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1 On making holes in liquids

2 **Arnaud Antkowiak**¹†

3 ¹Sorbonne Université, CNRS, Institut Jean le Rond d'Alembert, F-75005, Paris, France

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5 Just as a solid object would, a liquid jet or a stream of droplets impacting a free surface
6 deforms and perforates it. This generic flow interaction, met in everyday life but also in
7 cutting edge industrial processes, has puzzled scientists for centuries. Lee *et al.* (*J. Fluid*
8 *Mech.* vol XXX 2021) present an experimental study of a simple droplet train interacting
9 with a liquid bath and identify two stages in the interaction: a first where a cavity elongates
10 and finally bursts, and a second where the interface is steadily punched by the incoming
11 stream. Each of these regimes is explained with elementary but effective models arising from
12 first principles, thereby revealing a full and simple picture of the physics of making holes in
13 liquids.

14 1. Introduction: the many facets of liquid perforation

15 Rain pouring over the ocean, spray cleaning techniques in microelectronics or promising
16 needle-free drug injection are a few of many illustrations of liquid streams (whether jets
17 or droplet trains) interacting with a soft/fluid target. However, the fluid dynamics of this
18 interaction can be an intricate matter, as a closer look at these examples reveals. Take rain
19 falling over the ocean for example: as each raindrop creates a centimetre-sized transient fluid
20 crater upon impact, it would be easy to conclude that the typical mixing length between fresh
21 (rain) and salty (ocean) water is of the same order of magnitude. But on each impact, self-
22 propelled and interacting vortex rings are emitted, thereby promoting mixing. As a result,
23 the effective ocean ‘skin’ thickness exceeds the typical crater size by a factor of hundred
24 (Rodriguez & Mesler 1988; Schlössel *et al.* 1997). Drops falling on liquid films are also
25 routinely used in industry, typically for cleaning purposes. In the microelectronics industry,
26 the development of next generation smartphones or electronic devices entails the manufacture
27 of ever smaller transistor designs, up to a point where even minute nanoparticle contaminants
28 can endanger their viability. Cleaning techniques with e.g. liquid jets or sprays are therefore
29 mandatory but an assessment of the hydrodynamic forces at play is here critical, for they have
30 to overcome adhesion while not damaging the fragile technology (Kondo & Ando 2019).
31 Liquid jets interacting with soft tissue are also found in medicine, as innovative “needle-free
32 syringes” shooting intense and concentrated jets can literally perforate the skin to deliver
33 therapeutic drugs (Mitragotri 2006; Tagawa *et al.* 2013). In these examples, the penetration
34 depth, the cavity geometry or the stresses exerted on the target all depend on the nontrivial
35 fluid dynamics of the liquid stream/target interaction. Now, Lee *et al.* (*J. Fluid Mech.* vol.
36 XXX 2021) consider the impact of a droplet train on a liquid pool – a paradigm for the

† Email address for correspondence: arnaud.antkowiak@upmc.fr

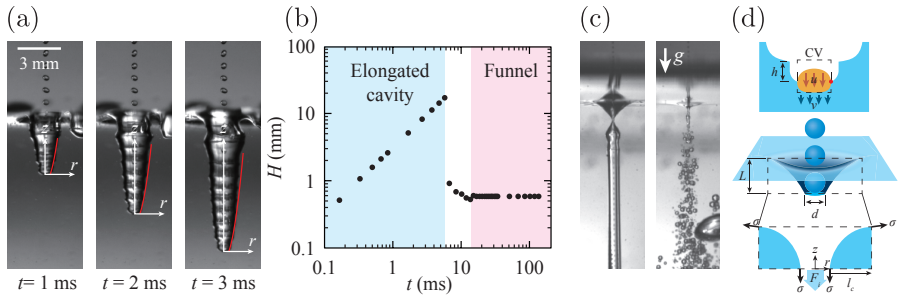


Figure 1: (a) In the first moments of interaction, a droplet train makes a hole of constantly increasing length in the bath. (b) The hole depth grows linearly with time up to a point of sudden pinch-off where the maximal depth is reduced to that of a steady meniscus. (c) Detail of the pinch-off event and resulting air finger bursting into a myriad of bubbles. (d) top: control volume used to describe the interaction from an impacting drop train and the tip of the hole. Bottom : control volume around the punched interface in the steady state regime. (adapted from Lee *et al.*).

