Numerical study of viscoelastic upstream instability

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In this work, we report numerical results on the flow instability and bifurcation of a viscoelastic fluid in the upstream region of a cylinder in a confined narrow channel. Two-dimensional direct numerical simulations based on the FENE-P model (the finite-extensible nonlinear elastic model with the Peterlin closure) are conducted with numerical stabilization techniques. Our results show that the macroscopic viscoelastic constitutive relation can capture the viscoelastic upstream instability reported in previous experiments for low-Reynolds-number flows. The numerical simulations reveal that the non-dimensional recirculation length ($L_D$) is affected by the cylinder blockage ratio ($BR$), the Weissenberg number ($Wi$), the viscosity ratio ($\beta$) and the maximum polymer extension ($L$). Close to the onset of upstream recirculation, $L_D$ with $Wi$ satisfy Landau-type quartic potential under certain parameter space. The bifurcation may exhibit subcritical behaviour depending on the values of $L^2$ and $\beta$. The parameters $\beta$ and $L^2$ have nonlinear influence on the upstream recirculation length. This work contributes to our theoretical understanding of this new instability mechanism in viscoelastic wake flows.

Key words: viscoelasticity, wakes

1. Introduction

A mixture of a Newtonian fluid and high-molecular-weight polymers (even at extremely low concentration) exhibits viscoelasticity. In the low-Reynolds-number range, when the elasticity becomes the dominant source of nonlinearity, this flow can manifest many

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interesting and novel flow phenomena that have not been studied extensively, especially flow instabilities, such as symmetry breaking (Arratia et al. 2006; Poole, Alves & Oliveira 2007; Haward, Toda-Peters & Shen 2018; Haward, Hopkins & Shen 2020), secondary flow (Yue, Dooley & Feng 2008; Davoodi et al. 2018), time dependency and even elastic instability and turbulence (Shaqfeh 1996; Groisman & Steinberg 2000, 2001; Larson 2000; Schiamberg et al. 2006; Grilli, Vázquez-Quesada & Ellero 2013; Varshney & Steinberg 2019; Steinberg 2021). These instability phenomena widely occur in processes ranging from plastic manufacturing (Denn 2001; Varchanis et al. 2021) to human blood plasma (Brust et al. 2013; Thiébaud et al. 2014) and porous media flows (Walkama, Waisbord & Guasto 2020; Hopkins, Haward & Shen 2021). However, detailed understandings of the underlying mechanisms in many instances remain vague. In these flows, because the extra elastic stress plays a key role, it is essential to know its value and how it influences the flow field. Experimental measurement and numerical simulation are the two main approaches to obtain the elastic stress. Compared to a large number of reported experimental studies with regards to elastic instability phenomena, the numerical method is applied relatively less (Poole 2019) to this problem and deserves to be employed more frequently because of its advantages such as more feasible parametric studies and direct analysis of the elastic stress field. However, a notoriously difficult problem in numerical simulation of viscoelastic flow has challenged researchers for decades, namely the numerical instability when simulating flow at high Weissenberg number (Wi), which is called the high-Weissenberg-number problem (HWNP). The reader is referred to the recent review paper by Alves, Oliveira & Pinho (2021) for a more complete account of these issues. In the following, we focus on explaining an idealized flow model, that is, viscoelastic flow around a circular cylinder, and the recent studies of its upstream instability.

Viscoelastic flows past bluff bodies are frequently encountered in industrial applications (e.g. filtration processes and oil extraction) and natural phenomena (e.g. flow in soil and blood flow in cardiovascular valves and brain tissues) (Larson 1999; Iliff et al. 2012; Marsden 2014). In addition, porous media are frequently modelled by ordered and disordered arrays of microfluidic circular cylinders (Walkama et al. 2020; Hopkins et al. 2021). Placing one or more cylinders in channel or pipe inlet section is often used as a disturbance source to study the channel viscoelastic instability in experiments (Varshney & Steinberg 2018; Qin et al. 2019b). Viscoelastic flow around a circular cylinder has also been regarded as a benchmark case for numerical and experimental studies (Ultman & Denn 1971; Dhahir & Walters 1989). In Newtonian wake flows, a downstream recirculation zone and vortex shedding can be observed because of the global instability in these flows (Williamson & Rosirko 1988; Barkley 2006; Sipp & Lebedev 2007; Tang et al. 2020). However, in viscoelastic wake flows, interestingly, an upstream recirculation can form in cylinder wake flows confined between two plane plates.

The recirculation in front of a circular cylinder was firstly reported by Kenney et al. (2013). Later, Shi et al. (2015), Zhao, Shen & Haward (2016), Qin et al. (2019a), Haward et al. (2021) and Hopkins et al. (2022a,b) successively studied this phenomenon experimentally. These experiments were performed using Boger solutions, which are elastic without shear thinning, such as dilute polyethylene oxide or polyacrylamide solutions, or using wormlike fluids with a strong shear-thinning behaviour, such as cationic surfactant cetyltrimethylammonium bromide and stable hydrophobic salt 3-hydroxynaphthalene-2-carboxylate solutions. Regarding the geometry of the experimental set-up, the blockage ratio (BR), i.e. the ratio of cylinder diameter to channel width, in these experiments is not less than 50 % and the depth-to-diameter ratio (α) widely ranges from 0.5 to 5. Zhao et al. (2016) summarized the flow patterns
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Figure 1. Summary for the $Wi$–$BR$ state space of flow patterns. Panels (a, b, d), (c) and (e) are adapted from Zhao et al. (2016), Hopkins et al. (2021) and Qin et al. (2019a), respectively.

in the $Wi$–$BR$ space with five states: Newtonian-like state, bending streamlines, vortex growth upstream, unsteady downstream and three-dimensional time-dependent chaotic upstream, which are shown in figure 1. Qin et al. (2019a) found that this flow is inherently three-dimensional and observed symmetry breaking as well as strong upstream propagation effects via elastic waves. At low $BR$ ($\sim 10\%$), there also exists a mild upstream instability, with only streamline bending, which was reported by Ribeiro et al. (2014), Nolan et al. (2016) and Haward et al. (2018). Therefore, it seems that high $BR$ is one of the conditions for (strong) upstream instability. Besides, the experiments by Shi & Christopher (2016) and Varshney & Steinberg (2017, 2018) also showed that when the cylinders are arranged in tandem at low $BR$, the recirculation zone is likely to appear in the upstream region of the rear cylinders. Few studies quantitatively investigated the length of upstream recirculation. A schematic diagram of the upstream recirculation length ($l$) is shown in figure 2, which is the distance from the foremost end of the upstream recirculation to the foremost end of the cylinder. Using the cylinder diameter $D$ to normalize $l$ as $L_D = l/D$, Zhao et al. (2016) obtained a Landau-type behaviour of the dimensionless upstream recirculation length $L_D$ ($L_D$ increasing with $Wi$). In the experiment of Qin et al. (2019a), $L_D$ is almost linear with the Weissenberg number based on the first normal stress difference $Wi_N = N_1/2\dot{\gamma}\eta(\dot{\gamma})$, where $N_1$ is the first normal stress difference, $\dot{\gamma}$ is the characteristic
shear rate defined by the mean centreline velocity and $\eta(\dot{\gamma})$ is the shear viscosity at this $\dot{\gamma}$. It is worth pointing out that the definitions of the Weissenberg number in these two studies are different.

In the simulations of viscoelastic fluid flow, an additional elastic stress divergence term is often linearly introduced to the right-hand side of the Navier–Stokes equations. The elastic stress is closed by the constitutive relation with conformation tensor, such as upper-convected Maxwell model (Olsson & Yström 1993), Oldroyd-B model (Oldroyd 1950), finite extensible nonlinear elastic (FENE) model series (Herrchen & Öttinger 1997), Phan-Thien and Tanner model (Thien & Tanner 1977), etc. The calculated Wi is often limited to a low value due to the aforementioned numerical instability. Varchanis et al. (2020) simulated the asymmetric viscoelastic flow around a cylinder, which agreed well with their experiment. Their numerical simulation was still limited to a low BR.

Flow around a cylinder in a channel is a typical mixed flow, including shear flow and tensile flow. Using full-field time-resolved flow-induced birefringence imaging, Zhao et al. (2016a) found that upstream instabilities are associated with high stress in the fluid that accelerates in the narrow gap between the cylinder surface and the channel wall when BR is large. In the narrowest area between the cylinder surface and the channel wall, the fluid parcels are strongly stretched, which results in high elastic stress there. This sharp growth in elastic stress may cause loss of convergence and trigger the well-known HWNP in numerical simulation (Hulsen, Fattal & Kupferman 2005). It is a challenging task to balance numerical accuracy and stability. Up to now, there have been no systematic numerical simulations to investigate this upstream flow phenomenon (Poole 2019). In this paper, we present numerical simulations of the viscoelastic upstream instability recently observed experimentally in front of a cylinder in a narrow channel. The FENE model with the Peterlin closure (FENE-P) is adopted to describe the rheological constitutive behaviour of a dilute polymer solution. The square root reconstruction method (Balci et al. 2011) is selected as the stabilization technique for the numerical simulation to handle HWNPs.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces our specific problem, governing equations, solution method, mesh generation and grid convergence test. In § 3, we discuss our numerical results on the upstream instability. We conclude the present work in § 4. In Appendix A, we also provide more results on the validation, some additional results on the FENE-CR model, the effect of Péclet number and the effect of different boundary conditions.

2. Problem formulation and numerical method

2.1. Problem description

Figure 3(a) shows the computational domain, which consists of a pressure-driven flow from left to right past a circular cylinder in a confined channel. It is true that Qin et al. (2019a) revealed the inherent three-dimensional nature of the upstream recirculation zone. However, we study the corresponding flow instability in this two-dimensional setting as...
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Figure 3. (a) Schematic diagram of computational domain and (b) the mesh topology near the cylinder.

the first attempt. The width of the channel is $H$. The diameter of the cylinder is $D$. Three different blockage ratios ($BR = D/H$), i.e. 50%, 62.5% and 75%, are considered. The distance between the cylinder centre and the inlet is $37.5H$ (upstream region $l_1$) and the distance between the cylinder centre and the exit is $25H$ (downstream region $l_2$). A parabolic flow profile $u(y) = 1.5\bar{U}(1 - 4y^2/H^2)$ is adopted as the inlet velocity, where $\bar{U}$ is the average velocity. The zero-pressure and zero-velocity gradient conditions are adopted at the outlet. On the upper wall, the lower wall and the cylindrical wall, the no-slip boundary condition is imposed. The treatment of boundary conditions for the conformation tensor is discussed below and also in Appendix A.4.

