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Unveiling the physical mechanism behind pistol shrimp cavitation

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8 Abstract

9 Snapping shrimps use a special shaped claw to generate a cavitating high speed water jet. Cavitation formed in this way, may be used for hunting/stunning prey and communication. The present work is a 10 novel computational effort to provide insight on the mechanisms of cavitation formation during the 11 claw closure. The geometry of the claw used here is a simplified claw model, based on prior 12 experimental work. Techniques, such as Immersed Boundary and Homogenous Equilibrium Model 13 (HEM), are employed to describe the claw motion and cavitating flow field respectively. The 14 simulation methodology has been validated against prior experimental work and is applied here for 15 16 claw closure at realistic conditions. Simulations show that during claw closure, a high velocity jet 17 forms, inducing vortex roll-up around it. If the closure speed is high enough, the intensity of the swirling motion is enough to produce strong depressurization in the vortex core, leading to the 18 19 formation of a cavitation ring. The cavitation ring moves along the jet axis and, soon after its 20 formation, collapses and rebounds, producing high pressure pulses.

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22 Keywords: Applied physics, Fluid dynamics, Information theory and computation.

24 Introduction

Cavitation in water/liquids is a very effective way of generating shock waves ¹, due to the rapid 25 accelerations/decelerations of the bubble interface during its collapse stage. Cavitation-related 26 phenomena may even appear in nature, in animal species; for example dolphins cannot swim faster 27 than 15m/s due to cavitation formation², which causes pain. On the other hand, the lack of pain 28 receptors on the fins of fish belonging to the scombrid family² (e.g. mackerels, tunas, etc.) allows 29 them to exceed the cavitation free-limit and cavitation-induced damage has been observed on their 30 31 bodies. Apart from the hindrance that cavitation may cause to swimming fish, other animal species 32 have evolved to exploit the generation of shock waves through cavitation to stun or kill prey. 33 Examples of such animals are snapping shrimps (belonging to the family of Alpheidae) and mantis 34 shrimps (belonging to the family of Odontodactylidae).

35 Mantis shrimps have two hammer-like or club-like raptorial appendages, which they use to strike with extreme force their prey, such as e.g. small crustaceans or molluscs. High speed imaging 36 revealed that cavitation may form between the hammer-like appendage and the target^{3,4}. It is 37 speculated that the mechanism of cavitation formation is due to the strong depressurization of water 38 due to the Bernoulli principle³, i.e. as the fluid moves at high speed, its static pressure drops. 39 Moreover, it is likely that cavitation is enhanced by vortex formation and the hammer rebound after 40 the impact on the target surface³. However, there are indications that cavitation in the case of the 41 42 mantis shrimp may be an unwanted effect. Detailed inspection revealed that cavitation does not only damage the target, but the mantis shrimp's appendages as well⁴. Over time, the appendage surface 43 becomes pitted and damaged, though frequent moulting of the mantis shrimp replaces the damaged 44 smashing surface. The aforementioned discussion indicates that perhaps in the case of mantis shrimp, 45 cavitation appears to be a side-effect of the percussion, with negative aspects that the shrimp has 46 evolved to handle. On the other hand, it seems that the pistol shrimp is the sole species evolved to 47

actively use cavitation itself as a weapon to kill/stun its prey. The mechanism of cavitation formation
 in pistol shrimp claws will be analyzed in the present work, focusing on the fluid mechanics aspects
 of its operation.

Snapping shrimps, known also as pistol shrimps, have two specially shaped claws, one of which is 51 enlarged and is capable of forming cavitation bubbles ^{5,6}. Claws are expendable; if the large claw is 52 amputated, the smaller claw will grow to replace the missing limb, whereas a new minor claw will 53 grow in the place of the large claw⁷. The claw consists of two parts, the dactyl and the propus⁵. On 54 55 the dactyl there is a protrusion (it will be referred as plunger hereafter) which fits into a complementary socket of the propus, see also Figure 1. When the claw is fully open, water fills the 56 57 socket of the propus. Then, when the claw closes rapidly, the plunger displaces water from the socket 58 volume. Water escapes through a narrow anterior groove formed between the plunger and the propus, as shown in Figure 1. The water expelled from the socket through the groove, creates a vortex ring⁵ in 59 a similar way as an air vortex cannon⁸. Note that the shrimp claw is a complicated 3D shape and the 60 expelled jet is not aligned at the same plane as the rest of the claw, thus it is not obstructed by the 61 dactyl tip⁹. Hess et al.⁵ introduced the concept of formation number to explain the maximization of 62 63 momentum transfer from the jet to the vortex. The jet velocity has been estimated by Versluis et al.¹⁰ to be ~ 25 m/s, using high speed imaging of an actual pistol shrimp claw closing. Such a velocity may 64 lead to pressure drops of $\sim 3^{10^{5}}$ Pa, which is enough to vaporise water locally¹⁰ forming a cavitation 65 bubble. Additionally, a simplified numerical investigation, based on the assumption of spherical 66 67 cavitation bubble solved with the Rayleigh-Plesset equation, indicated pressure levels during collapse of even 2000 bar¹⁰. Furthermore, a study by Lohse et al.⁶ suggests that luminescence phenomena may 68 be observed at the collapsing bubbles formed by pistol shrimps. 69 70



