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Graphical Abstract

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Highlights

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- We introduced small density variations within a gravity-driven falling film via a barotropic equation of state and investigated how this affects the flow temporal linear stability.
- In the final depth–averaged evolution equations compressibility is reflected in two additional second–order terms.
- A weak compressibility boosts the onset of interfacial instability, especially in low-inertial regimes and along modest slopes.
- We detected an extra flow rate of hydrostatic origin due to compressibility and complemented our analysis with the wave-hierarchy theory.

Compressibility-induced destabilisation of falling liquid films: an integral approach

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Abstract

*

We revisit the classical 2D problem of a gravity-driven liquid layer down an inclined plate (Kapitza, Zh. Eksp. Teor. Fiz., vol. 18 (1), 1948, pp. 3–28), relaxing the usual assumption of homogeneous fluid. We set out to answer three major issues. When the fluid density is allowed to vary, (i) how does this feature structurally affect the formulation of a low-dimensional depth-averaged model? (ii) To what extent and (iii) by virtue of which physical mechanism does compressibility participate in the long-wave interfacial instability? To provide the relevant answers, (i) we first make use of a second-order asymptotic expansion in the shallowness parameter to develop a weakly-compressible boundary-layer system: starting from a two-equation momentum-integrated model, an additional barotropic equation of state is required for closure purposes. In this respect, (ii) a temporal linear stability analysis is performed: it is revealed that compressibility plays a destabilising role whose magnitude is enhanced at intermediately tilted configurations,

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and the more the Reynolds number approaches the critical threshold in the incompressible limit. (iii) We finally interpret the ensuing dispersion relation under the convenient framework of two-wave hierarchy, initiated by Whitham (*Linear and Nonlinear Waves*, Wiley—Interscience, 1974): the primary instability gets promoted by the flow compressibility as it contributes to deceleration of dynamic waves most significantly in the low-inertia regime. Indeed, compressibility locally acts as a further boost to the inertia-based mechanism of Kapitza instability by amplifying flow-rate variations within the liquid film.

Keywords: falling liquid films, interfacial instability, low–dimensional models

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1 1. Introduction

Liquid layers sliding down an incline are routinely encountered in nature and represent a cross-disciplinary and highly topical object of study. Starting with the pioneer studies of Kapitza father-son team (Kapitza, 1948; Kapitza and Kapitza, 1949), visual observations have revealed the development of a wide variety of intriguing patterns along the fluid interface, from simple sinusoidal perturbations to strongly non-periodic three-dimensional solitons (Chang, 1994; Alekseenko et al., 1994).

⁹ This issue is also of practical relevance in many biological and indus-¹⁰ trial processes (Craster and Matar, 2009). Cooling towers, distillation units, ¹¹ multi-phase heat exchangers, fluid-phase separators, jet-film devices, power

station condenser tubes, absorption columns, electrolytic cells, scrubbers for 12 pollution abatement, injection systems for enhanced oil recovery, etc. all ben-13 efit from the strong effect of superficial waves on the underlying processes of 14 heat and mass transfer. For instance, according to data reported by Frisk 15 and Davis (1972), the heat transfer intensification by waves forming along 16 a water film in presence of a co-current air flow attains more than 100%17 with respect to the flat-film scenario. On the other hand, for some appli-18 cations such as coating operations, a uniform flow thickness is required and 19 instabilities should be prevented (Weinstein and Ruschak, 2004). 20

So far, the majority of works on wavy falling films is performed assuming 21 flow incompressibility, *i.e.* the density of a fluid element remains uniform and 22 constant. However, in many fields of science and engineering, this assumption 23 may constitute an oversimplification of the physical problem, possibly leading 24 to inaccurate conclusions. One example is the transport of carbon dioxide in 25 pipelines from the energy plants to the injection sites for CCUS applications. 26 When supercritical carbon dioxide is employed as solvent or carrier, in fact, 27 density turns out to be an essential parameter in determining the performance 28 of such a technological process. In this context, avoiding the unbounded 29 growth of superficial disturbances, which can result in the emergence of slugs 30 or even structural damages (Lu et al., 2020), is necessary for the safety of 31 the transport infrastructure. 32

Although the convective long-wave interfacial mode known as Kapitza instability (Kapitza, 1948) constitutes a long-standing knowledge in case of a tilted or vertical plate, a deep understanding of how density variations enter this paradigm is still lacking in the literature. Thus, the link between the compressibility and the occurrence of the Kapitza instability needs to be clarified and has prompted us to address the following question: which are the main implications of density inhomogeneities on the onset of Kapitza instability in inclined falling liquid films?

Recently, the relevance of wavy film flows has led to a number of at-41 tempts to achieve models for the evolution of the film thickness and its mean 42 velocity (or flow rate) and to find a compromise between the accuracy and 43 the computational effort. In most cases, the flow description is not too far 44 from its wavy-less configuration, designed as Nusselt state (Nusselt, 1916). 45 This makes the long-wave asymptotic expansion a feasible approach, which 46 forms the cornerstone of many models derived after the influential paper 47 of Benney (1966), who developed an evolution equation for the film height 48 by introducing a small-scale parameter. However, Benney's equation suffers 49 of finite-time blow-up of the time-dependent solution. This problem was 50 addressed by Shkadov (1967) assuming that streamwise variations are small 51 as compared with those developing in the crosswise direction, and through 52 pressure removal boundary layer equations (BLEs) ensue. These are then av-53 eraged over the fluid depth to capture the main physical features of the flow 54 by means of integral variables. Nonetheless, Shkadov's system of equations 55 fails in capturing the correct long-wave instability threshold. This issues 56 was addressed by Ruyer-Quil and Manneville (1998, 2000), who introduced 57 the weighted residual integral boundary-layer model (WRIBL) and assured 58 model consistency by formulating a closure law for the wall shear stress. 59

⁶⁰ In this paper, our purpose is to deal with a weakly inhomogeneous medium ⁶¹ to investigate whether and how the action of a low compressibility enhances

or mitigates the onset of long-wave interfacial instability. We therefore start 62 by applying Benney's modelling strategy to a barotropic flow in a weakly-63 compressible scenario. We globally characterise it in terms of compressibility 64 by means of the Mach number and formulate a coupled system of two evo-65 lution equations by making use of the depth-wise averaging method based 66 on the classical long-wave expansion as in Lavalle et al. (2015, 2017), *i.e.* by 67 integration of the momentum balance (momentum integral method or MIM). 68 The resulting model is comprehensive of second-order viscous diffusion ef-69 fects, which allow us to achieve good agreement in the incompressible limit in 70 terms of the cut-off wavenumber with the Orr-Sommerfeld solution (Kalli-71 adasis et al., 2013). 72

Our study focuses on the influence of compressibility on the development 73 of linear surface waves on a liquid film falling down an inclined wall under 74 a shear-free atmosphere (figure 1). For this, we consider the primary insta-75 bility of the weakly-compressible uniform base flow and solve the temporal 76 stability problem based on the long-wave model equations. By doing this, 77 we answer two additional questions: (i) how does compressibility affect the 78 formulation of depth-integrated equations? (ii) Which physical mechanism 79 does the compressibility trigger in the long-wave interfacial instability? 80

Behind the usual incompressible way of modelling falling liquid layers, it is assumed that the speed of sound, when compared to the convective velocity scale, is sufficiently high to be considered infinite. Therefore, (i) a unique velocity scale appears in the problem and (ii) the fluid density is uniform and constant. On the contrary, when a finite speed of sound is taken into account, the scenario significantly changes. (i) Convective transport and pressure wave propagation occur at disproportional rates, thereby requiring a proper incorporation of an additional dimensionless group in the problem. In this regard, the Sarrau–Mach number can be used to express the magnitude of the fluid speed as compared to the sound speed within the same medium. In addition, (ii) the fact that density field is allowed to vary in space and time demands the introduction of an Equation of State (EoS) among the governing equations.

⁹⁴ Unfortunately, very little attention, to the best of our knowledge, has ⁹⁵ been up to now devoted to the assessment of the impact of compressibility ⁹⁶ on the film long-wave instability. In fact, only a few works tried to tackle ⁹⁷ this issue.

An extension of long-wave models to weakly-compressible barotropic 98 flows is first proposed by Richard (2021). Compressibility-related effects 99 are captured by means of a dedicated Mach number, defined by means of 100 the incompressible surface waves celerity, and, in the limit where the sound 101 speed goes to infinity, the incompressible version of the model is correctly 102 recovered. However, the system of four Favre–averaged equations derived 103 by Richard (2021) is intended for simulation of coastal waves and the author 104 frames his argumentation around the ultimate goal of correctly predicting 105 tsunamis' arrival time. Although the long-wave assumption still holds for a 106 tidal wave in a deep ocean, the relevant spatial scales involved widely differs 107 from the ones we are interested in. Moreover, in Richard (2021), the wave 108 propagation is studied within an inviscid medium, neglecting viscous effects. 109 Such friction terms have also been neglected in the work of Bresch et al. 110 (2020), who developed an augmented skew-symmetric system of depth-111

integral equations with capillarity. Their work aims at ensuring the stability
of numerical schemes in presence of large gradients of fluid height or fluid
density.

In the context of flows within a narrow interstice formed between two 115 surfaces, Almqvist et al. (2019) consider a class of iso-viscous fluids obeying 116 a constitutive power-law density-pressure relationship. Lubrication theory, 117 scaling and asymptotic analysis are extensively used in that work to show 118 that the degree of compressibility for a thin film flow determines whether 119 the terms governing inertia may or may not be neglected. Notwithstanding 120 the rigorousness of their procedure, the study of a capillary flow is not at all 121 comparable to a free-surface gravity-driven liquid film. 122

We conclude by recalling the fundamental results regarding the linear 123 stability problem of a falling liquid film in a passive gas or shear-free at-124 mosphere, which is the configuration studied in this work. Benjamin (1957) 125 and Yih (1963) solved the temporal linear stability problem formulated by Orr 126 (1907) and Sommerfeld (1908) in the context of a gravity-driven incompress-127 ible film flow. In particular, they detected the long-wave instability threshold 128 in terms of a critical Reynolds number $Re_{cr} = 5/6 \cot \beta$, where β identifies 129 the inclination angle, being the Reynolds number based on the mean film 130 flow velocity. Their analysis reveals that inertia destabilizes long waves and 131 the related mechanism has been explained either through the shift between 132 the vorticity perturbation and the perturbed interface (Kelly et al., 1989; 133 Kalliadasis et al., 2013; Smith, 1990), or via the time lag at which flow rate 134 adapts to its inertialess target value (Dietze, 2016). With the aim to inves-135 tigate the role of compressibility on the long-wave instability, we follow the 136

latter approach by considering the effect of compressibility on the inertialess
flow rate, similarly to Lavalle et al. (2019), who applied the same methodology to explain the confinement-induced stabilisation of falling liquid films.
Finally, we complement this analysis by studying the role of compressibility
via the two-wave competition theory formulated by Whitham (Whitham,
1974), and employed by Samanta et al. (2011) and Samanta (2014) for liquid
films down a slippery inclined plane or for shear-imposed falling films.

