Experimental investigation into the impact of a liquid droplet onto a granular bed using three-dimensional, time-resolved, particle tracking

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An experimental investigation has been carried out into the interaction that occurs between an impacting water-droplet and a granular bed of loose graded sand. High-speed imaging, three-dimensional time-resolved particle tracking, and photogrammetric surface profiling have been used to examine individual impact events. The focus of the study is the quantification and trajectory analysis of the particles ejected from the sand bed, along with measurement of the change in bed morphology. The results from the experiments have detailed two distinct mechanisms of particle ejection: the ejection of water-encapsulated particles from the edge of the wetted region, and the ejection of dry sand from the periphery of the impact crater. That the process occurs by these two distinct mechanisms has hitherto been unobserved. Presented in the paper are distributions of the particle ejection velocities, angles and transport distances for both mechanisms. The ejected water-encapsulated particles, which are few in number, are characterized by low ejection angles and high ejection velocities, leading to large transport distances; the ejected dry particles, which are much greater in number, are characterized by high ejection angles and low velocities, leading to lower transport distances. From the particle ejection data, the momentum of the individual ballistic sand particles has been calculated; it was found that only 2% of the water-droplet momentum at impact is transferred to the ballistic sand particles. In addition to the particle tracking, surface profiling of the granular bed post-impact has provided detailed information on its morphology; these data have demonstrated the consistent nature of the craters produced by the impact, and suggest that particle agglomerations released from their edges make up about twice the number of particles involved in ballistic ejection. It is estimated that overall, about 4% of the water-droplet momentum is taken up in particle movement.

I. INTRODUCTION

The impact of a liquid droplet onto a bed of granular media is a highly complex interaction in which the mechanisms of energy transfer are difficult to quantify. Even considering the simplified case of a solid projectile, granular systems have been shown to exhibit particularly abstruse rheology, demonstrating both solid-like and liquid-like responses to external impact [1, 2]. Many studies have investigated this complex response of granular media to solid impact, looking at both bed morphology [2-4] and the ejection of particles [5, 6], considerably adding to our understanding. However, such studies provide limited insight into the additional complexities provided by a liquid projectile, in which deformation and break-up of the droplet, in conjunction with its penetration into the granular medium, has considerable influence on the transfer of energy. The case of a droplet hitting a granular medium has been well documented for the specific case of rain-splash transport in soil-erosion studies, with several papers looking at the process of grain transport [7-9] as well as crater formation [10]. Even though this process of splash transport has received considerable attention, little is known about the transfer of momentum between droplets and granular media [9] with only a few recent studies investigating the fundamental interactions involved [9, 11-13]. The aim of the work presented in this paper is to provide further insight into this complex interaction between a droplet and a granular medium, and to derive the momentum transfer that occurs during an impact event. To this end, the movement of the particles ejected from a sand bed during a droplet impact has been recorded and analyzed for four separate events, enabling the momentum transfer from the water to the ejected sand to be calculated.

The nature of the interaction that occurs between the water and the sand is controlled by a large number of variables such as droplet size, impact velocity, fluid viscosity, surface tension, grain size, grain shape and packing density. However, for this study, all of these variables were kept constant, with four runs made of the same individual interaction, in order to examine the complexities of the event. To investigate the interaction that occurs, three techniques were used: i) High-speed imaging of the impact, looking at the movement of both the water and the sand, so that the development of the interaction can be understood; ii) Three-dimensional, time-resolved particle tracking of the ejected sand grains, so that particle ejection velocity, angle and total transport distance can be measured; and iii) Surface profiling of the impact crater and the large clumps of sand transported from the crater edge, so that the change in bed morphology produced by the impact can be examined.

II. THE EXPERIMENTS

The experiments carried out in this study consisted of a 3.6 mm diameter droplet of water impacting on a bed of graded sand which had a grain size ranging from 150 to 160 μm. This droplet size was selected as it is typical of the size found in high-intensity, erosive rainfall [14]. The droplet was formed by displacing water through a blunt-ended tube, 0.8 mm in external diameter, using a stepper
motor-driven plunger; the rotational speed and distance of the motor was controlled in order to produce repeatable drop formation. The water-droplet detached from the tube tip and fell under gravity through a distance of 3m onto the sand bed, reaching a velocity of 6.45 m s\(^{-1}\) before impact. High velocity impact (within the limit of terminal velocity) is of specific interest when investigating droplet impact due to the high level of energy available for bed deformation and material transport. Terminal velocity for this size of droplet is 8.6 m s\(^{-1}\) \[15\]; a velocity unavailable at the time of testing due to height restrictions. The droplet fell through a 35 mm internal-diameter tube for the majority of its descent in order to prevent any local air movement from causing lateral drop movement. The sand particles were held within a container with internal dimensions of 160 by 160 by 15 mm, placed upon a levelled surface. The sand was dried and poured into the container without compaction, the excess being scraped from the surface by a straight edge to produce a flat, level surface prior to impact. This process produced a packing density (\(\phi\)) of 0.50. A light gate was positioned below the droplet-generation tube in order to trigger the recording equipment after the droplet was released.

