


Cite this: *RSC Adv.*, 2020, 10, 19811

Dust removal from a hydrophobic surface by rolling fizzy water droplets

Bekir Sami Yilbas,^{id}*^{abc} Ghassan Hassan,^{abc} Hussain Al-Qahtani,^a Saeed Bahatab,^{ac} Ahmet Z. Sahin,^{id}^{ac} Abdullah Al-Sharafi^{ac} and Abba Abdulhamid Abubakar^a

Here, environmental dust cleaning from an inclined hydrophobic surface by rolling liquid droplets has been studied and the influence of fluid droplets on the dust removal rate has been examined. The distilled and carbonated water droplets at different volumes were incorporated and the inclination angle of the dusty hydrophobic surface on the droplet motion was explored in the experiments. We demonstrated that the carbonated water droplet had higher translational velocity than the distilled water droplet on the dusty hydrophobic surface. The bubbles formed around the droplet surface acted as gas cushions at the interface between the solid surface and the fluid droplet while lowering the friction and pinning forces and enhancing the droplet translational velocity on the surface. Collected environmental dust has various components, some of which can dissolve in water while creating resorption/nucleation centers for bubble formation in the carbonated water droplet. The interaction between the bubbles and the dust particles at the liquid–solid interface enhanced the rate of dust particle movement into carbonated water. For a small-volume droplet (20 μL) at a low surface inclination angle ($\delta = 1^\circ$), the rolling motion of the distilled and carbonated water droplets ceased on the hydrophobic surface at early periods.

Received 9th April 2020

Accepted 7th May 2020

DOI: 10.1039/d0ra03215h

rsc.li/rsc-advances

Introduction

Repelling dust from surfaces has become a necessity for the efficient operation of solar energy devices, particularly in dusty environments. Dust possesses various elements and compounds depending on the regional geomorphology of different locations. Some of the dust compounds such as alkali and alkaline earth metal compounds, such as NaCl, KCl, and CaCl_2 , can dissolve in water, forming chemically active solutions.¹ This is particularly true in humid air conditions, *i.e.*, water condenses on dusty surfaces, which gives rise to the formation of an active solution around the surface. The gravitational force causes spreading of the solution on solid surfaces and generates a strong pinning force between the dust and the solid surface upon drying the solution. In dry ambient air, the dust particles agglomerate and form cluster-like structures. In general, non-stoichiometric elemental composition of dust compounds, such as Na_xCl_y or K_nCl_m , where $x \neq y$ and $n \neq m$, results in the formation of charges around the dusty surface while causing the clustering of dust particles and the creation of strong pinning forces that act on the solid surfaces. Hence, the mitigation of strongly pinned dust, due to the drying of liquid

solutions or clustering under charge forces (van der Waals), from surfaces becomes challenging. Various methods have been suggested to remove dust from solid surfaces. Some of these methods include mechanical processes (brushing²), water splashing,³ air jet blowing,⁴ electrostatic repulsion,⁵ sonic/ultrasonic excitations,⁶ and self-cleaning.⁷

Cost-effective dust mitigation from surfaces requires minimum efforts and low energy consumption during the process of cleaning; hence, a method of self-cleaning *via* rolling/sliding water droplets on the dusty surface becomes beneficial. To satisfy the minimum adhesion of a water droplet on the surface, the formation of a liquid film on the solid surface needs to be avoided, *i.e.*, spreading of the fluid droplet onto the solid surface should be prevented. This requires a hydrophobic wetting state on the solid surface. Two main surface characteristics remain essential for achieving the hydrophobic wetting state. These include surface morphology composed of hierarchically distributed micro/nano textures and low surface energy.⁸ The surface texture enables reduction in the contact area between the fluid droplet and the surface, while small surface energy causes low force of interfacial adhesion between the liquid and the solid surface. The rolling/sliding liquid droplets on the hydrophobic surfaces also suffer from pinning *via* adhesion, which is associated with the advancing and receding angles of the droplet, surface tension of the liquid, roughness parameter of the surface, and length of the three-phase-contact-line.⁹ The minimization of adhesion results in rotational/translational motion of the liquid droplet on the

^aMechanical Engineering Department, King Fahd University of Petroleum & Minerals, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia. E-mail: bsyilbas@kfupm.edu.sa

^bCenter of Research Excellence in Renewable Energy (CoRE-RE), King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM), Dhahran 31261, Saudi Arabia

^cK.A.CARE Energy Research & Innovation Center, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia



hydrophobic surface. The droplet motion allows the liquid droplet to remove the dust particles from a dusty hydrophobic surface.¹⁰ The dust particles in the path of the rolling/sliding droplet can create additional frictional resistance to the droplet's rolling motion. The translation velocity of the rolling droplet can be improved by using a carbonated fluid droplet.¹¹

This is related to the formation of small carbon dioxide gas bubbles, which are released at the solid/liquid interface inside the droplet. Hence, the joining of small gas bubbles in the outer region of the liquid droplet can act-like a cushion in between fluid droplet and the hydrophobic surface, *i.e.* air gap reduces the contact area between fluid droplet and the solid surface. This gives rise to low resistance and high speed of droplet rotation on the hydrophobic surface. Consequently, the investigation of dust removal from hydrophobic surfaces by a rolling carbonated water droplet becomes essential.

Dust accumulation on surfaces degrades their properties, which have a vital importance in the sustainable performance of solar energy devices. Dust cleaning by a rolling water droplet from the dusty surfaces can provide advantages in terms of cost and infrastructural support over the other convectional cleaning methods, such as brushing, water jet splashing, and air blowing. The hydrophobic surfaces with lotus features are favourable for droplet rolling. Hence, the surface textural characteristics play an important role in the rolling of the liquid droplet on hydrophobic surfaces. Altering the textural characteristics changes the wetting state of the surface, in which case, droplet pinning can be avoided. Introducing porous structures and emerging gases from these structures minimizes droplet pinning in the fuel-cell channels.¹² Low energy materials also lower the interfacial pinning of the droplet on the surfaces. Hence, tailoring the channel material in the fuel cells towards minimizing droplet pinning increases the droplet mobility while reducing the power loss associated with the pressure drop across the channel length.¹³ Polymeric materials, when used in the fuel-cell channels, alter the dynamics of the droplet formed in the channel. In this case, the droplet remains highly mobile and the pressure drop in the channel becomes small.¹⁴ The numerical investigation of droplet motion on the surfaces provides a useful insight into the stages of droplet dynamics. The simulation of the interaction of between a liquid droplet and flowing gas provides useful data for the drag force distribution on the droplet surface and its influence on droplet pinning.¹⁵ The simulation data becomes particularly useful for understanding the motion of the droplet in hydrophobic channels; hence, the channel geometry, resulting in a pressure drop for the gas flow, can be optimized.¹⁶ The transition of the droplet from the pinning to the rolling state, *via* alteration in the size of the wetting diameter on the surfaces by introducing thermal effects, becomes useful in overcoming the pinning effect of the surface during droplet motion. Such an arrangement may find applications in droplet evaporation from surfaces.¹⁷

On the other hand, bubble formation in liquids remains important in various applications.^{18,19} The mechanism of bubble formation in carbonated liquids and resorption/diffusion of the carbonated gas provide a physical insight into

the behaviour of bubbles in liquids. The rising gas bubbles in a liquid cause gas diffusion across the bubble interface and alteration in the bubble size.²⁰ In some cases, the bubbles can be formed in a non-Newtonian fluid and their motion in the fluid differs from that of the Newtonian fluid; hence, the gas diffusion characteristics across the bubble interface change while influencing the bubble dynamics in the fluid.²¹ Introducing surfactants in a liquid also alters the bubble size and bubble behaviour in the liquid, in which case, the mass transfer coefficient reduces while suppressing the droplet size increase inside the fluid.²² The growth of the bubbles in the liquids and bursting from the liquid surface involve an unsteady behaviour, and modeling of such situations and capturing the physical phenomenon become challenging. An attempt to investigate the growth of CO₂ bubbles in water demonstrates that the early relation developed by Epstein and Plesset²³ may not be appropriate to explore the advective transport-induced radial expansion of the growing bubbles.²⁴ However, some relevant studies regarding bubble formation and its dynamics in liquids incorporating lumped models and other analytical approaches (based on the force and energy balances) provide reasonably accurate predictions, as assessed by the experiments.^{25,26} Nevertheless, research into bubble formation in liquids and associated bubble dynamics are currently under investigation.