Accordingly, the structure of our paper is as follows. Section \S 2 contains 144 the basic governing equations, the boundary conditions of the problem, and 145 the definition of the principal dimensionless groups, together with the long-146 wave scaling. Then, the low-dimensional modelling is discussed in § 3, from 147 the specification of the EoS to the derivation of the weakly-compressible 148 integral model. This will serve in the second part of the manuscript, devoted 149 to the linear temporal stability eigen-problem, whose compatibility yields the 150 dispersion relation outlined in § 4. To follow, § 5 presents our main findings 151 in terms of critical threshold and parametric study of celerity branches. The 152 mechanism governing the influence of compressibility on the film stability is 153 finally elucidated in \S 6. Concluding remarks are summarised in \S 7, while 154 some details of the analysis that were not included in the main body of the 155 text are given in the appendix for completeness. 156

157 2. Flow configuration and theoretical formulation

Herein we consider the two-dimensional compressible flow of a gravitydriven iso-viscous liquid film, falling along a tilted wall within a shearfree atmosphere, as sketched in figure 1. The liquid film is Newtonian.



Figure 1: Schematic diagram of the 2D slightly compressible flow of a wavy gravity-driven liquid film with uniform and constant viscosity $\tilde{\mu}_0$ and surface tension $\tilde{\gamma}_0$, exhibiting a nonuniform and variable density $\tilde{\rho}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, \tilde{t})$. The coordinate system is defined by $\langle \tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \rangle$. The fluid layer, of variable thickness $\tilde{h}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{t})$, flows under the action of gravity \boldsymbol{g} along a plate having an inclination angle β with respect to the horizontal direction. \tilde{h}_N refers to Nusselt solution (Nusselt, 1916) and denotes the waveless film thickness. An interfacial constant and uniform normal pressure \tilde{p}_i is present.

 $\beta \in]0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ refers to the angle of inclination formed between the wall and the horizontal direction. The Cartesian coordinate axes \tilde{x} and \tilde{y} are placed along the streamwise and crosswise flow directions, respectively, being the origin of the spatial reference frame located at the wall; $\tilde{t} \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$ specifies the time coordinate. Assume that, with the exception of density $\tilde{\rho} \in \mathbb{R}^+$, the physical properties of the liquid, such as dynamic viscosity $\tilde{\mu}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and surface tension $\tilde{\gamma}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+$, are uniform within the physical fluid domain $\tilde{\Psi}$, defined as

$$\tilde{\Psi}(\tilde{t}) = \left\{ (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^2 \mid 0 \le \tilde{y} \le \tilde{h}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{t}) \right\},\tag{1}$$

where \tilde{h} is a dimensional function tracing the spatial and temporal evolution of the wavy film free surface.

170 2.1. Governing equations

At the continuum level, the dimensional form of the governing equations of motion enforcing the conservation of mass and momentum for the compressible flow of the Newtonian falling film reads:

$$\partial_{\tilde{t}} \tilde{\rho} + \tilde{\nabla} \cdot (\tilde{\rho} \, \tilde{\mathbf{v}}) = 0 \tag{2a}$$
$$\tilde{\rho} \left(\partial_{\tilde{t}} \, \tilde{\mathbf{v}} + \left(\tilde{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \tilde{\nabla} \right) \tilde{\mathbf{v}} \right) = -\tilde{\nabla} \tilde{p} + \tilde{\rho} \, \boldsymbol{g} + \tilde{\mu}_0 \left(\tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{\mathbf{v}} + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \vartheta \right) \tilde{\nabla} (\tilde{\nabla} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}) \right), \tag{2b}$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{v}} = (\tilde{u}, \tilde{v})$ and \tilde{p} denote, respectively, the film velocity vector and 174 the thermodynamic pressure, whereas $g = (g \sin \beta, -g \cos \beta)$ is the grav-175 itational acceleration. The parameter labelled by $\vartheta = \tilde{\zeta}_0/\tilde{\mu}_0$ expresses the 176 ratio between the expansion viscosity $\tilde{\zeta}_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and the dynamic viscosity 177 $\tilde{\mu}_0$. Although ϑ is conventionally set to zero invoking Stokes' hypothesis 178 $(\tilde{\zeta}_0 \equiv 0)$ (Batchelor, 2000), we will not assume any particular value in or-179 der to preserve the widest possible generality throughout the paper. As will 180 be demonstrated in \S 3.2, this choice has no consequences in the ultimate 181 formulation of the reduced model (25). 182

The flow system is subject to the following boundary conditions. At the rigid bottom $\tilde{y} = 0$, the no-slip and no-penetration conditions lead to

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}|_0 = \mathbf{0}.\tag{3}$$

At the free surface $\tilde{y} = \tilde{h}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{t})$, the balance of normal and tangential stress components for the shear-free film yields the dynamic coupling conditions

$$\left[\tilde{\mathbf{n}}^T \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{T}}^{(\tilde{\mathbf{n}})}\right] = \tilde{\gamma}_0 \, \tilde{\nabla} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{n}} \tag{4a}$$

$$\left[\tilde{\mathbf{t}}^T \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{T}}^{(\tilde{\mathbf{n}})}\right] = 0, \tag{4b}$$

¹⁸⁷ where $\tilde{\gamma}_0$ is the surface tension and $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}^{(\tilde{\mathbf{n}})}$ is the fluid stress vector at the ¹⁸⁸ interface, whose orientation is determined by

$$\tilde{\mathbf{n}} = \left\{ -\partial_{\tilde{x}}\tilde{h}, 1 \right\}^{T} / \sqrt{1 + \left(\partial_{\tilde{x}}\tilde{h}\right)^{2}}$$
(5a)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{t}} = \left\{ 1, \, \partial_{\tilde{x}} \tilde{h} \right\}^T / \sqrt{1 + \left(\partial_{\tilde{x}} \tilde{h} \right)^2} \tag{5b}$$

as normal and tangential unit column vector, respectively. Square brackets are used in (4) to designate the jump in any quantity of interest across the interface. Lastly, being the substantial derivative symbolised by $D(\star)/D\tilde{t} = \partial_{\tilde{t}}(\star) + \tilde{\mathbf{v}} \cdot (\tilde{\nabla} \star)$, an additional kinematic condition for the gasliquid interface is introduced as follows

$$\frac{D}{D\,\tilde{t}}\left(\tilde{y}-\tilde{h}\left(\tilde{x},\,\tilde{t}\right)\right)=0.$$
(6)

¹⁹⁴ 2.2. Scaling and dimensionless formulation

To make the problem dimensionless, we choose the value of the density at 195 the gas-fluid interface as the reference scale for density $\tilde{\rho}_0$ in line with Richard 196 (2021). This scale is convenient since at $\tilde{y} = \tilde{h}$ the hydrostatic contribution 197 on pressure and density fields is depth-independent. The Nusselt film thick-198 ness \tilde{h}_N (Nusselt, 1916) is chosen as the relevant length scale (figure 1), 199 while we adopt the longitudinal characteristic speed as scale for the velocity 200 $\tilde{U}_N = \tilde{q}_N/\tilde{h}_N = \tilde{\rho}_0 g \sin\beta \tilde{h}_N^2/3 \tilde{\mu}_0$, where \tilde{q}_N is the flow rate per unit of 201 channel length: 202

$$\tilde{q}_N = \int_0^{h_N} \tilde{u}_N(\tilde{y}) \, d\tilde{y},\tag{7}$$

²⁰³ being $\tilde{u}_N(\tilde{y})$ the well-known Nusselt parabolic velocity profile (Nusselt, 1916). ²⁰⁴ The average velocity \tilde{U}_N is indeed defined from the balance of the viscous ²⁰⁵ friction force, $\propto \tilde{\mu}_0 \tilde{U}_N / \tilde{h}_N^2$, and the streamwise gravity force, $\propto \tilde{\rho}_0 g \sin \beta$. The time and pressure scales are chosen as \tilde{h}_N/\tilde{U}_N and $\tilde{\rho}_0 \tilde{U}_N^2$, respectively (Lavalle et al., 2015).

As a customary practice in the study of the wavy film dynamics, we will adopt a shallow water approximation. Denoting by $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}$ a typical lengthwise distance characterizing superficial corrugations, we define the following film aspect ratio

$$\varepsilon = \frac{h_N}{\tilde{\mathcal{L}}} \ll 1,\tag{8}$$

as the scale parameter of the problem. Specifically, $\varepsilon \sim \partial_{x,t}(\star)$ accounts for the slowly-varying downstream modulations of the free surface with respect to space and time.

Thus, the governing equations (2) are rewritten in dimensionless terms:

$$\partial_t \rho + \partial_x \left(\rho u \right) + \partial_y \left(\rho v \right) = 0 \tag{9a}$$

$$\rho \varepsilon \left(\partial_t u + u \partial_x u + v \partial_y u\right) = -\varepsilon \partial_x p + \frac{\rho}{Fr} \sin \beta + \tag{9b}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{Re} \left[\partial_{yy} u + \varepsilon^{2} \partial_{xx} u + \varepsilon^{2} \left(\frac{1}{3} + \vartheta \right) \partial_{x} \left(\partial_{x} u + \partial_{y} v \right) \right]$$

$$\rho \varepsilon^{2} \left(\partial_{t} v + u \partial_{x} v + v \partial_{y} v \right) = -\partial_{y} p - \frac{\rho}{Fr} \cos \beta + \qquad (9c)$$

$$+ \frac{\varepsilon}{Re} \left[\varepsilon^{2} \partial_{xx} v + \partial_{yy} v + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \vartheta \right) \partial_{y} \left(\partial_{x} u + \partial_{y} v \right) \right],$$

²¹⁶ being $Re = \tilde{\rho}_0 \tilde{U}_N \tilde{h}_N / \tilde{\mu}_0$ and $Fr = \tilde{U}_N^2 / g \tilde{h}_N$ the Reynolds number and the ²¹⁷ Froude number, respectively, with $(x, y, t) \in \mathbb{R} \times [0, h] \times [0, +\infty[$.