Figure 1. (a) Snapping shrimp claw components: d corresponds to dactyl, p to plunger and s to socket ⁵. (b) Closed claw; the passage through which flow is expelled is visible ⁵. (c) Render of the simplified claw geometry used in the present study and in previous experimental investigations ⁵.

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While the aforementioned list of experimental work ^{5,6,10} aimed to investigate the phenomena being
 involved in the operation of the pistol shrimp claw, still the mechanism of cavitation formation is not

described and well understood. In particular, the work of Versluis et al.¹⁰ examined the macroscopic 78 79 cavitation formation from the claw and employed a simplified numerical model based on the 80 assumption of spherical bubble shape and relying on parameter fitting to explain cavitation formation. In their work they recognised the lack of detailed flow field and pressure data in the vicinity of the 81 closing claw. The work of Lohse et al.⁶ discussed the light emission from collapsing bubbles 82 83 generated by pistol shrimps, hinting the extreme pressure/temperature conditions during collapse. Not 84 much explanation was provided on the cavitation mechanism or flow field though. Finally, the work of Hess et al.⁵ was an experimental study aiming to describe the flow pattern during claw closure by 85 analyzing an enlarged dimensions claw, which was based on a real pistol shrimp claw, scanned using 86 X-ray Computational Tomography (CT). While vortex formation was demonstrated, the enlarged 87 dimensions of the claw geometry did not permit observations of cavitation. 88

89 The present work focuses on the fluid mechanics aspects of cavitation formation, growth and collapse, by resolving the flow field around the claw using numerical simulations. The flow field is 90 91 something that was not analyzed in previous studies, due to experimental limitations. In particular, 92 investigations involving actual pistol shrimps, have constraints in shrimp handling, in the experiment 93 environment and conditions, thus inherently limiting the applicable measurement techniques. High speed photography becomes problematic, since high frame rates are required (of the order of 10^6 fps), 94 lighting and focusing becomes difficult (the animal may move in a not very controllable manner). The 95 pressure signal recorded from the hydrophone may be excessively smoothed or underestimated by the 96 sensor bandwidth¹⁰. Moreover, the complexity of the geometry of the claw and the uniqueness of each 97 98 individual animal, hinder systematic and repeatable study. On the other hand, experimental replicas of pistol shrimp claws lack in reproducing the conditions of cavitation formation; for cavitation to occur, 99 one needs a high speed moving object (the plunger). It is difficult to construct such a plunger in real 100 101 size dimensions, moving at real closure speed, plus there are difficulties in the experimental 102 techniques (similar to those mentioned above, i.e. high speed imaging, focusing/lighting etc.). This is the reason why Hess et al.⁵ resorted to enlarged and non-cavitating conditions. 103

A general remark in both cases is that experimental techniques such as high speed photography, or 104 pressure signal measurements provide only partial views of the flow pattern and underlying 105 106 mechanisms. High speed photography can show the existence of cavitation only, but not the actual 107 density of the fluid. Hydrophones may provide information of the pressure signal at a given point, but 108 not everywhere. Particle-Image-Velocimetry (PIV) cannot provide insight in cavitating regions, since the cavitation cloud obstructs the view. The advantage of a well-defined and converged simulation is 109 110 that it provides a well controlled environment for conducting studies, without limitations of measuring 111 techniques, since they are not necessary (no need for high-speed imaging, Particle-Image-112 Velocimetry), the flow field is directly accessible in a quantitative manner everywhere. Also there are much less limitations in the simulated conditions and geometry, ensuring repeatability and control. 113 With the above, it is not implied that simulation is the only viable method in conducting research; it is 114 115 clear that simulation may have pitfalls (hence the clarification "well-defined and converged"). It is also clear that developing simulation tools requires experimentation and theoretical developments to 116 formulate modelling techniques and validate numerical results. 117

