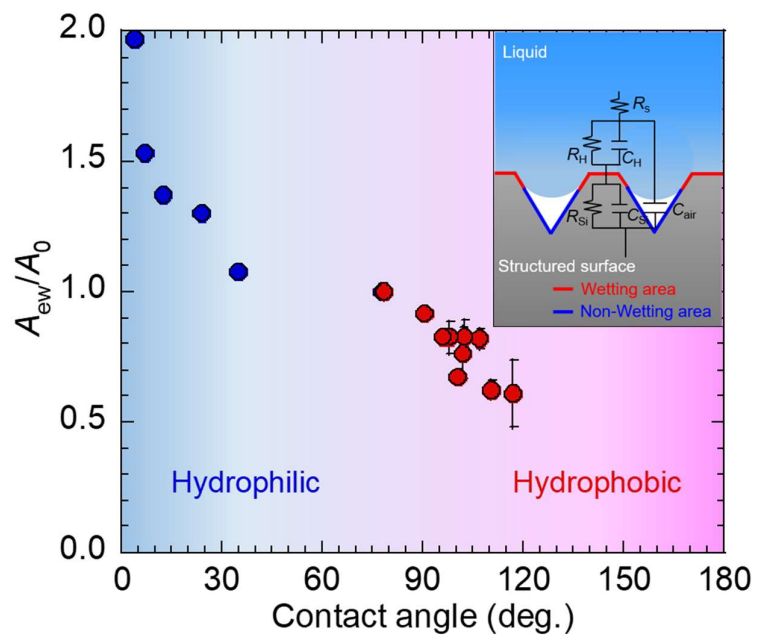


1 **Graphical abstract**



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1 **Measurement of effective wetting area at hydrophobic solid–**
2 **liquid interface**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 *Hypotheses:* The effective wetting area, a parameter somewhat different from the
3 apparent contact area at solid–liquid interfaces, plays a significant role in surface
4 wettability. However, determination of the effective wetting area for hydrophobic
5 surfaces remains an open question. Therefore, in the present study, we developed an
6 electrochemical impedance method to evaluate the effective wetting area at a
7 hydrophobic solid–liquid interface.

8 *Experiments:* Patterned Si surfaces were prepared using the anisotropic wet etching
9 method, and the water contact angle and electrochemical impedance were measured
10 experimentally. The effective wetting area at the solid–liquid interface was examined
11 based on the wettability and impedance results.

12 *Findings:* The electrochemical impedance for the patterned Si surfaces increased with
13 increasing surface hydrophobicity, whereas the effective wetting area decreased. The
14 intermediate wetting state (i.e. partial wetting model) was confirmed at the patterned Si
15 surfaces, and the effective wetting area was theoretically estimated. The effective wetting
16 area predicted from the electrochemical impedance agreed well with that predicted from
17 the partial wetting model, thereby demonstrating the validity of the electrochemical
18 impedance method for evaluating the effective wetting area at the hydrophobic solid–
19 liquid interface.

20 **Keywords:** Effective wetting area, Hydrophobic surface, Contact angle, Electrochemical
21 impedance, Partial wetting model

22

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Surface wettability is a common and important phenomenon with various practical
3 applications in science and technology [1–6]. Generally, solid surfaces with water contact
4 angles (WCAs, i.e. θ) greater than 90° are considered hydrophobic, depending on the
5 physical topography and chemical composition of the surface. In recent decades,
6 theoretical studies on hydrophobic mechanisms [7–10] and experimental investigations
7 regarding hydrophobic wetting behavior [11–13] have attracted considerable research
8 attention. Considering the influence of the physical topography on surface wettability,
9 Wenzel modified Young’s equation by introducing the surface area increment ratio, r_w ,
10 and proposed a fully wetted state [14]. Cassie and Baxter subsequently introduced the
11 composite interface, i.e., liquid floating over asperities at the structured surface in a non-
12 wetted state [15]. However, pure Wenzel or Cassie–Baxter wetting states rarely occur in
13 practice [16–18]. Experimental WCAs can be larger or smaller than those deduced from
14 the Wenzel and Cassie–Baxter models [19,20]. In our previous study, we developed a
15 partial wetting model to describe the general solid–liquid contact mode at a solid–liquid
16 interface [21].

17 The characterization of surface wettability usually focuses on the contact angle or
18 contact angle hysteresis. However, in most applications of advanced materials, it is also
19 essential to clarify the wetting state and hence the effective wetting area, i.e., the actual
20 solid–liquid contact area at the surface or interface of colloidal materials and
21 nanomaterials. Moreover, the effective wetting area is the original parameter linking
22 wetting phenomena to thermal and electrical transport at the solid–liquid interface [22,23].
23 Interfacial resistance, i.e., thermal resistance or electrochemical impedance, is generally

1 inversely proportional to the wetting area, with larger contact areas implying a smaller
2 interfacial resistance [24].

3 In our previous paper, we defined the effective wetting ratio, f , as a dominant parameter
4 for analyzing surface wettability [21]. The effective wetting ratio ranges from 0, for the
5 non-wetted Cassie–Baxter state, to 1, for the fully wetted Wenzel state. However, direct
6 measurement of the solid–liquid contact area is extremely difficult. Hence, to overcome
7 this limitation, various optical techniques including confocal microscopy [25–27],
8 interference microscopy [28,29], and beam reflection methods [30,31] have been
9 proposed to visualize the wetting state inside nano/microstructures. These approaches
10 offer favorable conditions to further investigate the wetting behaviors inside structures.
11 However, none of these techniques provide information regarding the effective wetting
12 area, and optical methods are limited to transparent materials. Non-optical approaches for
13 determining liquid penetration within structures include quartz crystal microbalance
14 techniques [32], in situ x-ray diffraction [33], acoustic tracking [34–36], and
15 electrochemical impedance [37,38]. Recently, we evaluated the effective wetting area at
16 a hydrophilic solid–liquid interface by applying wetting states for electrochemical
17 impedance analysis [38]. We noted that the impedance modulus decreases as the WCA
18 decreases, confirming the dependence of WCA on the effective wetting area at the solid–
19 liquid interface. However, determination of the effective wetting area for hydrophobic
20 surfaces remains an open question and the accuracy of electrochemical impedance
21 method needs further verification in this regard.

