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Decomposition of fluid forcing and phase synchronisation for in-line vortex-induced vibration of a circular cylinder

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We present a decomposition of the streamwise fluid force for in-line vortex-induced vibration (VIV) to provide insight into how the *wake drag* acts as a driving force in fluid-structure interaction. This force decomposition is an extension of that proposed in the recent work of Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021), and is applied to and validated by our experiments examining a circular cylinder freely vibrating in-line with the free-stream. It is revealed from the decomposition and linear analysis that two regimes of significant vibration are in phase synchronisation, while they are separated by a desynchronised regime marked by competition between non-stationary frequency responses of the cylinder vibration and the vortex shedding. Of interest, such a near-resonance desynchronisation regime is not seen in the transverse vibration case.

Key words: fluid-structure interaction, vortex-induced vibration, force decomposition

1. Introduction

Decomposition of the driving fluid force has been widely performed to gain insight into the mechanisms governing fluid-structure interaction in flow-induced vibration (FIV). For a bluff body with a single degree of freedom to vibrate in the cross-flow or streamwise direction, the fluid force is often decomposed into potential (inviscid) and vortical (viscous) components. The potential component is related to the “added mass” arising from acceleration of surrounding fluid during the acceleration of a body in an inviscid irrotational fluid, and thus it is often referred to as the potential force or the added-mass force (see Limacher *et al.* 2018). The vortical component is related to forcing associated with the surrounding time-varying vorticity field, noting that in general a flow field can be constructed from irrotational (potential) and rotational components (Lighthill 1986; Govardhan & Williamson 2000; Limacher *et al.* 2018; Limacher 2021). This simple force decomposition approach has been useful in characterising FIV response regimes and transitions, and vortex shedding modes, of bluff bodies vibrating transversely to a free-stream (e.g. Govardhan & Williamson 2000; Zhao *et al.* 2014, 2018a; Soti *et al.* 2018; Zhao *et al.* 2019). However, for a body

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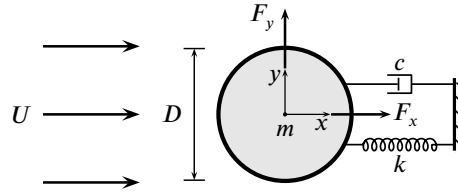


Figure 1: Problem setup for in-line vortex-induced vibration of a circular cylinder showing key parameters.

34 vibrating in-line, the make-up of the vortex force is more complex and it is useful to split
 35 the vortex force into different components to aid in developing a model representative of the
 36 flow physics. As demonstrated by Konstantinidis & Bouris (2017), a decomposition of the
 37 vortex force based on Morison's equation (Morison *et al.* 1950) was only partially able to
 38 reconstruct the fluid force acting on a cylinder in non-zero-mean displacement oscillatory
 39 flows. Thus, building on previous studies, a key interest of the present study is to extend this
 40 force decomposition model for a cylinder freely vibrating in-line with the free-stream.

41 Figure 1 shows a schematic for the problem of interest: an elastically mounted cylinder is
 42 free to oscillate only in the streamwise direction, and the fluid-structure system is modelled
 43 as a single-degree-of-freedom mass-spring-damper oscillator subjected to a fluid flow. Key
 44 problem parameters are also defined in this figure. The body dynamics is governed by the
 45 linear second-order equation for a mass-spring-damper system:

$$46 \quad m\ddot{x}(t) + c\dot{x}(t) + kx(t) = F_x(t), \quad (1.1)$$

47 where m is the total oscillating mass of the system, c is the structural damping of the
 48 system, k is the spring constant, $x(t)$ is the body displacement, and $F_x(t)$ represents the
 49 time-dependent (streamwise) fluid force acting on the cylinder. Note that the streamwise and
 50 transverse fluid force coefficients used in this study are defined by $C_x = F_x/(\frac{1}{2}\rho U^2 DL)$
 51 and $C_y = F_y/(\frac{1}{2}\rho U^2 DL)$, respectively, where ρ is the fluid density and L is the cylinder
 52 immersed span. Often, the structural dynamics is characterised as a function of flow reduced
 53 velocity, $U^* = U/(f_{nw}D)$, where f_{nw} is the natural frequency of the system in quiescent fluid
 54 (i.e. water in the present study).

55 Previous studies have focused on characterising the in-line VIV amplitude and frequency
 56 responses (e.g. Aguirre 1977; Okajima *et al.* 2004), and wake modes (e.g. Cagney & Balabani
 57 2013a,b; Konstantinidis 2014). It has been shown widely in experimental studies that there
 58 generally exist two amplitude response branches in moderate- or high-Reynolds-number
 59 flows, while no branching behaviour has been observed in low-Reynolds-number numerical
 60 simulations (e.g. Bourguet & Lo Jacono 2015; Konstantinidis *et al.* 2021). Note that the
 61 Reynolds number here is defined by $Re = UD/\nu$, with ν the kinematic viscosity of the fluid.
 62 Gurian *et al.* (2019) conducted experimental measurements of the streamwise fluid force, but
 63 without further decomposition analysis. Very recently, Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021) presented
 64 a force decomposition to shed light on the *wake drag* as the underlying driving component;
 65 however, when applied to our experimental data, their equations require modification.
 66 Therefore, there is still a need to develop an improved fluid forcing decomposition model
 67 that is consistent with the underlying force components in in-line VIV. This is particularly
 68 the case at moderate Reynolds numbers where the amplitude response is distinctly different
 69 from previous low- Re low-amplitude numerical studies. Thus, the primary contribution of
 70 the present work is to present this force decomposition extension, based on the model of
 71 Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021), to provide further insight into the dynamics in in-line VIV.

72 2. Experimental methodology

73 In the present study, the hydro-elastic system was modelled using a low-friction air-bearing
 74 rig in conjunction with a recirculating free-surface water channel of the *Fluids Laboratory*
 75 *for Aeronautical and Industrial Research (FLAIR)* at Monash University. Details of the
 76 air-bearing system and water-channel facilities have been described in the previous related
 77 studies of Zhao *et al.* (2018a,b) and Wong *et al.* (2018).

78 The test cylinder model, precision-made from aluminium tubing, had an outer diameter
 79 of $D = 40 \pm 0.01$ mm. The immersed length of cylinder was $L = 614$ mm, yielding a
 80 span-to-diameter aspect ratio of $AR = L/D = 15.4$. To reduce end effects of the cylinder
 81 and to promote parallel vortex shedding, an end conditioning platform was used (for more
 82 details, see Zhao *et al.* 2018a,b). The total oscillating mass of the system was $m = 1140.1$ g,
 83 and the displaced mass of water was $m_d = \rho\pi D^2 L/4 = 770.7$ g, giving a mass ratio
 84 $m^* = m/m_d = 1.48$. The natural frequency of the mass-spring-damper system, determined via
 85 free decay tests, was found to be $f_{na} = 0.951$ Hz in air and $f_{nw} = 0.723$ Hz in quiescent water.
 86 Note that the structural damping ratio with consideration of the added mass was given by
 87 $\zeta = c/2\sqrt{k(m + m_A)} = 1.98 \times 10^{-3}$, where the added mass, given by $m_A = ((f_{na}/f_{nw})^2 - 1)m$,
 88 was found to be 829.8 g. This equates to an experimentally defined added-mass coefficient,
 89 defined by $C_A = m_A/m_d$, of 1.08, noting this is close to the theoretical potential added-mass
 90 coefficient of $C_A = 1$.

