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# Nonlinear wave attenuation in strongly-confined falling liquid films sheared by a laminar counter-current gas flow

Manuscript IDJFM-22-0678.R1Manuscript Type:JFM PapersDate Submitted by the Author:n/aComplete List of Authors:Mergui, Sophie; Fluides Automatique et Systemes Thermiques Lavalle, Gianluca; Mines Saint-Étienne, Centre SPIN - UMR CNRS 5307 LGF LGF , Yiqin; Fluides Automatique et Systemes Thermiques Grenier, Nicolas; Laboratoire d'Informatique pour la Mecanique et les Sciences de l'Ingenieur, Dietze, Georg; Fluides Automatique et Systemes ThermiquesJFM Keywords:Thin films < Interfacial Flows (free surface), Gas/liquid flows < Multiphase and Particle-laden Flows, Solitary waves < Waves/Free- surface FlowsLexal Line FlowExperiments are conducted in water films falling along the bottom wall of a weakly-inclined rectangular channel of height 5mm in the presence of a laminar counter-current air flow. Boundary conditions have been specifically designed to avoid flooding at the liquid outlet, thus allowing to focus on the wave dynamics in the core of the channel. Surface waves are excited via coherent inlet forcing before they confined contact with the air flow. The effect of the air flow on the height, shape, and speed of two-dimensional travelling nonlinear waves is investigated and contrasted with experiments of Kofman (Int. J. of Multiphase Flow, 2017, vol. 95) which were performed in a weakly-confined channel. We observe a striking difference between these two cases. In our strongly-confined configuration, a monotonic stabilizing effect or a non-monotonic trend (i.e. the wave height first increases and then diminishes upon increasing the gas flow rate) is observed, in contrast to the weakly-confined configuration where the gas flow is always destabilizing. This stabilizing effect implies the possibility of attenuating waves via the gas flow and it confirms r	Journal:	Journal of Fluid Mechanics	
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# Nonlinear wave attenuation in strongly-confined falling liquid films sheared by a laminar counter-current gas flow

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Experiments are conducted in water films falling along the bottom wall of a weakly-12 inclined rectangular channel of height 5 mm in the presence of a laminar counter-current 13 air flow. Boundary conditions have been specifically designed to avoid flooding at the 14 liquid outlet, thus allowing to focus on the wave dynamics in the core of the channel. 15 Surface waves are excited via coherent inlet forcing before they come into contact with 16 the air flow. The effect of the air flow on the height, shape, and speed of two-dimensional 17 travelling nonlinear waves is investigated and contrasted with experiments of Kofman et 18 al. (Int. J. of Multiphase Flow, 2017, vol. 95) which were performed in a weakly-confined 19 channel. We observe a striking difference between these two cases. In our strongly-20 confined configuration, a monotonic stabilizing effect or a non-monotonic trend (i.e. the 21 wave height first increases and then diminishes upon increasing the gas flow rate) is 22 observed, in contrast to the weakly-confined configuration where the gas flow is always 23 destabilizing. This stabilizing effect implies the possibility of attenuating waves via the 24 gas flow and it confirms recent numerical results obtained by Lavalle et al. (J. Fluid 25 Mech. Rapids, 2021, vol. 919) in a superconfined channel. 26

#### 27 1. Introduction

We consider a falling liquid film in contact with a laminar counter-current gas flow 28 within a narrow rectangular channel inclined at an angle  $\beta$  (figure 1). This configuration 29 can be considered as a prototype for compact devices found in engineering applications, 30 such as reflux condensers and distillation columns with structured packings (Valluri et al. 31 2005). It is well known that the interaction between the wavy film and the gas flow can 32 promote flooding events leading to a deterioration in the process performance. Depending 33 on the geometry and/or ratio of liquid and gas flow rates (or superficial velocities) we can 34 observe film atomization (Zapke & Kröger 2000), wave or liquid flow reversal (Tseluiko & 35 Kalliadasis 2011), or obstruction of the channel (Vlachos et al. 2001). In order to prevent 36 or delay such events, it is crucial to characterize the dynamics of interfacial waves and 37 in particular their linear and nonlinear responses to the gas flow. 38 Many theoretical and experimental works dedicated to the linear stability of falling

<sup>39</sup> Many theoretical and experimental works dedicated to the linear stability of falling <sup>40</sup> films are reported in the literature since the seminal work of Kapitza (1948) on the

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different wavy flow regimes. The linear stability analysis of a liquid film in a passive 41 atmosphere was initiated by Benjamin (1957) and Yih (1963). They found that the film 42 is unstable to long-wave disturbances when the Reynolds number is greater than  $5/6 \cot \beta$ 43 through an inertia-driven mechanism. This threshold for the so-called Kapitza instability 44 was confirmed experimentally by Liu et al. (1993). Recent theoretical investigations 45 (Lavalle et al. 2019) have shown that the impact of the gas phase on the linear stability 46 threshold becomes non negligible in weakly inclined and/or strongly confined channels by 47 causing a stabilizing effect and ultimately the full suppression of the Kapitza instability. 48 This linear stabilization due to confinement was confirmed experimentally in Lavalle 49 et al. (2019) for a water film in contact with quiescent air in a slightly inclined channel 50  $(\beta = 1.69^{\circ})$  of height H = 5 mm. The main ingredient involved in the stabilization 51 mechanism was found to be the tangential viscous stress exerted by the gas on the film 52 surface, as suggested by Tilley et al. (1994). The strong stabilizing effect induced by a 53 counter-current air flow on a wavy water film is reproduced by Trifonov (2019) at small 54 inclination and strong confinement. Kushnir et al. (2021), via a comprehensive parametric 55 study, have recently established that regimes of linear stabilization in the case of a zero 56 net gas flow occur for channel heights  $H \leq 10$  mm at  $\beta = 1^{\circ}$  and  $H \leq 2$  mm at  $\beta = 10^{\circ}$ 57 in water/air system. 58

Furthermore, when the gas flows counter-currently, it was shown in Lavalle *et al.* (2019) 59 that the linear stabilization is intensified over the entire range of unstable wave numbers 60 when the confinement is sufficiently strong. For intermediate confinement levels, the 61 linear effect of the gas flow can become non-monotonic, i.e. the cut-off wave number of 62 the Kapitza instability first decreases and then increases with the gas flow rate (Vellingiri 63 et al. 2015; Trifonov 2017; Lavalle et al. 2019). The stabilizing effect observed at low gas 64 flow rate arises at all wave numbers. By contrast, when the gas flow rate is large, short 65 waves are attenuated while long waves are amplified, in accordance with the experiments 66 of Alekseenko et al. (2009) and Vellingiri et al. (2015) on linear waves in a vertically-falling 67 liquid film, which were conducted in a vertical tube with a turbulent counter-current gas 68 flow. Finally, for weak confinement, a monotonic increase of the cut-off wave number is 69 observed and the destabilization of the film arises at all wave numbers. 70

The nonlinear response of surface waves has also been studied in a number of works, 71 usually involving a turbulent counter-current gas flow in the context of flooding (Trifonov 72 2010; Tseluiko & Kalliadasis 2011; Drosos et al. 2006; Vlachos et al. 2001; Kofman et al. 73 2017). These studies, which concerned weak confinement levels or vertical configurations 74 revealed that the amplitude of nonlinear waves increases and steepens with increasing 75 gas flow rate while their speed decreases. The authors also observed that capillary ripples 76 in front of the solitary waves are damped, in line with the linear stabilization of short 77 waves observed by Alekseenko et al. (2009). In the weakly-confined setting, flooding 78 manifests itself in experiments as wave reversal or wave breaking phenomena (Kofman 79 et al. 2017; Drosos et al. 2006) emerging from the interfacial shear stress imposed by the 80 gas flow. By contrast, in strongly-confined vertical channels, flooding is usually associated 81 with a wave-induced local obstruction of the channel cross section (Vlachos et al. 2001; 82 Dietze & Ruyer-Quil 2013), which can coincide with wave reversal events (Lavalle et al. 83 2020). In such configurations, the counter-current gas flow amplifies the wave height and 84 thus increases the flooding risk. Recent numerical investigations suggest that this trend 85 could be inverted in weakly-inclined channels. For example, Trifonov (2019) identified 86 a non-monotonic variation of the interfacial velocity, mean film thickness and inter-87 phase friction coefficient with increasing counter-current gas velocity, although the trend 88 of the wave amplitude remained monotonic and increasing. Lavalle et al. (2021) have 89 identified regimes where the nonlinear wave height and the linear growth rate both 90 **Cambridge University Press** 

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<sup>91</sup> decrease with increasing gas flow rate. Such regimes, if confirmed experimentally, could <sup>92</sup> avoid catastrophic flooding events, while exploiting the benefits of surface waves (e.g.

<sup>93</sup> intensification of heat and mass transfer).