22 In the present study, we theoretically and experimentally investigated the effective
23 wetting area at the solid–liquid interface for hydrophobic surfaces. We applied regular

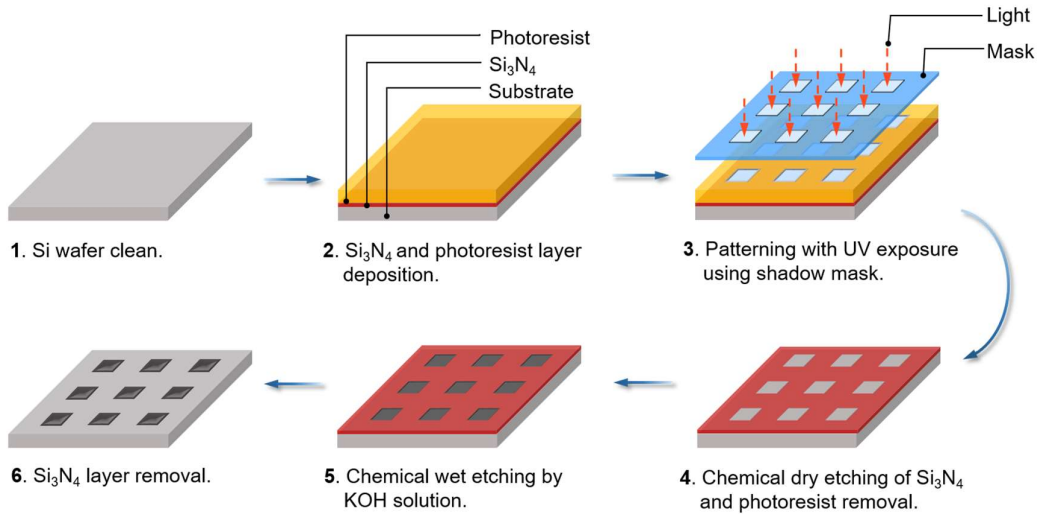
1 structured surfaces for further deepened theoretical discussions related to Ref. [21]. We
2 measured the electrochemical impedance of patterned Si surfaces and estimated the
3 effective wetting area experimentally based on the electrochemical impedance analysis.
4 In addition, we measured the WCAs on the patterned Si surfaces and calculated the
5 effective wetting area theoretically based on the partial wetting model. The effective
6 wetting areas predicted from the experimental and theoretical results were compared to
7 verify the validity of the electrochemical impedance method. To the best of our
8 knowledge, ours is the first efficient method to estimate the effective wetting area at a
9 hydrophobic solid–liquid interface, which is challenging to measure directly through
10 experiments.

11 **2. Materials and methods**

12 *2.1. Sample preparation and characterization*

13 Experiments were performed using N-type (100) Si wafers with a 350- μm thickness.
14 Substrates measuring 15×15 mm were cut from the Si wafers. Before fabrication, the Si
15 substrates were ultrasonically cleaned using acetone and isopropyl alcohol sequentially
16 for 10 min to remove dirt and other possible contaminants and subsequently rinsed in
17 deionized (DI) water. The cleaned substrates were dipped in a 1% buffered hydrofluoric
18 acid solution (BHF) for 1 min to remove the natural SiO_2 layer and then cleaned in DI
19 water. To obtain patterned structures on the Si surfaces, anisotropic wet etching (used in
20 conventional microelectromechanical system fabrication technology) was employed,
21 resulting in uniform micropores over a 10×10 mm² area; the detailed fabrication process

1 is illustrated in Fig. 1. The surface morphologies of patterned Si samples were analyzed
2 using a scanning electron microscope (SEM, JSM-6701 FONO, JEOL).



3

4 **Fig. 1.** Schematic illustration of the procedure employed to prepare patterned Si surfaces.

5 2.2. Contact angle measurement

6 The wetting behavior was investigated at ambient conditions (25°C, 40% RH). A
7 measurement cell (Fig. s1) was used to cover the droplet and the substrate to prevent
8 contaminant adsorption during measurement. The measurement cell was made by
9 transparent organic glass with the size of 10 cm × 10 cm × 10 cm. A digital temperature-
10 humidity sensor was put inside the cell to monitor the local temperature and humidity.
11 Four microliter (4 μL) pure water (Wako, LC/MS 214-01301) droplets were dropped
12 carefully onto the surface. The side views of droplets were obtained using a digital
13 microscope (Keyence VHX-200) and the contact angle measurements were performed
14 using the $\theta/2$ method [39].

1 Before measuring the contact angles for the structured Si surfaces, each sample was
2 immersed in acetone and the BHF solution to remove any contaminants and natural SiO₂
3 layers, and then repeatedly rinsed under pure water. The WCA for the unetched areas of
4 all the samples was $\theta_Y = 78.6 \pm 1.0^\circ$, thus confirming surface composition uniformity
5 (Fig. s2). The average WCA was determined by measuring the angle on the same surface
6 at three positions, and the standard deviation was used to evaluate the error.