As the carbonated water droplet rolls on a dusty hydrophobic surface, the bubble formation in the fluid droplet becomes different than the formation of bubbles on a clean hydrophobic surface. This is because of the fact that the dissolution of alkali and alkaline earth metals in the fluid droplet results in bubble resorption/nucleation centres while influencing the carbonated gas desorption and bubble formation rates. In addition, small sized bubbles gather in the free surface region of the droplet while forming a foam-like bubbly structure or large-sized bubbles, which can create a cushion effect between the rolling droplet and the solid surface. Although several studies have been carried out to explore bubble formation in the carbonated fluid^{11,27–29} and rolling of the water droplet on hydrophobic surfaces,^{10,30,31} dust removal by rolling carbonated fluid droplets on hydrophobic surfaces is left for future study. In the present study, the behaviour of a carbonated water droplet on a dusty hydrophobic surface was explored and dust removal by the rolling carbonated water droplets on an inclined dusty hydrophobic surface was examined. Experiments were carried out using a high-speed recording system (Speed Sense 9040) to monitor the behaviour of a carbonated water droplet on a dusty hydrophobic surface. The infusion of carbonated water (cloaking) on the surface of the dust particles was experimentally evaluated and the influence of the bubbles formed inside the carbonated water droplet on dust particle removal from the hydrophobic surface was assessed.

Experimental

Environmental dusts were collected from PV-panel surfaces using soft-brushes and were stored in humidity-tight containers. The dusts collected were examined in terms of the size, shape, elemental, and compound compositions by



utilizing scanning electron microscopy (JEOL 6460), energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS), and X-ray diffraction (Bruker D8). To evaluate the dissolution of dust compounds in distilled and carbonated water, a dust-water mixture solution was prepared and later analysed in a quadrupole inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, XSeries 2). The findings demonstrate that alkali (Na, K) and alkaline earth (Ca, Mg) compounds dissolve in distilled and carbonated water.

Glass samples ($60 \times 20 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$, length $\times$ width $\times$ thickness) were hydrophobized using the dip coating deposition method introduced in an earlier work.³² Functionalized silica particles were prepared using ethanol (14.2 mL), desalinated water (1.2 mL), and ammonium hydroxide (24 mL), which were mixed *via* stirring at 360 rpm for 45 minutes. Later, tetraethyl orthosilicate (TOES) (1 mL TOES in 4 mL ethanol) was included in the mixture. Silane, in the molar ratio of 3 : 4, was added as a modifier in the mixture and the resulting solution was magnetically stirred for 13 hours. A dip coating technique was introduced for depositing the end-solution on the sample (glass) surfaces. The samples were vacuumed later to remove the residues by evaporation. The thickness of the deposited layer was about $500 \pm 30 \text{ nm}$, the average roughness of the surface was measured by an atomic force microscope (AFM/SPM) probe and it was found to be about 150 nm. To assess the wetting state of the hydrophobized samples, the contact angle measurements for distilled and carbonized water were realized through using a Kyowa (DM 501) contact angle goniometer with a volume step of $0.1 \mu\text{L}$. The contact angle was found to be uniform across the coated surface and the contact angle was about $148^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ for distilled and carbonated water with the hysteresis of $2^\circ \pm 1^\circ$.

In the experiments, carbonated and distilled water were used to form the droplet on dusty and clean hydrophobic surfaces. Carbonated water has a CO_2 concentration of 4.53 g L^{-1} . To record the motion of distilled and carbonated water droplets on the inclined hydrophobic surface, a high-speed video recording system (Speed Sense 9040) were used. The camera system operated at 5000 frames-per-second (fps) at the megapixel resolution of 1280×800 and a pixel size of $14 \mu\text{m} \times 14 \mu\text{m}$. To ensure the repeatability of the recordings, many repeats of the test were realized. The measurement error based on the recording repeats was assessed at about 3%. In addition, the uncertainty ($\pm u$) involved with the high speed recorded data was estimated after gathering the range of values around the measurement points (bubble locations) and the errors associated with the displacements (in terms of pixels). After securing a 96% confidence level, the standard deviation of the measured data fitting the Gaussian error distribution of 2% resulted. The formula for the standard uncertainty (σ_u) can be written as:³³

$$\sigma_u = \sqrt{\int_{x_0}^{x_n} (x - \mu_e)^2 p(x) dx} \quad (1)$$

where, μ_e represents the mean value of x , n corresponds to the number of data points, and $p(x)$ is the probability distribution function. The probability distribution function for all the

possible bubble/particle displacements affecting the bubble-ending velocity was initially obtained from the instant correlation-plane. The probability distribution function was then correlated with an appropriate Gaussian-function for evaluating the probability distribution function diameter. The standard uncertainty was assessed using a least-squared Gaussian-fit and the end result was regulated (normalized) with the number of pixels, which contributed to the cross-correlation peak. Moreover, the bias error of about 0.02 pixels was observed, which was related to the complexity of sizing of extremely small-peaks of the probability distribution function. Hence, the standard uncertainty was evaluated to be of the order of 3%.

Results and discussion

The behaviour of the carbonated water droplet on an inclined dusty hydrophobic surface was investigated and the translational velocity of the carbonated and distilled water droplets on dusty hydrophobic surfaces was evaluated. Glass samples were hydrophobized using the dip coating deposition method and the high-speed recording system was used to monitor the droplet motion on the surface. Since the fluid droplet infuses (cloaks) the dust particles, the cloaking velocity was also evaluated to explore the mechanism of dust particle removal by the rolling fluid droplet.

Dust analysis

Fig. 1a and b show the dust particles images while Fig. 1c shows the X-ray diffraction data for the dust particles. Dust is

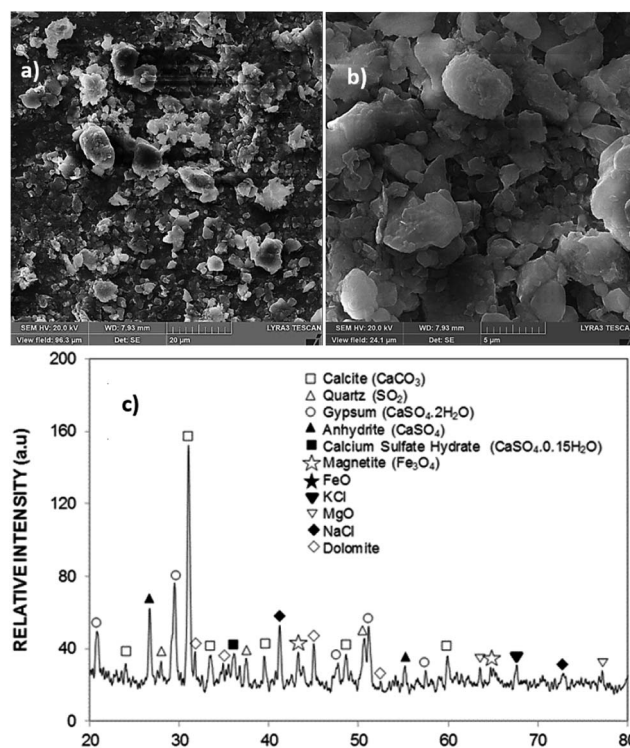


Fig. 1 The SEM micrographs and the X-ray diffractogram of dust: (a) the SEM micrograph of dust particles with various shapes and sizes, (b) the clustered dust particles, and (c) the X-ray diffractogram of dust.