The main aim of the current manuscript is to confirm the existence of such regimes 94 through experiments. We study the effect of a counter-current laminar air flow on forced 95 two-dimensional solitary waves resulting from the Kapitza instability in a weakly-inclined 96  $(\beta = 4.9^{\circ})$  strongly-confined channel of 5 mm height. A particular attention has been paid 97 to the boundary conditions, specifically designed to avoid flooding due to outlet effects 98 at the end of the test section, thus allowing to focus on the wave dynamics in the core of 99 the channel. Temporal forcing is applied at the liquid inlet to force surface waves within 100 a buffer zone before they come into contact with the air flow. The influence of the gas 101 shear stress on the shape, amplitude and velocity of these nonlinear waves is investigated 102 and contrasted with the experiments of Kofman et al. (2017), which were performed in a 103 weakly-confined channel (H = 19 mm) where the gas flow was turbulent. Furthermore, 104 we are interested in the effect of the surface waves on the mean film thickness when the 105 gas velocity is increased. 106

The paper is organised as follows. The experimental set-up and the measuring tech-107 niques are presented in § 2. Results are presented in § 3, where we discuss the response of 108 nonlinear surface waves to an increase in counter-current gas flow rate. In § 3.1, we focus 109 on the role of the confinement level, by contrasting our results with the weakly-confined 110 experiments of Kofman et al. (2017). In § 3.2, we focus on the effect of the counter-current 111 gas flow on the dynamics of precursory capillary ripples. In § 3.3, we discuss the role of 112 the liquid Reynolds number and finally in § 3.4 we assess the effect of surface waves on 113 the mean film thickness. Conclusions are drawn in  $\S$  4. 114

#### 115 2. Experimental set-up and measurement methods

A general view of the experimental apparatus is sketched in figure 1: a liquid film falling on the bottom plate of an inclined rectangular channel in contact with a counter-current gas flow. Figure 2 displays a cross-sectional view of the channel. The liquid-related part is the same as the one used in Lavalle *et al.* (2019). In subsection 2.1, we recall briefly its main characteristics. Then in subsection 2.2 we describe the part related to the gas phase.

#### 2.1. Liquid loop

The liquid-related part consists in an inclined glass plate (L = 150 cm long, W = 27 cm123 wide and 5 mm thick) placed on a massive framework mounted on rubber feet to dampen 124 environmental vibrations. The inclination angle  $\beta$  can be changed in the range 0° - 20° 125 and is measured using an inclinometer with a precision of  $0.05^{\circ}$ . In this work  $\beta$  is fixed to 126  $4.9^{\circ}$ . At the channel exit, the glass plate is extended with a porous medium that drains 127 the liquid away, allowing to avoid flooding events due to exit effects. A gear pump brings 128 the liquid from the outlet tank located at the exit of the plane to an inlet tank, from 129 which the liquid overflows and runs onto the plane. The volumetric liquid flow rate,  $q_l$ , is 130 changed by varying the pump power and is measured by using a magnetic-induced flow 131 meter. The liquid Reynolds number is calculated as: 132

$$Re_l = \frac{q_l}{\nu_l W},\tag{2.1}$$

<sup>133</sup> where  $\nu_l$  is the kinematic viscosity of the liquid.

In this study,  $Re_l$  is varied in the range 20 - 49. A temporal periodic forcing of the Cambridge University Press







Figure 2: Sketch of the channel cross-section.

film is introduced at the inlet to trigger surface waves of prescribed frequency f. This 135 is achieved through a thin aluminium plate fixed to the membrane of two loudspeakers 136 thus generating harmonic vibrations above the liquid surface across the whole width of 137 the inlet tank (Kofman et al. 2017). The choice of the forcing frequency depends on 138  $Re_l$  and is based on the aerostatic case (without counter-current gas flow). We adjust it 139 such that 2D saturated travelling waves are observed at the end of the unsheared zone 140 while avoiding secondary subharmonic or side-band instability (Liu & Gollub 1994). The 141 waves then form a regular wave train over the working area and appear as a large hump 142 preceded by capillary ripples. 143

Water is used as working liquid. The temperature of the liquid is measured in the outlet 144 tank and upstream of the inlet tank. The surface tension is regularly monitored by taking 145 a water sample then using a drop shape analyser. A one-point temporal measurement of 146 the film thickness based on the CCI (Confocal Chromatic Imaging) technique (Cohen-147 Sabban et al. 2001) is performed through the bottom glass plate with a spatial precision 148 of 250 nm and a temporal resolution up to 2 kHz. The CCI probe is mounted on a linear 149 translation stage in order to perform measurements along the streamwise axis of the 150 glass plate. In this study, the film thickness is measured at mid-width and at x = 60 cm 151 from the inlet (see figure 1). An example of a CCI time trace is shown in figure 3a. From 152 such temporal measurements, we can extract: the time-averaged film thickness,  $h_m$  (blue 153 line) and the film thickness range, given by  $h_{max}$  and  $h_{min}$ , which correspond to the 154 statistical mean of the maximum and minimum wave height values measured over the 155 duration of the signal (red line and green line). The temporal fluctuations of  $h_{max}$  and 156  $h_{min}$  are quantified from the standard deviation of the statistical measurements and are 157 Cambridge University Press

0.65 0.6 0.55 0.5 0.45 0.4 0.45 0.3 0.35 0.3 0.25 0.2





Figure 3: Film thickness time trace measured with the CCI technique.  $Re_l = 35$ , f = 2.8 Hz,  $\eta_0 = 11.1$ , without counter-current gas flow. (a) The blue line corresponds to the time-averaged film thickness over the duration of the signal. Open and filled circles correspond to the minimal and maximal height of each wave in the signal, respectively. (b) Enlargement of the signal presented in (a). Squares and downward triangles mark the maximum positive free-surface slope magnitude, located at the back of the first capillary wave and at the main wave tail. Upward triangles mark the maximum negative free-surface slope magnitude, located at the maximum negative free-surface

used to include error bars in the relevant figures. In addition, we can extract the local 158 free-surface temporal slope,  $\partial_t h$ , and calculate the statistical mean of its maximum and 159 minimum values over the duration of the signal, as well as the related standard deviation. 160 Figure 3b represents a blown up view over three wave periods, where we have highlighted 161 the maximum (positive) and minimum (negative) free-surface slope magnitude, located 162 at the back of the first capillary wave (square) and at the main front (upward triangle), 163 respectively. The maximum free-surface slope magnitude is also indicated downward 164 triangle). 165

For a given liquid Reynolds number, we quantify the relative confinement of the liquid film with the global parameter:

$$\eta_0 = \frac{H}{h_m^0},\tag{2.2}$$

where  $h_m^0$  is the time-averaged film thickness measured in the case of a quiescent gas (superscript 0), i.e. without imposing a counter-current gas flow.

<sup>170</sup> In addition to the pointwise CCI film thickness measurement, we visualize the film <sup>171</sup> surface with shadowgraphy. For this, the film is illuminated with an oblique white light Cambridge University Press



Figure 4: Typical experiment:  $Re_l = 35$ , f = 2.8 Hz,  $\eta_0 = 11.1$ , without counter-current gas flow (aerostatic case). (a) Visualisation of the gas/liquid interface over the entire test section. The white arrow marks the length over which spatiotemporal diagrams are constructed. The filled white circle marks the location for the CCI measurements (x = 60 cm), (b) Spatiotemporal diagram obtained using a linear camera located in the midplane (z = 13.5 cm).

sheet and imaged from the top either by a 2D camera to provide shadowgraphs over whole 172 width and length of the working area (figure 4a) or by a linear CCD camera focused on 173 the central axis (z = 0.5W) to obtain spatio-temporal diagrams (figure 4b) from which 174 the wave speed, c, is determined. At least two spatio-temporal diagrams are acquired for 175 each experiment and we measure the velocity of several waves around x = 60 cm on each 176 diagram. c is then the mean of the set of measurements and the related error is given by 177 corresponding the standard deviation. The wave speed can also be used to convert the 178 temporal slope  $\partial_t h$  of the film surface to the spatial slope  $\partial_x h = \partial_t h/c$ . 179

#### 2.2. Gas loop

The gas flow is confined between the surface of the falling liquid film, which flows on 181 the bottom glass plate, and an upper 5 mm thick glass plate placed at a distance H from 182 the bottom one. The uniformity of H is regularly checked both in the streamwise and the 183 transverse direction, based on measurements with the CCI method. From one experiment 184 to another, H can vary from 5 mm to 5.2 mm depending on the force applied by the 185 screws to fix the top plate, but its variation for a given experiment is less than 0.5%. 186 Ambient air is sucked through the channel using a fan (see figure 1). The gas flow enters 187 the channel at the lower end and leaves through an outlet slot spanning the entire width 188 of the top plate. This slot ranges from x = 39 cm to x = 42.5 cm and opens into a buffer 189 box to which the fan is connected via a flexible pipe. Upstream of the slot (x < 39 cm), 190 the liquid film is allowed to develop without being disturbed by the gas flow. 191