2.2. Governing equations

The viscoelastic fluids in the experiments of Qin et al. (2019a,b) and Pan et al. (2013) show both the shear thickening of elongational viscosity and the shear thinning of shear viscosity. Thus, the FENE-P model is adopted in the present study, which takes into account the finite elongation of polymer molecules and the bounded stress. The governing equations of the flow combined with the FENE-P constitutive model read as follows (Bird, Dotso & Johnson 1980; Bird, Armstrong & Hassager 1987):

$$
\begin{align*}
\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} &= 0, \\
\rho \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \rho (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{u} &= -\nabla p + \eta_p \Delta \mathbf{u} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{\tau}, \\
\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{c} - (\nabla \mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c} \cdot (\nabla \mathbf{u})^T &= -\frac{\mathbf{\tau}}{\eta_p},
\end{align*}
$$

(2.1)

with

$$
\mathbf{\tau} = \frac{\eta_p}{\lambda} [f(\mathbf{c})\mathbf{c} - \theta \mathbf{I}], \quad f(\mathbf{c}) = \frac{1}{1 - tr(\mathbf{c})/L^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \frac{L^2}{L^2 - 3},
$$

(2.2a-c)

where $\rho$, $\mathbf{u}$, $p$, $t$, $\lambda$, $\mathbf{c}$, $\mathbf{\tau}$ and $\mathbf{I}$ are fluid density, flow velocity, pressure, time, statistical relaxation time of polymers, conformation tensor, stress tensor of polymers and identity tensor, respectively, $\eta_p$ and $\eta_r$ are the polymeric contribution to zero-shear-rate viscosity and solvent viscosity, respectively, $tr$ denotes trace operator of tensor and the extensibility parameter $L$ measures the maximum stretching of the polymer chains (Bird et al. 1980, 1987; Purnode & Crochet 1998). When $L$ is set as $\infty$ and $\theta$ tends to 1, the FENE-P model returns to the Oldroyd-B model (Oldroyd 1950).
Note that another common FENE-type model is the FENE-CR model, which has been widely applied to predict the flow behaviour of viscoelastic fluids with a constant shear viscosity and a bounded elongational viscosity. We have also performed numerical simulations based on the FENE-CR model. More information about the FENE-CR model and a comparison of the numerical results obtained using the FENE-P model and the FENE-CR model are provided in Appendix A.3.

The main dimensionless parameters for this simulation are the Reynolds number $Re$ and the Weissenberg number $Wi$, which are defined as $Re = \rho \bar{U} H / 2 \eta_0$ and $Wi = 2 \lambda \bar{U} / H$, respectively. It is emphasized that the present study uses the half-channel width as the reference length. Thus, a factor of 2 should be applied to the corresponding $Wi$ defined using the whole channel width as the reference length when comparing with published data. Here $\eta_0 = \eta_p + \eta_s$ is the total viscosity of the solution at zero shear rate and $\beta = \eta_s / \eta_0$ is the solvent viscosity ratio, a measurement of polymer concentration and molecular characteristics of polymers. In this study, $\beta$ is set to 0.59 in most of the cases. Besides, $\beta = 0.9, 0.75, 0.45, 0.3$ and $0.15$ are also considered in some cases. Four values of $L^2 = 400, 2500, 10000$ and $40000$ are considered. It is suggested from the definitions of $Re$ and $Wi$ that the fluid viscoelasticity is more prominent than the fluid inertia for microscale flows. Fluid viscoelasticity can be characterized by $Wi$. In this work, we mostly only change $Wi$ to probe how the elasticity influences the upstream instability.

The drag coefficient acting on the cylinder is computed as

$$C_d = \frac{1}{\eta_0 U H} \int_S \left[-p I + \tau + \eta_s \nabla u\right] \cdot i \cdot dS,$$

where $S$ is a vector normal to each face element of the cylinder boundary, whose magnitude is equal to the area of face element, and $i$ is a unit vector aligned with the streamwise direction.

The fluctuation frequency ($f_f$) of flow field and elastic stress wave in the $x$ direction can be obtained by fast Fourier transform (FFT) of the time series of $C_d$. The Strouhal number $St$ is defined as

$$St = f_f H / (2 \bar{U}).$$

In the experiment of Qin et al. (2019a) and Pan et al. (2013), the Weissenberg number is defined using the first normal stress difference. In order to compare our numerical results with their experimental results, we calculate the first normal stress difference of the FENE-P model under simple shear flow as follows (Purnode & Crochet 1998):

$$N_1 = \frac{(1 - \beta) \eta_0 L^4}{\lambda (L^2 - 3)} \left[ \frac{2L^6}{\lambda^2 \dot{\gamma}^2 (L^2 - 3)^2} \right]^{-1/3} \left[ \Delta_1^{2/3} + \Delta_2^{2/3} - 2 \left( \frac{2L^6}{27 \lambda^2 \dot{\gamma}^2 (L^2 - 3)^2} \right)^{1/3} \right],$$

where

$$\Delta_1 = 1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{2L^6}{27 \lambda^2 \dot{\gamma}^2 (L^2 - 3)^2}}, \quad \Delta_2 = 1 - \sqrt{1 + \frac{2L^6}{27 \lambda^2 \dot{\gamma}^2 (L^2 - 3)^2}}.$$

The shear viscosity for the special strain rate ($\dot{\gamma}$) reads

$$\eta = \beta \eta_0 + (1 - \beta) \eta_0 \left[ \frac{L^6}{4 \lambda^2 \dot{\gamma}^2 (L^2 - 3)^2} \right]^{1/3} \left[ \Delta_1^{1/3} + \Delta_2^{1/3} \right].$$
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Figure 4. (a) The $Wi'_N - Wi$ relationship and (b) the $Wi_N - Wi$ relationship for the FENE-P model with $\beta = 0.59$.

In experiment, the material properties of a viscoelastic fluid may be complicated and not easy to fit the parameters in the existing viscoelastic constitutive models, including the existence of branched chains of polymer molecules, the spectrum distribution of relaxation time and the certain distribution of chain lengths of polymer molecules. Herein, we use a normal stress similarity to re-calibrate the rheological parameters. The Weissenberg number based on the first normal stress difference $Wi'_N$ can then be defined as the ratio of the first normal stress difference to twice the Newtonian shear stress (Qin et al. 2019a,b), i.e.

$$Wi'_N = N_1/[2\dot{\gamma} (\eta - \eta_s)],$$

which is different from $Wi$ for the FENE-P model. The $Wi'_N - Wi$ relationship for $\beta = 0.59$ is plotted in figure 4(a). For the Oldroyd-B model, $L$ tends to infinity and we have

$$Wi'_N = Wi.$$  

It is worth mentioning that the above definitions for $Wi$ and $Wi'_N$ do not include the effect of $\beta$. Thus, we adopt another definition here proposed in Pan et al. (2013):

$$Wi_N = N_1/(2\dot{\gamma} \eta).$$

In particular, for the Oldroyd-B model with $L \to \infty$, one has

$$Wi_N = (1 - \beta)Wi.$$  

This definition reflects the influence of $\beta$. The value of $Wi_N$ becomes smaller for larger $\beta$. The corresponding $Wi_N - Wi$ relationship for $\beta = 0.59$ is shown in figure 4(b). Note that
for $\beta = 0.59$ and $L^2 = 2500$, $Wi_N$ is equal to 9.391 when $Wi = 100$, which is close to the maximum $Wi_N$ in the experiments of Qin et al. (2019a,b) and Pan et al. (2013).

2.3. Numerical method

The governing equations are solved by the open-source CFD platform OpenFOAM (Weller et al. 1998) and the rheoTool toolbox (Pimenta & Alves 2018). Because no numerical studies have reported the upstream instability in viscoelastic wake flows, we detail our numerical method below and provide extensive validation of the numerical code. In order to ensure the boundedness of $tr(c) = c_{kk}$ in the FENE-P model, an implicit algorithm is used for pre-calculation before each time step (Richter, Iaccarino & Shaqfeh 2010). Tracing the transport equation of the conformation tensor yields

$$\frac{\partial c_{kk}}{\partial t} + (u \cdot \nabla)c_{kk} = tr[(\nabla u) \cdot c + c \cdot (\nabla u)^T] - \frac{(c_{kk} - 3)L^4}{\lambda(L^2 - c_{kk})(L^2 - 3)}. \quad (2.12)$$

By defining

$$\varphi = -\ln \left(1 - \frac{c_{kk}}{L^2}\right), \quad (2.13)$$

equation (2.12) can be rewritten as

$$\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} + u_j \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x_j} = \frac{e^\varphi}{L^2} \left( c_{kj} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_j} + c_{jk} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_k} \right) + \frac{e^\varphi}{\lambda(L^2 - 3)}(3e^\varphi + L^2 - L^2e^\varphi). \quad (2.14)$$

The scalar $\varphi$ is solved at each time step, and then saved for the calculation of the next time step. Once $\varphi$ is obtained at a given time step, the conformation tensor $c$ can be calculated by (2.13).