91 Measurement techniques for the cylinder vibration and fluid forces acting on the vibrating
 92 cylinder have been described and validated by Zhao *et al.* (2014, 2018a,b). The current VIV
 93 experiments were conducted over the reduced velocity range of $1.40 \leq U^* \leq 5.00$ with fine
 94 increments of 0.05, while the corresponding Reynolds number range was $1530 \leq Re \leq 5450$.
 95 In addition, drag force measurements for a stationary cylinder over the same Reynolds number
 96 range were also conducted using a high-precision six-axis force sensor (Mini40, ATI-IA, US)
 97 with an accuracy of 5 mN (see Sareen *et al.* 2018).

98 The near wake of the cylinder was measured using the particle image velocimetry (PIV)
 99 technique. Details of the PIV system used can be found in Zhao *et al.* (2018a,b). In the
 100 present experiments, in order to provide a thorough examination of changes of the near-wake
 101 flow structure, a more than 100 000 images were obtained for 13 reduced velocities (9 are
 102 presented in the text of this paper, while the others are provided together as supplementary
 103 movies) across the VIV response regimes. The imaging was conducted at a sampling rate of
 104 100 Hz for 6200 images each dataset. To clearly visualise the evolution of the wake, images
 105 of each case were divided into 48 phases per vortex shedding cycle, giving each phase at
 106 least 100 snapshots for averaging.

107 3. Results and discussion

108 3.1. Amplitude response and quasi-steady drag force

109 Figure 2 shows the normalised amplitude response (A^*), the normalised time-averaged
 110 displacement (\bar{x}^*) of the cylinder from its neutral position at zero flow velocity, and the
 111 time-averaged streamwise fluid force coefficient (\bar{C}_x) as a function of reduced velocity. Note
 112 that in the present study the amplitude is represented by the mean of the top 10% of amplitudes
 113 (A_{10}^* , based on half of peak-to-peak values) at each U^* . As can be seen in figure 2(a), the
 114 present amplitude response can be characterised distinctly by two VIV regimes (namely
 115 *regime I* and *regime II*) and a *competing regime* (CR). In general, the two response regimes
 116 of the present work agree with those found in previous studies (for instance, see Aguirre
 117 (1977) with a similar mass ratio of 1.46). However, discrepancies in some details may be

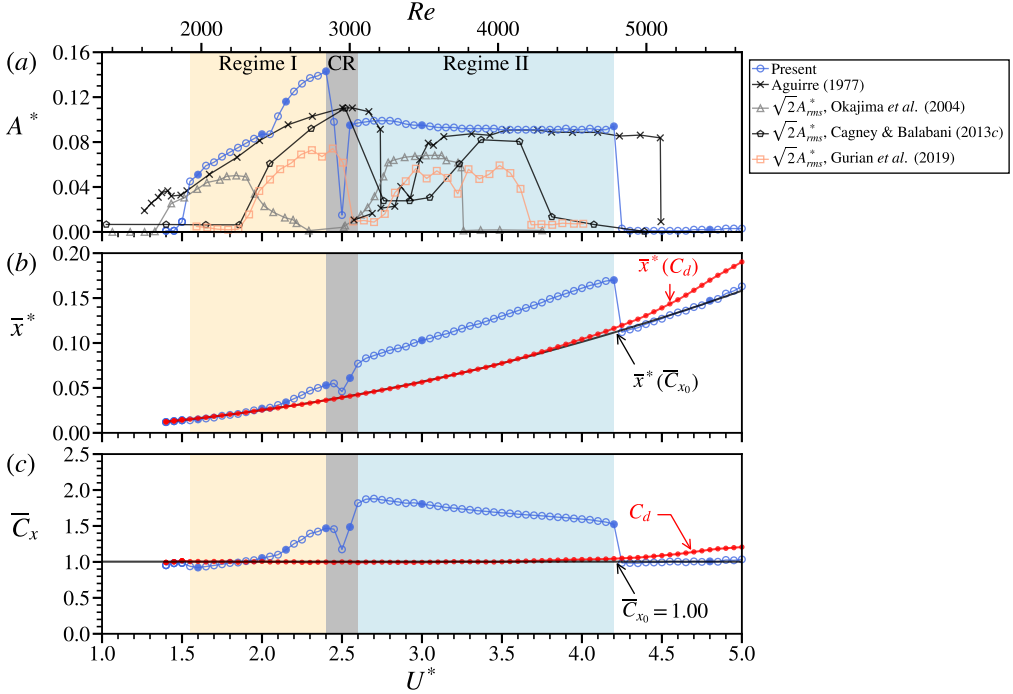


Figure 2: The variation of (a) the normalised amplitude response, (b) time-averaged displacement, and (c) time-averaged streamwise fluid force coefficient as a function of reduced velocity. In (a), the vibration response regimes in the present study are shaded in different colours: VIV regime I in light yellow, competing regime (CR) in grey, and VIV regime II in light blue. Aguirre (1977): $m^* = 1.46$ (ζ unknown), $Re = 1 \times 10^3 - 3 \times 10^5$; Okajima *et al.* (2004): $m^* \zeta = 0.49$ (m^* and ζ individually unknown), $Re = 8 \times 10^3 - 4 \times 10^4$; Cagney & Balabani (2013b): $m^* = 1.17$ and $\zeta \approx 5.3 \times 10^{-3}$, $Re = 450 - 3700$; and Gurian *et al.* (2019): $m^* = 1.61$ and $\zeta = 6 \times 10^{-3}$, $Re = 970 - 3370$. In (b), the dotted line in red and the solid line in black represent the evaluations of $\bar{x}^*(C_d)$ and $\bar{x}^*(\bar{C}_{x_0})$ by substituting C_d and \bar{C}_{x_0} for (3.1), respectively. In (c), the dotted line in red represents the measurements of C_d , while the horizontal line in black represents \bar{C}_{x_0} . Note that the circles filled in blue represent spot PIV measurements.

118 attributable to differences in mass ratio, damping ratio and Reynolds number, but these
 119 aspects are beyond the focus of the present study.

