

1 Chemical Control of Hydrodynamic Instabilities in Partially Miscible 2 Two-Layer Systems

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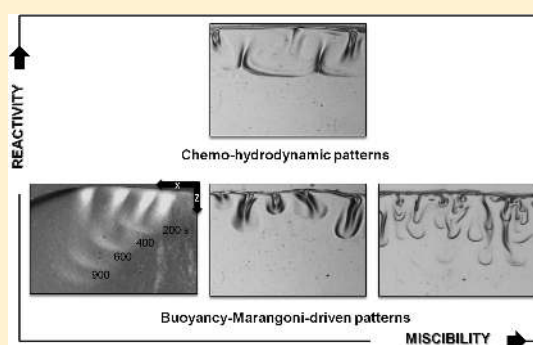
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8 **ABSTRACT:** Hydrodynamic instabilities at the interface between
 9 two partially miscible liquids impact numerous applications, including
 10 CO₂ sequestration in saline aquifers. We introduce here a new
 11 laboratory-scale model system on which buoyancy- and Marangoni-
 12 driven convective instabilities of such partially miscible two-layer
 13 systems can easily be studied. This system consists of the stratification
 14 of a pure alkyl formate on top of a denser aqueous solution in the
 15 gravitational field. A rich spectrum of convective dynamics is obtained
 16 upon partial dissolution of the ester into the water followed by its
 17 hydrolysis. The properties of the convective patterns are controlled
 18 by the miscibility of the ester in water, the feedback of the dissolved
 19 species on its own miscibility, as well as the reactivity of given
 20 chemicals in the aqueous solution with the solubilized ester.

21 **SECTION:** Liquids; Chemical and Dynamical Processes in Solution



22 **T**he study of buoyancy-driven convective mixing of partially
 23 miscible fluids has recently gained renewed interest
 24 because this process is at the heart of CO₂ sequestration
 25 techniques, in which supercritical CO₂ is injected into
 26 underground aquifers or petroleum reservoirs. After injection,
 27 the CO₂ rises up to the impermeable cap rock, forming a layer
 28 of less dense liquid on top of the denser brine or alkanes in
 29 which it partially dissolves. The denser layer of dissolved CO₂
 30 then starts to sink into the lower liquid because of a buoyancy-
 31 driven instability favoring further dissolution and mixing.^{1,2}
 32 Chemical reactions can affect this dissolution because of their
 33 feedback on the miscibility of CO₂ and on the density
 34 gradients^{3,4} and hence on the buoyancy-driven mixing.
 35 Reaction products may also influence surface tension gradients
 36 at the partially miscible interface and thus trigger Marangoni
 37 flows. Such phenomena are difficult to explore in situ, and
 38 simple model systems on which fundamental experimental
 39 studies can be performed are needed.

40 Investigations of such interfacial hydrodynamic instabilities
 41 have up to now been mainly focused on either fully miscible or
 42 totally immiscible two-layer systems. In miscible systems,
 43 Rayleigh–Taylor and double-diffusive instabilities have long
 44 been known to affect stratification of nonreactive fluids in the
 45 gravity field.⁵ For reactive systems, convective dynamics have
 46 also been experimentally and theoretically studied,⁶ showing
 47 how the reaction can severely change the symmetry of
 48 convective modes.⁷ Nonreactive double-layer miscible systems
 49 with nonideal mixing properties have also been proposed to
 50 mimic supercritical CO₂ dynamics at the interface with

51 aquifers.^{8,9} However, the studies of such miscible interfaces
 52 can only address buoyancy-driven convection and cannot take
 53 into account the influence of partial miscibility and surface
 54 tension effects on convective instabilities and transport
 55 phenomena.