Because of the high singularity of the constitutive governing equations, a small global artificial dissipation term $\kappa \Delta c$ is added to the right-hand side of the transport equation of conformation tensor $c$ in order to avoid divergence. In our simulations, we set $Re = 0.0001$. Molecular dissipation of polymer should be considered at this $Re$. The presence of this additional diffusive term can be justified by the diffusivity of polymer in solvent, which was estimated to be over the range of $10^{-5}$ to $10^{-7}$ cm$^2$ s$^{-1}$ (Haggerty, Sugarman & Prud’homme 1988). The Schmidt number $Sc = \eta_0/\rho \kappa$, which is defined as the ratio between the zero-shear-rate viscosity and the polymer molecular diffusivity, is introduced to quantify the artificial dissipation. For dilute solution of polymer dissolved in water, the density $\rho$ is around 1000 kg m$^{-3}$. The viscosity may vary over a wide range. For example, $\eta_0$ is equal to 0.3 Pa s in the experiment of Qin et al. (2019a). Thus, $Sc$ is estimated over the range of $10^5$ to $10^8$. The normalized transport equation of conformation tensor features two dimensionless numbers, $Wi$ and the Péclet number ($Pe = Re \times Sc$). The value of $Pe$, instead of $Sc$, will be specified in our discussions. In the present study, $Re$ is set to be 0.0001. The corresponding range of $Pe$ is from 10 to 1000. The effect of $Pe$ on the flow behaviour is discussed in Appendix A.2. By comparing the numerical results and experimental results of Qin et al. (2019a), $Pe$ is fixed at 40 for the final simulation.

In order to improve the stability of numerical calculation, a stabilization technique must be adopted. More information on common stabilization techniques can be found in Appendix A.1. We perform a preliminary study to test two stabilization techniques, i.e. the logarithmic reconstruction method and the square root reconstruction method. In the numerical results based on the logarithmic reconstruction method, we do not observe the upstream recirculation found in the experiments of Qin et al. (2019a). Moreover, the
logarithmic reconstruction method was also adopted by Mokhtari et al. (2022) and Kumar & Ardekani (2022) and the upstream recirculation was not reported in their simulations. However, the square root reconstruction method can successfully predict the upstream recirculation, which is, therefore, adopted in the present simulation. A new symmetric tensor \( b \) is introduced satisfying \( c = b \cdot b^T \). The transport equation of conformation tensor \( c \) can then be rewritten as

\[
\frac{\partial b}{\partial t} + (u \cdot \nabla)b = b\nabla u + ab + \frac{1}{2\lambda} (\theta \cdot (b^T)^{-1} - be^\theta) + \frac{\kappa}{2} \Delta b + \kappa h,
\]

where

\[
h = b^{-1} \left[ \frac{1}{2} (\Delta b)b + (\partial_x b)^2 + (\partial_y b)^2 + (\partial_z b)^2 \right].
\]

As advised by Balci et al. (2011), the term \( \kappa h \) in (2.15) is ignored in our numerical study. Note that \( a \) in (2.15) is an antisymmetric tensor, which can be written in the form of components as

\[
a = \begin{pmatrix}
0 & a_{12} & a_{13} \\
-a_{12} & 0 & a_{23} \\
-a_{13} & -a_{23} & 0
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

The components of \( a \) can be calculated by solving the following equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
(b_{11} + b_{22})a_{12} + b_{23}a_{13} - b_{31}a_{23} &= w_1, \\
b_{23}a_{12} + (b_{11} + b_{33})a_{13} + b_{12}a_{23} &= w_2, \\
-b_{13}a_{12} + b_{12}a_{13} + (b_{22} + b_{33})a_{23} &= w_3,
\end{align*}
\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
w_1 &= (b_{12}u_{1,1} - b_{11}u_{2,1}) + (b_{22}u_{1,2} - b_{12}u_{2,2}) + (b_{23}u_{1,3} - b_{13}u_{2,3}), \\
w_2 &= (b_{13}u_{1,1} - b_{11}u_{3,1}) + (b_{33}u_{1,3} - b_{13}u_{3,3}) + (b_{23}u_{1,2} - b_{12}u_{3,2}), \\
w_3 &= (b_{13}u_{2,1} - b_{12}u_{3,1}) + (b_{23}u_{2,2} - b_{22}u_{3,2}) + (b_{33}u_{2,3} - b_{23}u_{3,3}).
\end{align*}
\]

Here \( u_{i,j} \) are the components of \( \nabla u \). For a detailed description of this method, the reader is referred to Balci et al. (2011).

The second-order backward scheme is used for time discretization. The time step \( \Delta t \) in our simulation is set small enough to ensure numerical stability. The MINMOD scheme is adopted for discretization of \( u \cdot \nabla b \). The second-order upwind scheme is adopted for discretization of \( u \cdot \nabla u \). For the tensor \( b \), the linear extrapolation boundary with second-order accuracy is imposed on the upper and lower walls, and no-flux boundary condition with first-order accuracy on the cylindrical wall, to ensure the stability of numerical calculation. More discussion on the boundary condition for the tensor \( b \) can be found in Appendix A.4. The pUncoupled algorithm is adopted for the pressure–velocity coupling (Jareteg 2012; Pimenta & Alves 2019). Our simulation is performed using the rheoFoam solver module of rheoTool in OpenFOAM extend 4.0 (Pimenta & Alves 2018). The validation of the present numerical method is provided in Appendix A.1.

The subcritical bifurcation can be distinguished by checking whether the simulation result is path-dependent or not, as shown in Figure 5. In the present study, we systematically vary the controlling parameter \( Wi \) and the initial condition to examine their effects on the final simulation result. In the increasing \( Wi \) process, we gradually and slowly increase \( Wi \) and use the numerical result of the current state to initialize the simulation for the
Figure 5. Method to identify subcritical bifurcation. The solid and dashed lines denote the stable and unstable solutions, respectively. Parameter $W_{ic}$ denotes the critical condition; IW and DW denote the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes, respectively.

next simulation. In the decreasing $Wi$ process, we gradually and slowly decrease $Wi$ and use the numerical result of the current state to initialize the simulation for the next state. We explicitly point out which process is applied to perform the simulation only if the results at the same $Wi$ obtained for the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes are not identical. For an instability indicator $A$ around the linear critical condition ($W_{ic}$, as shown in figure 5), finite-amplitude solutions can exist even if $Wi$ is less than $W_{ic}$, which results in a different increasing $Wi$ path from a decreasing $Wi$ path (the hysteresis phenomenon). This method for identifying subcritical bifurcation has been widely used in previous studies (Becherer, Morozov & van Saarloos 2009; Pan et al. 2013; Burshtein et al. 2017). In this paper, $LD$, the root-mean-square upstream recirculation length $RMS(LD)$, the time-averaged drag coefficient $C_d$, the root-mean-square drag coefficient $C_{d_rms}$ and an asymmetry parameter $I$ (defined in (3.8)) are selected as the instability indicators.

### 2.4. Mesh generation and grid convergence test

A block-structured mesh is generated for the computational domain using the commercial software ANSYS ICEM. The surrounding region of the cylinder is discretized by an O-type mesh, as shown in figure 3(b). The remainder of the computational domain is discretized using several blocks of quadrilateral meshes. In the $y$ direction, $Ny = 121$ (for $BR = 50\%$, 201 for $BR = 65\%$ and 75\%) grid points are unevenly distributed. In the $x$ direction, $Nx = Ny$. The dense mesh is applied near the cylinder. The O-type mesh comprises $Ns = 2(Nx + Ny - 2) = 800$ ($BR = 65\%$ and 75\%) or 440 ($BR = 50\%$) grid points uniformly distributed along the cylinder perimeter and $Nr = 200$ ($BR = 65\%$ and 75\%) or 120 ($BR = 50\%$) grid points stretched over an exponential progression along the radial direction to ensure a fine mesh near the cylinder surface. We set the first cell side-by-side to the cylinder surface in the radial direction to 0.00125$H$. In the $x$ direction, $Nl_1 = 701$ grid points are set in the upstream region, and $Nl_2 = 301$ grid points are unevenly arranged in the downstream region. In the $y$ direction, $Ny = 121$ (201 for $BR = 65\%$ and 75\%) grid points are unevenly distributed. The total number of cells in the computational domain is approximately 280 000 ($BR = 65\%$ and 75\%) or 150 800 ($BR = 50\%$). The detailed mesh generation description can be found in our previous publication (Peng et al. 2021).

The parameter set $(BR, Wi, L^2, \beta) = (50\%, 30, 2500, 0.59)$ is selected to check the mesh dependency and the corresponding simulation is performed on three sets of meshes, which
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| Mesh  | \(N_{l1}\) | \(N_{l2}\) | \(N_y\) | \(N_x\) | \(N_r\) | \(\Delta r\) | Total | \(L_D\)   |
|-------|-------------|-------------|---------|---------|--------|--------------|-------|-----------|
| Mesh1 | 301         | 201         | 51      | 50      | 71     | 0.00125H     | 39 000| 0.9202–1.0041|
| Mesh2 | 701         | 301         | 121     | 121     | 71     | 0.00125H     | 150 800| 1.2329   |
| Mesh3 | 1201        | 501         | 201     | 201     | 121    | 0.000625H    | 436 000| 1.2726   |

Table 1. Parameter set \((BR, Re, Wi, L^2, \beta) = (50\%, 0.0001, 30, 2500, 0.59)\). Here \(N_{l1}\) and \(N_{l2}\) denote the grid numbers of the upstream and downstream regions along the \(x\) direction, respectively; \(N_x\) and \(N_y\) denote the grid numbers in the \(x\) and \(y\) directions, respectively; \(N_r\) denotes the grid numbers radiating from the cylinder surface; and \(\Delta r\) is the grid size of the innermost grid near the cylinder wall.

Length \(L_D\) is steady for Mesh2 and Mesh3 and the difference between the results for Mesh2 and Mesh3 is 3%. We thus consider that our numerical results for Mesh2 are accurate enough and the final simulations are performed on this mesh.

### 3. Results and discussion

In this section, we report the numerical results of the viscoelastic wake flow in a confined channel. The parameters considered are \((BR, \beta) = (50\%, 0.59)\) and \(L^2 = 400, 2500, 10 000\) or \(40 000\) in §3.1; \(\beta = 0.59, L^2 = 400, 2500, 10 000\) or \(40 000\) and \(BR = 10\%\) to \(75\%\) to study the effect of \(BR\) in §3.2; and \(BR = 50\%\) or \(75\%, L^2 = 2500\) or \(10 000\) and \(\beta = 0.1–0.9\) to study the effect of \(\beta\) in §3.3. Table 2 summarizes the parameter space of the present study. In a certain parameter range, the flow is unsteady. We use the data in five statistical cycles to calculate the time-averaged power spectral density (PSD) and \(u_{rms}\) quantities after the flow reaches the statistically steady state.

