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Delayed Capillary Breakup of Falling Viscous Jets

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Thin jets of viscous fluid like honey falling from capillary nozzles can attain lengths exceeding 10 m before breaking up into droplets via the Rayleigh-Plateau (surface tension) instability. Using a combination of laboratory experiments and WKB analysis of the growth of shape perturbations on a jet being stretched by gravity, we determine how the jet’s intact length \( l_b \) depends on the flow rate \( Q \), the viscosity \( \eta \), and the surface tension coefficient \( \gamma \). In the asymptotic limit of a high-viscosity jet, \( l_b \sim (gQ^2\eta^4/\gamma^4)^{1/3} \), where \( g \) is the gravitational acceleration. The agreement between theory and experiment is good, except for very long jets.

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In the literature, the dependence of the breakup length on the flow rate and fluid properties such as the surface tension has been extensively studied for high-speed jets in quiescent or coflowing fluids [6,7]. By contrast, viscous jets falling under gravity have been the subject of only a few experimental [8,9] and theoretical [4,9–11] studies, none of which arrived at a prediction for the breakup length as a function of the flow rate and the fluid properties.

Experiments.—We used silicon oils with densities \( \rho = 963–974 \text{ kg m}^{-3} \), surface tension coefficient \( \gamma = 0.021 \text{ N m}^{-1} \), and viscosities \( \nu = 50–27800 \text{ cS} \). A thin vertical jet was generated by ejecting the oil downward through a nozzle of diameter \( 2r_0 = 2–4 \text{ mm} \) at a constant flow rate with a range \( Q = 0.0036–1.4 \text{ ml s}^{-1} \), using either a syringe pump controlled by a stepper motor or an open reservoir with an adjustable valve at the bottom. The reservoir was sufficiently large (14 cm × 14 cm wide and 20 cm deep) that the flow rate was constant to within ±2% during all of the experiments. To eliminate the influence of air drag on longer jets (breakup length \( l_b > 2.5 \text{ m} \)), we enclosed the nozzle and the jet in a cylindrical vacuum chamber with inner diameter 19 cm and length \( \approx 7.5 \text{ m} \). The bottom portion (2 m) of the cylinder was transparent to permit observation. A partial vacuum was created inside the cylinder using a Siemens rotary vacuum motor, allowing even the longest jets (\( l_b = 7.5 \text{ m} \)) to remain perfectly straight.

We observed three distinct regimes of behavior of the ejected fluid, including the periodic dripping regime at very low flow rates and the \( J \) regime at high flow rates. At intermediate flow rates, however, we did not observe the dripping faucet regime but rather an oscillatory “pulsating” regime. Here, the jet had a reasonably steady shape, especially near the nozzle, and broke up at a well-defined distance that greatly exceeded the nozzle diameter.

The breakup of liquid jets due to the action of surface tension is a classic fluid-mechanical instability, first explained theoretically by Plateau [1] and Rayleigh [2]. A familiar example of it is a thin stream of water flowing steadily from a faucet, which breaks up into droplets after a distance \( \approx 10 \text{ cm} \). If, however, the water is replaced by a much more viscous fluid like honey, the jet can attain lengths of 10 m or more before breaking. This is paradoxical: Theory [3] predicts that the weight of fluid elements in a length comparable to the nozzle diameter. As the flow rate increases, a transition occurs to a “jetting” (\( J \)) regime in which a steady jet emerges from the nozzle and breaks up further downstream. Our focus here is on the length of the intact portion of the jet in this regime.
However, small periodic oscillations of the jet’s shape about the mean diameter occurred, corresponding to the absolute instability identified by Ref. [9].

We measured the breakup length \( l_b \) for a total of 87 experiments, including 67 in the jetting regime and 20 in the pulsating regime. In some experiments, we detected the point of breakup by moving a rapid camera step by step along the jet as it thins. In most cases, however, we first located the breakup point approximately by eye with the help of a stroboscope and then used a rapid camera at this location to make a more precise measurement. Figure 2 shows \( l_b \) as a function of flow rate for three different viscosities. As one expects intuitively, the breakup length is an increasing function of both the flow rate and the viscosity.