### III. DROPLET IMPACT IMAGING

To gain insight into the process of a liquid droplet impacting upon a granular bed, high-speed imaging was carried out. Three different imaging techniques were utilized in this study: i) Whole-field imaging, in which the impact region is illuminated so that the sand bed, water-droplet and ejecta were all visible; ii) Fluorescence imaging, in which fluorescent dye was added to water so that, with the use of filters, only the water was visible in the images, and iii) Ejecta imaging, in which the illuminating light was directed parallel to the bed so that, after some image processing, only particles ejected from the bed surface were visible.

#### A. Whole-field imaging

Whole-field imaging of the impact event is shown in figure 1. The images were acquired using a Photron APX-RS camera, running at 10,000 frames per second with a resolution of 512 by 512 pixels, fitted with a 105 mm macro lens. The camera was mounted to look down on the impact region at an angle of 50° to the sand bed, providing a view of both the crater formation and the ejected material. The image region was approximately 23 mm by 30 mm in size. Illumination was provided by a fiber-coupled copper-vapor laser synchronized to the camera frame rate. The light was directed onto the bed from a position slightly below and to the left of the camera. In figure 2 every 20th image recorded is presented (providing a 2 ms interval between frames) so that sufficient development of the interaction can be shown; only images from the first ~20 ms are displayed, it takes ~85 ms for all movement to finish.

Figure 1 shows the droplet hitting the granular bed and deforming in impact (frame b). It is apparent that rapid penetration of the liquid into the granular layer occurs, displacing the air between the grains and forming a slurry of sand and water (frame c), referred to by Furbish et al \[9\], as a 'mat' of wetted grains. As the water impacts and penetrates, the granular bed itself is deformed as momentum is transferred from the liquid to the sand, creating a shallow crater in the surface. The crater formed in the sand bed rapidly increases in radial diameter during the early stages of the interaction (frames b to e) as the water, unable to make further progression through the sand bed, undergoes momentum transfer from vertical to lateral movement. During the radial expansion of the crater, ejecta from the edge of the sand/water mixture lining the crater are released, a process that can be seen to start in frame c.

**FIG. 1.** Image sequence of a 4mm water-droplet hitting a granular bed of sand 150-160 µm diameter sand particles at a velocity of 6.5 m s\(^{-1}\)
These ejecta have a high velocity (greater than 2 m s\(^{-1}\)), moving rapidly through the image region; they are looked at in more detail in section IIIB. As the radial diameter of the crater continues to grow and penetration of the water continues, a point is reached at which the mixture of sand and water has insufficient liquid to encapsulate any more grains fully, given the surface tension of the liquid. Therefore, as expansion of the crater continues and the encapsulated grains move further apart, the surface tension of the water holding the grains together is overcome. As a result, the mat of wetted sand starts to break up into sections, revealing dry sand through the cracks. These cracks therefore appear as lighter areas between the darker wet regions (frame e onwards). Part of this break-up process results in a few small agglomerations of wet sand leaving the edge of the crater, some acting like large projectiles, others bouncing or rolling away from the lip. In addition to movement of sand grains that come into direct contact with the liquid, there is an ejection of dry sand grains from the periphery of the mat of wetted grains, although they are difficult to identify from the still images of figure 1. These particles are first noticeable in frame 1e and appear to originate from under the water-penetrated layer, displaced by the downward pressure of the droplet impact and the resistance of the lower bed to vertical movement. This ejection of particles is examined in more detail in section IIIC.

B. Fluorescence imaging

Fluorescence imaging of the impact event is shown in figure 2. This technique was employed in order to visualize the movement, penetration and break-up of the water during the impact event. In order to show only the water movement, a small quantity of Rhodamine 640 perchlorate was mixed with the droplet water so that the water fluoresced at a wavelength substantially above the incidental light. A long-pass filter was then positioned in front of the camera lens so that only the light from the fluorescing water could pass through to the camera, rejecting the light scattered from the sand. A copper-vapor laser, producing light at 510.6 nm and 578.2 nm, was used as the illumination source, resulting in the water fluorescing in the 605-633 nm range. The images were acquired using a Photron APX-RS camera, running at 10,000 frames per second with a resolution of 512 by 512 pixels, fitted with a 105 mm macro lens. The camera was mounted at the same angle as the whole field imaging (50° to the bed) but the image region size was reduced to approximately 20 mm by 26 mm. In figure 2 every 5th image recorded is presented (providing a 0.5 ms interval between frames) so that sufficient development of the water movement could be shown; only images from the first ~5 ms are displayed.
From the image sequence shown in figure 2, the deformation and rapid penetration of the droplet can be clearly seen. By frame 2d, a time span of just 1.1 ms from impact, the droplet has penetrated into the sand revealing the texture of the granular material without a smooth liquid layer sitting above it. During this initial stage of the impact, splash droplets are ejected from the impact region (frames 2b and 2c) that are smaller than the grain size of the bed, demonstrating their composition to be entirely liquid. As the interaction continues, and the wetted region expands radially, the edge of the water/sand mixture starts to 'finger' in a similar manner to that found with liquid hitting a solid surface and producing a splash crown [16]. The fingering process of the water/sand slurry is considerably less pronounced than that of pure liquid, with the finger ligaments rapidly breaking up into discrete ejecta. The sizes of the ejecta produced vary between slightly larger than an individual sand grain, up to around three sand grains in diameter; the non-spherical shape of some of them indicating a composition of both sand and water. The break-up of the wetted sand mat, seen in frame 2f onwards, shows that the periphery of the wetted region is only a few grains of sand deep and water has not penetrated beyond this point.