7 *2.3. Electrochemical impedance measurement*

8 Electrochemical measurements were performed using the same substrates to the
9 wettability measurements but in a separate experimental system (Fig. s3). An
10 electrochemical workstation (Biologic-SP-200) was operated with a three-electrode
11 system in a 3.5 wt% NaCl solution at ambient temperature. The measurement system was
12 placed in a Faraday cage to shield the interference of external electric field. The system
13 comprised Si samples with a 1 cm² (1 × 1 mm) exposed surface area as the working
14 electrode, a platinum foil with a 4 cm² (10 × 20 mm × 2 sides) as the counter electrode,
15 and a silver/silver chloride electrode as the reference electrode. The electrodes were
16 worked in a glass cell with polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) caps. A nature rubber sealing
17 ring is used to prevent the penetration of the electrolyte from the cell to the outside. A
18 supporting Al plate is attached to the working electrode to make electrical contact. The
19 measurement was conducted by immersing the substrate vertically in a bulk liquid
20 electrolyte. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was carried out with a 10 mV
21 sinusoidal signal in a frequency range from 1 MHz to 100 mHz. Six values were collected
22 per decade in logarithmic spacing, with every measurement repeated twice and averaged
23 for each frequency. It should be noted that the electrical field is weak and the effect of

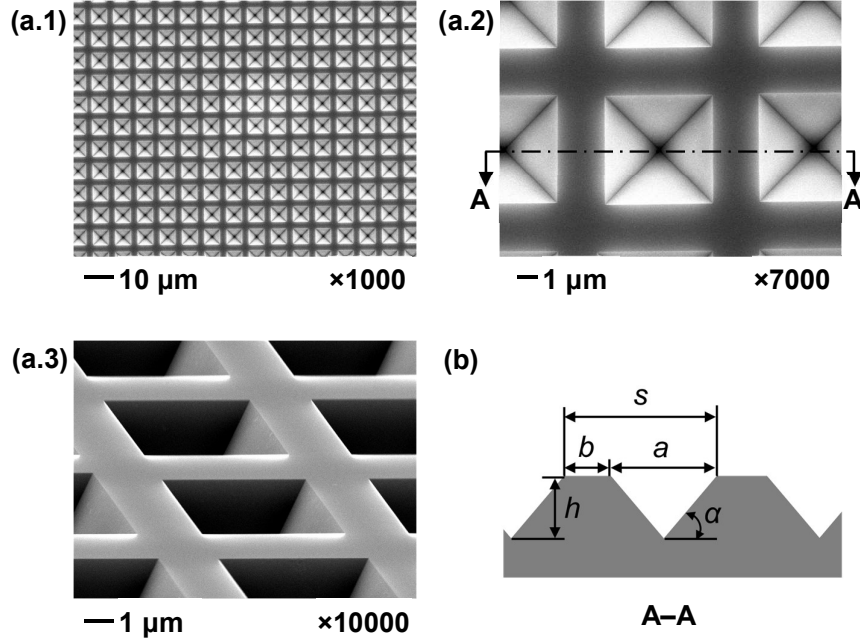
1 electrowetting is almost negligible. Before performing electrochemical measurements,
2 the Si samples were immersed in the electrolyte till the variation of the open circuit
3 voltage was less than 2 mV within 5 min. The EIS data were modeled using equivalent
4 electrical circuits (EECs), and curve fitting was performed using the ZSimpWin software
5 [40].

6 The wettability of pure water on Si surfaces showed a slight difference from that of the
7 electrolyte. The contact angle discrepancies between pure water and the electrolyte were
8 within the measurement error range, as shown in Fig. s4 and Table s1. Thus, we used pure
9 water for all the subsequent wettability analyses.

10 **3. Results and discussion**

11 *3.1. Surface morphology and wettability*

12 Uniform square-patterned structures were fabricated on the Si substrates over a 1 cm²
13 area. The sizes of the square orifices of the pores, a , ranged from 3 to 12 μm , and the
14 spacing between the pores, b , ranged from 2 to 7 μm . Table s2 summarizes the selected
15 geometrical parameters used to define the microstructures evaluated in this work. Figure
16 2a shows typical images of the fabricated patterned Si surfaces, with square pores
17 measuring $5 \times 5 \mu\text{m}$ in a regular array on the top surface. As shown in Fig. 2b, the cross-
18 section of the square pores is triangular in shape owing to the anisotropic wet etching
19 process used for preparing the patterned structures. Therefore, the pore height, h , was
20 determined by the square orifice and the specific angle, α (54.74°), between the Si (111)
21 and (100) crystal planes.



1

2 **Fig. 2.** Patterned Si surface (a) typical SEM images with $a = 5 \mu\text{m}$ and $b = 3 \mu\text{m}$; (b) cross-
 3 sectional view (A–A) with detailed parameters a , b , h , s , and α .

4 The solid fraction, Φ , and surface area increment ratio, r_w , can be expressed,
 5 respectively, as

6
$$\Phi = \frac{s^2 - a^2}{s^2} \tag{1}$$

7 and

8
$$r_w = \frac{s^2 - a^2 + a^2 / \cos \alpha}{s^2} . \tag{2}$$

9 Thus, the modified Wenzel, Cassie–Baxter, and partial wetting models for the triangular
 10 patterned Si surface are as follow:

$$\cos \theta_w = r_w \cos \theta_Y = \frac{s^2 - a^2 + a^2 / \cos \alpha}{s^2} \cos \theta_Y, \quad (3)$$

$$\cos \theta_C = \Phi \cos \theta_Y + (1 - \Phi) \cos 180^\circ = \frac{s^2 - a^2}{s^2} \cos \theta_Y + \frac{a^2}{s^2} \cos 180^\circ, \quad (4)$$

