1 Supporting Information for 2 Generation, Control, and Application of Stable Bubble in Hypersonic Acoustic 3 System 4 Xiaotian Shen^a, Xianwu Ke^a, Tiechuan Li^a, Chongling Sun^a, and Xuexin Duan^{a,*} 5 ^a State Key Laboratory of Precision Measuring Technology and Instruments, School of Precision 6 Instrument and Opto-electronics Engineering, Tianjin University, Tianjin 300072, China. 7 * Corresponding author. E-mail: xduan@tju.edu.cn

8 1 Structure of bulk acoustic device and system setup

9 The schematic of structure of bulk acoustic wave device was shown in Figure S1. The system

10 setup was shown in Figure S2.

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- 13 Figure S1. The schematic of the BAW device structure. BR represents the Bragg reflector structure. PZ represents
- 14 the piezoelectric structure.

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Direct-current power supply





Signal generator



Computer



Figure S2. Setup of the hypersonic acoustic system.

19 2 Roughening treatment of the surface of BAW device

20 The device was protected by depositing a thin film of aluminum nitride (AlN) as passivation (PS) 21 layer with the thickness of 200 nm. The PS layer was etched by positive photoresist for 10, 20, 30 and 22 120 s respectively. The roughness of the device surface was measured by AFM. The RMS roughness 23 increased with the increase of etching time. When the etching time was greater than 30 s, the RMS roughness tended to level off (Figure S3). However, the peak-to-valley roughness Rt was about 320 24 nm at the etching time of 30 s, which was larger than the thickness of PS layer. That meant there was 25 26 a great risk that the top electrode would be exposed to air, resulting in the oxidation and invalidation. 27 Thus, 20 seconds was a proper etching time to treat the device and maintain the effectiveness of device. 28

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Figure S3 Roughness characterization of the device surface with AFM. (a) The RMS roughness versus different
 etching times. (b) The peak-to-valley roughness versus different etching times.

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34 **3** Acoustothermal effect of hypersonic acoustic system

The acoustothermal effect of gigahertz bulk acoustic waves (GHz BAWs) in the oil phase is nonnegligible, especially when high power is applied. To characterize the temperature distribution of GHz BAWs in oil, pyrromethene 597 was employed as a temperature-sensitive indicator. The pyrromethene 597 was dissolved in the mineral oil with 1.5 wt. % Span 80 at the concentration of 0.129 mg mL⁻¹. The device covered with the microfluidic chip was placed on a hot plate. The device temperature was 40 measured by the thermocouple. The mineral oil seeded with temperature-sensitive fluorescence dye 41 was pumped into the microchannel. The fluorescence intensity of oil phase at different temperatures 42 was recorded by the microscopy (Figure S4a). The inner circular region of the pentagon device was 43 chosen as region of interest (ROI) to extract the fluorescence intensity. The calculation curve of 44 intensity versus temperature was obtained in Figure S4b, which could be used to characterize the 45 acoustothermal effect of GHz BAWs in oil.







Figure S4 Characterization of the relation between the fluorescence intensity and temperature. (a) The fluorescent
images at different temperatures. (b) The calibration curve between the temperature and intensity. The scale bar is 50 μm.

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52 The dynamic changes and temperature distribution in the oil phase were tested experimentally at different applied powers and flow rates to further examine the acoustothermal effect induced by GHz 53 BAWs. The real-time changes in oil temperature were determined by analysis of the fluorescence 54 intensity with reference to the calibration curve. First, the impact of the flow rate of the oil phase on 55 the temperature distribution was investigated. The temperature distribution at an applied power of 2000 56 mW at the flow rates of 0.1, 1, and 5 µL min⁻¹, respectively, in the microchannel were measured. As 57 58 the flow rate increased, the temperature distribution shifted downstream and expanded (Figure S5a). A fast-flowing oil phase enhanced heat diffusion in the microchannel. Next, the areas of different 59 isotherms were calculated to determine the expansion of the temperature distribution at high flow rates 60 (Figure S6). The areas of the isotherms at 100 °C, 120 °C, and 140 °C at a flow rate of 5 µL min⁻¹ were 61 62 larger than those of the isotherms at lower flow rates. In addition, the area of the isotherm at 160 °C at a flow rate of 5 µL min⁻¹ was the smallest, due to heat diffusion (Figure S5b). Furthermore, the impact 63 of input power on thermal effect was considered. The pentagonal effective-piezoelectrical area of the 64

device was chosen as the region of interest (Figure S5c). As the input power increased, the average temperature of this area first increased and then stabilized. This stable average temperature was 150– 170 °C. The maximum temperature at 2000 mW in this area was 166 °C, i.e., less than 218 °C, the boiling point of mineral oil (Figure S5d). The higher the power applied, the stronger the inverse piezoelectric effect induced, such that the heat generated from viscous attenuation of GHz BAWs and electromechanical losses of the device increased. This diffusion and expansion of heat affected the coalescence and growth of the bubble.





