Modelling bacterial twitching in fluid flows: a CFD-DEM approach

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Bacterial habitats are often associated with fluid flow environments. There is a lack of models 10 of the twitching motility of bacteria in shear flows. In this work, a three-dimensional modelling 11 approach of Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) coupled with the Discrete Element Method 12 (DEM) is proposed to study bacterial twitching on flat and groove surfaces under shear flow 13 conditions. Rod-shaped bacteria are modelled as groups of spherical particles and Type IV pili 14 attached to bacteria are modelled as dynamic springs which can elongate, retract, attach and 15 detach. The CFD-DEM model of rod-shape bacteria is validated against orbiting of immotile 16 bacteria in shear flows. The effects of fluid flow rate and surface topography on twitching 17 motility are studied. The model can successfully predict upstream twitching motility of rod-18 shaped bacteria in shear flows. Our model can predict that there would be an optimal range of 19 wall shear stress in which bacterial upstream twitching is most efficient. The results also 20 indicate that when bacteria twitch on groove surfaces, they are likely to accumulate around the 21 22 downstream side of the groove walls.

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24 Keywords: Bacterial motility, upstream twitching, modelling, CFD-DEM

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26 Introduction

A bacterial biofilm is a bacterial community attached into a surface through extracellular polymeric materials¹. Prior to biofilm formation, bacteria may need to deposit on the surface from their planktonic state. After bacteria deposit on surfaces they may "*twitch*" or crawl over the surface using appendages called type IV pili (TFP)²⁻⁵ to "explore" the substratum to find suitable sites for growth and thus biofilm formation. Pili emanate from bacterial surface and

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they can be up to several μm long (though they are nm in diameter⁶). Bacterial twitching 32 occurs through cycles of polymerization and de-polymerization of type IV pili ^{7,8}. 33 Polymerization causes the pilus to elongate and eventually attaching into surfaces. De-34 polymerization makes the pilus to retract and detaching from the surfaces. Pili retraction 35 produces pulling forces on the bacterium, which will be pulled in the direction of the vector 36 sum of the pili forces, resulting in a jerky movement (Figure 1). A typical TFP can produce a 37 force exceeding 100 pN⁹ and then a bundle of pili can produce pulling forces up to several nN 38 ¹⁰. Bacteria may use pili not only for twitching but also for cell-cell interactions ^{11,12}, surface 39 sensing ^{13,14} and DNA uptake ¹⁵. 40

Twitching motility could depend on many factors including surface properties, pili 41 arrangement on bacterial surface, and environmental conditions such as oxygen concentration 42 and fluid flow rate ¹⁶. For example, when pili emanate only at the poles of bacteria (e.g., 43 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*), the bacteria will have persistent motion ^{17,18}. But, if pili are all 44 around the cell body (e.g., Neisseria gonorrhoeae), the bacteria will have trapped or diffusive 45 motion due to the *tug of war* mechanism $\frac{19,20}{10}$. If a pilus detaches while all the pili are in high 46 tension and anti-parallel configuration, the bacterium will suddenly align along the resultant 47 direction of the remaining bounded-pili causing a sudden change of the twitching direction. 48 This is the so called *slingshot motion* and bacteria may use this mechanism to change crawling 49 direction ^{3,4}. Bacterial twitching will depend on some physicochemical and structural properties 50 of the surface. For instance, the pili attachment is enhanced ^{2,18,21} when the substratum is 51 covered by extracellular polymeric materials. Patterned surfaces can be a barrier for bacterial 52 twitching and hence hinder surface exploration by bacteria ^{7,22}. Chang, et al. ²² have shown that 53 micro-scale surface topography (pillars) appears to be a barrier to the surface motility of 54 55 Pseudomonas aeruginosa and it may hinder the ability of such cells to explore a surface. However, when the surface has micro-scale grooves, bacteria may display persistent twitching 56 along grooves because cells can be guided by the groove walls ^{2,23}. Bacteria can also differently 57 deploy pili¹⁷ and change pili retraction speed²⁴ to adapt to nutrient availability. In fluid flow 58 environments, rod-shaped bacteria tend to twitch against the flow because the fluid flow tends 59 to align the bacteria along the flow direction while they are anchored to the tethering points, 60 and then the fluid drag causes bacteria to flip around the anchoring point and twitch upstream 61 (see Figure 1) ²⁵⁻²⁷. 62