Before we perform the flow simulations, the effect of the length of downstream region \(l_2\) on the upstream recirculation is examined. Here we consider the parameter set \((BR, \beta, L^2, Wi) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500, 60)\). Three different \(l_2\) of \(25H, 50H\) and \(100H\) are investigated. The upstream recirculation lengths at different \(l_2\) are summarized in table 3, which indicates that \(l_2\) has a very small effect on the upstream recirculation. To save computational time, \(l_2 = 25H\) is selected for the final simulation.
Table 3. Effect of $l_2$ on the upstream recirculation length.

| $l_2$ | 25H | 50H | 100H |
|-------|-----|-----|------|
| $L_D$ ($Wi = 60$) | 2.3012 | 2.3001 | 2.2992 |

3.1. High-Weissenberg-number simulations for the FENE-P model at $BR = 50\%$

Simulation is first performed for the case with the parameter set $(BR, \beta, L^2) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500)$. The set $(BR, \beta) = (50\%, 0.59)$ is often used as a benchmark case for numerical simulation. Due to the numerical instability and heavy calculation burden, $Wi$ was often set to less than 0.5 in previous studies (e.g. Fan, Tanner & Phan-Thien 1999; Alves, Pinho & Oliveira 2001; Hulsen et al. 2005). In our numerical simulation, relatively high-$Wi$ flows (up to 100) are calculated by considering polymer molecular diffusion and using a small time step. Lee, Hwang & Cho (2021) indicated that the effect of molecular dissipation of polymer can be negligible only when $Pe$ is large ($Pe > \sim 10^5$) and $Wi$ is small ($Wi < \sim 1$). Since the maximum $Wi$ considered is 100 and $Pe$ is equal to 40 in the present study, molecular dissipation of polymer should be taken into account.

The streamline distributions and the $u$ velocity profiles are shown in figure 6. In a Newtonian fluid, the flow is almost symmetric with respect to the cylinder as shown in figure 6(a). As $Wi$ increases, the velocity decreases gradually along the directions approaching the cylinder both upstream and downstream, and the downstream velocity decreases faster. Figure 6(f) indicates that the downstream $u$ velocity almost linearly increases with $x$ except for the region near the cylinder wall for different $Wi$, which is consistent with the experimental results of Haward et al. (2018). Note that the strain rate at the rear stagnation point of the cylinder is equal to zero (Haward et al. 2019). At $Wi = 15$, a recirculation zone starts to form upstream of the cylinder. Correspondingly, a region of negative $u$ velocity can be observed in the upstream recirculation region as shown in figure 6(f). With a further increase in $Wi$, the upstream recirculation bubble becomes larger.

To better understand the upstream recirculation, we follow Lee et al. (2007) and discuss the flow-type parameter defined as

$$\xi(x, y) = \frac{|\dot{\gamma}| - |\Omega|}{|\dot{\gamma}| + |\Omega|},$$

(3.1)

where $|\dot{\gamma}| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}D : D}$ and $|\Omega| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\Omega : \Omega}$ are the magnitudes of the deformation rate tensor $D = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla u + \nabla u^T)$ and the vorticity tensor $\Omega = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla u - \nabla u^T)$, respectively, which can be locally evaluated using the components of the velocity vectors. Parameter $\xi$ is all-coordinate invariant (Lee et al. 2007). Here, $\xi = -1$ indicates solid body rotation, $\xi = 0$ simple shear and $\xi = 1$ pure extension. The flow strength in the extensional regions is quantified by the principal strain rate or the eigenvector of $D$ (Astarita 1979):

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(D_{11} - D_{22})^2 + 4D_{12}^2}.$$  (3.2)

In order to better describe the tensile strength in the extension area, a dimensionless parameter $\lambda_2$ is defined by multiplying $\lambda_1$ and $\xi$:

$$\lambda_2 = \xi \lambda_1.$$  (3.3)
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A local stretch Weissenberg number is defined as

$$W_{\text{Wielastic local}} = \frac{\lambda}{u^2 + v^2} \left[ u^2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + uv \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + uv \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + v^2 \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right], \quad (3.4)$$

which describes the local effect on the Weissenberg number caused by stretching (positive $W_{\text{Wielastic local}}$) or compression (negative $W_{\text{Wielastic local}}$) of fluid parcels along the flow streamline direction.

Figure 6. Streamlines for Newtonian (a) and viscoelastic (b–e) fluids at $BR = 50\%$, $\beta = 0.59$ and $L^2 = 2500$ for different $Wi$ and the corresponding $u$ velocity profiles along $y = 0$ (f). The contours in (a–e) are coloured by $\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}/\bar{U}$. All the streamlines are almost symmetric about the horizontal centreline of the cylinder.
The $\xi$ and $\lambda_2$ distributions are shown in figures 7(a) and 7(b), respectively. In a Newtonian fluid, both $\xi$ and $\lambda_2$ distribute symmetrically against the $x$ and $y$ axes with respect to the cylinder. The fluid parcel around the cylinder exhibits high extension. Just upstream of the cylinder, the flow velocity is reduced, resulting in compression. In the narrow gap between the cylinder surface and the channel wall with $x < 0$, flow velocity increases, resulting in stretching. Figure 7 shows that the upstream compression or stretching regions further expand upstream along the middle line ($y = 0$) and the gap middle line ($y = 3/8H$) as $Wi$ increases. The $\lambda_2$ distribution demonstrates that the strongest tensile strength region appears in the gap between the cylinder surface and the channel wall.

The local elastic stretch Weissenberg numbers ($W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$) at $y = 0$ and $y = 3/8H$ are extracted and shown in figure 8. As defined above, positive and negative $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ denote fluid stretching and compression, respectively. At $y = 0$, the initial decrease in the flow velocity results in a negative $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ for a long distance. Parameter $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ initially decreases and then increases along the $x$ direction. Generally, the location of the valley point moves upstream and the corresponding minimum $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ decreases with increasing $Wi$. For $Wi = 60$, the minimum $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ is about $-19.8$. At $y = 3/8H$, the increase in the flow velocity results in a positive $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ for a long distance. Before approaching $2x/H = 0$, $Wi$ rapidly increases to the peak value and then experiences a sudden drop. The maximum $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ is about 68.1 for $Wi = 60$, which occurs in the gap between the cylinder surface and the channel wall. The absolute $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ in the gap ($= 68.1$) is much larger than that in front of the cylinder ($= 19.8$). The large $W_{\text{elastic}}^{\text{local}}$ in the gap reflects that the high elastic stress is concentrated there, which extends upstream near the wall region as shown in figure 9. A similar observation has been reported by Zhao et al. (2016) in wormlike fluids.

Figure 7. (a) Flow-type parameter distributions and (b) dimensionless $\lambda_2$ distributions.
A well-known dimensionless parameter which rationalizes these streamline instabilities is the $M$ parameter introduced by McKinley, Pakdel & Öztekin (1996):

$$M = \left[ \frac{\lambda \tilde{U}}{\Re} \frac{\tau_{11}}{\Re \left( \eta_0 \left| \dot{\gamma} \right| \right)} \right]^{1/2},$$

(3.5)

where $\lambda \tilde{U} = l$ is the characteristic length over which perturbations to the base stress and velocity fields relax, $\Re$ is the streamline radius of curvature and $\tau_{11}$ is the streamwise tensile stress. We convert this definition of the criterion to a form amenable to local evaluation in flows by the substitution of characteristic values with local values.
To consider local effective relaxation time ($\lambda_{eff} = \lambda/f$) and ignore solid-like rotational flows, Cruz et al. (2016) proposed a modified Pakdel–McKinley criterion:

$$M^* = \left[ \frac{\lambda_{eff} |\mathbf{u}|}{r} \frac{\tau_{11}}{||\tau||_F} \right]^{1/2},$$

(3.6)

where $r = |\mathbf{u}|^3 / |\mathbf{u} \times \dot{\mathbf{u}}|$. Here we note that $\dot{\mathbf{u}}$ is the material derivative of the velocity vector, which is equivalent to $\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u}$ for steady-state flow. The Frobenius norm ($|| \cdot ||_F$) is used, so that the resulting $\tau_{11} / ||\tau||_F$ will vary between zero, when the normal stress is weak, and one, when the tensile normal stress dominates, in highly elastic shear or extensional flows. Therefore in strongly extensional flows, $M^*$ is approximately given by $\lambda_{eff} |\mathbf{u}| / r$.

Contours of $M^*$ for different $Wi$ are shown in figure 10. The largest $M^*$ region occurs in the gap between the cylinder and the outer wall. In the upstream recirculation regions, we can also find non-negligible, though smaller, values of $M^*$. From the definition of $M^*$, high $M^*$ happens in highly elastic shear or extensional flows. Although the flow curvature in the recirculation zone is large, we only see a relatively small value of $M^*$ in the recirculation region because the extension in this region is not larger than that in the gap regions (figure 8). The distribution of $M^*$ suggests that the instability is most likely related to the high-shear region near the cylinder, which could be classified as the standard curve-streamline shear flow instability. This conclusion would be also consistent with that reported in Davoodi, Dominques & Poole (2019) where the effect of strain rate on the start point of purely elastic instability in elongational-dominated flows was investigated.

The above results indicate that $W_{\text{elastic}}$ and the stress dominate in the gap, compared with those in front of the cylinder. In this sense, the flow across the gap can be regarded as a main flow, while the upstream recirculation is a secondary flow. A primary–secondary flow model shown in figure 11 can be applied to characterize this upstream recirculation, i.e. a high-speed stretching gap flow and a relatively low-speed upstream recirculation.