The system (9) is coupled with the following set of dimensionless bound-

²¹⁹ ary conditions:

$$u|_0 = v|_0 = 0 \tag{10a}$$

$$Re\left(1+\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}^{2}h\right)\left(p|_{h}-p_{i}\right)+\varepsilon\left(\frac{2}{3}-\vartheta\right)\left(1+\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}^{2}h\right)\left(\partial_{x}u|_{h}+\partial_{y}v|_{h}\right)+$$
(10b)

$$-2\varepsilon\left(\partial_{y}v|_{h}+\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}^{2}h\,\partial_{x}u|_{h}\right)+2\varepsilon\partial_{x}h\left(\partial_{y}u|_{h}+\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}v|_{h}\right)=-\frac{Re}{We}\frac{\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{xx}h}{\sqrt{1+\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}^{2}h}}$$
$$2\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}h\left(\partial_{y}v|_{h}-\partial_{x}u|_{h}\right)+\left(1-\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}^{2}h\right)\left(\partial_{y}u|_{h}+\varepsilon^{2}\partial_{x}v|_{h}\right)=0$$
(10c)

$$\partial_t h + u|_h \partial_x h = v|_h,$$
 (10d)

where p_i is the dimensionless atmospheric pressure exerted at the film interface and $We = \tilde{\rho}_0 \tilde{h}_N \tilde{U}_N^2 / \tilde{\gamma}_0$ is the Weber number.

222 3. Low–dimensional modelling

Here, the free–surface flow problem is tackled adopting an asymptotic 223 approximation of the continuity and the Navier-Stokes equations based on 224 the film aspect ratio $\varepsilon \ll 1$ introduced in § 2.2. A great simplification can 225 be accomplished by means of a boundary layer approach together with a 226 depth-averaging technique. Such a procedure leads to the determination of 227 a reduced coupled system of two equations, having the film thickness h(x,t)228 and the flow rate per unit of channel width q(x,t) as local dimensionless 229 unknowns. We propose a two-equation momentum-integral model (MIM) 230 that is accurate up to and including order $O(\varepsilon^2)$ both in inertial and in 231 viscous diffusion terms. Based on this approximation, the problem expressed 232 by (9, 10) will be consistently simplified accounting for the higher magnitude 233 of surface tension, $We = O(\varepsilon^2)$, compared to inertia-related phenomena, 234 $Re \sim Fr = O(1).$ 235

Following the classical Polhausen-von Kármán momentum-integral anal-236 ysis, the y-momentum equation (9c) and related boundary condition (10b) 237 serve to eliminate the streamwise pressure gradient term $\partial_x p$ in the x-momentum 238 equation (9b). Being this term of $O(\varepsilon)$, it is sufficient to retain (9c) and (10b) 239 up to $O(\varepsilon)$. Differently from the incompressible scenario, in this work, a sup-240 plementary constitutive relation is required to describe completely the fluid 241 system due to the presence of a density term $\rho = \tilde{\rho}/\tilde{\rho}_0 = O(1)$ as an addi-242 tional unknown (Richard, 2021). 243

244 3.1. Barotropic equation of state

Since it is difficult to encounter large variations in density in gravity– driven falling films, we make use of the following linearised Equation of State (EoS)

$$\tilde{\rho}\left(\tilde{p},\tilde{T},\tilde{S}\right) = \tilde{\rho}|_{\tilde{h}} + \left(\frac{\partial\tilde{\rho}}{\partial\tilde{p}}\right)_{\tilde{T},\tilde{S}} (\tilde{p}-\tilde{p}|_{\tilde{h}}) + \left(\frac{\partial\tilde{\rho}}{\partial\tilde{T}}\right)_{\tilde{p},\tilde{S}} \left(\tilde{T}-\tilde{T}|_{\tilde{h}}\right) + \left(\frac{\partial\tilde{\rho}}{\partial\tilde{S}}\right)_{\tilde{p},\tilde{T}} \left(\tilde{S}-\tilde{S}|_{\tilde{h}}\right),$$
(11)

in the form of a first-order truncated Taylor series expansion as in Batchelor (2000); Colinet et al. (2001). The validity of (11) is intended to be restricted to a neighborhood of the reference state, *i.e.* $\tilde{\rho} - \tilde{\rho}|_{\tilde{h}} \ll 1$. Specifically, besides pressure \tilde{p} , the parameters that characterize such a functional dependence are the fluid temperature \tilde{T} and its entropy \tilde{S} for a fixed vector of amounts of constituents.

At the present stage, density-affecting thermal effects – which would have required an energy equation coupling – will be ignored, so as to confine our current inquiry to a two-equation MIM pattern. Moreover, although the flow is not itself homentropic, the propagation of small-amplitude long-wave perturbations is shown to be scarcely affected by acoustic attenuation and
dispersion phenomena (Van Dael, 1968; Kinsler et al., 2000). We postpone a
more rigorous proof of this statement to § 6.1, where we deal with the notion
of wave hierarchy.

Therefore, the EoS (11) is reduced to a *barotropic* formulation where density variations with pressure support the propagation of sound waves:

$$\tilde{\rho}\left(\tilde{p}\right) = \tilde{\rho}_0 + \left(\frac{\partial\tilde{\rho}}{\partial\tilde{p}}\right)_{\tilde{S}} \left(\tilde{p} - \tilde{p}|_{\tilde{h}}\right).$$
(12)

Notably, one can refer to the thermodynamic definition of isentropic speed
of sound (Shapiro, 1953)

$$\tilde{a}_0 = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial \tilde{p}}{\partial \tilde{\rho}}\right)_{\tilde{S}}},\tag{13}$$

whose magnitude \tilde{a}_0 is supposed to be uniform and constant within $\tilde{\Psi}$, in order to achieve the dimensionless version of (11), which ultimately reads

$$\rho(p) = 1 + Ma^2 (p - p|_h).$$
(14)

²⁶⁸ In (14) an overall Sarrau–Mach number

$$Ma = \frac{\tilde{U}_N}{\tilde{a}_0} \in \mathbb{R}^+,\tag{15}$$

expressing the magnitude of inertial forces with respect to elastic ones, has been introduced as dimensionless group to capture the influence of compressibility on the film flow. As it can be inferred from (14), the classical incompressible limit is recovered as a limiting case when the acoustic propagation is modelled as an instantaneous phenomenon, *i.e.* $\tilde{a}_0 \rightarrow +\infty \iff Ma \rightarrow 0^+$.

274 3.1.1. Pressure distribution

Replacement of (14) into the $O(\varepsilon)$ estimate of (9c) leads to the following first—order linear non–homogeneous Ordinary Differential Equation (ODE) with respect to the crosswise coordinate y for the film pressure p(x, y, t):

$$\partial_y p + \frac{\cos\beta}{Fr} Ma^2 p = \frac{\cos\beta}{Fr} \left(Ma^2 \left. p \right|_h - 1 \right) + \frac{\varepsilon}{Re} \left. \partial_y \mathcal{W} + O(\varepsilon^2), \right.$$
(16)

in which the function $\mathcal{W}(u, v; \vartheta) = \partial_y v + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \vartheta\right) \left(\partial_x u + \partial_y v\right)$ implicitly de-278 pends on y through the dimensionless velocity field. The solution of (16), 279 in which the dimensionless interfacial pressure $\left.p\right|_{h}$ has been evaluated using 280 the normal stress boundary condition (10b), is determined as summation of 281 the particular solution of (16) and the solution of the corresponding homoge-282 neous ODE. The latter is obtained via the method of separation of variables, 283 whereas the former through the technique of variation of parameters (some-284 times referred to as Duhamel's principle). As a result, the proper solution 285 of (16) reads: 286

$$p(x, y, t; \vartheta) = p_i + \frac{\varepsilon}{\frac{\exp\left[\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^2(h-y)\right] - 1}{Ma^2}} - \frac{\varepsilon^2}{We}\partial_{xx}h + \frac{\varepsilon}{Re}\left(W - (\partial_x u)|_h\right) + O(\varepsilon Ma^2), \qquad (17)$$

being its full-form given in Appendix A. As expected, as the Mach number approaches zero, (17) reduces to the pressure distribution obtained by Ruyer-Quil and Manneville (1998) in the context of a perfectly incompressible freesurface flow, by virtue of the exponential limit $(e^{m\star} - 1)/\star \to m$ for vanishing \star (with $m \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$), along with the incompressible continuity identity $\partial_y v = -\partial_x u$. Based on the above considerations, the barotropic EoS (14) can be recast as

$$\rho(x, y, t; \vartheta) = \underbrace{\exp\left[\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^2(h-y)\right]}_{\blacklozenge} + O(\underbrace{\varepsilon Ma^2}_{\clubsuit}).$$
(18)

295 3.1.2. Weak compressibility hypothesis

Although the flow compressibility is taken into account in this model, thin descending liquid films usually show a weakly compressible behaviour and, therefore, the expression (18) can be simplified. To do so, the magnitude of the Mach number can be estimated with respect to ε and, taking inspiration from Richard (2021), we can write

$$Ma = M \varepsilon^{\alpha},\tag{19}$$

where α controls the compressibility behaviour and $M = O(1) \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$. As a consequence, the accuracy of the model is retained only if $\alpha \ge 1$ since the residual term \clubsuit in (18) is of $O(2\alpha + 1)$. In our model, the Mach number enters into the governing equations only through the barotropic EoS (14) and, since $Ma^2 = O(\varepsilon^{2\alpha})$, the different orders in terms of integer power of the Mach number can be classified as $\alpha = \{1, 3/2, 2, 5/2, \ldots\}$.

An estimation of the order of magnitude of the exponential term \blacklozenge in (17, 18) within the low-*Ma* limit requires one to take the Maclaurin series expansion $e^{\star} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\star^n/n!)$, that, together with the preliminary guess about the order of magnitude of Fr = O(1), yields to:

$$\underbrace{\exp\left[\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^{2}\left(h-y\right)\right]}_{\bullet} \approx 1 + \underbrace{\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^{2}\left(h-y\right)}_{\bullet_{1}} + \frac{1}{2}\underbrace{\left[\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^{2}\left(h-y\right)\right]^{2}}_{\bullet_{2}},$$
(20)

implying that $\oint_1 = O(\varepsilon^{2\alpha})$ and $\oint_2 = O(\varepsilon^{4\alpha})$. Depending on the value of α , a twofold level of compressibility can be consequently addressed in view of the prescribed $O(\varepsilon^2)$ accuracy criterion:

$$\rho(x, y, t; \vartheta) = \begin{cases}
1 + O(\varepsilon^3), & \alpha \ge \frac{3}{2} \\
1 + \frac{\cos\beta}{Fr} Ma^2 (h - y) + O(\varepsilon^3), & \alpha = 1.
\end{cases}$$
(21)

Thus, when $\alpha \geq 3/2$ the analysis is formally identical to the incompressible scenario, since a relation of asymptotic equivalence holds between $\tilde{\rho}(x, y, t)$ and $\tilde{\rho}_0$. In other words, the relation (19) provides a rule–of–thumb criterion for the film flow to be considered as weakly–compressible in asymptotic terms. For example, if we assume $\varepsilon = 0.01$ as long–wave parameter (jointly with a unitary–valued M), we find the threshold for incompressibility as $Ma \leq 0.001$.