The air flow rate,  $q_q$ , is controlled by the fan power and is quantified based on a 192 calibration curve, which was obtained by measuring velocity profiles over the channel 193 height with a hot-wire anemometer, at different fan powers. The procedure is detailed 194 in the appendix A. These calibration measurements were performed in the absence of a 195 liquid film and we define a gas Reynolds number as: 196

$$Re_g = \frac{q_g}{\nu_g W}, \eqno(2.3)$$
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Figure 5: Streamwise evolution of the time-averaged film thickness,  $h_m$  along the central axis of the channel, in the aerostatic case ( $Re_g = 0$ , empty circles) and with countercurrent gas flow ( $Re_g = 942$  ( $u_g = 3.05 \text{ m/s}$ ), filled circles). The horizontal dashed-line indicates the Nusselt thickness (flat-surface film thickness without gas flow) associated to the prescribed liquid Reynolds number. The opening slot through which ambient air is sucked spans from x = 39 cm to x = 42 cm (highlighted by vertical dot-dash lines).  $Re_l = 35, f = 2.8 \text{ Hz}, \eta_0 = 11.$ 

where  $\nu_g$  is the kinematic viscosity of the gas and  $q_g$  is the gas flow rate measured in a dry channel at the same fan power.

For the range of parameters used in this study, we assume that for a given fan power, the air flow rate is not significantly affected by the presence of the liquid film in the channel and thus the  $Re_g$  values are representative of the gas flow rate in the falling liquid film experiments. This statement is discussed at the end of appendix A.

In this paper,  $Re_q$  was varied up to 1350, beyond which flooding occurs in the channel 203 for the liquid Reynolds number values considered. Experiments performed by Patel & 204 Head (1969) in a rectangular channel of aspect ratio W/H = 48, which is comparable to 205 the confined channel used in this paper (W/H = 54), showed that the flow remains 206 laminar up to  $Re_q = 1300$  and becomes fully turbulent for  $Re_q > 2800$ . Velocity 207 measurements conducted in our channel and presented in appendix A confirmed that 208 the laminar-turbulent transition starts at  $Re_q > 1200$ . We can thus conclude that the 209 gas flow is laminar in the experiments presented in this paper. 210

The mean gas velocity,  $u_g$ , is defined as the spatially averaged velocity over the gas cross-section and is determined from  $q_g$ :

$$u_g = \frac{q_g}{W(H - h_m)},\tag{2.4}$$

where  $h_m$  is the time-averaged film thickness measured in the presence of the counter-213 current gas flow.  $h_m$  remains almost constant along the central axis of the channel in 214 the sheared region (i.e. downstream of the slot) for a given gas flow rate, as shown in 215 figure 5 (filled circles). So we can consider that the mean gas velocity does not depend 216 on the streamwise position. Figure 5 also shows that the liquid film is not affected by 217 the counter-current gas flow in the unsheared zone upstream of the slot (x < 39 cm). 218 Finally, this figure highlights the influence of the waves on the mean film thickness. We 219 observe that the measured mean film thickness without imposed counter-current gas flow 220 (empty circles) matches the primary-flow solution (dashed line) near the liquid inlet, then 221 it decreases in the streamwise direction as the surface waves develop due to secondary 222 instability. 223



Figure 6: (a, c, e) Shadow graphs of the gas/liquid interface over the entire test section for three different gas velocities, (b, d, f) associated spatio-temporal diagrams. From top to bottom:  $u_g = 1.9 \text{ m/s}$  ( $Re_g = 587$ ),  $u_g = 3.4 \text{ m/s}$  ( $Re_g = 1023$ ),  $u_g = 4.1 \text{ m/s}$  ( $Re_g = 1242$ ). These figures are the continuation of the aerostatic case ( $u_g = 0$ ) presented in figure 4. The white dot and arrow are the same as those described in the caption of figure 4.  $Re_l = 35$ , f = 2.8 Hz,  $\eta_0 = 11.1$ .

#### 224 3. Results

Figure 6 displays shadowgraphs of the film surface and the corresponding spatio-225 temporal diagrams for different gas velocities at  $Re_l = 35$  and f = 2.8 Hz. Increasing the 226 gas velocity generates interactions between waves that can induce coalescence events, 227 clearly visible in figure 6f, resulting in solitary waves of high amplitude preceded by 228 numerous capillary ripples in the downstream portion of the plane (figures 6c and 6e). 229 The initial regular wavetrain is progressively disrupted by the counter-current gas flow as 230 one moves downstream, but it remains globally two-dimensional before merging occurs. 231 In this study, we are interested in this region of 2D travelling waves, so measurements 232 are performed at the location indicated by the white mark in figures 6a, 6c and 6e. In 233 particular, we wish to know the nonlinear response of these waves to the strongly-confined 234 counter-current gas flow. 235



Figure 7: Influence of the gas velocity  $u_g$  on nonlinear wave profiles for two confinement levels:  $\eta_0 = 39$  (H = 19 mm) and  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  (H = 5.2 mm).  $Re_l = 35$ , f = 2.8 Hz, x = 60 cm.

#### 236 3.1. Effect of confined counter-current gas flow on 2D saturated travelling waves

In this section, we confront the results obtained in our strongly-confined channel with previous experiments conducted in a larger channel (Kofman *et al.* 2017). We consider a liquid film flowing at  $Re_l = 35$  on which we force travelling waves of frequency f = 2.8 Hz through our coherent inlet forcing. We are interested in studying the effect of the countercurrent gas flow on these waves, and, in particular, how this effect changes depending on the channel height.

Figure 7 confronts time records of the film thickness for the H = 19 mm channel (top 243 panels), which corresponds to a relative confinement  $\eta_0 = 39$  (Kofman *et al.* 2017), with 244 those measured in our strongly-confined H = 5.2 mm channel (bottom panels), where 245  $\eta_0 = 11.1$ . The measurement point was located at x = 60 cm from the liquid inlet in both 246 experiments. Without imposed gas flow  $(u_g = 0, \text{ left panels in figure 7})$  the wave train 247 is identical in both cases, consisting in waves with a large-amplitude asymmetric hump 248 preceded by three capillary ripples. Thus, the level of confinement is inconsequential for 249 the aerostatic configuration. Starting from this reference state, we compare the response 250 of solitary waves to a gradual increase of the gas velocity for both confinements (central 251 and right panels in figure 7). The striking difference between the two cases is that the 252 maximum film height gradually increases with  $u_q$  in the large channel whereas it levels off 253 Cambridge University Press



Figure 8: Influence of the gas velocity  $u_g$  on: (a) wave celerity c, (b) minimum  $h_{min}$  (downward triangles), mean  $h_m$  (squares) and maximum  $h_{max}$  (circles) film thickness for  $\eta_0 = 39$ ,  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  and  $\eta_0 = 9.9$  (white, grey and black symbols, respectively).  $Re_l = 35$ , f = 2.8 Hz, x = 60 cm.

in the strongly-confined case. We also observe that the counter-current air flow attenuates
the capillary ripples ahead of the main hump, as discussed in (Kofman *et al.* 2017). This
effect is much more pronounced in the strongly-confined channel.

Figure 8 quantifies the gas effect on the wave characteristics for these two confinement 257 levels. Figure 8a displays the effect of the gas on the wave velocity, c, and figure 8b 258 its effect on the minimal  $(h_{min})$ , averaged  $(h_m)$  and maximal  $(h_{max})$  values of the film 259 thickness. We find that the slowing of the waves caused by the counter-current flow 260 is more pronounced in the strongly-confined channel than in the larger one. Figure 8b 261 shows that  $h_{min}$  and  $h_{max}$  are influenced by the confinement.  $h_{min}$  slightly increases 262 with  $u_q$  in the strongly-confined channel while it remains constant in the large channel, 263 or even slightly decreases for high gas velocities. As shown in figure 7,  $h_{max}$  in the 264 strongly-confined channel increases with  $u_q$  in a first stage ( $u_q < 2.1 \text{ m/s}$  for  $\eta_0 = 11.1$ ) 265 then saturates, whereas it continuously increases in the large channel. By contrast,  $h_m$ 266 increases by the same amount with  $u_q$  in all experiments, regardless of the confinement 267 level. In order to account for this increase in the mean film thickness, we report in figure 268 9 the normalized quantities: 269

$$\delta_{max} = \frac{h_{max}}{h_m} \tag{3.1}$$

<sup>270</sup> based on the data from figure 8b.