Dimensional analysis.—The first step toward a more quantitative understanding is a dimensional analysis. The breakup length \( l_b \) depends on the viscosity \( \nu \), the surface tension coefficient \( \gamma \), the density \( \rho \), the flow rate \( Q \), the gravitational acceleration \( g \), and the nozzle radius \( r_0 \). Buckingham’s \( \Pi \) theorem [12] then implies

\[
\Pi_b = \Pi_\eta \Pi_\gamma \Pi_\nu \Pi_r, \tag{1}
\]

where \( \Pi_\eta = \eta g^2 / \rho \), \( \Pi_\gamma = \gamma g^2 / \rho \), and \( \Pi_r = r_0 g^2 / \rho \).

\[\Pi_b = l_b \left( \frac{g}{Q} \right)^{1/5}, \quad \Pi_\eta = \frac{\eta}{\gamma} \left( \frac{Q g^2}{\rho} \right)^{1/5}, \quad \Pi_\gamma = \frac{\gamma}{\rho} \left( \frac{Q^4 g^3}{\rho^3} \right)^{-1/5}, \quad \Pi_r = r_0 \left( \frac{g}{Q} \right)^{1/5}, \]

WKB analysis.—Because the structure of the jet varies slowly in the axial direction, the growth of perturbations can be treated using a WKB-type approach in which disturbances locally have the form of plane waves [11]. The starting point is the equations governing plug flow in a slender vertical jet of viscous fluid [13]:

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} A + (Av) = 0, \tag{2a}
\]

\[
\rho A \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} v + vv \right) = 3 \eta (Av') + r g A - \gamma A \kappa', \tag{2b}
\]

\[
\kappa = \frac{1}{r(1 + r^2)^{1/2} - r^2(1 + r^2)^{3/2}}, \tag{2c}
\]

where \( r(z, t) \) is the jet’s radius, \( A = \pi r^2 \), \( v(z, t) \) is the axial (vertical) velocity, and \( \kappa \) is the mean curvature of the jet’s outer surface. The primes denote differentiation with respect to the distance \( z \) beneath the nozzle. Equations (2a) and (2b) express conservation of mass and momentum, respectively. The three terms on the right side of (2b) represent the viscous force that resists stretching, the weight of the fluid, and the surface tension force, respectively, all per unit length of the jet.

In the absence of perturbations, the steady flow of the jet is governed by (2) with \( \partial_t = 0 \). A general analytical solution of these equations was obtained by Ref. [3] in the limit of no surface tension (\( \gamma = 0 \)). The corresponding axial velocity \( v(z) \) is shown in Fig. 1 for two values of the normalized ejection speed \( \tilde{v}_0 = v_0/(3g \nu)^{1/3} \). A clear distinction is evident between the jet’s upper part, where the weight of the fluid is balanced primarily by the viscous force that resists stretching, and its lower part, where the weight is balanced by inertia. The boundary between the two is the point where the viscous and inertial terms in (2b) are equal and occurs at a distance \( B(\nu^2 / g)^{1/3} \) from the nozzle, where \( B = B(\tilde{v}_0) \leq 5.0 \). Because \( l_b = 50 - 500(\nu^2 / g)^{1/3} \) in our experiments, breakup always occurs in the inertia-dominated part of the jet. The prefactor \( B \) drops to zero for \( \tilde{v}_0 \geq 1.219 \), meaning that the weight is then balanced primarily (> 50%) by inertia everywhere in the jet.

![FIG. 1. Left: A jet of silicon oil with viscosity \( \nu = 3500 \text{ cS} \) falling at a volumetric rate \( Q = 0.29 \text{ ml s}^{-1} \) from a nozzle with an internal diameter \( d = 5 \text{ mm} \). Right: Axial velocity \( v(z) \) in a falling jet without surface tension [3], where \( l_b = (\nu^2 / g)^{1/3} \) and \( z = z_l = -(6\nu v_0 / g)^{1/2} \) is a virtual origin above the nozzle. Short horizontal lines indicate the boundary between the viscosity-dominated (above) and inertia-dominated (below) parts of the jet.](image)

