1	Influence of strain-rate on the interaction between towed fishing
2	gears and the seabed
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11	Abstract
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13	The ability to predict the seabed penetration and the drag force of the gear components of
14 15	demension traduced environmental impact and of improved fuel efficiency. This study presents
16	a single-phase strain rate dependent soil model that can accurately predict deformation of a
10	saturated granular soil. Elements of an otter trawl system are modelled as simplified discs
18	which are then translated across a seabed at given speed where horizontal drag force and
19	vertical penetration is measured. This is facilitated using an explicit Finite Element (FE) model
20	developed in ABAQUS alongside a Coupled Eulerian-Lagrangian (CEL) mesh. Comparisons
21	against laboratory experiments showed that the model was correctly able to capture the
22	increase in drag force with towing speed. Further comparisons against full scale sea trials
23	indicated the model generally compared well against test data and correctly identified the
24	trends and magnitudes of drag force against towing speed. From these results, the influence
25	of strain rate in the soil was studied in detail and conclusions drawn on the resultant drag
26	force and penetration of towed fishing gears on the seabed.
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3 1. Introduction

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5 Towed demersal fisheries are a vital constituent of the global fishing industry and account for 6 up to 23% of catch worldwide [1]. There are many variants of demersal towed fishing gears 7 and their specific design depends on the species being targeted, the vessels used, the 8 economic resources of the fishers and historical practices and traditions [1]. In general, they 9 comprise a net that is weighted to maintain contact with the seabed and that is kept open by 10 floats. Otter trawls are one of the most common types of demersal fishing gear (Figure 1). 11 With this method of trawling, the otter doors, sweeps, bridles and ground gear are in contact 12 with the seabed while the floats are used keep the upper extremity of the net buoyant, 13 maintaining the opening of the net. In their simplest form, demersal otter doors can be 14 described as low aspect ratio rectangles while the other elements can be described as discs 15 of low and high aspect ratios. The physical impact of otter trawls can have ecological and 16 environmental consequences. There can be significant penetration into the seabed leading to 17 benthic mortality, release of nutrients, alterations to the biogeochemistry and habitat 18 destruction. Hence, to ensure that fisheries are managed in a biologically sustainable and an 19 economically viable manner, there is a need for a better understanding of the geotechnical 20 contact between the trawl gear and the seabed and the resulting penetration and 21 deformation of the soil stratum.





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Figure 1: Otter Trawling Gear [3]

26 While studies have been conducted gathering data on the retrospective effects of trawling on

the seabed [4] [5] [6] [7] [8] [9], much less has been done to develop predictive models to

1 describe this. The use of FE methods to model the soil structure interaction caused by towed 2 fishing gears typically poses two fundamental problems; (i) the large deformations associated 3 with soil and (ii) the effect of pore pressure which affects shear strength of soil. Qiu et al. [10] 4 describes the use of explicit Coupled Euler Lagrangian (CEL) methods to solve geotechnical 5 problems involving large deformations. It has been used by Hamann et al. [11], to simulate 6 pile jacking, and Van den Abeele et al. [12] to study soil deformations observed during 7 pipeline embedment and berm formation. Yi et al [13] employed a material subroutine to 8 describe the evolution of pore pressure within granular soils with a single-phase 9 approximation. Dutta [14] and Dutta et al [15] studied the use of CEL mesh with 10 Abaqus/Explicit to simulate pipeline embedment in to the seabed, where they adopted a 11 single-phase strain-rate dependent constitutive soil model based on observations by Zhou 12 and Randolph [16]. Hambleton and Drescher [17], presented a case for the FE analysis of a 13 non-driven disc moving through a frictional and cohesive soils using an arbitrary 14 Lagrangian/Eulerian mesh. This work also studied the use of analytical models and highlighted 15 the limitations of such models. Ivanovic et al [18] and Esmaeili and Ivanović [19] [20] have 16 studied the application of an explicit FE solver to model the interaction between discs (of 17 thickness, t and diameter, d) and a sandy seabed. These efforts illustrated the formation of a 18 frontal berm (of height b as shown in Figure 2) in front of towed discs and demonstrated that 19 the total geotechnical drag they experienced was a combination of frictional forces and 20 passive pressure caused by the berm formation. Esmaeili and Ivanović [19] [20] also 21 demonstrated the effect of varying the angle of attack (angle of the geometry relative to 22 direction of motion) on a rockhopper assembly.