The experimental visualization of pili is difficult requiring great skill and specialised
 equipment ²⁸. Therefore, mathematical modelling of TFP mediated bacterial twitching is vital
 to understand the twitching mechanism under different environmental conditions. Researchers

have already modelled twitching motility of bacteria using a variety of mathematical models. 66 For instance, Marathe, et al.²⁰ modelled *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* as point particles and used 67 stochastic pili dynamics to simulate a tug of war mechanism with directional memory of 68 twitching action. This work reported that directional memory enhances the surface exploration 69 of bacteria. Molecular dynamics (MD) or discrete element based methods (DEM) have been 70 widely used to understand bacterial twitching. Brill-Karniely, et al.⁴ used a kinetic Monte Carlo 71 72 algorithm together with MD to model TFP mediated twitching of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. This work reported that a minimal amount of angular rigidity of pili is needed to produce some 73 experimentally observed behaviours of twitching bacteria. Furthermore, this work revealed that 74 two TFP can produce the recently observed *slingshot motion* $\frac{3}{2}$ when one pilus releases at a 75 high-tension anti-parallel configuration of two pili. More MD based twitching models include 76 de Haan ⁶, Zaburdaev, et al. ¹⁹, Ryota Morikawa ²⁹. However, these very interesting models have 77 not considered interactions of a twitching bacterium and its hydrodynamic environment. This 78 represents an important gap in our knowledge because the hydrodynamic environments can 79 completely change twitching direction (e.g., upstream twitching) as well as influencing 80 deposition and detachment ³⁰. In the present work, three-dimensional Computational Fluid 81 Dynamics coupled with Discrete Element Method (CFD-DEM) is used to model rod-shaped 82 83 bacterial twitching on flat and groove surfaces under various shear flow conditions. Various forms of CFD-DEM models have been employed to study bacterial deposition before ³¹⁻³³. The 84 85 novelty of our model is the use of a three-way coupled (two-way coupled fluid-cell interactions plus cell-cell interactions) CFD-DEM model together with pili dynamics to study bacterial 86 twitching on flat and groove surfaces with fluid flowing over the surfaces. The model is 87 implemented on an open source CFD-DEM package called SediFoam ³⁴. The method is used 88 to predict some experimentally observed behaviours of bacteria twitching in shear flows such 89 as upstream twitching $\frac{26}{10}$. The model is generic in nature, but the parameters are chosen such 90 that they are relevant to the Pseudomonas aeruginosa. 91

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93 **Results and Discussion**

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When immotile rod-shaped bacteria move in shear flows they will freely orbit in shear flows which is called "*Jeffery orbiting*". We first compare the orbiting of a rod-shaped bacterium with theoretical results to validate the CFD-DEM model. Then, the model is used to study bacteria twitching on a rough surface in the presence of a static fluid medium. Finally, the

99 model is employed to investigate bacteria twitching in a flowing environment on a rough-flat100 and rough-groove surface.

The computational domain for the following simulations is a rectangular box having the 101 dimensions of $[0, 50] \times [0, 20] \times [0, 20] \,\mu\text{m}^3$. Periodic velocity boundary conditions in two 102 horizontal directions (x and y direction) and no-slip and fixed-velocity boundary conditions are 103 applied respectively at the bottom and top walls (z direction). Pressure is periodic in the 104 horizontal directions and zero gradient boundary conditions are applied at the top and bottom 105 walls. The parameters used for the following simulations are listed in Table S1. A single 106 107 bacterium is simulated unless specified otherwise and the bacterium is initially oriented in the flow direction. 108

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110 Model validation for *Jeffery Orbiting*

SediFoam has been extensively validated for spherical particle laden flows ³⁴⁻³⁶. We use SediFoam for rod-shaped objects in this work and hence we validate the model for *Jeffery orbit* before using for bacterial twitching. The analytical expression for orbiting angular velocity ($\dot{\theta}$) and period (*T*) of a rod-shaped bacterium having an aspect ratio of *a* in a shear rate of $\dot{\gamma}$ are given by Jeffery ³⁷ as

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$$\dot{\theta} = \frac{\dot{\gamma}}{(1+a^2)} (a^2 \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) \tag{1}$$

117
$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\dot{\gamma}} \left(a + \frac{1}{a} \right)$$
(2)

The CFD-DEM model is validated for the Jeffery orbit at different shear rates and aspect ratio 118 of the cell body. The analytical solution for the orbiting angular velocity and the period of the 119 orbit are compared with the present numerical results. Figure S1 (a) shows the numerical and 120 analytical results at a = 3 and $\dot{\gamma} = 1000$ s⁻¹ and it can be seen that the present CFD-DEM model 121 can predict the orbit transit of a rod-shaped bacterium in shear flows accurately. Figure S1 (b) 122 compares the periods at different aspect ratios and shear rates and it is evident that the model 123 is capable of predicting the theoretical results. The relative error of the maximum and minimum 124 angular velocities are presented in Figure S1 (c) and it can be seen that the relative error is less 125 than 15% for all the cases we have considered here. A relative error as large as 15% would be 126 127 because the analytical solution is valid only for inertialess rods, the present CFD-DEM model computes only average hydrodynamics around the bacterium, and the shape of the bacterium 128 is not precisely a rod. Therefore, a relative error of 15% would be still acceptable for 129 reasonable predictions of rod-shaped bacteria interaction with fluid flows. 130

