



1 **The mechanism of spray electrification: the waterfall effect**

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12 Abstract

13           The waterfall effect describes the separation of charge by splashing at the base of a waterfall.  
14 Smaller drops that have a net negative charge are created, while larger drops and/or the bulk maintain  
15 overall charge neutrality with a net positive charge. Since it was first described by Lenard (1892) the  
16 effect has been confirmed many times, but a molecular explanation has not been available. Application  
17 of our fluctuation-correlation model of hydrophobic hydration accounts for the negative charge  
18 observed at aqueous interfaces with low permittivity materials. The negative surface charge observed in  
19 the waterfall effect is created by the preferential adsorption of hydroxide ions generated from the  
20 autolysis of water. On splashing, shear forces generate small negative drops from the surface, leaving a  
21 positive charge on the remaining large fragment. The waterfall effect is a manifestation of the general  
22 phenomenon of the negative charge at the interface between water and hydrophobic surfaces that is  
23 created by the preferential adsorption of hydroxide ions.

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26        1. **The waterfall effect**

27        Lenard (1892) reported that the air near the base of a waterfall was negatively charged; subsequent  
28        laboratory experiments indicated that breakup of the water stream is required; a jet of water did not  
29        lead to charge separation (Lenard, 1915). The phenomenon now known as Lenard, waterfall,  
30        balloelectric or spray electrification is well established, having been confirmed at various times and  
31        places (Natanson,1950) (Pierce,1965) (Reiter, 1994) (Laakso, 2007) (Kolarz, 2012). Recent work has  
32        shown that the numbers of both negatively and positively charged small clusters of water molecules less  
33        than 30 nm in diameter are increased but that the negatively charged ‘air ions’ are at least ten times  
34        more numerous than the positive ones (Kolarz, 2012).

35        2. **The search for an explanation**

36        An explanation for the negative charge in the air around the base of a waterfall has been  
37        elusive. Pierce *et al.* wrote “The mechanism producing the space charge remains obscure.”(1965).  
38        Laakso and colleagues wrote: “How waterfalls produce ions is far from being completely  
39        understood.”(2006). Kamra in 2015 states “The mechanism responsible for production of charge and the  
40        nature of ions produced during splashing of raindrops are not well understood.” (Kamra, 2015) Lenard  
41        himself proposed a double layer model in which the dipolar water molecules orient themselves at the  
42        surface of bubbles with the negative end pointing outwards and the positive end pointing inwards. The  
43        latter would attract negative ions which are carried onto small drops when the water breaks up into a  
44        spray. There does not appear to be any independent evidence for this orientation of water dipoles at  
45        the interface (Liu, 2012)(Samson, 2013).

46        3. **The hydroxide ion charge**

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48 It has been known since 1861 that air bubbles in water are negatively charged and migrate  
49 toward the positive electrode in an electrophoresis experiment (Quincke, 1861). Such measurements  
50 have been refined and repeated many times, always with the same result: the bubbles are negative. Oil  
51 drops in water behave similarly. It has long been known that they spontaneously acquire a negative  
52 charge and migrate toward the positive electrode in a dc electrophoresis cell (Carruthers, 1938). From  
53 the pH dependence of the zeta potential, it was inferred that adsorption of hydroxide ions was  
54 responsible for the negative charge (Carruthers, 1938) (Marinova, 1996). By measuring the pH changes  
55 accompanying the formation of an emulsion with its large surface area, the surface charge density of oils  
56 that have very low solubilities in water is obtained (Beattie, 2004). Its value of  $\sim 5 \mu\text{C cm}^{-2}$  corresponds  
57 to the adsorption of one hydroxide ion on every  $3 \text{ nm}^2$  of the oil surface, and is nearly independent of  
58 the identity of the oil. Although the surface charge density at the air/water interface has not been  
59 measured directly, the similarity of the pH dependence of the zeta potentials indicates that it must be  
60 almost the same. Indeed the surface charge density at the Teflon/water interface of  $4 \mu\text{C cm}^{-2}$   
61 (Preocanin, 2012) indicates that the charge is largely a property of water, almost independent of the  
62 hydrophobic substrate.