C. Ejecta imaging

Imaging of ejecta from the droplet impact is shown in figure 3. For this imaging technique, the illumination was provided by multiple pulsed LEDs positioned around the impact event. Each LED was fitted with a focusing lens and oriented so that the light was projected horizontal to the sand bed; an arrangement which resulted in strong illumination of the ejecta but minimal illumination of the bed surface. Post-processing of the image sequence was carried out by comparing each frame to an image of the bed before the droplet impact, thus removing any illumination of the static sand bed. The images were acquired using a Photron SA3 camera, running at 2,000 frames per second, with a resolution of 1024 by 1024 pixels fitted with a 105 mm macro lens. The camera was mounted to look down on the impact region at an angle of 60° to the sand bed and the image region size was approximately 60 by 64 mm. In figure 3 every 6th image recorded is presented (providing a 3 ms interval between frames) so that sufficient development of the ejection process can be shown; only images from the first ~40 ms are displayed.

FIG. 3. Imaging of the ejecta from a 4 mm water-droplet hitting a granular bed of sand 150-160 µm diameter sand particles at a velocity of 6.5 m s⁻¹.
The ejecta-imaging technique reveals the release of projectiles from the impact event with greater clarity than either the whole-field imaging or the fluorescence-imaging techniques. With this approach, the three main forms of particle release are visible: the early release of ejecta from the edge of the wetted sand mat (frame 3b), the dry discrete sand particles from the periphery of the crater (frame 3d onwards), and the movement of particle agglomerations breaking off from the wetted region (frame 3f onwards). The release of the small water-droplets, recorded in the fluorescence imaging, can be seen faintly in frame 3b towards the top of the image. The water/sand ejecta, released from the edge of the wetted region, move rapidly through the image area from frame 3b onwards and move outside the recorded region before coming to rest; however, there are relatively few ejecta involved in this form of release. In contrast, the dry particles released by the impact (frame 3d onwards) do not appear to travel very far, the majority coming to rest within the 30mm radial distance shown in the image region, but there are significantly more of them. It is interesting to note that the spatial distribution of the dry ejecta displays a star-like structure, similar in spacing to the ligaments produced in the sand/water slurry earlier in the event. The agglomerations of particles breaking off from the wetted mat can be seen to be released from the crater edge as it reaches its maximum radial diameter, rolling and bouncing across the sand surface. Few agglomerations are released but, due to their size, they make a considerable contribution to the mass transport away from the impact region. This contribution is quantified in section VI.

IV. 3D PARTICLE TRACKING

In order to investigate the transfer of momentum to the sand particles, 3-dimensional time-resolved particle tracking was used to measure the movement of the ejected particles after the droplet impact. For these measurements, three high-speed Photron SA3 cameras were used to record the impact event from three different angles simultaneously, at a rate of 2000 frames per second and a resolution of 1024 by 1024 pixels. These spatially calibrated images were then used to triangulate the individual particle positions using the DaVis software from LaVision.Gmbh. The cameras were mounted to look down on the sand bed at an angle of 60° to the surface and 120° from each other. Macro lenses with a 105 mm focal length were fitted to the cameras, providing an image region approximately 90 mm by 90 mm. Scheimflug mounts were used in conjunction with the lenses in order to create a focal plane parallel to the sand bed for each camera. With this experimental setup, and allowing for diffraction of the particle images, each of the 150-160 µm particles had a 2 pixel diameter, allowing sub-pixel triangulation of position; i.e. less than ± 88 µm. Increasing the spatial resolution beyond this level was found not to yield a great improvement in positional accuracy. This lack of improvement was due to the non-spherical nature of the grains creating variation in the centroid position of each grain between camera images, thus limiting triangulation accuracy. Illumination of the scattered particles was provided by using pulsed LEDs, in the same configuration as the ejecta imaging. The LEDs were synchronized to the frame rate of the cameras, with a pulse-duration of 50 µs per frame. This arrangement resulted in clear images of the particles, with spatial movement between frames short enough to track their movement. An example of the resultant particle position tracks recorded can be seen in figure 4.

It can be seen from figure 4 that, due to the limitations of the image resolution required, some of the particle tracks leave the measurement region before the particles return to the bed surface. In addition, the region close to the point of particle ejection cannot be fully resolved due to the particle density, and some tracks contain breaks where crossing particles obscure a camera’s viewpoint. In order to compensate for these issues, a Matlab program was written to analyze each particle track and fit a 3rd order polynomial trajectory to its movement. This polynomial trajectory was then used to establish particle start position, first impact point of the particle returning to the bed, ejection angle and ejection velocity. As shown in figure 5, a third order fit to the particles’ trajectory is required in order to take into account aerodynamic drag on the particles’ motion, shifting it from a parabolic to a cubic arc.

FIG. 4. (Color online) Particle-location tracks produced from a water-droplet hitting a sand bed, particles are colored by velocity in m s⁻¹

![Particle轨道图](image)

FIG. 5. Example particle motion with the corresponding 3rd order polynomial fit to its trajectory, Coefficient of determination (R²) = 0.99993.

The occurrence of particle bounce and secondary particle ejection is not investigated in this study; however, the recorded particle tracks demonstrate that such effects do significantly influence total particle-transport distances.