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132 Bacterial twitching in static fluid

Bacterial motility would be affected by the number of pili and how those pili distribute at the 133 bacteria poles ^{2,17}. Therefore, the present model is employed to understand how the number of 134 pili and the distribution angle (α) influence twitching characteristics. Bacterial twitching is 135 usually characterised by the Mean Square Displacement (MSD) which can explain the 136 twitching behaviour (diffusive, trapped, and persistent) based on the MSD power (MSD = 137 Kt^n , where n is the MSD power, K is a constant, and t is time) $\frac{4.20}{10}$. Figure 2 shows the MSD 138 power for different pili distribution angles and pili numbers. As the pili angle increases the 139 MSD power decreases because the cell is more likely to trap between pili which are in force 140 equilibrium. The numbers shown in bars are the R² value of the regression to compute MSD 141 power and it can be seen that it decreases as the pili distribution angle increases, because the 142 143 cell has more irregular motion in that case. When the number of pili increases at the same pili angle the MSD power does not change much. The trajectory of the leading and trailing poles 144 are shown in Figure 2(b) when the pili number is 2 and the pili distribution angle is 30° . The 145 trailing pole moves above the leading pole because of the inclination of the bacterium to the 146 surface, as observed experimentally by others ¹⁷. 147

Figure 3 shows the variation of twitching velocity (V_t) for different pili distribution angles and 148 pili numbers. As expected, the quasi-stationary time (time spent at $V_t < 0.01 \,\mu\text{m/s}$) decreases 149 and moving time (time spent at $V_t > 0.01 \,\mu\text{m/s}$) increases when the number of pili increases, 150 since the bacterium is pulled by pili more frequently. The pili distribution angle has significant 151 influence on the intermediate velocity ($0.01 \le V_t \le 0.8 \ \mu m/s$). The average twitching velocity is 152 less than 0.8 µm/s for all the cases (Figure 3b) which is a realistic prediction for the twitching 153 velocity of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (i.e. 0.3μ m/s) found in Maier and Wong² Jin, et al.³. The 154 average twitching velocity is more sensitive to the number of pili than the pili distribution 155 angle. These results indicate that the MSD of bacteria can be simply written as MSD = 156 $K(N_n)t^{n(\alpha)}$ because the MSD power and the twitching velocity are more sensitive to the pili 157 distribution angle and the numbers of pili, respectively. Here, $n(\alpha)$ is the MSD power and it 158 explains the nature of the twitching motility, which is sub-diffusive (trapped) when $n(\alpha) < 1$ 159 and super-diffusive (persistent) when $1 < n(\alpha) < 2$, diffusive when $n(\alpha) = 1$ and ballistic 160 when $n(\alpha) = 2$. In the present study, it can be seen that the twitching motility is super-diffusive 161 most of the time (Figure 2a) and it never has a sub-diffusive motion. This is expected because 162 all the pili are focused at one pole and their distribution angle is also taken from the Normal 163 distribution and hence bacteria have persistent motion. There is experimental evidence that 164

165 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* would twitch with a MSD power of 1.55 ± 0.34 when they twitch 166 using unipolar TFP ¹⁷.

Figure 4 shows the tilt angle for different pili distribution angles and pili numbers. With 167 increasing number of pili the tilt angle distributes in a wide range, while the average tilt angle 168 is still around 5 to10 degrees. The twitching experimental data of Pseudomonas aeruginosa 169 reported in Ni, et al.^{17,38} indicated that the average tilt angle would be around 15 degrees and 170 171 our results are in a reasonable range considering the assumptions of the model. Our results show that as the pili distribution angle and numbers of pili increase there is a tendency for the 172 bacterium to trap in a vertically-oriented configuration (Figure 4c-d). This is rather similar to 173 the vertically-oriented upright walking of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*^{17,38,39}. The model shows 174 that when a cell is trapped between pili for an extended period of time, the cell has more time 175 to rotate around its body and reach a vertical orientation. However, our model is not capable 176 of capturing the upright walking motility of bacteria. In the present model, vertically oriented 177 bacteria remain trapped and then gradually move to the horizontally-oriented configuration and 178 crawl when the trapped-configuration of pili is changed once a new pilus attaches or breaks, 179 and the force becomes unbalanced. It appears that a special pili dynamics mechanism will be 180 needed to capture those vertically-oriented upright walking bacteria and that is out of the scope 181 182 of this paper.