Table 1 The elemental composition of dust particles (wt%)

	Si	Ca	Na	S	Mg	K	Fe	Cl	O
Size $\geq 1.2 \mu\text{m}$	11.8	8.3	2.2	1.3	2.5	0.8	1.2	0.4	Balance
Size $< 1.2 \mu\text{m}$	10.2	7.3	2.7	2.5	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	Balance
Dust residues	9.5	7.1	1.9	1.3	2.4	0.9	0.9	0.4	Balance

composed of various sizes and shapes (Fig. 1a) and can form cluster-like structures (Fig. 1b). Table 1 gives the elemental constitution of dust, which were obtained from energy spectroscopy analysis (EDS). Dust has various elements including Ca, Si, Fe, K, Na, Mg, Cl, S, and O. The elemental composition of dust slightly changes as the dust particle size reduces to less than $1.2 \mu\text{m}$. The average dust particle size is about $1.2 \mu\text{m}$. The X-ray diffractogram of dust shows the peaks of Na, K, Fe, Mg, and Si compounds. The salt compounds, which have Cl^- ions, can dissolve in water and increase the pH of the resulting solution.¹ The EDS data reveals that alkali and alkaline earth metal compounds, such as Na_xCl_y and K_nCl_m , have non-stoichiometric compositions.

Hence, these compounds possess charges depending on the non-stoichiometric elemental ratios, *i.e.*, anionic and cationic charges, (depending on ionic states) while contributing to the charge forces around the dust particles, which cause agglomeration of the dust particles. This behaviour results in the clustering of dust particles clustering with strong adhesion on solid surfaces. On the other hand, the surface free energy of dust is critical for spreading of the liquid droplet on dusty surfaces. The surface free energy of dust can be evaluated from the contact angle measurement technique, which can be formulated as:

$$\gamma_L(\cos \theta + 1) = 2\sqrt{\gamma_S^+ \cdot \gamma_L^-} + 2\sqrt{\gamma_S^- \cdot \gamma_L^+} + 2\sqrt{\gamma_S^- \cdot \gamma_L^+}$$
^{34–36} Here, the subscripts S and L correspond to the solid and liquid phases, respectively, γ_S is the surface free energy of the solid, γ_{SL} is the interfacial energy between the solid–liquid phases, γ_L is the surface tension of the fluid droplet, θ is the contact angle, and γ^+ and γ^- represent the electron acceptor and electron donor parameters of the acid–base component of the solid and liquid surface free energy, respectively. Table 2 gives the Lifshitz–van der Waals components and the electron-donor parameters used in the surface free energy assessments.^{34–36} To proceed with the surface energy measurements for dust, the contact angle of three different fluids need to be obtained. Hence, to assess the contact angle of distilled and carbonated water on dust, two approaches were introduced. In the first approach, the

Washburn technique was adopted and in the second method, dust pellets were prepared by slightly pressing the dust particles. In the Washburn technique, the dusts were loosely inserted into a 3 mm-diameter glass tube and the tube was placed in a small liquid container. The dust in the tube can draw-up the liquid from the small container because of infusion. The rate of liquid mass gain inside the tube is related to the Washburn

relation, *i.e.*, $\frac{(\Delta m)^2}{\Delta t} = \frac{c \cdot \rho^2 \gamma \cos \theta}{\mu}$, where Δm represents the liquid mass gain, Δt is the period for the liquid mass gain (flow time), c is the capillary constant of dust, ρ corresponds to density of the liquid, θ is the contact angle, and μ is the viscosity of the liquid. However, the capillary constant for dust was determined by incorporating liquid *n*-hexane because it gives zero contact angle ($\theta = 0$). The capillary constant for dust was estimated to be in the range of 5.82×10^{-16} to $6.54 \times 10^{-16} \text{ m}^{-5}$. It is worth mentioning that the capillary constant varies with dust size and shape, and similar observations were reported earlier for powders.³⁷ The contact angle measured using the Washburn technique for distilled water was about $37.4^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ while it was about $38.5^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ for carbonated water. In line with the second approach, the dust pellets were formed and the contact angle of distilled water and carbonated water were measured using a goniometer while adopting the technique introduced in an earlier work.³⁸

The contact angle measurements by adopting the Washburn technique and the dust pellets were extended to include other liquids, namely, glycerol and ethylene glycol. The repetitions of the tests were carried out to secure the correct results. The contact angles of distilled water and carbonated water on the dust pellets were measured and the droplet contact angles of $37.1^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ and $38.2^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ were obtained for distilled and carbonated water, respectively. On comparing the contact angle data obtained from the Washburn technique and from the dust pellets, they were found to be almost similar for distilled and carbonated water, *i.e.*, it was $37.4^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ and $37.1^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ from the Washburn and pellet techniques for distilled water while it was $38.5^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ and $38.2^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ from the Washburn and pellet techniques for carbonated water. Both the methods, therefore, resulted in almost similar water droplet contact angles. It is worth mentioning that the contact angles of the liquids (water, glycerol, and ethylene glycol) were used for assessing the surface energy of dust. The surface free energy obtained for dust was about $111.5 \pm 7.5 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$. Several repetitions of the experiments were conducted and the estimated measurement error was about 7%.

Since distilled and carbonated water infuse onto dust, the spreading of these liquids onto dusty surfaces becomes important for the wetting assessment for rolling/sliding droplets on dusty hydrophobic surfaces. The spreading coefficient of a liquid on solid surfaces depends on the wetting characteristics of the surface and the surface tension of the liquid, which can be formulated as:³⁹ $S = \gamma_s - \gamma_L - \gamma_{s-L}$, where γ_s represents the dust surface free energy, γ_L corresponds to the water surface tension, and γ_{s-L} is the interfacial tension between the liquid and dust. To evaluate the interfacial tension, the hemi-wicking

Table 2 Lifshitz–van der Waals components and the electron-donor parameters used in the simulation^{34–36}

	$\gamma_L (\text{mJ m}^{-2})$	$\gamma_L^+ (\text{mJ m}^{-2})$	$\gamma_L^- (\text{mJ m}^{-2})$	$\gamma_L^- (\text{mJ m}^{-2})$
Water	72.8	21.80	25.5	25.5
Glycerol	63.3	33.11	10.74	21.23
Ethylene glycol	48.2	31.09	6.59	11.16



