## THE LIFE OF A SPLASH

by percy collins.
Probably many people have at times watched the splashes caused by rain drops falling upon the smooth surface of a pool or river. Some, too, may have gone so far as to differentiate between the splashes formed by the big drops of a thunder shower and those produced by the smaller drops of a gentle rain. In the former case a conspicuous bubble floats for a moment, and then vanishes; in the latter a crystalline fountain seems to start from a surrounding coronet of lesser jets-though this is in part an illusion, for it is known that in reality the coronet has vanished before the jet appears. The image of the coronet has not had time to fade from the eye ere that of the jet is superposed upon it. Moreover, it may have chanced to the reader to note the different effects, both of sound and of splash, produced by a stone dropped into the water-these differences apparently depending upon the height from which the stone descends, and upon the condition of its surface; i. e., whether it is smooth or rough, wet or dry. But if the reader has at one time or another made such naked-eye observations of splashes, it must be clear to him that while he has seen something, he must also have missed seeing very much more. For a splash, no matter in what way it may be produced, consists in the progress of a multitude of events, compressed within the limits of a few hundredths of a second, but none the less orderly and inevitable, and of which the sequence is in part easy to anticipate and understand, while in part it taxes the highest mathematical powers to elucidate. Some fifteen years ago, Prof. A. M. Worthington, C.B., F.R.S. (Head Master of the Royal Naval Engineering College, Devonport, England), commenced a systematic study of splashes, and in order fully to appreciate the disturbance of the liquids with which he experimented, and their relations, he invoked the aid of photography. In these days of kinematographs and rapid snap-shot cameras, it might seem an easy matter to follow, by means of photography, even a splashing drop. But if the reader harbors this thought, he has failed to grasp the extraordinary rapidity of the movements which take place. As Prof. Worthington reminds us, the problem of how to photograph a splash is by no means a simple one, for the changes of form that take place are far too rapid to come within reach of any ordinary kinematograph, while the quickest photographic shutter is also much too slow.

Thus, it became necessary to have recourse to the far shorter exposure of an electric spark. It was found that the bright spark given by breaking the primary circuit of an induction coil at the surface of mercury was of much too long duration to be useful for the purpose of flash photography; so that the originals of the photographs reproduced on this page (for which we are indebted to the courtesy of Prof. Worth ington) were taken by means of a spark the duration

2.

1. Primary column succeeding a drop into running water. 2. Col umn succeeding a drop into still water. Time, 0.139 second each case. 3. Primary column caused
of which was certainly less than three-millionths of a second-a period of time which bears to the whole second about the same proportion as a day to a thousand years.
This flash is obtained by charging two Leyden jars by an electrical machine on their inner coats, one positively and one negatively. Stout wires lead from the outer coats to the dark room (where the splash is to be photographed) and terminate in a spark-gap between magnesium terminals and close over the surface of water contained in a bowl. The inner coats of the Leyden jars being now connected together, the positive and negative charges unite in a dazzling flash, and a simultaneous discharge and flash take place between the two outer coats across the spark-gap in the dark room. This latter is the illuminating spark, by means of which the photographic exposure is to be
made. The exact timing of this spark is obviously of the greatest importance. This is effected by means of a falling metal sphere which passes (outside the dark room, of course) between two terminals connected one with the inside of one Leyden jar and one with the inside of the other. These terminals are just too far apart for a spark to jump across till the timing sphere passes between them. But when this occurs the dis charge takes place, with the accompanying flash in the dark room. By means of an ingenious arrange ment of magnets and springs, for full details of which the reader is referred to Prof. Worthington's work ("A Study of Splashes"), the timing sphere can be made to fall either simultaneously with the drop or sphere destined to cause the splash to be photographed, or slightly earlier or later. In this way it is possible brilliantly to illuminate the splash for one three-mill ionth part of a second at any desired period of its progress. For example, if a particular stage of the splash is photographed when the timing sphere falls just four feet to the gap between the terminals, then by raising its releasing-lever about two-fifths of an inch, the law of falling bodies insures that the flash will be postponed by just one-thousandth of a second and the next photograph accordingly reveals a stage just so much later
From these brief particulars the reader will be able to form an idea of the way in which Prof. Worthington's photographic studies of splashes are obtained. The camera being previously focused and arranged in the dark room, the timing sphere is minutely adjusted and released, and a record of any desired period of the splash is obtained upon the sensitized plate. Yet despite the rapidity of the plates employed, and the brilliancy of the flash, the duration of the illumination is so short that the negatives are always "underexposed." Hence tedious precautions have to be taken in their development.