The time evolutions of the drag coefficient for $Wi = 70, 80, 90$ and 100 are plotted in figure 12. To save computing time, the numerical result of $Wi = 60$ (at time of $2tU/H = 525$) is set as the initial value for these higher-$Wi$ flows. The drag acting on the cylinder increases with $Wi$ when $Wi > \sim 0.5$ (refer to data in table 5 for low-$Wi$ range and data...
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Figure 11. The primary–secondary flow model for the present flow configuration.

Figure 12. The solid black lines denote the temporal histories of the drag coefficient at \((BR, \beta, L^2) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500)\) for (a) \(Wi = 70\), (b) \(Wi = 80\), (c) \(Wi = 90\) and (d) \(Wi = 100\). The dashed brown line in (d) denotes the temporal history of \(L_D\).

Here in high-\(Wi\) range), no matter whether the flow is steady (Mokhtari et al. 2022) or unsteady. The time-averaged drag coefficient \((C_{d})\) is \(\sim 532\) at \(Wi = 80\) but \(\sim 799\) at \(Wi = 82.5\). A sharp increase in \(C_{d}\) is observed when \(Wi\) increases from 80 to 82.5 as shown in figure 12(a), which results from the enhancement in the additional extensional viscosity due to flow fluctuations (Browne & Datta 2021) as shown in figure 12(b). A similar sudden increase of drag was also reported in the numerical simulation of Grilli et al. (2013). Therefore, the increase in \(C_{d}\) with increasing \(Wi\) is sharper in unsteady flow than in steady flow.

When \(Wi < \sim 80\), our calculation indicates that the flow is steady after developing for a long time. However, the flow becomes unsteady when \(Wi \geq 80\). At \(Wi = 80\), the fluctuation of drag coefficient exhibits a fully developed periodic state with a single frequency demonstrated by the FFT analysis shown in figure 13(a). For \(Wi = 100\) in figure 12(d), the variation of drag coefficient roughly maintains a periodic state that features more discrete frequencies demonstrated by the FFT analysis shown in figure 13(b). Interestingly, the quantitative analysis demonstrates \(St_4 \approx 4St_1\), \(St_3 \approx 3St_1\) and \(St_2 \approx 2St_1\), indicating the nonlinear effect of the period-doubling. Figure 12(d) also shows the corresponding time evolution of \(L_D\) for one period, which exhibits a trend similar to that of the \(C_d\) curve. The maximum drag of the cylinder corresponds to the longest upstream recirculation. The corresponding streamlines at four time instants within one period are shown in figure 14.

A sharp increase of drag between \(Wi = 80\) and 82.5 under the increasing \(Wi\) process (i.e. the discontinuity on the \(C_{d} - Wi\) curve near \(Wi = 82.5\)) shown in figure 15(a) implies
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Figure 13. The FFT of the drag coefficients for \((BR, \beta, L^2) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500)\) at (a) \(Wi = 80\) and (b) \(Wi = 100\).

Figure 14. Streamlines at time instants (a) \(t = t_1\), (b) \(t = t_2\), (c) \(t = t_3\) and (d) \(t = t_4\) marked in figure 12(d) for \((BR, \beta, L^2, Wi) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500, 100)\).

Figure 15. Variations of (a) the time-averaged drag coefficient \((\bar{C}_d)\) and (b) the root-mean-square drag coefficient \((C_{drms})\) with \(Wi\) for \((BR, \beta, L^2) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500)\). Here IW and DW denote the increasing and decreasing \(Wi\) processes, respectively.

A subcritical transition. We use the result of \(Wi = 82.5\) as the initial field to study this transition behaviour and gradually reduce \(Wi\) (i.e. the decreasing \(Wi\) process). It is found that the \(\bar{C}_d - Wi\) curve maintains continuity until \(Wi = 67.5\) and then experiences a sudden drop between \(Wi = 67.5\) and 65 as shown in figure 15(a). Both figures 15 and 16 show that the unsteady flow becomes steady when \(Wi\) is decreased from \(Wi = 67.5\) to \(Wi = 65\). The hysteresis phenomenon shown in figure 15(b) implies that the transient transition is a subcritical Hopf bifurcation.

For \(L^2 = 10\ 000\) and 40 000, we also observe the upstream recirculation. The non-dimensional recirculation length \((L_D)\) as a function of \(Wi\) for \(L^2 = 2500, 10\ 000\) and 40 000 is summarized in figure 17(a). At high \(Wi\), the flow becomes unsteady for
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Figure 16. The temporal histories of the drag coefficient at $(BR, \beta, L^2) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500)$ for (a) $Wi = 67.5$ and (b) $Wi = 65$ under the decreasing $Wi$ process. The numerical result of $Wi = 82.5$ is selected as the initial field. Here DW denotes the decreasing $Wi$ process.

Length $L_D$ for $L^2 = 40\,000$ is shorter than those for $L^2 = 2500$ or $L^2 = 10\,000$. However, Qin et al. (2019a) implies the upstream recirculation length is positively correlated with extensional viscosity. Variation of $L_D$ with $Wi_N$ is plotted in figure 17(b). As mentioned above, the definition of $Wi_N$ is similar to that in Pan et al. (2013). The time-averaged $L_D$ measured by Qin et al. (2019a) is also plotted in figure 17(b). Behaviour of $L_D$ at $L^2 = 2500$ is mostly consistent with the experimental results of Qin et al. (2019a). It is worth pointing out that in their experiment, the upstream recirculation length varies strongly with time when $Wi_N$ is beyond 4.35. However, the fluctuation of $L_D$ is not very obvious in our simulation when $Wi_N > 13.5$ for $L^2 = 10\,000$. Note that the present simulation is two-dimensional and the present rheological model and parameters may be different from those for the material used in the experiment. Besides, $Re$ may be different...
between our simulation and their experiment. Thus, the temporal behaviour of $L_D$ deviates from that reported by Qin et al. (2019a).

Figure 17 clearly shows that there is a critical Weissenberg number $W_{ic}$ for the onset of the upstream recirculation at each $L^2$. Close to the transition, $L_D$ increases smoothly from zero to a non-zero value with increasing $Wi$, and the relationship between $L_D$ and $Wi$ can be well described by a simple Landau-type quartic potential minimized as

$$Wi = W_{ic} (gL_D^2 + hL_D^{-1} + 1),$$

where $g$ denotes the growth rate coefficient and $h$ quantifies system imperfection that biases a transition to a favoured branch. Figure 18 shows the relationship between $L_D$ and $Wi$ for both the numerical results and the fitted data around the onset of the upstream recirculation region. The corresponding values of $g$ and $h$ are listed in table 4. The fitted $W_{ic}$ and $g$ increase with $L^2$ while $h$ is always close to zero. When $L^2 = 10 000$, the fitted curve only collapses well with the numerical results when $Wi$ is less than 40. This implies that at $BR = 50 \%$, variation in $Wi$ may cause inherent change in flow state when $L^2 = 10 000$. It may result from the velocity increase in the gap between the cylinder surface.
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\[ L^2 = 400 \quad L^2 = 2500 \quad L^2 = 10000 \quad L^2 = 40000 \]

\[
\begin{align*}
W_{i,c} & = 14.97 & 16.252 & 16.83 & 17.94 \\
g & = 2.8440 & 0.5164 & 0.8423 & 2.2303 \\
h & = -0.00003 & -0.00002 & -0.00011 & -0.0001
\end{align*}
\]

Table 4. The fitting parameters for \( BR = 50 \% \) in (3.7).

Figure 19. Time-averaged flow streamlines and contours of the dimensionless \( u \) velocity at \((BR, \, \beta, \, L^2) = (50 \%, \, 0.59, \, 10000)\) for (a) \( Wi = 40 \) and (b) \( Wi = 50 \). (c) Variation of the maximum time-averaged dimensionless \( u \) velocity max(\( \bar{u}/\bar{U} \)) with \( Wi \).

and the channel wall. The time-averaged streamlines and contours of the dimensionless \( u \) velocity for \( Wi = 40 \) and 50 are shown in figures 19(a) and 19(b). The streamlines indicate that the upstream recirculation elongates when \( Wi \) increases from 40 to 50. Meanwhile, the contours of the dimensionless \( u \) velocity show that the maximum velocity in the gap between the cylinder surface and the channel wall increases from 3.31 at \( Wi = 40 \) to 3.65 at \( Wi = 50 \). The maximum time-averaged dimensionless \( x \)-direction velocity in the flow field max(\( \bar{u}/\bar{U} \)) is extracted and plotted in figure 19(c). Obviously, a significant increase in velocity occurs between \( Wi = 40 \) and 50. At high \( Wi \), the elastic stress is concentrated near the channel and cylinder walls, which acts to narrow the gap and accelerate the flow velocity there. For example, the maximum velocity in the gap is 3.65 for \((Wi, \, L^2) = (50, \, 10000)\); however, it is about 3 for a Newtonian fluid. The effect of \( BR \) on the upstream recirculation is discussed in the next section.

3.2. Effect of \( BR \) on viscoelastic upstream instability

Previous experiments indicated that the upstream recirculation occurs when \( BR \) is not less than 50 %. When \( BR \) is low, such as 10 %, only upstream streamline bending occurs (Haward et al. 2018). Thus, there is a critical value of \( BR \) which is around 50 % and determined by \( Wi \) and \( L^2 \), below which the upstream recirculation will not occur. When \( BR \) is 50 % and \( Wi \) is low in the simulations discussed in § 3.1, the velocity in the midline \((y = 0)\) changes from 1.5 at the inlet to 0 at the cylinder surface, which results in a compression \( W_{i,local}^{\text{elastic}} \). However, the velocity along \( y = 3/8H \) changes from about 1.5 at the inlet to about 3.0 in the gap, which leads to a stretching \( W_{i,local}^{\text{elastic}} \). The maximum compression \( W_{i,local}^{\text{elastic}} \) is almost equal to the maximum stretching \( W_{i,local}^{\text{elastic}} \) in this situation.
When $BR$ exceeds 50%, the gradient of flow velocity in the gap is steeper than that upstream of the cylinder. That is, the stretching $W_i^\text{elastic}$ upstream is larger than the compression $W_i^\text{elastic}$ in the gap. The compression $W_i^\text{elastic}$ in the gap plays a leading role, which results in a primary–secondary flow as shown in figure 11. Moreover, with the increase of $Wi$, the flow velocity inside the gap may slightly increase (discussed in last paragraph in §3.1). This indicates that the blockage effect is more severe and the apparent $BR$ is increased (the increase of the flow rate in the centreline of the gap can be equivalent to the increase of $BR$). Therefore, the upstream recirculation also occurs when $BR = 50\%$.