criterion^{39,40} can be adopted. In this case, the formulation yields:³⁹ $\gamma_{\text{seL}} = \gamma_s - \frac{\gamma_L}{r} \cos \theta_w$, where, θ_w represents the liquid contact angle on dust and r is the dust roughness parameter, which represents the ratio of surface pillar area covering the dust projected area over the same projected area of the dust surface. The roughness parameter for dust was evaluated from the SEM micrographs showing particles of various sizes and shapes. The average roughness parameter was estimated to be about 0.52. Hence, on obtaining the distilled and carbonated water contact angles θ_w , the surface free energy of dust (γ_s), and the surface tension of liquid, interfacial tension can be evaluated, which was found to be 13.68 mJ m^{-2} . Therefore, the spreading coefficient ($S = \gamma_s - \gamma_L - \gamma_{\text{s-L}}$) of distilled and carbonated water on dust can be estimated, which was found to be $S = 24.82 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$ and $S = 28.5 \text{ mJ m}^{-2}$ for distilled and carbonated water, respectively. Since $S > 0$, distilled and carbonated water spread onto dust, resulting in infusion (cloaking) on the dust particles. Fig. 2a shows the cloaking velocity of distilled and carbonated water with time. Initially, liquid cloaking by distilled and carbonated water occurred at a higher rate and as time progressed, the rate of cloaking was reduced. In general, an exponential relation is present between the cloaking velocity and the time, *i.e.*, $\sim k_m t^{1/4}$, which is similar to the findings of an earlier work.³⁹ In the initial part of the liquid infusion, a liquid layer forms on the solid surface and further infusion of the liquid with progressing time causes liquid cloaking on the surface, which can be stated in terms of the Joos' law.⁴¹ Hence, the liquid cloaking velocity (v_s) can be

expressed as: $v_s = \left(\frac{3}{4} \frac{S}{\sqrt{\mu\rho}} \right)^{1/2} t^{-1/4}$, where S is the spreading coefficient, μ is the fluid viscosity, ρ is the liquid density, and t is the time.⁴¹ Therefore, increasing the spreading coefficient increases the cloaking velocity. The energy dissipation increases due to gravitational and shear influences while lowering the cloaking velocity with progressing time. The energy dissipation during cloaking can be associated with the Ohnesorge number ($\text{Oh} = \mu / \sqrt{\rho a \gamma_L}$), where, μ is the fluid viscosity, ρ is the fluid density, γ_L is the surface tension of water, and a is the particle size.⁴² Incorporating the dust particle sizes within the range of $1.2 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ – $20 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$, the Ohnesorge number takes values much less than unity, *i.e.*, Oh varies within ~ 0.025 – 0.105 . This shows that energy dissipation in the liquid becomes larger for large-sized dust particles during the cloaking. Since the dust particles possess alkali (Na, K) and alkaline earth (Ca) metal compounds, they dissolve in distilled and carbonated water. In the case of carbonated water, the rate of bubbles formed in the liquid increases because of the dissolved compounds of the dust in water, which act similar to resorption/nucleating sites for bubble formation. This situation can be observed from the optical image of carbonated water cloaking the dust particle, which is shown in Fig. 2b. Moreover, Fig. 2c shows the distilled water cloaking of the dust particle. Hence, repeated bubble formation and bubble shedding around the dust particle surface alters the dynamics of cloaking while enhancing the cloaking velocity, particularly in the early cloaking period.

Carbonated and distilled water droplet behaviour on an inclined dusty hydrophobic surface

The liquid droplet mobility on an inclined hydrophobic surface depends on the force and energy balance, which govern the droplet acceleration on the surface. The main forces acting on the rolling liquid droplet include droplet inertia, gravitation, pinning, shear, and air-drag forces. The gravitational force is of the same order as the droplet weight component in the inclined direction of the surface, *i.e.*, $mg \sin \delta$, where m is the droplet mass, g is the gravity, and δ is the surface inclination angle.

The pinning force is related to the surface tension force component along the three-phase contact-line in the inclination direction of the surface. The pinning force results because of the adhesion of the droplet onto the hydrophobic surface, which takes the form $F_{\text{ad}} = \frac{24}{\pi^3} \gamma f D (\cos \theta_R - \cos \theta_A)$,⁹ where γ is the surface tension of the liquid, f is the solid fraction (solid-liquid contact fraction because of the surface texture) on the surface, D is the droplet wetting diameter, θ_R represents the receding angle, and θ_A is the advancing angle of the rolling droplet. The shear force occurs because of the shear rate developed in the flow field in the region of the interface between the fluid droplet and the solid surface during the rolling, which can be expressed as: $F_\tau = A_w \left(\mu \frac{dV_d}{dy} \right)$, where μ is the fluid viscosity, V_d is the flow velocity inside the droplet, y is the normal direction to the surface, and A_w is the droplet wetting area on the surface. The drag force acting on the droplet during

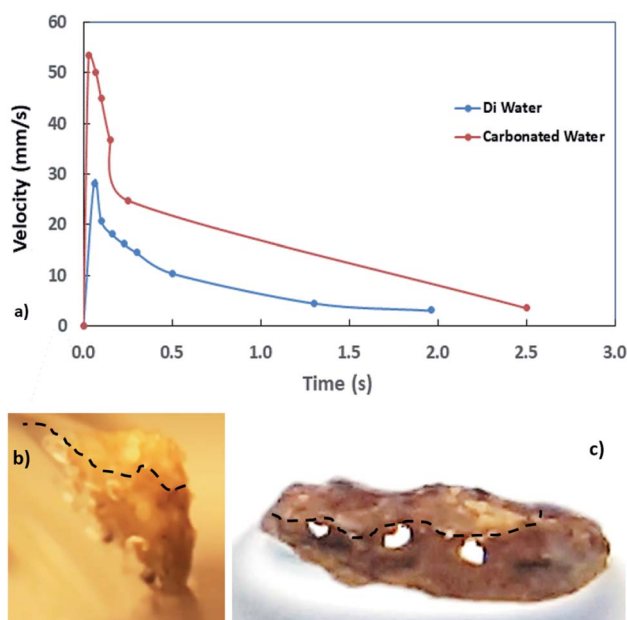


Fig. 2 Infusion (cloaking) velocity and images of the dust particle during cloaking: (a) cloaking velocity of distilled and carbonated water, and (b) the optical image of carbonated water cloaking the dust particle. The bubbles in the surface region of dust are evident and the dotted line shows the three-phase contact line, (c) the optical image of distilled water cloaking the dust particle. The dotted line shows the three-phase contact line.



its transition on the hydrophobic surface can be written as: $D_a \cong 1/2 C_d \rho_a A_c U_T^2$, where, C_d is the air-drag coefficient,⁴³ A_c is cross-sectional area of the droplet, and U_T corresponds to the air velocity opposite to the droplet motion, which is of the same order as the droplet translation velocity. Hence, introducing the force balance results in:

$$mg \sin \delta - F_{ad} - F_\tau - D_a = \frac{2}{5} m R \omega^2 \quad (2)$$

where R is the droplet radius and ω is the rotational speed of the droplet. The solution of eqn (2) for the rotational speed was obtained previously, which yields:⁴⁴

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{5}{2mR} \left(mg \sin \delta - \frac{24}{\pi^3} \gamma f(\cos \theta_R - \cos \theta_A) - \mu A_w \frac{\partial U_T}{\partial y} \right)}{1 + \frac{5}{4m} C_d \rho_a A_c R}} \quad (3)$$