For  $\eta_0 = 39$  (H = 19 mm),  $\delta_{max}$  monotonously increases with  $u_q$  (open circles). Thus, 271 increasing the gas flow rate amplifies the nonlinear waves, which implies a destabilizing 272 (nonlinear) effect. This behaviour has been reported in several numerical studies (Tri-273 fonov 2010, 2019; Tseluiko & Kalliadasis 2011). By contrast, for the strongly-confined 274 channel,  $\delta_{max}$  first increases but then clearly decreases with  $u_q$  (filled circles), in partic-275 ular for  $\eta_0 = 9.9$ . These results confirm experimentally the numerical finding of Lavalle 276 et al. (2021) that increasing the counter-current gas flow can attenuate nonlinear waves. 277 For the strongly-confined channel, the attenuation of nonlinear waves observed in figure 278 9 sets in at  $u_q > 2$  m/s. As shown in figure 8a, this coincides with a sharp drop in 279 wave celerity under the effect of the gas which is much more pronounced in the strongly 280 Cambridge University Press

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Figure 9: Influence of the gas velocity  $u_g$  on  $\delta_{max}$  (3.1) for  $\eta_0 = 39$ ,  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  and  $\eta_0 = 9.9$  (white, grey and black symbols, respectively).  $Re_l = 35$ , f = 2.8 Hz, x = 60 cm.

confined channel than in the large channel. In figure 9, the wave amplitude curve  $\delta_{max}(u_g)$ exhibits a saw-tooth shape during the stabilizing stage  $(u_g > 2 \text{ m/s})$  that will be discussed in the next subsection. For  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  (grey symbols) the increase in  $\delta_{max}(u_g)$  which reflects a re-destabilization of the waves between  $u_g = 2.9 \text{ m/s}$  and  $u_g = 3.3 \text{ m/s}$  is correlated to the modulation in the wave celerity depicted in figure 8a (grey symbols) which means that the stabilization mechanism is very sensitive to the wave celerity.

#### 3.2. Effect of the counter-current gas flow on precursory capillary ripples

The saw-tooth shape exhibited in figure 9 for the strongly-confined channel at  $u_q >$ 288 2.1 m/s is correlated to the wave celerity and results in a sequential suppression of 289 capillary ripples under the effect of an increasing gas flow, as shown in figure 10, where 290 wave profiles at different gas velocities are displayed for  $\eta_0 = 9.9$  (black symbols in 291 figure 9). For  $u_q < 2.1$  m/s the effect of the counter-current gas is to increase the wave 292 amplitude without significantly affecting the wave speed and the number of capillary 203 ripples remains unchanged (in this case, 3 capillary ripples are observed ahead of the 294 main hump). For  $u_q > 2.1$  m/s, the wave speed drops significantly, which reduces the 295 wavelength of the main waves (f = 2.8 Hz is constant here). Both effects are known 296 to reduce the number and amplitude of precursory capillary ripples (Dietze 2016), and 297 this is observed in figure 10 ( $\eta_0 = 9.9$ ): we move from 3 to 2 capillary ripples between 298  $u_g = 2.9$  m/s (alternation of 2 or 3 capillary ripples) and  $u_g = 3.1$  m/s (2 capillary 299 ripples) and from 2 to 1 at  $u_g = 3.8$  m/s just before flooding. For  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  (grey 300 symbols in figure 9) the transition 3-2 and 2-1 occurs at  $u_q \simeq 2.6$  m/s and 3.6 m/s. 301 The change in the number of capillary ripples correspond to the troughs of the saw-tooth 302 shape in figure 9. 303

To confirm that the number of capillary ripples is indeed governed by the wave speed, figures 11 compares the maximum positive slope, max  $\{\partial_x h\}$ , for the two confinement levels  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  (grey symbols) and  $\eta_0 = 39$  (white symbols). This maximum is observed at the back of the first capillary ripple (squares in figure 3b) and is an indicator of the compression of the capillary wave train due to the decrease of the wave length. Figure 11a displays max  $\{\partial_x h\}$  (square symbols) as a function of  $u_g$ , and Figure 11b as a function of the normalized wave velocity  $\hat{c}$ :

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Figure 10: Influence of the gas velocity  $u_g$  on nonlinear wave profiles measured at x = 60 cm for  $Re_l = 35$ , f = 2.8 Hz,  $\eta_0 = 9.9$ , corresponding to the experiment presented in figure 9 (black symbols).

$$\hat{c} = \frac{c_0 - c}{c_N},\tag{3.2}$$

where  $c_N = \frac{gh_N^2 \sin\beta}{\nu_l}$  is the speed of kinematic waves in a passive atmosphere,  $c_0$ corresponds to the measured wave speed in the case of a quiescent gas, and  $h_N = \frac{313}{\left(\frac{3 q_l \nu_l}{\sin \beta g}\right)^{1/3}}$  is the Nusselt thickness (the flat-surface film thickness in the passive-gas limit).

Figure 11a shows that for a given value of  $u_q \neq 0$ , the slope magnitude at the back 315 of the first capillary ripple as well as the number of capillary ripples depend on the 316 confinement. By contrast, figure 11b shows that for a given value of  $\hat{c}$  these quantities 317 are identical regardless of the confinement, which is also clearly visible from wave profiles 318 presented in figure 12 for  $\hat{c} = 0.13$  and  $\hat{c} = 0.23$  (marked by vertical dashed lines in 319 figure 11b). This behaviour implies that the capillary region is not directly affected by 320 the gas shear-stress but is controlled by the indirect effect of the gas-induced slowing of 321 the large waves. In figure 11 we have also plotted the maximum negative slope min  $\{\partial_x h\}$ 322 at the main hump front (upward triangles) which is an indicator of the steepness of the 323 wave, and the maximum (positive) slope at the wave tail (downward triangles). In the 324 **Cambridge University Press** 



Figure 11: Influence of the gas velocity  $u_g$  in (a) and the normalized gas velocity  $\hat{c}$  (3.2) in (b), on the maximum positive free-surface slope max  $\{\partial_x h\}$  at the back of the first capillary ripple (squares) and at the main hump tail (downward triangles), and on the maximum negative slope min  $\{\partial_x h\}$  at the front of the main hump (upward triangles), for  $\eta_0 = 39$  (white symbols) and  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  (grey symbols). The number of capillary ripples is indicated. Vertical dashed lines in (b) indicate the values of  $\hat{c}$  related to the wave profiles presented in figure 12. f = 2.8 Hz,  $Re_l = 35$ , x = 60 cm.



Figure 12: Influence of the confinement on wave profiles at given values of  $\hat{c}$  (3.2) marked by vertical dashed lines in figure 11b. (a)  $\hat{c} = 0.13$ , (b)  $\hat{c} = 0.23$ . Thin solid line:  $\eta_0 = 39$  $(u_g = 4.4 \text{ m/s in (a)}$  and 5.5 m/s in (b)), thick solid line:  $\eta_0 = 11.1$   $(u_g = 2.8 \text{ m/s in (a)})$ and 4 m/s in (b)). Same parameters as in figure 11.

<sup>325</sup> large channel (white symbols) the front inclination remains unchanged as the gas velocity <sup>326</sup> is increased, while the tail steepens, thus resulting in a more symetrical wave (thin solid <sup>327</sup> curves in figure 12). By contrast in the strongly-confined channel (grey symbols), the <sup>328</sup> front inclination weakens while the tail slope remains unchanged under the action of the <sup>329</sup> counter-current flow, and the resulting wave is less symmetric than in the large channel <sup>330</sup> (thick solid curves in figure 12).



Figure 13: Wave profiles for different values of the liquid Reynolds number  $Re_l$  and forcing frequency f in the strongly-confined channel for the aerostatic case. From left to right, the resulting wavelength is 6.5 cm ( $Re_l = 22$ ), 6.5 cm ( $Re_l = 35$ ), 7.3 cm ( $Re_l = 44.6$ ), not available for  $Re_l = 49$ .