56 In parallel, in immiscible two-layer systems, coupling of
 57 reactions with buoyancy- and Marangoni-driven instabilities is
 58 responsible for a variety of patterns and complex spatiotem-
 59 poral dynamics including oscillations and interfacial turbu-
 60 lence.^{10–14} Typically, these systems consist of two layers of
 61 one or more solutes diffusing from one solvent to the other
 62 provides the engine for chemical processes as well as density
 63 and surface tension gradients at the origin of convective
 64 motions.¹⁷ Convection can develop in both phases, and chemo-
 65 hydrodynamic processes are eventually dominated by a
 66 diffusion-limited regime.¹⁸ Immiscible systems lack thus the
 67 specificity of partially miscible systems, which is a constant
 68 feeding of reaction–diffusion–convection (RDC) dynamics
 69 thanks to the one-way-directed transfer of matter from the
 70 infinite reservoir of one pure liquid phase toward the “host”
 71 one, governed by a solubilization process. In that case,
 72 buoyancy- and Marangoni-driven convective motions can
 73 maintain a strong feedback with the mass transfer rate.¹⁹
 74 When a chemical reaction impacts the solubilization kinetics,
 75

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76 the chemical environment and physics of the system also
77 change in time, further affecting the stability between the two
78 layers.^{20,21} Despite the interest for CO₂ sequestration and other
79 applications,^{22,23} studies and classification of RDC dynamics
80 around spatially extended partially miscible interfaces are
81 however missing.

82 In this Letter, we introduce the partially miscible
83 stratification of an ester on top of a denser aqueous solution
84 in a quasi-two-dimensional reactor as a rich laboratory-scale
85 model system for experimental and theoretical studies of
86 chemo-hydrodynamic instabilities at the interface between two
87 partially miscible liquids. We also demonstrate how chemical
88 reactions in the aqueous phase allow for a direct control of the
89 hydrodynamic instabilities. This system features all specific
90 characteristics of spatiotemporal convective dynamics in
91 partially miscible systems and of their dependence on the
92 miscibility, the solubilization kinetics, and chemical trans-
93 formations.

94 Alkyl formates are organic ester compounds of general
95 formula HCOOR', where R' is an alkyl chain. They are partially
96 miscible in water with a solubilization constant of $\chi_e = e_o/e_{(org)}$,
97 where e_o and $e_{(org)}$ represent the dimensional concentration of
98 the alkyl formate in the saturated water phase and the
99 dimensional pure ester concentration in the organic phase,
100 respectively (see Table 1 and ref 24). In water, alkyl formates

Table 1. Values of the Experimental Parameters for Three Alkyl Formates, HCOOR', with Increasing Alkyl Chain^a

| alkyl chain (R') | ρ_e at 20 °C (g cm ⁻³) | $(1/\rho_w)(\partial\rho/\partial e)$ (M ⁻¹) | χ_e^{24} (%) |
|--|--|---|----------------------|
| methyl- (-CH ₃) | 0.974 | 0.0060 ± 0.0005 | 30 |
| ethyl- (-CH ₂ CH ₃) | 0.921 | 0.0020 ± 0.0010 | 10 |
| propyl- (-CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃) | 0.904 | na | 0.2 |

^a $\rho_w = 0.9982$ g cm⁻³ is the pure water density at 20 °C.

101 undergo a slow spontaneous hydrolysis in neutral conditions to
102 produce formic acid, HCOOH, and the alcohol, R'OH. The
103 kinetics of the hydrolysis process is autocatalytic in acidic
104 conditions²⁵ and is also considerably accelerated in an alkaline
105 environment.²⁶ In aqueous solutions of alkaline hydroxides
106 (MOH), the ester reacts with the base to yield a formate salt
107 (HCOOM) and an alcohol (R'OH), according to the scheme



109 where M stands for the metal counterion of OH⁻. We study the
110 chemo-hydrodynamic properties of the ester/water system in a
111 quasi-two-dimensional geometry, where the less dense pure
112 ester phase is set on top of the denser aqueous layer in the
113 gravity field. The experimental setup consists of a Hele–Shaw
114 cell made of two borosilicate glass plates separated by a thin
115 polymer mask giving a gap width of 1 mm.²⁷ The dynamics in
116 the colorless solutions is followed by an optical phase-shifting
117 Schlieren technique^{28,29} visualizing the variations in space and
118 time of the refractive index, which are related to the density
119 gradients inside of the solutions. All experimental images have a
120 field of view of 2 cm × 2 cm. Reagent-grade reactants (Sigma-
121 Aldrich) are used without further purification.

