

1 **Evaporation rates from square capillaries limited by corner flow**

2 **viscous losses**

3 Frouke Hoogland, May 2012

4 *A master thesis for the master program Environmental Hydrogeology at the Department of Earth*
5 *Sciences, University of Utrecht, The Netherlands*

6 *This research was conducted at the Soil and Terrestrial Environmental Physics (STEP) group,*
7 *Department of Environmental System Science, ETH Zürich, Switzerland under supervision of prof. Dani*
8 *Or (ETH), dr. Peter Lehmann (ETH) and prof.dr. ir. Majid Hassanizadeh (UU)*

9 **Abstract**

10 Evaporation is an important process in water exchange between soil and atmosphere as well as
11 applications in industry. Predictions of drying rates from porous media are very difficult due to its
12 highly non-linear behavior with typically high and fairly constant drying rates in the beginning
13 followed by a drop to low rates. The high drying rates at the first stage of drying are attributed to the
14 presence of liquid patches retained in corners of the partially air filled pore space that are
15 interconnected to form conductive pathways. Under increasingly dryer circumstances these liquid
16 connections break leading to the diffusion dominated low drying rates of the second stage. The
17 maximum extent of this corner flow region that determines the duration of the first stage is
18 controlled by capillary forces opposed by gravity and viscous losses. To quantify these mechanisms,
19 evaporation is studied from a single glass capillary with square cross section. Such geometry shows
20 similar drying curve characteristics as macro-scale porous media with high rates as long as thick
21 capillary sustained corner films extent between the receding meniscus and capillary surface.
22 Increased flow resistance and gravity force as drying proceeds lead to film break-up at certain
23 characteristic meniscus depth L_c . L_c was studied experimentally for drying of liquids ethanol and
24 water from different capillary sizes under a range of evaporation rates and capillary inclination

25 angles. This way the forces determining the extent of the corner films were changed systematically.
26 Break-up of films as well as evolution of main meniscus depth were monitored to deduce L_c and
27 drying rates. For ethanol initial evaporation rates were in the order of 1000 mm/day and dropped
28 abruptly when the corner films broke up. Increasing the evaporation rate led to a shortening of the
29 films, whereas with decreasing gravity component the films became significantly longer. Maximum
30 corner film extent for water was much shorter and mainly limited by corner geometry due to its high
31 contact angle of 30° . Model predictions on L_c based on force balance and corner flow equations gave
32 good results that were in accordance with the experimental data. The roundedness of the capillary
33 corners had a large influence on maximum film length by limiting the curvature of the liquid interface
34 at the capillary surface. This roundedness represents a critical pore size in real porous media that
35 determines the maximum extent of the corner film region.

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 An understanding of the drying process from porous media is important for a number of different
39 fields. Evaporation determines the exchange of water between soil and atmosphere which makes it
40 an important parameter for determining water availability for plants and microorganisms.

41 Furthermore drying processes are important in various industrial applications including food
42 processing and preservation, and for example the drying of ceramics and paper [1].

43 During evaporation pores become increasingly invaded by air replacing the liquid that vaporizes into
44 the gas phase and is transported outside of the medium into the atmosphere. The drying front can
45 be defined as the interface below which all pores are saturated with liquid, and above which pores
46 are partially invaded by air. As drying proceeds this front recedes inside the medium. The region
47 above the drying front becomes increasingly dryer as the front moves down, however liquid patches
48 are retained in the pore corners due to capillary forces. As drying proceeds these liquid patches
49 become smaller and thinner. The distribution of this residual liquid above the drying front is highly
50 dependent on the internal structure of the porous medium and has significant influence on its drying

51 curve. Therefore drying rates from real porous media are difficult to predict requiring extensive
52 knowledge on the internal medium properties.

53 **1.1 Drying stages**

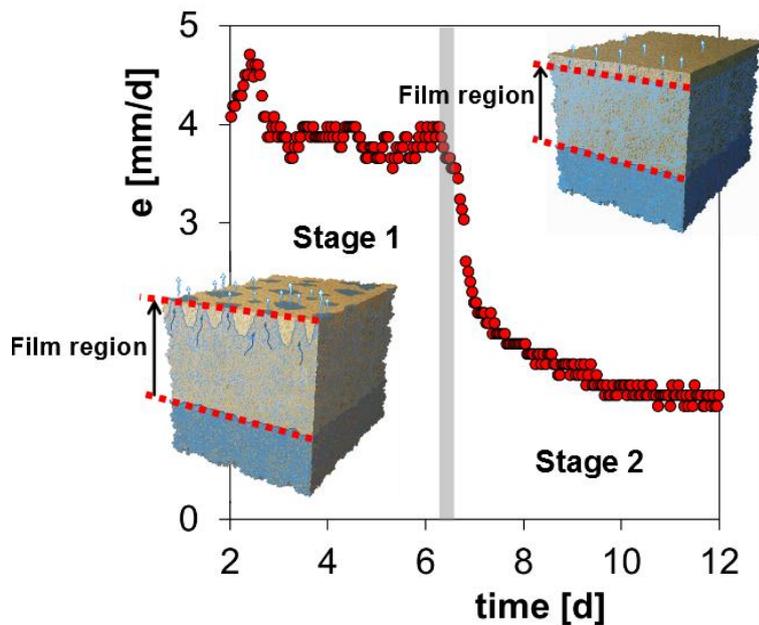
54 In numerous studies on evaporation from porous media a distinction is made between two drying
55 stages characterized by different drying rates. During the first stage rates are high and rather
56 constant which is attributed to a film region extending between drying front and the surface. In this
57 film region liquid can be transported by advection through the capillary retained liquid in corners of
58 the pore space. During this first stage the liquid transport inside the medium can be high enough to
59 sustain the evaporative demand at the surface. Therefore drying rates are only limited by the mass
60 exchange between medium surface and the air boundary layer above. In the second stage drying
61 rates drop because the film region no longer extends up to the surface leading to a transition from
62 advection dominated to diffusion dominated transport where diffusion is the much slower process
63 The first stage was defined as a constant rate period (CRP) by Scherer [2] because in this stage the
64 drying rate per area remains constant and close to the potential evaporation rate that would be
65 found at a free evaporating surface. In a review on existing theories on evaporation Van Brakel [3]
66 noted however that in numerous experimental studies it is better to speak of a pseudo constant rate
67 period since often drying rates in this stage are continuously dropping as water content at the
68 surface decreases. Suzuki and Maeda [4] solved the differential equations for liquid evaporation from
69 a discontinuous surface that consists of dry and wet patches, to a viscous boundary layer above.
70 Their results show that potential drying rates depend on the thickness of the boundary layer where
71 evaporation rate increases for thinner boundary layer due to an enhanced gradient in vapor
72 concentration. Their results also show that drying rates from increasingly dry surfaces can be
73 constant as long as the typical width of the wet patches at the surface is much smaller than the
74 thickness of the viscous boundary layer. Experimental studies can show both cases where Lehmann
75 et al. [1] found a stage 1 consisting of constant drying rates for low evaporative demand, but once

76 the initial drying rate exceeded a value around 4 mm/d the first stage showed continuously
77 decreasing drying rates. Even though such a pattern does not correspond to Scherer's description of
78 a CRP they could argue that this drop in drying rates was not due to limitations by low hydraulic
79 conductivity inside the medium but should be explained by limitations in the mass exchange
80 between the partially dry medium surface and the viscous boundary layer above. Thus during stage 1
81 of evaporation both constant drying rates as well as decreasing drying rates can be observed.
82 However for both cases the first drying stage is characterized by the fact that the transport inside the
83 medium is not limiting the observed drying rates.

84 When advective transport inside the medium can no longer sustain demand at the surface, drying
85 rates become diffusion dominated and can be accurately described by Fick's law of diffusion as
86 shown by Shokri et al. [5]. In this stage diffusion takes place from a secondary evaporation front
87 above the drying front where the two are interconnected by liquid pathways. The secondary
88 evaporation plane during this stage is where phase change from liquid to vapor takes place as well as
89 salt depositions. Increasing diffusional pathways as drying proceeds lead to a continuous drop in
90 drying rates in the second stage of drying [5].

91 The two drying stages and their liquid distribution above the drying front in a porous medium are
92 illustrated by figure 1.

93



94

95 | *Figure 1: Measured evaporation rates from sand of grain sizes 0.3-0.9 mm as stated in Lehmann et al.*

96 | *[1]. During first stage of evaporation drying rate e is constant due to continuous liquid connections*

97 | *that extend between drying front and surface (as shown in the conceptual figure insets). Constant*

98 | *rates are followed by the low and decreasing drying rates of diffusion dominated stage 2. During this*

99 | *stage liquid has to evaporate from a secondary drying front (evaporation plane) and diffuse towards*

100 | *the surface. The duration of stage 1 is dependent on the maximum extent of the 'film region' where*

101 | *liquid connections exist due to capillary retained liquid patches.*

102 | **1.2 Film region**

103 | The high mass flow inside the medium during stage 1 is attributed by Yiotis et al. [6] to the presence

104 | of a film region between drying front and the medium surface from which mass exchange with the

105 | boundary layer takes place. In this film region continuous connections between liquid patches are

106 | present that are retained by capillarity. These liquid connections form flow paths leading to

107 | advection dominated transport and thus relatively high evaporation rates. Yiotis et al. [7] make a

108 | distinction between 'thick films' that consist of capillary retained liquid in crevices of the pore space

109 | and as pendular rings around the contact points between grains, and 'thin films' that are adsorbed to

110 | the pore walls. The latter are much thinner and thus have higher resistances to flow as quantified by

111 Tuller and Or [8] where they derived viscous resistances for both film types and different pore
112 geometries. Shokri et al. [5] used X-ray tomography on a sand filled column to image this film region
113 experimentally and found that the retained liquid above the drying front indeed formed a continuous
114 network.

115 **1.3 Characteristic length**

116 As long as the film region extends up to the surface drying rates are in advection dominated stage 1.
117 This means that the maximum film region extent controls the duration of this stage and as soon as it
118 retreats inside the medium the transition to diffusion controlled stage 2 takes place. Lehmann et al.
119 [1] define a characteristic depth of the front, L_c , at which capillary flow paths between front and
120 surface disconnect marking the end of stage 1. This front depth follows from the balance between
121 capillary force sustaining the film region, opposed by gravity and viscous losses. The capillary driving
122 force is generated by the pressure difference between liquid filled small pores at the surface and
123 larger pores at the drying front [1]. This generates a 'capillary pumping' mechanism as defined by
124 Yiotis et al. [9] leading to capillary driven flow to the small pores at the surface. Under hydrostatic
125 conditions the absolute pressure head increases linearly with distance from the drying front until it
126 reaches a critical head value h_{min} at the surface at which the film region becomes disconnected. In
127 this hydrostatic case the difference between air entry value at the front and h_{min} at the surface
128 equals the length at which the films will break-up and can be called the gravity length L_G [1] because
129 in such case only gravity is opposing the capillary force. In the case of evaporation, liquid flow occurs
130 through the film region leading to viscous losses that use part of the capillary pressure difference
131 which leads to earlier film break-up. When there is no gravity opposing flow, which is the case for a
132 horizontal capillary configuration, the entire capillary driving force can be used to overcome the flow
133 resistance. The resulting maximum film length can be defined as the viscous length L_v . When both
134 gravity and viscous losses are of importance the maximum front depth L_c follows from a combination
135 of the two. For coarse media viscous losses are of small importance and L_v is in general much larger
136 than L_G . For finer textured media flow resistance increases and L_c is determined by both gravity and

137 viscous losses. L_c can be in the range of several hundred mm for typical soil classes and evaporation
138 rates as shown by Lehmann et al. [1].