#### 3.3. Influence of the liquid Reynolds number

We now investigate the effect of the counter-current gas flow on the response of 332 nonlinear waves for different values of the liquid Reynolds number  $Re_l$  and the forcing 333 frequency f, in the strongly-confined channel. As shown in figure 13 for the quiescent-gas 334 reference case, these parameters clearly affect the mean film thickness and consequently 335 the confinement level  $\eta_0$  (2.2), the maximum film thickness  $h_{max}$ , and the number of 336 precursory capillary ripples. The forcing frequency has been empirically adjusted from 337 the aerostatic case according to the liquid Reynolds number, in order to generate 2D 338 saturated quasi-solitary waves in the working zone. The resulting wavelength of the 339 unsheared wave train is specified in the caption of figure 13 provided that wave velocity 340 measurements are available. 341

We report in figure 14 the variation of c (figure 14a) and  $\delta_{max}$  (figure 14b) in terms of 342  $Re_q$  for different  $Re_l$  and forcing frequency f. For  $Re_l = 44.6$  (grey triangles), we observe 343 the same overall behaviour as for  $Re_l = 35$ , which was presented in the previous section. 344 In a first stage,  $\delta_{max}$  increases with  $Re_q$  (the gas flow is nonlinearly destabilizing) then 345 decreases when c is significantly reduced (the gas flow is nonlinearly stabilizing), with saw-346 tooth modulations associated with the change in the number of capillary ripples, whereas 347 the variation of c with  $Re_q$  remains monotonous. For a higher liquid flow rate,  $Re_l = 49$ 348 (crosses), the destabilizing stage at low gas velocity is replaced by a stabilizing one. For 349 the lowest Reynolds number,  $Re_l = 22$  (open triangles), there are only two capillary 350 waves to start with (see first panel in figure 13) and we observe a weak stabilization until 351  $Re_q \approx 600$ , associated with the suppression of one capillary wave.  $\delta_{max}$  then increases to 352 reach a constant value while maintaining one capillary wave until the experiment breaks 353 down due to flooding downstream. 354

We now introduce the local relative confinement parameter  $\eta_{max}$  as:

$$\eta_{max} = \frac{H}{h_{max}} \tag{3.3}$$

Figure 15 displays  $\eta_{max}$  as a function of  $Re_g$  for the same parameters as figure 14. The gas-induced stabilization at  $Re_l = 22$  is associated with a relative confinement  $\eta_{max} \approx 9$ . For  $Re_l = 35$ , 45 and 49 the stabilizing effect occurs for smaller confinement levels.

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Figure 14: Influence of the liquid Reynolds number  $Re_l$  on: (a) wave celerity:  $Re_l = 22$ ,  $\eta_0 = 11.5$  (white triangles) -  $Re_l = 35$ ,  $\eta_0 = 11.1$  (black triangles) -  $Re_l = 44.6$ ,  $\eta_0 = 10.3$  (grey triangles), (b)  $\delta_{max} = h_{max}/h_m$ : same parameters as (a) for white and grey triangles,  $Re_l = 35$ ,  $\eta_0 = 9.9$  (black circles) -  $Re_l = 49$ ,  $\eta_0 = 10.3$  (crosses). Strongly-confined channel.



Figure 15: Influence of the liquid Reynolds number  $Re_l$  on the local confinement parameter  $\eta_{max}$  (3.3) in the strongly-confined channel. Same parameters as in figure 14b.

#### 3.4. Effect of the surface waves on the mean film thickness

We now wish to gauge the effect of the gas-sheared surface waves on the mean film 360 thickness  $h_m$ . In particular, we wish to know whether  $h_m$  is decreased or increased 361 versus the primary-flow thickness. In the case of a passive gas or a quiescent unconfined 362 atmosphere, it is well known that  $h_m$  is smaller than the primary-flow thickness. This 363 is known as wave-induced effective film thinning (Miyara 1999). In our current case of a 364 counter-current gas flow, it turns out that the wave effect depends on the confinement 365 level. To group our measurement data for the H=5 mm channel, where the gas flow is 366 laminar, and the data of Kofman et al. (2017) for an H=19mm channel, where the gas 367 flow is turbulent, we introduce the Froude number  $Fr_{q,l}$ , which relates interfacial shear 368 stress (~  $\rho_g u_g^2$ ) to gravitational effects: 369

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Figure 16: Relative mean film thickness  $\hat{h}$  (3.5) measured in the  $H \approx 5$  mm channel and in the  $H \approx 19$  mm channel (Kofman *et al.* (2017), square symbols), as a function of: (a) the Froude number  $Fr_{g,l}$  (3.4), (b) the modified Froude number,  $Fr_{fric}$  (3.6). The solid and dashed curves correspond to the flat-film solution  $\hat{h}_{flat}$  according to B 13 with  $\epsilon = 0$  $(\hat{h}_{flat} = \tilde{h}_{flat} - 1)$ .

$$Fr_{g,l} = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_g u_g^2}{\rho_l g sin\beta h_N}},\tag{3.4}$$

and the normalized film thickness  $\hat{h}$ :

$$\hat{h} = \frac{h_m}{h_m^0} - 1$$
(3.5)

Figure 16a displays h as a function of  $Fr_{g,l}$ , for all experiments conducted in the H = 5 mm channel (different  $Re_l$  and f), as well as the experiments of Kofman *et al.* (2017) conducted in a H = 19 mm channel (square symbols). The experimental data collapse onto two different trends, one for the narrow channel and another for the wide channel. This is due to the different flow regimes in the two configurations, the gas flow being laminar in the former case and turbulent in the latter.

To account for this, we improve our approximation of the interfacial shear stress used in (3.4) in a modified gas-liquid Froude number,  $Fr_{fric}$ , based on the friction velocity,  $u_{fric}$ :

$$Fr_{fric} = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_g u_{fric}^2}{\rho_l g sin\beta h_N}} = \sqrt{\frac{C_{f,i}}{2}} Fr_{g,l}, \qquad (3.6)$$

where  $u_{fric}$  is based on the tangential interfacial gas shear stress of the primary flow (no waves),  $\tau_i$ , as:

$$u_{fric} = \sqrt{\frac{\tau_i}{\rho_g}} \tag{3.7}$$

 $\tau_i$  is related to the global skin-friction coefficient,  $C_{f,i}$ :

$$C_{f,i} = \frac{\tau_i}{1/2\rho_g u_g^2} \tag{3.8}$$

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In the strongly-confined channel, the gas flow is laminar and we approximate  $C_{f,i}$  by the relation for Poiseuille flow through a plane dry channel:

$$C_{f,i} = 12Re_a^{-1} \tag{3.9}$$

In the large channel the gas flow is fully turbulent and we use an experimental correlation established by Patel & Head (1969) in a wide rectangular horizontal dry channel:

$$C_{f,i} = 0.0376 R e_a^{-1/6} \tag{3.10}$$

Using these correlations for  $C_{f,i}$ , we assume that the liquid-gas interface can be con-388 sidered as immobile. To validate this motionless interface assumption, we have compared 389 the film thickness of a flat-surface film subject to a counter-current laminar gas flow as 390 obtained by numerical solution of the fully-coupled two-phase primary flow (Lavalle et al. 391 2019) with the thickness obtained by assuming an inter-phase skin friction coefficient 392 according to (3.9). Details on this flat-film model are given in appendix B. The two 393 predictions are in excellent agreement and this holds over the entire range of experimental 394 conditions studied in this work (see figure 23 in appendix B). 395

In figure 16b,  $\hat{h}$  (3.5) is plotted as a function of  $Fr_{fric}$ , according to (3.6). We observe that the new scaling is more appropriate to describe the effect of the shear stress exerted by the gas on the interface, as the laminar and turbulent data are now gathered. The two additional solid and dashed curves correspond to the flat-film model  $\hat{h}_{flat}$  (according to B13 with  $\epsilon = 0$ ,  $\hat{h}_{flat} = \tilde{h}_{flat} - 1$ ) for the laminar gas flow in the strongly-confined channel (solid line) and for the turbulent gas flow in the large channel (dashed line). This model represents a reference solution for comparison with the wavy experimental data.

The mean film thickness results from two opposing intricate effects: the well known effective thinning due to nonlinear surface waves, illustrated in figure 5 for the aerostatic case, and the thickenning effect of the counter-current gas flow produced by the interfacial shear-stress. The relative competition of these two effects determines the mean film thickness ultimate behaviour.

In the large channel (square symbols) the experimental data lie slightly below the flatfilm prediction. Thus, surface waves tend to reduce the mean film thickness, as in the case of a quiescent atmosphere.

In the strongly-confined channel, at high liquid Reynolds number values  $Re_l$  and 411 high Froude numbers ( $Fr_{fric} \ge 0.35$ ), experimental data are clearly above the flat-412 film prediction which means that the mean wavy film thickness grows faster than the 413 reference flat-film thickness. This behaviour occurs in the nonlinear stabilizing regime for 414 strong relative confinement levels, where surface waves promote a significant variation of 415 the gas cross-section, which in turn affects the local tangential shear stress. This is the 416 basis for the linear stabilization mechanism described by Lavalle et al. (2019). In this 417 regime, the gas effect tends to reduce the nonlinear amplitude of the main hump and thus 418 the thinning effect of the waves, while it increases the residual flat film thickness between 419 two humps. In figure 14b, we observe that during this stage, the interaction between the 420 liquid film and the counter-current gas flow generates strong disturbances of the wave 421 train as highlighted by the large temporal fluctuations measurements for  $Re_l = 44.6$  and 422 49. 423

<sup>424</sup> By contrast, when  $Re_l$  and thus the wave amplitude is small, experimental data are well <sup>425</sup> predicted by the flat-film model over the entire range of the Froude number. In this case, <sup>426</sup> the mean thickness of the wavy film increases at the same rate as the flat film thickness <sup>427</sup> when the gas flow rate is increased, indicating that the thinning effect of the surface <sup>428</sup> waves balances the overall thickening effect due to the gas shear stress. This balance <sup>429</sup> Cambridge University Press 18

can also be observed at higher  $Re_l$  and moderate Froude number values ( $Fr_{fric} \leq 0.35$ , crosses) for experiments concerned with the monotonously nonlinear stabilizing regime (see crosses in figure 14b).