The particle tracks shown in figure 4 demonstrate two distinct types of movement: a) high velocity, low ejection angle, high displacement, b) low velocity, high ejection angle, low displacement. Plotting these two parameters of ejection velocity and angle against each other for each
particle, as shown in figure 6, the two distinct populations present become evident. The exact boundary between these populations is indistinct, so the position of the dividing line for the few ambiguous particles was chosen by taking ejection position into account; the type a particles being ejected at positions closer to the center of the impact.

The two movement types are separated from each other and shown in figure 7. The two types of particle track identified are consistent with the imaging observations, and correspond to the ejecta from the wetted sand region (type-a) and dry particles ejected from the periphery of the impact crater (type-b), which form an ejecta curtain. The early release of small splash droplets, as discussed in section III b, are faintly visible in the recorded images, but are too intermittent to triangulate and so are filtered from the images prior to tracking. Due to the different mechanisms involved with the two different types of particle ejection, they will be analyzed separately. The experiment was repeated four times, the number of particles tracks detected is shown in table 1.

The number of particle tracks recorded is consistent with the range of particle ejections recorded by Furbish et al [9], who recorded an average of 584 particles ejected by a 3 mm droplet hitting a bed of 180 µm sand particles at a velocity of 7.2 m s⁻¹ and 1800 particles for a 4 mm droplet hitting a bed of 180 µm sand particles at 7.6 m s⁻¹.

The results from each of the four impact events produced very similar distributions, the average of which provided a clear profile of particle movement after impact. The profile of the particle ejection position (S), shown in figure 8, demonstrates that the ejection of the dry particles exhibits a Gaussian profile, with a mean ejection position ($\mu_S$) of 5.14 mm from the center of the droplet impact and a standard deviation of ($\sigma_S$) 1.28 mm. Overlaid on the frequency histogram is the probability density function of Gaussian distribution calculated from $\mu_S$ and $\sigma_S$. The slight skew present in the frequency data, in comparison to the Gaussian PDF, is believed to be a feature that would diminish with additional data sets. Due to this slight skew, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit test [17] for the Gaussian distribution produced a $p$-value of only 0.03. It is interesting to note that the fluorescent images in section IIIB show that the expanding mat of wet sand moves radially outwards up to distance of around 5mm prior to breakup, the same position as the maximum particle ejection frequency.
The angle of particle ejection relative to the bed surface (θ), shown in figure 9, also demonstrates a Gaussian profile with a mean (µθ) of 28.29° and a standard deviation (σθ) of 8.03°. The Gaussian PDF calculated from µθ and σθ demonstrates a good fit to the data with a Kolmogorov-Smirnov p-value of 0.86. Comparing the particle ejection position to the ejection angle, as shown in figure 10, it can be seen there is a weak correlation between the two; the linear fit has a coefficient of determination (R²) of 0.30. Particles that leave the bed surface close to the droplet impact center, early on in the development of the impact crater, have a lower ejection angle compared with those that are ejected further out when the crater is more fully developed.

The distance the particles travel, from their ejection position to the point where they first return to the bed, is shown in figure 11; this distance does not include any further rebound of the particles or rolling across the surface. The frequency of the distance travelled by the particles demonstrates a long-tail distribution, with some particles travelling up to 140 mm from the droplet impact center. The arithmetic mean of the travel distance, from all four tests, is 19.69 mm and the arithmetic standard deviation is 14.47 mm; the geometric mean is 16.13 mm and the geometric standard deviation is 1.855.

In the light of the asymmetric nature of the travel distance distribution, whose precise shape we have no a priori information on, and that simple distribution functions (e.g. log-normal) do not provide significant fits to the data, we have chosen to fit the Burr XII distribution [18] to the data (as given in equation 1). The Burr XII distribution fits the data significantly in all cases and has good applicability to simulation modelling [19]. The Burr XII has two shape parameters, k and α, a scale parameter β, and a location parameter γ.

$$f(x) = \frac{ak\left(\frac{x - \gamma}{\beta}\right)^{a}}{\beta^a(1 + \left(\frac{x - \gamma}{\beta}\right)^{a})^{k+1}}$$

Equation 1. Burr XII distribution equation

For the distribution overlaid in figure 11 the shape parameter k is equal to 0.71262, the shape parameter α is equal to 3.75778, the scale parameter β is equal to 14.116 and the location parameter γ is equal to 0. The Burr distribution exhibits a high level of fit to the particle travel data; using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit test, the fit was found to have a P-value of 0.84.