139 **1.4 Evaporation from angular pores**

140 It is difficult to quantify the viscous losses in real porous media because they are dependent on the
141 hydraulic conductivity of the medium. This varies with liquid content and depends on the internal
142 structure of the medium. To gain more insight into the dynamics and extent of the film region the
143 drying process from the simple geometry of a single capillary with square cross section can be
144 studied. Drying from this simple geometry shows very similar dynamics as drying from real porous
145 media. This has everything to do with the fact that in angular capillaries liquid volumes are retained
146 in its corners by capillarity. These liquid volumes will be defined from here on as corner films. They
147 provide a pathway for liquid to flow to the surface while the main meniscus is moving down as a
148 result of liquid evaporation. This leads to significantly faster drying than if the films would not be
149 present. Laurindo and Prat [10] did pore network simulations as well as experiments on a 2
150 dimensional micro network of interconnected ducts with square cross section. They recognized
151 significant deviations of simulated and observed drying curves which they attributed to the presence
152 of film flow in the experiments that the model did not take into account. Prat [11] extended this
153 simulated pore network model to include corner film flow by simulating three different types of
154 angular cross sections. The model including the corner flows could simulate the drying curves as
155 observed in the experiments much more adequate. Chauvet et al. [12] did an experimental study on
156 evaporation of heptane and 2-propanol from square capillaries and showed that "*evaporation in a*
157 *square tube is much faster and dramatically different (to that from a circular capillary) owing to the*
158 *effect of corner films*" [12]. Note that a circular capillary does not retain liquid above the main
159 meniscus which results in drying rates that are immediately diffusion dominated from the beginning
160 of evaporation. Chauvet et al. [12] recognized three different stages in the drying curves from the
161 square capillary that are similar to the ones observed from drying in real porous media. A first period
162 in which evaporation rate was constant and controlled by external demand, followed by a

163 transitional period in which drying rates show a significant drop and a last period where evaporation
164 takes place from inside the medium/capillary. They state that the drop in drying rates can be directly
165 linked to film detachment where films in the experiments in general detach slightly after the drying
166 rates start to drop. Before film break-up the corner films extent between receding main meniscus
167 and the surface which makes liquid flow possible inside the capillary. Due to this relatively fast
168 transport mechanism drying rates in this stage are not limited by internal conditions of the capillary
169 but by the external demand at the surface. As soon as the corner films break-up from the surface the
170 phase change from liquid to vapor takes place from inside the capillary, and diffusion becomes the
171 main transport mechanism as in stage 2. This indicates that drying from the square capillary is very
172 similar to drying from real porous media by showing the same drying curve characteristics and
173 underlying mechanics. It can thus be used as a conceptual model for evaporation, where corner films
174 serve as an analogue for the film region while the main meniscus represents the drying front.

175 Just as the characteristic length of the film region as defined by Lehmann et al. [1] corner films have a
176 maximum extent at which they will break-up from the surface. We define a characteristic meniscus
177 depth L_c where corner film break-up occurs as a result of increased viscous losses and gravity force
178 due to longer and thinner films as the meniscus moves down. L_c of the corner films is expected to be
179 highly dependent on the viscous flow resistance since film cross sections are small. Thus we can use
180 this concept to study the effects of both gravity and viscous losses on maximum film region extent.

181 The flow resistance in the corner films are mainly determined by the liquid distribution and flow
182 rates. Numerous studies have already described the liquid distribution in an angular pore occupied
183 by liquid and gas phase by relating the liquid/gas interfacial curvature to matric potential. Mason and
184 Morrow [13] describe the liquid distribution in triangular tubes with different aspect ratio, for both
185 drainage and imbibition, which show significant differences and thus hysteresis for both processes.
186 Tuller et al. [14] focus on the respective contributions of adsorbing and capillary forces to liquid
187 distribution in angular pores that are occupied by two phases. This led to analytical solutions for
188 saturation as well as interfacial area as a function of matric potential and pore geometry. From the

189 liquid distribution the next step is to quantify flow through the corner films. Tuller and Or [8] study
190 flow through adsorbed thin films in slits and along the pore walls, as well as through thick films in the
191 corners held by capillary forces. Taking into account resistance to flow they derive analytical
192 solutions for average flow velocities and by upscaling relate this to the medium hydraulic
193 conductivity, saturation and interfacial area as a function of matric potential [15]. Dong and Chatzis
194 [16] did experiments as well as theoretical predictions on imbibition of 5 different liquids in a
195 horizontal square capillary to see effects of liquid properties on imbibition rates. Rates decreased
196 with increasing liquid contact angle due to smaller liquid filled cross sectional area as well as with
197 smaller tube sizes.

198 Corner geometry is of great influence on average flow rates. As stated by Chauvet et al. [17] a slightly
199 rounded corner has large implications on maximum film extent which is for a large part due to the
200 fact that it influences the resistance to flow. In a rounded corner the ratio of wetted perimeter to
201 liquid filled cross sectional area is increasing with thinning of the film leading to nonlinear increase in
202 flow resistance. Rounded corner effects as represented in a resistivity factor were assessed
203 numerically by Ransohoff and Radke [18], analytically and numerically by Chen et al. [19] and by
204 deriving analytical approximations by Zhou et al. [20].

205 Chauvet et al. [17] also studied L_c by experiments with two perfectly wetting liquids and model
206 development. We extend this further by also studying the drying dynamics of liquid with nonzero
207 contact angle (water) as well as film break-up under different capillary orientations. The focus is on
208 the effect and importance of viscous losses on L_c by varying evaporative demand and thus corner
209 flow and flow resistance. This was done by experiments on ethanol and water evaporation from two
210 different sizes of capillaries and by development of a corner flow model. We propose a simple
211 modeling strategy to predict L_c from capillary geometry, liquid properties as well as evaporative
212 demand.

213 **1.5 Objective**

214 The objective of this study is to quantify the mechanisms determining the maximum extent of the
215 corner film region and the resulting drying stages using the simple model of a single square capillary.
216 The study consists of an experimental part and a modeling part. In the experimental part the drying
217 of liquids water and ethanol are studied from a single glass capillary with square cross section.
218 Different capillary sizes are used. Furthermore different evaporation rates are applied to study the
219 influence of viscous losses on the extent of the corner films. Also the capillary is put under different
220 inclination angles of 0, 30 and 90° to vary the gravity component that opposes flow. In this way the
221 influence of these forces on maximum film extent can be quantified. For the modeling part the
222 maximum film length is determined as a function of initial evaporation rate based on corner flow
223 equations and force balance.

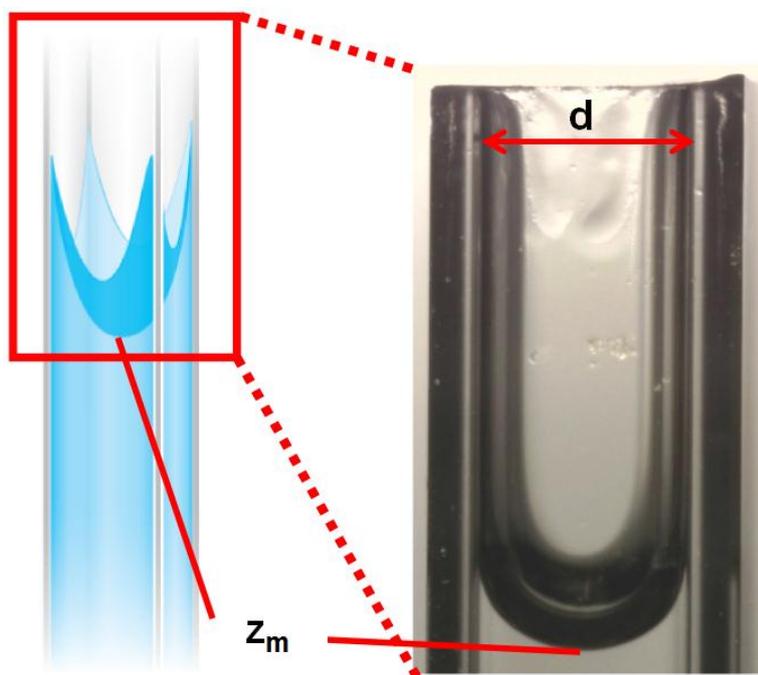
224 The thesis is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the theoretical considerations determining
225 liquid distribution and flow velocities of the corner films. Also the modeling approach is explained
226 here with its underlying assumptions. Section 3 explains the experimental setup and methods after
227 which the results of experiments and model are shown in Section 4. Section 5 gives a discussion on
228 these results, followed by summary and conclusions in section 6.

229

230 **2. Theoretical considerations**

231 **2.1 Capillarity and pore geometry**

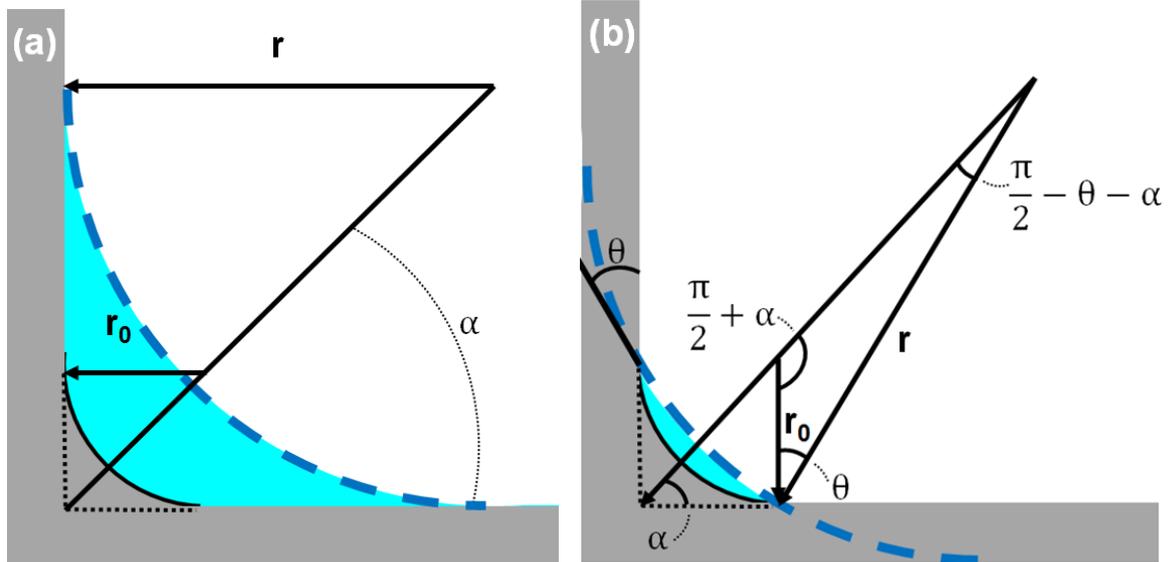
232 A schematic representation of a square shaped capillary is shown in figure 2. It shows the main
233 meniscus at a certain depth defined as z_m , and the liquid corner films above both in a schematic
234 representation as well as a real experimental image of the corner films. Capillary width is defined as
235 d and depth z goes from zero at the surface to increasingly positive in the downward direction. In
236 figure 3.a a cross section of a capillary corner is shown at a certain height above the main meniscus,
237 showing the liquid retained in the corner with its radius of curvature r of the gas/liquid interface, as
238 well as the corner geometry of a slightly rounded corner. The glass capillaries used in our
239 experiments typically do not have perfectly sharp corners but instead have a certain radius of
240 curvature r_0 . Therefore in all following theoretical considerations this corner radius is taken into
241 account which, as was shown by Chauvet et al. [17], is a very important parameter determining film
242 break-up.



243

244 *Figure 2: Schematic representation of a single square capillary on the left showing the liquid corner*
245 *films as well as main meniscus position z_m . Right shows an experimental high magnified image of one*

246 capillary wall with width $d=1.0$ mm, and two adjacent corner films. Note that the films become
 247 thinner towards the surface.



248
 249 Figure 3: (a) shows a schematic representation of a capillary corner (half angle α) with corner radius
 250 r_0 and liquid distribution at a gas/liquid interfacial radius r . (b) shows a schematic representation of
 251 the same corner, with the minimum possible liquid radius r with contact angle ϑ for which liquid can
 252 still be retained in the corner by capillary forces.

253 Due to capillary forces liquid in a small tube rises up to a certain height above a zero pressure level
 254 depending on surface tension σ and degree of wetting (contact angle θ) of the liquid and on capillary
 255 geometry. In angular tubes capillary forces also lead to liquid retention in its corners above the main
 256 meniscus which is not the case in cylindrical capillaries. The curvature r of the corner changes with
 257 height above the main meniscus depending on pressure head h . The relationship between h and r is
 258 given by the Young Laplace equation:

259
$$\frac{\sigma}{r} = -\rho gh \tag{1}$$

260 Where σ and ρ are respectively surface tension and density of the liquid and g is the gravitational
 261 acceleration. In the stated form of the Young Laplace equation only one direction of curvature is
 262 considered. This is reasonable along the major part of the liquid films. However from experimental

263 high magnified images of the films it can be seen that the z component of curvature does become
264 important close to the top of the capillary. Chauvet et al. [17] observed this as well in their
265 experimental results. In the same line of argument as they do we say that the distance over which
266 this second direction of curvature is significant is of the order of one capillary width d , which is in
267 general much smaller than the total film length. Thus it can be expected that taking curvature in the z
268 direction into account will not have a significant effect and equation 1 can be used to give a direct
269 relationship between h and resulting r in the cross-sectional plane.

270 During the process of evaporation liquid goes into the vapor phase due to a gradient in vapor
271 concentration which leads to diffusional transport. The volume of the evaporated liquid is being
272 replaced by the gas phase which makes the main meniscus retreat into the capillary. However in
273 order to have gas invasion the air entry value of the capillary must be exceeded at the surface
274 leading to a sudden jump from complete saturation to liquid retained only in the corners with a
275 certain radius of curvature. The occurrence of this jump is often described as a pore snap off
276 mechanism [8] [21]. The liquid distribution and pore snap-off mechanisms under a range of matric
277 head values differ for different capillary geometries and for the different processes of drainage and
278 imbibition. Tuller et al. [14] derived relationships for liquid distribution and hydraulic properties as a
279 function of matric head and pore geometry defined with the corner half angle α . Since this paper
280 only focuses on square geometries, derivations will only be given for α equal to $\pi/4$.