![FIG. 2. Breakup length \( L \) in the jetting regime as a function of flow rate \( Q \) for three different viscosities and the same nozzle diameter: \( 2r_0 = 2 \text{ mm} \). For clarity, only error bars >15% are shown.](image)
The analytical solution of Ref. [3] can also be used to estimate the magnitude of the neglected surface tension term in (2b) relative to inertia and the viscous force. For the parameter values of our experiments, it turns out that surface tension is negligible in the inertia-dominated part of the jet but not in the viscosity-dominated part. However, because the viscosity-dominated part of the jet is very short compared to the breakup length, we are justified in using the solution of Ref. [3] as our base state.

To model the fluctuating environment surrounding the jet, we introduce small perturbations with different initial wave numbers \(k_0\) at different points along the jet, i.e., at different times \(t_0\), since the fluid element in question exited the nozzle. Each of these perturbations will grow to \(O(1)\) amplitude at some distance \(z_b(k_0,t_0)\) from the nozzle, at which point the jet will break. We posit that the observed breakup length \(l_b\) is the minimum value of the function \(z_b(k_0,t_0)\).

Next, we recall that the exponential growth rate \(\sigma\) of small long-wavelength perturbations of wave number \(k\) on the surface of a jet of constant radius \(r\) is [13]

\[
\sigma = \left( \frac{\gamma}{r^3} \right)^{1/2} \left[ \left( \frac{k^2(1 - k^2)}{2} + \frac{9}{4} \Pi_{Oh} k^4 \right)^{1/2} - \frac{3}{2} \Pi_{Oh} k^2 \right],
\]

where \(k = kr\) and \(\Pi_{Oh} = \nu \sqrt{\rho/\gamma r}\) is the Ohnesorge number. We now assume that (3) applies at all points along the jet if \(r = r(z)\) and \(k = k(z)\) are interpreted as the local values of the jet radius and perturbation wave number, respectively. Because the base flow stretches fluid elements at a rate \(A^{-1}A\), \(r(z)\) and \(k(z)\) are related to their values at the initial position \(z_0\) by \(k(z)^2 = k(z_0)^2r^2(z_0)\). To obtain the total growth of the perturbation, the growth rate (3) must be integrated along Lagrangian paths, taking into account the variation of \(r\) and \(k\). The integrated growth rate is [14]

\[
\int_{t_0}^{t_f} \sigma(k_0, \tau) d\tau = \frac{\pi}{Q} \int_{z_0}^{z_f} r^2(z') \sigma(r(z'), k(z')) dz',
\]

where \(k_0 = k(z_0)\) and the time integral has been transformed to a spatial one using \(d\tau = d\xi'/\nu = \pi r^2 d\xi'/Q\). The total growth of perturbations is the exponential of (4).

Now, suppose that breakup occurs when the quantity \(s(k_0, z_0, z)\) reaches a critical value \(s_{cr}\). Because \(z_b = z_b(k_0, z_0)\), we have the implicit equation \(s_{cr} = s[z_b, k_0, z_0, z_b(k_0, z_0)] \equiv s(z_0, k_0)\). Differentiating this equation with respect to \(z_0\), we obtain

\[
\frac{\partial s}{\partial z_0} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial z_0} + \frac{\partial s}{\partial z_b} \frac{\partial z_b}{\partial z_0} = 0.
\]

However, the condition of minimal breakup length requires \(\partial z_b/\partial z_0 = 0\), and so (5) implies \(\partial s/\partial z_0 = 0\). This derivative can now be evaluated using the definition (4) for \(s\), noting that the dependence on \(z_0\) enters only through the lower limit of integration. We thereby find that the optimal growth rate at the initial position \(z_0\) is \(\sigma[r(z_0), k_0] = 0\), whence (3) implies that the optimal initial wave number is \(k_0 = 1/r(z_0)\). We can therefore write the integrated growth rate as a function of \(z_0\) and \(z_b\) alone, viz.,

\[
s(z_0, r^{-1}(z_0), z_b) = S(z_0, z_b).
\]