The present work in an attempt to demonstrate the fundamental flow effects occurring at the claw 118 of a pistol shrimp, the mechanism of cavitation generation, shape and collapse. The claw geometry 119 used is based on the simplified model of Hess et al.⁵. The reason for resorting to a simplified model is 120 mainly related to validation. There are experimental data available⁵ that can be used to test the 121 numerical methodology (see also supplementary material 3 and 4) and validate the predictive 122 capability of the model before further investigating cavitating conditions. Additionally, the simplified 123 geometry offers the possibility of repeatability in any further research; the geometry is provided as 124 supplementary material (see also supplementary material 12) in Parasolid Computer-Aided Design 125

(CAD) format that can be used by experimentalists to construct their own models, or researchers to
 develop and test numerical techniques. Note that the methodology employed is applicable for any
 arbitrary shape, should it be available in a clean Computer-Aided Design (CAD) format.

It is highlighted that in the frame of this work, instead of relying on modelled parameters/fitting, as 129 was the case in the work of Versluis et al.¹⁰, the whole claw and the surrounding fluid are simulated 130 with Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD). Thus, the present work is the first to simulate the actual 131 flow field inside and outside the claw, demonstrating the flow physics, the cavitation structure and 132 133 providing additional insight in relation to experiments, since the inherent limitations of the latter are avoided. Despite the simplifications in the claw geometry, the main mechanisms of cavitation 134 generation and collapse are replicable and similar magnitude of jet velocity is found as in experiments 135 involving real pistol shrimps. Briefly stated here, the claw closure produces a high speed jet. The high 136 speed jet induces vortex roll-up, which in turn leads to a strong pressure drop inside the core of the 137 vortex. If the jet velocity is high enough, a pressure drop of even $\sim 10^5$ Pa can be produced, which is 138 139 enough to vaporize water locally, forming a toroidal cavitation ring. The toroidal cavitation ring 140 oscillates, expanding and collapsing; at the instance of the ring collapse, very high pressures are 141 produced, due to the sudden deceleration of the surrounding liquid.

142 The simulation of vortex cavitating flows is rather challenging, since high resolution and low numerical dissipation are required to accurately track the vortex¹¹. Additionally, cavitating flows are 143 rather difficult to describe and model, due to large pressure and density ratios; in the present 144 145 simulations, density varies from 998.2 kg/m³ (pure liquid) to 0.017 kg/m³ (pure vapour) and pressure varies from ~2000 Pa (liquid/vapour mixture) up to $100 \cdot 10^5$ Pa (pressure peaks). These variations 146 have serious implications in the nature of the flow. Strong density variations imply prevalence of 147 compressibility effects, such as low speed shock waves in the bubbly mixture¹² and pressure pulses in 148 areas of cavitation collapse. Indeed, cavitating flows are known to have a vast variation in the speed 149 of sound, ranging from 0.01m/s for liquid/vapour mixture up to 10³ m/s for pure liquid ^{13,14}. 150 Cavitation-related computational techniques involve fully Eulerian compressible techniques 151 (selectively ¹⁵⁻¹⁷) or Eulerian-Lagrangian methods (selectively ¹⁸⁻²⁰). Research on cavitation has many 152 practical applications, ranging from fuel injection systems^{21,22}, ship propellers²³ and pumps^{24,25} to 153 even drug delivery ²⁶ and cancer treatment ²⁷. The present research could further promote new and 154 efficient designs in water cleaning/purification devices^{28,29}, material processing and chemical 155 engineering ³⁰. 156

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158 Results

Several cases have been examined, for different plunger closure speeds and different plunger sizes. Here, the focus will be on the results of a case with strong cavitation formation to demonstrate the underlying physical mechanisms. The interested reader is addressed to the supplementary material for a complete reference on all cases. The configuration to be presented features a socket with a characteristic length scale of ~1.4 mm and a plunger closure speed of 0.3ms, resulting to a peak plunger angular velocity of ~ 7000 rad/s. The Reynolds number of the jet diameter is $Re_D \sim 4000$ or, based on the plunger length scale, $Re_L \sim 40000$.