281 The value of h at which the capillary becomes air invaded is equal to the liquid rise of the main
282 meniscus under equilibrium conditions and can be found by the Princen model [22]. It can be
283 compared to the air entry value of real porous media and we define it as the snap off value for
284 drainage h_d . The liquid rise results from the balance between capillary and gravity force where the
285 capillary force along the liquid/solid contact line for a square capillary is given by:

$$286 \quad F = 4 d \sigma \cos \theta \quad (2)$$

287 Where θ is the contact angle of the liquid with the solid capillary wall. The capillary force is balanced
 288 by the weight of the liquid below the main meniscus and the weight of liquid films above. The total
 289 weight can then be written as:

$$290 \quad W = \rho g h_d d^2 + 4\rho g \int_{h_d}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{\pi}{4}\right) * r(z)^2 dz \quad (3)$$

291 $r(z)$ follows from the hydrostatic case of equation 1 where h can be substituted by z . Solving for F
 292 equal to W and defining $\gamma = \frac{\sigma}{\rho g}$ gives the equilibrium height h_d of the main meniscus:

$$293 \quad h_d = \frac{2\gamma \cos \theta + \gamma \sqrt{\pi - 2 + 2 \cos 2\theta}}{d} \quad (4)$$

294 h_d can be linked to the snap off radius of curvature r_d that defines liquid distribution at the main
 295 meniscus by equation 1.

296 As said before the capillaries used in the experiments have a certain radius of curvature r_0 instead of
 297 sharp corners which has a large effect on L_c . Rounded corners provide a restriction on the minimum
 298 radius of curvature r of the liquid at which liquid can still be retained in the corners. To describe
 299 effects of a rounded corner we first define the degree of roundedness Ro :

$$300 \quad Ro = \frac{r_0}{r(h)} \quad (5)$$

301 Chauvet et al. [17] as well as Zhou et al. [20] use the same definition of roundedness. The definition
 302 used by Ransohoff and Radke [18] is the same if a contact angle of 0 is assumed between the circle
 303 describing the rounded corner and the capillary wall. Chauvet et al. [17] studied the effect of rounded
 304 corners on maximum film extent by use of experiments with different capillaries having different
 305 corner radii. They found that the degree of roundedness of the corner is the most important
 306 parameter that influences maximum extent of the corner films by restricting liquid radius r at the
 307 capillary surface. For a perfectly wetting liquid ($\theta=0$) once the curvature of the corner film r equals
 308 r_0 , which corresponds to a roundedness Ro of 1, capillary forces can no longer retain the liquid and
 309 the film breaks up.

310 Chauvet et al. [17] only focus on the effect of roundedness on perfectly wetting liquids, but also for a
 311 liquid with nonzero contact angle the roundedness leads to a certain restriction on r . We derived this
 312 restriction in the form of a limitation on Ro from geometrical reasoning as illustrated in figure 3.b. At
 313 fixed θ liquid radius r cannot become smaller than the radius with which it is coinciding with the
 314 corner radius at the capillary walls. Using the sine rule and conversion rules from sine to cosine this
 315 leads to the following geometrical limitation on Ro :

$$316 \quad Ro_{max} = \frac{r_0}{r_{min}} = \frac{\cos(\theta+\alpha)}{\cos \alpha} \quad (6)$$

317 This restriction makes it possible to determine the minimum radius of curvature r_{min} , at which the
 318 films break up from the surface and its corresponding most negative h value h_{min} by the YL equation.
 319 It shows that for liquids with smaller contact angle θ smaller curvatures r are possible.

320 Liquid distribution through a cross section of the capillary can be related to liquid radius of curvature
 321 r leading to expressions for the liquid filled area. r at a certain suction h can be found through the YL
 322 equation (1) which in turn determines the liquid filled area of a capillary cross section $A(r)$ which is
 323 proportional to r^2 . $A(r)$ constitutes of the sum of the cross sections of all four liquid corner films. The
 324 total cross sectional area of the capillary is defined as A^{tot} . Equations 7 and 8 give A^{tot} and $A(r)$:

$$325 \quad A^{tot} = d^2 - F_n(0) r_0^2 \quad (7)$$

$$326 \quad A(r) = F_n(\theta) r^2 - F_n(0) r_0^2 \quad (8)$$

327 Here it is assumed that the circle inscribing the rounded corner has a contact angle θ of zero with the
 328 capillary wall as is the case in figure 3 a and b. F_n is an angularity factor that comes from geometrical
 329 considerations and for a square capillary is given by:

$$330 \quad F_n(\theta) = 4(\cos \theta^2 - \sin \theta \cos \theta - \frac{\pi}{4} + \theta) \quad (9)$$

331 By the YL equation all areas can be related to h .

332 **2.2 Viscous effects: Flow through corner films**

333 During stage 1 of evaporation the liquid can be transported by advection through the volume of the
 334 corner films. For flow to occur the capillary gradient from main meniscus to surface has to overcome
 335 the opposing gravity force and pressure drop along the flow path due to viscous losses. The liquid
 336 flux through each cross section of a film can be related to the total pressure gradient resulting from
 337 capillary and gravity forces and the friction of the liquid with the capillary walls. Ransohoff and Radke
 338 [18] derived from the equations of motion for incompressible, Newtonian liquids, expressions that
 339 describe the average velocity of liquid in corners bounded by a liquid-gas interface. Their derivations
 340 lead to a general solution for average velocity \bar{v} through a corner film cross section which is slightly
 341 adapted here to also account for different configurations of the capillary by introduction of
 342 inclination angle ϕ . ϕ gives the angle between flow direction and the horizontal plane and thus
 343 represents the component of the gravity force that opposes flow. The average velocity through a
 344 corner cross section is then given by:

$$345 \quad \bar{v} = -\frac{\rho g r (h)^2}{\varepsilon(h) \eta_0} \left(\frac{dh}{dz} + \sin\phi \right) \quad (10)$$

346 Where η_0 is the dynamic viscosity of the liquid and ε is a dimensionless resistivity factor which is
 347 constant in the case of a sharp corner. ε for rounded corners however becomes a function of
 348 roundedness and increases in a highly nonlinear way with Ro. This can be understood as follows: with
 349 decreasing r the liquid film thins and behaves more like a thin film along the corner wall leading to
 350 increased resistances. This effect was studied by Ransohoff and Radke [18] who derived numerical
 351 results of ε as a function of Ro from the equations of motion for Newtonian incompressible fluids
 352 with low Reynolds number. Their calculations give results on the effect of Ro, α and θ on ε . Zhou et
 353 al. [20] derived approximate analytical solutions of ε as a function of Ro, with the parameters α and θ
 354 included, for the two cases of no flow or a free boundary at the liquid/gas interface. The type of
 355 boundary taken affects the length of the wetting boundary that generates flow resistance. Results of
 356 both are compared in Chauvet et al. [17] for square capillary and perfectly wetting fluid and are very
 357 similar. For our corner flow model we will use the analytical solutions of Zhou because they provide a

358 way to calculate ε for each value of Ro taking into account the contact angle θ as well. We make the
 359 assumption of a free boundary at the liquid/gas interface which gives the following expression of ε
 360 [20]:

$$361 \quad \varepsilon = \frac{12 \sin^2 \theta \alpha (1-B)^2}{(1-\sin \alpha)^2 B^2} * \frac{(\psi_1 - B \psi_2)(\psi_3 - (1-B)Ro)^2}{(\psi_1 - B \psi_2 - (1-B)Ro^2)^3} \quad (11)$$

362

363 Constants ψ_1 , ψ_2 , ψ_3 and B are dependent on the corner half angle α and liquid contact angle θ and
 364 are defined as in equations (12-15):

$$365 \quad \psi_1 = \cos(\alpha + \theta)^2 + \cos(\alpha + \theta) \sin(\alpha + \theta) \tan \alpha \quad (12)$$

$$366 \quad \psi_2 = 1 - \frac{\theta}{\pi/2 - \alpha} \quad (13)$$

$$367 \quad \psi_3 = \cos(\alpha + \theta) / \cos \alpha \quad (14)$$

$$368 \quad B = \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \alpha\right) \tan \alpha \quad (15)$$

369 Note that ε can easily be rewritten as a function of h by applying the Young Laplace equation to the
 370 expression of roundedness Ro .

371 **2.3 Characteristic length**

372 The depth at which the corner films break up from the surface is defined as the characteristic film
 373 length L_c . It is a result of both gravity and viscous losses opposing capillary force which leads to
 374 break-up as soon as the first two exceed the capillary driving force. We therefore start with defining
 375 a characteristic length for the simplified case where only gravity force is opposing capillary force for a
 376 vertically orientated capillary. This corresponds to a hydrostatic force balance where the height of
 377 the liquid z above a zero pressure level equals the absolute value of h and is thus directly related to
 378 the liquid curvature r . We define the characteristic length for this case as the gravity length L_G which
 379 is equal to the difference between absolute values of snap off suction h_d at the main meniscus and

380 maximum absolute value of h at the surface limited by r_0 . The gravity length is increasing with
381 decreasing corner radii because higher suctions can be reached before the curvature radius of the
382 film equals the corner radius.

383 In the same way as for the gravity length it is possible to define a characteristic viscous length L_v that
384 corresponds to the maximum film length if only viscous losses would oppose capillary force. This is
385 the case for a horizontal capillary with inclination angle φ equal to zero. L_v depends on flow rates and
386 thus decreases with higher evaporation rates. The characteristic length L_c results from a combination
387 of L_g and L_v .

388 **2.4 Modeling strategy and simplifications**

389 A modeling approach was developed to predict characteristic film lengths L_c that can be compared to
390 experimental results. The corner flow model is first of all based on the assumption of a constant flux
391 at the capillary surface as long as the corner films extent up to the surface. This means we assume a
392 stage 1 with constant drying rates measured over the whole area of the capillary for the duration of
393 intact films up to the surface. It is also assumed that evaporation is only occurring from the tips of
394 the films, and diffusion from liquid/gas interface inside the medium is negligible due to small vapor
395 concentration gradients inside the capillary. This is reasonable since the vapor concentration inside
396 the capillary will everywhere be close to saturated vapor concentration.

397 These assumptions lead to a mass balance requirement of a constant flux through each cross section
398 of the corner films that equals the initial flux at the surface. However as the main meniscus moves
399 down and the films become thinner the liquid flowing from meniscus to capillary surface experiences
400 more resistance and at some depth it is not possible to sustain the required flux. This then leads to
401 breakup of the films and defines the maximum film length L_c .

402 The constant flux requirement can be expressed as follows:

$$403 \quad e_0 A^{tot} = \bar{v}(r) A(r) \quad (16)$$

404 Where e_0 is the initial evaporation rate in mm/d, A^{tot} and $A(r)$ are the total cross sectional area of
 405 the capillary and the liquid filled cross sectional area above main meniscus respectively as described
 406 by equations 7 and 8. $\bar{v}(r)$ is the average velocity of the liquid in mm/d at a certain cross section as
 407 given by equation 10.