120 In regime I (covering the range $1.55 \leq U^* \leq 2.40$), the vibration amplitude increases
 121 gradually to reach its peak value of $A_{10}^* = 0.144$ as U^* is increased to 2.40. In this regime,
 122 the body vibration frequency (f_x^*) is synchronised with the fluid forcing frequency ($f_{C_x}^*$), as
 123 shown in figure 3(b, c). Note that the frequency components are normalised by the natural
 124 frequency of the system in quiescent water, namely $f^* = f/f_{nw}$. It is interesting to note
 125 that both f_x^* and $f_{C_x}^*$ tend to increase slightly with U^* beyond $U^* \approx 2.1$. When both f_x^*
 126 and $f_{C_x}^*$ approach the slope of $2St$ (Strouhal number = $St = Df/U = 0.215$ measured over
 127 the Reynolds number range tested), the amplitude response experiences an abrupt drop at
 128 $U^* = 2.45 (\approx 1/(2St))$, due to the competition between non-stationary (i.e. changing with
 129 time) frequency responses of the body vibration and the vortex shedding, noting that the
 130 streamwise fluid force generally exhibits a dominant frequency twice that of the cross-flow
 131 fluid force ($f_{C_y}^*$) for a fixed body. As shown in figure 2, the sudden drop of amplitude
 132 response in this regime has also been observed occurring over different U^* ranges in the

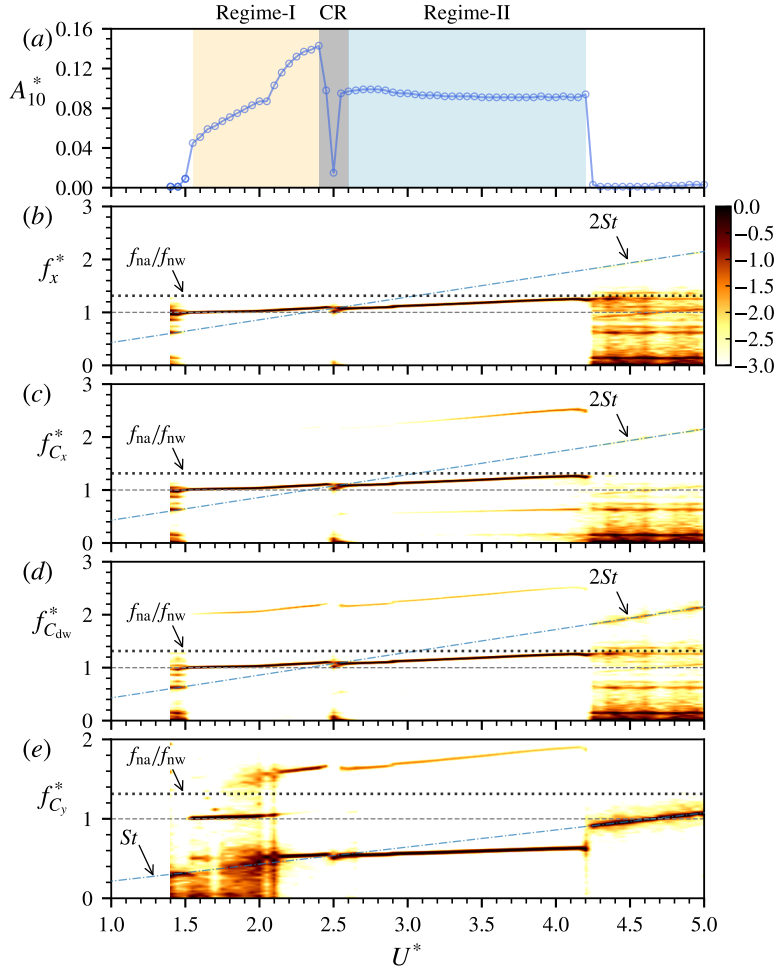


Figure 3: Normalised amplitude and logarithmic-scale power spectrum density contours of normalised frequency responses as a function of reduced velocity.

133 previous studies with different structural properties; however, no detailed investigations into
 134 this regime have yet been reported. More features of the competition regime will be further
 135 discussed later. As U^* is increased slightly further to 2.60, frequency synchronisation between
 136 the body vibration and driving fluid force is resumed in *regime II* for U^* up to 4.20, where
 137 the vibration amplitude is found to be almost constant at $A_{10}^* = 0.094$ throughout. Still, both
 138 f_x^* and $f_{C_x}^*$ tend to increase slightly with U^* , until desynchronisation is encountered when
 139 they approach the natural frequency of the system in air (i.e., $f^* \approx f_{na}/f_{nw}$).

140 To take the analyse further, we examine the time-averaged cylinder position and the time-
 141 averaged streamwise fluid force coefficient. Following the analytical approach used by Zhao
 142 *et al.* (2018b), by taking temporal averages of both sides of equation (1.1), the time-averaged
 143 cylinder displacement in dimensionless form (normalised by the cylinder diameter D) can
 144 be expressed as

$$\bar{x}^* = \frac{U^{*2} \bar{C}_x}{2\pi^3(m^* + C_A)}. \quad (3.1)$$

146 Interestingly, as shown in figure 2(b), \bar{x}^* deviates from the values of $\bar{x}^*(C_d)$ and $\bar{x}^*(\bar{C}_{x_0})$,

147 which are evaluated by substituting C_d and \bar{C}_{x_0} , respectively, for \bar{C}_x in equation (3.1), noting
 148 that C_d is the quasi-steady drag coefficient measured for the fixed cylinder case, while \bar{C}_{x_0}
 149 is the average of \bar{C}_x taken for the desynchronised locations of insignificant vibration (i.e.
 150 $U^* > 4.2$). Similar deviations have been observed for in-line FIV of a rotating cylinder by
 151 Zhao *et al.* (2018b), when the cylinder experienced large-amplitude oscillations. It is also
 152 interesting to note in the present study that \bar{C}_{x_0} deviates from C_d for high reduced velocities
 153 (i.e. $U^* > 4.1$), which in turn leads to the differences between $\bar{x}^*(C_d)$ and $\bar{x}^*(\bar{C}_{x_0})$. However,
 154 these significant deviations could not be explained by the previous force decomposition of
 155 Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021), as they were neglected in low-Reynolds-number flows ($Re = 100$
 156 $- 250$). To better understand the underlying physics of the resonant response, we perform a
 157 decomposition analysis for the driving fluid force in the following subsection §3.2.

158 3.2. Decomposition of the driving fluid force

159 Assuming that the cylinder vibration in fluid-structure synchronisation can be represented by
 160 a single-frequency harmonic function of time, the cylinder displacement and the streamwise
 161 fluid force can be expressed by (3.2) and (3.3), respectively:

$$162 \quad x(t) = \bar{x} + A \cos(\omega t). \quad (3.2)$$

$$164 \quad F_x(t) = \bar{F}_x + \tilde{F}_x \cos(\omega t + \phi_x), \quad (3.3)$$

165 where \bar{F}_x and \tilde{F}_x are the time-averaged component and the magnitude of the fluctuating
 166 component of F_x , respectively, while ϕ_x is the phase between F_x and x (also referred to as
 167 the total phase); $\omega = 2\pi f$ is the angular frequency.