321 3.2. Boundary layer equations

In this this paper we focus on the weakly-compressible regime corresponding to $\alpha = 1$. In this scenario, the derivative of the pressure distribution (17) is computed using the expression (21) with $\alpha = 1$, leading to

$$\partial_x p\left(x, y, t; \vartheta\right) = \frac{\cos\beta}{Fr} \partial_x h - \frac{\varepsilon^2}{We} \partial_{xxx} h + \frac{\varepsilon}{Re} \left[\partial_{xy} v + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \vartheta\right) \partial_x \left(\partial_x u + \partial_y v\right) - \partial_x \left((\partial_x u)|_h\right) \right] + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (22)$$

As mentioned above, (22) is now substituted in lieu of $\partial_x p$ in (9b), showing that ϑ -dependent contributions mutually cancel themselves out.

Then, the replacement of ρ and $\partial_x p$ jointly permits obtaining the secondorder set of weakly compressible Boundary Layer Equations (BLEs), which 329 finally reads:

$$\partial_x u + \partial_y v + \frac{\cos\beta}{Fr} Ma^2 \left(\partial_t h + u\partial_x h - v\right) = 0$$
 (23a)

$$\varepsilon \left(\partial_t u + u \partial_x u + v \partial_y u\right) = \frac{\partial_{yy} u}{Re} + \frac{\varepsilon^3}{We} \partial_{xxx} h - \varepsilon \frac{\cos \beta}{Fr} \partial_x h +$$
(23b)
+ $\frac{\sin \beta}{Fr} \left(1 + \frac{\cos \beta}{Fr} Ma^2 (h - y)\right) + \frac{\varepsilon^2}{Re} \left[\partial_{xx} u - \partial_{xy} v + \partial_x \left((\partial_x u)|_h\right)\right].$

By resorting to Leibniz's integral rule, BLEs (23) are integrated over the depth $\int_0^h (\star) dy$ to reduce the space dimensionality of the problem. The basic idea behind this modelling strategy is the elimination of the cross-stream flow dependency (Ruyer-Quil and Manneville, 2000).

Unfortunately, the resulting BLEs fail to be entirely expressed in terms of 334 the local film thickness h(x, t) and the local flow rate $q(x, t) = \int_0^h u(y) \, dy$. 335 Thus, closure laws are needed in (23b) for the following terms: the so-336 called shape factor $\int_0^h u^2 dy$, the difference between interfacial and wall shear 337 stresses $((\partial_y u)|_h - (\partial_y u)|_0)$, and the antiderivative of other second-order terms 338 within square brackets ($\propto \varepsilon^2/Re$). Moreover, since the compressibility intro-339 duces a novel second-order contribution, related to the crosswise component 340 of velocity, viz. $\int_0^h v \, dy$, in (23a) an additional closure is required. Such 341 closures can be obtained via the explicit expression for the unknown velocity 342 field u(x, y, t), v(x, y, t). 343

344 3.2.1. Long-wave approximation

In this work, we adopt a long wave approach following the classical Benney's closure technique (Benney, 1966; Gjevik, 1970; Lin, 1974; Chang, 1986). Accordingly, each variable $\mathcal{V} = \{u, v, p, \rho\}$ appearing in the primitive problem is decomposed as a formal power-series regular perturbation expansion, ³⁴⁹ having ε as basis:

$$\mathcal{V}^{(\varepsilon)} = \mathcal{V}^{(0)} + \varepsilon \,\mathcal{V}^{(1)} + \varepsilon^2 \,\mathcal{V}^{(2)} + \dots \,. \tag{24}$$

The right-hand side of (24) is ideal for assessing the effect of a small per-350 turbation in ε about zero, provided that proper accuracy constraints are 351 met (Simmonds and Mann Jr, 1998). Specifically, mathematical convergence 352 of the infinite series (24) is not necessary (Jeffreys, 1926; Van Dyke and 353 Rosenblat, 1975). On the other hand, it is required that – once truncated – 354 $\mathcal{V}^{(\varepsilon)}$ rapidly approaches \mathcal{V} in the limit of vanishing ε . This is equivalent to 355 enforce that the approximation error $|\mathcal{V} - \mathcal{V}^{(\varepsilon)}|$ scales as the first neglected 356 term of the series (24). By assuming this residue to be $\sim \varepsilon^3$, the $O(\varepsilon^2)$ 357 truncation of the previous ansatz (24) can be then substituted in (9, 10, 14), 358 allowing the corresponding equations to be broken up into different orders 359 and sequentially solved. Specifically, the $O(\varepsilon^0, \varepsilon^1)$ restrictions of the prob-360 lem coincide with their respective incompressible versions, due to the fact 361 that Ma-related influence intervenes only at $O(\varepsilon^2)$ when $\alpha = 1$, through the 362 equality $\rho^{(2)} = M^2 \left(p^{(0)} - p^{(0)} \Big|_h \right)$ by (14). Also, the terms including the ex-363 pansion viscosity appear to be irrelevant, due to the fact that the $O(\varepsilon^0, \varepsilon^1)$ 364 velocity fields are solenoidal. Hence, a comparison between the compressible 365 second-order profiles and their incompressible analogues will be helpful to 366 understand the impact of a varying density on flow-related quantities; this 367 aspect will be discussed in \S 6.2. 368

369 3.3. Depth-averaged model

³⁷⁰ Upon substitution, we now take advantage of the expressions for the ³⁷¹ asymptotic expansions determined beforehand. These are confined to Ap³⁷² pendix B only for the sake of brevity.

In order to derive the depth-integral model, three steps need to be per-373 formed: (i) replace higher-order time derivatives of h by virtue of a consis-374 tent estimate of the kinematic boundary condition (10d), (ii) replace space 375 derivatives of q – except for the diffusive term $\partial_{xx}q$ – by the corresponding 376 consistent asymptotic expansions, and (iii) add to the r.h.s. of (23b) the 377 higher–order residue + 3 $(q^{(0)} + \varepsilon q^{(1)} + \varepsilon^2 q^{(2)} - q) / \operatorname{Re} h^2 = O(\varepsilon^3)$, so to pre-378 clude algebraic cancellation of linear source terms - see (26) - as part of the 379 model quasi-linear reformulation (Lavalle et al., 2015). After these manip-380 ulations, the following depth-averaged closed set of two evolution equations 381 is obtained: 382

$$\partial_t h + \partial_x q - \frac{\Lambda \cos\beta h^3 (\partial_x h)}{2 Fr} Ma^2 = 0$$
(25a)

$$\frac{h\left(\partial_{x}h\right)\cos\beta\varepsilon}{Fr} + \frac{3h^{4}\left(\partial_{x}h\right)\Lambda^{2}\varepsilon}{5} + \varepsilon\left(\partial_{t}q\right) = \frac{h\left(\partial_{xxx}h\right)\varepsilon^{3}}{We} +$$
(25b)
$$-\frac{4\operatorname{Re}h^{5}\left(\partial_{xxxx}h\right)\Lambda\varepsilon^{4}}{21We} - \frac{2\operatorname{Re}h^{4}\left(\partial_{x}h\right)\left(\partial_{xxx}h\right)\Lambda\varepsilon^{4}}{3We} +$$
$$+\frac{2\operatorname{Re}h^{4}\left(\partial_{xx}h\right)^{2}\Lambda\varepsilon^{4}}{5We} + \frac{4\operatorname{Re}h^{3}\left(\partial_{x}h\right)^{2}\left(\partial_{xx}h\right)\Lambda\varepsilon^{4}}{5We} +$$
$$+\frac{4\operatorname{Re}h^{5}\left(\partial_{xx}h\right)\Lambda\cos\beta\varepsilon^{2}}{21\operatorname{Fr}} + \frac{16\operatorname{Re}h^{4}\left(\partial_{x}h\right)^{2}\Lambda\cos\beta\varepsilon^{2}}{15\operatorname{Fr}} +$$
$$+\frac{3\operatorname{Ma}^{2}h^{2}\Lambda\cos\beta}{8\operatorname{Fr}\operatorname{Re}} - \frac{8\operatorname{Re}h^{8}\left(\partial_{xx}h\right)\Lambda^{3}\varepsilon^{2}}{105} - \frac{23\operatorname{Re}h^{7}\left(\partial_{x}h\right)^{2}\Lambda^{3}\varepsilon^{2}}{35} +$$
$$+\frac{h^{2}\left(\partial_{xx}h\right)\Lambda\varepsilon^{2}}{\operatorname{Re}} + \frac{3h\left(\partial_{x}h\right)^{2}\Lambda\varepsilon^{2}}{\operatorname{Re}} + \frac{2\left(\partial_{xx}q\right)\varepsilon^{2}}{\operatorname{Re}} + \frac{h\Lambda}{\operatorname{Re}} - \frac{3q}{\operatorname{Re}h^{2}},$$

where the dimensionless number Λ is defined as $Re/Fr \sin \beta$. Here, by using the definitions of \tilde{U}_N , Re and Fr, we get that $\Lambda = 3$. In other contexts, this parameter may assume different values, such as when a different characteristic speed is used instead of Nusselt integral velocity \tilde{U}_N , in case of a fluid exhibiting a non-Newtonian constitutive behaviour (Noble and Vila, 2013), or in presence of a variable or uneven interfacial pressure p_i ; it has been decided not to replace Λ by any numerical value (Richard et al., 2019) only to prevent loss of generality.

With reference to equation (25b), it is worth pointing out two additional 391 facts. (i) Higher–order and non–linear capillary terms have been explicitly 392 and fully retained, unlike what customarily developed (Ruyer-Quil and Man-393 neville, 1998; Richard et al., 2016, 2019). In fact, their contribution could be 394 equally gathered on the l.h.s. within the canonical convective term propor-395 tional to $\varepsilon \partial_x (q^2/h)$, leading to an equivalent model in terms of consistency. 396 (ii) Inertial terms have been maintained up to $O(\varepsilon^2)$, dissimilarly from the 397 well-established practice of relying on a simplified model (Ruyer-Quil and 398 Manneville, 2002). In fact, we are interested in comparing the whole second-399 order expansions with their incompressible analogues. 400

The derived shallow-water system (25) constitutes a second-order re-401 duced model describing the weakly-compressible free-surface flow of a wavy 402 gravity-driven Newtonian falling film. In the scenario where the temperature 403 field within the liquid film yields density variations, the EoS(12) should be 404 modified accordingly to take into account density-affecting thermal effects. 405 In addition, the model (25) should be coupled to an integral form of the 406 energy equation to characterise the interplay between hydrodynamics, com-407 pressibility and heat transfer. For this, reduced models for non-isothermal 408 (incompressible) falling films have been successful in solving the heat transfer 409 across the liquid film (Trevelyan et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2019; Cellier 410 and Ruyer-Quil, 2020). 411

412 4. Temporal linear stability

A temporal stability analysis relies on the existence of a steady solution about which perturbations are superimposed. Let $\mathbf{Q}(x, t) = \{h(x, t), q(x, t)\}^T$ represent the column vector containing the two unknown integral variables describing the film descent. Indeed, the weakly-compressible shallow-water equations (25) possibly admit to be recast as

$$\partial_t \mathbf{Q} + \partial_x \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{Q}) = \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{Q}), \qquad (26)$$

where \mathcal{F} is the associated flux vector whereas \mathcal{S} gathers source terms together (Noble and Vila, 2014).