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184 Bacterial twitching in flowing fluid

We study bacterial twitching under a range of flow velocity (0-4 mm/s) which corresponds to 185 a range of wall shear stress values (wall shear stress= $\mu \frac{du}{dy}, \frac{du}{dy}$ is the shear rate at the wall). We 186 study a bacterium having two pili with 30⁰ distribution angle and with increased pili elongation 187 velocity (10 times) for the following reasons. When we add many pili a smaller time step is 188 needed for scaling up (<<0.1 s) to maintain numerical stability which has a significant 189 computational cost when flow fields are taken into account. Even if we use two pili for the 190 191 model, it does not necessarily mean that the bacterium has only two pili. Because of increased elongation velocity these two pili can mimic several pili in a real system because a new pilus 192 is created faster after the breakage of an existing pilus. Figure S2 shows the main events 193 associated with bacterial twitching in a flow environment, which are upstream twitching, 194 detachment, orbiting in shear flow and re-attachment. 195

196 Figure 5 shows the probability of direction of motion of the cell at different wall shear stresses.

197 If the fluid is static (Figure 5a), the cell can twitch in any direction on the surface because there

is no preferential driving force, and therefore the probability of twitching direction being in 198 each angular bin is about 1/12=0.08. Then, when the fluid flows, the cell tends to twitch 199 upstream as seen in Figure 5(b-d) indicating the increased probability of bins from 90° to 270° 200 compared to the no-flow scenario. For the selected wall stresses, the maximum upstream 201 twitching probability occurs at around 0.1 Pa and that probability decreases as the wall stress 202 is either increased or decreased from that value, indicating that there would be an optimal flow 203 204 condition for bacterial upstream twitching. Figure 6(a) supports this finding and shows a sinusoidal variation of twitching probability with wall shear stress. The probability of upstream 205 206 twitching decreases and reaches a minimum and then increases to a maximum and then it decreases again. The reason for this behaviour is that the cell is initially headed in the flow 207 direction and at low shear stresses the bacterial cell is not subjected to sufficient shear forces 208 to rotate it in the upstream direction. Therefore, the cell will actively twitch and be passively 209 advected in the flow direction. But, at moderate shear stress, the cell will be rotated and faced 210 in the upstream direction and it will then twitch against the flow. As the fluid flow further 211 increases, the fluid drag forces would tend to dominate over to the pili-based pulling forces and 212 hence upstream twitching decreases again. Figure 6(b) shows the time average velocity in 213 upstream and downstream directions. Upstream twitching velocity is fairly constant for a range 214 of shear stress, in agreement with experimental findings in the literature $\frac{26}{2}$. It can be seen that 215 the upstream twitching distance has a unimodal distribution (Figure 6c) with wall shear stress. 216 217 The fluid flow conditions, apart from the optimal wall shear stress (that is around 0.1 Pa), may adversely influence upstream twitching. Shen, et al. 26 showed that upstream twitching of P. 218 aeruginosa would be most efficient when the wall shear stress is around 0.5 Pa, and our model 219 predictions are also in the same order. It can be seen in Figure 6(d) that bacteria detach from 220 221 the wall more frequently when the wall shear stress is more than the optimal stress. This is 222 because the fluid drag is dominant to the pili-based pulling when the stress is far beyond the 223 optimal value.

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225 Bacterial twitching on a groove surface with fluid flow

It is important to study how imposed fluid flows would influence bacterial twitching on structured surfaces because twitching would be influenced by both structures and moving fluid in this case. Therefore, we study bacterial twitching on a groove surface (Figure S3) when fluid flows across the grooves. The cross section of each groove wall (protrusion) is in the order of bacterial size and it is chosen as $6 \times 5 \ \mu m^2$ (wide \times height). Bacterial upstream twitching is investigated at two different groove widths (19 and 46 μm , which are about two and four times

of the bacterial length, cell body plus pili length) at a wall shear stress of 0.15 Pa. A similar geometry has been experimentally investigated for *Escherichia coli* deposition in Gu, et al. ⁴⁰. The pili dynamics is similar to the previous case of bacterial twitching on flat surface under shear flows (i.e., two pili with distribution angle of 30⁰). Four bacteria are randomly seeded on the surface. Figure S3 shows bacterial twitching on flat and groove surfaces. As expected, bacteria are trapped and twitch along the grooves for the non-flat surfaces.