168 Following the force decomposition method proposed by Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021), who
 169 extended the equation of Morison *et al.* (1950) to include a wake drag term, the streamwise
 170 fluid force is given as follows:

$$171 \quad F_x(t) = \frac{1}{2}\rho DLC_d|U - \dot{x}|(U - \dot{x}) - m_A\ddot{x} + F_{dw}(t), \quad (3.4)$$

172 where the first term represents the quasi-steady drag experienced by a fixed cylinder that is
 173 subjected to a relative flow speed $(U - \dot{x})$, the second term represents the potential force
 174 (the inviscid added-mass force) associated with the body acceleration, and the third term
 175 represents the wake drag. In particular, different from Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021), we here
 176 further decompose the wake drag into a steady component and an unsteady component due
 177 to periodic vortex formation in the cylinder wake, given by

$$178 \quad F_{dw}(t) = \bar{F}_{dw} + \tilde{F}_{dw} \cos(\omega t + \phi_{dw}), \quad (3.5)$$

179 where \bar{F}_{dw} is the (time-averaged) steady component, while \tilde{F}_{dw} is the magnitude of the
 180 unsteady component with a phase, ϕ_{dw} , with respect to the body displacement x . By
 181 neglecting the terms involving second or higher orders of $\sin(\omega t)$ and $\cos(\omega t)$, the streamwise
 182 fluid force can be approximated as

$$183 \quad F_x(t) = \frac{1}{2}\rho U^2 DL \left[C_d + \frac{2\omega A}{U} \sin(\omega t) + \bar{C}_{dw} + \tilde{C}_{dw} \cos(\omega t + \phi_{dw}) \right] + \frac{1}{4}\pi \rho D^2 LC_A \omega^2 A \cos(\omega t). \quad (3.6)$$

184 The above equation indicates that the steady part of the streamwise fluid force consists of
 185 contributions from the quasi-steady drag (C_d) and the steady component of the wake drag
 186 (\bar{C}_{dw}):

$$187 \quad \bar{F}_x = \frac{1}{2}\rho U^2 DL (C_d + \bar{C}_{dw}), \quad (3.7)$$

188 or in dimensionless form

$$189 \quad \bar{C}_x = C_d + \bar{C}_{dw}. \quad (3.8)$$

190 Importantly, this expression reflects that the mean wake drag in addition to the quasi-steady
 191 drag, can contribute to the steady component of the driving fluid force when the cylinder
 192 is given the degree of freedom to oscillate streamwise. This approach presents a significant
 193 modification of the original model of Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021) that gives $\bar{C}_x = C_d$. Indeed
 194 in that model \bar{C}_{dw} was not considered, and thus the deviations in both \bar{x}^* and \bar{C}_x curves
 195 during VIV could not be explained, noting the significant departures shown in figure 2.
 196 To comment further, for the cases considered by Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021) of $Re = 100$
 197 and 180, the peak oscillation amplitudes are so small that the movement of the cylinder
 198 during oscillation ($\sim 1\%D$ or less) hardly causes any modification of the wake from that of
 199 a stationary cylinder. Hence in that case, there is hardly any change to the mean drag force
 200 whether the cylinder oscillates or not. On the other hand, for the higher Reynolds numbers
 201 considered here, the oscillation amplitude is larger, although still relatively small ($\sim 10\%D$).
 202 However, this is enough to cause the motion of the cylinder to modify the wake and mean
 203 drag force to be noticeably different from those of a stationary cylinder.

204 The unsteady part of F_x can also be written in a dimensionless form below:

$$205 \quad \tilde{C}_x \cos(\omega t + \phi_x) = \frac{2\omega A}{U} C_d \sin(\omega t) + \tilde{C}_{dw} \cos(\omega t + \phi_{dw}) + \frac{\pi D \omega^2 A}{2U^2} C_A \cos(\omega t). \quad (3.9)$$

206 By equating the cosine and sine terms expanded through the double-angle formulae for the
 207 above equation, we can find the following relationships:

$$208 \quad \tilde{C}_{dw} \sin \phi_{dw} = \tilde{C}_x \sin \phi_x + \frac{2\omega A}{U} C_d = \tilde{C}_x \sin \phi_x + \frac{4\pi f^* A^*}{U^*} C_d, \quad (3.10)$$

$$209 \quad \tilde{C}_{dw} \cos \phi_{dw} = \tilde{C}_x \cos \phi_x - \frac{\pi D \omega^2 A}{2U^2} C_A = \tilde{C}_x \cos \phi_x - 2\pi^3 \left(\frac{f^*}{U^*}\right)^2 A^* C_A. \quad (3.11)$$

211 Substituting (3.2) and (3.3) for the governing equation of motion (1.1), we can obtain the
 212 following relationships:

$$213 \quad \tilde{C}_x \sin \phi_x = \frac{4\pi^3 f^* A^*}{U^{*2}} m^* \zeta \left(\frac{f_n}{f_{nw}}\right)^2 = \frac{4\pi^3 f^* A^*}{U^{*2}} (m^* + C_A) \zeta, \quad (3.12)$$

$$214 \quad \tilde{C}_x \cos \phi_x = \frac{2\pi^3 m^* A^*}{U^{*2}} \frac{(f_n^2 - f^2)}{f_{nw}^2} = \frac{2\pi^3 A^*}{U^{*2}} [m^* (1 - f^*) + C_A]. \quad (3.13)$$

216 It should be noted that in addition to our new decomposition leading to (3.8), we have also
 217 obtained the modified expressions in (3.10) – (3.13) to those given by Konstantinidis *et al.*
 218 (2021). Furthermore, by substituting (3.12) for (3.10), the dimensionless vibration amplitude
 219 in steady state can be evaluated by

$$220 \quad A^* = \frac{U^{*2} \tilde{C}_{dw} \sin \phi_{dw}}{4\pi f^* [\pi^2 (m^* + C_A) \zeta + U^* C_d]}. \quad (3.14)$$

221 This expression indicates that the vibration amplitude depends on the unsteady component of
 222 the wake drag and its phase. Note that this is significantly different from that of Konstantinidis
 223 *et al.* (2021) (their Eq. (4.7)), which is much simplified and with the wake drag phase term
 224 missing, an important parameter to evaluate A^* in steady state. A direct comparison between
 225 the amplitude response predicted using (3.14) and experimental data is presented in §3.4.

226 Through the decomposition of F_x , we can determine the wake drag to gain a better
 227 understanding of the dynamics of the fluid-structure system. Figure 4 shows the root-mean-

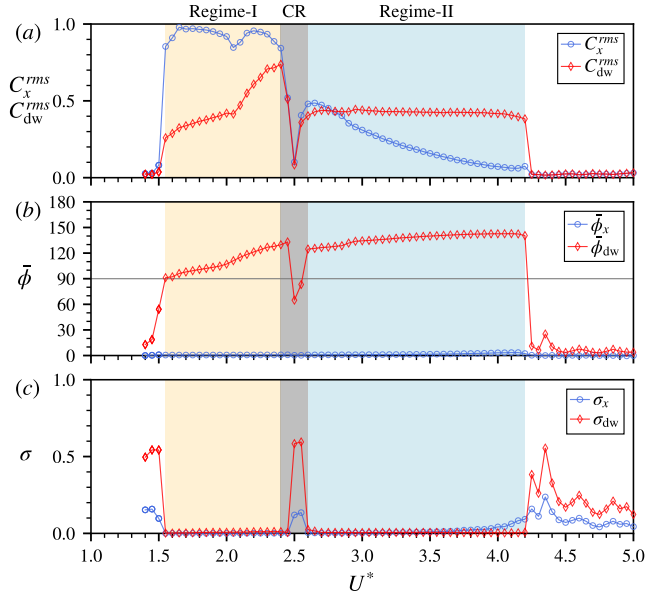


Figure 4: Variations of the streamwise fluid force and wake drag coefficients, together with the mean phases (in degrees) and their variants, as a function of reduced velocity.