420 4.1. Normal mode analysis

The linear stability problem of the low-dimensional weakly-compressible 421 model (25) is approached through normal mode decomposition, according to 422 which a harmonic infinitesimal disturbance \mathbf{Q}_p , having $\|\hat{\mathbf{Q}}\| \ll 1$ as ampli-423 tude, is added to the Nusselt base state. The latter is explained in terms 424 of the dimensionless uniform parallel solution $\mathbf{Q}_0 = \{h_0, q_0\}^T$, in which 425 $h_0 = \tilde{h}_0 / \tilde{h}_N \equiv 1$ by definition, whereas the novel expression for the com-426 pressible primary discharge q_0 will be disclosed as part of the linearisation 427 process. Accordingly, it is written 428

$$\mathbf{Q}(x,t) = \mathbf{Q}_0 + \mathbf{Q}_p(x,t) \tag{27a}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}_p(x,t) = \hat{\mathbf{Q}} \exp\left[i k \left(x - c t\right)\right], \qquad (27b)$$

where it remains understood that $k = 2\pi \tilde{h}_N / \tilde{\mathcal{L}} \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $c = c_r + i c_i \in \mathbb{C}$ are, respectively, the dimensionless real wave–number and the complex wave celerity of the propagating sine-type pulse. In particular, c_r accounts for its phase velocity, whereas $k c_i$ determines its degree of amplification or damping, depending on its sign: with reference to (27b), instability of the mean flow evidently sets in on the condition that $k c_i > 0$.

435 4.1.1. Base flow calculation

Quasi-linear conservation form (26) actually stipulates a formal relation
between differential operators (Meliga et al., 2010) in such a way that

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{Q}_0) = 0 \tag{28}$$

restores the equilibrium condition constraining the dimensionless compressible base flow rate q_0 (*Re*, β , *Ma*) to the dimensionless waveless thickness h_0 . Solving (28) we find:

$$q_0 = \frac{\Lambda h_0^3}{3} \left(1 + \underbrace{\frac{3}{8} \frac{Ma^2 \Lambda \cot \beta h_0}{Re}}_{Re} \right), \qquad (29)$$

which explicitly shows that compressibility entails a relative increase in the 441 equilibrium flow rate q_0 , according to the over-bracketed second-order contri-442 bution denoted as $\Delta q_{0, \text{rel}}^{(2)}$, with respect to its incompressible limit 443 $q_0^{Ma \to 0^+} = \Lambda h_0^3/3$. Expression (29) likewise coincides with the stationary 444 waveless solution associated to system (23) in the case of unidirectional flow. 445 Compressible effects are kept at the base flow level \mathbf{Q}_0 , on which linear distur-446 bances \mathbf{Q}_p develop, by means of a small additive contribution to the incom-447 pressible ground-state flow rate $q_0^{Ma \to 0^+}$. Such a correction $(q_0^{Ma \to 0^+} \Delta q_{0, \text{rel}}^{(2)})$ 448 appears to be of $O(\varepsilon^2)$ since, choosing $\alpha = 1$, we assumed Ma to be of order 449 $O(\varepsilon).$ 450

451 4.1.2. Model dispersion relation

⁴⁵² Dropping higher-order perturbations and plugging (27) into (25) yields ⁴⁵³ the following matrix-form differential system:

$$\partial_{t} \mathbf{Q}_{p} + \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 1 \\ a_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \partial_{x} \mathbf{Q}_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{Q}_{p} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{bmatrix} \partial_{xx} \mathbf{Q}_{p} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ s_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \partial_{xxx} \mathbf{Q}_{p} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ d_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \partial_{xxxx} \mathbf{Q}_{p},$$
(30)

454 where

$$a_{11} = -\frac{Ma^2 h_0^3 \Lambda^2 \cot \beta}{2 Re} \qquad b_{21} = \frac{3\Lambda}{Re} + \frac{3}{2} \frac{Ma^2 h_0 \Lambda^2 \cot \beta}{Re^2}$$
(31a)

$$a_{21} = \frac{3}{5}h_0^4\Lambda^2 + \frac{h_0\Lambda\cot\beta}{Re} \qquad b_{22} = -\frac{3}{Reh_0^2} \qquad c_{22} = \frac{2}{Re} \qquad s_{21} = \frac{h_0}{We} \quad (31b)$$

$$c_{21} = \frac{4}{21} h_0^5 \Lambda^2 \cot \beta - \frac{8}{105} \operatorname{Re} h_0^8 \Lambda^3 + \frac{h_0^2 \Lambda}{Re} \qquad d_{21} = -\frac{4}{21} \frac{\operatorname{Re} h_0^5 \Lambda}{We}.$$
 (31c)

Expressions (31b – 31c) do not incorporate the Mach number, thus ε has been legitimately replaced there by a unitary value (Richard et al., 2019). Such assignment is based on the fact that pertinent orders of magnitude have been already accounted for in the integral model (25).

Equation (30) accounts for the normal mode evolution (27b) under the form of a generalised algebraic eigenvalue problem for c and $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}$, having $\langle k; Re, \beta, We, Ma \rangle$ as independent set of relevant parameters. Seeking a non-trivial solution, one has to impose that the matrix associated to the linearised system is degenerate. This leads to a quadratic polynomial dispersion relation over the complex field in the phase speed c with complex k-dependent coefficients, written as

$$-kc^{2} + [a_{11}k + i(b_{22} - k^{2}c_{22})]c +$$

+ $k^{3}s_{21} + ka_{21} + i[d_{21}k^{4} + (a_{11}c_{22} - c_{21})k^{2} + (b_{21} - a_{11}b_{22})] = 0.$ (32)

466 4.2. Celerity long-wave expansion

Following Yih (1963), we consider the temporal stability problem in terms of an asymptotic expansion of the wave celerity c(k) into successive powers of the wavenumber k:

$$c = c^{(0)} + k c^{(1)} + k^2 c^{(2)} + k^3 c^{(3)} + \dots,$$
(33)

within the limit provided by the long–wave approximation $(k \ll 1)$ assumed 470 in this work. In analogy with the closure algorithm illustrated in \S 3.2.1, 471 the expansion (33) is substituted into the dispersion relation (32). Ensuring 472 that each order in k satisfies (32), we get a cascade of equations from which 473 the higher-order celerities $c^{(n)}(k)$ (n = 0, 1, 2, ...) are obtained. Although 474 evolution equations (25) are consistent up to $O(\varepsilon^2)$, we intentionally take 475 the expansion (33) for the celerity c(k) up to its successive order in terms of 476 k, that is until $O(k^3)$. In this way, we can test the accuracy of the present 477 model (25) in its incompressible limit $Ma \to 0^+$, by setting the benchmark 478 against the Orr–Sommerfeld stability problem (Orr, 1907; Sommerfeld, 1908) 479 at the corresponding order. Such a comparative approach constitutes a well-480 trodden path among the falling-film community (Ruyer-Quil and Manneville, 481 1998; Samanta et al., 2011; Samanta, 2014; Richard et al., 2016). Specifically, 482

483 we obtain:

$$c^{(0)} = 3$$
 (34a)

$$c^{(1)} = 3i\left(\frac{2}{5}Re - \frac{1}{3}\cot\beta + \Gamma_2^{(1)}Ma^2\cot\beta\right)$$
(34b)

$$c^{(2)} = 3\left(-1 + \frac{10}{21}\operatorname{Re}\,\cot\beta - \frac{4}{7}\operatorname{Re}^2 + \Gamma_2^{(2)}\operatorname{Ma}^2\,\cot\beta + \Gamma_4^{(2)}\operatorname{Ma}^4\,\cot^2\beta\right) \quad (34c)$$

$$c^{(3)} = 3i\left(-\frac{1}{9}Re\,\cot^2\beta + \frac{128}{105}Re^2\,\cot\beta + \frac{2}{9}\,\cot\beta - \frac{Re}{9We} - \frac{228}{175}Re^3 + (34d) - \frac{34}{15}Re + \Gamma_2^{(3)}Ma^2\,\cot\beta + \Gamma_4^{(3)}Ma^4\,\cot^2\beta + \Gamma_6^{(3)}Ma^6\,\cot^3\beta\right),$$

in which we use the equality $\Lambda = 3$ and the identity $h_0 \equiv 1$. Those expressions for the wave celerities have been written to highlight the effect of the compressibility. In fact, the expansions (34) are impacted by compressibility from n = 1 onwards (n = 1, 2, ...) through additive contributions that take the form $\Gamma_{2j}^{(n)} Ma^{2j} \cot^j \beta$, with $1 \leq j \leq n$. These are found to be:

$$\Gamma_2^{(1)} = \frac{3}{2} \qquad \Gamma_2^{(2)} = \frac{1}{2} \cot \beta - \frac{18}{5} Re - \frac{1}{Re} \qquad (35a)$$

$$\Gamma_4^{(2)} = -\frac{9}{4} \qquad \Gamma_2^{(3)} = \frac{19}{7} \operatorname{Re} \operatorname{cot} \beta - \frac{324}{35} \operatorname{Re}^2 - \frac{9}{2} \tag{35b}$$

$$\Gamma_4^{(3)} = \frac{3}{4} \cot\beta - \frac{243}{20} Re - \frac{3}{2Re} \qquad \Gamma_6^{(3)} = -\frac{27}{8}.$$
 (35c)

In accordance with the adopted standard of accuracy, the current model 489 is consistent with the asymptotic expansions of solutions to Orr-Sommerfeld 490 boundary-value problem, reported in Ruyer-Quil and Manneville (1998), in 491 the limit of $Ma \to 0^+$: (25) is able to correctly recover $c^{(0)}$, $c^{(1)}|_{Ma\to 0^+}$ and 492 $c^{(2)}|_{M_{a}\to 0^{+}}$, but it manifests disagreements on successive orders. For more 493 in-depth reflection on such validation the reader is referred to Appendix 494 C, being the primary focus of sections \S 4,5 upon the influence of a weak 495 compressibility on the linear stability. 496

⁴⁹⁷ 5. Results and discussion

In this section we examine the relations (34) in the light of the well-known results from Kapitza (1948) and Benjamin (1957). The $O(k^0)$ celerity (34a) immediately captures the classical phase speed of free-surface waves, which travel three times faster than the averaged flat film, regardless of its compressible behavior. Due to the nature of (14) as EoS, the compressibility terms controlled by the Mach number affect only even powers Ma^{2j} throughout $O(k^n)$ expansions (34b - 34d), for $1 \le j \le n$.