The developing vortices during the plunger closure are shown in Figure 2 and a close-up view 166 around the jet in Figure 3. Vortical structures are indicated with the isosurface of the q-criterion 167 (defined as the second invariant of the velocity gradient tensor 31,32) for a value of 10^8 s⁻². As the 168 plunger starts to move, flow detachment occurs and two counter-rotating vortices form at the wake of 169 the plunger, indicated with (I). As the plunger continues to move, these vortices become larger and 170 start to twist, see (2), (3) and (4). The tip of the plunger is covered by a stretched vortical structure, 171 see (5), occupied by vapour at its core (see also Figure 4 at the same time instant). Later on, vortex 172 173 instability ³³⁻³⁶ leads to break-up of the aforementioned structures, see the wake of the plunger at 174 0.24ms or at (6), where the originally stretched vortical structure breaks to several smaller structures. 175 At the same time instant, an attached vortex grows at the wall edge of the socket, due to fluid being expelled from the socket cavity. Because of the closure speed, a high speed jet is expelled from the 176 opening between the plunger and socket walls. The jet velocity is ~30 m/s, inducing vortex roll-up 177 178 and causing the formation of a large vortex ring, as shown at (8) at 0.3ms, occupied by vapour due to strong circulation, see (4) at Figure 4. Vortex roll-up is also observed at the sides of the socket walls, 179 due to liquid escaping from the gap between socket walls and plunger, see (7). After its formation, the 180 181 vortex ring detaches from the socket/plunger opening and starts to move in the direction of the jet, at a translation velocity approximately half of the jet velocity. The same mechanism is in agreement with 182 experimental observations, see ^{5,37}. Soon after its formation, the vortex ring elongates, see (9) at 183 0.323ms, and then breaks into a complicated vortical structure, see e.g. (10) at 0.375ms, due to vortex 184 185 instability, the collapse and rebound of the cavitation ring.



187Figure 2. Indicative instances of the 'real size' claw model closure; closure time 0.3 ms. Vortices are shown, represented with188the velocity gradient second invariant (value $q=10^8 \text{ s}^{-2}$), coloured according to the velocity magnitude.189

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The formation of the vortex ring is shown in detail in Figure 3. Initially, at 0.252ms, an attached vortex starts to form at the edges of the geometry, due to the expelled water jet. Note that the rectangular shape of the geometry causes the formation of a rectangular vortex ring as well. Later on, at 0.276ms, the vortex ring continues to grow and detaches. Its shape still resembles a rectangle, though it is smoothed at corners under the influence of viscosity. At 0.315ms the vortex ring has completely detached and travels following the jet. Its shape is elongated in the *x*-direction, resembling two cylinders with a gap in between, through which the jet moves. The elongated jet shape is caused
by the asymmetric flow field promoted by the plunger motion. Finally, at 0.383ms, the vortex ring
appears shattered after the cavitation ring collapse.

Colouring in Figure 3 provides an indication of the swirling motion that the fluid is subjected to. 199 200 The colouring is according to the vorticity magnitude, $|\omega|$ (defined as the magnitude of the curl of velocity vector field³⁵). Under the assumption of forced (or rigid body) vortex type, vorticity and 201 angular velocity are linked. Vorticity is twice the angular velocity of the instantaneous principal axes 202 of the strain-rate tensor of a fluid element³⁵. This implies that the liquid is undergoing intense 203 swirling, since angular velocities may range from $\Omega \sim 80000$ - 170000 rad/s. The induced liquid 204 depressurization (defined as pressure at vortex radius R, p_R , minus the pressure at the vortex core, p_c) 205 may be expressed as 13 : 206

$$p_{R} - p_{c} = \frac{\rho R^{2} \Omega^{2}}{2} \tag{1}$$

Considering that the liquid density is $\rho \sim 998.2$ kg/m3 and the vortex radius is $R \sim 0.1$ -0.3 mm, 208 then the pressure drop ranges between $\sim 5 \cdot 10^4$ up to even 10^6 Pa, with an average pressure drop of 209 $\sim 2.10^5$ Pa. This value is similar to the one used as a fitting parameter by Versluis et al¹⁰, justifying that 210 despite the simplicity of the model geometry, there is similarity in the underlying physical 211 mechanisms of actual shrimp claws. It should be noted that the forced vortex assumption is not 212 213 necessarily far from reality, since real fluid vortices are combinations of forced and free vortices. Moreover, this assumption serves to provide an order of magnitude estimate of the angular velocity, 214 explaining the induced liquid depressurization. 215

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Figure 3. Indicative instances of the vortex ring formation, vortical structures indicated using a q-criterion value of 5⁻10⁹ s⁻².
 The isosurface is coloured according to local vorticity magnitude, providing an indication of the swirling angular velocity.
 Note that due to the square opening between plunger and socket, the vortex ring has initially a square shape as well.