37 previous situations –. They reveal a comprehensive picture of this interaction, from early
 38 deformation to maximum penetration and uncover a previously unreported late-stage
 39 steady state deformation for the slammed interface.

40 To better understand the contributions of Lee *et al.*, it may be worth connecting their work
 41 with the almost two-century long research effort on the subject. Probably one of the earliest
 42 reference on impact-mediated cratering is provided by Félix Hélie in his *Traité de Balistique*
 43 *Expérimentale* in 1884. A professor at the French Navy military school, Hélie was interested
 44 in understanding field observations of impact and craters produced by artillery. True enough,
 45 Hélie’s cannonballs were not liquid and the slammed ground not really fluid either yet he and
 46 his aide Hugoniot (who would make his own career in fluid mechanics) rationalized field
 47 observations by making use of hydrodynamical arguments. Interestingly they designed an
 48 elementary model of penetration involving what we would now call an inertial drag $\sim \rho U^2 S$
 49 exerted by the target, obtained a logarithmic law for the maximal depth which we will come
 50 back to later, and further proposed that the overall crater void was formed at the expense
 51 of the projectile’s initial kinetic energy (“*la force vive que possédait le projectile à son*
 52 *entrée*”). With their pioneering contribution, Hélie and Hugoniot laid the ground for our
 53 modern understanding of penetration in soft media.

54 It is unfortunate that yet another wartime era led Garrett Birkhoff, G.I. Taylor and
 55 collaborators to significantly advance the knowledge of liquid perforation by studying a
 56 curious – but deadly – device: the shaped-charge jet (Birkhoff *et al.* 1948) that powers, e.g.,
 57 the U.S. army Bazooka. Such a weapon is able to produce highly concentrated liquid metal
 58 jets travelling at several kilometres per second. On impact, the monumental pressures exerted
 59 by the shaped-charge jet greatly exceed the target’s yield stress, making any armour flow as
 60 a liquid. Birkhoff *et al.* identified the formation mechanism of such jets and also found that
 61 the penetration depth was related to the length of the impacting jets. Interestingly while these
 62 stretched jets increase their length during their flight, they are also prone to rupture into
 63 fragments (i.e. metal ‘drops’); whenever such a breakdown occurred, Birkhoff *et al.* observed
 64 a rapid deterioration of the perforation efficiency.

65 Jets or streams of droplets interacting with liquids have regained interest in recent years
 66 with, e.g., Bouwhuis *et al.* (2016), who found that the observed maximum penetration depth
 67 of a droplet train into a liquid pool was captured accurately with a free surface potential flow
 68 solver, or Speirs *et al.* (2018), who confirmed that fragmented jets have a lower penetration
 69 depth than their continuous counterparts.

70 2. Overview of Lee *et al.*'s article: transient holes and steady punches

71 Lee *et al.* (2021) propose in their article an elegant experimental study of a droplet train
 72 impacting a liquid pool combined with really simple but effective models. The experiment
 73 consists in producing a liquid jet with an ingenious pressurised tank system. The jet is excited
 74 with a piezoelectric transducer at frequency f (5-725 kHz), and disintegrates into a stream
 75 of droplets with typical diameters d of the order of $100\ \mu\text{m}$ and velocities U ranging from a
 76 few meters per second up to almost $50\ \text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. With the working liquids used in their study
 77 (water-ethanol mixtures and glucose syrups with density ρ , surface tension σ and viscosity
 78 μ) the impact on the pool is characterized by the Weber $We = \rho U^2 d / \sigma$, Reynolds $Re =$
 79 $\rho U d / \mu$ and Froude $Fr = U^2 / g d$ numbers all greatly exceeding one. Inertia is therefore the
 80 dominant mechanism here when compared to viscous, gravity or capillary effects.

81 The interaction between the droplet train and the surface exhibits two sharply delimited,
 82 successive regimes. In the first moments of the interaction, the droplet train perforates the
 83 liquid as each drop impact digs the cavity deeper (Fig 1a). The fingerlike air cavity keeps
 84 on elongating at a constant rate up to a point where it pinches off abruptly near the surface
 85 (Fig 1b). The immersed air pocket then bursts into a myriad of bubbles (Fig 1c), and the
 86 interface is simply deformed or 'punched' due to the continuous slamming of droplets. Lee
 87 *et al.* obtain two main results corresponding to each of these regimes.