122 The typical convective instability observed with a short alkyl
123 chain formate (methyl formate) is shown in Figure 1a; starting

from a buoyantly stable configuration, a hydrodynamic density
fingering instability develops below the interface upon
dissolution of pure methyl formate in the denser pure water.
Here, the hydrolysis process is extremely slow with respect to
the time scale at which the hydrodynamic instability occurs, and
convective motions are induced by the local accumulation of
the dissolved ester, HCOOCH_{3(aq)}} just below the contact line
between the aqueous and the organic phases. The convective
dynamics is localized in the aqueous layer. Convective flows
further enhance the solubilization of the ester in the water
phase, thus feeding the instability similarly to what is observed
in convective dissolution of CO₂ in water.¹ Once the fingers
appear, they grow along the gravitational field, but they also
exhibit a slow horizontal drift from the center to the borders of
the cell (and vice versa), forming preferential hydrodynamic
paths where fingers merge and persist in time (see also Figure
1c). As the formate dissolves into the water, the interface not
only tends to move upward, it also ripples and exhibits the
formation of soliton-like horizontal waves, reminiscent of
dissipative waves observed at the surface of liquids in
Marangoni-driven flows.^{15,16} The presence of an interfacial
Marangoni contribution to the flow can be attributed here to
the ester transfer into water and to the slow production of the
alcohol that, even in traces, can induce strong surface activity.¹⁷
In order to check the relative weight in the convective flows of
vertical buoyancy-driven motions versus horizontal Marangoni
flows close to the interface, we performed analogous experi-
ments with the cell perpendicularly oriented with respect to the
gravitational field. With this horizontal configuration, no
convective motions could be detected, indicating that, contra-
rily to the buoyancy-induced flows, Marangoni-driven con-
vection is not suitable by itself to initiate the solubilization
process and, thus, can be considered as a side effect also in the
phenomenology of vertical experiments carried out in neutral
conditions.

When the top layer is ethyl formate or propyl formate,
buoyancy-driven fingering is also observed (Figure 1b,c). As for
the methyl formate, convective dissolution is here dominated
by the solubilization process rather than by the hydrolysis
reaction. Comparing Figure 1a–c, we see that the system is less
unstable when the length of the alkyl chain R' increases as less
fingers appear and as they grow on a longer time scale. In the
case of propyl formate/water, we observe just one finger
emerging over a time scale 1 order of magnitude slower with
respect to the methyl formate/water stratification. In the
space–time plot of Figure 1c (right panel), we can appreciate
the convective dynamics in which the fingers travel horizontally
along the contact line, with a speed comparable to the slow
vertical development. The instability growth rate follows the
tendency of these esters to mix in water as convection develops
more vigorously for shorter alkyl formates that are more
miscible in water. However, it is opposite to the reactivity that,
according to kinetic investigations,²⁵ increases with the alkyl
chain length.

The relative importance of the miscibility and of the
reactivity of the ester in the convective dissolution dynamics
can be rationalized by means of a minimal model in which the
solubilization and reactive processes are coupled with the
Stokes equations, governing the evolution of the velocity field \mathbf{v}
= (u,v)^T in the reactor. We consider a two-dimensional vertical
slab in a reference frame (x,z), in which the gravitational vector
 \mathbf{g} is oriented against the vertical direction z. Because the upper
organic phase is not affected by the hydrodynamic flows, we