408 The left hand side of equation 16 defines the initial mass flux from the capillary and is a constant
 409 value. Inserting (8) and (10) into (16) and rewriting r and ε to h by use of equation (1) leads to the
 410 following equality:

$$411 \quad e_0 A^{\text{tot}} = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon(h)} \left(\frac{F_n(\theta)\sigma^4}{\eta_0(\rho g)^3} \frac{1}{h^4} - \frac{F_n(0)r_0^2\sigma^2}{\eta_0\rho g} \frac{1}{h^2} \right) \left(\frac{dh}{dz} + \sin\phi \right) \quad (17)$$

412 In equation 17 all terms are either constant or a function of h which means that a separation of
 413 variables can be performed. When the meniscus depth z_m equals L_c the corner films break. The depth
 414 z thus has to be integrated between $z=0$ at the surface to $z=L_c$ at the meniscus. The integration
 415 boundaries of h are defined by most negative head value h_{min} at the surface of the capillary and h_d at
 416 the main meniscus. This means that all integration boundaries are known leading to the following
 417 expression for L_c :

$$418 \quad \int_{h_{\text{min}}}^{h_d} \frac{dh}{\frac{\varepsilon(h)e_0 A^{\text{tot}}}{\left(\frac{F_n(\theta)\sigma^4}{\eta_0(\rho g)^3} \frac{1}{h^4} - \frac{F_n(0)r_0^2\sigma^2}{\eta_0\rho g} \frac{1}{h^2} \right) + \sin\phi}} = L_c \quad (18)$$

419 For rounded corners this equation can only be solved numerically because ε becomes a function of h
 420 leading to a complex integral. However for sharp corners ε has a constant value and the following
 421 analytical solution can be found:

$$422 \quad L_c = \sum \frac{2 \text{ArcTan} \left[\sqrt{\frac{2c_0}{c_{2h} \sin[\phi] - C_{\text{all}}}} h \right] \left(2c_{4h}c_0 - c_{2h}^2 \sin[\phi] + c_{2h}C_{\text{all}} \right)}{\sqrt{8c_0 C_{\text{all}}^2 c_{2h} \sin[\phi] - 8c_0 C_{\text{all}}^3}} + \frac{2 \text{ArcTan} \left[\sqrt{\frac{2c_0}{c_{2h} \sin[\phi] + C_{\text{all}}}} h \right] \left(c_{2h}^2 \sin[\phi] - 2c_{4h}c_0 + c_{2h}C_{\text{all}} \right)}{\sqrt{8c_0 C_{\text{all}}^2 c_{2h} \sin[\phi] + 8c_0 C_{\text{all}}^3}} \quad (19)$$

423 with the constants defined as follows:

$$C_{\text{all}} = \sqrt{c_{2h}^2 \text{Sin}[\phi]^2 - 4c_{4h}c_0 \text{Sin}[\phi]}$$

$$c_0 = \varepsilon_h e_0 A_{\text{tot}}$$

424 $c_{4h} = \frac{F_n \sigma^4}{\eta(\rho g)^3}$

$$c_{2h} = -\frac{F_n r_0^2 \sigma^2}{\eta \rho g}$$

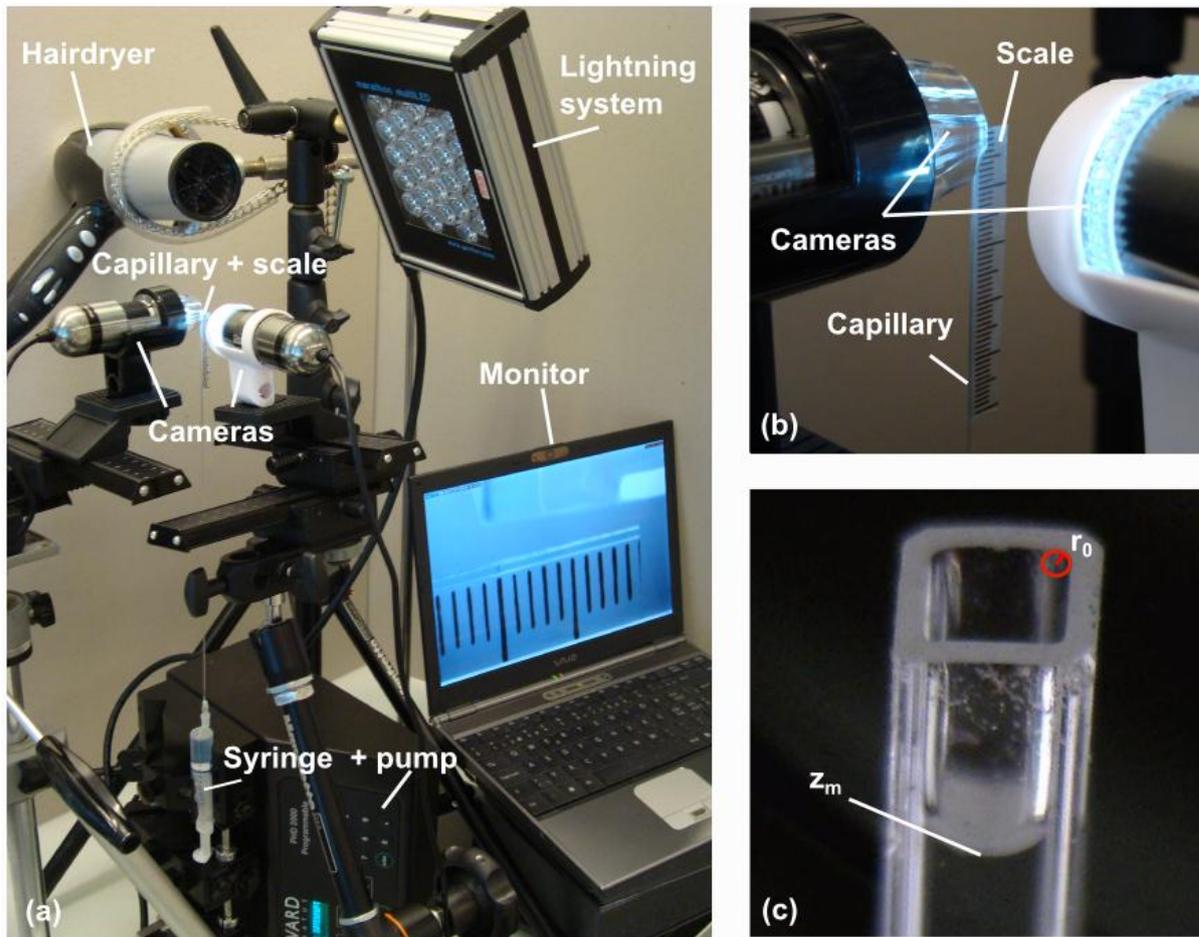
(20)

425 Solving gives L_c as a function of initial evaporation rate e_0 , capillary orientation ϕ and width d , corner
426 radius r_0 and liquid properties.

427 **3. Experimental methods**

428 Experiments are done on evaporation of the liquids ethanol and water from two different sized glass
429 capillaries with square cross section (supplier: Vitrocom). The two liquids are chosen to investigate
430 the effect of different liquid properties like σ and θ . In some of the experiments blue dyed liquids are
431 used to visualize locations of phase change that are indicated by dye deposition on the capillary
432 walls. This allows for validating whether the underlying modeling assumption of phase change only
433 happening at the top of the corner films is true.

434 Two sizes of capillaries are used of width d equal to 1.0 and 0.5 mm respectively. From high
435 magnified images of the top of the capillaries the corner radii are determined giving an r_0 for the
436 large ($d=1.0$ mm) capillary of $90 \mu\text{m}$ and for the small ($d=0.5$ mm) of $58 \mu\text{m}$. Figure 4 shows a photo
437 of the experimental setup. The capillary is glued on a syringe containing the evaporating liquid which
438 in turn is placed on a high precision pump. This allows for accurate filling of liquid to the top of the
439 capillary and fixing its position. From this point on evaporation takes place from the top which is
440 open to the atmosphere.



442 *Figure 4: a) The experimental setup with the capillary attached to a syringe which is placed on a high*
 443 *precision pump. A hairdryer is used to vary external demand leading to different evaporation rates. b)*
 444 *Two microscope cameras image corner films and the movement of the main meniscus. The capillary is*
 445 *in between these cameras with a length scale attached to it. c) A high magnified image of the*
 446 *capillary ($d=1.0$ mm) with the main meniscus position z_m and corner films above. The corners are*
 447 *slightly rounded with corner radius r_0 of $90\ \mu\text{m}$.*

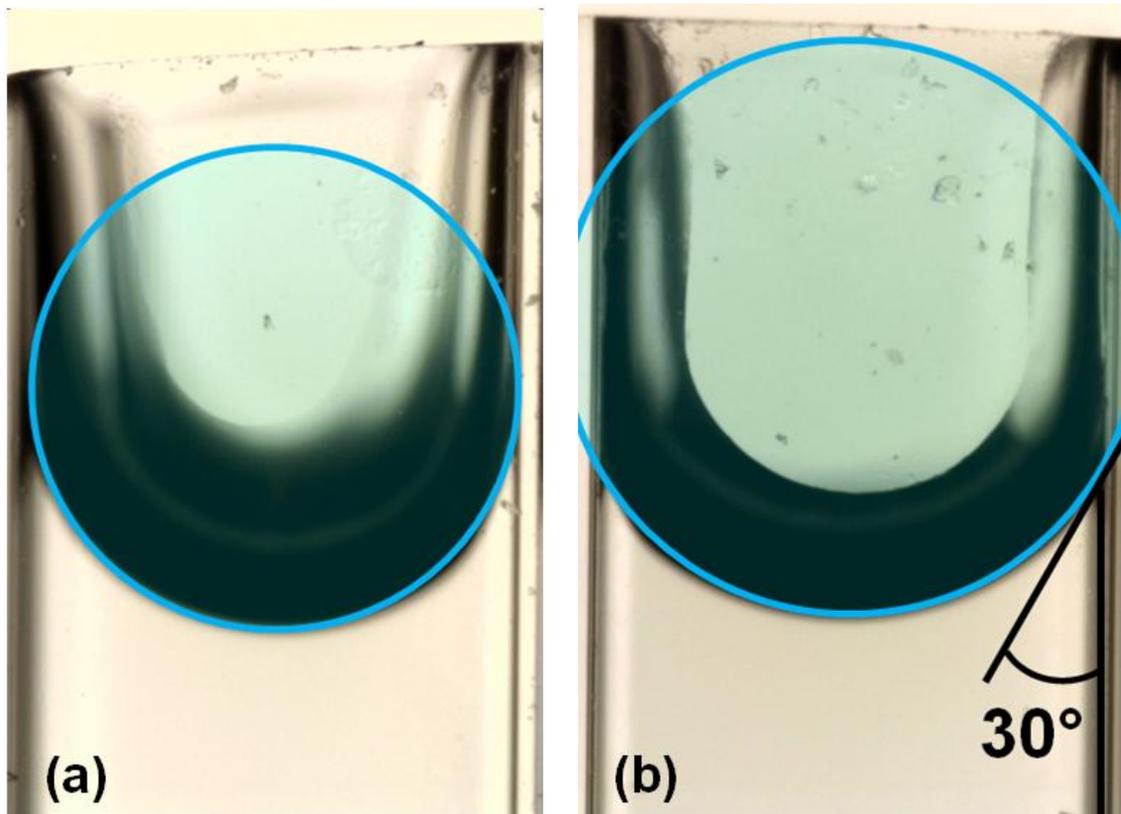
448 Two microscope cameras (Dinolite, resolution $1280*1024$ or higher) are directed to the capillary.
 449 One is positioned such that it monitors one capillary wall with its two adjacent capillary corners
 450 under high magnification at the top of the capillary, to visualize the evolution of the corners and their
 451 break-up from the surface. The second camera, positioned at an angle of 90 degrees with the first
 452 one, monitors the capillary at lower magnification to visualize depth of the main meniscus with time.
 453 Depending on the magnification rate of this second camera break-up of a third corner film could

454 often be seen. Thus by use of both microscope cameras the characteristic length of maximum three
455 of the four liquid films could be determined.

456 Figure 5 shows two high magnified images of the top of the capillaries for ethanol and water at the
457 moment that the main meniscus is moving into the medium while liquid remains trapped in the
458 corners. An inscribed circle of the meniscus interface shows the difference in contact angle for both
459 liquids. For ethanol θ is 0° (perfectly wetting liquid) while for water θ is around 30° . This is an
460 important difference between the two which influences drying dynamics. Other liquid properties are
461 summarized in table 1.

462 To investigate the significance of viscous losses on L_c a range of different evaporation rates are
463 applied by directing a hairdryer on the capillary with different strength. Only cold air is used to
464 exclude thermal effects on evaporation and liquid properties. In fact we assume an isothermal
465 system where we do not take into account the cooling effect of phase change from liquid to vapor at
466 locations where evaporation occurs. Chauvet et al. [17] state that this cooling was at most 2.5 K for
467 2-propanol in their experiments which is small enough to assume an isothermal system. Gravity
468 influence is varied by positioning the capillary under different inclination angle ϕ . Horizontal, vertical
469 and an angle of 30° are used.