The ejection velocity of the particles, as extrapolated from the particle trajectories, is shown in figure 12. The profile of the ejection velocity demonstrates a similar profile to the particle travel distance, that of a long-tail distribution. The peak of the distribution occurs around the geometric mean, 0.48 m s⁻¹, with particles being released at velocities up to 2 m s⁻¹. The similarity in profile between ejection velocity and transport distance indicates that the variation in ejection velocity is a primary cause of the long tail distribution seen in the transport data. The arithmetic mean of the ejection velocity data is 0.55 m s⁻¹, the standard deviation is 0.32 m s⁻¹, and the geometric standard deviation is 1.78. The Burr XII distribution, as used for the transport distance data, also provides a good fit to the particle ejection velocity, as shown in figure 12, with the shape parameter k equal to 1.189, the shape parameter α equal to 3.917, the scale parameter β equal to 0.647 and the location parameter γ equal to -0.111; the Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit [16] test returns a P-value of 0.05. It is to be expected that a weaker fit to the velocity data will occur as there are higher inaccuracies present in the velocity calculation; slight variations in the particle positions recorded have little impact on the fitted trajectories but have a greater impact on the velocity calculation. Such inaccuracies directly influence the extrapolated ejection velocity, affecting the distribution profile.
The distributions for the type-a ejected particles, those released from the wetted sand region, are shown in figures 13 to 16. These particles display quite different characteristics from those of the dry sand particles (type-b). The number of ejected particles is small for each event, around 24 particles, so statistical fits are not included in the analysis. However, the general trends produced provide good information about the particle behavior.

The distribution of ejection position for the ‘type-a’ particles is shown in figure 13. This distribution demonstrates that the origins of the particle trajectories, where their paths intersect the bed surface, occur much closer to the impact center of the droplet than the type-b particles, many of them from within the droplet radius itself. It is interesting to note that a peak in ejection position occurs just outside of the droplet radius, indicating the release of ejecta occurs as the wet mat is expanding, as observed in figure 2.

Figure 14 displays the ejection angle distribution for type-a particles. These data clearly show that the type-a particles leave the bed at much lower angles than type-b, with a mean of just $9^\circ$ to the bed and a maximum of only $25^\circ$. This shallow angle indicates that type-b particles are driven by the lateral motion of the deforming droplet, the downward motion of which is arrested by the static granular bed, rather than a reaction from the bed due to grain displacement.

The ejection velocity of type-a particles, as shown in figure 15, is significantly higher than recorded for type-b particles, with an average of $3.16 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. This high ejection velocity demonstrates that there is a greater efficiency in the momentum transfer for these particles than those of type-b. This more effective transfer of energy, due to the direct interaction between water and particle, means that, despite the few particles involved, an appreciable portion of the droplets energy is still transferred to this form of particle ejection.

As a result of the high ejection velocity of type-a particles, the distance they travel is considerably higher than type-b particles. The travel distance, shown in figure 16, have a broad distribution ranging from 35 mm up to 550 mm, with a peak occurring in the 100-150 mm range. The average impact position is 189 mm. These large travel distances mean that the type-a form of particle ejection has a considerable impact on overall transport of the granular media due to the droplet impact.
V. PARTICLE EJECTION

Both imaging of the droplet impact and three-dimensional tracking of the subsequent ejecta have demonstrated that two distinct mechanisms of particle ejection occur for this interaction: type-a and type-b. Type-b particles represent the main ejecta curtain produced as particles are sheared from the surface of the depression during expansion of the impact crater; this process is discussed in more detail later in this section. Type-a particles, however, are ejected by a different process, whereby they interact directly with the water droplet; it has been shown in section IV that these particles are characterized by high ejection velocities and low ejection angles. For the impact of solid objects, in addition to the ejecta curtain, two other mechanisms of particle ejection have been reported in literature, both of which are referred to as jetting. The first form of jetting is caused by the collapse of a void formed in the granular medium as the impacting object penetrates below the surface. The subsequent void collapse causes a near-vertical release of particles [20, 21, 22, 23]. The second form of jetting occurs when an impacting object hits a surface at high speed and low angle, releasing a small quantity of particles on impact [24]. Clearly neither of these mechanisms fit with the behavior of the type-a particles reported in this study as: a) no appreciable void is formed in the granular bed (see figure 1), b) the particles are released at a low angle and c) the droplet lands perpendicular to the bed surface. In difference to solid object impacts, the source of the type-a particle ejection is the break-up of the droplet as it impacts the granular medium, stripping particles from the edge of the wet mat, as described in section III.

The transition between splashing and non-splashing droplets has been studied in detail by several studies, with the splashing parameter ($K_d$) often used to separate the two regimes [25, 26]. The splashing parameter $K$ is a combination of the Weber number and the Reynolds number where:

$$K = \frac{\rho D_{50} U^2}{\mu}$$

$$\delta = \text{density}, \quad D_{50} = \text{diameter}, \quad U = \text{impact velocity}, \quad \mu = \text{viscosity}, \quad \gamma = \text{surface tension}$$

The higher the splashing parameter is, the greater the propensity for droplet breakup. The threshold between splashing and non-splashing ($K_d$) has been reported to vary according to the surface: For a smooth surface $K_d = 57.7$ [25], for a bed of 5 µm fibers $K_d = 87$ [27] and for a bed of 81 µm glass spheres $K_d = 120$ [12]. The impacting droplet in this work has a splashing parameter $K = 556$, a value far exceeding these thresholds, indicating its propensity to splash. However, the penetration of the water into the granular medium is so rapid (within 1 ms of impact, see figure 2) the water has already started to mix with the sand grains as break-up occurs. This occurrence results in the splash detachment of sand grains with the water at a low angle to the bed. A study by Marston et al. [28] observed that for a fine granular bed (0-53 µm diameter), both bed surface and impact velocity strongly influence the penetration of an impacting drop and the generation of satellite droplets due to splash; adjustment of these two parameters to investigate their influence on type-a and type-b ejecta would be an interesting expansion to this work.