228 square coefficients of the streamwise fluid force and wake drag (C_x^{rms} and C_{dw}^{rms}), together
 229 with their mean phases and phase variants (with respect to x), as a function of reduced
 230 velocity. The mean phase is obtained by projecting the phase differences between two signals
 231 onto the unit circle in a complex plane and calculating the mean resultant vector of the
 232 angular phase distribution, as given by

$$233 \quad \bar{\Phi} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N e^{i\phi_j}, \quad (3.15)$$

234 where ϕ_j is the relative phase between the two signals at an instance, and N is the total
 235 number of samples of a signal (McQueen *et al.* 2021). Thus, the mean phase angle can be
 236 determined by

$$237 \quad \bar{\phi} = \text{Arg}(\bar{\Phi}), \quad (3.16)$$

238 and the mean phase coherence based on the circular variance of the phase distribution can
 239 be indicated by

$$240 \quad \sigma = 1 - |\bar{\Phi}|, \quad (3.17)$$

241 where $0 \leq \sigma \leq 1$ is used as the index of phase synchronisation. The minimum possible
 242 value, 0, indicates that all phase angles are equal (i.e. perfect phase synchronisation), whereas
 243 the maximum, 1, indicates that the phase angles are spread uniformly over the circular space
 244 (i.e. no phase synchronisation or uncorrelated phase differences).

245 As can be seen in figure 4, the coefficients of fluid forces, and the mean phases and
 246 their synchronisation indices experience changes corresponding to changes in the frequency
 247 responses in figure 3. Notably, both C_y^{rms} and C_{dw}^{rms} display an abrupt jump at the onset of
 248 regime I, and then another deflection change at $U^* \approx 2.05$. Interestingly, the notable V-shape
 249 drop in C_y^{rms} at $U^* \approx 2.05$ corresponds to a sharp change in the dominant component of
 250 $f_{C_y}^*$ shifting from $f_{C_y}^* = f_x^*$ to $f_{C_y}^* = 0.5f_x^*$ (figure 3(e)). After the abrupt drop in the

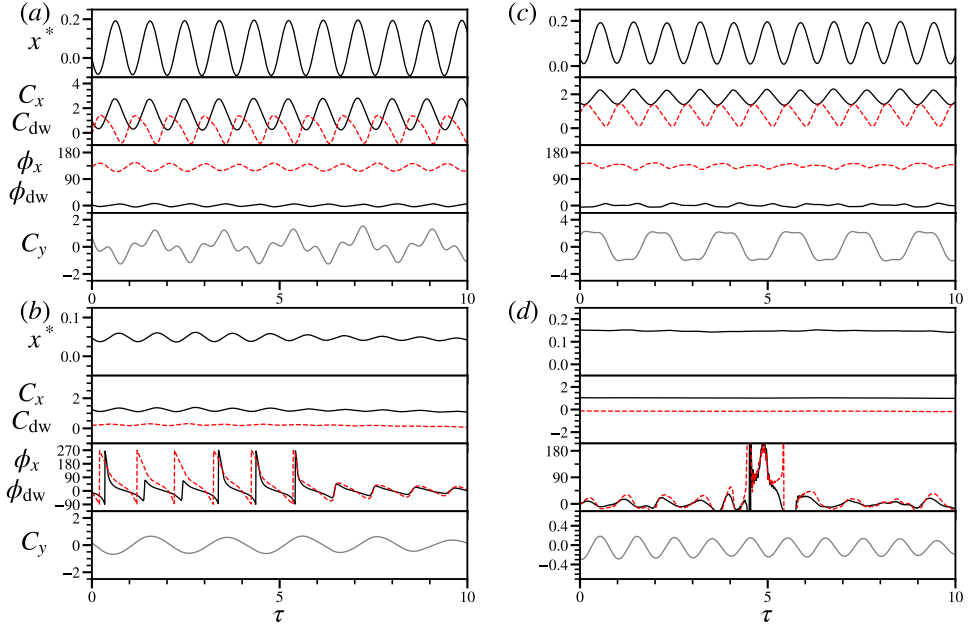


Figure 5: Sample time traces of the cylinder displacement, fluid force coefficients, and their phases (in degrees) at different reduced velocities: (a) $U^* = 2.40$, (b) $U^* = 2.50$, (c) $U^* = 3.00$, and (d) $U^* = 4.80$. Note that C_{dw} and ϕ_{dw} are denoted by the dashed lines.

251 competing region, C_x^{rms} and C_{dw}^{rms} increase rapidly at the beginning of regime II. However,
 252 as it is expected from equation (3.13), C_x^{rms} tends to decrease to minimal or zero, as the
 253 vibration frequency increases gradually towards f_{na} at the end of regime II. Through the U^*
 254 range tested, F_x remains in phase with x , i.e. $\phi_x \simeq 0^\circ$. On the other hand, the variation of
 255 C_{dw}^{rms} resembles that of A^* , which would be expected from equation (3.14). Interestingly, the
 256 wake drag phase $\bar{\phi}_{dw}$ undergoes a sudden jump to 91° at the beginning of regime I and then
 257 increases to 130° at the end of the regime. The change of the dominant frequency of $f_{C_y}^*$ and
 258 the variation of $\bar{\phi}_{dw}$ imply the existence of different wake patterns in this regime, as expected
 259 from previous studies. In regime II, $\bar{\phi}_{dw}$ is found to be stable at approximately 138° . Further
 260 discussion on wake modes is presented in § 3.3.

261 Moreover, the variants of the phases (σ_x and σ_{dw}) in figure 4(c) show that the driving
 262 force components are in phase synchronisation with cylinder vibration in both regimes I and
 263 II. Interestingly, time traces of the wake drag force shown in figure 5(b) revealed that ϕ_{dw}
 264 sweeps through from 0° to 360° , indicating a phase desynchronisation in the CR regime,
 265 which is distinctly different from regimes I and II (see $U^* = 2.40$ and 3.00 in figure 5(a) and
 266 (c), respectively), where ϕ_x and ϕ_{dw} fluctuate slightly about their stable mean value; that is,
 267 the phase desynchronisation leads to a chaotic dynamical response in this regime.

268

3.3. Time-frequency analysis and wake modes

269 To provide an insight into the dynamics of the cylinder vibration and the wake structure, this
 270 subsection presents a time-frequency analysis and PIV measurements undertaken at various
 271 reduced velocities across the VIV response regimes.

272 The time-frequency analysis is based on continuous wavelet transform (CWT), and the
 273 “mother” wavelet used is a complex Morlet wavelet. In the present analysis, the centre
 274 frequency of the mother wavelet is set equal to f_{nw} , while the bandwidth is set at $10/f_{nw}$