470



471

472 *Figure 5: Two high magnified experimental images of the receding menisci of a) ethanol and b) water*
 473 *showing the difference in contact angle ($\vartheta=0$ for ethanol, $\vartheta= 30$ degrees for water) as highlighted by*
 474 *the inscribed circle that fits to the interface of the main meniscus. Evaporation from the top of the*
 475 *capillary (top of the images) leads to downward movement of the meniscus and the formation of*
 476 *liquid films in the corners. These images show one capillary wall ($d=1.0$ mm) with its two adjacent*
 477 *capillary corners.*

	ethanol	water
Density ρ (kg/m³)	789	998.21
Surface tension σ (N/m)	0.02239	0.0728
Dynamic viscosity η_0 (kg/(m*s))	0.00107	0.001002
Vapor pressure (Pa)	8000 (at T=298 K)	2800 (at T=298 K)
Contact angle	0°	30°

478 *Table 1: Liquid properties of ethanol and water.*

479 Evaporation rates e can be deduced from photos of the microscope camera that images main
 480 meniscus position z_m at either 20 or 10 seconds time intervals for slow and fast evaporation
 481 experiments respectively. A scale is attached to the capillary to determine equivalent length of one
 482 pixel. By image analysis in Mathematica z_m could then be determined for each imaged time step.
 483 Accurate measurement of drying rates is important since the initial evaporation rate e_0 of the
 484 experiment is one of the input parameters of the proposed model. Dividing the change of two
 485 subsequent meniscus positions dz_m by their time difference gives meniscus velocity $\frac{dz_m}{dt}$. This is
 486 converted to an evaporation rate by the simplifying assumption that for a change in meniscus
 487 position dz_m the evaporating liquid area is equal to the gas filled area at the snap off suction h_d .
 488 Therefore the volume V_e of liquid evaporated in time step dt equals

$$489 \quad V_e(t) = dz_m(t) * (A^{tot} - A(h_d)) \quad (21)$$

490 The evaporation rate $e(t)$ is then given by:

$$491 \quad e(t) = \frac{1}{A^{tot}} \frac{dV_e}{dt} \quad (22)$$

492 **4. Results**

493 For all experiments it was possible to monitor detachment of at least two of the total four corner
 494 films because these were monitored by the microscope camera with largest magnification.
 495 Depending on the magnification of the second camera which monitored the evolution of z_m ,
 496 detachment of a third corner film could be seen. For nondyed liquid the moment of detachment of
 497 corner films could be easily determined from photos. Maximum film extent could vary for the
 498 different corner films of one experiment which can probably be attributed to slight variations in the
 499 corner radii of the different capillary corners. Model results show that depending on which e_0 is
 500 taken into consideration a small change in r_0 can have a significant effect on L_c values. If the corner
 501 radius of $90 \mu\text{m}$ as determined for the large capillary changes with 1 % it leads to a change in L_c of 12
 502 % for an e_0 of 500 mm/d, ethanol evaporation and vertical configuration.

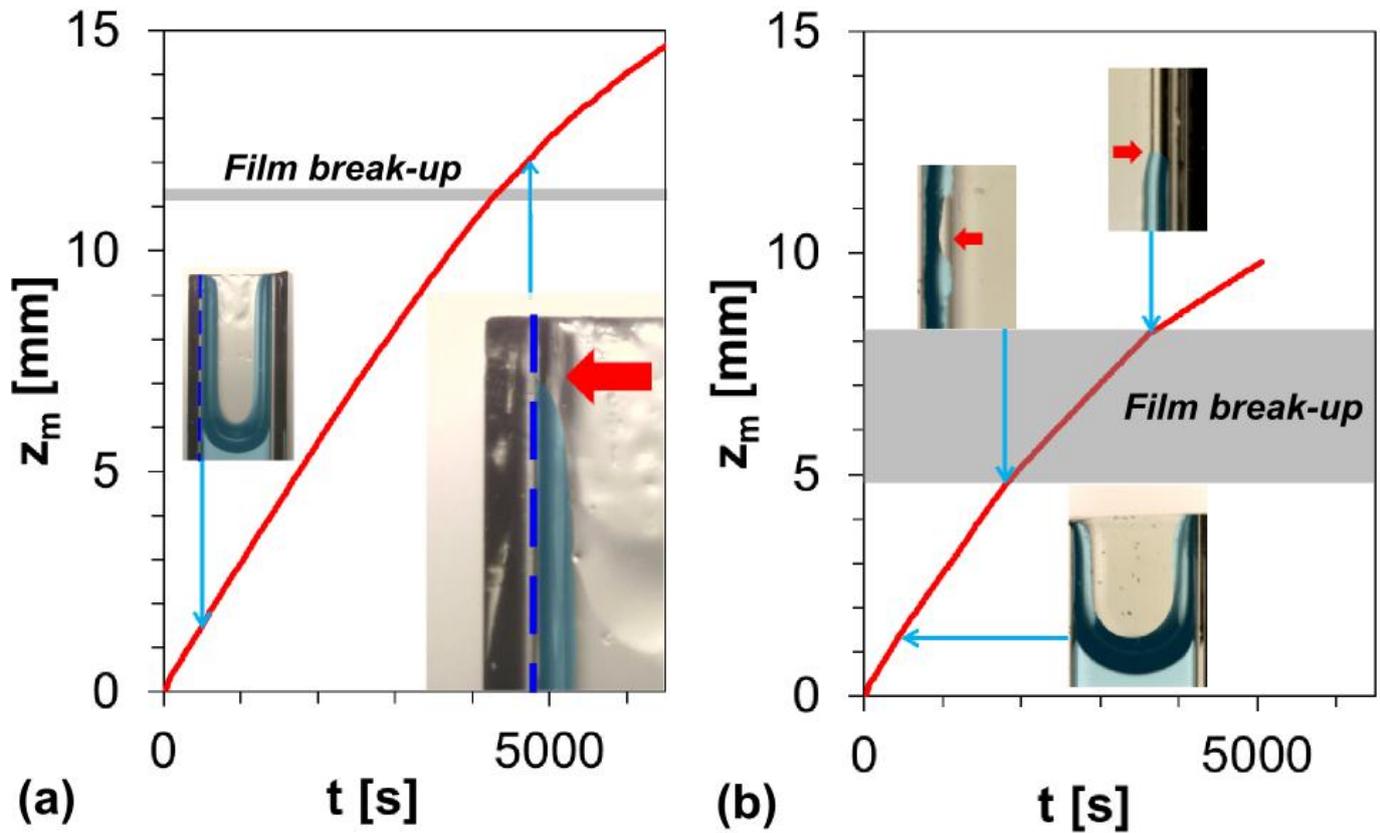
503 Experiments indicate that the evaporation and corner film dynamics for ethanol and water showed
504 very different behavior. Figure 6 shows a typical evolution of the main meniscus with time for both
505 liquids with the break-up depth indicated by the grey shaded area. For ethanol evaporation, L_c values
506 for different corners in one experiment lie close together as indicated by the narrow band in fig. 6.a.
507 representing break-up depth which lie between 11.1 and 11.4 mm in this case. For water however
508 different corner films can have a large variation in break-up depth for one experiment as shown in
509 figure 6.b. by the broad shaded area varying in this case between 4.9 and 8.3 mm.

510 Also qualitatively it could be seen that the films behave in a different way. In the case of ethanol they
511 get loose at the surface and then retreat in a more or less smooth way into the capillary while
512 remaining present but moving down with the main meniscus. For water they tend to break-up
513 between surface and meniscus after which the film above the break-up point evaporates and
514 disappears. While the meniscus moves down a new film can stretch out inside the capillary, which
515 later might break again and disappear.

516 The evolution of z_m for both liquids has in common that after film break-up the movement slows
517 down as can be seen from a decrease in slope in fig. 6. This can also be seen in evaporation rates as a
518 function of z_m as shown in figure 7 for ethanol and in figure 9 for water. For water break-up depth are
519 always smaller than for ethanol, which can be explained by the contact angle that poses a tighter
520 restriction on h at the surface of the capillary, since the films will detach already at larger curvature r .

521 The insets of figure 6 show the high magnified images of the top of the capillary at different
522 moments of the experiment. In fig. 6.a. images show distribution of undyed ethanol before and after
523 film break-up where the liquid phase is indicated by the blue shaded area. The first inset shows two
524 corner films extending to the capillary surface and the main meniscus whereas the second shows a
525 smaller section of one capillary corner with the film tip that retreated inside the capillary. The tip of
526 the film is indicated with a red arrow. In figure 6.b. images of undyed water are shown, with the
527 break-up of left and right corner film in respectively the second and third image shown in more

528 detail. In this case the left film did not break up at the surface but instead somewhere halfway the
 529 film. Also break-up of these two different films in one experiment happened at very different
 530 moments.



531 (a) (b)

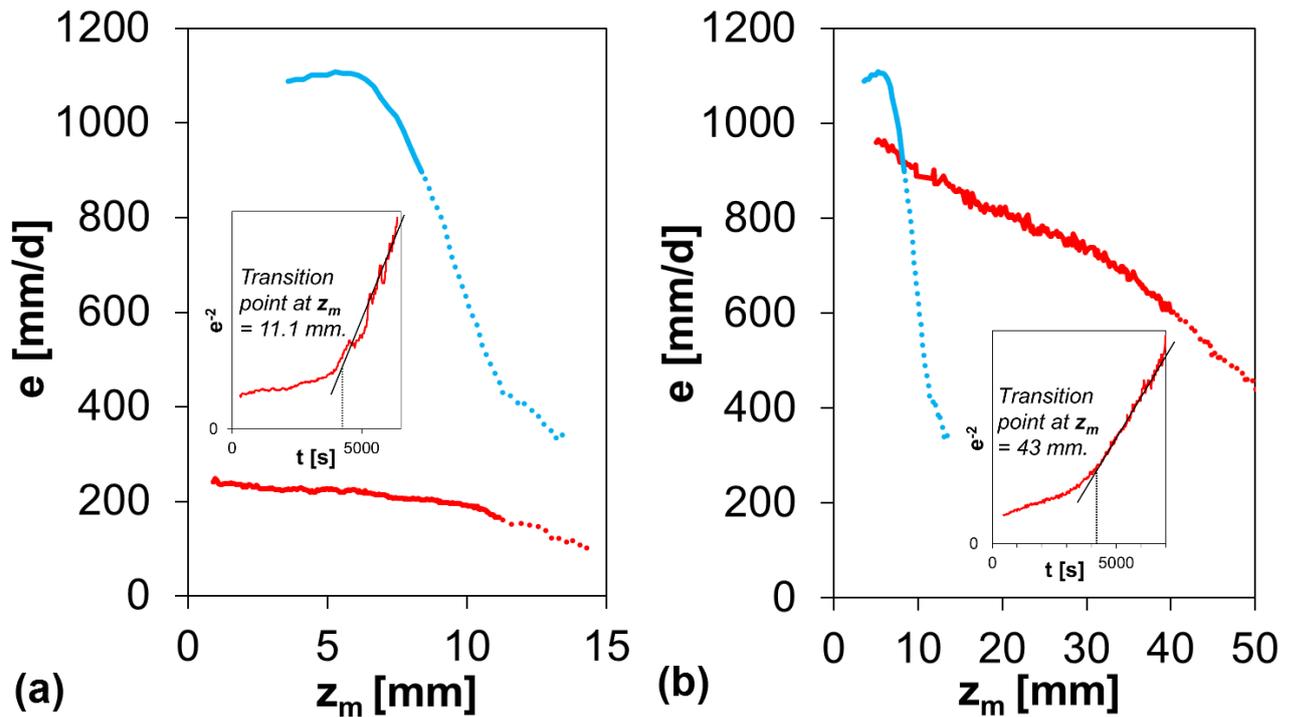
532 *Figure 6: Evolution of depth of the main meniscus z_m with time for single experiments of evaporation*
 533 *from a vertically orientated capillary ($d=1.0$ mm) for ethanol (a) and water (b). The gray band shows*
 534 *the range of z_m at which the different cornerfilms break. For ethanol they lie close together with*
 535 *values of 11.1 to 11.4 mm, whereas break-up depths for water show a much larger variation of 4.9 to*
 536 *8.3 mm. After break-up the slope decreases which corresponds to lower evaporation rates. The insets*
 537 *show high magnified images of the top of the capillary showing the liquid distribution (blue shaded)*
 538 *at different moments of the experiment for a) undyed ethanol and b) undyed water. Red arrows show*
 539 *the breakup point of the cornerfilm.*

540 Figure 7 shows the evaporation rate versus z_m for different experiments with ethanol highlighting the
 541 effect of increased viscous resistance for higher flow rates in (a) and the effect of gravity in (b). 7.a.

542 shows the evolution of z_m for two experiments differing in their external evaporative demand leading
543 to different initial drying rates e_0 . The blue line in 7.a. shows evaporation rates for an e_0 of 1080
544 mm/d while the red one had an e_0 of 220 mm/d. The meniscus depth at which films breakup is
545 indicated by the change from solid to dashed line. Increased e_0 has a clear effect on break up depth L_c
546 of the films. For the high evaporation rate films break up at 8.6 mm, while for the lower e_0 L_c is 11.1
547 mm. This is a result of increased viscous losses with increasing evaporation rates and the resulting
548 higher flow rates through the corner films that lead to a reduction in L_c . In Figure 7.b. the effect of
549 the magnitude of gravity opposing the capillary force is shown. The blue curve represents the same
550 data set for vertical configuration as the blue curve in fig. 7.a. while the red line shows the results for
551 a horizontal configuration. The initial evaporation rates for both experiments are similar, $e_0=1080$
552 mm/d and 950 mm/d for blue and red data respectively. However the break-up depth of the
553 horizontal experiment is much larger with its 43 mm as opposed to 8.6 mm of the blue curve,
554 showing the effect of decreasing gravity influence.

555 In both graphs of fig. 7 a time compression analysis of the red data sets is shown. In such analysis $\frac{1}{e^2}$
556 is plotted against time t where the graph is horizontal for advection dominated transport and
557 becomes linearly increasing as soon as diffusion is the dominant transport mechanism in stage 2 [23].
558 This way the moment where diffusion becomes dominant could be derived from the bent of the
559 graph. This moment corresponds with the moment of film break-up for the experiments. Note
560 however that in all experiments evaporation rates already start dropping before breakup of the films.