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24 The effect on strain rate on a partially embedded object translating across the seabed is 25 predicated on the work done by Palmer [21], van Os & van Leussen [22] and Lauder et al [23] 26 [24]. Observations from these studies demonstrated that during high strain-rate 27 deformations, the soil exhibits a partially drained response. This is a result of the dilation of 28 the soil under shear, which then affects the flow of the pore water across the pressure 29 gradient created. If the rate of deformation is greater than the time taken for this gradient to 30 equalise, the total stress transmitted back is a result of the instantaneous pore water pressure 31 and the resistance provided by the soil skeleton. This is not an unlimited increase however, 32 as at higher strain-rates, the soil produces a fully undrained response within the shear zone 33 as a maximum negative pore pressure is reached. This rate effect is dependent on the 34 permeability, dilation and void ratio of the granular soil being studied.

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Experimental measurements of the rate-effect in saturated soils have been undertaken in previous studies [25] [26] [27] [28] [29] [30] and have broadly concluded that an increase of friction angle of the soil can be observed with increasing rates of deformation. In this paper, this type of rate-dependant shear strength is coupled to a constitutive soil model in a Finite Element (FE) solver as described by Aluwihare [31] to simulate the change in shear strength of the soil with strain rate. The resultant effect on towed fishing gears and the mechanics of the interaction of non-rolling discs with saturated sandy soils under a range of dimensions, weights, and speeds is examined. Non-rolling discs were chosen specifically as they are representative of the clump weights, ropes and rockhopper groundgears that are found in demersal trawl gear and which are responsible for a large proportion of the seabed contact

- 5 [18].
- More specifically, a disc of diameter d and weight W moving at speed s and causing a vertical 6 7 seabed penetration z, is investigated. This results in the formation of a frontal berm of height 8 b and causes a resistance to motion in the form of a drag force F_{D} . (Figure 2, Table 1). By 9 making comparisons with experimental data, it is demonstrated that the resulting FE model 10 provides an accurate description of non-rolling discs interacting with sandy soils. Non-rolling 11 discs are an integral part of many fishing gear components that are in contact with the seabed 12 and hence this model will help provide a better understanding of the physical impact of these 13 gears on benthic habitats.
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Figure 2: Schematic of non-rolling disc on soil

Table 1: Table of symbols

Parameter	Symbol	Unit
Area	А	m²
Diameter	d	m
Horizontal Drag Force	FD	Ν
Geometry Weight	W	Ν
Number of Discs	n	m
Soil Unit Weight	γ	Nm⁻³
Strain rate	Ė	S ⁻¹
Thickness	t	m
Towing Speed	5	ms⁻¹
Unit Displacement in Abaqus	U	-
Unit Rotation in Abaqus	UR	-
Vertical Penetration	Ζ	m

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1 2. Numerical Modelling

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2.1. FE Model Description

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5 The numerical modelling carried out in this study is based on the methodology described by Aluwihare [31]. This methodology used the ABAQUS/Explicit finite element package with a 6 7 Coupled Eulerian-Lagrangian (CEL) meshing technique. CEL mesh uses a combination of 8 Lagrangian mesh elements, where element coordinates are time invariant and move with the 9 material when the body undergoes deformation, and Eulerian elements, where element coordinates are spatially fixed and allow the movement of material through them. Using both 10 11 mesh techniques in the same model minimises the mesh dependency exhibited by a traditional Lagrangian mesh when undergoing large deformations [20] [32] [33]. 12 13



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23 The reference configuration of the FE model is shown in Figure 3. The FE Model assumes a

24 perfectly flat, saturated granular seabed. The simulation mesh consisted of 1.6E+06 Eulerian