It is reasonable to speculate that a certain boundary exists in the space of $(BR, Wi)$ to distinguish the regimes with and without the upstream recirculation. Thus, we studied the effect of $BR$ on $Wi_c$ for $(\beta, L^2) = (0.59, 2500)$, as shown in figure 20. Note that $Wi$ does not exceed 100 in this test. Here $Wi_c$ is not obtained by fitting (3.7). Instead, at a given $BR$, multiple simulations are performed near $Wi_c$. The bisection method is adopted to determine $Wi_c$ by checking whether the upstream recirculation occurs. Our results imply that the upstream recirculation only occurs when $BR$ is more than 16.7%, i.e. the $Wi_c–BR$ curve asymptotically approaches $BR \sim 16.7\%$. Hopkins et al. (2022a) found that for a viscoelastic wormlike micellar solution, the upstream recirculation is observed only when $BR$ is greater than certain thresholds and $Wi_c$ is almost inversely proportional to $BR$. Our numerical simulation results qualitatively agree with their experimental results. We also select five typical cases with $(BR, Wi) = P_1 (25\%, 20)$, $P_2 (25\%, 30)$, $P_3 (50\%, 20)$, $P_4 (62.5\%, 20)$ and $P_5 (75\%, 20)$ to demonstrate the instantaneous streamlines. Here $P_1$ is under the $Wi_c–BR$ curve and no upstream recirculation exists. In contrast, $P_2$ to $P_5$ are all located above the $Wi_c–BR$ curve, and the upstream recirculation does occur. For a fixed $Wi$, as $BR$ increases ($P_3$, $P_4$ and $P_5$), the upstream recirculation becomes longer and behaves asymmetrically. This asymmetric behaviour is explained later in this section.

In the rest of this subsection we mainly consider high $BR$ of 62.5% and 75% and discuss its effect on the upstream recirculation. Figures 21(a) and 21(b) plot $L_D$ as a function of $Wi$ for $BR = 62.5\%$ and 75%, respectively. When $(BR, L^2) = (62.5\%, 2500), (62.5\%, 10000), (75\%, 400)$ and $(75\%, 2500)$, the growth of upstream recirculation with
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Figure 21. The $L_D$–$Wi$ relationship for (a) $BR = 62.5\%$ and (b) $BR = 75\%$ (for the decreasing $Wi$ process, the numerical results of $Wi = 10$ are selected as the initial fields for $L^2 = 10,000$, while the numerical results of $Wi = 9$ are selected as the initial fields for $L^2 = 40,000$). Variation in the root-mean-square $L_D$ with $Wi$ at $L^2 = 40,000$ for (c) $BR = 62.5\%$ and (d) $BR = 75\%$. Here IW and DW denote the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes, respectively.

Figure 22. The growth of upstream recirculation with $Wi$ at $BR = 62.5\%$ for (a) $L^2 = 2500$ and (b) $L^2 = 10,000$. The solid line denotes the data fitted with Landau-type quartic potential while the symbols ♦ and ⭐ denote the numerical results.

$Wi$ close to the transition also satisfies (3.7), as shown in figures 22(a,b) and 23(a,b). However, when $(BR, L^2) = (62.5\%, 40,000), (75\%, 10,000)$ and $(75\%, 40,000)$, the $L_D$–$Wi$ relationship for the increasing $Wi$ process does not satisfy (3.7), as shown in figures 21(a,b) and 23(d). In fact, there is a sudden increase of $L_D$ when $Wi$ is larger than a certain value, indicating that the $L_D$–$Wi$ relationship is discontinuous there. For example,
when $BR = 62.5\%$ and $L^2 = 10\,000$, $L_D$ equals zero at $Wi = 14.5$. However, $L_D$ suddenly changes to $2.186-2.5697$ when $Wi > 14.5$. Thus, the bifurcation for these parameter sets is subcritical. For decreasing $Wi$, the results for $(BR, L^2) = (75\%, 10\,000)$ and $(75\%, 40\,000)$ still satisfy (3.7), as shown in figure 23(b,c). The flow instability is affected by external disturbance. In previous experiments (Kenney et al. 2013; Shi et al. 2015; Zhao et al. 2016; Qin et al. 2019a; Haward et al. 2021), no sudden increase in the $L_D-Wi$ relationship was observed, which may be caused by strong disturbance in those experiments. The appearance of upstream recirculation is a more stable form. These scenarios are consistent with our results obtained in the decreasing $Wi$ process, where strong disturbance is also introduced by the initial fields. It is worth pointing out that when $(BR, L^2) = (62.5\%, 40\,000)$, $L_D$ jumps suddenly with increasing $Wi$ around $Wi = 15-16$, as shown in figure 21(a). This implies that hysteresis may exist. However, we are not able to carry out further investigation due to serious numerical instability.

Figures 21(c) and 21(d) plot the root-mean-square $L_D$ as a function of $Wi$ at $L^2 = 40\,000$ for $BR = 62.5\%$ and $75\%$, respectively. Comparison between figures 21(a) and 21(c) indicates that the critical $Wi$ for the onset of the upstream recirculation and the non-zero fluctuation in the upstream recirculation region almost coincide at $Wi \sim 15$. 

Figure 23. The growth of upstream recirculation with $Wi$ at $BR=75\%$ for (a) $L^2 = 400$, (b) $L^2 = 2500$, (c) $L^2 = 10\,000$ and (d) $L^2 = 40\,000$. The solid line denotes the data fitted with Landau-type quartic potential while the symbols •, ♦, ■ and * denote the numerical results. Here DW denotes the decreasing $Wi$ process.
The variations of the root-mean-square $L_D$ with $Wi$ for both the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes in figure 21(d) also indicate that bifurcation is subcritical.

Parameter $W_{ic}$ for different $BR$ can be obtained from figures 18 and 21. With an increase in $BR$, $W_{ic}$ decreases. With an increase in $L^2$, $W_{ic}$ becomes larger (the increasing $Wi$ process) for most cases. Yamani & McKinley (2023) defined an important parameter $Wi/L$ for flow instability. This parameter implies that $L^2$ is positively related to $W_{ic}$, which is consistent with the present results. Therefore, the onset of the upstream recirculation is promoted and $W_{ic}$ is smaller when $L^2$ is smaller. Moreover, $W_{ic}$ is influenced by how the flow field is initialized, i.e. the increasing or decreasing $Wi$ process mentioned in § 2.3. The value of $W_{ic}$ for the decreasing $Wi$ process may be much lower than that for the increasing $Wi$ process. For example, $W_{ic}$ at $(BR, L^2) = (75 \%, 40 \,000)$ is about 2.75 for the decreasing $Wi$ process and about 6.75 for the increasing $Wi$ process.

At high $Wi$, such as $(BR, Wi) = (62.5 \%, 20)$ or $(75 \%, 10)$, $L_D$ only slightly changes with the variation in $Wi$. Length $L_D$ may reach the saturation value in this situation. For $BR = 62.5 \%$ or $75 \%$, the saturation value is large when $L^2$ is large, which is different from the trend for $BR = 50 \%$. A large $L^2$, i.e. a longer molecular chain length, means higher potential of extensional viscosity. Qin et al. (2019a) imply the upstream recirculation length is positively correlated with extensional viscosity, which is qualitatively consistent with our results at $BR = 62.5 \%$ or $75 \%$.

When $BR = 62.5 \%$ or $75 \%$, the upstream recirculation exhibits strong time-dependence behaviour at high $Wi$ when $L^2 = 40 \,000$. The $u$ velocity contours and streamlines at time instant $2t\bar{U}/H = 1710$ for $(BR, L^2, Wi) = (75 \%, 40 \,000, 9)$ are shown in figure 24(a). Under this parameter set, the flow is unsteady and the length and shape of the upstream recirculation vary with time. However, the fluctuation amplitude in the upstream recirculation region is not the maximum in the flow field. Instead, the strongest temporal fluctuation occurs in the gap region, as shown by the $u_{rms}$ distribution in figure 24(b). Downstream of the cylinder, the high-velocity region is concentrated on both sides of the centreline, as shown in figure 24(a). Correspondingly, the flow fluctuation also is high there.

We carefully examine the symmetry of the flow field and find that the symmetry against the horizontal centreline is obviously broken for $BR = 62.5 \%$ and $75 \%$ when $L^2$ is large, such as $L^2 = 40 \,000$. Figure 25 plots the variations of the averaged velocity (space average) in the upper and lower gaps with time at $(BR, L^2, Wi) = (75 \%, 40 \,000, 9)$. Both averaged
velocities show strongly oscillating behaviour. The corresponding oscillating amplitudes for upper and lower averaged velocities are opposite, in order to satisfy the continuity equation. The upper averaged velocity fluctuates around a mean value of 4.168, which is larger than the 3.898 for the lower averaged velocity.

A parameter, following Hopkins et al. (2021), is defined to evaluate the flow asymmetry:

$$I = \frac{|\overline{Q_u} - \overline{Q_l}|}{\overline{Q_u} + \overline{Q_l}},$$

where $\overline{Q_u}$ and $\overline{Q_l}$ are the volumetric flow rate through the upper and lower gaps, respectively. Variation of $I$ with $Wi$ for $(BR, L^2) = (75 \%, 40000)$ is presented in figure 26. The flow symmetry is only maintained at $Wi = 0$, i.e. $I = 0$ for Newtonian flow. When $Wi > 0$, the viscoelastic flow exhibits complex asymmetric behaviour for high $BR$ and high $L^2$. For the increasing $Wi$ process, $I$ initially increases with $Wi$ until $Wi = 5.5$. Then $I$ decreases with further increase in $Wi$ until $Wi = 6.75$. Note that for $(BR, L^2) = (75 \%, 40000)$, the onset of the upstream recirculation occurs at $Wi_c \sim 6.75$. When $Wi > 6.75$, $I$ increases again with $Wi$. For the decreasing $Wi$ process, $I$ decreases with decreasing $Wi$ from $Wi = 9$ to 5.5. However, $I$ increases with a further decrease in $Wi$ until $Wi = 4.75$, which corresponds to $Wi_c$ below which the upstream recirculation disappears. When $Wi < 4.75$, $I$ decreases again with decreasing $Wi$. The increasing and decreasing $Wi$ paths do not coincide for $4.75 < Wi < 6.75$, which indicates a typical hysteresis phenomenon.

