x}^p is

$$\sigma_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{p}}) = -p(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{p}})\delta_{ij} + \frac{\partial u_i(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{p}})}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial u_j(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{p}})}{\partial x_i},$$
(B1)

where δ is the Kronecker delta and $p(\mathbf{x}^p)$ and $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}^p)$ are the pressure and velocity at \mathbf{x}^p .

The velocity at \mathbf{x}^p due to a Stokeslet, an image Stokeslet, a potential dipole, and a Stokeslet dipole are shown in Eq. (A1) and Eqs. (A3)–(A5), respectively. The corresponding pressure fields are given by

$$p^{s}(\mathbf{x}^{p}) = \frac{f_{j}(x_{j}^{p} - x_{j}^{0})}{4\pi r^{3}},$$
 (B2)

$$p^{s*}(\mathbf{x}^{p}) = \frac{(-f_{j})(x_{j}^{p} - x_{j}^{0*})}{4\pi r^{*3}},$$
 (B3)

$$p^{\mathrm{pd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{p}}) = 0, \tag{B4}$$

$$p^{\text{sd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\text{p}}) = \frac{n_i g_i}{4\pi r^{*3}} - 3 \frac{n_i \left(x_i^{\text{p}} - x_i^{0*}\right) g_j \left(x_j^{\text{p}} - x_j^{0*}\right)}{4\pi r^{*5}}.$$
 (B5)

The overall traction on any infinitesimal area dS on the wall centered at \mathbf{x}^w due to a Blakeslet is the net effect of the original Stokeslet itself located at \mathbf{x}^0 and its image system located at \mathbf{x}^{0*} . By setting $\mathbf{x}^p = \mathbf{x}^w$, the traction at \mathbf{x}^w due to a Blakeslet can be expressed as

$$T_i(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = \left[\sigma_{ij}^{\mathbf{s}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) + \sigma_{ij}^{\mathbf{s}*}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) + \sigma_{ij}^{\mathbf{pd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) + \sigma_{ij}^{\mathbf{sd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}})\right] n_j \quad (B6)$$

or

$$T_i(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = T_i^{\mathbf{s}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) + T_i^{\mathbf{s}*}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) + T_i^{\mathbf{p}\mathbf{d}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) + T_i^{\mathbf{s}\mathbf{d}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}), \quad (B7)$$

where

$$T_{i}^{s}(\mathbf{x}^{w}) = -\frac{3n_{j}\left(x_{j}^{w} - x_{j}^{0}\right)f_{k}\left(x_{k}^{w} - x_{k}^{0}\right)\left(x_{i}^{w} - x_{i}^{0}\right)}{4\pi r^{5}}, \quad (B8)$$

$$T_{i}^{s*}(\mathbf{x}^{w}) = -\frac{3n_{j}\left(x_{j}^{w} - x_{j}^{0*}\right)(-f_{k})\left(x_{k}^{w} - x_{k}^{0*}\right)\left(x_{i}^{w} - x_{i}^{0*}\right)}{4\pi r^{*5}}, \quad (B9)$$

$$T_{i}^{\text{pd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\text{w}}) = -3 \frac{q_{j} (x_{j}^{\text{w}} - x_{j}^{0*}) n_{i} + n_{j} q_{j} (x_{i}^{\text{w}} - x_{i}^{0*})}{2\pi r^{*5}} - \frac{3n_{j} (x_{j}^{\text{w}} - x_{j}^{0*}) q_{i}}{2\pi r^{*5}} + \frac{15n_{j} (x_{j}^{\text{w}} - x_{j}^{0*}) q_{k} (x_{k}^{\text{w}} - x_{k}^{0*}) (x_{i}^{\text{w}} - x_{i}^{0*})}{2\pi r^{*7}},$$
(B10)

$$T_{i}^{\text{sd}}(\mathbf{x}^{\text{w}}) = -\frac{3n_{j}(x_{j}^{\text{w}} - x_{j}^{0*})n_{k}g_{k}(x_{i}^{\text{w}} - x_{i}^{0*})}{2\pi r^{*5}} - \frac{3[n_{j}(x_{j}^{\text{w}} - x_{j}^{0*})]^{2}g_{i}}{4\pi r^{*5}} + \frac{15[n_{j}(x_{j}^{\text{w}} - x_{j}^{0*})]^{2}g_{k}(x_{k}^{\text{w}} - x_{k}^{0*})(x_{i}^{\text{w}} - x_{i}^{0*})}{4\pi r^{*7}}.$$
(B11)

The traction expressed in Eq. (B7) is linear in the force so it can be written as

$$T_i(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = \tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{x}^0) f_j.$$
 (B12)

Viewing the traction as a distribution of Stokeslets on the wall, we are able to evaluate the wall-induced velocity on any arbitrary point \mathbf{x}^p through

$$u_i^*(\mathbf{x}^p) = \int_{S} S_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^p, \mathbf{x}^w) T_j(\mathbf{x}^w) dS.$$
 (B13)

APPENDIX C: MULTIPOLE TRACTIONS

The Blakeslet dipolar and Blakeslet quadrupolar traction on a fixed point \mathbf{x}^{w} can be obtained by differentiating Eq. (B12),

$$T_i^D(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = \partial_k \tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{x}^0) f_i d_k, \tag{C1}$$

$$T_i^{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}) = \frac{1}{2} \partial_k \partial_l \tau_{ij}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{x}^0) f_j d_k d_l, \tag{C2}$$

where the derivatives act on the second argument of τ . The Blakeslet dipolar traction when the only nonzero dipolar strength component is $f_2d_2=1$ is shown in Fig. 5(a) while the Blakeslet quadrupolar traction when the only nonzero quadrupolar strength component is $f_2d_2d_2=1$ is shown in Fig. 8(a). Both singularities are placed at a distance of h=1 from the wall.

APPENDIX D: TRACTION CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

Following the traction correlation coefficient defined in Eq. (18), convergence tests are performed to determine how large the sample area on the wall must be to find correlation coefficients that do not depend on the integration area size. Here we show the result for the instantaneous traction at

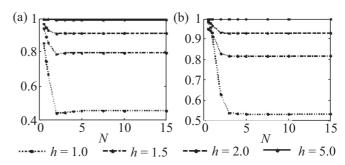


FIG. 11. (a) Instantaneous $(t = \pi/2)$ and (b) time-averaged traction correlation coefficient by varying the square of side length Nh on the wall.

 $t = \pi/2$ and the time-averaged traction. The same method can be extended to study the instantaneous traction at other time points (data not shown).

We define the total area to be examined as a square centered on the projection of the center of mass of the swimmer on the x_2 - x_3 plane. The square has a side length of Nh. We evaluate R numerically for the traction due to the three-sphere swimmer and the corresponding Stokeslet dipole with strength $\sum_{\beta} \mathbf{f}^{\beta} \mathbf{d}^{\beta}$ using Eq. (18), plotted against N (Fig. 11). For a given h, the correlation coefficients in both x_1 and x_2 directions converge when the side length of the area being examined is approximately 3–5 times larger than the distance from the wall to the three-sphere swimmer ($N \gtrsim 3$ –5) and certainly for all cases when $N \gtrsim 10$.

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