The rolling droplet undergoes puddling, which influences the droplet motion on the inclined surface. However, the influence of puddling on the droplet motion remains small, particularly for droplets having a diameter smaller than the capillary length ($\kappa^{-1} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\rho g}}$), where κ^{-1} represents the capillary length and ρ is the fluid density, *i.e.*, the droplet remains almost spherical on the surface during rolling.⁴⁵ Droplet puddling becomes unavoidable for large droplet sizes, which is

$$V = \sqrt{2g \left[\Delta L \sin \alpha - \mu_r \Delta L - \frac{1}{mg} \frac{24}{\pi^3} \gamma_L D_f \Delta L (\cos \theta_R - \cos \theta_A) - \frac{4\gamma_L}{\rho g \Delta L} \left(\frac{D_{h1} - D_{h2}}{D_{h1} D_{h2}} \right) - \frac{1}{mg} A_w \left(\mu_t \frac{dV_r}{dy} \right) \Delta L - \frac{1}{2g} K_L U_T^2 \right]} \quad (5)$$

greater than the capillary length. Droplet puddling alters the pinning forces by modifying the advancing and receding angles and the wetting contact line of the droplet on the inclined hydrophobic surface. Hence, the droplet pinning force changes during its transition on the surface. This behaviour also changes the fluid mass-center in the droplet, *i.e.*, the variation in the droplet mass results in the wobbling-motion of the droplet while influencing the rotational behaviour of the droplet. The droplet puddle height (h) was formulated earlier,⁴⁵ which takes the form $\sqrt{2(1 - \cos \theta_w) \frac{\gamma}{\rho g}}$, where θ_w represents the surface contact angle. The linear-translational velocity of the droplet can be formulated by considering the energy balance,⁴⁶ which is:

$$\Delta E_{Tot} - \Delta E_{Diss} = \Delta E_{Kin} \quad (4)$$

where, ΔE_{Tot} is the overall droplet potential energy, ΔE_{Diss} is the energy dissipated by the droplet, and ΔE_{Kin} is the kinetic energy of the droplet. Potential energy can be expressed as $\Delta E_{Tot} = mg \Delta h$, here Δh is the vertical distance along the gravitational

direction. The energy dissipated (E_{Diss}) by the droplet consists of the work done against friction, adhesion, shear, and air-drag during rolling. Hence, (E_{Diss}) yields $\Delta E_{friction} + \Delta E_{deformation} + \Delta E_{retention} + \Delta E_{shear} + \Delta E_{air-drag}$, where $\Delta E_{friction}$ is the frictional energy dissipation because of the shear rate at the fluid–solid interface, $\Delta E_{deformation}$ is the energy dissipation because of the puddling; in which case, the droplet mass centre changes, $\Delta E_{retention}$ represents the energy dissipation due to droplet pinning, and $\Delta E_{air-drag}$ is the energy dissipation due to the work done against the air-drag. During the puddling of the droplet, the geometry of the droplet changes while causing a volumetric deformation of the droplet; hence, it can be formulated as:

$\Delta E_{deformation} \sim V_p \gamma \left(\frac{D_{h1} - D_{h2}}{D_{h1} D_{h2}} \right)$, where V_p is the droplet volume, and D_{h1} and D_{h2} are the hydraulic diameters of the droplet along the length of ΔL during puddling on the surface.⁴⁶ Energy dissipation because of droplet pinning along the length of ΔL on the inclined surface is $\Delta E_{adhesion} \sim F_{ad} \Delta L$. The shear dissipation at the droplet interface along the length of ΔL is $\Delta E_{shear} \sim F_\tau \Delta L$. The work done against the air-drag is $\Delta E_{air-drag} = \frac{1}{2} K_L m U_T^2$, where K_L is the loss coefficient. The linear-translational velocity of the droplet can be formulated after inserting the potential, kinetic, and dissipated energy into the energy balance (eqn (4)); hence, the droplet translational velocity yields:⁴⁶

The hydraulic diameter of the droplet changes along the inclined surface; however, the experimental data obtained from the high-speed recording of the droplet geometry can be used to

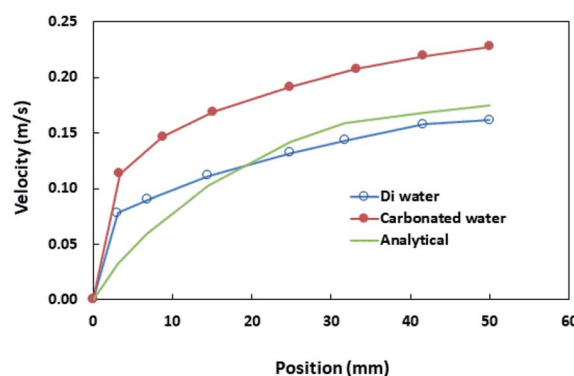


Fig. 3 The translational velocity of distilled and carbonated water droplets. The droplet volume is 40 μL and the inclination angle of the surface (δ) is 5°. The analytical solution predicted from eqn (5) is also shown for comparison.



predict the translational droplet velocity. Fig. 3 shows the translational velocity of the distilled and carbonated water droplet along the clean inclined hydrophobic surface obtained from the high-speed recorded data. The translational velocity obtained from eqn (5) is also included for comparison. The findings of the analytical solution (eqn (5)) demonstrate a similar velocity trend for that obtained from the experiments. However, the differences in the predicted and measured velocities were attributed to the assumptions made in the analytical modelling, such as the constant roughness parameter of the hydrophobic surface, which may change along the path of the droplet and the hydraulic diameter of the droplet, which may involve some errors although they are extracted from the experimental data and the experimental errors. However, the experimentally obtained and predicted (eqn (5)) velocity data are useful to explore the velocity of differently-sized rolling droplets on the inclined hydrophobic surfaces. The droplet velocity attained considerably higher values for carbonated water than that corresponding to distilled water. It is worth mentioning that bubble formation in carbonated water can alter the droplet's translational velocity. Since the CO_2 bubbles formed in the liquid droplet have lower density than the fluid, the buoyant force drags the bubbles towards the droplet-free surface opposite to the gravitational direction. Due to droplet rolling, the gravitational direction changes and the bubbles formed in the vicinity of the droplet-free surface scatter along the droplet-free surface. This can create cushion-like structures between the fluid droplet and the hydrophobic surface. Hence, droplet pinning on the hydrophobic surface can be significantly influenced by the cushion-like structures around the droplet-free surface, *i.e.*, droplet pinning significantly reduces while increasing the translational velocity of the droplet on the surface.¹¹ In addition, the dynamic behaviour of the droplet on the inclined hydrophobic surface was further modified as the

dust particles were located on the hydrophobic surface. This is because of the fact that: (i) the rolling droplet encounters resistance because of the particles located in its path and (ii) some compounds of the dust particles (alkali and alkaline metal compounds) can be dissolved in carbonated water, which in turn creates nucleation centres for CO_2 bubble formation inside the fluid droplet. In order to assess bubble formation inside the droplet in the presence of dust on the hydrophobic surface, further tests were carried out. The bubbles formed inside the carbonated water droplet with and without the presence of dust on the hydrophobic surface were monitored using the high-speed camera. Fig. 4a and b show the high-speed camera images of the sessile droplets formed from carbonated water on the horizontally located ($\delta = 0^\circ$) clean and dusty hydrophobic surfaces, respectively. The droplet volume was $40\ \mu\text{L}$ and the time corresponding to the images was $0.5\ \text{s}$. In both the cases (clean and dusty surfaces), some dust particles appear in the fluid droplet. Moreover, similar tests were also carried out to assess dust removal from the hydrophobic surfaces when the distilled water droplet was located on the dusty hydrophobic surface. Fig. 4c shows the image of the distilled water sessile droplet on the dusty horizontal hydrophobic surfaces ($\delta = 0^\circ$). The amount of dust particles in the fluid droplet was larger for carbonated water (Fig. 4b) than that in the distilled water droplet (Fig. 4c). In addition, bubbles were observed inside the carbonated water droplet. Hence, the amount of dust particles moving into the fluid droplet increases significantly for the carbonated water droplet. The particle image analysis reveals that the ratio of the dust particles moving from the dusty hydrophobic surface into the fluid droplet for the carbonated water droplet is almost twice that for the distilled water droplet. Therefore, the bubbles formed in the carbonated fluid droplet significantly enhance the amount of dust particles removed from the dusty hydrophobic surface.

Fig. 5a–c depict the translational velocity of distilled and carbonated water droplets along the dusty hydrophobic surface for different angle of inclinations and droplet volumes. The droplet velocity attains higher values for carbonated water as compared to the distilled water droplet, which is true for all the inclination angles. Hence, the presence of dust on the hydrophobic surface does not notably influence the droplet translational velocity, particularly for large-sized droplets.