3.3. Effect of $\beta$ and $L^2$ on viscoelastic upstream instability

Figure 18(b) shows that the $L_D$–$Wi$ relationship for $(BR, L^2) = (50 \%, 2500)$ approximately satisfies a Landau-type quartic potential near $Wi_c$. However, figure 21(b) shows that the variation of $L_D$ with $Wi$ for $(BR, L^2) = (75 \%, 10000)$ under the increasing $Wi$ process does not approximately fit a Landau-type quartic potential near $Wi_c$, but shows the hysteresis phenomenon. Thus, these two parameter sets are specially selected to investigate the effect of $\beta$. For $(BR, L^2) = (50 \%, 2500)$, $\beta$ ranges from 0.1 to 0.9 and $Wi$ is no more than 30. For $(BR, L^2) = (75 \%, 10000)$, $\beta$ ranges from 0.15 to 0.9 and $Wi$ is no more than 20. Within these parameter spaces, the flow fluctuations are small and $L_D$ only varies weakly with time. Thus, the effect of $\beta$ on time-dependent stability is not discussed here.

In experiments, $\beta$ decreases with increasing polymer concentration. The FENE-P model can describe the shear-thinning behaviour of a viscoelastic fluid, usually for the case when
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Figure 26. Variation of flow asymmetry parameter $I$ with $Wi$ for $(BR, L^2) = (75\% , 40\,000)$. Here IW and DW denote the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes, respectively.

$L^2$ is small. The smaller the value of $\beta$, the more obvious the shear-thinning effect in the flow. In our study, $L^2$ is large and the influence of $\beta$ on shear thinning can be ignored (Tamano et al. 2020). However, a variation in $\beta$ may affect the distribution of elastic stress as discussed below.

We first consider $(BR, L^2) = (50\% , 2500)$. The variations of $L_D$ with $Wi$ for different $\beta$ are shown in figure 27. Near the upstream recirculation transition point, the $L_D$–$Wi$ curves all approximately satisfy the Landau-type quartic potential. A smaller $\beta$ corresponds to a smaller $W_i_c$. For example, $W_i_c$ is between 23 and 24 at $\beta = 0.9$, while $W_i_c$ is between 8 and 9 at $\beta = 0.2$. For the same $Wi$, a lower $\beta$ corresponds to a larger $L_D$. For example, $L_D$ is 0.3242 at $\beta = 0.9$ while $L_D$ is 2.1010 at $\beta = 0.2$, for a fixed $Wi = 30$.

For $(BR, L^2) = (75\% , 10\,000)$, $L_D$ for different $(Wi, \beta)$ is evaluated and shown in figure 28. Parameter $\beta$ has a nonlinear effect on $L_D$. For both the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes, before the onset of upstream recirculation, the $L_D$–$Wi$ relationships are identical and satisfy (3.7) at $\beta = 0.9$ or 0.75. However, the $L_D$–$Wi$ relationships for the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes at $\beta = 0.59$, 0.45, 0.3, or 0.1 are different. For the increasing $Wi$ process, $L_D$ experiences a sudden jump with increasing $Wi$, and the $L_D$–$Wi$ relationship shows a discontinuity. Interestingly, the discontinuity point $(W_i_c)$ is located between 6.5 and 7.0 for all $\beta$. These features indicate that the transition is subcritical bifurcation at $\beta = 0.59$, 0.45, 0.3 or 0.15. Thus, we can conclude that $\beta$ affects the bifurcation type, which due to the amplifying effect on elastic stress with
The $L_D$–$Wi$ relationship and (b) the $L_D$–$\beta$ relationship at $(BR, L^2) = (75\%, 10\,000)$. In (b), the larger $L_D$ is selected if $L_D$ obtained in the increasing and decreasing $Wi$ processes (denoted by IW and DW, respectively) at the same parameters is not identical.

Note that $\beta$ also shows a similar effect in other viscoelastic flows. For example, in elasto-inertial pipe flow, recent experimental and theoretical studies indicated supercritical bifurcation for large $\beta$ and subcritical bifurcation for small $\beta$ (Samanta et al. 2013, Chandra, Shankar & Das 2020, Choueiri et al. 2021, Wan, Sun & Zhang 2021). For the decreasing $Wi$ process, all the $L_D$–$Wi$ relationships are still uninterrupted to satisfy (3.7).

The effect of $L^2$ on the upstream flow behaviour has been discussed at various points in the above subsections. We thus provide a brief summary in this subsection. Parameter $L^2$ has a noticeable effect on $Wi_c$ for the onset of the upstream recirculation. Generally, a larger $L^2$ corresponds to a higher $Wi_c$ as shown in figures 17(a) and 21(a,b). Also, $L^2$ affects subcritical behaviour. For large $BR$ with high $L^2$ (such as $L^2 = 40\,000$ for $BR = 62.5\%$, and $L^2 = 10\,000$ or $40\,000$ for $BR = 75\%$), the upstream instability is subcritical. The effect of $L^2$ on subcritical behaviour is similar to that of $1 - \beta$ discussed in § 3.3. For larger $BR$ (e.g. $62.5\%$ and $75\%$), the unsteady flow is more likely to appear at a larger $L^2$.

4. Concluding remarks
In this paper, we confirm that the existing macroscopic viscoelastic constitutive relationship (FENE-P model) is still qualitatively applicable for predicting the viscoelastic
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upstream instability through numerical simulation. By applying the square root reconstruction method and considering the molecular dissipation effect to stabilize the numerical simulations, we studied the viscoelastic flow over a circular cylinder in a narrow channel at a very low $Re$ and over a wide range of $Wi$.

Upstream recirculation is observed when $Wi$ is beyond a certain critical value $Wic$ and $BR$ is larger than around 16.7%. The occurrence of upstream recirculation is related to high local stretch Weissenberg number $Wielastic$ and the high elastic stress in the narrow gap between the cylinder surface and the channel wall, which is consistent with that reported by Zhao et al. (2016). This flow instability around the narrow gap with a high local stretch can also be interpreted by the curve-streamline shear flow instability (Davoodi et al. 2019). For $BR = 50\%$, our simulation results on the upstream recirculation are basically consistent with the experimental results of Qin et al. (2019a) for the time-averaged behaviour.

Higher $BR$ could precipitate the onset of the upstream recirculation, that is, $Wic$ becomes lower. The viscosity ratio $\beta$ has less effect on $Wic$ (the discontinuous point, the increasing $Wi$ process), but has a nonlinear influence on $LD$ at high $BR$ (75%) and relatively high $L^2$ (10,000). For $BR = 50\%$ and $L^2 = 2500$, a lower $\beta$ corresponds to a lower $Wic$. Close to the onset of upstream recirculation, $LD$ with $Wi$ satisfy the Landau-type quartic potential when $BR$, $1 - \beta$ and $L^2$ are not very large, e.g. $(BR, \beta, L^2) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500)$. Close to the unsteady transition, the occurrence of the hysteresis phenomenon (signalling a subcritical bifurcation) depends on $L^2$ and $\beta$ (Burshtein et al. 2017). For the cases with large $L^2$, small $\beta$ and large $BR$, the flow often exhibits subcritical behaviour. In this situation, strong disturbance should be added in the initial flow field so that the corresponding simulation results can be consistent with the experimental results.

When $Wi$ exceeds a critical $Wi \sim 0.5$ at $BR = 50\%$ (the critical $Wi$ depends on $BR$), the drag on the cylinder increases with $Wi$, although the flow remains steady. When $Wi$ continues to increase beyond a certain threshold, the upstream recirculation becomes unsteady. The drag on the cylinder increases more sharply in this range.

Our results advance the understanding of the underlying mechanism of this novel flow instability, which may also be relevant to a number of interesting phenomena observed in viscoelastic flows, e.g. stationary dead zones associated with complex geometries such as multiple tandem circular cylinders (Shi & Christopher 2016) and porous media (Kawale et al. 2017).

A cylinder in a channel is often used as a prototype configuration to experimentally study the elastic instability. The upstream instability may extend downstream when $Wi$ is larger. It is interesting to study the elastic wave in the channel through numerical simulations. However, only the elastic instability in a channel without a cylinder was studied (Morozov 2022). Our simulation could provide a platform for flows in a channel with cylinder(s).

The upstream recirculation phenomena are governed by many parameters and the present study does not explore all the parameter space of $(BR, Re, Wi, L^2, \beta)$. These parameters need to be investigated in more detail. In experiments of Shi et al. (2015), upstream instability eventually occurs when the elastic Mach number $Ma = \sqrt{Re \times Wi}$ is beyond $\sim 10$ at $Re \sim 1$, which is affected by both channel geometry and fluid properties. We believe that $Re$ is an important dimensionless number for such instability. However, the effect of $Re$ is not discussed in this paper and will be studied in our future work.

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Appendix

A.1. Validation

To validate the present numerical method, a series of simulations based on the Oldroyd-B model are performed for the flow past a cylinder in a channel with $BR = 50\%$ (Mesh2) and the numerical results are compared with published data. In these simulations, the Reynolds number is set as zero, i.e. the convection terms in the momentum equations are ignored. Note that polymer molecular dissipation is also not considered in this discussion. The viscosity ratio $\beta$ is fixed at 0.59 while $Wi$ is varied from 0 to 0.55. At low $Wi$, the viscoelastic equations could be numerically solved directly. However, previous numerical tests (Fan et al. 1999; Alves et al. 2001; Hulsen et al. 2005; Alves 2009) indicate that the stabilization technique must be adopted to avoid simulation divergence at high $Wi$. Commonly used stabilization techniques include the elastic viscous split stress (EVSS) method (Fan et al. 1999), the log-conformation representation method (Log; Fattal & Kupferman 2004; Hulsen et al. 2005; Afonso et al. 2009) and the square root reconstruction method (Sqrt; Alves 2009). The present study adopts the square root reconstruction method.