With regard to the to the type-b particles, which make up the ejecta curtain, it is clear that there are direct comparisons with the ejecta recorded for solid object impacts, indicating that similar processes are involved. In figure 17 the relationship between ejection position and velocity is compared with results for solid object impact produced by Yamamoto et al. [29] using scaling laws, as presented by Housen & Holsapple [30]. The ejection velocity of the particles ($v$) is scaled to the impact object velocity ($U$); the ejection position ($s$) is scaled to the impact object radius ($a$) and the ratio between the bulk density of the granular bed ($\rho$) and the impact object density ($\delta$) by the formula: $(s/a)(\rho/\delta)$. The exponent $v$ has been shown in literature to be consistently equal to 0.4, regardless of the materials involved [30]. The average ejection position and particle velocity from this study is shown. The data presented by Yamamoto et al. [29] was collected for a polycarbonate sphere impacting a bed of glass micro-spheres. It is evident from this scaled comparison that, despite the differences in the materials, the same power-law relationship holds for both experiments. Other results presented for solid object impacts into glass spheres and sand presented by Housen & Holsapple [30] show a similar power-law relationship, but a factor of 3 below the Yamamoto et al. relationship. However, these other experiments were conducted at significantly higher impact velocities ($1400 - 1900 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), which may explain the disparity.

 Despite the similarity in scaled velocity relationship between this droplet experiment and those using solid objects, there is a significant difference in terms of ejection angle. For solid object impacts at low velocity (1 to 4 m s$^{-1}$) using spheres of different radii on 400 µm glass spheres, Deboeuf et al. [6] recorded the ejecta angle to be consistently between 45° and 60°. Similarly, Marston et al. [31] state that after the early stages of solid sphere impact on to 520 µm glass beads, the particle ejection reaches a constant of 45° to 50°. However, the average angle of particle ejection for this study is 30°, significantly lower than the solid object cases. This lower angle is thought to be a result of the rapid penetration of the water into the sand bed, resulting in a much shallower crater relative to its.
diameter. The crater profile is looked at in more detail in section VII.

VI. MOMENTUM TRANSFER

It is evident from the particle tracking data that the two mechanisms of particle ejection, a and b, release different numbers of particles with significantly different velocities and trajectories. For type-b particles, an average of 952.25 particles is released from each droplet impact, with an average velocity of 0.55 m s\(^{-1}\). Given that the average particle diameter is 155 µm and assuming they are approximately spherical with a density equivalent to pure silica (2648 kg m\(^{-3}\)), the average momentum of a type-b particle is 2.86×10\(^{-9}\) N s. This average particle momentum results in a total momentum of 2.72×10\(^{-6}\) N s per droplet impact, which is 1.79% of the momentum of the 3.6 mm droplet as it impacts the bed at 6.45 m s\(^{-1}\). For the type-a particles, an average of 24 particles is released from each droplet impact, with an average velocity of 3.16 m s\(^{-1}\). Making the assumption that each of the type-a particles consists of a single sand grain held in a sphere of water, and ignoring the water component, the average momentum of each particle is 1.63×10\(^{-8}\) N s. This provides a total momentum of 3.95×10\(^{-7}\) N s per droplet impact associated with type-a sand particles, which is 0.26% of the droplet momentum on impact. Combining the results from type-a and type-b ejections, a total of 2.05% of the momentum of the droplet is transferred to the ballistic ejection of sand particles. The detail of this momentum transfer is summarized in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Driopet</th>
<th>Type-a</th>
<th>Type-b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average number of particles</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average diameter</td>
<td>3.56 mm</td>
<td>155 µm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average mass</td>
<td>2.36×10(^{-1}) kg</td>
<td>5.16×10(^{-7}) kg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average velocity</td>
<td>6.45 m s(^{-1})</td>
<td>3.16 m s(^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average momentum</td>
<td>1.63×10(^{-8}) N s</td>
<td>3.95×10(^{-10}) N s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total momentum</td>
<td>1.52×10(^{-9}) N s</td>
<td>3.95×10(^{-10}) N s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of droplet momentum</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 2. Momentum transfer between the water-droplet and the ejected sand particles.

The total momentum transferred to the ballistic ejection of particles is small in comparison to the momentum of the impacting droplet. The rest of the droplets energy is transferred to aspects such as deformation of the bed, compression of the grain packing and movement of wet sand conglomerates across the bed surface. To investigate these aspects, surface profiling of the granular bed post-impact was carried out.

VII. SURFACE PROFILING OF THE IMPACT CRATER

In order to measure the surface profile of the impact crater, without disturbing the granular bed, photogrammetry was employed. Multiple stereo photographs were taken of the bed surface using a Nikon 3100 digital camera fitted with a Nikkor 105 mm macro lens. Each image taken, with a resolution of 4608 by 3072 pixels, corresponded to a bed area of approximately 54 by 36 mm. The multiple images were combined to cover an 80 by 80 mm region centered on the droplet impact with a 50% area overlap between image pairs. Photomodeler scanner software produced by EOS systems was used to process the images and provide the surface height data; subsequent analysis was carried out in MATLAB. This arrangement of imaging and processing resulted in heights calculated across the bed surface with a grid spacing of 100 µm, and surface features resolvable down to a step change of 100 µm. A surface profile map with heights represented in greyscale is shown in figure 18.