- Figure 7 shows the probability of twitching direction at different surface conditions. As also 238 shown in Figures 5-6, it can be seen that bacteria simply twitch upstream on the flat surface 239 240 (Figure 7a). Figures 7 (b, c) indicate that the groove width has a vital influence on twitching motility. Upstream twitching is inefficient for the narrow groove (Figure 7c) and the direction 241 of motility is chaotic in that case. The reason is that bacteria frequently collide on the groove 242 wall because of fluid drag and upstream twitching resulting in the direction of motility change 243 regularly. The groove walls also guide bacteria to twitch along the grooves. These constraints 244 would give bacteria uniform chances to move in any direction on the groove when the groove 245 width is relatively low. Figures S3 and 8 indicate that bacteria tend to accumulate downstream 246 of the groove walls. This phenomenon would be theoretically meaningful because the fluid 247 drag behind the walls would be weak and therefore bacteria would not be easily pulled along 248 249 the flow. Therefore, bacteria that twitch upstream and reach the walls are likely to reside there for an extended period. 250
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252 Conclusion

Bacterial motility shows interesting phenomena when active motility (swimming, twitching 253 and so on) interferes with a surrounding fluid ^{26,30,41}. Upstream twitching is a mechanism used 254 255 by rod-shaped bacteria such as Pseudomonas aeruginosa to colonize upstream sites of flow environments such as catheters. In this work, a CFD-DEM model is used to study bacterial 256 twitching in fluid flows. The model can predict super diffusive motility in static fluid, upstream 257 twitching in fluid flows, and flow-induced cell detachment/re-attachment to the surface. In 258 agreement with experimental findings of Shen, et al.²⁶, our model can predict that there would 259 be an optimal range of wall shear stress in which bacterial upstream twitching is most efficient. 260 261 When bacteria twitch on a groove surface, the resultant effect of fluid flow and surface topography would decide the nature of twitching and spatial segregation of bacteria on the 262 surface. While our model can predict general characteristics of bacterial twitching, the model 263

should be carefully validated against experimental data before it can be used to gain moredetailed insights about bacterial twitching in fluid flows.

Even though our model was basically used to study upstream twitching, it can give some 266 insights for variety of other twitching phenomena. The present model can be used to investigate 267 bacterial twitching on compliant surfaces and other surfaces with complex micro or nano scale 268 structures. The model can be a robust tool to study twitching motility of different shapes of 269 270 bacteria (e.g., Neisseria gonorrhoeae and Synechocystis sp PCC 6803)² and TFP-based colonization of curved shape bacterium *Caulobacter crescentus* in fluid flows ⁴². Moreover, 271 272 our model could be used for investigating how the oscillatory localization of TFP (dependent on nutrient conditions) of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Myxococcus xanthus* would interfere 273 with fluid flows¹⁷. 274

275

276 Methodology

We have implemented twitching dynamics of bacteria into the existing CFD-DEM platform called SediFOAM ³⁴, which couples the molecular dynamic code LAMMPS ⁴³ and the wellestablished CFD package, OpenFOAM ⁴⁴. The present work is an extension for the authors' Individual-based model of microbial communities implemented on LAMMPS⁴⁵. SediFOAM has been primarily used to simulate particle sedimentation in fluid. In the present work, we extend SediFOAM to model rod-shaped bacteria twitching in fluid flows. The model components are explained below.

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285 Discrete element modelling (DEM) of bacteria and surface

We model bacteria and solid substratum (flat and groove surfaces) by using spherical particles.
Rod-shape bacteria are modelled as a rigid assemble of several spherical particles (See Figure
1). The total force on the rigid body is computed as the sum of the forces on its constituent
particles. This idea has been employed before for modelling rod-shaped bacteria ³³. The
translational and rotational movement of the rigid body is calculated based on Newton's second
law as

292
$$m_b \frac{d\vec{u}_b}{dt} = \vec{f}_{c,b} + \vec{f}_{fp,b} + \vec{f}_{p,b} + m_b \vec{g}$$
, (3)

293
$$I_b \frac{d\overline{\theta_b}}{dt} = \vec{T}_{c,b} + \vec{T}_{fp,b} + \vec{T}_{p,b}.$$
 (4)

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Here m_b and I_b are the mass and moment of inertia of the bacterium (rigid body), respectively.

Eq (3) describes the translational velocity \vec{u}_b of the bacterium, and the four terms on the right hand side represent respectively the contact, fluid interaction, TFP pili, and gravitational forces acting on the cell. The rotational movement of the cell body $\vec{\theta}_b$ is calculated based on the torque produced by contact forces (\vec{T}_c) , fluid interaction forces (\vec{T}_{fp}) and pili forces (\vec{T}_p) . The contact forces are calculated based on Hook's law depending on the overlap distance between interacting particles. Fluid interaction and pili forces are further explained below.