Secondly, as evidenced by the relations (34) and (31a), a vertical liquid film is not affected by the compressibility since $\cot\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0$ in (25). On the other hand, when the plate is horizontal, $\beta = 0$ and no gravity-driven drainage is possible.

509 5.1. Impact of compressibility on the wave celerity

Differently from the incompressible Navier–Stokes equations, whose temporal stability analysis is pursued through numerical solution of the Orr– Sommerfeld fourth–order differential problem in the cross–stream coordinate, in this case the dispersion relation (32) is a quadratic polynomial equation in c(k), which is easily solvable numerically.

Initially, we consider a falling liquid film whose incompressible flow is marginally stable. This case will be shown to be the most favourable to discern compressibility-related effects on the film flow stability within the investigated weakly-compressible regime. The plate is angled at $\beta = 4.6^{\circ}$. As an aside, this choice enables us to compare the wave celerity and growth rate (see Appendix C) between the results presented here within the incom-



Figure 2: Impact of compressibility on the graphical representation of solutions to the dispersion relation (32) for the second-order integral model (25), in terms of (*a*) phase speed c_r and (*b*) growth rate $k c_i$ as a function of the dimensionless wavenumber k, for different small values of the Mach number Ma, displayed in the legend. The axes are dimensionless. The data used are taken from Brevdo et al. (1999) and correspond to the following set of values: $g = 9.81 \text{ m s}^{-2}$, $\beta = 4.6^{\circ}$, $Re = 5/6 \cot \beta = 10.357$, $\tilde{\rho}_0 = 1130 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, $\tilde{\mu}_0 = 5.673 \, 10^{-3} \text{ Pa s}$, $\tilde{\gamma}_0 = 69.0 \, 10^{-3} \text{ N m}^{-1}$. Comparison with Brevdo et al. (1999) is shown in Appendix C for the incompressible scenario.

pressible limit $Ma \rightarrow 0^+$ (dark red line in figure 2) and those determined 521 by Brevdo et al. (1999) for a perfectly incompressible falling film in a passive 522 atmosphere. The effects of compressibility on the hydraulic branch solv-523 ing (32) both in its real and imaginary parts are displayed in figure 2a, b524 respectively, for sufficiently small values of the Mach number $Ma = O(\varepsilon)$. 525 Specifically, the evolution of the phase speed $c_r(k)$ bends downwards as the 526 Mach number increases. Nonetheless, the same long-wave limit $c^{(0)}$ is re-527 covered, as established by (34a). The delaying effect of compressibility on 528 the phase velocity of linear waves (Richard et al., 2019) finds confirmation in 529



Figure 3: Impact of compressibility on the neutral stability diagram displaying the dimensionless cut-off wavenumber k_c as a function of the Reynolds number Re, for different small values of the Mach number Ma, shown in the legend. Parameter values: $g = 9.81 \text{ m s}^{-2}$, $\beta = 1.5^{\circ}$. Fluid physical properties – related to a falling film consisting of a water–glycerin mixture – are taken from Liu and Gollub (1994): $\tilde{\rho}_0 = 1070 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, $\tilde{\mu}_0 = 6.72 \, 10^{-3} \text{ Pa s}$, $\tilde{\gamma}_0 = 67.0 \, 10^{-3} \text{ N m}^{-1}$. The *stable* and *unstable* domain in the (Ma, Re) plane corresponds to areas labelled, respectively, "S" and "U".

our study. The growth rate $k c_i(k)$ shown in figure 2*b* deviates upwards and towards increasing cut–off wavenumber k_c for growing *Ma*. Thus, compressibility plays a destabilising role on linear free–surface waves.

Even more distinctly, we observe this feature in figure 3, which shows the curve of marginal stability obtained for different values of the Mach number in the (Re, k_c) plane for $\beta = 1.5^{\circ}$. Above the marginal stability curve, perturbations of wavenumber k decay in time, whereas they are amplified below. Here, the unstable region systematically undergoes a non-linear enlargement up to a smaller critical Reynolds number Re_{cr} due to the compressibility.

⁵³⁹ In order to quantify this shift into the stability threshold, we can examine

the first-order expansion of the wave celerity $c^{(1)}$, which for $Ma \ll 1$ yields the following relation

$$Re_{cr} = \frac{5}{6} \left(1 - \frac{9}{2} Ma^2 \right) \cot \beta, \tag{36}$$

obtained by making Re explicit from (34b) when the neutral stability condition $k c_i (k_c) = 0 \iff c^{(1)}|_{Re_{cr}} = 0$ is imposed. In the limit of null Mach number, equation (36) reduces to the result of Benjamin (1957) and Yih (1963), *i.e.*, $Re_{cr}^{Ma \to 0^+} = 5/6 \cot \beta$. Conversely, we observe that for $Ma = O(\varepsilon) > 0$ the compressibility lowers the critical Reynolds number Re_{cr} by a factor equal to

$$\frac{Re_{cr}(Ma)}{Re_{cr}^{Ma \to 0^+}} = 1 - \frac{9}{2} Ma^2 < 1,$$
(37)

anticipating the flow primary instability. This effect tends to asymptotically vanish in highly inertial regimes, within which compressible curves visibly become rapidly convergent towards the incompressible marginal stability plot (right-most line in figure 3). This finding is consistent as both the two compressible coefficients (31a) of the eigen-problem (30) are inversely proportional to the Reynolds number or its square power. Interestingly, we remark that the ratio expressed by (37) is independent of the plate inclination β .

555 5.2. Parametric analysis

Aiming at understanding the basic effects of compressibility on the film destabilisation, we investigate how the growth rate of disturbances $k c_i$ evolves as the parameter space, namely $\langle Re, \beta, We, Ma \rangle$, is explored. This will enable us to understand the fundamental physical mechanism through which compressibility acts, which we examine more in depth in § 6.

We start by providing a variety of numerical solutions to the linear sta-561 bility problem (30) within the plane $(k, k c_i)$, for different values of the 562 Reynolds number Re and angle of inclination β . Equations (34) suggest 563 that a polynomial-type dependence is established by the novel Ma^{2j} -related 564 contributions, namely $\Gamma_{2j}^{(n)} \cot^j \beta$. Unfortunately, the coefficients $\Gamma_{2j}^{(n)}$ display 565 a fairly cumbersome functional dependence on $\cot\beta$ (as well as on Re) – 566 apart from when j = n. For this reason, notwithstanding that the compress-567 ibility has no impact on a vertical falling film, it is not possible to determine 568 a priori whether its effects varies with the inclination. Therefore, we will 569 extensively cover the full range of variability in β , starting by focusing on 570 mildly tilted configurations. 571

In figure 4 we initially consider four cases, denoted with letters (a-d), which differ from each other in terms of slope. To draw an appropriate comparison among these scenarios between each compressible curve (Ma =0.1 – dashed lines) and its incompressible counterpart (solid lines), the so– defined Reynolds critical ratio RCR

$$\mathrm{RCR} \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \frac{Re}{Re_{cr}^{Ma \to 0^+}} \tag{38}$$

is introduced as an inertia-based parameter. Four growing values of RCR are considered in each of the panels of figure 4, starting from a value which is numerically less than unity – which indicates a stable situation for a perfectly incompressible falling film flow – before moving to values of *Re* which progressively exceed the critical incompressible threshold.

As expected, the augmentation of RCR is associated with the extension of the instability region $c_i(k) > 0$. When we switch from each incompressible plot to its compressible analogue, the rightwards shift of the cut–off wavenum-



Figure 4: Effect of the Reynolds critical ratio RCR (38) (shown in the legend) on the graphical representation of the solution to the dispersion relation (32) for the derived weakly-compressible second-order model (25), in terms of the dimensionless imaginary growth rate $k c_i$ as a function of the dimensionless wavenumber k, for flow configurations which differ from each other in the value of the inclination angle β : (a) $\beta = 1.5^{\circ}$, (b) $\beta = 3.0^{\circ}$, (c) $\beta = 6.0^{\circ}$, (d) $\beta = 12.0^{\circ}$. The axes are dimensionless. Solid lines: $Ma \to 0^+$ (incompressible case), dashed lines: Ma = 0.1. Apart from the tilt angle β , other parameter values and fluid physical properties employed here are those of figure 3.



Figure 5: Effect of the Mach number $Ma = O(\varepsilon)$ and of the angle of inclination β on the stability of a falling water-glycerin film in terms of deviation of the cut-off wavenumber k_c from its incompressible limit $k_c^{Ma\to0^+}$ with reference to the temporal growth rate of linear disturbances $k c_i(k)$, for two different fixed values of the Reynolds critical ratio (38), corresponding to (a) RCR = 1.025 and (b) RCR = 1.05. In overall terms, darker regions correspond to a greater destabilisation. The set of parameter values and fluid physical properties is the same specified for figure 3.

ber k_c is reduced as the RCR is raised. This is in accordance with what previously shown in figure 3. As the incline of the plate becomes steeper, provided that moderately low-angle configurations are explored, the compressibility plays an increasingly important effect in relative terms in terms of a rightward shift of the dispersion curves.

In order to better appreciate this phenomenon, we represent in figure 5 the contours of the cut-off wavenumber related to its incompressible limit $k_c/k_c^{Ma\to0^+}$ as a function of the Mach number Ma and of the inclination angle β for two different values of Reynolds critical ratio RCR beyond the

stability threshold, corresponding to (a) RCR = 1.025 and (b) RCR = 1.05, 594 respectively. In both scenarios we identify two distinct regions of the (Ma, β) 595 plane: (i) a low–angle region $(1.5^{\circ} \lesssim \beta \lesssim 12^{\circ})$ where compressibility–induced 596 destabilisation is not fully-developed in terms of rightward shift of the cut-597 off wavenumber and (ii) a region that covers moderately to highly tilted 598 configurations ($12^{\circ} \leq \beta \leq 80^{\circ}$), where the same effects are independent of 599 the value of inclination angle β . From a graphical point of view, the isolines 600 rapidly tend to become vertical, indicating a fast saturation of $k_c/k_c^{Ma \rightarrow 0^+}$ 601 with respect to slope. 602

Within area (ii), at Ma = 0.1 – the highest level of weak compressibility investigated – the cut-off wavenumber is increased by up to roughly 60% when RCR = 1.025 and 35% when RCR = 1.05 in comparison with the incompressible case. As it will soon become clear, there exists a third upper region (iii) – for $80^{\circ} \leq \beta \leq 90^{\circ}$ – which is difficult to explore by employing the parameter RCR since, there, a vertically falling film flow is always unstable to linear perturbations (Benjamin, 1957; Yih, 1963).