![Surface profile map](image)

FIG. 18. Surface profile of Set 3 droplet crater measured using photogrammetry; heights shown in greyscale with a grid spacing of 100 µm.

The surface map in figure 18 shows clearly several of the features seen in the impact imaging. The impact crater itself is identifiable by a central depression surrounded by a raised circular rim of dry sand. Within this rim, the uneven edge of the wet-mat region is apparent, lining the crater. This wet mat can be seen to have broken up slightly with several deep fissures within it, resulting in parts of the mat protruding higher than the dry sand rim. Out from the crater itself, agglomerations of the granular medium can be seen sitting on the bed surface where they have become detached from the wet-mat region. Slight indentations are recorded in the bed surface where these agglomerations have skipped across the surface before coming to rest.

From the 3-dimensional surface profiles, 2-dimensional sections through the impact crater were extracted. Figure 19 shows the x and y-axis sections through the droplet impact center for the set 3 crater, there is a 1:10 scale ratio between the radial distance and the height in order to show the details clearly. To the right of the origin of this graph, there is a noticeable discontinuity between the x and y profiles where part of the wet mat has broken away in the y-axis; from this difference in the profiles it can be seen that the water has penetrated approximately 1.5 mm deep into the sand at the crater’s edge, equivalent to around 10 grain diameters. On the negative side of both x and y profiles, a double peak can be observed; the outer peak reaching to around 0.25 mm associated with the circular rim of dry sand, the inner rising to around 0.7 mm associated with the wet mat region.
In order to provide an overview of the crater morphology, average profiles for each of the impact craters were calculated (shown in figure 20). These profiles were produced by taking multiple sections through the crater from the impact center outwards at 5° rotations and then calculating the average from these 72 sections. Comparing the four impact events, it can be seen that the shapes of the rotationally averaged crater profiles are all very similar. All of the craters have a raised rim around the depression, with each rim averaging 0.3 mm in height and 7.5 mm in radius. The sides of the craters themselves are straight sided, and the base of the depression is around 0.7 to 0.8 mm below the bed surface. At the base of each crater, instead of a smooth continuation of the profile, there is a peak slightly larger in diameter than the impacting droplet.

Such raised peaks within a crater have been observed in impacts between solid objects and granular beds [3, 20] and have been attributed to granular jets produced by void formation and collapse as the object penetrates below the surface [20, 21, 22]. In addition, central peaks are a common feature of meteorite impact craters, where their formation is attributed to the inward collapse of a simple transient-crater formed during impact [32]. The exact mechanism of the central peak formation found in this study is unclear. However, it is evident that, while a true void is not formed, initial displacement of the sand grains by the water on impact, followed by further infiltration could result in subsequent collapse of the crater and peak formation. Further work would be required to investigate this process.

The diameter of the final crater produced, in relation to the droplet impact parameters, is compared with data produced from solid object impacts in figure 21. As used in other work, such as Holsapple [33], Schmidt [34] and Yamamoto et al. [35], two dimensionless scaling parameters have been used as the basis of this comparison: the scaled crater radius ($\Pi R$), which is equal to $(\rho / m)^{1/3} (D_r / 2)$, and the gravity scaled size of the impacting object, which is equal to $3.22 g \beta / U^2$, where $\rho$ is the bulk density of the granular bed, $m$ is the mass of the impacting object, $D_r$ is the diameter of the crater, $g$ is the gravitational acceleration, $\beta$ is the radius of the impacting object and $U$ is the velocity of the impacting object.

The relationship between the scaled crater radius and the scaled impact object size produced from this work is in good agreement with the power-law relationship evident in the results presented by Mizutani et al. [36] for aluminium sphere impacts onto sand. Despite the work by Mizutani et al. involving higher velocities (70 to 830 m s$^{-1}$) and using solid impact objects, the bulk material is very similar in terms of material (quartz sand), particle size (0 to 250 µm), with majority being 150 to 250 µm) and bulk density (1360 and 1590 kg.m$^{-3}$ for loose and compacted respectively); it is this similarity which may be the cause of the agreement. Results produced by Yamamoto et al. [35] for comparable test conditions present a similar power-law relationship but offset from the data by Mizutani et al., and this study, by a factor of 1.8. Yamamoto et al. suggest that this discrepancy between their results and those presented by Mizutani et al. is due to the differences in target material properties, which was a bed of glass spheres as opposed to sand. This offset in the data is interesting considering that the average ejection velocity to position relationship of the current study matches the experiments by Yamamoto et al., regardless of the shape of the particles, but the final crater radius does not. Results produced by Cintala et al. [37] also show a similar power-law relationship, only slightly offset from the Mizutani et al. relationship. These experiments were conducted at much higher velocities (800 to 1920 m s$^{-1}$) onto course sand ranging from 1 to 3 mm in diameter, with a bulk density of 1510 kg.m$^{-3}$. The similarity in granular medium and power-law relationship reinforces the idea that the particle properties influence the crater size relationship. Clearly more research is required to resolve the reasons for the similarities and differences observed in the measured data. It is significant however, that although the water droplet deforms on impact and penetrates into the granular bed, there are striking similarities to solid object impact.