### 63 3.1 The fluctuation-correlation model

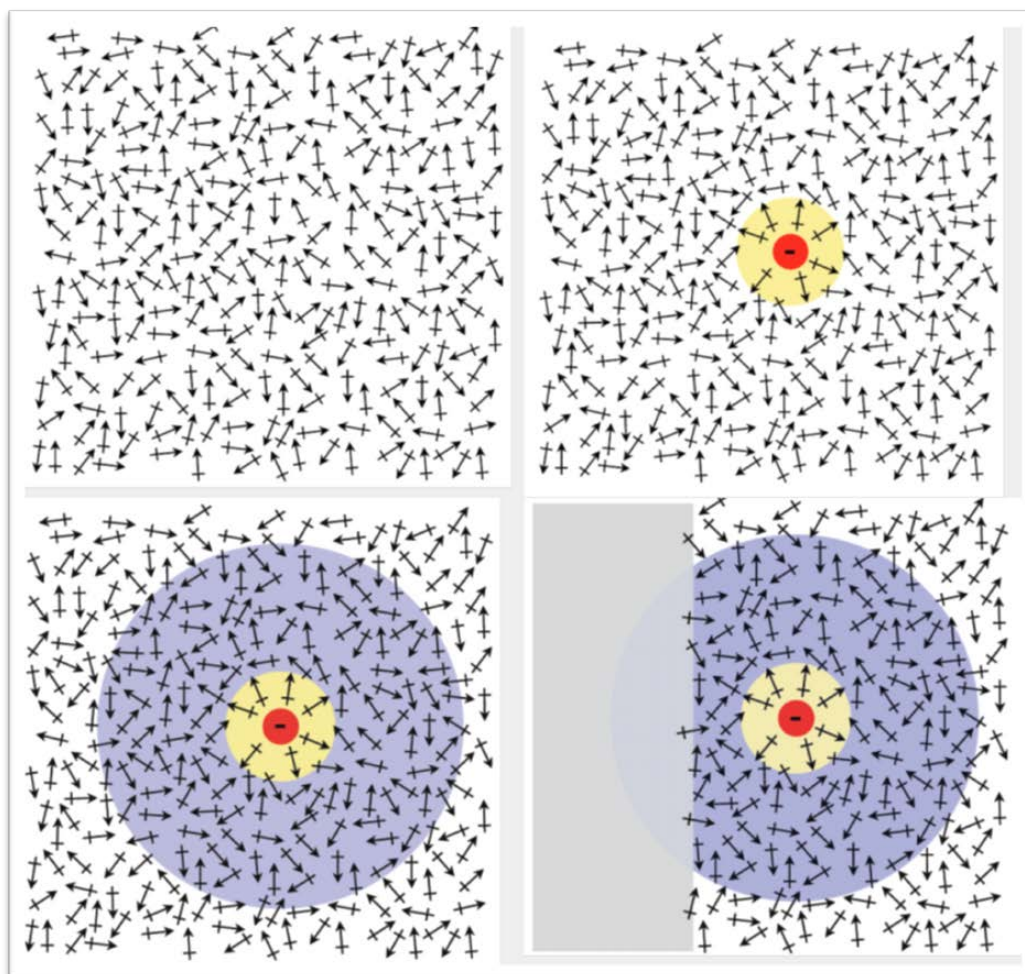
64 The cause of this preferential adsorption of hydroxide ions remained obscure until 2009 (Gray-  
65 Weale, 2009). We then argued that the hydroxide ion suppresses correlations among fluctuating water  
66 dipoles near the ion and is thus repelled from the bulk by a dispersion force. In a pure polar liquid,  
67 molecules fluctuate in arrangement, and the moments of any two regions of the solvent interact and  
68 become correlated (Figure 1a). This leads to a cohesive force that in part holds the solvent together. The  
69 attraction between two atoms due to correlated, fluctuating, electronic dipoles is the familiar van der  
70 Waals force and has the same mechanism, but in the case of a polar solvent all sources of polarisation