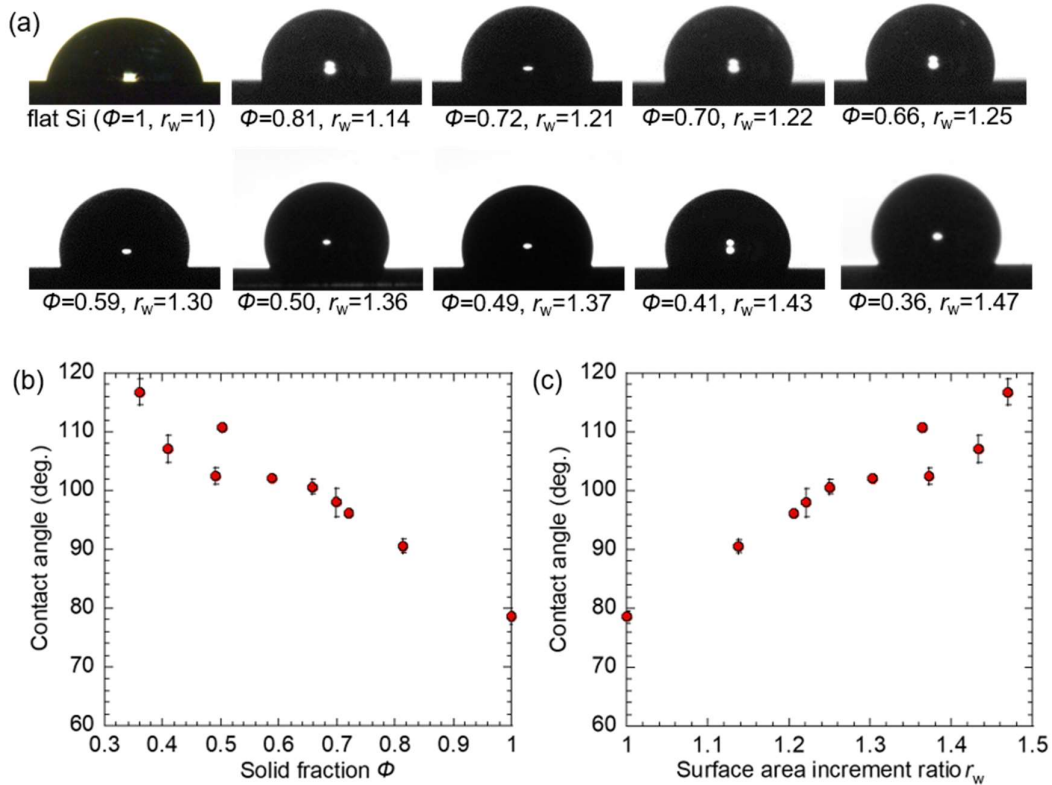
3 and

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta_P &= [\Phi + (r_w - \Phi) f] \cos \theta_Y + (1 - \Phi)(1 - f) \cos 180^\circ \\ &= \frac{(s^2 - a^2) + (a^2 / \cos \alpha) f}{s^2} \cos \theta_Y + \frac{a^2(1 - f)}{s^2} \cos 180^\circ, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

5 respectively, where θ_Y , θ_W , θ_C , and θ_P are the contact angles for the Young, Wenzel,
6 Cassie–Baxter, and partial wetting models, respectively [14,15,21,41]. The effective
7 wetting ratio f is the proportion of solid–liquid contact area to the apparent area inside of
8 structures, which can be expressed as $f = 1 - \Phi^{D-2}$ empirically [21]. The fractal
9 dimension D is obtained based on the box-counting method with the aid of fractal analysis
10 software [42,43]. The mean D for patterned Si surfaces was 2.24 (see Table s3 in the
11 supporting materials).

12 Figure 3a shows the side views of water droplets on the prepared Si surfaces and the
13 static equilibrium WCAs are summarized in Table s2. All the WCAs presented are means
14 calculated from three measurements. The WCA was $78.6 \pm 1.0^\circ$ for the flat Si surface,
15 which was ascribed solely to the surface chemical composition. Compared to the flat
16 surface, larger values were obtained for the patterned Si surfaces, varying from $90.6 \pm$
17 1.2° to $116.8 \pm 2.3^\circ$. These results show that the patterned microscale porous structures

1 enhanced surface hydrophobicity, indicating the effect of surface physical morphology on
 2 wettability.

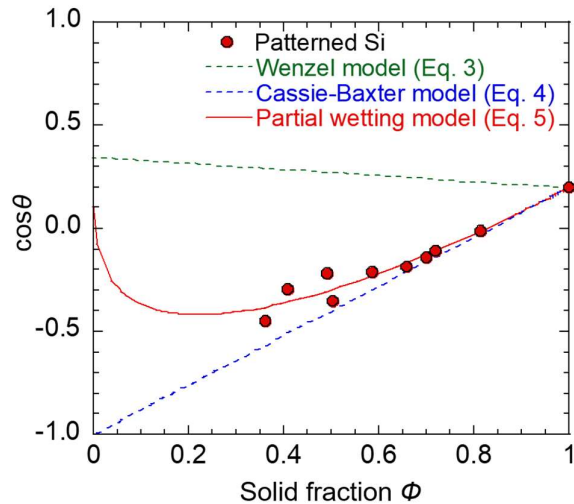


3
 4 **Fig. 3.** Droplets upon patterned Si surfaces: (a) microscope images and experimental WCAs with
 5 respect to (b) solid fraction Φ and (c) surface area increment ratio r_w .

6 The dependence of wettability on surface morphology was confirmed by examining
 7 the influence of Φ and r_w on the WCA. As illustrated in Fig. 3b, the WCA decreased with
 8 increasing Φ . The largest WCA was obtained for the patterned Si surface with $\Phi = 0.36$,
 9 and the smallest WCA for that with $\Phi = 0.81$. Figure 3c shows that the correlation
 10 between the WCA and r_w is the opposite of that between the WCA and Φ ; the WCA
 11 increases with increasing r_w . As Φ and r_w are dominant factors for surface wettability

1 with opposite influences, we used Φ as the typical physical factor for the subsequent
2 wettability analyses.

3 Figure 4 compares the experimentally measured WCAs and theoretical results
4 predicted from the Wenzel, Cassie–Baxter, and partial wetting models. It shows the
5 theoretical WCA results calculated from Eqs. 3–5, with diverse trends obtained for the
6 different models. We observed that the experimental WCAs differed significantly from
7 those calculated using the Wenzel model for the typical solid fraction range of $0.36 < \Phi$
8 < 1 but showed tendencies similar to the WCAs determined using the Cassie–Baxter and
9 partial wetting models. However, the experimental WCAs were more consistent with the
10 theoretical predictions made from the partial wetting model compared to those obtained
11 from the Cassie–Baxter model, implying that the contact mode at the solid–liquid
12 interface of the patterned Si surface is closer to the partial wetting model.