Similar to the scaling parameters used by Holsapple [33], Schmidt [34] and Yamamoto [35], Katsuragi [38] presented a scaling law relating crater diameter to both the impactor and bed properties for low velocity water droplet impacts; the main difference being the inclusion of the droplet...
properties by Katsuragi via the Weber number. For a 4.8 mm water droplet impacting upon different granular beds (ranging from 4 to 50 µm in grain diameter), Katsuragi demonstrated the following relationship held for low Weber numbers:

$$\frac{D_f}{D_o} \approx 0.5 \frac{\rho}{\rho_w} We^{1/4}$$

Where $D_f = \text{Crater diameter}$, $D_o = \text{Droplet diameter}$, $\rho = \text{Bulk density of the granular bed}$, $\rho = \text{Density of the droplet}$ and $We = \text{Weber number}$. For the experiment detailed in this study, the diameter ratio between the crater and the droplet was 4.21 and the dimensionless number $(\rho/\rho_w)We^{1/4}$ was equal to 8.8, supporting Katsuragi's scaling law.

With regard to the ratio between crater diameter and depth, the water droplet impact in this study produces distinctly different results to solid object impacts. The experiments carried out by Yamamoto et al. [35] looking at polycarbonate projectiles hitting a bed of glass microspheres produced average depth to diameter ratios of between 0.11 and 0.14, depending on the glass bead diameter. Likewise for aluminum projectiles impacting a bed of quartz sand, Mizutani et al. show a linear relationship between crater depth and diameter of 0.15 for compacted sand and 0.26 for loose sand. For this study of a water droplet hitting and bed of loose sand, a much lower ratio of 0.05 exists between depth and diameter. This disparity is believed to be due to the rapid penetration of the water into the sand bed, whereby the water moves around the grains as well as displacing them, resulting in little vertical movement of the bed. This shallow crater formation indicates that crater depth is not governed by the same relationships as solid objects such as those proposed by Katsuragi and Durian [39].

In addition to the crater morphology, the surface profiling also provides details of the size and position of the agglomerates which break off from the main wet mat. A summary of the average agglomeration size and position for the different datasets is given in table 3. The number of grains present in each agglomeration is estimated by multiplying the measured agglomeration volume by the packing density (0.5) and dividing by the average volume of a sand grain, assuming an approximately spherical profile.

- The first ejection mechanism has been shown to involve few particles (an average of 24), but it transports them a long way in comparison to the second mechanism (an average of 173 mm from the droplet center). The trajectories from this form of ejection are characterized by high ejection velocities (an average of 3.16 m s$^{-1}$) and low ejection angles (an average of 9°). The second ejection mechanism releases significantly more particles than the first (an average of 952 particles) but is characterized by higher ejection angles (an average angle of 28°) and slower ejection velocities (an average of 0.55 m s$^{-1}$). The distance travelled by these second-mechanism particles demonstrates a long-tail distribution, which is accurately represented by the Burr XII distribution. The ejection velocity distribution demonstrates a similar profile. Considering both mechanisms of ballistic particle ejection, the tracking data has shown that despite the high numbers of particles involved, only ~2% of the droplet’s momentum is transferred to this form of granular transport.

Comparing the droplet impact results to impacts involving solid objects, the relationship between scaled average particle ejection velocity and scaled ejection position follows the same power-law trend reported for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of agglomerates</th>
<th>Average distance from droplet impact (mm)</th>
<th>Average volume of each agglomerate (mm$^3$)</th>
<th>Average number of grains in each agglomerate</th>
<th>Total number of grains in agglomerates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Set 1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21.11</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>475.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25.60</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>213.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set 3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42.29</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>193.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set 4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26.08</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>421.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>28.77</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>325.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 3. Average size and position of the agglomerates that have broken off from the wet mat region for each data set.
low velocity impacts. However, ejection angle of the ejecta curtain is significantly lower in comparison to solid object impacts. This lower angle is thought to be a result of the rapid penetration of the water into the sand bed which results in a much shallower crater relative to its diameter in comparison to solid object impact.

In terms of the morphology of the bed surface produced by the droplet impact, the photomosaic profiling has shown that the average crater shape is highly repeatable. The crater produced, for this interaction, is shallow (only ~0.8 mm deep), with a wide diameter approximately 4 times that of the impacting droplet. The data has shown that a raised peak occurs at the center of the crater; however the exact mechanisms involved in its formation are unclear. The relationship between the scaled crater radius and the gravity scaled size of the impacting droplet fits along the same power-law relationship found for solid radius and the gravity scaled size of the impacting droplet are unclear. The relationship between the scaled crater and the gravity scaled size of the impacting droplet is shallow (only ~0.8 mm deep), with a wide diameter approximately 4 times that of the impacting droplet. The data has shown that a raised peak occurs at the center of the crater; however the exact mechanisms involved in its formation are unclear. The relationship between the scaled crater radius and the gravity scaled size of the impacting droplet fits along the same power-law relationship found for solid object impacts into a granular bed of similar properties.

Agglomerations of particles, which break off from the wet mat produced by the water penetration, have been shown to be a significant mechanism in material transport. These agglomerations move, on average, almost twice as many particles as the ballistic processes, with a transport distance comparable to the arithmetic mean of the ballistic particles. As such, the momentum of the agglomerates on release could be up to twice that recorded for the ballistic particles. Thus it is suggested that approximately 4% of droplet moment is transferred to particle motion of both types of transport.

Acknowledgments

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