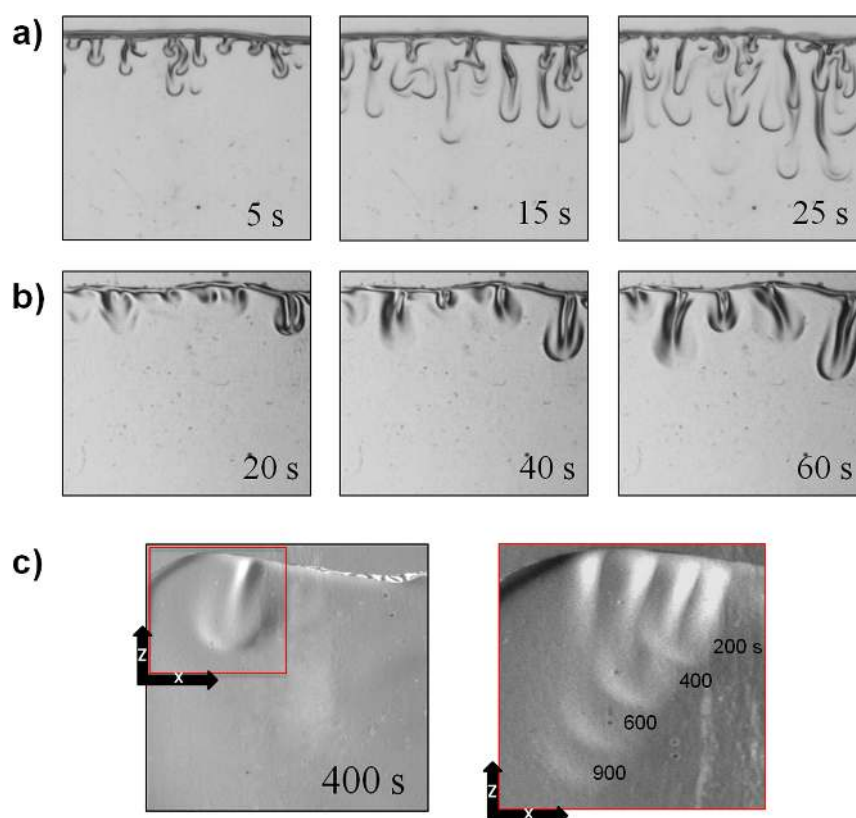


Figure 1. Typical density fingering observed experimentally below the horizontal interface between pure water and pure methyl formate (a), ethyl formate, (b) and propyl formate (c). The ester lies on top of the aqueous phase. In (c), the space–time plot in the right panel follows at successive times the vertical growth and the horizontal drifting of the finger shown in the left panel within the red frame (field of view $0.95 \text{ cm} \times 0.95 \text{ cm}$).

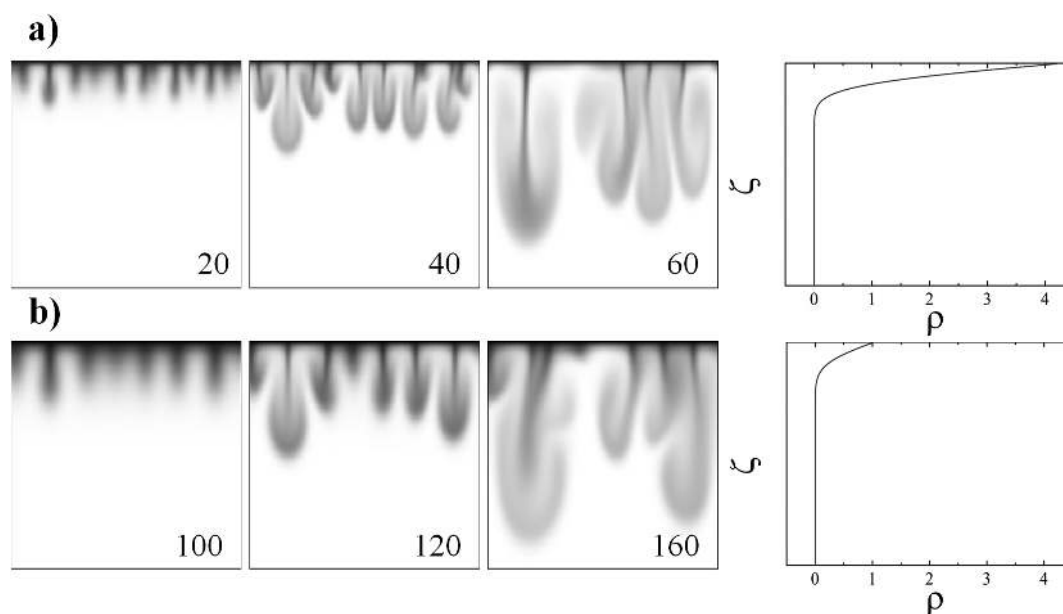


Figure 2. Spatiotemporal dynamics of the ester concentration computed numerically for the nonreactive convective dissolution of methyl formate/water (a) and ethyl formate/water (b) stratification. The last snapshot of each row shows the asymptotic dimensionless density profile ($R_e = 1$), which has a self-similar form in the rescaled variable $\zeta = z/(D_e t)^{1/2}$. To emphasize the difference in the density profile of the two systems, concentration values are scaled over the ethyl formate concentration in the saturated water phase. The spatial domain of numerical simulations is 1 cm^2 .