Further, we conclude that the interfacial shear stress effect on the nonlinear surface 432 waves changes by increasing the gas velocity in the strongly confined channel. This 433 behaviour could be related to the observations of Trifonov (2019), who performed simu-434 lations of nonlinear waves for a set of parameters similar to our experimental conditions 435  $(\beta = 5^{\circ}, H = 5 \text{ mm}, Re_l = 5, 15 \text{ and } 40$ , see the supplementary material associated with 436 the cited article). The author demonstrates the existence of a local minimum of the mean 437 film thickness and of the gas friction coefficient in terms of the gas superficial velocity. 438 More specifically, at  $Re_l = 40$ , he found that the decrease of the friction coefficient 439 deviates from the decreasing trend of the waveless solution ( $\propto 1/Re_q$ ) at a gas velocity 440 comparable to the experimental values associated to the deviation of  $h_m$  from the flat-film 441 solution observed in figure 16b. 442

The experimental data corresponding to the black filled circles deviates from the other 443 data at similar liquid Reynolds numbers. For this experiment the Kapitza number is 444 lower (by 13% due to a different ambient temperature) and the channel height H is 445 slightly lower (by 4%). These variations do not significantly affect the primary flow, 446 as can be inferred from the right-pointing triangles which correspond to an experiment 447 performed the same day without inlet forcing, and which lie on the solid curve related to 448 the primary flow solution. However, the destabilizing effect of the gas on the nonlinear 449 waves at moderate Froude number values may be enhanced, which could favor the wave-450 induced effective film thinning effect (these data lie below the solid curve). 451

#### 452 **4.** Conclusion

In this paper, experiments were conducted on water films falling along the bottom wall 453 of a weakly-inclined ( $\beta = 4.9^{\circ}$ ) rectangular channel of height  $H \approx 5$  mm interacting with 454 a laminar counter-current air flow. Surface waves were excited via coherent inlet forcing 455 before they come into contact with the air flow to promote travelling waves consisting in 456 a large-amplitude hump preceded by capillary ripples. We focused on the sheared region 457 of the film where the waves were two-dimensional without interaction between them. 458 Local film thickness time traces and wave celerity measurements have been performed 459 together with visual observations. 460

The effect of the air flow on the height, shape, and speed of the waves was investigated 461 and contrasted with results obtained by Kofman et al. (2017) in a channel of height 462 19 mm, where the counter-current gas flow was turbulent. The stronger confinement 463 level studied here versus the experiments of Kofman et al. (2017) not only changes the 464 geometrical constriction of the gas flow but also leads to a laminar flow regime in the 465 gas instead of a turbulent one. In experiments, these two effects, which play their own 466 distinct roles, cannot be decoupled. However, Trifonov (2010) has shown via numerical 467 simulations that the main effect of turbulence is to shift the onset of wave-induced critical 468 events (e.g. the flooding onset) toward lower superficial gas velocities. 469

In our experiments, no confinement-induced effect was detected on the wave dynamics in the case of a quiescent gas. Indeed, the shape, amplitude and velocity of the nonlinear waves excited at a prescribed frequency are almost identical for the two confinement levels. When a counter-current gas flow is imposed, striking differences are observed. For all the experiments conducted in the weakly confined channel, the effect of the gas on the travelling nonlinear waves was destabilizing (see Kofman *et al.* (2017)), whereas

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a monotonic stabilizing effect or a non-monotonic trend was observed in the stronglyconfined channel, depending on the liquid Reynolds number  $Re_l$ .

For small  $Re_l$  in the strongly confined channel, inertia is weak and the relative confinement is quite low without gas flow ( $\eta_{max} > 9$ ). Under these conditions, the wave amplitude first slightly diminishes as the gas velocity is increased and then increases to reach a plateau sustaining one capillary ripple until onset of flooding. In that case, the stabilizing mechanism induced by the variation of the gas shear stress at the interface is quite weak.

For moderate  $Re_l$ , the wave amplitude first increases with the gas velocity while the number of capillary ripples ahead of the main hump and the wave celerity remain unchanged. Upon increasing the gas velocity further, the wave amplitude diminishes and a gradual reduction of the number of capillary ripples is observed. For higher values of  $Re_l$ , a monotonically gas-induced wave attenuation is observed.

These experimental obervations are in line with recent numerical results obtained by Lavalle *et al.* (2021) in a superconfined channel, where monotonic gas-induced amplification (attenuation) of the nonlinear wave amplitude was detected for larger (smaller) H, and a non-monotonic trend was observed for intermediate H.

To quantify the effect of surface waves on the mean film thickness in a universal form, 493 a modified Froude number has been constructed which relates viscous drag based on the 494 skin friction coefficient and gravity. We have compared the normalized measured mean 495 film thickness h with the primary-flow solution  $h_{flat}$  obtained in the limit of a frozen 496 (immobile) liquid-gas interface. In the case of a turbulent gas flow, which corresponds to 497 experiments conducted in the large channel,  $h_{flat}$  is greater than h. In these experiments, 498 waves are significantly amplified by the counter-current flow and the wave-induced film 499 thinning effect (Miyara 1999) is dominant compared to the thickening effect of the gas 500 shear stress. In the laminar configuration, which corresponds to experiments conducted 501 in the strongly confined channel, h and  $h_{flat}$  correspond when  $Re_l$  is small, which implies 502 that the thinning effect of the waves on the mean thickness is balanced by the shear-503 stress thickening effect, and the experimental behaviour is well predicted by the model. 504 For higher liquid Reynolds number values,  $h_{flat} < h$  in the range of parameters where 505 the nonlinear stabilization occurs. 506

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#### <sup>513</sup> Appendix A. Measurement of the gas flow rate

In this section we describe the procedure that has been used to quantify the air flow rate 514  $q_q$  generated by the fan in the inclined strongly-confined channel of figure 1. This quantity 515 is used to evaluate the gas Reynolds number according to equation (2.3). This was done 516 based on a calibration curve between a given fan power and the corresponding gas flow 517 rate obtained from velocity measurements in the dry channel, i.e. without the liquid film. 518 The porous medium at the end of the bottom glass plate was replaced by a Plexiglas 519 plate with an opening to allow access for a hot-wire anemometer probe (see figure 17). 520 With this probe, we measured the wall-normal profile of the streamwise velocity u(y)521 Cambridge University Press

20



Figure 17: Location of the anemometer used to measure the air velocity at the end of the channel (gas inlet).



Figure 18: Air velocity profiles measured for different fan powers (in Watt) in the dry channel:  $P_f = 1.3$  (circles), 3.9 (squares), 6.5 (upward triangles), 7.8 (downward triangles), 10.4 (open circles) and 13 (open squares). Solid lines correspond to polynomial fits.  $\beta = 4.9^{\circ}$ .

at mid-width of the channel and 4.5 cm from the air inlet. Figure 18 displays profiles obtained for different fan powers and for the inclination angle used in the experiments,  $\beta = 4.9^{\circ}$ . Each dot corresponds to a time-averaged measurement over 30 s and the error bars are included according to the uncertainty of the probe given by the manufacturer. A polynomial fit is performed for each profile from wich we compute the air flow rate:

$$q_g = W \int_0^H u(y) \,\mathrm{d}y,\tag{A1}$$

where W = 27 cm is the channel width. The calibration curve presented in figure 19 gives the air flow rate per unit width as a function of the imposed fan power,  $P_f$ . The gas Reynolds number,  $Re_g$ , is then calculated using (2.3). When the fan is switched off  $(P_f=0)$ , there is no gas flow in the dry channel, and, thus,  $Re_g=0$  according to our procedure, even though a small non-zero gas flow would be generated in the presence of a falling liquid film.

In figure 18, we have plotted several examples of measured velocity profiles for laminar flow conditions (black symbols), i.e.  $Re_g < 1300$  according to the laminar-turbulent transition threshold determined by Patel & Head (1969) in a high-aspect-ratio channel. Table 1 reports the corresponding values of the velocity ratio  $u_g/u_{max}$ , where the mean velocity  $u_g$  has been defined in (2.4) and  $u_{max}$  is the maximum velocity. The aerodynamic entry length,  $L_d$ , is also reported, which is defined as the length needed for the boundary layers along the two horizontal channel walls to join at y = H/2. Based Cambridge University Press



Figure 19: Calibration curve used to quantify the gas flow rate  $q_g$  (A 1) per unit of channel width from the imposed fan power  $P_f$ .  $\beta = 4.9^{\circ}$ .