88 The first result is that cavities elongate *linearly* with time at a rate \dot{H} that can be understood
 89 with the following arguments. Consider a control volume moving with the tip of the cavity at
 90 velocity v (Fig. 1d). When an incoming drop enters the control volume at velocity u (greater
 91 than v) and collides with the liquid, a simple momentum balance yields $\frac{d}{dt}(mu) = \dot{m}u + F$.
 92 Here m stands for the drop mass, \dot{m} for the mass rate exiting the control volume (and therefore
 93 $\dot{m}u$ as the rate of momentum loss) and F is the drag exerted by the liquid surroundings and
 94 modelled as an inertial force $-\rho A v^2$, analogous to the force exerted on H elie's cannonballs.
 95 From the previous balance the authors obtain the penetration h resulting from a single drop
 96 impact as $h/d = \ln(1 + U\tau/d)$, where τ is the time since impact, which is very close to the
 97 logarithmic penetration of cannonballs predicted by H elie and Hugoniot (but slightly different
 98 for they also considered a Coulomb-like friction from the ground), and in excellent agreement
 99 with experimental data. Thus the mechanics of penetration results from the succession of
 100 craters dug by droplets. This iterative cratering process can be grasped by a nondimensional
 101 elongation rate \dot{H}/U that depends solely on the Strouhal number of impact $\phi = fd/U$,
 102 and is again found to capture experimental observations. Lee *et al.* also made use of the
 103 somewhat bold idea of H elie (1884) that the entire kinetic energy of the impacting drop was
 104 simply transmitted to the deforming substrate, and obtain the overall shape of the cavity with
 105 remarkable success.

106 The second important result obtained by Lee *et al.* (2021) is the identification of a post-
 107 pinch-off steady state regime where the interface appears to be steadily 'punched' in the
 108 impact zone. On using again first principles and a simple force balance ignoring gravity (Fig
 109 1d), the authors predicted the shape of the interface to be that of a capillary surface punched
 110 with a point force (think of a deformed soap film). The model interface of constant (but force
 111 dependent) curvature is found again to be in remarkable agreement with experiments.

112 3. Future

113 The beautiful agreement between experiments[†] and simple modelling provided with the
 114 study by Lee *et al.* demonstrates that the essence of liquid perforation has been identified

[†] We note that the whole dataset of (Lee *et al.* 2021) is made publicly available through GitHub' servers, and acknowledge this effort towards reproducible research.

115 in this inertial limit. However these results prompt several key questions that should stir the
 116 attention of the community. Much of the presented study has been devoted to an explanation of
 117 the interface shapes, but not so much of the detailed forces at play. Prior drop impact studies
 118 have revealed the highly inhomogeneous character of the impact forces both temporally
 119 and spatially (Philippi *et al.* 2016). The question of the transmission and localization of
 120 stresses in the bulk liquid remains to be addressed with, e.g., acoustic sensing of forces
 121 (Bussonnière *et al.* 2020), because they are of critical importance in the context of silicon
 122 wafer cleaning for example. The topology of the flow is also unclear. The success of the
 123 static meniscus prediction is intriguing as we could have expected flow-induced free surface
 124 deformations. In the quite different context of very viscous jets impacting equally viscous
 125 baths, Lorenceau *et al.* (2004) observed the similar development of a static-like meniscus,
 126 but there the viscous jet is sheathed with a thin lubricating air layer that physically disconnect
 127 the jet flow from the meniscus. In the present experiment, there is no air layer so could a
 128 boundary layer detachment event explain the agreement between observation and a static
 129 solution? The air finger produced during impact is an intriguing object in itself: could it
 130 be somehow stabilized? Could it reform after the interface has pinched off by varying the
 131 impact frequency for example? The capillary fragmentation of this neat air finger and the size
 132 distribution of the resulting bubble cloud are also part of the open questions of the physics
 133 of making holes in liquids.

134 **Declaration of interests.** The author reports no conflict of interest.

135 **Author ORCID.** Arnaud Antkowiak, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1534-4290>

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