The increased rate of bubble formation inside the carbonated water droplet, due to the dissolution of alkali and alkaline earth metal compounds of the dust particles in the liquid droplet, creates gas-cushion-like formations around the rolling droplet surface on the dusty hydrophobic surface. It is worthy to mention that the deposited dust layer on the hydrophobic surface has an almost uniform thickness with a layer thickness of about $150\ \mu\text{m}$, which is estimated from the close examination of the optical camera images. The droplet velocity attains an almost steady value along the inclined surface, which is apparent for the large inclination angle ($\delta = 10^\circ$). This is mainly because of the gravitational force component ($mg \sin \delta$), which increases with the surface inclination angle. In the case of small surface inclination angles, the gravitational acceleration overcomes all the resistance forces, including the resistance created

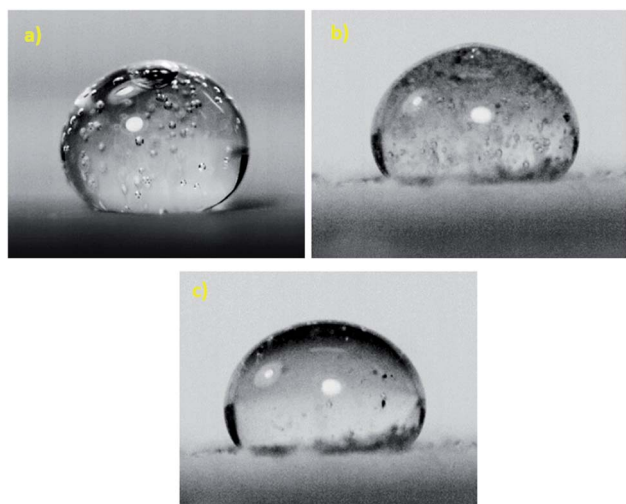


Fig. 4 The high-speed camera images of the sessile droplets: (a) carbonated water droplet on a clean hydrophobic surface, (b) carbonated water droplet on a dusty hydrophobic surface, and (c) distilled water on a dusty hydrophobic surface. The droplet volume is $40\ \mu\text{L}$ and the inclination angle of the surface (δ) is 0° .



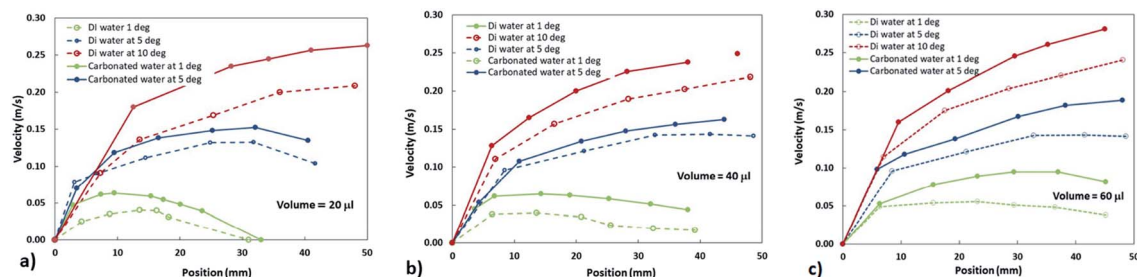


Fig. 5 The translational velocity of distilled and carbonated water droplets: (a) droplet volume is 20 μL , (b) droplet volume is 40 μL , and (c) droplet volume is 60 μL .

by dust against the droplet motion, which is particularly true for a small droplet volume ($=20 \mu\text{L}$). Hence, as the inclination angle of the surface reduces, the droplet velocity also reduces considerably, particularly for small-sized droplets ($\leq 40 \mu\text{L}$).

In general, the fluid droplet on the dusty hydrophobic surface cloaks the dust particles and these particles are moved from the surface towards the interior of the fluid droplet.⁹ The high rate of cloaking velocity of carbonated water enables the movement of more dust particles inside the droplet while increasing the droplet mass during rolling. Although the

gravitational influence acts positively on the droplet motion with increasing droplet mass, the friction between the droplet and dust also increases with increasing droplet mass. It should be noted that dust density varies between 2800 kg m^{-3} – 3600 kg m^{-3} depending on the size, shape, and the constituent elemental compounds.

For small inclination angles, this influence appears to be critical and causes a reduction in the droplet velocity; gradually, the droplet motion is terminated on the dusty hydrophobic surface for a 20 μL droplet at 1° inclination angle. Fig. 6a and

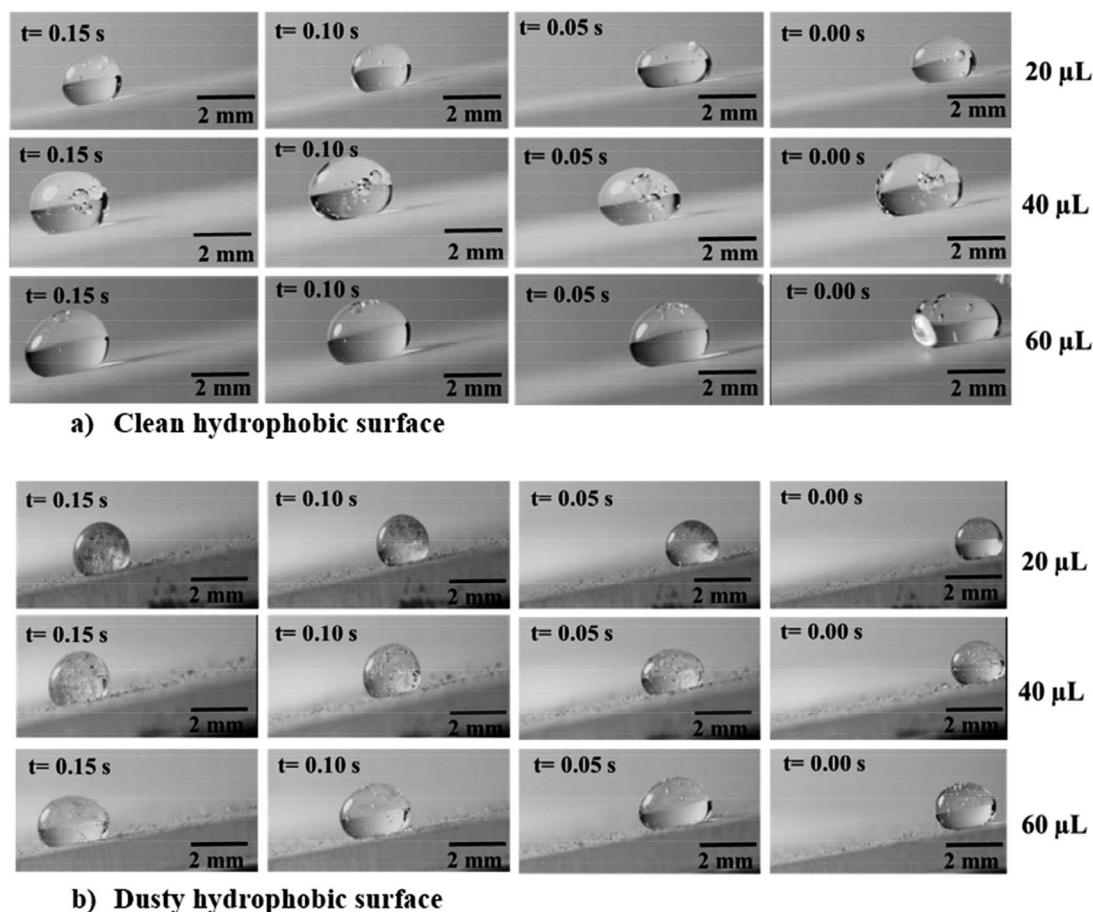


Fig. 6 High speed camera images of carbonated water droplets with different volumes at various locations on clean and dusty hydrophobic surfaces: (a) clean hydrophobic surface, and (b) dusty hydrophobic surface. Inclination angle of surface (θ) is 5° .