We may now glance rapidly at a few of the many interesting facts which have been established by Prof. Worthington's study of splashes. It will probably surprise the reader to learn what a lengthy series of events follows the contact of a small drop of water, falling from a height of about 16 inches, into a mixture of milk and water-the milk being added to render the photographs more intelligible. First, as the drops strikes and penetrates the surface, there arises a crater, which rapidly increases in size until, upon (Continued on page 474.)




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THE LIFE OF A SPLASH
(Continued from page 465.) attaining its greatest proportion, its walls begin to thicken, and gradually subside to form a mere ring of lobes on the sur face, surrounding a central hollow.
Then comes a rebound, manifested in the rising of a central column which after attaining its full height and subsid ing, is followed by a secondary column ere the series of events which we term "the splash" is complete. Prof, Worth ington shows that the separation in the form of a drop of the top of the primary column ere its complete subsidence re colts in a series of events markedly dif ferent from that which ensues when no separation takes place. Moreover, the manifestation of outspreading ripples is affected by the condition of the surface; and in order to secure the most favorable conditions by cleaning the surface, a con tinous slow stream of fresh water is maintained. The contamination of the surface liquid, by the way, originates in lamp black brought down by each drop for in order to prevent the drop from ad hering to the watch glass in which it rests prior to its fall, it is found neces ary carefully to smoke the glass in th lame of a candle. But the atoms of lamp black which adhere to and are brought down with each drop serve to make clea some important points connected with the formation of the splash. They prove by their presence that the interior of the crater is lined by the original liquid which formed the drop, and thus afford useful information as to the nature of its fiow. When the primary column com mences its ascent, the atoms of lamp black are carried upward at its summit, proving that the liquid of the origina drop emerges at the head of the centra column. This is confirmed by allowing drop of milk to fall into pure water when the photograph shows that the up per part of the column contains nearly all of the milk. This fact may be easily verified by naked-eye observation, as in dicated by Prof. Worthington. Let the reader drop from a spoon into a cup o tea or coffee, from a height of fifteen or sixteen inches, a single drop of milk He will have no difficulty in observing that the column which emerges carries with it the white milk-drop at the top only slightly stained by the liquid into which it has fallen.
Upon increasing the height of the fal of a drop to about 40 inches, a new phe nomenon is registered in the photo graphs. The crater rises to a greate height; but instead of subsiding in th form of a ring, its mouth closes to form a bubble on the surface of the liquid. If the height be not too great, the closing is either incomplete or at any rate only temporary, and the bubble reopens at the top to make way for the column which rises as before from the base, but is now much thicker and hardly so high as be fore. With a very high fall, however the bubble becomes too firmly closed to reopen, and its summit is struck from within by the rising column, which be comes entangled in the liquid of the bub ble when the latter bursts. Thanks, how ever, to the infiuence of surface tension, regularity of form is soon regained, so that the concluding events of a splas after a high fall agree in essentials with those which follow a fow fall.
The facts elucidated by experiments with a sphere dropped from varying heights into liquid proved to be of great interest and importance. Prof. Worthing ton suggests that those who wish fully to grasp the significance of his photo graphs and deductions should experiment for themselves by dropping marbles from a height of about a foot into a deep bow of water, the bottom of which should be protected from the possibility of breakage by a few folds of fine copper gauze A perfectly clean and highly polished marble so dropped will enter the wate almost noiselessly with very little dis turbance of the surface. In a word, th splash is singularly insignificant. Photo