561



562

563 *Figure 7: Evolution of evaporation rate e with depth of the main meniscus z_m for different experiments*
 564 *of ethanol evaporation from a capillary of $d=1.0$ mm. The transition between continuous and dashed*
 565 *line represents the depth of cornerfilm detachment L_c . Insets show a time compression analysis for*
 566 *the red data sets where a clear bend in the slope indicates the transition to diffusion dominated*
 567 *transport after which the line becomes approximately linear. From comparison with the moment of*
 568 *film break-up it is found that this transition occurs at film break-up. Left figure shows measured e for*
 569 *two vertically orientated experiments but different initial drying rates e_0 of 220 mm/d (red) and 1080*
 570 *mm/d (blue). L_c decreases for increasing e_0 from 11.1 to 8.6 mm. Right figure shows the effect of*
 571 *capillary configuration for two experiments with $\varphi=90^\circ$ (blue) and $\varphi=0^\circ$ (red) and similar e_0 of 1080*
 572 *mm/d (blue) and 950 mm/d (red). L_c changes from 8.6 to 43 mm for vertical and horizontal case*
 573 *respectively showing the effect of gravity.*

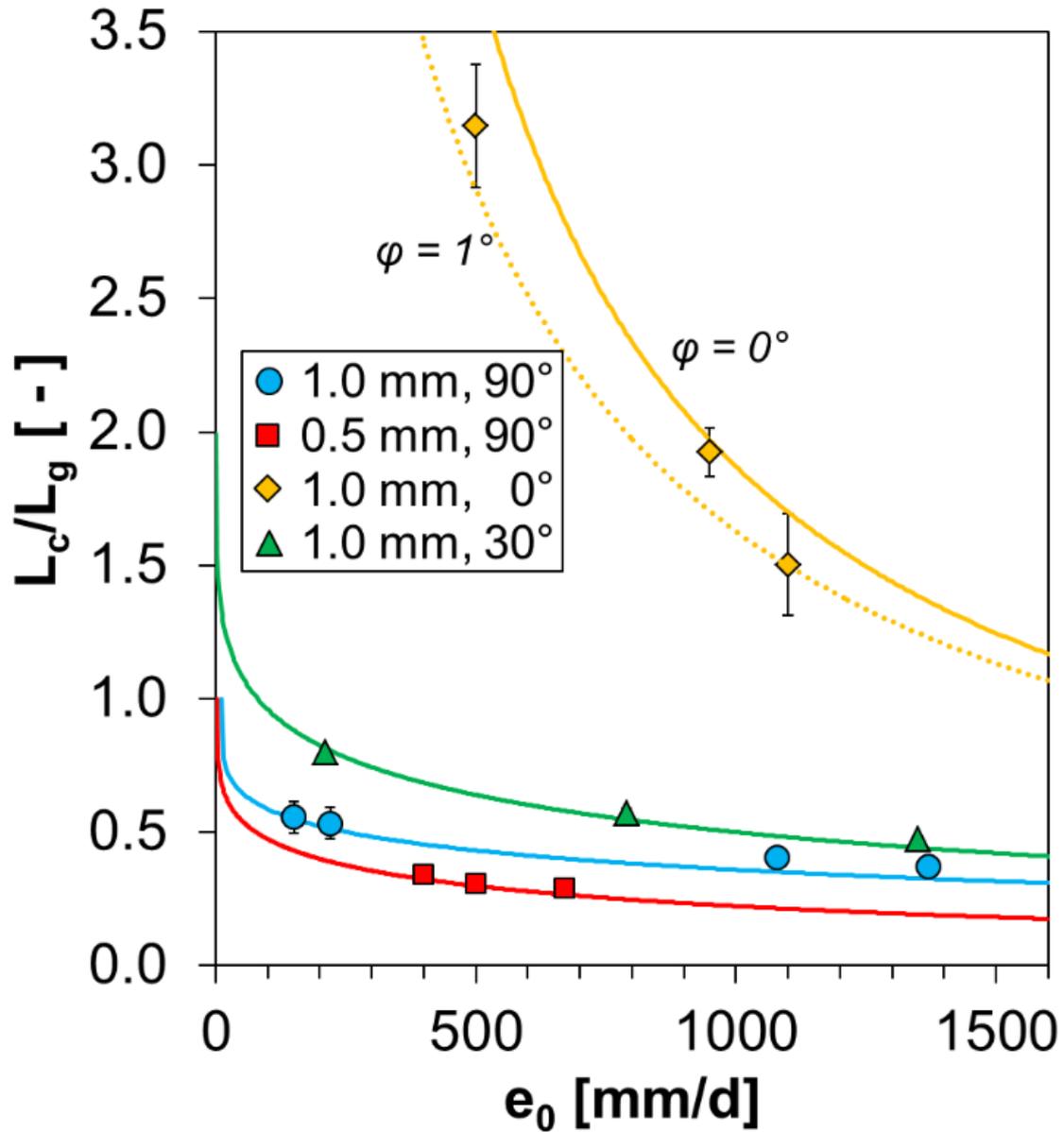
574 Figure 8 shows a comparison between model predictions of ethanol as well as the experimental
 575 results for L_c plotted against e_0 . Solid lines and markers are indicative for respectively model outcome
 576 and experimental results. On the vertical axis L_c is scaled to the gravity length L_G for the respective
 577 capillary size in vertical orientation. L_G follows from the difference between suction at the main

578 meniscus and at the surface where the latter is determined by r_0 . This leads to theoretical values of
579 L_G of 21.3 mm for the large capillary and 28.1 mm for the small. Blue and red series give results for a
580 vertical orientation ($\phi=90^\circ$) of the large capillary ($d = 1\text{mm}$) and small capillary ($d=0.5\text{ mm}$)
581 respectively. The green series gives the result for $\phi=30^\circ$ and the yellow for a horizontal configuration
582 ($\phi=0^\circ$), both for the large capillary.

583 For the error bars in the experimental results the standard deviation of different break-up depths of
584 the respective experiment is taken into account. The marker indicates the mean of all corner films for
585 which detachment could be monitored in this experiment. For the horizontal case error bars are
586 larger which is not because the range of break-up depths in different corners is larger, but because
587 the moment of break-up is more unclear in the high magnified images for such orientation. In a
588 horizontal case the gravity influence which has a stabilizing effect on the films is absent. In this case
589 films become increasingly thinner over a wide range of z_m while it can be seen from increased
590 formation of air bubbles along the films that diffusion from inside the medium is becoming
591 increasingly significant at the same time. We can thus argue that there is a larger transition time
592 between advection dominated and diffusion dominated transport where during this transition both
593 transport mechanisms are significant. This can be explained by the fact that under zero gravity
594 component opposing the films there is no force pulling them inside the capillary. The viscous losses
595 only lead to decreasing flow rates inside the films while diffusion can become important as well. In
596 this horizontal case the moment of detachment was derived from photos of the moment that films
597 got significantly thinner and a time compression analysis of the drying rates.

598 Model predictions and experimental results coincide very well. Only the yellow series shows some
599 significant deviation from the model predictions for a horizontal configuration. This is probably due
600 to the fact that for small ϕ a slight change in the significant gravity component has a large effect on
601 L_c . For an absolutely horizontal case L_c can in theory become infinity when there are no viscous losses
602 which is the case when there is no evaporation. However a slight change in angle adds the gravity
603 component which immediately defines a finite value for L_G . Therefore the model predictions for $\phi=1^\circ$

604 are included by the yellow dashed line, showing that the experimental results fall inside these two
 605 predictions.



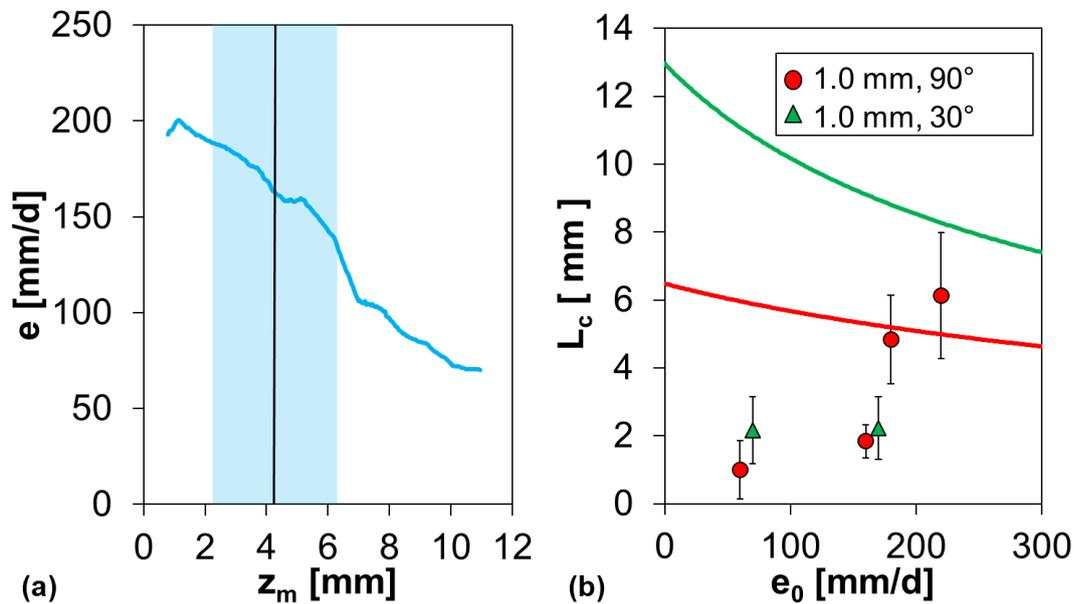
606

607 *Figure 8: Comparison of experimental and model results. L_c on the y axis is scaled to the calculated*
 608 *value of gravity length L_G where $L_G=21.3$ mm for large capillary ($d=1.0$ mm, $r_0=90$ μ m) and 28.1 mm*
 609 *for small capillary ($d=0.5$ mm, $r_0=58$ μ m) respectively. Markers and solid lines indicate experiments*
 610 *and model predictions respectively for different capillary orientations of $\varphi=0, 30,$ and 90° . The dashed*
 611 *yellow line gives model predictions for $\varphi=1^\circ$ ($d=1.0$ mm). L_c decreases with increasing e_0 and*
 612 *increasing φ .*

613 As stated earlier water behaved very different from ethanol during evaporation experiments from
614 the large capillary ($d=1.0$ mm). Films often did not break up at the surface of the capillary, but
615 instead closer to the meniscus. Furthermore the break-up of different corner films in one experiment
616 showed a large variation. Figure 9.a. shows evaporation rates versus time averaged from three
617 different experiments with similar e_0 around 200 mm/d of water evaporation for large capillary. This
618 averaging was done to smooth out the irregular behavior of water in the different experiments. The
619 black line indicates the average break-up depth of the corner films where the blue shaded area has a
620 width of two standard deviations as determined from all different corner film break-up depths of
621 these three experiments. It can still be seen that after film break-up drying rates show a significant
622 drop. Figure 9.b. shows predictions of the corner flow model for film break-up of water taking into
623 account the effect of nonzero contact angle θ on resistivity factor ϵ as well as on the limit of r at the
624 surface due to the rounded corner. Model predictions as well as experimental results are shown for
625 two different ϕ and large capillary. Experimental results deviate significantly from the model
626 predictions and the experiments do not show a trend of decreasing L_c with increases in e_0 and ϕ . We
627 can only say that the order of magnitude of model predictions and experimental results are in
628 agreement.

629 This complex behavior can mainly be explained by the nonzero contact angle. Changing the contact
630 angle from 0 to 30° changes both upper and lower integration boundaries h_d and h_{min} , reducing the
631 whole integration range with increasing θ . For the large capillary ($d= 1.0$ mm, $r_0= 90$ μ m), $\theta=0$ and
632 ethanol liquid properties the integration boundaries are $h_d=-10.9$ cm and $h_{min}=-32.1$ cm, while for
633 $\theta=30^\circ$ and water properties the integration range is reduced to $h_d=-23.8$ cm and $h_{min}= -30.2$ cm. Here
634 h_d is calculated by equation 4 and h_{min} by implementing r_{min} from equation 6 in the Young Laplace
635 equation. This poses a tighter mechanical range for water over which the films can exist, which
636 means that before L_c comes into the viscous limited range, it is already breaking up due to these
637 mechanical restrictions. This can be seen in the fact that in figure 9.b. the model predictions for L_c
638 only show a small declining trend with increasing e_0 . However the restriction to r at the top of the

639 capillary as stated in the model and in equation 6 deviates from reality. This is because close to the
640 top of the capillary the second direction of the radius of curvature becomes important because the
641 system adjusts to the singularity of the film tip at the surface. From the experimental images it can
642 be seen that at the top of the films the second radius of curvature has a different sign than the main
643 one. This means that the main radius of curvature r becomes equal to r_{\min} already at lower suction
644 than if this second radius is not taken into consideration. Thus the range of suction values at which
645 the films can exist becomes even smaller and this would lead to earlier film break-up in the
646 experiments than as predicted by the model. This is the case for most experimental results in figure
647 9.b. However since in this case the geometry of the corner is so restrictive to L_c slight variations in its
648 corner radius r_0 have a large effect on L_c . In other words, the break-up depth of the corner films is
649 highly sensitive to corner radius variations and other mechanical irregularities. Thus to study the
650 viscous effect on water corner films, a different capillary should have been used to provide for larger
651 suction range.