1 8-noded 3D brick elements (EC3D8R) to discretize the seabed as shown in Figure 4 (a), while 2 the disc was modelled as a rigid body with 8.2E+02 4-node elements (R3D4) as shown in 3 Figure 4 (b). A sensitivity analysis was carried out on mesh sizing to eliminate any influence 4 on mesh size on the results which led to the selected mesh elements. A partitioned meshing 5 strategy was subsequently adopted to reduce computational time. The simulation consisted 6 of two dynamic steps; (i) to allow penetration due to weight of the disc ($UZ \neq 0$) and (ii) to 7 impose a horizontal velocity ($\dot{U}Y\neq 0$) on the disc while $UZ\neq 0$ and all other Degrees of Freedom 8 remain constrained.

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- 10 **2.2. Constitutive Soil Models**
- 12 To develop a material model for soil, it is first important to understand the impact of the solid 13 skeleton and the pore fluid pressure on the applied stress. Terzaghi [34], proposed the 14 principal of effective stress to describe the relationship between effective stress, σ' , total 15 stress, σ and pore fluid pressure, u, where $\sigma = \sigma' + u$ [35].
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2.2.1. Drucker-Prager Constitutive Model

For the purposes of this study, the Drucker-Prager (DP) model was chosen as it natively supports strain-rate dependant yield stress. The DP model is used commonly within soil mechanics as it can model pressure dependant yield while assuming elasto-plastic behaviour. This can be expressed in terms of invariants of a stress tensor as [36]:

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$$F = S_{DP} - p \tan \beta - c_{DP} = 0 \tag{1}$$

25 Where β is the friction angle of the material on the *p*-*t* plane, c_{DP} is the cohesion measured 26 on the same, *p* is the first invariant of general stress and S_{DP} is deviatoric stress measure. The 27 DP model also follows the non-associated flow rule for the plastic flow potential ($\phi \neq \psi$). 28 Within Abaqus/Explicit, the shear strength of the soil is coupled to the strain rate using the 29 parameter $\overline{\sigma}$, which in this case is equal to the cohesion yield stress, c_{DP} , and can be expressed 30 in terms of strain-rate as follows:

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$$\bar{\sigma} = c_{DP} = R\sigma^0 \tag{2}$$

Where σ^0 is the yield stress at a static state ($\sigma^0 = c_{DP}$) and $R(\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl})$ is a function of strain rate (R=1.0 at $\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}=0$) which scales yield stress based on the strain-rate [36]. The properties for the DP model used in this study were based on triaxial compression and shear box testing performed previously and are summarised in 1 Table 2 [20] [37].

Parameter	Value	Unit
Critical Friction Angle, ϕ'	22 (12)	0
(β)	32 (43)	
Dilation Angle, ψ	0.1	o
Young's Modulus, E	8	MPa
Poisson's Ratio, v	0.3	-
d ₅₀	0.17	mm
d ₁₀	0.13	mm
Specific Weight (wet), γ	22400	Nm⁻³
Êlimit	10	-
Permeability, <i>k</i>	5.0E-4	ms⁻¹

Table 2: Constitutive model parameters [37] [38]

2.3. Modelling Strain-Rate Dependency in Saturated Granular Soils

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5 The relationship between strain rate and the shear strength of soil, investigated and 6 quantified by Watanabe et al [30], has been applied to this study as described in Aluwihare 7 [31]. The proposed approach involved approximating the change in shear strength of the soil 8 under shear using a single-phase model natively available in FEA packages, avoiding the 9 limitations typically imposed by two-phase models. By coupling strain rate of the soil 10 undergoing shear to an increase in effective stress, the fluid phase could be neglected from 11 the model. Under low strain rates the model would present as a drained soil. Experimental 12 observations from [30] allowed the effective friction angle of soil to be plotted against strain 13 rate as shown in Figure 5. Where ϕ'/ϕ'_{ref} is the ratio between the effective friction angle, ϕ' 14 and the reference effective friction angle ϕ'_{ref} . The DP model in Abagus/Explicit offers a native 15 ability to couple strain rate and shear strength. However, this cannot resolve the increase in friction angle, but instead scales cohesion based on strain rate. By scaling cohesion between 16 17 the minimum and maximum strain rates, the increase in shear strength of the soil was 18 simulated in the area of the soil undergoing shear, allowing for the FE model to more 19 accurately replicate saturated soil interacting with the towed discs. 20