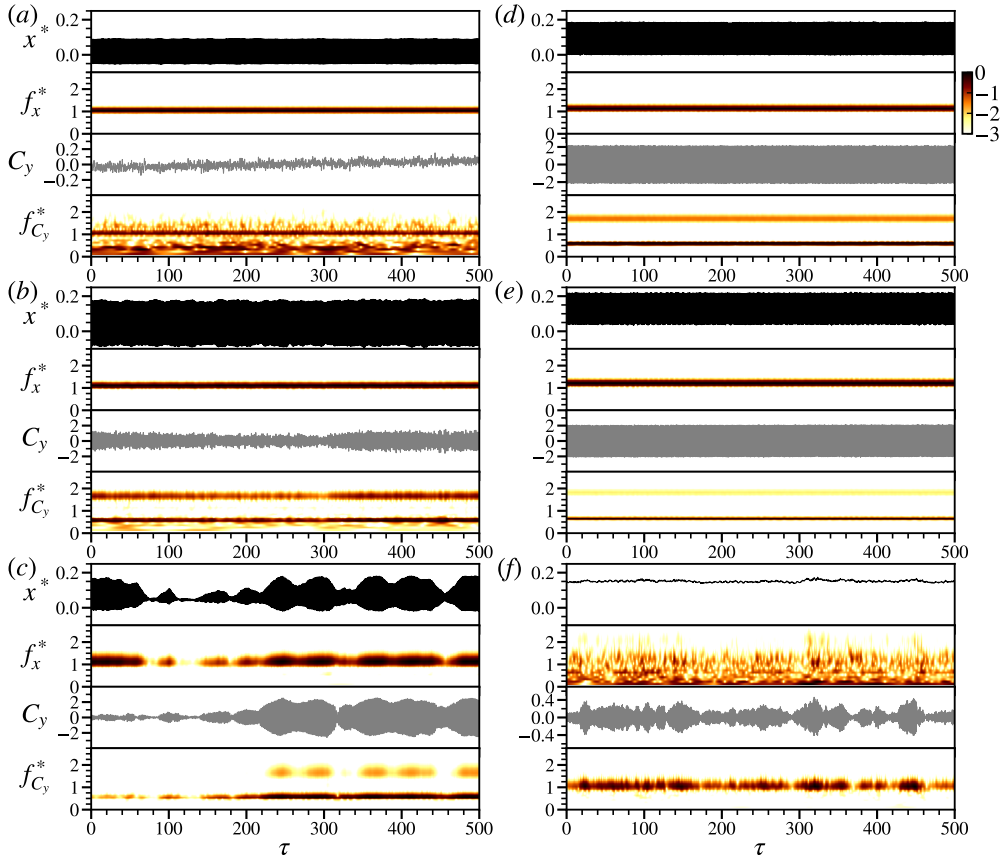


Figure 6: Continuous-wavelet-transform-based time-frequency analysis for the body vibration and the transverse lift coefficient at different reduced velocities selected from the VIV response regimes. For convenience of comparison, the left column plots two cases $U^* = 1.8$ and 2.35 from regime I and one case $U^* = 2.55$ from CR in (a) – (c), respectively, while the right column presents two cases $U^* = 2.8$ and 3.5 from regime II and one case $U^* = 4.8$ from desynchronisation regime are in (e) – (f), respectively. Note that τ is the normalised time given by $\tau = f_{\text{nw}}t$ to indicate body vibration cycles.

275 (about 10 cylinder vibration cycles) for cases in regimes I and II, where the cylinder vibration
 276 is highly periodic, and $3/f_{\text{nw}}$ for cases in the CR and desynchronisation regime to better
 277 capture intermittent changes in the dynamic signals. This CWT method has been used by
 278 Nemes *et al.* (2012) and Zhao *et al.* (2018c) to reveal intermittent behaviour and branch
 279 competition of FIV responses for square cylinders.

280 Figure 6 shows the time-frequency variations of the cylinder vibration and the
 281 transverse lift (coefficient), which reflects the vortex shedding frequency, at $U^* =$
 282 $[1.80, 2.35, 2.55, 2.80, 3.50, 4.80]$. Note that the measurements for each case in this
 283 figure were taken over 1200 s (more than 900 vibration cycles) in order to reveal non-
 284 stationary frequencies and intermittent behaviour. Based on the transverse lift frequency
 285 response in figure 3(e), regime I can be further divided into two parts: $1.55 \leq U^* \leq 2.1$,
 286 where the dominant component of $f_{C_y}^*$ matches that of f_x^* , and $2.1 < U^* \leq 2.4$, where the
 287 dominant component of $f_{C_y}^*$ appears at $0.5f_x^*$, accompanied by a harmonic at $1.5f_x^*$. This
 288 change in the dominant frequency of $f_{C_y}^*$ implies a corresponding change in wake mode.

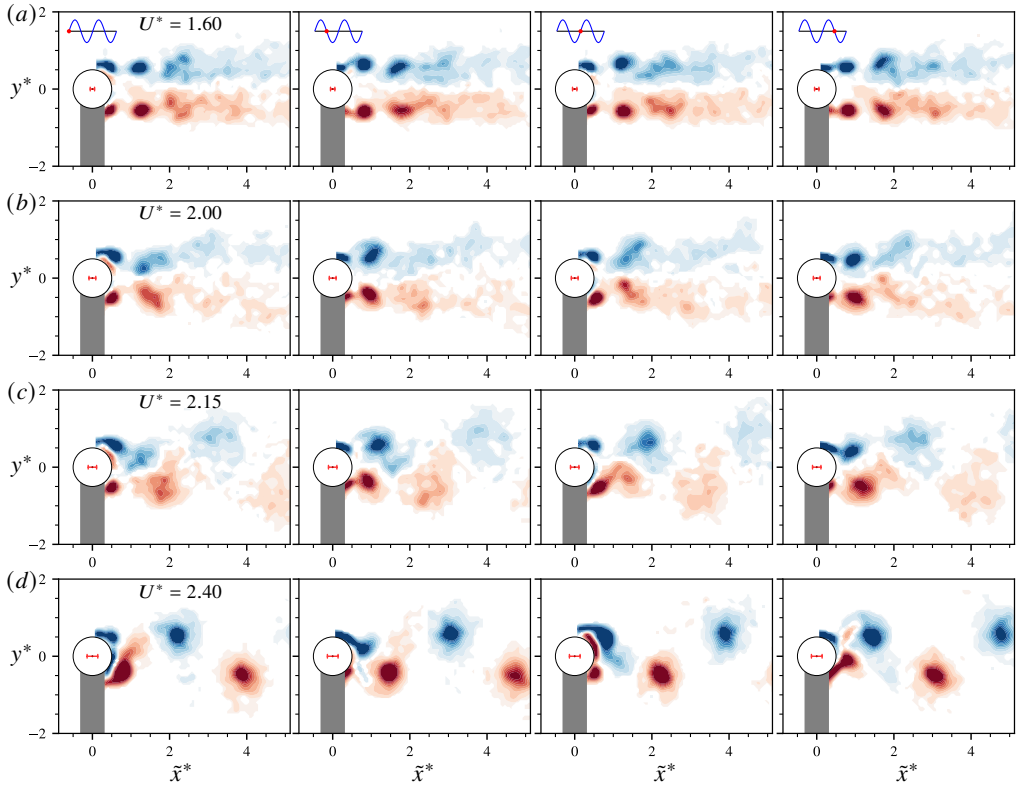


Figure 7: Phase-averaged vorticity contours (of selected phases) showing the evolution of the wake patterns for various reduced velocities across regime I:

$U^* \in [1.60, 2.00, 2.15, 2.40]$ in (a) – (d), respectively. The normalised vorticity range shown here is $\omega_z^* = [-5, 5]$. The horizontal bar in red placed at the cylinder centre represents the peak-to-peak vibration amplitude. The red dots on the sine waves in the top row denote the cylinder position during its vibration. For the full oscillation cycles, see supplementary movies 1–7 for all test cases in regime I, available at (URL to be provided).