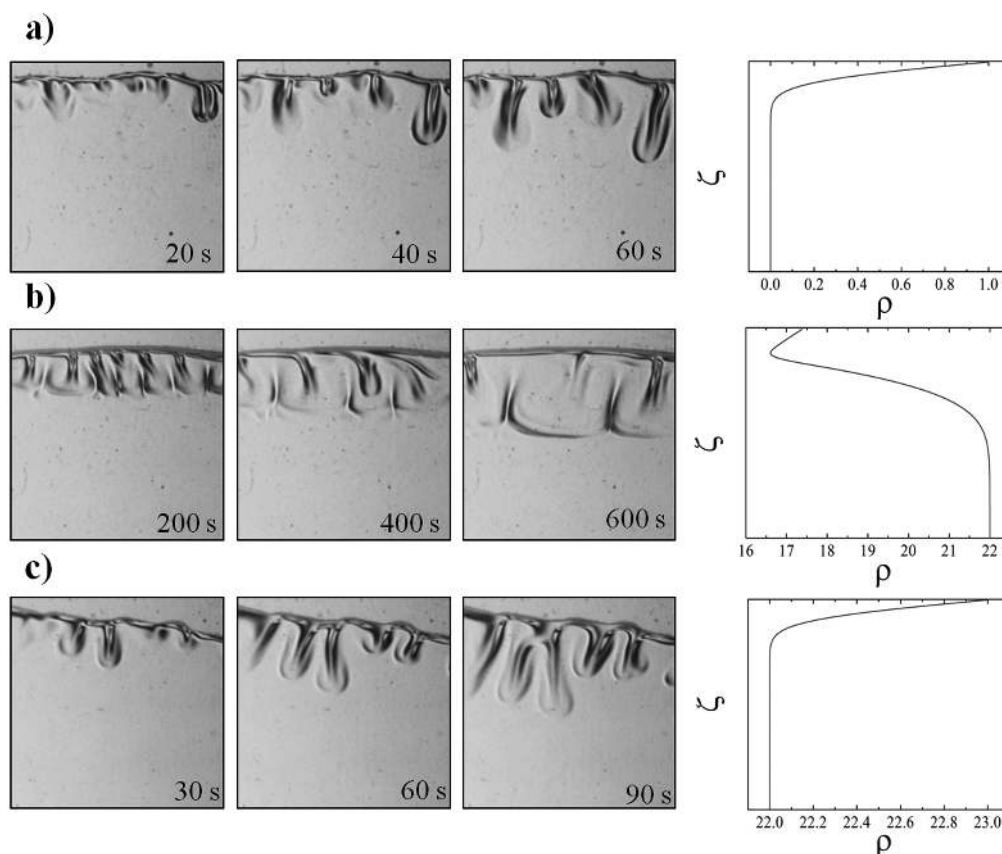


Figure 3. Experimental spatiotemporal dynamics below of the interface between ethyl formate and (a) pure water, (b) 1 M NaOH solution, and (c) 1.07 M NaCl solution. In the (b) and (c), the aqueous solutions have the same initial density. The last snapshot of each row shows the asymptotic density profile computed numerically, as described in the text by using $R_{\text{HCOOEt}} = 1.0$, $R_{\text{NaOH}} \approx 22.0$, $R_{\text{HCOONa}} = 20.5$, and $R_{\text{EtOH}} = -4.1$.

187 focus our description on the bottom aqueous layer of width L_x
 188 and height L_z . Moreover, as the upward drifting of the interface
 189 is negligible on the hydrodynamic time scale, the reference
 190 frame is kept fixed. No-slip boundary conditions are imposed to
 191 the velocity field, and no-flux at all boundaries are used for all
 192 concentrations except that at the top where we take a constant
 193 value e_o boundary condition for the ester. This mimics the
 194 constant amount of formate solubilizing at the interface from
 195 the upper phase, which, under the hypothesis of local
 196 equilibrium, is given by the solubility $e_o = e|_{L_z} = \chi_e e_{(\text{org})}$.³⁰
 197 The dimensionless RDC equations^{6,31} are written in the
 198 Boussinesq approximation and in the vorticity-stream function
 199 ($\omega - \psi$) form

$$\frac{\partial c_i}{\partial t} + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \frac{\partial c_i}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \frac{\partial c_i}{\partial z} \right) = \delta_i \nabla^2 c_i + \mathcal{D} f_i$$