- Watanabe et al [30] concluded that while $\dot{\epsilon} < 0.005 \text{ s}^{-1}$ there was no change in shear strength 1 as fully drained conditions persisted. While $\dot{\varepsilon} > 0.005 \text{ s}^{-1}$ an increase in shear strength was 2 seen due to partial drainage. This increase was also postulated to reach a maximum when the 3 4 soils would become fully undrained. Due to experimental limitations this maximum was 5 determined to be above $\dot{\epsilon}$ > 2.5 s⁻¹. This study considered the increase in strength to reach a maximum at $\dot{\varepsilon}$ = 10 s⁻¹ for simulation purposes [31] as this was the maximum strain rate 6 7 induced in the soil. 8 9 3. Validation of FE Model 10
- 11To validate the numerical model, comparisons were made against existing experimental observations under12laboratory [37] (Figure 7) and field conditions [9] (
- 13 Figure 10). The geometries studied consisted of non-rolling truncated discs of varying sizes
- 14 and weights (Figure 6 and Table 3) and are separated into single disc and multiple disc
- 15 geometries.



Figure 6: Schematic diagram of geometries modelled

The properties of penetration, drag force and weight are expressed using non-dimensional terms which are developed using a unique soil property (unit weight) and geometry dimensions as shown in Hambleton and Drescher [17]. The expression for speed is obtained by first obtaining strain rate as a function of speed and the diameter of the given geometry. The non-dimensional expression is then obtained as a function of strain rate and the limiting strain rate of the soil as described in Section 2.3. It is noted that this expression still maintains a linear relationship with speed.

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26 The following non-dimensional parameters are used to present results:

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 $\overline{z} = \frac{z}{d}$ $\overline{F} = \frac{F_D}{\gamma t d^2}$ $\overline{W} = \frac{W}{\gamma t d^2}$ $\dot{\varepsilon} = \frac{s}{d}$ $\overline{\varepsilon} = \frac{\dot{\varepsilon}}{\dot{\varepsilon}_{limit}}$

Table 3: Loadcase matrix for comparison against experimental results

Туре	Diameter d (m)	Thickness t (m)	Spacing f (m)	Length /(m)	Area A (m²)	Speed s (ms ⁻¹)	Weight <i>W</i> (N)
Single Disc	0.12	0.09	-	-	0.011	0.01- 0.21	- (fixed <i>z</i>)
Single Disc	0.20	0.15	-	-	0.03	- 1.2,1.5, 1.8	576,
Multiple Disc (Rockhopper)	0.20	0.025	0.075	0.525	0.03		1176 <i>,</i> 1764

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3.1. Validation with Laboratory Experiments

5 The FE model was compared against laboratory experiments conducted by Casanovas-Revilla [37]. These experiments were used to determine the horizontal drag force experienced by a 6 7 single disc being actuated across a saturated sand channel at a fixed penetration. The 8 laboratory experiments were performed using a rigid disc attached to a mobile trolley which 9 was then actuated along a sand channel as shown in Figure 7. The trolley was actuated using 10 a pulling wire attached to a motor. A loadcell contained within the trolley allowed for 11 horizontal drag force to be measured. The experiments used a fixed vertical penetration (z=0.009m, \overline{z} = 0.075) which allowed the effect of varying \overline{z} on \overline{F} to be eliminated. The FE 12 model used soil properties as listed in Table 2 with results shown in Figure 8. The towing 13 speeds considered are between 0.01<s<0.21 ms⁻¹ which equates to a strain rate between 14 15 0.01<*ɛ*<0.18



Figure 7: Laboratory setup to measure drag force of discs on soil (from Casanovas-Revilla [37])