223 In Figure 4, indicative instances of cavitation formation are shown, combined with the presence of turbulent structures. Turbulent structures are represented as translucent isosurface, whereas cavitation 224 is represented using the density isosurface, for a density value of 990kg/m³ (or vapour volume 225 fraction of ~1%). This combined representation enables to link cavitation structures with vortical 226 227 structures. At the start of the plunger motion, attached cavitation develops at the wake of the plunger 228 due to local flow detachment. As the plunger accelerates, reaching maximum angular velocity, flow 229 detachment at the sides and the tip of the plunger induces the formation of cavitation sheets, see (1) at 230 0.18ms. Later on, detached cavitation structures are observed at the plunger wake at the cores of 231 vortices, e.g. see (2) and (3). The rapid plunger closure leads to the formation of a cavitating vortex 232 ring around the high speed jet, which is clearly shown in (4). After formation, the cavitation vortex ring moves following the jet and oscillates, collapsing and then rebounding again, see the sequence of 233 (5 - collapse), (6 - minimum size) and (7 - rebound). At minimum ring minor radius, at the final stage 234 235 of collapse and before the cavitation ring rebound, very high pressures are generated, in the order of 100 bar. At the same time, the strong flow acceleration, due to vortex rebound deforms the vortexeven more and shatters the cavitation ring.

The generated vortex ring cross-section is a Burgers vortex and its circulation is $\sim 0.005 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ throughout the whole simulation time. The minor radius of the forced vortex core is $\sim 0.11 \text{ mm}$ at generation, later increasing to 0.22 mm after the cavitation ring rebound.

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Figure 4. Indicative instances of the simplified claw model closure; closure time 0.3 ms. Vortices are shown, represented with the velocity gradient second invariant (value $q=10^8 \text{ s}^{-2}$), coloured according to the velocity magnitude (semi-translucent isosurface). Cavitation is shown with a density isosurface for a value of 990 kg/m³ (i.e. vapour vol. fraction ~1% - black opaque isosurface).

To demonstrate with clarity the flow field, Figure 5 shows the flow field at the midplane of the 3D geometry. Flow velocity is represented with velocity vectors whereas the contour shows vorticity at the normal, to the midplane, direction (ω_x). Cavitation is represented using a density isoline for a value of 500kg/m³ (or 50% vapour volume fraction). The core of the vortex ring is tracked over time and annotated with arrows.

Instances in Figure 5 show clearly the correlation of vortex roll-up with cavitation structures; note that at 0.3ms (plunger closure) cavitation occupies entirely the core of the two counter-rotating vortices, indicating as "C1" and "C2". At 0.345ms, "C1" becomes larger, whereas "C2" shrinks, due to the interaction of jet and plunger wake. After the collapse of the cavitation ring, "C1" vortex splits in 257 two. The two new vortices, named "C3" and "C4", may cavitate alternatively, e.g. at 0.383ms vortex "C4" cavitates, whereas at 0.39ms vortex "C3" cavitates. 258

Plunger motion displaces liquid from the socket, causing the formation of a high speed jet towards 259 the +y direction. However, the plunger imparts momentum to liquid at its wake, towards the -z260 direction. Interaction of the jet with fluid from the plunger wake leads to a deviation of jet and 261 cavitation vortex ring from the horizontal direction. Indeed, the jet-wake interaction imparts 262 downward momentum to the jet, which is observable in the presented instances in Figure 5. Similar 263 264 effect was observed in the experiment as well and it is demonstrated in the validation study in the 265 supplementary material.



266 267 Figure 5. x-vorticity (ω_x , 1/s) and velocity vectors represented at the midplane (yz-plane) of the geometry. The black thick 268 line indicates a density isoline of 500 kg/m³ (i.e. vapour volume fraction of 50%).