A similar behavior is shown by the most unstable wavenumber and the 610 maximum growth rate of linear disturbances related to their incompressible 611 limit, viz. $k_{\max}/k_{\max}^{Ma\to 0^+}$ and $\omega_{i,\max}/\omega_{i\max}^{Ma\to 0^+}$ respectively, which are displayed 612 in figure 6a, b as a function of the Mach number Ma and the inclination 613 angle β in the case of a Reynolds critical ratio equal to RCR = 1.05. The 614 results are shown up to $\beta = 40^{\circ}$, as the isocontour does not change in the 615 region $40^{\circ} < \beta < 80^{\circ}$, as discussed before. The most unstable wavenumber 616 increases up to 35% compared with its incompressible analogue. Also, the 617 compressibility induces a similar increase of $k_c/k_c^{Ma\to 0^+}$ and $k_{\max}/k_{\max}^{Ma\to 0^+}$, 618



Figure 6: Effect of the Mach number $Ma = O(\varepsilon)$ and of the angle of inclination β on the stability of a falling water-glycerin film. Deviation of (a) the most unstable wavenumber k_{\max} from its incompressible limit $k_{\max}^{Ma \to 0^+}$, (b) the maximum growth rate $\omega_{i,\max}$ from its incompressible limit $\omega_{i,\max}^{Ma \to 0^+}$ for a value of Reynolds critical ratio (38) equal to RCR = 1.05. In overall terms, darker regions correspond to a greater destabilisation. The set of parameter values and fluid physical properties is the same specified for figure 3.

as shown in figures 6a and 5b, indicating that the destabilization involves both long and relatively short waves. Meanwhile, the maximum growth rate $\omega_{i, \text{max}}$ can reach values up to about three and a half times higher than the incompressible one.

A method to explore the role of compressibility at highly-tilted configurations consists in predetermining an adequate value of *Re*. For such a selection, we chose to cover a reasonably broad spectrum of slopes (with special attention to the steepest ones), without dropping the shallowness assumption.

⁶²⁸ Figure 7 displays the contours of the normalised cut–off wavenumber as

a function of the Mach number and of the inclination angle for two different 629 fixed values of the Reynolds number, corresponding to (a) Re = 1 (with β 630 ranging between 60° and 90°) and (b) Re = 3 (with 20° $\leq \beta \leq 60^{\circ}$). These 631 combination of (Re, β) is such as to determine the onset of interfacial in-632 stability. From panels a-b, one may erroneously infer that, as β increases, 633 $k_c/k_c^{Ma\to 0^+}$ exhibits a diminishing trend in contrast with previous results. 634 However, this evolution is fully justifiable in the following terms: keeping 635 *Re* fixed while the solid substrate steepens is tantamount to moving further 636 away from the critical threshold, which corresponds to a progressive aug-637 mentation of the Reynolds critical ratio RCR, that is a situation where the 638 compressibility-related effects on the destabilisation are less significant. As 639 a consequence, figure 7 is consistent with what displayed in figures 3, 5 and, 640 besides, helps in extending our analysis to the case of a vertical falling film 641 flow. 642

As final part of the parametric study our sole aim is to investigate the 643 influence of the Weber number We – and thus of the surface tension – on the 644 compressibility-induced destabilising mechanism. To do so, we conclude by 645 presenting numerical results for three different fluids: (i) water, (ii) aqueous 646 solution of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), and (iii) aqueous solution of glycerin. 647 As summarised in table 1, these fluids display different physical properties 648 in terms of density, kinematic viscosity and surface tension, notwithstanding 649 that the adopted barotropic EoS (14) remains unaltered among them. As 650 regards the other variables belonging to the parameter space, the angle of 651 inclination and the Reynolds critical ratio have been kept fixed and equal 652 to $\beta = 15^{\circ}$ and RCR = 1.05, respectively. Such a choice corresponds to 653



Figure 7: Effect of the Mach number $Ma = O(\varepsilon)$ and of the angle of inclination β on the stability of a falling water-glycerin film in terms of deviation of the cut-off wavenumber k_c from its incompressible limit $k_c^{Ma\to0^+}$ with reference to the temporal growth rate of linear disturbances $k c_i(k)$, for two different fixed values of the Reynolds number, corresponding to (a) Re = 1 and (b) Re = 3. In overall terms, darker regions correspond to a greater destabilisation. The set of parameter values and fluid physical properties is the same specified for figure 3.

Fluid	$\tilde{ ho}_0 \ (\mathrm{kg}\mathrm{m}^{-3})$	$\tilde{\nu}_0 \ (10^{-6} \mathrm{m}^2 \mathrm{s}^{-1})$	$\tilde{\gamma}_0 \ (10^{-3} \mathrm{N}\mathrm{m}^{-1})$	Ka
Water	1000.0	1.00	76.9	3592
DMSO (83.11%)	1098.3	2.85	48.4	509.5
Glycerin (50%)	1130.0	5.02	69.0	331.8

Table 1: Physical properties of fluids considered in the numerical stability calculations. The working liquids are the same as in Lavalle et al. (2019) (table 3 there): water, an aqueous solution of DMSO at 83.11% by weight, and an aqueous solution of glycerin at 50% by weight. The Kapitza number Ka is defined as $Ka = \tilde{\gamma}_0 \left(\tilde{\rho}_0 g^{1/3} \tilde{\nu}_0^{4/3}\right)^{-1}$, being $\tilde{\nu}_0 = \tilde{\mu}_0/\tilde{\rho}_0$ the kinematic viscosity of the fluid under consideration.

the following set of values for the Weber number: (i) $We = 8.841 \ 10^{-4}$, (ii) 654 $We = 6.234 \ 10^{-3}$, (iii) $We = 1.156 \ 10^{-2}$. We have represented in figure 8 655 the cut–off wavenumber (a) and the maximum growth rate (b) as a function 656 of the Mach number Ma for the three liquids considered. As before, in 657 both panels the quantities shown are related to their analogues in the limit 658 of a perfectly incompressible flow. Within the present weakly compressible 659 scenario, we see that the onset of the long–wave instability is dimly affected 660 by surface tension and the destabilising effect of compressibility is felt earlier 661 at low Weber numbers. 662

663 6. Physical basis for the destabilising effect of compressibility

This section aims at clarifying the underlying physics behind the compressibility effect on the onset of the flow primary instability.



Figure 8: Effect of the Mach number $Ma = O(\varepsilon)$ on the stability of three falling film flows, each obtained employing one of the fluids detailed in table 1 in terms of physical properties and listed in the legend. Curves represent the deviation of (a) the cut-off wavenumber k_c from its incompressible limit $k_c^{Ma\to0^+}$ and (b) the maximum growth rate $\omega_{i, \max}$ from its incompressible limit $\omega_{i, \max}^{Ma\to0^+}$ with reference to the temporal growth rate of linear disturbances $\omega_i(k) \equiv k c_i(k)$, for a fixed value of the Reynolds critical ratio (38), equal to RCR = 1.05, and inclination angle $\beta = 15^{\circ}$.

666 6.1. Whitham wave hierarchy

The hydrodynamic stability of a shallow-water flow is linked to the prop-667 agation of interfacial waves (Whitham, 1974; Alekseenko et al., 1985, 1994; 668 Ooshida, 1999; Kalliadasis et al., 2013). In this respect, Whitham's theory 669 of two-wave competition serves as a framework to interpret the linear sta-670 bility properties of the depth-averaged weakly-compressible model (25). To 671 do so, we can make use of the dispersion relation (32) to study the mech-672 anism at the base of the compressible-induced destabilisation. Specifically, 673 we formally recast (32) into the canonical form 674

$$i (c - c_k) + \Omega k (c - c_{d^+}) (c - c_{d^-}) = 0, \qquad (39)$$

where c_k (k^2 ; Re, β , We, Ma), $c_{d\pm}$ (k^2 ; Re, β , We, Ma) and Ω (k^2 ; Re) are defined as follows

$$c_{k} = \frac{3}{2k^{2}+3} \left[3 + k^{2} \left(-1 - \frac{4}{7} \operatorname{Re} \cot\beta + \frac{24}{35} \operatorname{Re}^{2} - \frac{3}{\operatorname{Re}} \operatorname{Ma}^{2} \cot\beta \right) - \frac{4}{21} \frac{\operatorname{Re}^{2}}{\operatorname{We}} k^{4} \right] (40a)$$

$$c_{d^{\pm}} = -\frac{9 \operatorname{Ma}^{2} \cot\beta}{4\operatorname{Re}} \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{4k^{2}}{\operatorname{We}} + \frac{12 \cot\beta}{\operatorname{Re}} + \frac{108}{5} + \frac{81 \operatorname{Ma}^{4} \cot^{2}\beta}{4\operatorname{Re}^{2}}}$$
(40b)

$$\Omega = \frac{Re}{2k^2 + 3}.\tag{40c}$$

Since the dispersion relation (39) recalls a two-wave structure, our reduced model (25) can be systematically reinterpreted as a second-order wave equation

$$\underbrace{\left(\partial_t + c_k \,\partial_x\right)h}_{(i)} + \Omega \underbrace{\left(\partial_t + c_{d^-} \,\partial_x\right)\left(\partial_t + c_{d^+} \,\partial_x\right)h}_{(ii)} = 0, \tag{41}$$

which consists of two levels (i) (ii) of linear hyperbolic wave equations. The lower-order solutions to (i) are the *kinematic* waves since they origin from the

mass conservation (25a). These fast waves travel at a speed equal to c_k and 682 they are dominant at long time and in the inertia-less limit $\Omega(Re) \to 0^+$. 683 Conversely, the higher-order *dynamic* waves of the second kind (ii) arise 684 from the film response, governed by the stress continuity condition (10b -685 10c) or - equivalently - by the momentum balance (25b), to variations in 686 momentum, hydrostatic pressure and surface tension. They correspond to 687 the limit $\Omega(Re) \to +\infty$. In their early stage, wavefronts located at the 688 leading front and at the trailing edge of a produced wave packet begin to 689 travel at a speed equal to c_{d^+} and c_{d^-} , respectively. 690