Figure 8: \overline{F} vs \overline{e} for disc with d=0.12m and t=0.09m and fixed z=0.009m

3 The standard DP model displays no sensitivity to towing speed as the there are no post yield 4 effects within the soil. The rate-dependent DP model, however, allows for increasing elastic 5 deformation with increasing strain rates, and shows good correlation with the experimental data. Although the FE model overpredicts \overline{F} at $\overline{\varepsilon}$ < 0.07, it shows good correlation with the 6 7 lower bound of the experimental data at $\bar{\epsilon}$ > 0.07. At $\bar{\epsilon}$ < 0.07 the resultant shear strength in the model is relatively low, which causes instability in the DP model. This effect has been 8 9 documented previously [20] and is countered in Abaqus/Explicit by injecting viscous damping into the model which results in increased stiffness and thus increased drag force [36]. The 10 11 formation of the frontal and lateral berm in front of the moving geometry partially embedded 12 in the seabed can be seen in Figure 9. 13



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15 Figure 9 :Fully developed frontal and lateral berm during horizontal motion of single disc (d=0.2 m, t=0.15 m)

16 The estimated strain rate, $\dot{\varepsilon}$, (where $\dot{\varepsilon} = d/s$) is dimensional whereas the strain rate observed 17 in the FE model $\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE}$, is the maximum strain rate across the 3 principal dimensions and can

18 accurately determine the yield strength of each mesh element. It is also noted that the effect

19 of *s* is non-linear, as the shear strength of the soil is a logarithmic function which reaches a

20 limit state after $\dot{\epsilon}_{FE}$ > 10. It is this ability to predict the magnitude of strain rate across 3

21 dimensions in the contact area that allows the increase in shear strength in saturated soil to

be determined accurately using the FE model. The limiting strain rate, $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\text{limit}}$, represents a strain 1 2 rate above which the generation of negative pore pressure reaches a maximum and cannot increase the effective stress state of the soil. For this study, $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\text{limit}}=10 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and is chosen since 3 4 experimental observations showed the increment in shear strength to be minimal beyond 5 this value. This property will be dependent on the soil properties (primarily grain sizing and 6 permeability) and will vary accordingly, though will be valid for coarse grained sands similar 7 to those used in this study. 8 9 3.2. Validation with Sea Trials 10

11O'Neill et al [9] measured the drag force acting on truncated non-rolling discs during experimental trials at sea,12which are compared here with predictions from the FE model. In the sea trials, rigid discs of different sizes and with13aspect ratios in the range 0.75 < t/d < 1.5, were fitted to a benthic sledge via an axle and a supporting framework. The14supporting framework was free to move in the vertical direction, and hence, the vertical forces that the discs exerted15on the seabed were the gravitational forces of the axle, framework and discs. An illustration of this arrangement is16shown in

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Figure 10 (b) while the a schematic view is presented in

Figure 10 (a). It was possible to increase the applied vertical force by attaching weights to the framework and each disc was tested at three different weights while the XY loadcell was able to measure the horizontal drag force on the discs. The towing speed was increased incrementally over a 30 min period during each deployment from 1 to 2 ms⁻¹, and the forces acting on the discs were measured continuously. The sediment was sandy and had an average d₅₀ of 0.10 mm and a 12% silt and clay components compared to the coarser sand soil with a d₅₀ of 0.17 mm used in the FE model.



Figure 10: Schematic of multiple disc arrangement used to measure drag force during sea trials (a) and the towed
 framework (sitting upright) used to tow the discs across the seabed [9]