The values of $C_d$ for different $Wi$ are compared with the published data and listed in table 5. Our results are in good agreement with those reported in the literature. For example, the drag coefficient for $Wi=0.35$ obtained in our simulation is $C_d=117.33$, which is consistent with $C_d=117.315$ in Hulsen et al. (2005) and $C_d=117.32$ in Fan et al. (1999). Besides, the stress profiles along the upper cylinder wall and the downstream centreline for $Wi=0.3$ and 0.45 are shown in figure 29. We can see a good agreement between our result and that of Alves et al. (2001) for $Wi=0.3$. However, a difference among our results and those of Alves et al. (2001) and Afonso et al. (2009) can be observed in the region immediately behind the cylinder for $Wi=0.45$, even though the local refined mesh is utilized there in our simulation as shown in figure 29(b). Note that a higher peak of the local elastic stress occurs behind the cylinder when $Wi$ is larger, which is very difficult to accurately resolve by numerical simulation. Anyway, the comparison indicates that our simulation can capture the main flow characteristics downstream since the behaviour of the local elastic stress downstream is similar for the three simulations.

A.2. Effect of $Pe$

In this appendix, the effect of $Pe$ on the upstream flow behaviour is examined. The parameter set investigated is $(BR, \beta, L^2, Wi) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500, 50)$. Five $Pe$ values of 10, 40, 64, 80 and 400 are considered. Figure 30 shows that, when $Pe$ is equal to 10, 40 or 64, the flow field is similar to the experimental results of Qin et al. (2019a). However, when $Pe$ is set to be 80 or 400, the upstream recirculation becomes short and one or two
Table 5. Variation of $C_d$ with $Wi$ at $Re = 0$ for the Oldroyd-B fluid.

| $Wi$ | $Hulsen et al.$ (2005) Log | $Fan et al.$ (1999) EVSS | $Alves et al.$ (2001) | $Afonso et al.$ (2009) Log | $Afonso et al.$ (2009) Sqrt | Present Sqrt |
|------|---------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|
| 0    | 132.358                   | 132.36                  | 132.378              | —                          | —                          | 132.36       |
| 0.05 | 130.363                   | 130.36                  | 130.355              | —                          | —                          | 130.30       |
| 0.1  | 126.626                   | 126.62                  | 126.632              | —                          | —                          | 126.565      |
| 0.15 | 123.193                   | 123.19                  | 123.210              | —                          | —                          | 123.133      |
| 0.2  | 120.596                   | 120.59                  | 120.607              | —                          | —                          | 120.555      |
| 0.25 | 118.836                   | 118.83                  | 118.838              | 118.818                    | 118.821                    | 118.808      |
| 0.3  | 117.775                   | 117.78                  | 117.787              | 117.774                    | 117.776                    | 117.776      |
| 0.35 | 117.315                   | 117.32                  | 117.323              | 117.323                    | 117.324                    | 117.33       |
| 0.4  | 117.373                   | 117.36                  | 117.357              | 117.364                    | 117.370                    | 117.36       |
| 0.45 | 117.787                   | 117.80                  | 117.851              | 117.817                    | —                          | 117.776      |
| 0.5  | 118.501                   | 118.49                  | 118.518              | 118.680                    | —                          | 118.508      |
| 0.55 | 119.466                   | —                       | —                    | 119.780                    | —                          | 119.51       |

Figure 29. Stress profile along the upper cylinder wall and the downstream centreline for the Oldroyd-B fluid at (a) $Wi = 0.3$ and (b) $Wi = 0.45$.

recirculation regions attached to the channel wall appear. Thus, we select a relatively lower $Pe = 40$ in the final simulation.

A.3. The FENE-CR model

The governing equations based on the FENE-CR model are similar to those for the FENE-P model (equations (2.1)–(2.3)) except for the polymer stress definition, which is expressed as

$$\tau = \frac{\eta_p}{\lambda} f(c)(c - I).$$

(A1)

The FENE-CR model is reduced to the Oldroyd-B model if $f(c)$ is set to 1 in (A1).
Figure 30. Instantaneous streamlines for $(BR, \beta, L^2, Wi) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500, 50)$ at (a) $Pe = 10$, (b) $Pe = 40$, (c) $Pe = 64$, (d) $Pe = 80$ and (e) $Pe = 400$.

Tracing the transport equation of the conformation tensor $c$ for the FENE-CR model yields

$$
\frac{\partial c_{kk}}{\partial t} + (u \cdot \nabla) c_{kk} = \text{tr}[(\nabla u) \cdot c + c \cdot (\nabla u)^T] - \frac{(c_{kk} - 3)L^2}{\lambda(L^2 - c_{kk})}.
$$

(A2)

By using the scalar $\varphi$ defined in (2.13), (A2) can be rewritten as

$$
\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} + u_j \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\varphi}{L^2} \left( c_{kl} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_l} + c_{jk} \frac{\partial u_l}{\partial x_k} \right) + \frac{\varphi}{L^2} (3\varphi + L^2 - L^2 \varphi).
$$

(A3)

When the square root reconstruction method is applied, the transport equation of conformation tensor $c$ for the FENE-CR model can then be rewritten as

$$
\frac{\partial b}{\partial t} + (u \cdot \nabla)b = b\nabla u + ab + \frac{1}{2\lambda}((b^T)^{-1} - b) \varphi^2 + \frac{\kappa}{2} \Delta b + \kappa h.
$$

(A4)

All other related equations are the same as those for the FENE-P model and thus not repeated here. The simulation based on the FENE-CR model is also performed using the rheoFoam solver module of rheoTool in OpenFOAM extend 4.0 (Pimenta & Alves 2018).

The parameter set considered here is $(BR, \beta, L^2) = (50\%, 0.59, 2500)$. Haward et al. (2019a) suggested that the purely elastic instability is only observed when both shear thinning and elasticity exist. The simulation based on the FENE-CR model would help us to identify whether shear thinning is necessary for the upstream instability at high $BR$.

Variation of $LD$ with $Wi$ for the results based on both the FENE-CR and FENE-P models is shown in figure 31. The results indicate that the simulations based on both models can predict the occurrence of the upstream recirculation. Although deviations can be observed for the $LD$–$Wi$ curves based on the two models, the general trends are similar. Therefore, shear thinning is not a necessary condition for this upstream instability.
A.4. **Boundary condition for the tensor $b$**

When simulating the viscoelastic fluid flow in OpenFOAM, the boundary condition for the elastic stress on the wall needs to be explicitly implemented, in order to obtain the stress gradient of the centre point of a grid element close to the wall (Alves et al. 2021). In our numerical simulation, the $b$ tensor adopts the linear extrapolation boundary condition on the channel walls and the no-flux boundary condition on the cylinder wall. These uneven implementations are based on the following considerations. First, if the linear extrapolation boundary condition is imposed on the cylinder wall, a very small time step should be used in the simulation. For example, for the parameter set $(BR, \beta, L^2) = (75\%, 0.59, 40000)$, the dimensionless time step must be set as $6.25 \times 10^{-5}$. It takes more than one month for the simulation to reach statistically steady state with parallel computing on 40 CPU cores. Second, if the linear extrapolation boundary condition is imposed on the cylinder wall, the simulation results show an unstable trend. For example, the upstream recirculation behaves symmetrically in the experiment of Haward et al. (2021). However, the corresponding flow field at $(BR, \beta, L^2, Wi) = (75\%, 0.59, 40000, 9)$ exhibits obvious asymmetric behaviour, which implies that too strong a disturbance is introduced into the simulation. Finally, if the no-flux boundary condition is imposed on both the channel walls and the cylinder wall, the upstream recirculation only occurs at very high $Wi$ in the simulation. The deviation between the numerical and experimental results is unacceptable.

**Figure 32** shows the variations of $L_D$ and the root-mean-square $L_D$ with $Wi$ at $(BR, \beta, L^2) = (75\%, 0.59, 40000)$ using different boundary conditions for the tensor $b$ on the cylinder wall. The boundary condition has a noticeable effect on $Wi_c$ and the overall upstream recirculation behaviour. The time-averaged $u$ velocity contours and streamlines and the corresponding $u_{rms}$ distribution at $(BR, \beta, L^2, Wi) = (75\%, 0.59, 40000, 9)$ are presented in figures 33(a) and 33(b), respectively. The simulation is performed based on the linear extrapolation boundary condition for the tensor $b$ on the cylinder wall. The flow asymmetry can be clearly seen in the $u_{rms}$ distribution in **figure 33**. The flow asymmetry parameter $I$ is also computed and compared. The value of $I$ is 0.0423 for the liner extrapolation boundary condition and 0.0335 for the no-flux boundary condition. Compared with that for the no-flux boundary condition, flow fluctuation is more severe for the liner extrapolation boundary condition, which results in more additional elongational viscosity and thus larger drag force. The comparison indicates that the results obtained
Figure 32. Variation of (a) $L_D$ and (b) root-mean-square $L_D$ with $W_i$ at $(BR, \beta, L^2) = (75\%, 0.59, 40\,000)$ for different boundary conditions of the tensor $b$ on the cylinder wall. Here IW and DW denote the increasing and decreasing $W_i$ processes, respectively.

Figure 33. (a) The time averaged $u$ velocity contours and streamlines and (b) the corresponding $u_{rms}$ distribution at $(BR, \beta, L^2, W_i) = (75\%, 0.59, 40\,000, 9)$. The linear extrapolation boundary condition for the tensor $b$ is imposed on the cylinder wall.

by the no-flux boundary condition on the cylinder wall are closer to the experimental observations, which is therefore adopted in the present study.

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