

Direct Measurement of the Spatial Damping of Capillary Waves at Liquid–Vapor Interfaces

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We measured the spatial damping of low-frequency surface waves at air–water interfaces using a novel heterodyne light-scattering technique. For pure water the measured damping agrees well with linear hydrodynamic theory. For interfaces covered with a monolayer of pentadecanoic acid, we find a 5-fold increase in damping at a surface concentration of 2.2 molecules nm⁻², near the high-density end of the gas/liquid-expanded coexistence region. The behavior of the damping as a function of surface concentration cannot be explained by existing theories.

The study of interfaces has attracted the attention of scientists throughout history. It has been known for a long time, for example, that a single surfactant monolayer at a liquid–vapor interface can lead to a dramatic attenuation of wave motion.^{1,2} Recently, because of the many technological applications of surfactants and because of the biological importance of monolayer films, the properties of these quasi-two-dimensional systems have been the subject of renewed interest. In spite of much research, however, there still is a lack of experimental data on surface viscoelastic properties. Yet the damping of surface waves has been attributed to these viscoelastic constants.³ Measurements of surface wave damping can therefore furnish information on surface viscoelastic properties.

A number of groups have used inelastic light scattering to study the damping of thermally excited capillary waves^{4,5} caused by spontaneous fluctuations. In principle, the temporal damping coefficient can be obtained from the width of the inelastic peaks in the spectrum of the scattered light.⁶ In practice, however, these peaks are instrumentally broadened. There is no direct method to determine the instrumental broadening, which frequently dominates the width, especially in the low-frequency regime. Other groups have studied capillary wave damping by looking at the deflection of a laser beam⁷ by induced surface waves.⁸ This technique works only for low-frequency surface waves, when the laser spot size is smaller than the surface wavelength. The results presented here were obtained using a novel differential light-scattering technique that is free of the difficulties mentioned above. We present data on capillary wave damping for pure water and pentadecanoic acid (PDA).

Interfacial waves of small amplitude caused a normal displacement of the interface, $\zeta = \zeta_0 \exp[i(kx - \omega t)]$, with ζ_0 the amplitude of the wave, k the wavevector, ω the frequency, and x the direction of propagation along the surface. From the linearized Navier–Stokes equation one obtains the following dispersion relation for waves on a liquid–vapor interface:⁹

$$[\sigma k^3 + \rho g k + i\eta\omega_0 k(k+m)\rho\omega_0^2][\epsilon k^2 + i\eta\omega_0(k+m)] + \omega_0^2 \eta^2 k(k-m)^2 = 0 \quad (1)$$

with

$$m = k\sqrt{1 + i\omega_0\rho/\eta k^2}$$

and where η is the dynamic viscosity, ρ the density of the liquid, g the gravitational acceleration, and σ the equilibrium surface tension. In the absence of surface viscosity, ϵ is the complex surface dilation modulus.

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For a pure interface ($\epsilon = 0$) in the low-viscosity limit, the frequency of a wave with real wavevector k , $\omega = \omega_0 - i\beta$, has a small imaginary component, $\beta = 2k_0^2\eta/\rho$, leading to temporal damping of the wave. This coefficient β can be obtained from the widths of the inelastic peaks in the spectrum of the light scattered from thermal capillary waves but requires deconvolution of instrumental line broadening.^{4,5} Alternatively, the wavevector for a wave of fixed real frequency ω_0 , has a small imaginary part contributing to spatial damping. Substituting $k = k_0 + i\alpha$ ($\alpha \ll k_0$) into eq 1 with $\epsilon = 0$, keeping only first-order terms in ν and α and neglecting the gravity term, we obtain

$$\alpha = 4\eta\omega_0/3\sigma \quad (2)$$

The spatial damping coefficient α is therefore related to β by $\beta = \alpha \partial\omega/\partial k$. In the experiment described below the spatial damping coefficient α is determined by measuring the exponential decay $e^{-\alpha x}$ of the amplitude of an induced surface wave.

In our experiment capillary waves of frequency $f_0 \equiv \omega_0/(2\pi)$ in the 0.5–2 kHz range are generated by applying a sinusoidal voltage (~ 100 V) of frequency $f_0/2$ to a metal blade placed about 1 mm from the interface.⁷ For pure water, where eq 1 reduces to $\omega^2 = (\sigma/\rho)k^3 + gk$, these frequencies yield wavelengths of 0.5–1.2 mm. To probe the wave amplitude as a function of distance x , we use a heterodyne light-scattering technique described previously.¹⁰ Since translating the probe spot is not practical, one must translate the blade to vary x . To compensate for any variation in the distance between the blade tip and the surface during translation, we use a differential technique and measure the ratio between wave amplitudes on both sides of the blade.

A schematic diagram of the experimental setup is shown in Figure 1. A 10-mW He–Ne laser beam is split into a main beam (M) and a much weaker (5%) local oscillator (LO). The frequency of the two beams is shifted using a pair of acoustooptic modulators, giving the beams a frequency difference $\Delta f = 5.1$ kHz.¹⁰ The M and LO beams are focused onto a single 2-mm-diameter spot on the surface at an incidence angle of about 60°. The angle between the two beams is adjusted so as to make the difference of the incident light wavevectors match the induced surface wavevector.

An identical pair of M and LO beams is focused onto a second probe spot on the other side of the blade at a fixed distance $d = 40$ mm from the first. Since the induced waves travel in opposite directions at the two probe spots, the detected signals are at frequencies $\Delta f - f_0$ and $\Delta f + f_0$, respectively (see Figure 1). The two scattered light beams are combined and detected with a single photomultiplier tube. The photomultiplier signal is digitized at a 20-kHz rate and then Fourier-transformed to obtain the power spectrum of the scattered light.¹⁰

A typical spectrum is shown in Figure 2. It consists of an intense central peak at the carrier frequency Δf , and satellite peaks centered at $\Delta f \pm f_0$. The two sharp peaks result from the