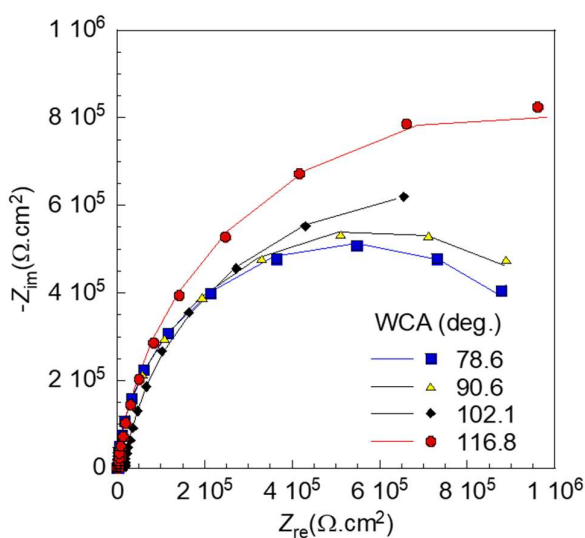


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14 **Fig. 4.** Comparisons between experimental WCA results and those obtained from wetting models
15 for patterned Si surfaces.

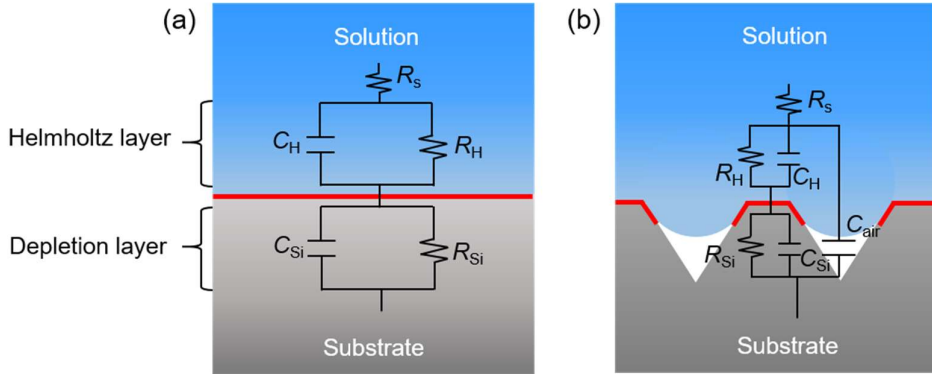
1 3.2. Electrochemical impedance analysis

2 Electrochemical properties of the patterned Si surfaces were analyzed using EIS and
3 EEC. The typical Nyquist plots and the corresponding fitted curves for Si surfaces with
4 WCAs of 78.6, 90.6, 102.1, and 116.8° are illustrated in Fig. 5. The semicircles in the
5 Nyquist plots indicate the effect of double-layer capacitance, where larger arcs mean
6 larger impedance. We can observe that the capacitive arc diameters for the patterned Si
7 surfaces are larger than that for the flat surface. Moreover, the samples with larger WCAs
8 have larger impedances, indicating that impedance is directly proportional to surface
9 hydrophobicity. In addition, the Nyquist plots presented in Fig. s6 for the other patterned
10 Si surfaces show tendencies similar to the results plotted in Fig. 5.



11

12 **Fig. 5.** Typical Nyquist plots of Si surfaces with WCAs of 78.6, 90.6, 102.1, and 116.8° in 3.5 wt%
13 NaCl solution. Symbols represent the measured results and lines are the corresponding fitted
14 curves.



1

2 **Fig. 6.** Schematics of solid–liquid interface and EECs for Nyquist fitting on (a) flat and (b)
 3 patterned Si surfaces.

4 To evaluate the electrochemical parameters from the measured impedance spectra,
 5 schematics of the solid–liquid interface and two-time constant EECs were used to fit the
 6 obtained Nyquist results, as shown in Fig. 6. Since the electrochemical behavior at the
 7 semiconductor-electrolyte interface is affected by electrolyte, the Helmholtz layer and the
 8 depletion layer [44, 45], we used R_s , R_H , and R_{Si} to denote the solution resistance, the
 9 transfer resistance of electrons and ions through the Helmholtz layer and the depletion
 10 layer, respectively [44]. As defects and inhomogeneities cannot be avoided on the
 11 electrode surface, capacitors often do not exhibit ideal capacitive behavior. Therefore, we
 12 applied the constant phase element (CPE) to determine the non-ideal frequency-
 13 dependent properties of the Helmholtz layer capacitance C_H and the depletion layer
 14 capacitance C_{Si} . The impedance of the CPE is defined by the CPE constant and CPE index,
 15 which is described as follows:

$$Z_{CPE} = \frac{1}{Q(j\omega)^n}, \quad (6)$$

16

1 where Q is the CPE magnitude, j is the imaginary root, ω is the angular frequency, and n
2 is a deviation parameter regarding the phase shift.

3 In section 3.1, we have confirmed the intermediate wetting state at the patterned Si
4 surfaces; namely, the non-wetting area exists at the solid–liquid interface. To examine the
5 role of the non-wetting area in the EEC, a circuit with capacitive element, air capacitance
6 C_{air} , was added as a parallel component for the EEC of the patterned Si surfaces, as shown
7 in Fig. 6b. As the electronic and ionic conductivities are almost zero for air, ions and
8 electrons cannot move through the non-wetted area. Thus, electrochemical impedance is
9 dominated by the solid–liquid contact area (red parts in Fig. 6). Analysis of the Nyquist
10 plots showed that the impedance of the patterned Si surfaces is larger than that of the flat
11 Si surface, indicating that the presence of non-wetting areas results in a smaller contact
12 area between the substrate and electrolyte.