289 As shown in figure 6(a), at $U^* = 1.80$ selected from the middle of first part of regime
 290 I, the cylinder vibration is highly periodic with its dominant frequency as stationary (i.e.
 291 not changing with time) slightly above f_{nw} , while $f_{C_y}^*$ also displays its stationary dominant
 292 component matching f_x^* , but accompanied by a non-stationary subharmonic ($\sim 0.5f_x^*$) with
 293 relatively strong power varying with time. As expected, the phase-averaged PIV results
 294 of $U^* = 1.60$ and 2.00 in figures 7(a) and (b), respectively, show a symmetric vortex
 295 shedding mode, where a pair of opposite-sign vortices are shed simultaneously from both
 296 sides of the cylinder. This symmetric wake pattern agrees with the symmetric “S-I” mode
 297 reported in the previous studies of Cagney & Balabani (2013a,b); Okajima *et al.* (2004);
 298 Gurian *et al.* (2019). Unsurprisingly, in the present experiments, the symmetry of this
 299 wake mode is associated with very low lift coefficient magnitudes (figure 6(a)), due to the
 300 simultaneously symmetric wake structure and, thus so, the pressure distribution around the
 301 cylinder. However, it is worth noting that the vortices of this symmetric mode tend to break
 302 up towards the cylinder’s equilibrium position as U^* is increased in this sub-regime; e.g.,
 303 the breakdown of vortices occurs at $\tilde{x}^* \approx 2.5$ for $U^* = 1.60$, and at $\tilde{x}^* \approx 1.5$ for $U^* = 2.00$.
 304 Further increasing U^* will cause the breakdown of vortices to occur close to the cylinder
 305 body, thus leading to a change of the wake mode in the second sub-regime.

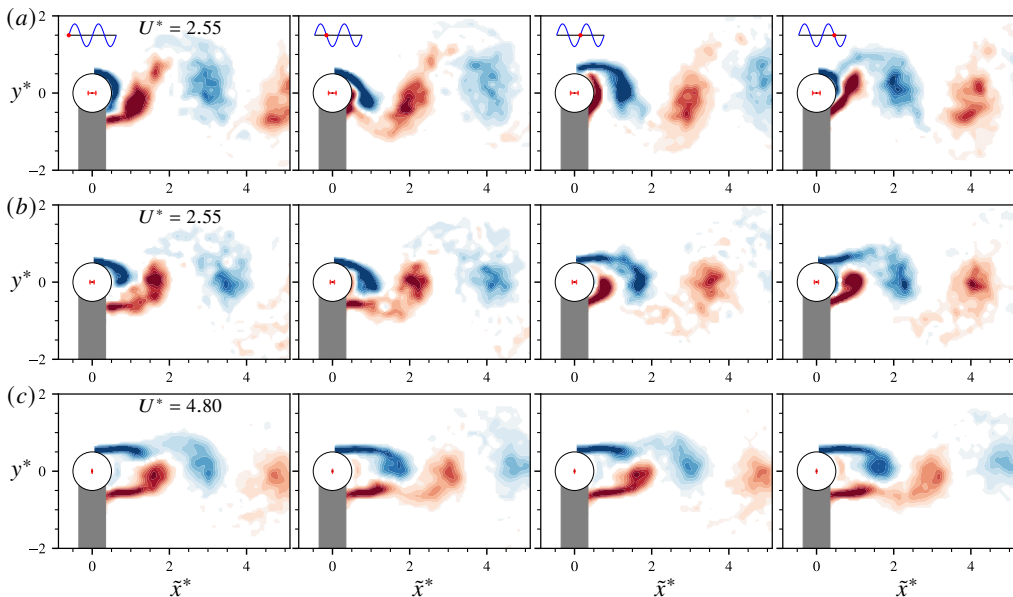


Figure 8: Phase-averaged vorticity contours (of selected phases) showing the evolution of the wake patterns at $U^* = 2.55$ in the competing regime and $U^* = 4.80$ in the desynchronisation regime. Note that (a) presents the PIV measurements taken for large-amplitude oscillation cycles (i.e. $A^* \approx 0.1$) at $U^* = 2.55$, and (b) for low-amplitude oscillation cycles (i.e. $A^* \leq 0.03$). For more details, refer to the caption of figure 7. For the full oscillation cycles, see supplementary movies 8–10, available at (URL to be provided).

306 Indeed, the second part of regime I sees a different wake mode comprising two single
 307 opposite-sign vortices shed simultaneously but alternating in size from both sides of the
 308 cylinder per shedding cycle (or per two cylinder vibration cycles). This wake mode is termed
 309 “AS” (alternating-symmetric) mode by Gurian *et al.* (2019). Correspondingly, as previously
 310 mentioned, $f_{C_y}^*$ exhibits a different composition with its dominant component at $0.5f_x^*$ and
 311 a harmonic at $1.5f_x^*$ (figure 3(e)), while the CWT result in figure 6(b) indicates that these
 312 frequency components remain almost constant in power over time. On the other hand, the
 313 phase-averaged vorticity fields in figure 7(c) show that vortices tend to become stronger as
 314 U^* is increased; that is, at $U^* = 2.15$ (and 2.25 and 2.30 in supplementary movies 5 and 6)
 315 the vortices seem to dissipate significantly as they travel downstream, while at the high-end
 316 reduced velocity $U^* = 2.40$, the vortices remain clearly in a strong AS pattern travelling
 317 through the measurement field of view. As expected, this mode causes significant fluctuating
 318 lateral fluid forces acting on the cylinder. Notably, these strong vortices induce an amplitude
 319 peak significantly greater than those reported in previous studies (as compared in figure 2).

320 Interestingly, as U^* is further increased in the competing regime, both f_x^* and $f_{C_y}^*$ exhibit
 321 intermittent behaviour. This is demonstrated by the case of $U^* = 2.55$ in figure 6(c),
 322 where significant cylinder oscillations (i.e., with $A^* \approx 0.1$) accompanied with well-defined
 323 harmonics of $f_{C_y}^*$ are encountered intermittently in an unpredictable way. Such a chaotic
 324 response is similar to the branch competing behaviour in FIV of inclined square cylinders
 325 reported by Nemes *et al.* (2012) and Zhao *et al.* (2018c). On the other hand, however,
 326 as shown in figure 8 (a, b), the wake measurements taken separately for large- and low-
 327 amplitude oscillation cycles show similar patterns, while the vortices associated with large-
 328 amplitude cycles seem to be slightly stronger. When compared with the desynchronisation

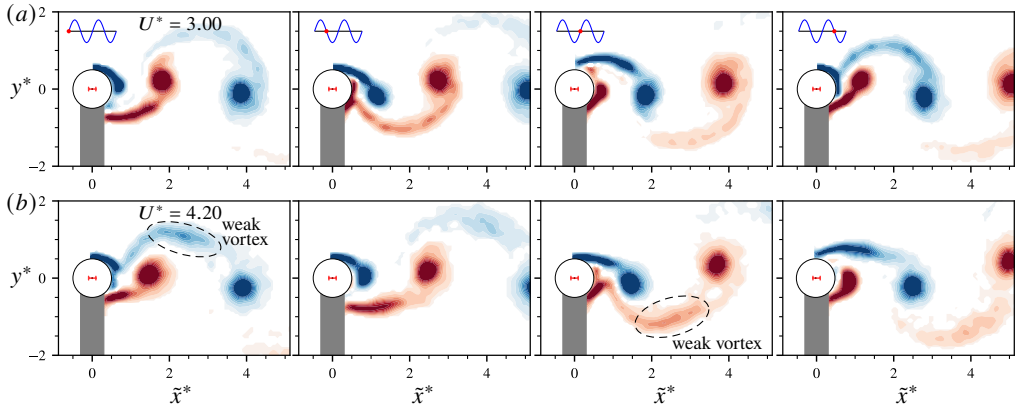


Figure 9: Phase-averaged vorticity contours (of selected phases) showing the evolution of the wake patterns at $U^* = 3.00$ and 4.20 in regime II. For more details, refer to the caption of figure 7. For the full oscillation cycles, see supplementary movies 11–13 for all test cases in regime II, available at (URL to be provided).