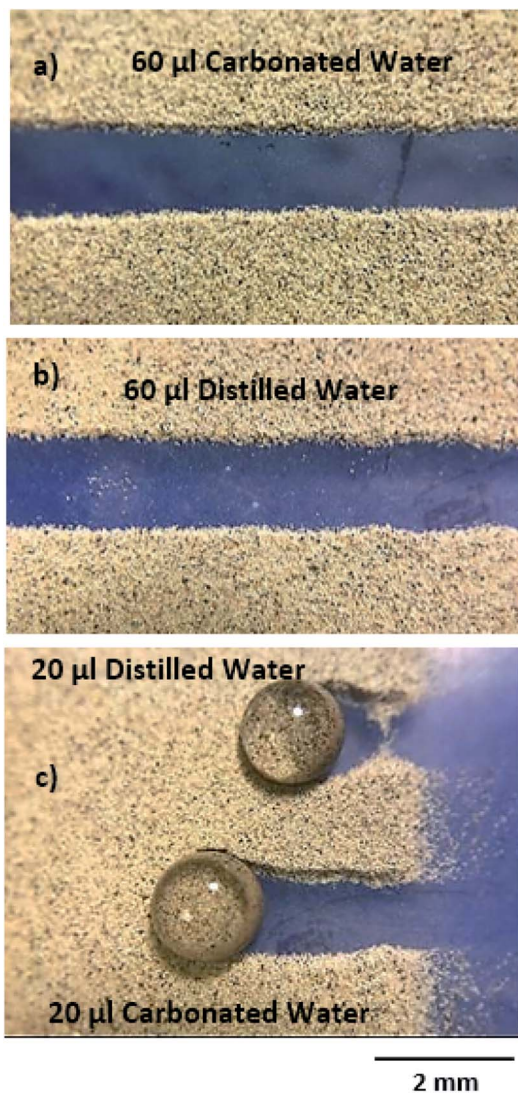


Fig. 7 The optical images of the droplet paths on the dusty hydrophobic surface: (a) 60 μL carbonated water droplet, (b) 60 μL distilled water droplet, and (c) 20 μL distilled water and carbonated water droplets. The inclination angle of the surface (θ) is 1° .

b show the side view of the optical images of the carbonated water droplet on the clean and dusty inclined hydrophobic surfaces with 5° inclination angle. The bubbles were observed for carbonated water droplet rolling on the clean hydrophobic surface. Moreover, the dust particles were picked up by the rolling carbonated water droplet on the dusty hydrophobic surface (Fig. 6b).

Fig. 7 shows the top view of the droplet on the dusty hydrophobic surface with the inclination angle of 5° . The carbonated water droplet with a large volume (60 μL) cleans dust along its path. However, some small wavy-structures were observed along the edges of the droplet path, which is related to the wobbling of the droplet during its rolling on the dusty hydrophobic surface. For the droplet with a small volume (20 μL), the droplet motion ceases at some point on the dusty hydrophobic surface. However, the distance travelled by the

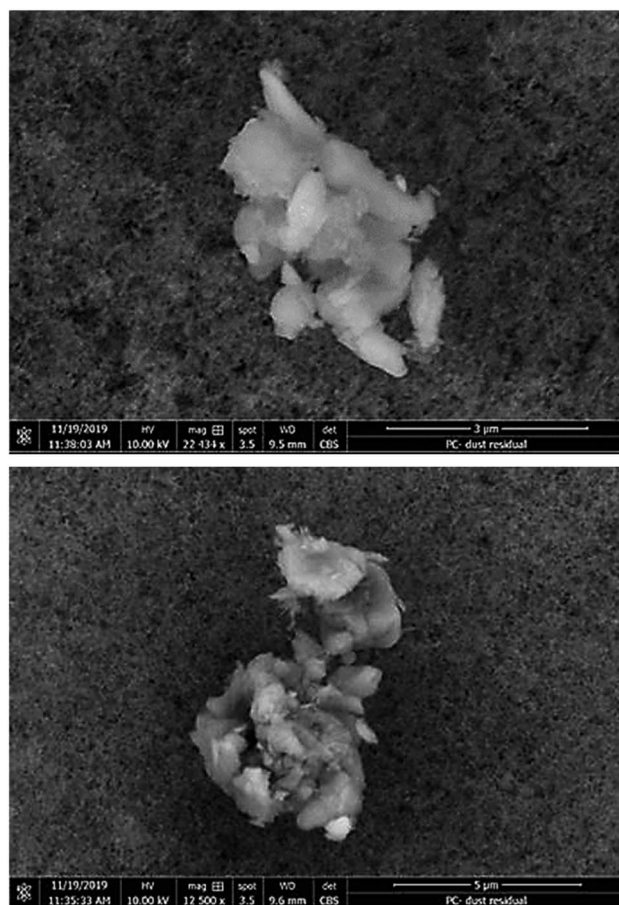


Fig. 8 The SEM micrographs of the dust residues on the droplet path. The dust residue is composed of small clusters of dust with sharp edges.

carbonated water droplet on the dusty hydrophobic surface is longer than that corresponding to the distilled water droplet. The possible explanation for this situation is that the gas-cushion formed along the droplet-free surface for the carbonated water droplet lowers the frictional resistance at the interface of the liquid droplet and the dust surface. In any case, the carbonated water droplet covers longer paths on the dusty hydrophobic surface than the distilled water droplet because of its high velocity. Fig. 8 shows the SEM micrographs of the dust residues on the carbonated droplet path.

The dust residues are small in size with sharp edges; hence, the dust particles, which are possibly not anchored on the coated surface, are removed by the rolling water droplet. Nevertheless, the amount of residue along the droplet path is less. This indicates that the gas cushion created around the carbonated water droplet does not suppress or reduce the rate of the dust particles removed from the dusty hydrophobic surface.

Conclusion

Dust mitigation from the inclined hydrophobic surface by a carbonated water droplet was explored and the removal



mechanisms of the dust particles by the rolling droplets were examined. Glass samples were used and hydrophobized by depositing the functionalized silica-nanoparticles on the surfaces, utilizing the dip coating technique. The environmental dusts collected were analysed to assess the elemental composition, size, and the surface free energy. The experiments were carried out using the high-speed recording system to monitor the gas bubble formations and the motion of the dust particles inside the carbonated water droplet. The analytical formulation of the translational velocity of the droplet on the inclined surface was introduced and the findings were compared with those obtained from the experiments. It was found that the analytical predictions of the droplet velocity follow the same trend as that obtained from the experiments. The initial infusion of the fluid droplet on the dusty surfaces (cloaking) enables the movement of the dust particles into the fluid droplet. This forms the base for dust mitigation from hydrophobic surfaces by a water droplet. The bubbles formed in the carbonated water droplet enable the formation of CO₂ gas cushions around the droplet-free surface while influencing the droplet motion on the inclined hydrophobic surface. In this case, the cushion-like structures lower the pinning forces, which are related to adhesion and friction of the rolling droplet. Hence, the translational velocity becomes larger for the carbonated water droplet than that of the distilled water droplet on the inclined hydrophobic surface. Some dust compounds, such as alkali and alkaline earth metal compounds, dissolve in carbonated water while creating nucleation sites for bubble formation. This increases the resorption of CO₂ gas in the fluid droplet, particularly in the bottom region of the droplet, where the dust particles are picked up by the fluid droplet. Hence, the rate of gas bubble formation increases on the dusty surface and this also shortens the duration of the dust particle cloaking by the fluid droplet while enhancing the dust particle removal rate from the surface. The droplet volume has a considerable influence on the dust removal from the surface. Dust causes termination of the translational motion of the small-volume distilled or carbonated water droplets (20 μ L) on the surface, particularly at low inclination angle of the surfaces ($\delta = 1^\circ$). The present study enlightens the behaviour of the carbonated water droplet on inclined hydrophobic surfaces and gives a detailed description of environmental dust removal by a rolling carbonated water droplet.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to acknowledge the support of the Deanship of Research, King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM), through project #IN171001, and King Abdullah City for Atomic and Renewable Energy (K.A.CARE).