302

303 Computational fluid dynamics (CFD)

The fluid is assumed Newtonian and its flow is described by the locally-average Navier-Stokesequation as

$$306 \quad \nabla \cdot \left(\varepsilon_s \overrightarrow{U_s} + \varepsilon_f \overrightarrow{U_f}\right) = 0, \tag{5}$$

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$$308 \quad \frac{\partial(\varepsilon_f \overrightarrow{U_f}}{\partial t} + \nabla . \left(\varepsilon_f \overrightarrow{U_f} \overrightarrow{U_f}\right) = \frac{1}{\rho_f} \left(-\nabla p + \varepsilon_f \mu \nabla^2 \overrightarrow{U} + \varepsilon_f \rho_f \overrightarrow{g}\right) + \overrightarrow{F_{fp}},\tag{6}$$

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where ε_s is the solid volume fraction and $\varepsilon_f = 1 - \varepsilon_s$ is the fluid volume fraction. The fluid density ρ_f and its viscosity μ are assumed as constants. Here $\overrightarrow{U_s}$ and $\overrightarrow{U_f}$ are the velocity of the solid and fluid phases, respectively. The gravity \overrightarrow{g} is also included because fluid and bacterial density would be different and hence buoyancy forces would be important. The last term $\overrightarrow{F_{fp}}$ represents fluid-solid interaction forces, which are drag, lift, added mass, and lubrication forces as detailed in the SediFOAM documentation \overrightarrow{s} and not repeated here. The Eulerian fields ε_s , $\overrightarrow{U_s}$ and $\overrightarrow{F_{fp}}$ are calculated by averaging the information of Lagrangian particles.

317

318 Twitching model

The TFP are modelled as dynamic springs emanating from one pole of the bacterium and these 319 springs can elongate, retract, attach and detach from the surface (Figure 1). Each pilus operates 320 independently from the others. When a new pilus is born at the bacterial pole, its angular 321 direction from the bacterial axis is randomly decided according to a Normal distribution with 322 standard angular deviation of α , $N(0, \alpha^2)$. After the pilus elongates at constant velocity v_e to a 323 maximum length L_{max} , it will attach to the surface with probability p_a and then it immediately 324 starts to retract at a variable retraction velocity. A bound retracting pilus can detach (or break) 325 326 with probability p_b . Each un-attached or broken pilus retracts at velocity v_r to the pole until it

disappears and then a new pilus is born at the same pole at a random direction chosen from theNormal distribution. The total numbers of pili remain constant at any given time.

329 The pulling force of each pilus is modelled by assuming a linear spring with variable 330 equilibrium length as

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332
$$f_p(t) = k_p(L(t) - L_{eq}(t)),$$
 (7)

where L(t) and $L_{eq}(t)$ are the total length and equilibrium lengths of the pilus, respectively. The total length is simply the distance between the bacterial pole and the pilus tip. If the pilus is unbounded the equilibrium length is equal to the total length, which means the pulling force is zero. Once the pilus attaches to a surface the equilibrium length decreases representing pili retraction. As the retraction velocity of bounded pili depends on the pulling force $\]$, the equilibrium length is decreased as

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340
$$L_{eq}(t) = L_{max}(1 - v_r {\binom{f_p(t)}{f_{stall}}}t),$$
 (8)

341

where f_{stall} is the maximum pulling force which can be produced by each pilus. A bounded pilus will break in a time interval Δt with probability $p_b = \Delta t \frac{1}{\tau} e^{\frac{f_p(t)}{f_{stall}}} \frac{1}{\tau}$ where τ is the characteristic time of pili detachment.

345

346 Scaling-up

The time scale for twitching is much larger than 1s $\frac{2.8}{3}$ and the time scale for fluid flow is much 347 smaller than 1s. Therefore, twitching dynamics and fluid flow occur at two different time scales 348 and hence it is needed to separate these time scales for the model. The CFD-DEM is run until 349 quasi-steady state and the steady state flow field is calculated for a given bacterial position and 350 orientation (Eqs. 3-6). Then, the bacterial twitching dynamics is calculated with a larger time 351 step (Eqs. 7-8) and the position and orientation of the bacterium are updated using the velocities 352 353 calculated from the CFD-DEM. Pili detachment and attachment events are also updated during this step. Next, the flow field is updated according to the new cell position and orientation 354 through CFD-DEM calculations and so on. Therefore, three different time steps are involved 355 in this model: the smallest time step of 10^{-9} s for DEM (Eqs. 3-4), an intermediate time step of 356 10⁻⁵ s for CFD, and the largest time step of 0.1s for pili dynamics (elongation, retraction, 357 attachment, detachment) and scaling-up. 358

359 Implementation in SediFoam

We have implemented our rod-shape bacterial model in SediFoam, in particular, in its 360 LAMMPS module. Rod-shaped bacteria are created by assembling spherical particles rigidly 361 by using the constraint fix rigid command provided by LAMMPS. Pili emanate from one pole 362 of the bacterium. The *fix spring* command of LAMMPS is modified to model dynamic springs 363 for TFP. Rough and irregular substratum is created using spherical stationary particles using 364 the fix move command of LAMMPS (see the LAMMPS documentation 365 at http://lammps.sandia.gov). Then, DEM is resolved by using the Verlet algorithm in LAMMPS; 366 367 the PISO algorithm is used for solving CFD in OpenFOAM; and SediFOAM acts as an interface to transfer and map the properties of the Eulerian mesh and Lagrangian particles 368 between the two modules. 369

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371 Data Availability

The datasets generated and analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding authors on request.