200 \forall i th chemical species (2)

$$\nabla^2 \omega = \sum_i R_i \frac{\partial c_i}{\partial x}$$

201 (3)

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = -\omega$$

202 (4)

203 where the horizontal and the vertical components of the
 204 velocity field are tied to the stream function through the
 205 relations $u = \partial_z \psi$ and $v = -\partial_x \psi$. The c_i indicates the

dimensionless aqueous concentration of the i th species, and f_i 206
 is the related chemical kinetics. In our description, we introduce 207
 the Damköhler number \mathcal{D} as the ratio between the 208
 hydrodynamic and the chemical time scales.³¹ In neutral 209
 conditions, the reactive process can be neglected with respect 210
 to the hydrodynamic characteristic time scale (thus, $\mathcal{D} \rightarrow 0$), 211
 and the aqueous alkyl formate with dimensionless concen- 212
 tration c_e is the only species ruling the system instability. The 213
 second-order kinetics $f_i = kc_e c_{\text{MOH}}$ describing reaction 1 comes 214
 into play when we consider the alkaline hydrolysis. In this case, 215
 the hydrodynamic and the chemical time scales are comparable 216
 ($\mathcal{D} \approx 1$), and the reaction products are also taken into account 217
 in the model along with the ester and the base. For simplicity, 218
 the diffusivity ratios $\delta_i = D_i/D_e$ between each species diffusivity 219
 D_i and the ester diffusivity in water D_e are all taken equal to 220
 unity. The buoyancy ratio $R_i = (\partial \rho / \partial [i]) / (\partial \rho / \partial e)$ quantifies 221
 the relative contribution of the i th species to the local 222
 dimensionless density as 223

$$\rho(i) = \sum_i R_i c_i$$

(5) 224

As shown in Figure 2, the main dynamical features observed 225
 experimentally for the different alkyl formates are well- 226
 reproduced numerically and can be understood in terms of 227
 the dimensionless asymptotic density profiles.^{6,7} These are 228
 derived by introducing in eq 5 the numerical asymptotic 229
 concentration profiles of the pure reaction–diffusion problem 230

(eq 2) (with $\psi = 0$) and the proper values for the buoyancy ratio R_i of each active chemical species as given in Figure 2. At long times ($t \rightarrow \infty$), the reaction–diffusion solutions converge to a self-similar concentration profile in the rescaled variable $\zeta = z/(D_e t)^{1/2}$. In the nonreactive case, the density profiles in the aqueous layer (see the last snapshots in Figure 2) show a local maximum at the top of the water phase where the dissolving alkyl formate produces a mass accumulation with respect to the bottom region. The density jump decreases as the alkyl chain length becomes longer, that is, when the decrease in solubility leads to a smaller density maximum. As supported by the numerical simulations in Figure 2, the effect is that the less soluble ester (Figure 2b) produces a smaller density jump below the interface and hence slow-growing fingers while the instability readily develops with the more soluble methyl formate (Figure 2a). Both experimental and numerical evidence lead us to propose the solubilization constant of an ester, χ_e , as the main parameter influencing the density jump at the interface in nonreactive conditions and, hence, the onset time and the strength of the convective instability. In the modeling, this dependence on χ_e (and on $e_{(\text{org})}$) explicitly appears in the characteristic hydrodynamic time and spatial scales t_h and L_h .³¹

Control of the convective instabilities in this ester/water two-layer system can be achieved by tuning the density profile (i) by changing ad hoc the density profile of the aqueous solution (through local changes in temperature for instance³³), (ii) by influencing ad hoc the ester solubilization through a suitable change of the chemical or physical environment in the aqueous layer (via the addition of an inert compound, for instance, or a change of the global temperature), and/or (iii) promoting in situ changes of type (i) and (ii) through a chemical reaction.