Table 1: Ratio between the mean and the maximum air velocity issued from the measured velocity profiles (black symbols in figure 18) and the corresponding aerodynamic entry lengths given by (A 2).

$Re_g$	$u_g/u_{max}$	$L_d (\mathrm{mm})$
325	0.667	17
810	0.721	42
1065	0.723	50
1190	0.757	55

on the presumption that air enters the channel with a uniform velocity profile and using the Blasius correlation, it is straightforward to show that:

$$\frac{L_d}{H} = 0.01 Re_g \tag{A 2}$$

Based on this data, it is clear that the gas flow is fully developed in the entire region of the channel used for our falling liquid film experiments.

A specific velocity measurement series has been performed to confirm the laminar-544 turbulent transition threshold determined by Patel & Head (1969). The top glass plate 545 of the channel was replaced by a Plexiglas plate with an opening to allow access for the 546 probe far from the air entrance (about 1 m away). In this campaign, only the maximum 547 air velocity,  $u_{max}$ , has been measured for different fan powers. By assuming that the flow 548 is laminar and fully-developed at this location, i.e.  $u_g \approx 0.667 u_{max}$ , we can calculate a 549 flow rate and then a Reynolds number,  $Re_g^{lam}$ . For a given fan power, we compare  $Re_g^{lam}$  with  $Re_g$  issued from the complete vertical velocity profiles (using (A 1) then (2.3)). 550 551 Figure 20 displays  $Re_q^{lam}$  and  $Re_g$  against the imposed fan power. It can be seen that 552 for  $Re_g \leq 1200$  the points collapse, which means that  $Re_g = Re_g^{lam}$  and thus the flow is confirmed to be laminar. The discrepancy observed for  $Re_g > 1200$  means that the flow 553 554 is no longer laminar. From these measurements we can conclude that in our inclined 555 channel, the laminar-turbulent transition occurs for  $Re_q$  slightly greater than 1200. 556 The gas Reynolds number,  $Re_q$ , defined in (2.3) can be used to characterize the counter-557

The gas Reynolds number,  $Re_g$ , defined in (2.3) can be used to characterize the countercurrent air flow in the experiments provided that the gas flow rate circulating into the Cambridge University Press



Figure 20:  $Re_g$  (filled circles) and  $Re_g^{lam}$  (open circles) as a function of the fan power  $P_f$ .  $Re_g$  is calculated by integrating velocity profiles measured at the end of the channel (figure 18), and  $Re_g^{lam}$  from the maximum velocity measurements performed in the fully-developed region and assuming a laminar parabolic profile i.e.  $u_g = 2/3u_{max}$ .

experimental gas loop is not affected by the presence of the liquid film in the channel ata fixed fan power. The validity of this assumption is discussed below.

For a gas flowing in a dry rectangular channel with a large transversal aspect ratio 561 of length L and height H (in our configuration W/H = 54 >> 1), the pressure drop 562 is given by the analytic relation  $\Delta p_{channel} = 4C_f \frac{L}{2H} \frac{1}{2} \rho_g(\frac{q}{H})^2$  where  $q = u_g H$  is the volumetric gas flow rate (per unit width, i.e.  $q = q_g/W$ ) and  $C_f$  is the skin friction 563 564 coefficient, with  $C_f = 12/Re_g$ . Thus,  $\Delta p_{channel} \propto q/H^3$  and the corresponding power 565  $P_{channel} = q \Delta p_{channel} \propto q^2 / H^3$ . For a given power value  $P_{channel}$ , decreasing the channel 566 height by 10% (typical to the reduction due to the presence of the liquid film in the 567 experiments) leads to a 15% decrease in the flow rate. However,  $\Delta p_{channel}$  constitutes 568 only a small part of the total pressure drop, which is dominated by the resistance in 569 the section between the outlet slot and the fan. Thus, the actual decrease in  $q_q$  upon 570 decreasing H by 10% is relatively low. For the range of parameters considered in this 571 study, we have estimated it to be less than 5%. 572

#### <sup>573</sup> Appendix B. Flat-film model for laminar and turbulent gas flow

In panel 16b, we have estimated the liquid film thickness of the flat-surface primary 574 flow based on the skin friction coefficient  $C_{f,i}$ . This approach allows to account for a 575 laminar or turbulent gas flow within the flat-film model. For laminar flow, this coefficient 576  $C_{f,i}$  is given by (3.9) and for turbulent flow by (3.10), according to the experiments of 577 Patel & Head (1969). However, these experiments were performed in a dry channel, and, 578 thus, our flat-film model implies an immobile liquid-gas interface. The current appendix 579 aims to verify this assumption. We do this based on the laminar case, which is the limiting 580 one, and for which we can easily obtain a reference solution for the flat-surface film based 581 on the fully-coupled primary flow (Lavalle *et al.* 2019). 582

<sup>583</sup> The gas velocity profile for the fully-coupled primary flow is given by:

$$u(Y) = \frac{-K_g}{2\mu_g} H_g^2 \Big( Y - Y^2 \Big) + u_0 \Big( 1 - Y \Big), \tag{B1}$$

<sup>584</sup> where  $K_g$  reads:

$$K_g = \left(\partial_x p - \rho_g g \sin\beta\right),\tag{B2}$$

where  $\partial_x p$  is the driving longitudinal pressure gradient, positive in our case for a countercurrent gas flow, and  $Y = (y - h_{flat})/H_g$ , which  $h_{flat}$  denoting the flat-surface film thickness and  $H_g = H - h_{flat}$  the height of the gas cross-section.  $u_0$  is the liquid velocity at the film surface  $(u_0 > 0)$ .

The gas velocity averaged over  $H_q$  can be written as:

$$u_g^+ = \frac{-K_g}{12\mu_g} H_g^2 + \frac{u_0}{2} = u_g^0 + \frac{u_0}{2} = u_g^0 (1 + \frac{\epsilon}{2}), \tag{B3}$$

where  $u_g^0$  corresponds to the average gas velocity in the limit  $u_0 = 0$  and  $\epsilon = u_0/u_g^0$ . The gas Reynolds number is defined as:

$$Re_g^+ = \frac{u_g^+ H_g}{\nu_g} = \frac{u_g^0 H_g}{\nu_g} + \frac{u_0 H_g}{2\nu_g} = Re_g^0 + Re_0 = Re_g^0 \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)$$
(B4)

We can write the tangential shear-stress at the liquid-gas interface and at the top wall,  $\tau_i$  and  $\tau_w$ , as:

$$\tau_i = -\frac{\mu_g}{H_g} \partial_Y u|_{Y=0} = \frac{K_g}{2} H_g + \mu_g \frac{u_0}{H_g} = \tau_i^0 \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon}{6}\right), \tag{B5}$$

$$\tau_w = \frac{\mu_g}{H_g} \partial_Y u|_{Y=1} = \frac{K_g}{2} H_g - \mu_g \frac{u_0}{H_g} = \tau_i^0 \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon}{6}\right), \tag{B6}$$

where  $\tau_i^0 = H_g K_g/2$  is the limit of  $\tau_i$  and  $\tau_w$  for a static interface (i.e. for  $\epsilon = 0$ ). We define the global skin-friction coefficient at the liquid-gas interface,  $C_{f,i}$  as:

$$C_{f,i} = \frac{\tau_i}{1/2\rho_g u_g^{+^2}} = \frac{\tau_i^0}{1/2\rho_g u_g^{0^2}} \frac{1 - \epsilon/6}{(1 + \epsilon/2)^2} = C_{f,i}^0 \frac{1 - \epsilon/6}{(1 + \epsilon/2)^2}$$
(B7)

In a similar way we can define  $C_{f,w}$  at the top wall as:

$$C_{f,w} = C_{f,i}^0 \frac{1 + \epsilon/6}{(1 + \epsilon/2)^2}$$
(B8)

<sup>597</sup>  $C_{f,i}^{0}$  is the skin friction coefficient in the case of static boundaries (i.e. for  $\epsilon = 0$ ). In Cambridge University Press



Figure 21: (a) Global skin-friction coefficients at the liquid-gas interface  $C_{f,i}$  (B7) (red line) and at the upper wall of the channel  $C_{f,w}$  (B8) (blue line) as a function of  $Re_g$ , calculated from the fully-coupled primary flow solution. The black line corresponds to a skin-friction coefficient in the case of a static interface (i.e. epsilon = 0). (b) Ratio between the interface velocity and the gas velocity  $u_0/u_g = -\epsilon$ .  $Re_l = 22$  (dashed lines) and  $Re_l = 44.6$  (solid lines),  $\beta = 4.9^{\circ}$ , H = 5.2 mm.