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74 fluctuations, electronic and molecular, are included. An ion in a polar solvent has a solvation shell which  
75 is constrained (Figure 1b) and unable to fluctuate or become correlated with molecules further from the  
76 ion (Figure 1c). This constraint costs free energy because the correlations and consequent attractive  
77 interactions are removed. If the hydroxide ion approaches an interface with a hydrophobe, (a region of



78 low relative permittivity) the constraint of the solvent molecules near the ion costs less free energy,  
79 because here there are fewer fluctuating solvent molecules within range. This is shown by the overlap of  
80 the fluctuating region with the hydrophobe (Figure 1d). The overlap region contributes to the free-  
81 energy cost of the constrained solvation sphere only when the ion is in the bulk. (Note that the strength  
82 of correlations decays smoothly with distance: the larger circle in Fig 1 is misleading by suggesting a  
83 sharp cut off in correlation range, but it is a useful illustration of the mechanism.) The hydroxide ion is  
84 preferentially attracted to the interface because it has a particularly large dielectric decrement (Gray-  
85 Weale, 2009). An aqueous anion is attracted to an interface with a low-dielectric hydrophobe where  
86 there are fewer water molecules that are excluded from fluctuation correlations with the hydration  
87 waters about the anion.

### 88 3.2 Molecular explanation

89 The molecular explanation of the waterfall effect is now completed by recognising that for clean water  
90 with an ionic strength of the order  $10^{-5}$  M the double layer thickness is approximately 100 nm. Zilch and  
91 colleagues have given a detailed account of how the rupture of a large drop with an excess of negative  
92 charge at the surface leads to a population of small, negatively charged droplets (Zilch, 2008). They  
93 attribute the accumulation of negative charge to the attraction of hydroxide ions to oriented water  
94 dipoles, but their account can be simply re-expressed in terms of the fluctuation-correlation  
95 explanation. The mechanics of the droplet formation remain the same .

96 The waterfall effect is hence the consequence of the spontaneous negative charge of the air/water  
97 interface followed by the shear rupture of the overall neutral drop into nanoscopic negative fragments  
98 from the surface with a net positive charge in the core.

## 99 4. Other manifestations



100           The creation of a charged interface by the spontaneous adsorption of hydroxide ions should be  
101 manifest in other phenomena involving water droplets. The interior pH of a millimeter diameter  
102 raindrop will not be affected by the adsorption of hydroxide ions to the surface because the surface to  
103 volume ratio is too small. But smaller fog and mist drops with larger surface-to-volume ratios could have  
104 a more acidic interior. The increased acidity of small water drops has been observed by single-molecule-  
105 sensitive fluorescence resonance energy transfer of labelled rna in freely-diffusing droplets . The spectra  
106 of the rna in 230 nm drops shifts to that characteristic of weakly acidic solutions of pH 4 from that  
107 observed in neutral solution without droplets.(Rahmenseresht, 2015)

108           The charge on the air/water interface has a profound effect on the rates of reactions at the  
109 surface. In a series of elegant experiments with a water jet, Colussi and colleagues (Mishra, 2012) have  
110 demonstrated that the isoelectric point for acid-base reactions between the water surface and gaseous  
111 reactants is shifted from pH7 to pH3, just as is found for acid-base equilibria at the air/water and  
112 oil/water interfaces. The agreement between these very different measurements provides strong  
113 support for the hydroxide explanation and eliminates some alternative interpretations.

## 114           **5. Conclusion**

115           In summary, recognition of the role of the hydroxide ion in the spontaneous charging of the  
116 air/water interface provides the molecular explanation for the waterfall effect that has been missing  
117 since the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Together with the recent observations of charged nanodrops by Laakso and  
118 Tammet and their co-workers, and the description of the fragmentation of neutral into charged drops,  
119 the explanation of this effect is complete.

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124

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