Next, differentiate the equation \(s(z_0, k_0) = s_{cr}\) with respect to \(k_0\) to obtain

\[
\frac{\partial s}{\partial k_0} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial z_0} + \frac{\partial s}{\partial z_b} \frac{\partial z_b}{\partial k_0} = 0.
\]

However, the condition of minimal breakup length requires \(\partial z_b/\partial k_0 = 0\), whence (7) reduces to \(\partial s/\partial k_0 = 0\). This in turn implies \(\partial S/\partial z_0 = 0\) because \(k_0 = 1/r(z_0)\). The problem of finding the most dangerous perturbation therefore reduces to solving the two simultaneous equations

\[
S(z_0, z_b) = s_{cr}, \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial z_0}(z_0, z_b) = 0
\]

for \(z_0\) and \(z_b\), which we did using standard MATLAB routines.

To compare the theoretical predictions with our observations, we first plot the dimensionless breakup lengths \(\Pi_b\) as a function of the dimensionless viscosity \(\Pi_\gamma\) for our 87 experiments (Fig. 3). To calculate a theoretical curve to compare with these data, we fix \(\Pi_\gamma = 1.0\) and \(\Pi_r = 1.5\), the (logarithmic) mean values of those parameters for the experiments. We then adjust \(s_{cr}\) iteratively until the theoretical curve best fits the data for \(\log_{10} \Pi_\gamma \lesssim 1.3\). The result is the solid line labeled \(\Pi_b\) in Fig. 3 and corresponds to \(s_{cr} = 8.86\). The fit to the data is good for \(\Pi_\gamma \lesssim 1.3\) (68 experiments) but poor for the 19 experiments with larger values, all but three of which correspond to long jets with \(l_b > 3\) m. We speculate that this is due to the extreme thinness (as low as \(r = 7\) \(\mu m\)) attained by these long jets, which may render them more susceptible to perturbations than the theory predicts.

When \(\Pi_\eta \lesssim 3\), the curves of \(\Pi_b\) vs \(\Pi_\eta\) predicted by the theory have a significant dependence on \(\Pi_\gamma\), which varies over about 2 orders of magnitude among our experiments (color scale in Fig. 3). To illustrate that dependence, Fig. 3 also shows theoretical curves calculated for \(\Pi_\gamma = 0.25\) (dotted line) and 8.0 (dashed line), both with \(s_{cr} = 8.86\). The theoretical curves also depend in principle on \(\Pi_r\), but that dependence is negligible for the parameters of our experiments.

Finally, Fig. 3 also shows the theoretically predicted distance \(z_0\) at which a perturbation is most dangerous, nondimensionalized as \(\Pi_z = z_0(g/Q^2)^{1/5}\). It is smaller than the dimensionless breakup length \(\Pi_b\) by 1–3 orders of magnitude, depending on the value of \(\Pi_\eta\). We now ask whether \(z_0\) is within the inertia-dominated or the viscosity-dominated portion of the jet’s base state. By comparing the
Viscosity-dominated part for large Ohnesorge number $\Pi_{Oh} \gg 1$. This permits (8) to be solved analytically for $l_b$, yielding an expression of the form (9) with $C = (9s_{cr}^2)^{3/4}/(2\pi^{2/3}) \approx 3.46s_{cr}^{3/2}$. The dashed line in Fig. 3 shows the asymptotic expression (9) with $s_{cr} = 8.86$.

Conclusion.—The resolution of the paradox pointed out in the introduction is now clear: Viscosity plays completely independent roles in the axial momentum balance of the steady basic state and in the growth of perturbations about that state. The analytical solution of Ref. [3] for the basic state shows that viscous forces are negligible in the inertia-dominated part of the jet for small $\Pi_{\eta}$, whereas experiments, we used the solution of Ref. [3] to calculate $\Pi_{Oh}(r = r_b) = \Pi_{Oh}^b$ for each experiment, where $r_b$ is the jet radius at the distance $z = z_b$ where the jet breaks up. We thereby find that $\Pi_{Oh}^b \in [0.65, 2160]$ and that 66 of our 87 experiments have $\Pi_{Oh}^b > 10$. It is therefore not surprising that the viscosity has a strong influence on the breakup lengths we observe.

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