<sup>598</sup> the case of a laminar gas flow, it is given by:

$$C_{f,i}^0 = \frac{-12}{Re_q^0} \tag{B9}$$

For convenience, in the experiments  $u_g$  is always taken as positive, therefore  $u_g = -u_g^0$ and  $Re_g = -Re_g^0$  in our counter-current case.

Now, we compute  $C_{f,i}$  and  $C_{f,w}$  based on (B7) and (B8), using the liquid velocity at 601 the interface  $u_0$  (which enters  $\epsilon$ ) from the fully-coupled primary-flow solution. Figure 21a 602 displays  $C_{f,i}$  (red lines),  $C_{f,w}$  (blue lines) and  $C_{f,i}^0$  (black line) as a function of the gas 603 Reynolds number  $Re_g = -Re_g^0$  over the range  $25 < Re_g < 1500$ , for two liquid Reynolds 604 numbers considered in our experiments with H = 5.2 mm:  $Re_l = 22$  (dashed lines) and 605  $Re_l = 44.6$  (solid lines). The associated variation of  $u_0/u_q = -\epsilon$  is presented in figure 21b. 606 To specify the range of parameters where the static interface approximation based on the 607 skin-friction coefficient criteria can be considered as valid, we focus on the gas Reynolds 608 values such as the difference between  $C_{f,i}$  and  $C_{f,i}^0$  is less than 10%. From figure 21a 609 we can conclude that this criterion is met for  $Re_g^2 > 250$  ( $Re_l = 22$ ) and  $Re_g > 400$ 610  $(Re_l = 44.6)$ , which corresponds to  $u_0/u_g \leq 0.08$  in figure 21b. Figure 21a also shows 611 that  $C_{f,i} \approx C_{f,w}$  over a range of  $u_0/u_q$  where the static interface assumption is no longer 612 valid. For example the discrepency between  $C_{f,i}$  and  $C_{f,w}$  is around 10% in figure 21a for 613  $(Re_l, Re_q) = (22, 80)$  and (44.6, 125), corresponding to  $u_0/u_q \approx 0.3$  in figure 21b. This 614 behaviour can be explained by the change in the the gas velocity distribution with the 615 gas flow rate. Indeed, the location of the maximum gas velocity is shifted towards the 616 top wall when  $u_0/u_q$  is increased by decreasing  $Re_q$ , as shown in figure 22. Consequently, 617 the tangential shear stress is reduced at the liquid/gas interface while it increases at the 618 top wall and the dissymetry arising from the moving interface is partially attenuated. 619 To go further in testing the validity of this frozen-interface approximation, we will 620

compare the film thickness obtained from the fully-coupled primary flow solution with Cambridge University Press



Figure 22: Gas velocity profiles calculated from the fully-coupled primary flow solution for  $Re_l = 22$ :  $u(Y)/u_{max}$  whith u(Y) according to (B 1) and  $u_{max} = min(u(Y)) < 0$ . Dash-dot line,  $u_0/u_g = 1$  ( $Re_g = 24.3$ ); dashed line,  $u_0/u_g = 0.3$  ( $Re_g = 80$ ); solid line,  $u_0/u_g = 0.16$  ( $Re_g = 145$ ); thick solid line,  $u_0 = 0$  (Poiseuille flow). The location of  $u_{max}$ in the channel,  $Y_{max} = Y(u_{max})$ , is plotted in the inset as a function of  $Re_g$  ( $Y_{max} = 0.5$ for a Poiseuille flow). Open circles mark  $Y_{max}$  for the profiles represented in the figure (except the Poiseuille flow).  $\beta = 4.9^{\circ}$ , H = 5.2 mm.

- the thickness obtained by assuming an inter-phase skin friction coefficient according to (B 9) using a simple model described below.
- <sup>624</sup> We start by writing the velocity profile in the liquid film:

$$u_{l}(y) = \frac{K_{l}}{\mu_{l}} \left( h_{flat}y - \frac{y^{2}}{2} \right) - \frac{\tau_{i}}{\mu_{l}}y$$
(B 10)

 $K_l$  reads:

$$K_l = \left( (\rho_l - \rho_g) g \sin \beta - \frac{\tau_i + \tau_w}{H - h_{flat}} \right), \tag{B11}$$

where  $\tau_i$  and  $\tau_w$  are given by (B5) and (B6), respectively. Therefore,  $\tau_i + \tau_w = 2\tau_i^0 = \rho_g u_g^{0^2} C_{f,i}^0 = \rho_g u_g^2 C_{f,i}^0$ .

 $_{628}$  Integrating (B 10) across the liquid layer gives the liquid flow rate:

$$Q_{l} = \frac{K_{l}}{3\mu_{l}}h_{flat}^{3} - \frac{\tau_{i}}{2\mu_{l}}h_{flat}^{2}$$
(B12)

<sup>629</sup> By expressing the flowrate  $Q_l = (\rho_l g \sin \beta)(3\mu_l)^{-1}h_N^3$  in terms of the Nusselt thickness <sup>630</sup>  $h_N$ , i.e. the thickness of an equivalent fully-developed flat-surface film falling in a passive <sup>631</sup> atmosphere, we obtain the following equation for the flat-surface film thickness sheared <sup>632</sup> by a counter-current gas flow:

$$\left(1 - \frac{\rho_g}{\rho_l} - \underbrace{Fr_{g,l}^2 C_{f,i}^0 \left(\frac{H}{h_N} - \tilde{h}_{flat}\right)^{-1}}_{\Lambda_p}\right) \tilde{h}_{flat}^3 - \underbrace{\frac{3}{4} Fr_{g,l}^2 C_{f,i}^0 (1 - \epsilon/6) \tilde{h}_{flat}^2}_{\Lambda_i} - 1 = 0, \quad (B\,13)$$

where  $\tilde{h}_{flat} = h_{flat}/h_N$ . The contribution of pressure gradient in the gas phase is included in  $\Lambda_p$  and the contribution of the interfacial shear-stress is included in  $\Lambda_i$ . The inter-phase Cambridge University Press



Figure 23: Thickness of a flat-surface film (normalized by the Nusselt thickness  $h_N$ ) subject to a counter-current laminar gas flow, obtained from the flat-film model (triangles) (according to (B 13) with  $\epsilon = 0$ ) compared with the numerical solution of the fully-coupled two-phase primary flow (solid lines). The normalized mean film thickness  $\tilde{h}_{exp} = h_m/h_N$  measured in the exeriments is also reported (circles).  $Re_l = 22$  (white symbols) and  $Re_l = 44.6$  (grey symbols),  $\beta = 4.9^\circ$ , H = 5.2 mm.

skin friction coefficient  $C_{f,i}^0$  is given by (B9) in the laminar case and  $Fr_{g,l}$  is given by (3.4).

The contribution of the moving interface is represented by  $\epsilon = u_0/u_g^0$ , the ratio between the interface velocity and the gas velocity ( $\epsilon < 0$  in our counter-current case). By assuming  $\epsilon = 0$ , i.e. the liquid/gas interface is static, the liquid and gas phases are coupled only via the interface position  $h_{flat}$ .

In figure 23, we compare the solution given by the model from solving (B13) assuming 641  $\epsilon = 0$  (symbols) with the film thickness obtained from solving the fully-coupled two-phase 642 primary flow (solid lines), for  $Re_l = 22$  and  $Re_l = 44.6$ , and for gas Reynlods number 643 values according to the experiments. The results obtained from these two approaches are 644 in excellent agreement over the entire range of experimental conditions, even for small 645 gas Reynolds numbers for which  $|\epsilon|$  is not so small. Indeed, if we go back for example to 646 the aforementioned experiment conducted with  $Re_l = 22$  and  $Re_q = 145$ ,  $\epsilon = -0.3$  (see 647 figure 21b) which implies that the effect of the interfacial shear stress  $(A_i \text{ in } (B13))$  is 648 underestimated by only 0.3/6 = 5% by assuming an immobile liquid/gas interface. From 649 this analysis, we can conclude that this approximation is admissible in all the experiments 650 presented in the current paper. 651

Finally, the normalized mean film thickness  $\tilde{h}_{exp} = h_m/h_N$  measured in the experiments is also reported in figure 23, for  $Re_l = 22$  and  $Re_l = 44.6$ . We observe that  $\tilde{h}_{exp} < \tilde{h}_{flat}$  reflecting the effective film thinning due to the presence of interfacial waves in experiments. For  $Re_l = 22$ ,  $\tilde{h}_{exp}$  increases in the same amount as  $\tilde{h}_{flat}$  when the gas flow is increased, whereas  $\tilde{h}_{exp}$  increases faster than  $\tilde{h}_{flat}$  for  $Re_l = 44.6$ . This behaviour is discussed in §3.3.

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