329 case of $U^* = 4.80$ in figure 8 (c), despite similar (Kármán-like) patterns observed further
 330 downstream ($\tilde{x}^* > 2$), the CR cases see strong shear-layer wrapping across the centreline of
 331 the cylinder wake. Nevertheless, the vortices in the CR regime do not seem to have well-
 332 defined regular shapes as in regimes I and II, thus seem less able to maintain consistent
 333 forcing responsible for the cylinder vibration.

334 When U^* is further increased into regime II, highly periodic vibration resumes. As shown in
 335 figure 6(d) and (e) for two cases $U^* = 3.00$ and 4.20 , f_x^* remains stationary over time, while
 336 $f_{C_y}^*$ also remains stationary but its harmonic component at $1.5f_x^*$ tend to become weaker as
 337 U^* is increased. On the other hand, the wake patterns in figure 9 show similar major structures,
 338 which are in agreement with previous studies (i.e. the A-IV mode reported by Cagney &
 339 Balabani (2013b)). The present study, for the first time, extends wake measurement beyond
 340 $U^* = 4.0$ for regime II. It is interesting to note that the elongated shear layers tend to become
 341 stronger with increasing U^* in this regime, and at high reduced velocities they can form a
 342 secondary weak vortex each time a major vortex sheds, making the wake pattern appear as
 343 a P_0 mode (namely, a pair of vortices consisting of a strong vortex and a relatively much
 344 weaker one in each pair shed per cycle) – see supplementary movies 11-13 for animations
 345 of full vortex shedding cycles. With multiple vortices shed per cycle, this P_0 mode should
 346 explain why the harmonic component of the drag force frequency $f_{C_x}^*$ appears and tends to
 347 become stronger with increasing U^* in regime II (figure 3(c)).

348 3.4. Evaluation of amplitude response based on wake drag

349 In order to validate our force decomposition analysis, we evaluate the vibration amplitude
 350 based on equation (3.14) and compare it with the experimentally measured response in
 351 figure 10. As shown, the evaluated amplitude response closely matches the actual values of
 352 A_{10}^* and $\sqrt{2}A_{rms}^*$ (or $\sqrt{2}x_{rms}^*$) for most of the U^* range tested. Subtle differences observed for
 353 $3.5 \lesssim U^* \lesssim 4.2$ in regime II could be attributable to the fact that the power of the harmonic
 354 components in $f_{C_x}^*$ (figure 3(c)) tends to increase in this U^* range (still of two orders weaker
 355 than the dominant frequency), affecting the evaluation based on harmonic approximations.
 356 (In the present experiment, we did not extend the evaluation to the desynchronisation regime
 357 beyond $U^* = 4.2$, where the harmonic assumption is not applicable). Nevertheless, the above
 358 results have validated the force decomposition and the harmonic approximations.

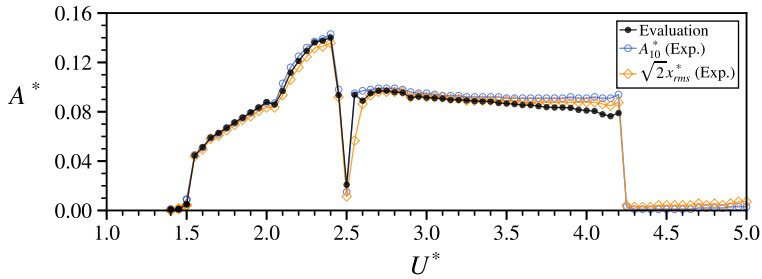


Figure 10: Evaluation of amplitude response as a function of reduced velocity.

359 4. Conclusions

360 Decomposition has been performed for the driving fluid force on an elastically mounted
 361 circular cylinder undergoing in-line vortex-induced vibration in a free-stream flow. Based
 362 on the carefully conducted experiments, we have updated the wake drag model proposed
 363 previously by Konstantinidis *et al.* (2021) to include a steady and an unsteady part. This
 364 approach reflects that, when the cylinder is allowed to oscillate streamwise, the oscillation
 365 alters the time-dependent wake in turn altering the time-averaged displacement of the cylinder
 366 as well as the time-averaged streamwise fluid force from those experienced without cylinder
 367 oscillation. A harmonic approximation analysis was adopted to derive the relationship
 368 between the total streamwise fluid force and the wake drag. This analysis has been validated
 369 by predicting the amplitude response to directly compare with experimental measurements,
 370 meaning that prediction of amplitude response based on the updated wake drag model would
 371 be possible for various conditions of flow velocity and structural properties.

372 The in-line VIV response was characterised by two regimes (i.e., regimes I and II) of
 373 significant vibration and a competing regime (CR) in between. The peak values of the
 374 vibration amplitude and the coefficients of the driving fluid force in regime I were found
 375 to be greater than those in regime II. A continuous-wavelet-transform-based time-frequency
 376 analysis showed that intermittent and competing behaviour occurred in the cylinder vibration
 377 frequency and the vortex shedding frequency, when the normalised cylinder vibration
 378 frequency approached the slope of $2St$ at $U^* \approx 1/(2St)$, leading to a phase desynchronisation
 379 and thus an abrupt drop in the amplitude response. As can be explained by equation (3.13),
 380 the streamwise fluid force coefficient tends to decrease to minimal or zero as the vibration
 381 frequency approaches f_{na} with increasing U^* , leading to vibration suppression.

382 The wake mode measurements provided an insight into the evolution of wake modes across
 383 the in-line VIV response regimes. It was found that regime I is initially associated with a
 384 symmetric (“S-I”) wake mode over $1.55 \leq U^* \leq 2.10$, and then it undergoes a transition to
 385 an alternating symmetric (“AS”) mode that tends to become stronger with increasing U^* for
 386 the rest of this regime; on the other hand, regime II initially displays an “A-IV” mode, which
 387 gradually becomes a P_0 mode with its secondary vortex forming from the strengthened shear
 388 layers at high reduced velocities, contributing to the harmonics of the drag force frequency.

389 The updated wake drag model and harmonic approximation analysis have been applied
 390 successfully to the present experiments. Thus, it would be of further interest to examine
 391 whether it provides an improved model for lower amplitude low-Reynolds-number numerical
 392 simulations and, of course, other VIV systems.

393 **Declaration of Interests.** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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