To demonstrate experimentally the efficiency of the scenario where chemistry strongly modifies the hydrodynamic instability, we analyze spatiotemporal dynamics of a reactive case when the hydrolysis process is catalyzed by a base, as in reaction 1. Solutions of NaOH are used in the lower layer, and the concentration of the alkaline solute is varied in the range if [0.01, 2.00] M. Figure 3 compares the nonreactive solubilization of ethyl formate in pure water (Figure 3a) with the reactive one in NaOH (Figure 3b). We observe, thanks to the reaction, a strong stabilization of fingering that develops at the same vertical extent as that in Figure 3a but on a much longer time scale. This is related to the fact that the solutal expansion coefficient of the sodium formate produced by the hydrolysis reaction (its contribution to the density has been measured to be $(1/\rho_w)/(\partial\rho/\partial[\text{HCOONa}]) = 0.0410 \pm 0.0005 \text{ M}^{-1}$) is smaller than that of the base ($(1/\rho_w)/(\partial\rho/\partial[\text{NaOH}]) = 0.044 \text{ M}^{-1}$; see ref 32). The formation upon reaction of alcohol also decreases the local density of the medium ($(1/\rho_w)/(\partial\rho/\partial[\text{EtOH}]) = 0.0081 \text{ M}^{-1}$; see ref 32). The result is that if the initial amount of base is large enough to transform a significant part of aqueous alkyl formate into the related less dense salt and the alcohol, a nonmonotonic density distribution with a depletion zone below the interface develops along the gravity field (see the last snapshot in Figure 3b). This density minimum features a stabilizing barrier that refrains from the fingering growth. Note that relative changes in density as small as 10^{-3} are already sufficient to trigger macroscopic convective motions in a few seconds.^{6,7} Depending upon the relative contribution of the reactants and products to the total density, the fingering arising from a solubilization mechanism can thus be controlled by a reaction. In the case of a nonmonotonic density profile with a minimum like that in the case discussed

above, convective patterns are prevented from developing downward. On the contrary, convective dissolution can be enhanced if the density profile remains monotonic and the density maximum at the interface is intensified by the chemical process.

In Figure 4a, the stabilizing effect experienced in the alkaline hydrolysis is quantified as a function of the concentration of the

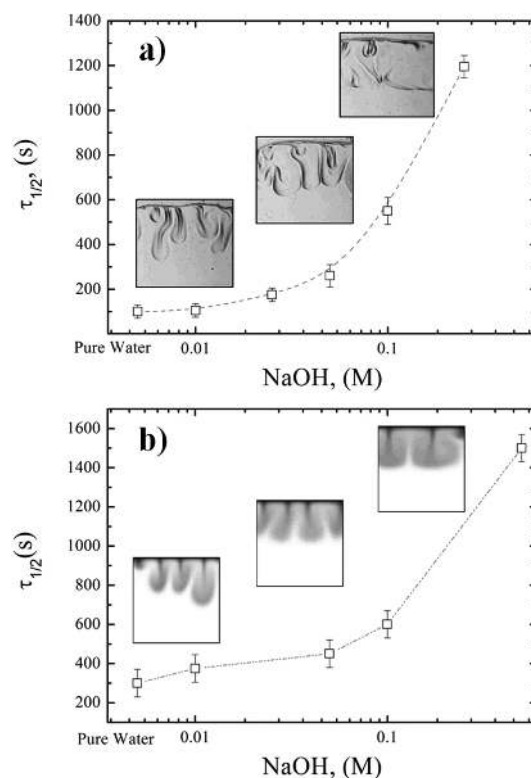


Figure 4. Experimental (a) and numerical (b) characteristic time $\tau_{1/2}$ of the fingers growth as a function of the alkaline concentration of the aqueous phase.