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502 Author Contributions

All authors contributed to this work. PGJ, BL and JC designed the research. PGJ and BL developed the code. PGJ performed all the simulations and produced the data. PGJ and JC did

- 505 data analysis and prepared the original draft. BL, PZ and TC reviewed and edited the
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508 Additional Information

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Figures (a) Fluid flow Bacterium Fluid drag Pili-based pulling Pilus distribution angle Plain Surface Type IV pili y x

Figure 1. (a) Schematic of bacterial twitching; (b) CFD-DEM model. The rod-shaped bacteria are modelled as a group of spherical particles rigidly assembled together. The pili are emanated from the bacterial pole coloured in red. Each pilus is modelled as a dynamic spring which can elongate, attach, retract and detach from the surface.

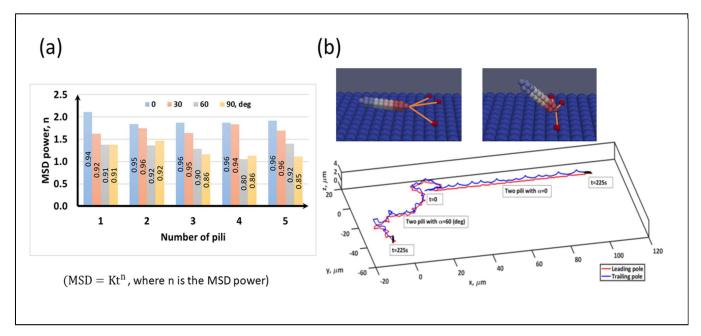


Figure 2. (a) MSD power for different pili angles and pili numbers ($MSD = Kt^n$, where n is the MSD power, K is a constant, and t is the time); (b) When the bacterium is pulled by the pili for an extended period of time, the bacterium gradually gets inclined to the surface and if the period is long enough the bacterium would reach to a vertical orientation. The trajectory of the leading and trailing poles are shown for pili number is 2 and the pili angle is 30 deg.

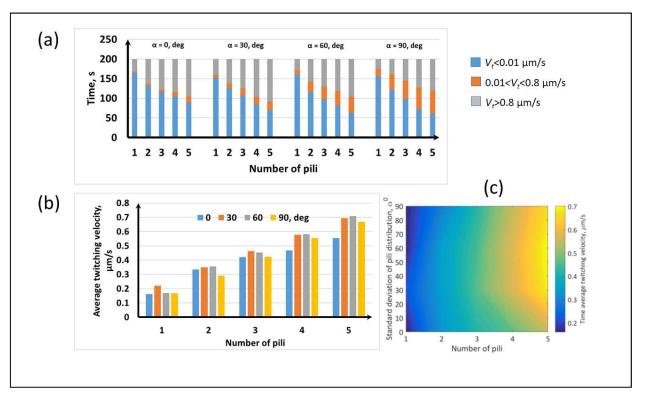


Figure 3. (a) Twitching velocity for different pili distribution angles and pili numbers. As expected, the stationary time ($V_t < 0.01 \mu m/s$) decreases and moving time ($V_t > 0.8 \mu m/s$) increases as the number of pili increases because the bacterium is pulled by pili more frequently then. Pili distribution angle has significant influence on the intermediate velocity ($0.01 < V_t < 0.8 \mu m/s$); (**b**-**c**) The average twitching velocity is more sensitive to the number of pili than the pili distribution angle.

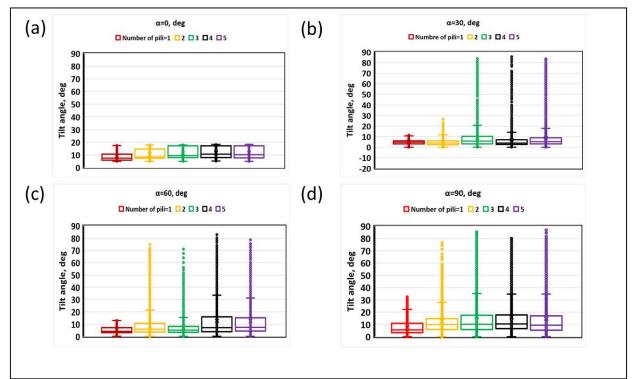


Figure 4. Tilt angle for different pili distribution angles and pili numbers: **(a)** 0; **(b)** 30; **(c)** 60; **(d)** 90 degrees. Larger the number of pili the tilt angle distributes in a wide range while the average tilt angle is around 5-10 degrees. When the pili distribution angle and the number of pili larger we can see that the bacterium sometimes orients vertically. 17