270 Discussion

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Even though cavitation ring rebounding might seem unexpected, the rebound mechanism is 271 272 physical and is related to conservation of angular momentum. Indeed, it may be proven that, for a vortex (cylindrical or toroidal), circulation acts in a similar way to a non-linear spring, preventing 273 complete collapse, since the induced centrifugal forces tend to increase the vortex size, eventually 274 leading to rebound, see J.P. Franc¹³. In essence, as long as vorticity is preserved (e.g. inviscid fluid), 275 the cavitation ring would rebound indefinitely. The collapse time for a toroidal cavitation ring may be 276 approximated as ¹³: 277

 $\tau \cong R_0 \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{\Lambda p}} \sqrt{\ln \frac{8}{\varepsilon}}$ 278 (2)

in the limit of small minor to major torus radius ratio. In equation (2), R_0 is the minor torus radius, ρ is 279 the liquid density, Δp is the pressure difference between far field and the cavitating vortex core and ε 280 is the ratio between the minor and major torus radii. For the configurations examined in the present 281

work, the R₀ is ~ 0.1 mm, $\Delta p \sim 97$ kPa, $\rho \sim 998.2$ kg/m³ and $\varepsilon \sim 0.16$, leading to an oscillation period approximately twice the collapse time, i.e. ~32µs.

Since in nature pistol shrimps are not identical, it is reasonable to expect variations in the claw size 284 or closure speed. For this reason, a parametric investigation was performed to determine the effect of 285 the closure speed to jet velocity and cavitation volume. In Figure 6a, a comparison between the jet 286 velocity of several cases is shown, for claw closure times of 0.3 ms, 0.4 ms and 0.5 ms. The angular 287 closure speeds range between 4000 up to 7000 rad/s and plunger velocity at tip between 5.7 up to 288 289 10 m/s. Jet velocity is measured at the neck of the formed orifice, as in the experiment ⁵. The peak jet velocity is a linear function of the maximum plunger closure velocity (see Figure 6b). In all cases a 290 local minimum is found after the jet velocity peak, which is closely followed by a second peak, much 291 smaller than the first. This second peak is associated with flow reversal inside the socket. Indeed, 292 293 during the last stages of the plunger closure, depressurization induced cavitation occurs between the socket/plunger, due to the expelled jet inertia. Thus, shortly after the jet formation, flow rushes back 294 295 at the cavity formed between the plunger/socket. Indicative instances of the flow reversal are shown 296 in supplementary material.



Figure 6. (a) Comparison of the flow velocity at the neck, for different closure speeds. (b) Relation between the maximum jet velocity and the maximum plunger velocity.
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Figure 7 shows the vapour volume in the cavitation ring formed by the plunger closure in respect to time. A global maximum of vapour volume is clearly observed around the time of plunger closure, closely followed by a local minimum due to the cavitation ring rebound. The time scale of the ring rebound is \sim 70µs, close to the calculated period from equation (2). Discrepancy is expected, mainly because equation (2) is applicable for small minor to major torus radius ratio and a perfectly circular ring, which is obviously not the case here.

The maximum volume of vapour is related to the closure speed as a quadratic function of the form 307 $V(u) = au^2 + b$, see Figure 7b. This form resembles the dynamic pressure contribution $(0.5\rho u^2)$, 308 including a constant value which is related to the vaporization pressure threshold. As already 309 demonstrated, the plunger speed is linearly related to the jet speed. The jet speed affects the pressure 310 inside the vortex core, since vortex pressure is a quadratic function of tangential vortex velocity¹³. It is 311 highlighted that Figure 7 discusses only cavitation volume in the ring, omitting cavitation formed at 312 the wake of the plunger or inside the socket, since the latter may not be relevant to the actual shrimp 313 claw, due to differences in the exact claw shape. In any case, for the sake of completeness, it is 314

315 mentioned that the trend relating maximum vapour volume in the whole computational domain to the 316 closure speed is similar to the one shown in Figure 7b.



Figure 7. (a) Comparison of the vapour volume generated during the plunger motion. Calculation performed as the volume
 integral of the vapour volume fraction. (b) Maximum relative vapour volume defined in respect to the slowest closure speed
 investigated (i.e. 0.5ms closure, total vapour volume of 0.00156 mm³).

322 As the cavitation ring collapses and rebounds, very high pressures are produced due to sharp 323 deceleration of surrounding liquid. In essence, the sudden deceleration of liquid results to a waterhammer effect, consequently emitting a pressure pulse. This pressure pulse is the speculated 324 mechanism employed by the pistol shrimp to stun or kill its prey ¹⁰. The generated pressure peak is 325 closely related to the amount of vapour produced during the plunger closure. When the plunger moves 326 327 at the highest speed examined here (closure at 0.3ms, max. angular velocity 7000 rad/s, see Results 328 section), an intense pressure peak is found, reaching instantaneous pressures of even 80bar, see Figure 329 8.



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Figure 8. Pressure peak due to cavity collapse, plunger closure at 0.3ms. Pressure is shown at a midplane slice. The black isosurface is the 1% vapour fraction. Pressure, locally, may exceed 80bar.