3.2.1. Single Disc

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3 Generally, there is good correlation between the FE model and experimental data (Figure 11). 4 Some discrepancies are observed at W=1764 N, where the experimental observations, which 5 are only obtained for a small range of $\overline{\varepsilon}$ (0.7 < $\overline{\varepsilon}$ < 0.9), show a high degree of scatter, although the magnitudes of \overline{F} are comparable. This result is postulated to be due to the effect of tidal 6 7 current on the vessel which led to the inability to maintain the lower bound of speed ($\overline{\varepsilon} = 0.6$) and would also then effect the hydrodynamic lift applied to the sledge, in turn affecting the 8 9 accuracy of the experimental data. In all cases, the trends of \overline{F} varying with $\overline{\varepsilon}$ are seen to 10 correspond well, with \overline{F} decreasing with increasing $\overline{\varepsilon}$. This appears contrary to the fixed 11 penetration models discussed previously but is due to a reduction in \overline{z} with increasing \overline{z} . This 12 is driven by the increase in effective stress state in the shear zone beneath the disc due to the increased strain rate in the soil, causing a reduction in penetration. 13



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Figure 11: Comparisons with sea-trials for \overline{F} against $\overline{\varepsilon}$ for single disc of d=0.2 m t=0.15 m

This is seen clearly in Figure 12 where the effect of $\overline{\varepsilon}$ on \overline{z} is observed for various values of \overline{W} . 16 17 At \overline{W} = 13.13 (W=1764 N), the decrease in \overline{z} is seen to be relatively high, decreasing from \overline{z} =0.13 to \overline{z} =0.07 as \overline{c} tends to 1.0. However, at \overline{W} = 8.75 (W=1176 N) and \overline{W} =4.23 (W=576 18 19 N), the decrease in \overline{z} is relatively minor due to a smaller initial contact area and a smaller 20 volume of displaced soil. In all cases \overline{z} approaches a steady state as \overline{z} approaches 1 due to the 21 displaced soil approaching an undrained state where no further increases in shear strength 22 are seen. Magnitudes of z observed in this data set were between 6-24 mm and are within the ranges seen in previous studies [7] [8]. It is concluded that the variation of \overline{z} with \overline{z} has a 23 24 significant effect on resultant \overline{F} . The effect of aspect ratio t/d has also been considered as an additional sensitivity which has shown no appreciable difference in \overline{F} when 0.75 < t/d < 2.0. 25 26 Observations made in [37] also indicated at t/d > 1.5 no change in \overline{F} was seen. 27



Figure 12: $\overline{\varepsilon}$ vs \overline{z} for varying W for single disc t= 0.2m and d=0.15m

3 The discrepancies between the FE model and sea trials in the measured drag force at higher 4 \overline{W} are primarily due to the non-homogenous soil in the seabed where the sea trials were conducted. In-situ sieving analysis conducted show a significantly higher proportion of finer 5 6 particles and has a d_{10} of 0.045 mm compared to the d_{10} of 0.17 mm for granular soil used in 7 the FE model. This adversely affects the accuracy of the FE model as the DP model used is 8 intended to describe purely granular soil and cannot account for the non-homogenous soil 9 seen in the sea-trials. The difference in d_{10} also affects the permeability of the soil and in turn affects its rate-dependant shear strength. This effect is more significant at higher \overline{W} as this 10 deforms a greater volume of soil owing to higher penetration and magnifies the error in the 11 12 constitutive model.

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3.2.2. Multiple Disc

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16 Comparisons with a multiple disc geometry are presented in this section. Multiple disc 17 geometries are representative of the rockhoppers used in towed fishing gears. The 18 deformation of the soil in front of each disc is similar to that of a single disc, however the 19 lateral berms formed interact with each other in the spacing between the discs and this 20 interaction depends on the spacing itself. The non-dimensional parameters for \overline{F} and \overline{W} are 21 modified to account for the number of discs, *n*, in each geometry as follows:

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$$\overline{F}_n = \frac{F_D}{n\gamma t d^2} \quad \overline{W}_n = \frac{W}{n\gamma t d^2}$$



Figure 13: Experimental correlations for \overline{F}_n against \overline{e} for multiple discs of d=0.2 m, t=0.025 m and n=6

Results from the FE Model are compared with experimental data in Figure 13 and show good
 correlation with observations from sea trials. This geometry is comparable to the single disc

5 with a similar diameter and contact area. Although the contact area of the rockhopper equals

6 that of the single disc (ndt=0.03 m²), the spread of the contact patches across the geometry

7 results in lower overall bearing pressure per disc and thus lower penetration due to self-

8 weight (prior to horizontal motion).