References

- 1 G. Hassan, B. Yilbas, S. A. Said, N. Al-Aqeeli and A. Matin, *Sci. Rep.*, 2016, **6**(30253), 1–14.
- 2 E. Y.-T. Chen, Y. Chen, B. Guo and H. Liang, *Sol. Energy*, 2019, **194**, 840–847.
- 3 G. He, C. Zhou and Z. Li, *Procedia Eng.*, 2011, **16**, 640–645.
- 4 A. S. Alghamdi, A. S. Bahaj, L. S. Blunden and Y. Wu, *Energies*, 2019, **12**, 2923.
- 5 B. S. Yilbas, H. Al-Qahtani, A. Al-Sharafi, S. Bahattab, G. Hassan, N. Al-Aqeeli and M. Kassas, *Sci. Rep.*, 2019, **9**, 1–18.
- 6 P. Nair, K. Nithiyananthan and P. Dhinakar, *Journal of Advanced Research in Dynamical and Control Systems*, 2017, **9**, 22–34.
- 7 B. S. Yilbas, G. Hassan, H. Al-Qahtani, N. Al-Aqeeli, A. Al-Sharafi, A. S. Al-Merbati, T. N. Baroud and J. A. E. Adukwu, *Sci. Rep.*, 2019, **9**, 1–13.
- 8 B. S. Yilbas, A. Al-Sharafi and H. Ali, *Self-Cleaning of Surfaces and Water Droplet Mobility*, Elsevier, Cambridge, ISBN: 978-0-12-814776-4, 2019.
- 9 G. Hassan, B. S. Yilbas, A. Al-Sharafi and H. Al-Qahtani, *Sci. Rep.*, 2019, **9**(5744), 1–14.
- 10 G. Hassan, B. S. Yilbas, A. Al-Sharafi, A. Z. Sahin and H. Al-Qahtani, *Int. J. Energy Res.*, 2020, **44**, 388–401.
- 11 D. Panchanathan, P. Bourrianne, K. K. Varanasi and G. H. McKinley, *Phys. Rev. Fluids*, 2019, **4**, 100505.
- 12 P. Rahimian, L. Battrell, R. Anderson, N. Zhu, E. Johnson and L. Zhang, *Exp. Therm. Fluid Sci.*, 2018, **97**, 237–245.
- 13 P. Gopalan and S. G. Kandlikar, *J. Power Sources*, 2014, **248**, 230–238.
- 14 S. C. Cho, Y. Wang and K. S. Chen, *J. Power Sources*, 2012, **206**, 119–128.
- 15 X. Zhu, P. Sui and N. Djilali, *J. Power Sources*, 2008, **181**, 101–115.
- 16 J. H. Jo and W. T. Kim, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, 2015, **40**, 8368–8383.
- 17 O. A. Obeisun, D. P. Finegan, E. Engebretsen, J. B. Robinson, O. O. Taiwo, G. Hinds, P. R. Shearing and D. J. Brett, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, 2017, **42**, 4404–4414.
- 18 B. Munshi and S. Mohapatra, *Int. J. Therm. Sci.*, 2019, **143**, 27–36.
- 19 L. T. Lim, E. Y. Ah-kee, B. P. House and J. D. Walker, *Case Rep Emerg. Med.*, 2014, **2014**, 347868.
- 20 J. Aoki, K. Hayashi and A. Tomiyama, *Int. J. Heat Mass Transfer*, 2015, **83**, 652–658.
- 21 P. Calderbank, D. Johnson and J. Loudon, *Chem. Eng. Sci.*, 1970, **25**, 235–256.
- 22 K. Koide, T. Hayashi, K. Sumino and S. Iwamoto, *Chem. Eng. Sci.*, 1976, **31**, 963–967.
- 23 P. S. Epstein and M. S. Plesset, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 1950, **18**, 1505–1509.
- 24 O. R. Enríquez, C. Sun, D. Lohse, A. Prosperetti and D. van der Meer, *J. Fluid Mech.*, 2014, **741**, R1.
- 25 D. Greenspan, *Appl. Math. Model.*, 1995, **19**, 738–745.
- 26 J. Ramos, *Appl. Math. Model.*, 1997, **21**, 371–386.



- 27 B. M. Smirnov and R. S. Berry, *Chem. Cent. J.*, 2015, **9**, 48.
- 28 Y. Wang, Z. Chao and H. A. Jakobsen, *J. Nat. Gas Sci. Eng.*, 2010, **2**, 105–113.
- 29 X. Sun, B. Sun, Z. Wang, L. Chen and Y. Gao, *Chem. Eng. Sci.*, 2017, **173**, 168–178.
- 30 L. Mahadevan and Y. Pomeau, *Phys. Fluids*, 1999, **11**, 2449–2453.
- 31 D. Richard and D. Quéré, *Europhys. Lett.*, 1999, **48**, 286–291.
- 32 W. Y. D. Yong, Z. Zhang, G. Cristobal and W. S. Chin, *Colloids Surf., A*, 2014, **460**, 151–157.
- 33 S. Bhattacharya, J. J. Charonko and P. P. Vlachos, *Meas. Sci. Technol.*, 2018, **29**, 115301.
- 34 C. Van Oss, R. Good and M. Chaudhury, *J. Chromatogr. A*, 1987, **391**, 53–65.
- 35 B. Jańczuk, W. Wójcik and A. Zdziennicka, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, 1993, **157**, 384–393.
- 36 C. v. Oss, R. J. Good and R. Busscher, *J. Dispersion Sci. Technol.*, 1990, **11**, 75–81.
- 37 L. Galet, S. Patry and J. Dodds, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, 2010, **346**, 470–475.
- 38 F. Heib and M. Schmitt, *Coatings*, 2016, **6**, 57.
- 39 S. Anand, K. Rykaczewski, S. B. Subramanyam, D. Beysens and K. K. Varanasi, *Soft Matter*, 2015, **11**, 69–80.
- 40 D. Kim, N. M. Pugno and S. Ryu, *Sci. Rep.*, 2016, **6**, 37813.
- 41 V. Bergeron and D. Langevin, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, 1996, **76**, 3152–3155.
- 42 A. Carlson, P. Kim, G. Amberg and H. A. Stone, *Europhys. Lett.*, 2013, **104**, 34008.
- 43 B. W. McCormick, *Aerodynamics, Aeronautics and Flight Mechanics*, John Wiley & Sons, West Sussex, 1995.
- 44 B. S. Yilbas, A. Al-Sharafi, H. Ali and N. Al-Aqeeli, *RSC Adv.*, 2017, **7**, 48806–48818.
- 45 F. Brochard-Wyart, H. Hervet, C. Redon and F. Rondelez, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, 1991, **142**, 518–527.
- 46 B. S. Yilbas, G. Hassan, A. Al-Sharafi, H. Ali, N. Al-Aqeeli and A. Al-Sarkhi, *Sci. Rep.*, 2018, **8**(2984), 1–19.