334 Figure 9 shows the time evolution of pressure and velocity magnitude at a characteristic length scale $L \sim 1.4$ mm (see table 1) away from the claw neck, at the y-direction, for plunger closure at 335 0.3ms. Before the time of 0.2 ms, pressure signal is almost stable. Then, from 0.2 to 0.3 ms small 336 pressure peaks are detected, followed by a sudden pressure drop at 0.35 ms. At the instance of 337 338 cavitation ring collapse a very high pressure pulse is found, reaching pressures of more than 10 bar. At the same time instant there is a local maximum of flow velocity, reaching 17m/s. The pressure 339 peak is then followed by a second pressure drop. The pressure signal pattern is the same as the one 340 341 found in the prior work by Versluis¹⁰.

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Figure 9. Pressure and velocity magnitude as a function of time, at a characteristic length scale L=1.4 mm from the claw neck.

To summarize, the present work is the first to analyze the cavitating flow in a geometry resembling 347 a pistol shrimp claw, providing insight in the physical mechanisms of cavitation generation and 348 proving that cavitation produced by the shrimp claw is not a spherical bubble but rather a toroidal 349 cavitation structure. The main mechanism of the cavitating claw operation is vortex ring roll-up, 350 induced by the high speed jet expelled from the socket. Depending on the plunger closure speed, 351 352 circulation of the vortex ring may become high enough to cause a considerable pressure drop inside the vortex core. A large pressure drop may induce vaporization of the liquid inside the vortex core, 353 leading to the formation of a cavitating vortex ring. Upon its formation, the cavitation ring travels at 354 the direction of the jet, with a translational velocity around half of that of the jet and its minor radius 355 356 oscillating until viscosity dissipates angular momentum. The oscillation of the cavitation ring leads to periodic collapses and rebounds, which emit high pressure pulses. These pressure pulses are used by 357 the shrimp for communication, as a defence mechanism, to stun, or kill the shrimp's prey. 358

359 Considering all the aforementioned observations, similarities and differences of the flow produced by a simplified and an actual pistol shrimp claw may be summarised. First of all, from the results it is 360 clear that, as the claw plunger moves inside the socket, the displaced liquid forms a high velocity jet, 361 which in turn induces vortex ring roll-up. The shape of the vortex ring will affect the shape of 362 cavitation in the vortex core. While in the simulation the vortex ring is rectangular, due to the square 363 shape of the plunger-socket opening, in reality the shrimp's claw opening is a smooth curve leading to 364 a more circular vortex ring. In the simulation, cavitation at the wake of the plunger was observed. In 365 reality, the streamlined shape of the claw means that flow detachment is limited, thus there is very 366 367 little cavitation, if any. Moreover, whereas in simulation the socket was fixed in place, in actual pistol 368 shrimp claws both plunger and socket move at opposite directions, offsetting somewhat the jet

369 deviation introduced by the plunger wake. Despite these differences, quantitative characteristics of claw operation have been reproduced. In particular, the maximum plunger angular closure speed in 370 the simulation was 7000rad/s, whereas actual claws¹⁰ close at comparable speeds of 3500rad/s. 371 Plunger closure results to water jet speed of 28-31m/s predicted by the simulation, whereas 372 measurements¹⁰ in real claws indicate jet velocities of 25-32m/s. The pressure drop predicted by the 373 374 intense swirling motion of the liquid is very similar to the one imposed as fitting parameter by Versluis et al. ¹⁰ (simulation $\sim 2.10^5$ Pa, reference 2.2.10⁵). Moreover, the peak pressure measured from 375 the bubble collapse is comparable to the one found from the present study, see P. Krehl¹, and the 376 pressure signature is very similar to that measured by Versluis et al.¹⁰. It is also highlighted here, that 377 effects found in the simulations may be confirmed by early investigations of other researchers, 378 working on similar simplified claw models under cavitating conditions, see the work of Eliasson et al. 379 ^{38,39}. To be more specific, the downwards deflection of the jet and the cavitation ring, the formation of 380 cavitation at the wake of the plunger and the formation of cavitation inside the plunger/socket cavity 381 are clearly shown in high speed videos^{38,40}, providing additional validation of the presented results. 382

384 Methods

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385 The numerical methodology used in the present work is discussed in detail in the supplementary material, but will be described here briefly. The plunger motion is imposed using an Immersed 386 Boundary (IB) technique ⁴¹⁻⁴³. The advantage of this technique is that the computational domain 387 388 remains unchanged throughout the whole simulation time, thus greatly simplifying geometry manipulation, especially in cases of small gaps or contact regions. Cavitation is modelled using the 389 Homogenous Equilibrium Assumption^{15,44-46}, thus pressure and density are directly linked through an 390 Equation of State (EoS) describing the phase change process. This assumption is justified based on 391 392 cavitation tunnel experiments 47.