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Figure 14: $\overline{\epsilon}$ vs \overline{z} for varying W for multiple discs of d=0.2 m, t=0.025 m and n=6

As a result, observations of \overline{F}_n show low levels of variation with $\overline{\varepsilon}$, compared to the single disc 11 model. For the cases of W=576 N and W=1176 N the variation of \overline{F}_n with \dot{c} is seen to be 12 minimal and corelates well with FE model results. For the case where W=1764 N, the 13 experimental observations of the variation of F_D with $\overline{\varepsilon}$ are inconclusive with a reduction of $\overline{F_n}$ 14 15 observed while $0.6 < \overline{c} < 0.8$ but then peaking at $\overline{c} = 0.9$. The experimental observations for this 16 case are affected adversely by the environmental conditions experienced during sea trials. The FE model results show only an increase in \overline{F}_n with $\overline{\varepsilon}$ but compare well with the observed 17 magnitudes. A linear regression of the experimental results also shows a similar positive trend 18 to that observed with the FE model. The effect of \overline{c} on \overline{z} is also minimal, with a minor decrease 19 20 of \overline{z} observed at W=1764 N while the lower weights showed no appreciable effect due to \overline{z} 21 (Figure 12). This is principally due to the increased strain rates observed in the soil while

being deformed by the passage of multiple discs. While $0.6 < \overline{c} < 0.9$, observations of \dot{c}_{FE} indicate a majority of the soil being displaced is in a fully undrained state and presents no further increase in shear strength with increasing \dot{c} . As such, there will be relatively low variation of \overline{z} and resultant $\overline{F_n}$ with \overline{c} , as has been observed.

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4. General Observations of Strain-rate

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The influence of strain rate on the soil is the primary focus of this study and is able to provide 8 9 an understanding of the effect of strain rate on shear strength. The evolution of strain rate around a disc of \overline{W} =8.75 moving horizontally across the soil is shown in Figure 15. It is 10 11 immediately visible that the majority of the soil is at resting state with a minimal strain rate and associated deformation. The increase in observed strain rate $\dot{\epsilon}_{FE}$ is localised in the shear 12 13 zone directly in front of and beneath the disc where the maximum volume of soil is displaced. When compared to the calculated strain rate ($\dot{\varepsilon}$ = s/d), $\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE}$ displays significantly higher 14 observed strain-rates. Figure 15 (a) illustrates a maximum $\dot{\epsilon}_{FE}$ =37 s⁻¹ whereas as the 15 calculated strain rate is $\dot{\varepsilon}$ =9 s⁻¹, an increase of a factor of 4 ($\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE,max} \approx 4 \cdot \dot{\varepsilon}_{max}$) with similar 16 increase in $\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE}$ is seen in Figure 15 (b) as well. This indicates the soil has reached its maximum 17 18 shear strength due to the generation of negative pore pressure and is limited by the 19 undrained condition generated at the increased towing speed ($\dot{\epsilon}$ =9 s⁻¹). Comparisons of the 20 soil deformation in Figure 15 (a) and (b) show the increase in strain rate seen at higher towing 21 speeds. This leads to the increase in effective stress within the soil under deformation leading 22 to an increase in \overline{F} .

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However, the increase in strain rate is relatively higher beneath the disc and causes a reduction of \overline{z} at higher $\dot{\varepsilon}$, which in turn leads to an increased sensitivity of \overline{F} to $\dot{\varepsilon}$. This reduction in \overline{z} has been documented in previous studies [37] [39], which suggested a reduction in penetration of a moving disc with increasing friction angle of a soil. As a result, the single disc geometry is significantly influenced by strain rate owing to the towing speed, especially at higher \overline{W} , which does require the use of a strain rate dependent constitutive model to accurately describe its behaviour.