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(Continued from page i, i,.)
raphic records show that the liquid, stead of being driven away from the surface in the form of a crater (as is the case when a drop or a rough sphere strikes the surface) now rises in a thin, closely-fitting sheath which completely envelops the sphere even before its summit has reached the water level. A comparatively insignificant column consti. tutes the subsequent splash. Moreover,
and as a result of the rapidly closing sheath, practically no air is carried into the water by the smooth sphere. This point, as well as many others of great importance, was shown photographically by means of illumination behind a thin glass vessel with parallel sides-an arrangement which rendered it possible to photograph the splash both above and
below the surface of the fluid. Most of he photographs reproduced were taken in this way.
So much for the splash caused by a smooth sphere. If the reader will now ish out the marble with which he is con ducting his simple experiments, roughen its surface with sandpaper, and again rop it from a height of a foot or so into the water, he will find that a totally diferent splash results. There is now a great noise of bubbles, which may be seen rising through the liquid, while a all jet is seen to be tossed into the air. Photographic records of the surface disturbance closely resemble those which have already been described, caused by the fall of a drop. A crater is formed, and subsides, and a graceful jet rises from its depths, gathers volume from below, and rises ultimately as a tall col umn whose height may be even greater than that from which the sphere fell Photographs of the descent of the sphere below the surface show us how this col umn originates. The sphere as it de-
scends drags with it the surface film of scends drags with it the surface film of deepening pocket or bag which ultimately forms a long cylindrical hollow. This eventually divides, and the lower part is dragged down by the sphere to the bottom (no matter what the depth), whence it rises to the surface as a bubble. Mean while, the upper ha-f of the cylinder rap-
idly fills up; and this running together of the liquid is responsible for the grea velocity of the upward-spurting jet o column.
On increasing the height of the fall of a rough sphere, a higher crater which closes and forms a bubble is obtained just as when the height of fall of a liquid
drop is increased. With a fall of two
feet, this bubble is almost immediately destroyed by an upward jet. But if the height of fall be increased to four or five feet, no rebounding jet will be projected into the air, notwithstanding the fact that much air is still carried down by the roughened sphere. To the naked eye,
a curious "seething" appearance at the surface is apparent; and Prof. Worthing ton admits that he was at first disposed to regard this as evidence of the entangletanglement likely to produce confused motions which could not be profitably studied. However, the persistence with which the seething motion again and again returned when a stone was dropped or thrown into the river, led him to sus pect that something required investiga tion. The remarkable change of proce dure revealed in the series of photographs which was subsequently taken will be best described by a word for wor quotation from Prof. Worthington's writ ings. "The earlier figures show the very rapid rise of the crater and its closing as a bubble, much before the entrapped column of air divides. Before the divi sion takes place, the liquid now flowing in from all sides closes over the upper end of the long air tube, separates it from the air outside, and forms a down ward jet which shoots down the middle of the air tube in pursuit of the sphere.
The first formation of this jet is not easy to observe, because the view is obscure (Concluded on page 477.)


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(Concluded from page 476.) by much splashing and turbulent vortical motion resulting apparently from the streams that converge from all sides of the axis of the air tube at its upper end, but (when) the turbulence has cleared away from the upper part, and from this stage onward the jet is well seen in all the figures, and it persists long after the segmentation of the air column has taken place. The reader must not suppose that this jet is a mere falling of the water under the action of gravity, for the rapidity with which it advances is far greater than could be ac-
counted for in this way. . . . The great initial momentum of the sphere causes it to continue in rapid motion after the bubble has closed, thus the sphere acts as a sort of piston, which by increasing the length of the air tube diminishes the pressure in it and so sucks in the bubble, which is driven down by the greater atmospheric pressure above. The converging horizontal inflow near the mouth of the air tube cannot, of course, produce the downward-directed jet without an equal and opposite generation of momentum upward; but this is now expended, not in producing a similar upward jet, but in balancing the excess of atmospheric pressure. The reaction, in fact, to the projection of the jet downward is the force which holds up and slowly raises the roof of the long air shaft." The rising of the roof is well shown in some of the accompanying photographs.
Thus, as Prof. Worthington points out, the formation of a downward jet is not, in a sense, a new phenomenon, but one which, having existed unnoticed before, is now rendered visible by reason of its being produced in air instead of water. An increase in the height of fall to $223 / 2$ feet was found to produce but little
change in the phenomena coincident to the resulting splash.
As an illustration of the possible application of knowledge gained from a study of splashes in an unexpected quarter, Prof. Worthington draws attention to the fact that photographs of the splash of a projectile on striking the steel armor plate of a battleship bear a close resemblance to photographs of splashes caused by a sphere falling into liquid. There is the same slight upheaval of the neighboring surface, the same crater, with the same curled lip, leading to the inference that under the immense and suddenly applied pressure the steel has behaved like a liquid. The professor suggests that from a study of the motions set up in a liquid in an analogous case, it may be possible to deduce information about the distribution of internal stress, which may apply also to a solid, and thus lead to improvements in the construction of a plate that is intended to resist penetration.
In conclusion it should be said that the number printed below each photograph here reproduced gives the time in decimal parts of a second which has elapsed since the first instant of contact.

CARNIVOROUS PLANTS OF THE FUTURE. (Continued from page 469.)
edge of the leaf in certain species is seen to curl slowly inward. Now we can imagine that in the very far-away future with which we are dealing the Pinguicula will develop leaves which will hardly be less than five or six feet in length. These lying along the surface of the ground will make a special appeal to grazing animals. Perhaps as with the sundew the allurement will be in the form of some pleasant-tasting secretion which is peculiarly attractive to sheep and goats. We can imagine how these animals on first coming across the plants wourd start to regale themselves at the prepared feast. The strong sticky substances would take a firm hold of the hairs surrounding the mouth parts of the creatures, and in their endeavor to free themselves the animals would become more entangled. Gradually, too, the sides
(Continued on page 478.)


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a volume of material ; but rather than reject any really useful ideas for lack of space We have collected the worthier suggestions, which we present in the present volume
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