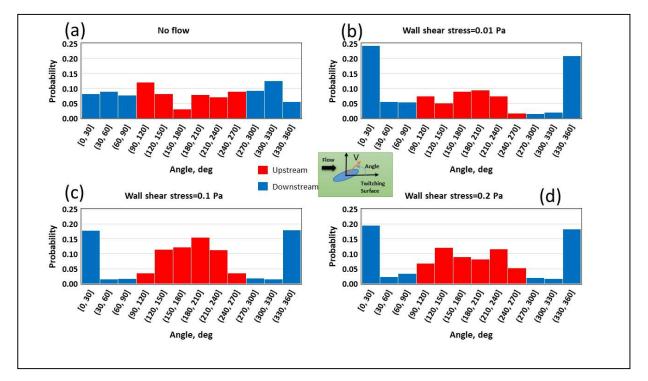


Figure 5. (a) Probability of the direction of motion of the cell is shown as a function of wall shear stress. If the fluid does not flow, the cell can twitch any direction on the surface (the probability of each angular bin is around 1/12=0.08; (b-d) As the fluid flow (or wall shear stress) increases, the cell tends to move upstream, the probability of bins from 90 to 270 degrees increases.

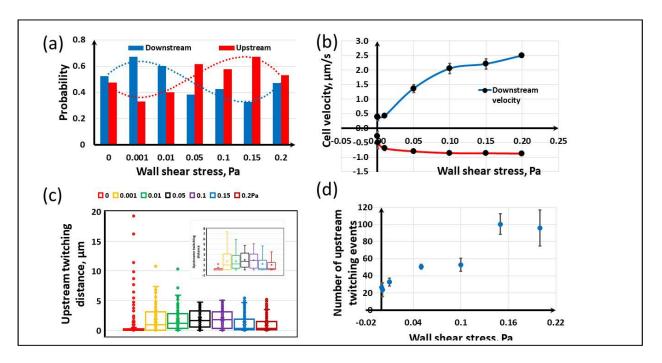


Figure 6. (a) As the fluid flow increases, the probability of upstream twitching (Red bars) decreases and reaches a minimum and then increases to a maximum and then it decreases again; (b) Time average velocity in upstream and downstream directions; (c) Upstream twitching distance; (d) Number of twitching events.

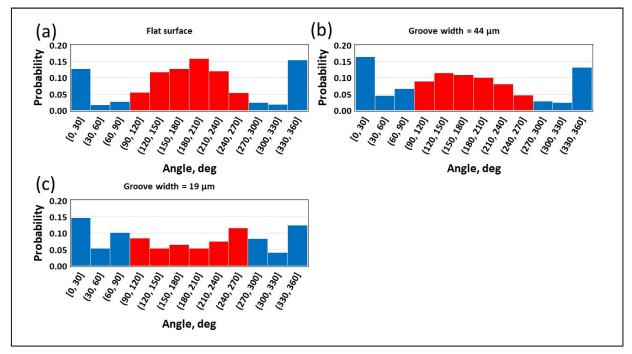


Figure 7. Effect of surface topography on bacterial upstream twitching at wall shear stress of 0.15 Pa: (a) Flat surface; (b) Groove width is 44 μ m; (c) Groove width is 19 μ m. It is seen that the bacteria have a chaotic motion when the groove width is smaller.

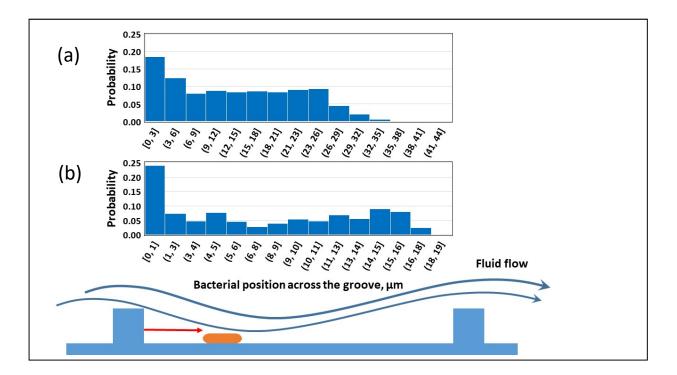


Figure 8. Probability of bacterial residency time at difference places inside the groove: (a) Groove width is $44\mu m$; (b) Groove width is $19\mu m$. The results indicate that bacteria are likely to accumulate near downstream sides of groove walls.