

Using evaporation to control capillary instabilities in micro-systems Supplementary Information

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3D model and lattice-Boltzmann simulations

We model the liquid and gas phases as a binary fluid, in which each phase is labelled using a phase field $\phi(x, y, z, t)$. The phase field varies continuously between the two volume phases, which are separated by a diffuse interface. In the same spirit, all other hydrodynamic variables, namely the density, ρ , viscosity, η , chemical potential, μ , pressure, p , and velocity, \mathbf{v} , vary smoothly across the interface.

In equilibrium, the configuration of the two-phase system is determined by the Helmholtz free-energy functional [? ?]

$$\mathcal{F} = \int_V \left(F_b + \frac{\kappa}{2} |\nabla\phi|^2 \right) dV + \int_S (\kappa_s \phi_s) dS, \quad (1)$$

where V is the total volume of the binary fluid and S is the surface of the confining solid walls. The first term in the volume integral corresponds to the bulk free-energy density

$$F_b = \frac{\rho}{3} \log \rho + \frac{a}{2} \phi^2 + \frac{b}{4} \phi^4, \quad (2)$$

which contains an ideal gas term to ensure incompressibility, where we have introduced the local mass density of the fluid, ρ , and a double-well potential term in which a and b are model parameters. With this choice of F_b , phase separation occurs if $a < 0$ and $b > 0$. The resulting two equilibrium phases have bulk phase field values $\phi_b = \pm\sqrt{-a/b}$. Here we fix $b = -a$ and take $\phi_b = -1$ to be the gas phase and $\phi_b = +1$ to represent the liquid. The square-gradient term in equation (1) represents the energy cost of spatial variations of ϕ across the system. In equilibrium, it leads to the formation of a diffuse interface of typical width $\xi = \sqrt{-2\kappa/a}$ and surface tension $\gamma = \sqrt{-8\kappa a/9}$.

The surface integral in equation (1) models the wetting properties of the binary fluid, where ϕ_s represents the value of the phase field at the solid surfaces. In equilibrium, this term leads to the boundary condition

$$\partial_n \phi_s = -\frac{\kappa_s}{\kappa}, \quad (3)$$

where n indicates the coordinate normal to the solid surface. The parameter κ_s can be tuned to control the contact angle of the fluid-fluid interface with the solid, θ_e , through the relation

$$\cos \theta_e = \frac{1}{2} \left[(1 + \Omega)^{3/2} - (1 - \Omega)^{3/2} \right], \quad (4)$$

where $\Omega = \kappa_s \sqrt{1/\kappa a}$.

The phase-field approach can be used to model a phase change by introducing an imbalance in the chemical potential of the binary fluid, defined as

$$\mu \equiv \frac{\delta \mathcal{F}}{\delta \phi} = a\phi + b\phi^3 - \kappa \nabla^2 \phi. \quad (5)$$

An inhomogeneity in the chemical potential of local amplitude $\nabla\mu$ will give rise to a diffusive flux, leading to the growth or depletion of the volume phases [?]. To model the diffusive flux, we use the constitutive equation

$$\mathbf{j} = -M \nabla \mu, \quad (6)$$

where M , called the mobility, plays the role of a diffusion constant. Imposing local conservation of the phase field ϕ leads to the convection-diffusion equation

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla \phi = M \nabla^2 \mu. \quad (7)$$

Apart from diffusive transport of the phase field, inhomogeneities in the chemical potential give rise to a force per unit volume $-\phi \nabla \mu$ acting on the fluid [?]. This term amounts to capillary stresses originating from distortions of the interface, and gives rise to the Laplace pressure of a curved interface in the sharp-interface limit. Therefore, the mass and momentum balance equations are

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0, \quad (8)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial (\rho \mathbf{v})}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \rho \mathbf{v} = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot (\eta (\nabla \mathbf{v} + \nabla \mathbf{v}^T)) - \phi \nabla \mu. \quad (9)$$

An important aspect of the diffuse-interface approach is the ability to model contact-line dynamics. In sharp-interface approximations, imposing the no-slip boundary

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condition at the contact line leads to a diverging viscous stress [?], commonly known as the Huh-Scriven paradox [?]. In the phase-field model, this is regularized by virtue of mass diffusion, which leads to a contact-line slip velocity profile over a characteristic length scale $l_D = \sqrt{M\eta}$ [?]. The emergent slip length is set by l_D and shows the limiting scalings $l_s \sim \sqrt{l_D\xi}$ [?] for $l_D \ll \xi$ and $l_s \sim l_D$ [? ?] for $l_D \gg \xi$ with a cross over between the two regimes occurring at $l_D/\xi \approx 0.4$ [?].

In order to integrate the phase-field model numerically we use a Lattice-Boltzmann (LB) algorithm. Here we summarize the simulation setup and focus on the simulation results. We refer the reader to Ref. [?] for details of the numerical algorithm. We consider a rectangular simulation domain of dimensions $L_x \times L_y \times L_z$, discretised into N lattice sites. The size of the simulation domain was fixed using $L_x = 120$, $L_y = 100$ and $L_z = 40$. The cantilever dimensions, $l \times w$ were set to $l = 100$ and $w = 24$, and the minimum gap thickness to $h = 10$. In simulation units, the density and viscosity of the fluid are set to $\rho = 1$ and $\eta = 10^{-1}$ throughout the lattice. The bulk free-energy parameters are set to $-a = b = 3.05 \times 10^{-3}$ and $\kappa = 7.8 \times 10^{-3}$, giving a

surface tension $\gamma = 4.6 \times 10^{-3}$ and an interface thickness $\xi = 1.13$. The initial condition of the fluid-fluid system is chosen by initializing the phase field to local equilibrium values, $\phi = -1$ for a gas site and $\phi = +1$ for a liquid site.

Hard walls in the lattice Boltzmann algorithm are implemented by means of the standard bounce back rules, which recover the impenetrability and no-slip boundary conditions. The interaction with the solid boundaries is prescribed by locally fixing the surface energy parameter, κ_s , and enforcing the boundary condition (3). For hydrophilic levers, we use $\kappa_S = -2.8 \times 10^{-3}$, leading to $\theta_e \approx 30^\circ$. To model hydrophobic levers we use $\kappa_S = 2.8 \times 10^{-3}$, which gives $\theta_e \approx 150^\circ$.

To drive a phase change, we follow the algorithm presented in Ref. [?] and fix the value of the phase field at the left end of the simulation box to a prescribed value ϕ_0 . From (5) the local chemical potential is $\mu_0 \simeq a\phi_0 + b\phi_0^3$, while $\mu \approx 0$ at the interface, leading to a phase-change rate $E_0 = |\mathbf{j}|/\Delta\phi \simeq M\mu_0/\Delta\phi l_0$, where $\Delta\phi = 2$ is the difference between the bulk values of the phase field and l_0 is the average distance from the interface to the simulation box edge. We use $\phi_0 = -1.2$, which ensures that the timescale of mass diffusion is fast compared to the evaporation timescale of the front.