652 (a) 653 *Figure 9: Results for evaporation of water from large capillary ($d=1.0$ mm). a) shows the evolution of*
654 *drying rates composed of the average values of three similar experiments with identical e_0 to smooth*
655 *out the irregular behavior of water. The blue area represents the range of film break-up of different*
656 *corners, with the average represented by the black line and the width equal to two standard*

657 *deviations. After break-up of all films drying rates show a significant drop. b) shows a comparison of*
658 *experimental results (symbols) and model predictions (solid lines) of L_c for two different capillary*
659 *orientations ($\phi=90^\circ$ and 30°). Clearly water has a complicated behavior that is not reflected in the*
660 *model predictions. (L_G for the large capillary and water characteristics is 6.5 mm).*

661 **5. Discussion**

662

663 **5.1 Effects of gravity and viscous losses on L_c**

664 The gravity effect on L_c was studied by changing the inclination angle ϕ of the capillary giving results
665 for 3 different orientations as shown in figure 8. The horizontal configuration leads to the largest L_c
666 values since in this case only viscous losses are opposing capillary force. Model result for this
667 configuration predicts an infinite length if there is no evaporation since in such a case neither gravity
668 nor viscous losses oppose the capillary force. A vertical configuration leads to smallest L_c values
669 because the component of the gravity vector opposing capillary force is maximum in this case. With
670 decreasing initial evaporation rates the L_c values for vertical orientation approach gravity length L_g .
671 For the case of $\phi=30^\circ$ $\sin(\phi)$ equals 0.5, leading to a gravity component opposing flow which is half
672 the one in the vertical case. Therefore L_c becomes twice L_g for e_0 equal to 0 with this orientation.

673 Viscous losses become more significant with increasing e_0 since mass flux through the corner films
674 increases leading to higher resistance to flow. Because of increasing viscous effects model
675 predictions show a decreasing trend of L_c with increasing e_0 for all capillary configurations.
676 Experimental results correspond well to these model predictions and also show a decreasing trend
677 with increasing evaporation rates. The effect is most pronounced for the horizontal case since here L_c
678 is only determined by viscous losses due to flow. The experimentally determined L_c for e_0 of 500 and
679 1100 mm/d decreases roughly with a factor of 2 from 67 mm to 32 mm in this case.

680 **5.2 Effect of capillary geometry on L_c**

681 Two different capillary width d were used in the experiments with the initial aim to investigate the
682 effect of different capillary sizes. However the corners of the capillaries are slightly rounded where r_0
683 of the large capillary is significantly larger than that of the small one, 90 opposed to 58 μm . As
684 discussed r_0 has a large effect on L_c by firstly creating a limit on h at the surface, and secondly by
685 affecting the resistivity to flow, where the resistivity increases in a highly nonlinear way as the corner
686 films become thinner. Because of these nonlinear effects it is not possible to make a general
687 statement about the difference between small and large capillary. The smaller r_0 at the surface as
688 well as the smaller total capillary area leads to a different range of possible head values and
689 integration boundaries. The average thickness of the films for the small capillary is smaller due to
690 higher suctions which leads to smaller areas through which the liquid has to move, and thus more
691 flow resistance. On the other hand due to the smaller r_0 of the small capillary the resistivity factor ϵ
692 for thinner films is not as high as for the larger r_0 of the large capillary.

693 To have a simplified idea of influence of capillary size we can still make some hypothetical discussion
694 about this effect if the corners would have been sharp. The easiest situation to look at size effects is
695 the horizontally orientated capillary where only viscous losses are limiting the corner film length.
696 Capillary width d first of all influences h_d and thus the range of suction values over which the corner
697 films exist. Since h_d is inversely proportional to width d and the ratio of large to small capillary we
698 used is 2, it is twice as large for the small capillary. L_c follows from integration over the range of h
699 values from meniscus to surface which means this would have an effect on L_c . For the more negative
700 h values the films become thinner and resistance to flow increases. The relative importance of the
701 viscous losses thus becomes higher for smaller capillaries and this would have a decreasing effect on
702 L_c with decreasing d . On the other hand the total cross sectional area of the capillary decreases with
703 decreasing d which means that the total flux that must be sustained through each cross section of
704 the corner films becomes smaller for the same initial evaporation rate e_0 . This has an increasing
705 effect on L_c with decreasing d . For a sharp corner ϵ is a constant and for the case of ϕ equals 0 the
706 integral of equation 18 reduces to:

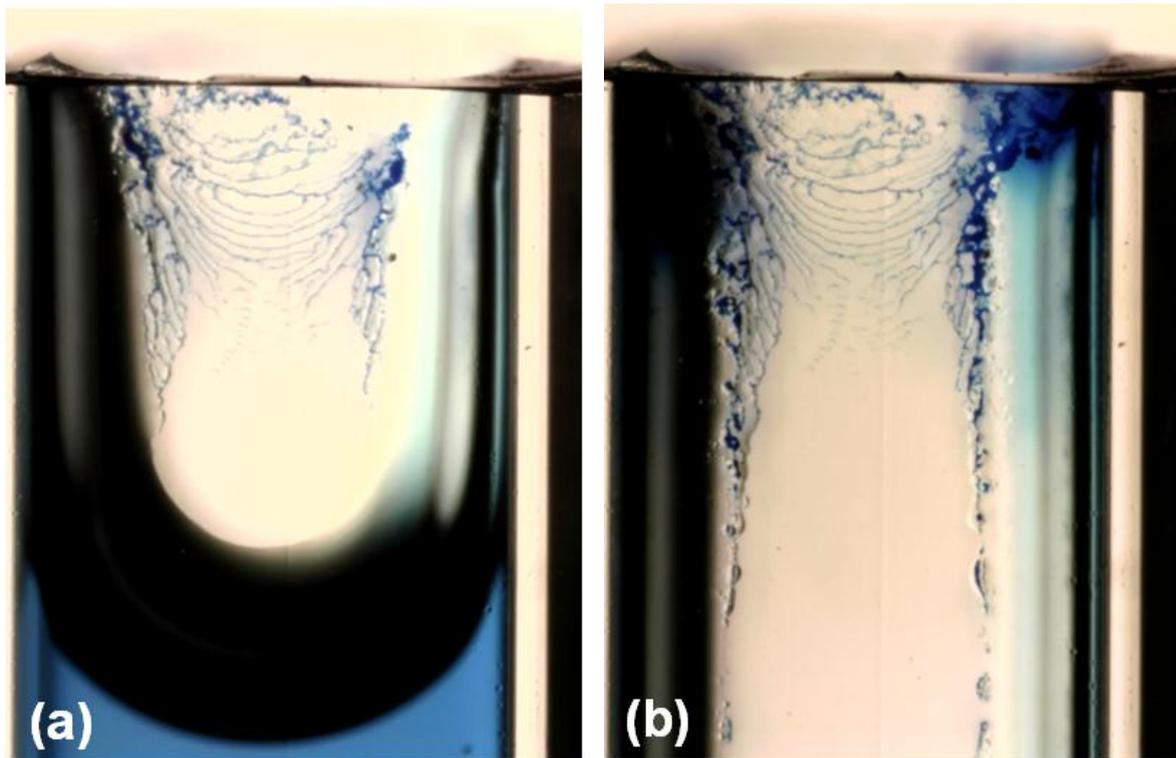
$$707 \int_{-\infty}^{h_d} \frac{F_n(\theta)\sigma^4}{\varepsilon e_0 A^{tot} \eta_0 (\rho g)^3 h^4} dh = L_v \sim \left[\frac{1}{A^{tot}} \frac{1}{h_d^3} \right] \quad (23)$$

708 This means that with a ratio of 2 of large to small capillary the length becomes twice as small for the
 709 smaller capillary. Thus the increased resistance to flow in the films of the smaller capillary is a
 710 stronger size effect than the decreased flux through the films when ε can be taken constant.

711 When gravity comes into play it becomes more complicated to predict the effect of capillary sizes
 712 since the increased range of head values for the larger capillary also leads to a larger mass in the
 713 corner films which has a shortening effect due to gravity acting on this extra mass.

714 **5.3 Patterns of dye deposition**

715 Experiments of evaporation of blue dyed ethanol served to get more insight into the locations where
 716 evaporation, the phase change from liquid to vapor, is taking place. One of the main assumptions of
 717 the model is that these phase changes only happen from the top of the films as long as these are
 718 present up to the surface, and not from inside the capillary. Figure 10 shows two images of the top of
 719 the capillary with 10.a. showing the main meniscus, and 10.b. showing the films just before break-up.
 720 Dye is deposited on the capillary wall at the locations where liquid goes into the vapor phase leaving
 721 a trace of the dye. It is thus an indicator of locations of diffusion. From the high magnified images it
 722 could be seen that dye deposition did not only take place at the top of the corner films but also along
 723 their boundaries up to a depth inside the capillary of the order of one to two capillary widths.
 724 Furthermore dye was deposited on the wall between the two corner films. This is because next to
 725 the thick corner films there are also adsorbed thin films on the capillary wall in the case of a perfectly
 726 wetting liquid like ethanol. Evaporation of these adsorbed thin films leaves a trace of dye deposited
 727 as curved lines above which the wall is completely dry.



728

729 *Figure 10: Two high magnified images of dye deposition during ethanol evaporation from a vertically*
 730 *orientated capillary ($d=1.0$ mm). a. Shows the main meniscus with the corner films extending to the*
 731 *surface. Dye is deposited on the sides of the thick films as well as on the boundary of the thin films of*
 732 *adsorbed liquid on the capillary wall. b. shows an image of the top of the films short before break-up*
 733 *showing that dye is mainly deposited at the top of the films.*

734 Tuller and Or [8] calculated the typical thicknesses of such thin adsorbed films on capillary walls by
 735 taking into account van der Waals forces only. They found typical thicknesses of 70 to 0.3 nm for
 736 matric potentials for wet and dry conditions respectively. This means they are at least a factor 100
 737 thinner than the corner films, and cannot give a significant contribution to evaporation flux during
 738 stage 1.

739 The fact that dye deposition does take place from inside the capillary while the corner films are still
 740 intact shows that it is a simplifying assumption to say that evaporation only takes place from the top
 741 of the corner films. In fact the area that we take for the top of the films is not present in reality since
 742 close to the capillary surface the second direction of curvature becomes important and at the surface

743 the films only exist in one point. However the good fit of model predictions and experimental results
744 for ethanol of figure 8 shows that it cannot give a large error to make such an assumption.

745 **5.4 Drying rates**

746 In general it could be seen from the drying rate evolution with z_m that drying rates are high in the
747 beginning and start their drop already slightly before film detachment from the surface. Then they
748 drop significantly to much lower drying rates. Such a pattern is similar to the two drying stages of
749 porous media, where the first stage has high drying rates. The high initial drying rates from the
750 capillary can be attributed to advective transport through the corner films. As soon as the location
751 from which evaporation takes place moves inside the capillary the drying rates become much lower
752 and keep dropping since diffusional distance is increasing.

753 In the first stage of drying before film detachment, rates are not always absolutely constant but often
754 show a slight drop. Therefore initial drying rate e_0 , which is a model input, was taken as the average
755 value of the rates in this initial stage before the film break-up. In some cases there was a clear
756 plateau value to which drying rates dropped and then remained more or less constant on this value
757 before film break-up. In these cases this plateau value is taken for initial evaporation rate e_0 . For
758 horizontal configuration drying rates were always dropping from the beginning, in this case the initial
759 value at the beginning of the experiment was taken as e_0 .

760 The fact that drying rates already start dropping before film detachment means that the model
761 assumption of constant fluxes as long as the films extend to the surface is in fact an
762 oversimplification. This drop in drying rates could be due to limitations by the coupling between the
763 liquid filled patches in the capillary corners and the atmospheric boundary layer above. Since the
764 surface of the capillary is increasingly drying out the liquid filled areas might become too small to
765 sustain the original high drying rate at the beginning of the drying process.

766 As a final note on drying rates it is quite remarkable that rates can have the high values as
767 determined from the experiments. We can make some calculations to show that these drying rates

768 are in fact possible because evaporation is not happening from a wide pool of liquid ethanol, but
 769 instead from four different point sources, namely the tips of the four corner films. This means that
 770 there is not only a vapor concentration gradient in the vertical direction but in all directions around
 771 these point sources leading to much higher drying rates. We present these calculations here.