13 The obtained electrochemical parameters per unit apparent area, including R_s , R_H , R_{Si} ,
14 CPE_H and CPE_{Si} , are listed in Table 1. Generally, impedance in low-frequency regions
15 more clearly represents electrochemical properties and better clarifies the effective
16 wetting area on structured surfaces [46–48]. Compared to the values of R_{Si} and R_H , that
17 of R_s is small enough to be neglected. Based on the EEC shown in Fig. 6, the interfacial
18 impedance Z at low frequencies is equal to the sum of R_H and R_{Si} . We noted that the Z
19 values increased with increasing WCAs, from $1.07 \times 10^6 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$ for the flat surface ($\theta =$
20 78.6°) to $1.76 \times 10^6 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$ for the patterned Si surfaces with $\Phi = 0.36$ ($\theta = 116.8^\circ$), which
21 correspond well with the Nyquist plots. The correlation between the impedance and WCA
22 can be explained by analyzing the effective wetting area. For a constant-volume droplet
23 on the solid surface, the effective wetting area is inversely proportional to the contact

1 angle. Thus, a larger WCA results in a smaller solid–liquid contact area, thereby
 2 increasing Z .

Table 1. Measured electrochemical parameters for Si samples in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution.

WCA (deg.)	R_s ($\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$)	CPE _{Si}		CPE _H		R_{Si} ($\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$)	R_H ($\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$)
		Q ($\Omega^{-1} \text{ s}^n/\text{cm}^2$)	n	Q ($\Omega^{-1} \text{ s}^n/\text{cm}^2$)	n		
90.6	36	9.76×10^{-10}	0.95	5.00×10^{-7}	0.96	6.24×10^3	1.17×10^6
98.0	63	5.21×10^{-10}	0.93	4.33×10^{-7}	0.93	3.25×10^3	1.30×10^6
110.7	15	8.44×10^{-10}	0.93	5.55×10^{-7}	0.99	2.04×10^3	1.72×10^6
96.1	38	5.02×10^{-9}	0.93	4.95×10^{-7}	0.83	3.27×10^3	1.30×10^6
102.1	10	7.43×10^{-10}	0.97	8.72×10^{-7}	0.92	1.78×10^4	1.40×10^6
107.1	30	2.85×10^{-9}	0.90	8.92×10^{-7}	0.95	7.22×10^3	1.30×10^6
100.6	23	4.39×10^{-9}	0.93	3.85×10^{-7}	0.84	3.49×10^3	1.60×10^6
102.6	51	2.79×10^{-8}	0.75	1.09×10^{-6}	0.93	8.80×10^3	1.29×10^6
116.8	37	6.44×10^{-9}	0.87	5.37×10^{-7}	0.94	2.82×10^3	1.76×10^6
78.6	22	5.47×10^{-10}	1.00	4.57×10^{-7}	0.97	2.03×10^3	1.07×10^6

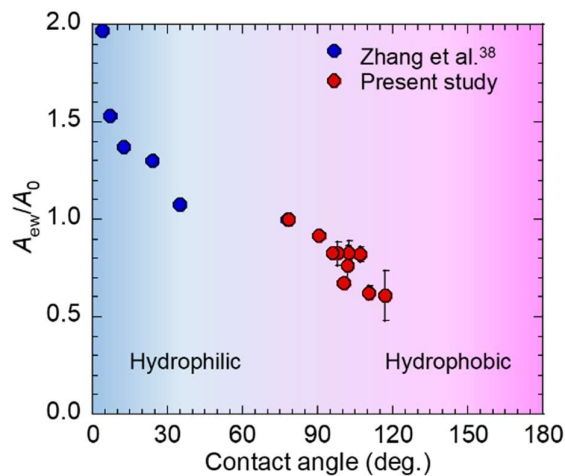
3.3 Effective wetting area estimation based on electrochemical impedance

4 Since the impedance for specific materials per unit solid–liquid contact area is constant,
 5 the effective wetting area, A_{ew} , can be estimated as [38]

$$6 \quad A_{ew} = \frac{|Z_0|}{|Z|} A_0, \quad (7)$$

1 where A_0 is the apparent area of the flat Si surface, and Z_0 and Z are the measured
2 impedances for the flat and patterned Si surfaces, respectively.

3 The area ratios of the effective wetting areas on structured surfaces to those of the
4 corresponding flat surfaces, A_{ew}/A_0 , calculated from the experimental impedance results
5 are presented as functions of the WCAs in Fig. 7. The obtained A_{ew}/A_0 values decreased
6 with increasing WCAs. The minimum A_{ew}/A_0 value of 0.610 was obtained for the
7 patterned Si surface ($\Phi = 0.36$; $\theta = 116.8^\circ$), and the maximum value of 1.000 was obtained
8 for the flat Si surface ($\Phi = 1$; $\theta = 78.6^\circ$). The blue closed circles shown in Fig. 7 represent
9 the A_{ew}/A_0 values for the hydrophilic Al surfaces taken from our previous work [38].
10 Despite the different materials and wettabilities, the correlation between the A_{ew}/A_0 and
11 WCA for the hydrophobic Si surfaces (present study) matches reasonably well with that
12 for the hydrophilic surfaces.



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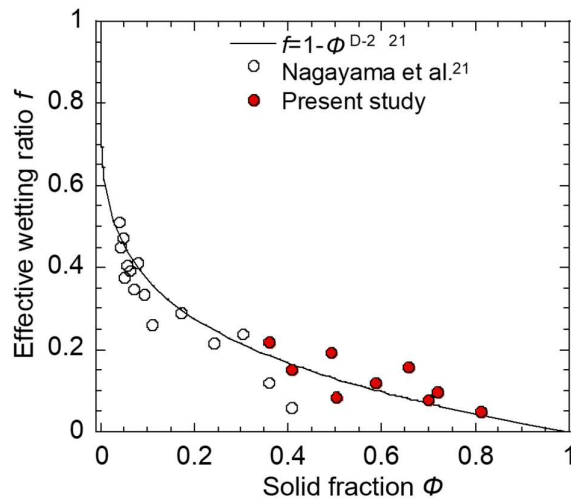
14 **Fig. 7.** Effective wetting area ratios evaluated based on experimental electrochemical impedance
15 results for both hydrophilic and hydrophobic surfaces.