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74 Figure S5 Acoustothermal effect of GHz BAWs in oil. (a) Distribution of oil temperature in the microchannel at an

applied power of 2000 mW and flow rates of 0.1, 1 and 5 μ L min⁻¹, respectively. The scale bar is 100 μ m. (b) Areas of different isotherms at a power of 2000 mW and flow rates of 0.1, 1 and 5 μ L min⁻¹, respectively. (c) Distribution

77 of oil temperatures at different applied powers above the pentagonal BAW device. The scale bar is 50 µm. (d)

78 Average oil temperature at different applied powers and flow rates above the pentagonal BAW device.



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Figure S6 Isotherms at different temperatures and flow rates. The scale bar is 100 µm.

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83 4 Performance of device driven by direct current

84 To delineate the role of acoustothermal effect during the phase of bubble nucleation, we effectively decoupled the thermal field from acoustic filed. A direct current (DC) was applied across 85 the two ends of the bottom electrode (BE), whereas the top electrode remained unloaded, devoid of 86 87 any electrical signal imposition (Figure S7b). Under these conditions, the heat generation was solely 88 attributable to the Joule heating effect of BE, precluding the possibility of acoustic waves generation 89 via the inverse piezoelectric effect. This experimental setup facilitated the decoupling of the thermal 90 field from the acoustic field, while maintaining consistency in other experimental parameters. The 91 temperature distribution was measured by the method in section 3 of Supporting Information.

92 When a voltage of 5 volts was applied to the device, the temperature reached within the 93 pentagonal region through Joule heating was roughly equivalent to that achieved by the acoustothermal 94 effect under a 2000 mW power input, as discussed in Section 3 in Supporting Information (Figure 95 S7a). Scrutinizing the results revealed that, in this case, actuating the device for a duration of 15 s, exclusively under the influence of thermal effect, failed to induce bubble formation within the 96 97 designated area (Figure S7c-f). In marked contrast, as illustrated in Section 3.2 in main text, bubble was formed within just 1 ms under the simultaneous presence of acoustic and thermal effects. Thus, 98 99 these experimental findings substantiated that during the bubble nucleation stage, the dominant 100 impetus was the acoustic wave, rather than the thermal effect. These results substantiated that bubble 101 formation was a consequence of the effect induced by acoustic waves, rather than a result of heating 102 or outgassing of the oil.



104 Figure S7. Performance of device driven by direct current in the oil. (a) The temperature distribution in the 105 microchannel induced by Joule heat. (b) The direct current (DC) was applied to both ends of the bottom electrode 106 (BE). While the top electrode (TE) did not work in this case. (c)-(f) The performance of device at 0, 1, 5, and 10 ms 107 when the power of DC was turned on. The scale bar is 100 μm.

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109 5 Performance of device without nanostructural enhancement

To compare the extent to which a roughened surface facilitates onset, we conducted a control experiment. Using a device without nanostructural enhancement, we applied 2500 mW of power and monitored for bubble formation. As depicted in Figure S8, no bubble generation was observed within 30 s. Conversely, for nanostructurally enhanced device, bubbles were produced within 1 ms under the power of 1585 mW. This finding underscores the pivotal role of a roughened interface in promoting bubble generation under gigahertz acoustic waves.

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Figure S8. Performance of non-enhanced device. The scale bar is 100 μ m.



When the micro gas nuclei coalesced with each other to form a steady bubble, the single bubble grew continuously supported by the acoustothermal effect. For the minimum surface free energy, the steady bubble tended to be spherical by the interfacial tension. When the bubble touched the top of microchannel, it would be confined by the ceiling, resulting in the decreased of growth rate. To facilitate the calculation, the model of critical bubble was simplified. The size of critical steady bubble depended on the size of device and the height of microchannel:

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$$R = \frac{(r^2 + h^2)}{2h}$$

128 where R, r and h are the radius of steady bubble, the radius of incircle of pentagonal device, and the 129 height of microchannel respectively. In this hypersound acoustic system, the theoretical diameter of 130 critical steady bubble is 64 μ m, which is constant with the experimental results.

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Figure S9. The schematic diagram of the critical steady bubble. (a) The top view above the device and bubble. The red pentagon represents the profile of acoustic device. The yellow circle is the incircle of pentagonal device. The green circle represents the profile of steady bubble. r is the radius of incircle of pentagonal device. R is the radius of steady bubble. (b) The side view of the device and bubble. The black lines represent the bottom and top of the microchannel. h is the height of the microchannel.

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139 **7 Evolution of the bubble**



142 Figure S10. Evolution of the bubble when the device is continuously turned on. The scale bar is 100 μm.

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144 8 Influence of flow rate on the bubble size

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147 Figure S11. Steady bubble at different time points when the flow rate of oil was 0.1, 1 and 5 μ L min⁻¹ respectively.

148 The scale bar is $100 \ \mu m$.

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150 9 Droplet splitting

151 Oil and water were infused into the microfluidic chip via syringe pumps. At the flow-focusing

152 structure, the oil (continuous phase) separated the water (dispense phase) into discrete microdroplets.

153 These water-in-oil microdroplets progressed downstream into the straight channel. Within the straight

154 channel, stable bubbles were utilized to perform splitting operations on the microdroplets.

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157 Figure S12. Structure of the microfluidic chip employed for the generation and splitting manipulation of droplets.



160 Figure S13. Volume ratio of daughter droplets versus different volume of mother droplets.