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The evolution of strain rate for a rockhopper geometry is presented in Figure 16. From the 32 33 top-down view presented in Figure 16 (a) it is clear that a large area of the seabed is subject 34 to increased strain-rates due to the greater deformation imposed. The interaction of the 35 lateral berms formed by each disc causes areas of high strain rate between the discs along 36 with the frontal berms observed with the single disc model. Overall, observations of $\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE}$ for a 37 multiple disc geometry are higher ($\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE,max}$ =50 s⁻¹) when compared to a single disc of equal diameter and equivalent combined width (where $\overline{W} = \overline{W}_n$) although the calculated value 38 39 remains the same where $\dot{\varepsilon}$ =9 s⁻¹. 40



Figure 15: Evolution of $\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE}$ for cross sectional cut through a single disc of d=0.2 m, at (a) $\dot{\varepsilon}$ = 9 s-1 and (b) $\dot{\varepsilon}$ = 6 s-1



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5 Figure 16: Evolution of $\dot{\varepsilon}_{FE}$ for multiple discs of d=0.2, t=0.025 m and $\dot{\varepsilon}$ = 9 s-1 viewed from (a) a top-down view in the XY 6 plane and (b) a cross-sectional cut in the YZ plane

7 This suggests that the multiple disc geometry will induce a higher strain rate in the soil 8 compared to a comparable single disc model and will typically result in a higher effective 9 stress state of the soil. However, since a majority of the displaced soil is subject to strain rates 10 above the limit state, $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\text{limit}}$, it can also be surmised that $\dot{\varepsilon}$ will have a smaller effect on F_n since the soil will not continue to undergo increases in shear strength. In general terms, 11 12 observations of strain rate are found to be in the range $0 < \dot{\varepsilon}_{FE} < 100$, which coincides with the transition from drained to an undrained state observed experimentally. These observations 13 14 enable a better understanding of the mechanics between towed fishing gears and can 15 account for the effect of towing speed on drag force seen. In combination these findings are 16 significant and are novel additions to this field of study.

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18 **5.** Conclusion

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The use of FE modelling with ABAQUS/Explicit using CEL meshing has been shown to be able to simulate the interaction between a non-rolling disc and the seabed. In addition, the use of a rate-dependent DP soil model has been shown to be able to replicate the effect of towing

23 speeds on drag force along with the resultant penetration into seabed under dynamic

1 conditions. Comparisons to sea-trials revealed generally good correlation and the ability to 2 identify trends of drag force against speed for given cylindrical geometries. Although no direct 3 comparison of penetration was available, the small-scale validation of the FE model carried 4 out showed accurate prediction of the magnitude of drag force for a given penetration. 5 Furthermore, as simulated drag force showed good correlation with sea-trials, it can be 6 postulated that the penetration obtained from the FE model is valid. The discrepancies 7 observed between FE model and sea-trials were attributed to the simplified assumptions 8 made in the FE model regarding the seabed topology and soil type. Comparisons against 9 literature were also seen to closely mirror observed trends [20] [37], adding further 10 confidence to the model. The single-phase model presented has shown to perform well for 11 modelling transient shallow penetration problems where effects such as consolidation are 12 less significant. The relationship between ϕ'/ϕ'_{ref} presented is only valid for granular soils 13 with similar d₁₀ size and permeability. In order to apply this model to a granular soil with 14 differing permeability, the above relationship would have to be determined experimentally. 15 Furthermore, it is noted that the model presented does not extend to mud or clay which have 16 their own unique constitutive models.

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18 The modelling methodology presented also allow for more complex geometries such as otter 19 doors and as rotating discs to be simulated. This would allow for all components of the 20 groundgear to be modelled discretely, allowing for geotechnical drag force and penetration 21 to be obtained. Applying these in conjunction with correlations for angle of attack and disc 22 spacing would then allow for drag force for an entire groundgear system to be calculated. The 23 rate dependent constitutive model demonstrated can also be extended to varying types of 24 soils provided a relationship between strain rate and shear strength can be determined. 25 Finally, the modelling approaches presented could be applied to subsea trenching and 26 ploughing where an accurate estimate of the forces involved along with the seabed 27 deformation are required.

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