1 3.3. Effective wetting area estimation based on experimental WCAs and partial wetting
 2 model

3 Based on the partial wetting model (Eq. 5), the effective wetting ratio, f , can be
 4 calculated by substituting the measured WCAs, θ_Y and θ_p , and structural parameters Φ
 5 and r_w .

$$6 \quad f = \frac{\cos\theta_p - \Phi\cos\theta_Y + (1-\Phi)}{(r_w - \Phi)\cos\theta_Y + (1-\Phi)} \quad (8)$$

7 The red closed circles shown in Fig. 8 represent the f values calculated using Eq. 8 with
 8 the Φ ranging from 0.36 to 1. The black open circles indicate the f estimated in a similar
 9 manner in another study [21] for patterned Si surfaces with $\Phi = 0-0.4$. We found that the
 10 estimated f decreased with increasing Φ over a wide region. The solid line represents an
 11 empirical equation for f proposed earlier [21]. Although slightly data scattering occurs,
 12 the estimated results based on experimental measurements agree well with the values
 13 determined using the empirical equation.



1 **Fig. 8.** Effective wetting ratio f as a function of solid fraction Φ : comparisons between the present
 2 study and a previous one [21].

Table 2. Effective wetting area evaluated from wettability (Eq. 9) and electrochemical impedance results (Eq. 7).

Solid fraction Φ	WCA (deg.)	A_{ew}/A_0 (Eq. 9)	A_{ew}/A_0 (Eq. 7)
0.81	90.6 ± 1.2	0.834 ± 0.011	0.914 ± 0.040
0.70	98.0 ± 2.3	0.729 ± 0.017	0.825 ± 0.060
0.50	110.7 ± 0.6	0.559 ± 0.003	0.624 ± 0.027
0.72	96.1 ± 0.1	0.761 ± 0.001	0.827 ± 0.126
0.59	102.1 ± 0.4	0.699 ± 0.003	0.764 ± 0.061
0.41	107.1 ± 2.3	0.688 ± 0.015	0.821 ± 0.010
0.66	100.6 ± 1.3	0.693 ± 0.009	0.672 ± 0.100
0.49	102.6 ± 1.3	0.742 ± 0.009	0.828 ± 0.037
0.36	116.8 ± 2.3	0.512 ± 0.010	0.610 ± 0.023
1.00 (flat)	78.6 ± 1.0	1.000 ± 0.013	1.000 ± 0.029

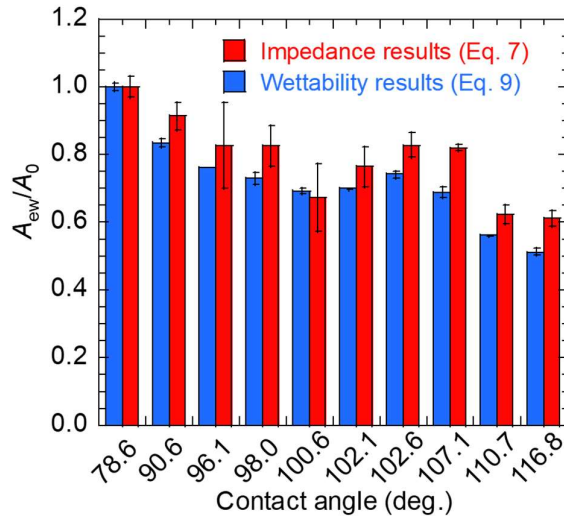
3 In the partial wetting model, A_{ew}/A_0 is equal to $\Phi + (r_w - \Phi)f$ and thus it can be
 4 expressed as

$$5 \quad A_{ew} / A_0 = \Phi + (r_w - \Phi)f = \Phi + (r_w - \Phi) \frac{\cos \theta_p - \Phi \cos \theta_Y + (1 - \Phi)}{(r_w - \Phi) \cos \theta_Y + (1 - \Phi)}, \quad (9)$$

6 where the maximum A_{ew}/A_0 of 1 was obtained for the flat surface with $\Phi = r_w = 1$. The
 7 A_{ew}/A_0 obtained from Eq. 9 are summarized in Table 2. It is clear that surfaces with larger
 8 WCAs have smaller A_{ew}/A_0 , and the minimum A_{ew}/A_0 of 0.610 is for the patterned surface

1 with the WCA of 116.8° . Table 2 also shows the A_{ew}/A_0 based on the electrochemical
2 impedance results explained in section 3.3. For the same A_0 , the A_{ew} estimated from Eq.
3 9 agrees well with that calculated from Eq. 7.

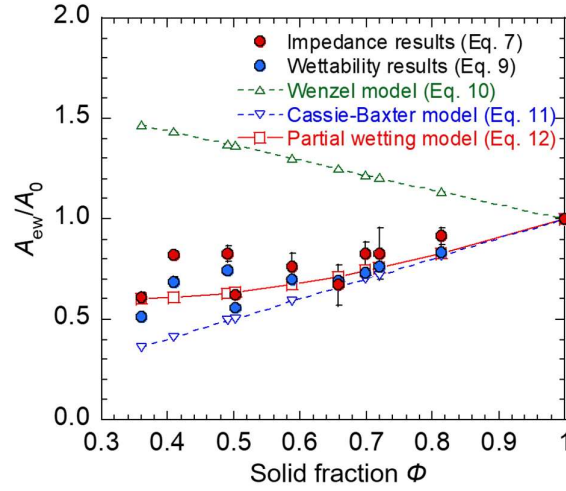
4 The A_{ew}/A_0 calculated from the wettability and impedance results are compared in Fig.
5 9. We can clearly see that the ratios obtained from both the wettability and impedance
6 results show a downward trend with increasing WCAs; i.e., the effective wetting area is
7 inversely proportional to surface hydrophobicity. Additionally, the A_{ew}/A_0 obtained from
8 the impedance results are slightly larger than those calculated from the wettability results.
9 This difference occurred because impedance measurements were performed by
10 immersing the Si surfaces in the electrolyte, while the wettability measurements were
11 performed under atmosphere. In our impedance measurements, additional hydrostatic
12 pressure of 147 Pa approximately was imposed to the Si surface, resulting in a larger
13 effective wetting area at the solid–liquid interface. Hence, larger area ratios were obtained
14 from the impedance measurements than those from the wettability measurements.
15 However, despite some minor deviations, the effective wetting areas calculated from the
16 impedance and wettability measurements corresponded well.