393 The geometry used for the simulations is based on prior experimental studies ⁵. Experiments were 394 based on the claw morphology of a typical specimen of snapping shrimp, A. bellulus. The morphology of the claw was obtained in a computerized form using X-ray micro-Computed 395 Tomography (μ -CT) scanning, at fully closed and open positions. A two dimensional slice was 396 397 extracted along the midplane of the claw geometry, obtaining the mean profile of plunger and socket 398 geometry. This two dimensional slice was extruded in the 3rd direction, to obtain a simplified model 399 of the shrimp claw. Additionally, scale similarity was exploited to manufacture an enlarged scale model of the claw (scale 70:1), which has been used for experimental studies, involving flow 400 401 visualization and Particle Image Velocimetry. In the scope of the present study, two types of 402 simulations have been performed. One simulation involved the 'enlarged model' geometry that was 403 used in previous experiments, at the same conditions (e.g. plunger closure profile). The aim of this simulation was to validate the numerical framework and detailed results are presented in the 404 supplementary material. The second set of simulations involved parametric studies of the 'real size' 405 406 geometry, based on the dimensions of the actual snapping shrimp claw. Results of the second set of 407 simulations are presented in this paper, since they involve cavitation related effects which are the 408 focus of the study.

As shown in Figure 10a, the experimental geometry has many construction features, such as holes for spring attachments, hinge shaft etc. Such features are not necessary for the simulation, since the area of interest is in the flow channel between plunger and socket. Thus, such features have been removed (Figure 10b). Moreover, the fillet of the geometry has been removed (Figure 10c), for simplifying the triangulation of the plunger surface, which is needed for preparing the marker point set (see supplementary material 1). The plunger initially is positioned at 73° from the fully closed configuration.

416



Figure 10. Left to right: (a) original geometry, used for enlarged scale experiments, (b) simplified geometry (hole and small features removed) and (c) final geometry (fillets removed). In (c) the wireframe of the socket is shown, providing a view to the inner geometry of the socket.

The simplified pistol shrimp claw dimensions, jet velocity and Reynolds number are outlined inTable 1.

424

421

	Experiment - 'enlarged model'	'Real size'
Geometry - <i>L</i> (socket length scale)	0.1 m	1.41 mm
Liquid dynamic viscosity - μ	5 mPa.s	1 mPa.s
Density - ρ	998.2 kg/m^3	998.2 kg/m ³
Closure time - <i>t_{closure}</i>	0.5 s	0.5 ms
Indicative Velocity - u	~ 1 m/s	~ 17 m/s
Reynolds number - Re_L	~ 20000	~ 20000

Table 1. Characteristics of the real size and enlarged models examined⁵.

425

426 The Reynolds number may be defined based on the socket length scale, L, as in the experiment ⁵ for 427 consistency:

428

$$\operatorname{Re}_{L} = \frac{u \cdot L \cdot \rho}{\mu} \tag{3}$$

429 It is highlighted though, that the velocities reported in Table 1 occur in the neck region of the formed 430 nozzle, as the claw closes. Thus, one could define the Reynolds number, based on the jet diameter, *D*, 431 which is comparable to the nozzle neck, i.e. \sim 1cm for the 'enlarged model' or \sim 0.14 mm for the 'real 432 size' model, as:

433

$$\operatorname{Re}_{D} = \frac{u \cdot D_{jet} \cdot \rho}{\mu} \tag{4}$$

Based on the nozzle dimensions, the jet Reynolds number is $Re_D \sim 2000$ for both 'real size' and 'enlarged model' cases. The maximum jet Reynolds number of the parametric cases examined is ~4000, thus the developed flow is laminar or at the borderline to transitional, consequently an explicit turbulence model was not used.

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571 Competing Interests

- 572 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 573

574 Data availability

- 575 The data used for the present study are included as supplementary materials:
- 576 The claw geometry is included in *Supplementary material 12* in Parasolid CAD format.
- 577 The motion profile is presented in *Supplementary material 3*.
- 578 The aforementioned data are adequate to define a simulation or design an experiment. In case 579 additional information are required, the interested reader is addressed to the corresponding author (see 580 below).
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