base by computing $\tau_{1/2}$, the time required for the fingers to reach the mid length of the aqueous layer. This observable embeds average information on the fingering growth rate. The $\tau_{1/2}$ values reported for each concentration point are averaged over six experiments, and the typical patterns obtained are also shown. There is an initial concentration domain where the dynamics is unaffected by the alkaline hydrolysis. For concentrations larger than $[\text{NaOH}] = 0.1 \text{ M}$, the system undergoes an increase in $\tau_{1/2}$. The slowing down of the instability goes along with a change in the finger's shape, which turns into "fatter" structures due to the dynamical formation of a minimum in the density profile (Figure 3b). The width of the fingers becomes larger as the alkaline solute concentration is increased and, typically, squared cells developing for $[\text{NaOH}]$ larger than 1 M merge into a homogeneous stratification. It is worth remarking here that the control of the instability is completely governed by solutal density changes due to the reaction. Thermal contributions are negligible³⁴ while the shift of the aqueous solution density toward larger values is not able to induce the same effect on the finger growth and/or analogous patterns as a minimum in density. This can be verified by comparing the snapshots of Figure 3b and c, which

323 show isopycnic aqueous phases but feature an alkaline and a
324 neutral environment, respectively. When the inert salt NaCl is
325 added (Figure 3c), regular fingers with a faster characteristic
326 time scale and a morphology comparable to those of the pure
327 water case develop. This is because the density profile (even if
328 shifted toward larger values by a constant due to the addition of
329 NaCl) remains monotonically decreasing, that is, does not have
330 the stabilizing minimum induced by the reaction with a base.
331 The slight delay in the formation of the fingers with NaCl
332 (Figure 3c) with regard to the neutral case (Figure 3a) might
333 be due to an influence of NaCl on the solubility of the ester in
334 the water, but this has not been quantified here. The trend and
335 the patterns obtained by numerical integration of eqs 2–4, with
336 the second-order kinetics of reaction 1, show a good qualitative
337 and quantitative agreement with the experimental results (see
338 Figure 4b). In particular, numerical simulations support the
339 idea that even if the alkaline conditions speed up the formation
340 of the alcohol that acts as a strong surfactant, buoyancy effects
341 dominate the convective dynamics observed in the experiments.
342 To summarize, the hydrolysis of alkyl formates in a two-layer
343 superposition of an ester on top of partially miscible denser
344 water in the gravitational field is proposed as a model system to
345 study hydrodynamic instabilities of the interface between two
346 partially miscible fluids. Buoyancy-driven fingering occurs,
347 driven by the solubilization process of the ester into the
348 water layer. The degree of solubility of the ester in the water is
349 a key parameter controlling the onset time and the intensity of
350 the convective dissolution instability in nonreactive conditions,
351 while the influence of the hydrolysis of the ester in the water
352 has a secondary effect in neutral conditions. Changing the
353 chemical composition of the aqueous solution allows one to
354 achieve a chemical control on the instability by tuning the
355 density profile in the water phase. As an example, a chemical
356 reaction of the ester with an alkaline hydroxide in the aqueous
357 solution can induce a depletion zone below the interfacial
358 region thanks to the in situ formation of a less dense salt. The
359 result is that the density profile becomes nonmonotonic, and
360 the finger growth is refrained from or even substituted by a
361 stable stratification. New chemo-hydrodynamic scenarios could
362 be induced by the nonlinear interplay between chemical
363 kinetics and more complicated solubilization mechanisms (see,
364 for instance, ref 35). This work shows, among others, that an
365 understanding of the impact of chemical reactions on
366 convective dissolution and trapping processes, which are
367 important in applied problems as complex as CO₂ sequestra-
368 tion, is a prerequisite to assess the optimal transport and
369 dissolution conditions in partially miscible systems.

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376 Notes

377 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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475 the concentration of the chemical species in order to describe the
476 dynamical feedback of the reaction on the solubility of the ester in the
477 water (see ref 35).
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479 nondimensionalized by e_o , $u_h = gK\alpha_e e_o/\nu$, $l_h = D_e/u_h$, and $t_h = D_e/u_h^2$,
480 respectively, where $\alpha_e = (1/\rho_w)(\partial\rho/\partial e)$ is the solutal expansion
481 coefficient of the solubilized ester, g is the magnitude of the
482 gravitational acceleration, ν and ρ_w are the kinematic viscosity and
483 the density of water, respectively, and D_e is the diffusivity of the alkyl
484 formate in the aqueous medium ($\sim 10^{-8}$ cm² s⁻¹). K is the
485 permeability, equal to $a^2/12$ for a Hele–Shaw cell with a gap width
486 of a . The pressure scale is defined as $p_a + \rho_w g z + \mu D_e/K$, where p_a
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