1

2 **Fig. 9.** Effective wetting area ratio evaluated from impedance (Eq. 7) and wettability results (Eq.
3 9).

4 Figure 10 compares the A_{ew}/A_0 determined from the experiments and theoretical
5 wetting models. The A_{ew}/A_0 calculated from the Wenzel model decreases with increasing
6 Φ , from 1.47 at $\Phi = 0.36$ to 1 at $\Phi = 1$. The opposite tendency can be observed for the
7 A_{ew}/A_0 from the Cassie–Baxter and partial wetting models; the A_{ew}/A_0 increase with
8 increasing Φ in the measured solid fraction range.



1

2 **Fig. 10.** Comparisons of A_{ew}/A_0 obtained from experiments and theoretical models.

3 The effective wetting areas determined from the Wenzel, Cassie–Baxter, and partial
 4 wetting models can be expressed, respectively, in terms of the Si surface structural
 5 parameters as

6
$$A_{cw-W} = A_0 \times r_w = A_0 \frac{s^2 - a^2 + a^2 / \cos \alpha}{s^2}, \quad (10)$$

7
$$A_{cw-C} = A_0 \times \Phi = A_0 \frac{s^2 - a^2}{s^2}, \quad \text{and} \quad (11)$$

8
$$A_{cw-P} = A_0 \times [\Phi + (r_w - \Phi) f] = A_0 \frac{(s^2 - a^2) + (a^2 / \cos \alpha) f}{s^2}. \quad (12)$$

9 For a given Φ , the area ratio predicted from the partial wetting model (Eq. 12) is larger
 10 than that obtained from the Cassie–Baxter model (Eq. 11), implying that wetting area A_{cw-}
 11 p is larger than A_{cw-c} . These area ratios are similar to those in Fig. 4, with the A_{ew}/A_0
 12 obtained from the experimental results (blue and red closed circles) agreeing reasonably

1 with those calculated from the partial wetting model (red open squares) but deviating
2 from the Wenzel and Cassie–Baxter models. This observation further confirmed the
3 intermediate wetting state at the patterned Si surfaces. Additionally, we verified the
4 validity and feasibility of the electrochemical impedance method for estimating the
5 effective wetting area. Thus, the proposed approach offers an efficient method to estimate
6 the effective wetting area at hydrophobic solid–liquid interfaces.

7 However, the electrochemical impedance method is difficult to be applied to the
8 dielectric materials. Besides the limitations in common with the conventional
9 electrochemical impedance measurement, the impedance measurements were limited to
10 be performed in a separate experimental system to the wettability measurements. The
11 pressure difference at solid–liquid interface between the impedance and wettability
12 measurements will cause the deviations of the estimated effective wetting areas.
13 Simultaneous measurements of the impedance and the wettability are necessary to
14 overcome this limitation; however, an electrochemical impedance system for a single fine
15 droplet on a substrate is still a challenging work.

16 **4. Conclusions**

17 We developed an electrochemical impedance method for determining the effective
18 wetting area at solid–liquid interfaces experimentally and theoretically. For this purpose,
19 we fabricated patterned Si surfaces and measured the WCAs. In addition, we found that
20 the electrochemical impedance increased with increasing surface hydrophobicity,
21 whereas the effective wetting area decreased. The correlation between the A_{ew}/A_0 and
22 WCA for the hydrophobic Si surfaces matches reasonably well with that for hydrophilic

1 surfaces [38]. The effective wetting area was further theoretically estimated based on the
2 WCAs and the partial wetting model including a novel concept of the intermediate
3 wetting state [21]. We verified that the experimentally determined effective wetting areas
4 agreed well with the theoretically calculated ones; the areas decreased with increasing
5 WCAs. In conclusion, the proposed electrochemical impedance method offers improved
6 efficiency and accuracy for estimating the effective wetting area at the solid–liquid
7 interface.

8 The solid–liquid interfaces at the patterned Si surfaces fabricated in this study were
9 hydrophobic, showing the intermediate wetting state between the Wenzel and Cassie–
10 Baxter states. In such circumstances, there is no guarantee that the effective wetting area,
11 i.e., the real solid–liquid contact area, is the same as the apparent solid–liquid contact area
12 on structured surfaces. To accurately estimate the effective wetting area, understanding
13 the intermediate wetting state is absolutely essential for the actual solid–liquid contact
14 area at the surface or interface of colloidal materials and nanomaterials.

15 Existing optical [25–31] techniques are limited to the transparent materials, and non-
16 optical [32–37] techniques are mainly focus on the wetting state monitoring without
17 accurate quantitative estimates of the effective wetting area. To the best of our knowledge,
18 our method is the first efficient means to estimate the effective wetting area at
19 hydrophobic solid–liquid interfaces, which remains difficult to measure directly through
20 experiments.

21 The proposed electrochemical impedance method for measuring the effective wetting
22 area was verified at the solid–liquid interface immersed in a liquid, which may differ from

1 that at the interface beneath a droplet. Further development of the electrochemical
2 impedance method on microelectrode array chips are under way to determine the effective
3 wetting area of a single fine droplet at the solid–liquid interface.

4 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

5 **Dejian Zhang:** Investigation, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing -
6 original draft. **Satoko Takase:** Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Gyoko**
7 **Nagayama:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

8 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

9 The authors declare no competing financial interest or personal relationships that
10 could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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