772 Firstly we can determine the potential evaporation from a free surface covered by ethanol. The
 773 diffusive flux J_G across the atmospheric boundary layer of thickness δ equals the mass ΔM
 774 transported through cross section ΔA per time interval Δt and is defined by Fick's law:

$$775 \quad J_G = \frac{\Delta M}{\Delta A \Delta t} = -D \frac{\Delta c}{\delta} \quad (24)$$

776 with diffusion coefficient D and an ethanol concentration difference in the gas phase Δc (the
 777 negative sign defines an upwards directed gas flow for decreasing concentration in upwards
 778 direction). The diffusive flux of ethanol can be expressed as evaporation rate e_0 with density of liquid
 779 ethanol ρ and volume ΔV as:

$$780 \quad e_0 = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta A \Delta t} = -\frac{D}{\rho} \frac{\Delta c}{\delta} \quad (25)$$

781 The mass of ethanol in the gas phase is defined by saturated vapor pressure p_s at the surface and
 782 equals 0 at the top of the boundary layer. For a small gas volume V_U , the mass of ethanol M_U
 783 within this vapor saturated volume can be deduced from the universal gas law:

$$784 \quad p_s V_U = \frac{M_U}{M_M} RT \rightarrow M_U = \frac{p_s V_U M_M}{RT} \quad (26)$$

785 with molar Mass M_M , gas constant R , and temperature T . The concentration gradient across the
 786 boundary layer (where ethanol vapor concentration is zero) can be expressed as function of M_U and
 787 V_U and inserted in equation 25:

$$788 \quad e_0 = -\frac{D}{\rho} \frac{p_s M_M}{RT} \frac{1}{\delta} \quad (27)$$

789 For high air velocities the thickness of the boundary layer is expected to be very thin, especially due
 790 to short lateral distances along the capillary that limit the evolution of thick boundary layers. For
 791 boundary layer thicknesses ranging between 0.1 and 1.0 mm, a density of liquid ethanol ρ of 789 kg
 792 m^{-3} , vapor pressure for ethanol of $p_s = 8000$ Pa, temperature of 298 °K, molar mass M_M of 0.0461
 793 kg/Mol, and diffusion coefficient of ethanol in air D of $1.1 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ the evaporation rate ranges
 794 between 1800 and 180 mm/day.

795 In addition, it must be taken into account that in the experiments ethanol is not evaporating from a
 796 large pool of liquid but from a small capillary of size d within a large volume of surrounding
 797 atmosphere. To apply the concept of Schlünder [24] to estimate evaporation from a liquid filled
 798 patch within an area of size L with boundary layer, we firstly express the square shape capillary size
 799 d by a circular structure of radius r with identical cross-section:

$$800 \quad \pi r^2 = d^2 \rightarrow r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{\pi}} \quad (28)$$

801 According to Schlünder [24], the evaporation rate from a square of size L with a wet element of size
 802 r equals:

$$803 \quad e = e_0 \frac{1}{1 + \frac{2r}{\pi \delta} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\phi}} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\phi}} - 1 \right)} \quad (29)$$

804 with evaporation rate from free ethanol surface e_0 , and the cross-sectional fraction of wet patch ϕ
 805 that can be expressed by L and d . The evaporation rate e assigned to the total area L^2 originates
 806 from evaporation from the wet area d^2 , with evaporation rate e_p related to the water-filled cross-
 807 section (after a few calculation steps):

$$808 \quad e_p = e_0 \frac{2\pi \delta L^2}{d \left(-2dL + L^2 \sqrt{\pi} + 2d\delta\pi \right)} \quad (30)$$

809 For a relatively low drying rate of 180 mm/day and a boundary layer thickness of 1 mm, the
 810 evaporation rate per pore e_p reaches a maximum for $L = 2\delta\pi$ of 700 mm/day. To summarize:

811 While extreme evaporation rates above 1000 mm/day are caused by thin boundary layers for high air
812 flow velocities, rates of a few hundreds mm per day are supported by large spacings and formation
813 of a spherical vapor shell around the capillary.

814 **5.5 link to real porous media**

815 The square capillary model provides a tool to study the basic physical mechanics that limit the
816 duration of stage 1 and limit the extent of a capillary sustained film region in which flow can occur.
817 Similar drying dynamics will be observed in all kinds of angular capillary geometries since capillarity in
818 such geometries leads to the presence of thick corner films leading to advection dominated stage 1.
819 This type of films is an important constituent of the film region in real porous media since pores are
820 in general angular shaped instead of perfectly circular. However the extent of the corner films in a
821 single angular capillary cannot directly lead to quantitative conclusions of film region extent in real
822 porous media. The maximum extent of the corner films in our experiments is in the end highly
823 dependent on capillary geometry. A different capillary cross section, for example triangular, would
824 influence this maximum film length L_c , but also the rounded corners showed to have a large effect on
825 film length. Thus to use this model to simulate drying from a real medium as a bundle of different
826 angular fibers requires a lot of detailed knowledge on medium structure of pore sizes and pore
827 geometry. A future aim could be to upscale these results and define a certain average angularity of
828 the pores in the medium as well as a pore size distribution and tortuosity which affects the direction
829 of the gravity component in each section of the film.

830 A simple application of the model could be to represent the entire film region with the square
831 capillary, by choosing capillary size and corner radius r_0 in an appropriate way. The capillary size
832 defined by width d determines at which suction the capillary becomes air invaded, and thus would
833 need to be fitted to the air entry value of the macroscale medium. r_0 defines the suction at which the
834 film region would retreat from the surface if only gravity force opposing capillary force is considered.
835 This suction could for example be the air entry value of the smallest pores at the surface of the

836 porous medium. In this way the range of suction values at which there are corner films in the single
837 capillary represents the whole pore size distribution of the real porous medium.

838 **6. Summary and Conclusion**

839

840 Evaporation of the two liquids ethanol and water was studied from a single glass capillary with
841 square cross section. Such a capillary geometry shows the same drying stages as drying from real
842 porous media with an advection dominated stage 1 where drying rates are high, followed by
843 diffusion dominated stage 2 with constantly dropping drying rates. The break-up of corner films that
844 are present in the capillary corners determines the transition between these two stages. This is
845 reflected in high drying rates before break-up, followed by a significant drop during the break-up of
846 the films. The corner films provide the pathways between main meniscus and capillary surface
847 through which the liquid can flow. Similar dynamics can be observed in drying from real porous
848 media, where a capillary sustained film region can provide the interconnected liquid pathways for
849 advective transport. Corner films in the square capillary provide an analogue for this film region,
850 while the main meniscus can be compared to the retreating drying front in real porous media.

851 A modeling approach was developed to predict a characteristic maximum extent of liquid corner
852 films L_c that develop in angular capillaries during the process of liquid evaporation. L_c was
853 determined by a balance between capillary force retaining the liquid in the corners, opposed by
854 gravity and viscous losses. Reducing the gravity component that opposes the capillary force by
855 orienting the capillary in smaller angles with the horizontal plane leads to larger values for L_c . Viscous
856 losses only come into play as soon as flow occurs through the films leading to smaller L_c values for
857 increased evaporation rates due to higher flow resistances.

858

859 Experiments on ethanol evaporation showed that the model is predicting L_c values pretty well.

860 Underlying simplifying assumptions of the model are a constant drying flux before film break-up and

861 phase change of liquid to vapor only taking place at the tips of the films. In the experiments it turned
862 out to be that drying rates already start dropping slightly before film break-up. Limitations from
863 coupling between capillary surface and atmospheric boundary layer is a possible explanation. Dye
864 deposition patterns show that diffusion/ phase changes are taking place along the corner film
865 interface up to a certain depth inside the capillary of maximum twice the capillary width. These
866 observations show that the model assumptions are indeed simplifying the actual drying process but
867 the agreement between experimental and modeling results show that this is not affecting L_c
868 predictions significantly.

869 Experiments with water show that the nonzero contact angle leads to more irregular behavior as
870 opposed to ethanol evaporation. Film break-up of different corners had a large variation and usually
871 occurred somewhere halfway the film. Also there was no trend in experimental results with
872 increased evaporation rates. A possible explanation is that the films in this case have a smaller
873 suction range over which they can exist, which makes them already break up due to mechanical
874 limitations before viscous losses become very significant. This makes them also highly sensitive to
875 small variations in corner radii and explains why they seem to be unaffected by different evaporation
876 rates.

877 To use the corner flow model for representing a porous medium as a bundle of angular capillaries
878 requires detailed knowledge of pore geometries and sizes. However a simple application could be to
879 represent drying from a real porous medium by choosing capillary width d and corner radius r_0 wisely
880 such that the suction range over which the films exist represents all pore sizes and their air entry
881 values.

882

883

884 **Summary of units and values of different parameters**

Property	Symbol	Unit
Capillary width	d	m
Gravitational acceleration	g	9.81 m/s^2
Drainage snap-off radius	r_d	m
Capillary corner radius	r_0	m
Critical head value	h_d	m
Head value at which $r = r_0$	h_{\min}	m
Roundedness	R_0	-
Capillary corner half angle	α	$\pi/2$
Initial evaporation rate	e_0	m/s
Cross-sectional area of the capillary	A^{tot}	m^2
Radius of curvature coefficient	C_{nd}	-
Angularity factor	F_n	-

885

7. Acknowledgements

886
887 This research was conducted at the Soil and Terrestrial Environmental Physics (STEP) group at ETH
888 Zürich, Switzerland. I would like to thank prof. Dani Or and dr. Peter Lehmann from the STEP group
889 for their great supervision on my masters research. Their critical guidance and good ideas have made
890 me get the best out of my seven months stay at the ETH. I got a lot of opportunities to form a clear
891 view on academic research including the chance to go to the European General Union Assembly 2012
892 in Vienna with a poster presentation. Also the technicians of the STEP laboratory, Hans Wunderli and
893 Daniel Breitenstein, were of great help when I was having all the sorts of problems that can come up
894 when performing experiments.

895 I would also like to thank prof. ir. Majid Hassanizadeh for his guidance throughout my master in
896 Environmental Hydrogeology at the University of Utrecht. His broad academic network and interest
897 in his students has brought me this opportunity to conduct my research abroad.

8. References

898
899

- [1] P. Lehmann, S. Assouline and D. Or, *Phys. Rev. E*, **77**, 056309, (2008).
- [2] G. W. Scherer, *J. Am. Ceram. Soc.*, **73**, 3, (1990).
- [3] J. Van Brakel, in *Advances in Drying*, New York, Hemisphere, (1980), p. 217.
- [4] S. Suzuki and S. Maeda, *J. Chem. Eng. Jpn.*, **1**, 26, (1968).
- [5] N. Shokri, P. Lehmann and D. Or, *Water Resour. Res.*, **45**, W10433, (2009).
- [6] A. G. Yiotis, A. K. Stubos, A. G. Boudouvis and I. N. Y. C. Tsimpanogiannis, *Transp. Porous Media*, **58**, 63, (2005).
- [7] A. G. Yiotis, A. G. Boudouvis, A. K. Stubos, I. N. Tsimpanogiannis und Y. C. Yortsos, *Phys. Rev. E*, **68**, 037303, (2003).
- [8] M. Tuller and D. Or, *Water Resour. Res.*, **37**, 1257, (2001).
- [9] A. G. Yiotis, A. K. Stubos, A. G. Boudouvis and Y. C. Yortsos, *Adv. Water Resour.*, **24**, 439, (2001).
- [10] J. B. Laurindo and M. Prat, *Chem. Eng. Sci.*, **53**, 2257, (1997).

- [11] M. Prat, *Int. J. Heat Mass Transfer*, **50**, 1455, (2007).
- [12] F. Chauvet, P. Duru, S. Geoffroy and M. Prat, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, **103**, 124502, (2009).
- [13] G. Mason and N. R. Morrow, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **141**, 1, (1991).
- [14] M. Tuller, D. Or and M. Dudley, *Water Resour. Res.*, **35**, 7, (1999).
- [15] D. Or and M. Tuller, *Water Resour. Res.*, **35**, 3591, (1999).
- [16] M. Dong and I. Chatzis, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **172**, 278, (1995).
- [17] F. Chauvet, P. Duru and M. Prat, *Phys. Fluids*, **22**, 112113, (2010).
- [18] T. C. Ransohoff and C. J. Radke, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **121**, 392, (1987).
- [19] Y. Chen and M. M. N. C. L. Weislogel, *J. Fluid Mech.*, **566**, 235, (2006).
- [20] D. Zhou, M. Blunt and F. M. Orr, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **187**, 11, (1996).
- [21] G. Mason and N. R. Morrow, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **141**, 262, (1991).
- [22] J. Bico and D. Quéré, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **247**, 162, (2002).
- [23] W. Brutsaert and D. Chen, *Water Resour. Res.*, **31**, 1305, (1995).
- [24] E. U. Schlünder, *Chem. Eng. sci.*, **43**, 2685, (1988).

900

901

902