Interestingly, the dependence of $\Omega(k)$ on the wavenumber k is a mere con-691 sequence of the non-hyperbolicity of the evolution equation appertaining to 692 the integral model (25), since terms whose order of spatial derivation exceeds 693 the second would be ultimately included in it (Ruyer-Quil, 2012; Kalliadasis 694 et al., 2013). Physically, this means that surface wave dispersion is modified 695 by the streamwise viscous diffusion as early as the instability onset (Sharma 696 and Dandapat, 2006). Anyway, $\Omega(k^2)$ is not appreciably affected by the 697 squared wavenumber k^2 . In fact, by inspection of (40c), the denominator 698 $2k^2 + 3 \approx 3$ within the long-wave limit $(k \ll 1)$. As an *a posteriori* argu-699 ment, this fact adds legitimacy to the assumption of virtually non-dissipative 700 fluid (Samanta et al., 2011), postulated in § 3.1 behind the adoption of (14)701 as barotropic EoS. The dependence (40a) of the kinematic wave speed c_k on 702 the squared wavenumber k^2 gives an estimate of the dispersive role of the 703 streamwise second-order viscous terms, sometimes referred to as "viscous 704 dispersive effect" (Ruyer-Quil et al., 2008). 705

706 6.1.1. Two-wave reframing of the critical threshold

Whitham (1974) proved that the film primary instability can be precisely reasoned in terms of competition between kinematic and dynamic waves. Whenever a multi-speed equation of the kind given in (41) holds, long-wave interfacial disturbances will damp on the condition that kinematic waves travel at a speed ranging between the speeds of dynamic waves:

$$c_{d^-} \le c_k \le c_{d^+}.\tag{42}$$

The origin of the temporal stability criterion (42) stems from the evolution 712 of a localised precursory ripple (Ruyer-Quil, 2012). Since kinematic waves 713 tend to emerge from the wave packet at long times, whereas its short-term 714 dynamics is dominated by dynamic waves, the only stable situation is one 715 where the back and front of the wave travel at dynamic wave speed c_{d-} and 716 c_{d^+} respectively, which implies constraint (42). The base state is marginally 717 stable if $c_{d^-} = c_k$ or $c_{d^+} = c_k$. Here, in practice, only the latter condition has 718 a binding character on the inception of the flow instability. Once evaluated 719 in the limit of infinitely long waves $(k \to 0^+)$, it is verified that equality: 720

$$c_{d^+} = c_k \tag{43}$$

is coherently able to recover (36), thus being in line with the expression for the neutral stability threshold previously found by means of an asymptotic expansion \hat{a} la Yih (1963) for the wave celerity c(k).

⁷²⁴ 6.1.2. Elucidation of the compressibility-induced destabilising effect

To illustrate how compressibility enters Whitham's paradigm, we follow the methodology adopted by Samanta et al. (2011) and Samanta (2014) for

liquid films falling along a slipper incline or in the presence of imposed shear 727 stress, respectively. We consider the scenario discussed in figure 4(a, d), *i.e.* 728 a water-glycerin film down a plane inclined at $\beta = 1.5^{\circ}$ and $\beta = 12^{\circ}$. For 729 these two angles of inclination, figure 9 compares the kinematic wave speed 730 c_k and the dynamic one c_{d^+} given by (40a) and (40b) as a function of the 731 squared dimensionless wavenumber k^2 , both within the incompressible limit 732 $Ma \rightarrow 0^+$ (solid lines) and in a slightly compressible case, where Ma = 0.1733 (dashed lines). Two values of the Reynolds critical ratio RCR – beyond 734 the stability threshold, though in its vicinity – have been examined: (a, c)735 RCR = 1.025 and (b, d) RCR = 1.075. 736

Figure 9 evidences that the compressibility contributes in lowering both the dynamic and the kinematic wave speeds. For further clarification, figure 9 has been completed with a proper close-up of the plane portion where curves cross each other. One easily realizes that each compressible cut-off point (void circle) is always located at a higher squared wavenumber k^2 in comparison with its incompressible analogue (filled circle).

The kinematic wave speed c_k , however, is much less affected by the com-743 pressibility than the dynamic one c_{d^+} . This can be inspected by a brief dis-744 cussion on the role of inertia. Let us first consider the low-angle configuration 745 (upper panels). In such a scenario, the variation in the Reynolds critical ratio 746 RCR in figure 9a, b seems to only have a minor impact on the compressible 747 dynamic celerity c_{d^+} in terms of vertical shift. On the other hand, for the 748 greatest RCR (panel b), the parabolic-like trend of the kinematic celerity c_k 749 evolves with respect to k^2 in such a way that its descending tract gets drasti-750 cally steeper in the vicinity of its point of intersection with the graph of the 751



Figure 9: The variation of dynamic c_{d^+} (in red) and kinematic c_k (in blue) wave speeds as a function of k^2 when the Mach number Ma passes from zero (solid lines) to a value of 0.1 (dashed lines), for different configurations in terms of angle of inclination β and Reynolds critical ratio RCR. (a-b): $\beta = 1.5^{\circ}$. (c-d): $\beta = 12^{\circ}$. Left panels: RCR = 1.025. Right panels: RCR = 1.075.

dynamic wave velocity c_{d^+} . As a consequence, the compressibility-induced destabilisation gets noticeably reduced when the Reynolds number increases.

We close this section by comparing panels (c - d), for which the incli-754 nation angle is $\beta = 12^{\circ}$. Here we notice that the speed of kinematic waves 755 c_k is less sensitive in comparison with the previous low-angle configuration 756 to the same increase in the Reynolds critical ratio, from RCR = 1.025 (left) 757 to RCR = 1.075 (right). Meanwhile, the dynamic wave speed c_{d^+} , which 758 increases as a straight line with the square of the wavenumber k^2 , under-759 goes deceleration by enhancing compressibility, but also by increasing RCR. 760 leading to an attenuation of the compressibility-induced destabilisation. 761

762 6.2. Impact of compressibility on flow-related quantities

Aiming at finding a physical source to which the overflow uncovered in § 4.1.1 may be attributed, we rephrase the pertinent perturbative analogue $\Delta q_{\rm rel}^{(2)} = (q^{(2)} - q^{(2)}|_{Ma \to 0^+}) / q^{(0)}$ in terms of dimensional variables, which gives:

$$\Delta q_{\rm rel}^{(2)} = \frac{\Lambda}{8} \frac{g h \cos \beta}{\tilde{a}_0^2}.$$
(44)

In a similar way, as the leading-order wall shear stress $\tau_w^{(0)} \equiv \partial_y u^{(0)} |_{y=0}$ is employed as normalising quantity for the extra wall shear stress profile, we obtain:

$$\Delta \tau_{w, \text{rel}}^{(2)} = \frac{\Lambda}{6} \frac{g \, \hat{h} \, \cos \beta}{\tilde{a}_0^2}. \tag{45}$$

The same functional form is manifestly shared by (44) and (45). A simple physical interpretation of the ratio therein contained, namely $g \tilde{h} \cos \beta / \tilde{a}_0^2$, can be given in the following terms:

$$\Delta q_{\rm rel}^{(2)}, \, \Delta \tau_{\rm rel}^{(2)} \propto \frac{\tilde{\rho} g \,\tilde{h} \,\cos\beta}{\tilde{\rho} \,\tilde{a}_0^2} = \frac{\tilde{P}_{\rm h}^{\rm eff}}{\tilde{P}_{\rm a}}.$$
(46)

We can notice that (46) accounts for the ratio between the effective com-773 ponent of the hydrostatic pressure $\tilde{P}_{\rm h}^{\rm \, eff}$ exerted along the cross–stream di-774 rection by the wavy fluid column of height \tilde{h} , as stipulated by Stevin's law, 775 and a reference acoustic pressure \tilde{P}_{a} . As a matter of fact, the whole operat-776 ing mechanism through which compressibility acts as a destabilising factor 777 for the temporal development of long-wave linear disturbances should be 778 intended as the competition of multiple effects: for decreasing angles of in-779 clination, the gravitational effect is emphasised as $\cos\beta$ increases, but such a 780 trigger for destabilisation is counterbalanced by the decrease of the uniform 781 film thickness \tilde{h}_N , which is a function of $\sin \beta$, and so of \tilde{h} . 782

783 6.2.1. Compressible lag of flow rate perturbations

In order to explain the physical mechanism responsible for the compressibility– induced flow destabilisation, we adapt the basic rationale behind the methodology followed by Lavalle et al. (2019) in the context of confined falling liquid films in presence of an active upper phase. We start by recalling that the driving mechanism of Kapitza instability can be traced back to inertia, which is responsible for the time lag between the actual liquid flow rate q(h(x, t))and its inertialess target value:

$$q^{\star}(h(x, t)) = \underbrace{\frac{\Lambda h^3}{3}}_{q^{\star, g}} + \underbrace{\frac{Ma^2 h^4 \Lambda^2 \cot \beta}{8 Re}}_{q^{\star, Ma}} + O(\varepsilon^2).$$
(47)

Here the second-order contribution arising from the flow compressibility has been highlighted individually, without expressly taking its limit as $Re \rightarrow 0^+$ owing to its divergent behaviour. Instead, two other Re-independent secondorder terms contained within the expression of $q^{(2)}$ and arising in particular



Figure 10: Description scheme of the inertia-based mechanism of the Kapitza instability: by comparison between two points of abscissa x_A and x_B , located at opposite sides of a wave peak, the local film flow rate q(x,t) is delayed in accommodating itself to film thickness variations induced by the passage of the superficial disturbance of speed c.

from the normal stress continuity condition (10b) at order $O(\varepsilon^2)$ have not been explicitly written in (47) and disregarded for simplicity in subsequent calculations. Such a decomposition therefore appears to be accurate at $O(\varepsilon)$ and it is used only as a means to gain insight at the mechanism at work by estimating the relative importance of each individual component in the destabilisation of the weakly-compressible flow.

The destabilising role of inertia on single–peaked Kapitza waves can be 801 explained resorting to the analysis followed by Dietze (2016), who considered 802 the history of two points located along the film free-surface either side of a 803 wave crest. With reference to figure 10, at the abscissa x_B upstream of the 804 wave hump, where $\partial_x h < 0$, the film thickness increases in time as the wave 805 covers a distance dx, and so does the flow rate q along the x direction, in 806 accordance with Benney's leading-order asymptotic expansion (B.1c). Con-807 versely, at the abscissa x_A downstream of the wave hump, the film thickness 808 and the flow rate decrease when the wave covers dx. In the presence of in-809 ertia, the flow rate cannot adapt instantaneously to such a film thickness 810

variation. As a result, the flow rate in x_A will be too high while it will be too low in x_B . The ensuing discrepancy in flow across the wave peak accounts for its growth. Such a response is more intense as the lag phase of the actual flow rate q behind its target value q^* increases.

According to (47), the effect of gravity through the cubic dependence 815 of $q^{\star,g}(h)$ on h tends to promote variations in q^{\star} between the wave hump 816 and the wave trough as an outcome of the change in film thickness h. The 817 non-negative compressible contribution $q^{\star, Ma}(h)$ exacerbates such an effect, 818 increasingly so as the corresponding term in (47) gains relevance. For a per-819 tinent quantification, variables appearing in equation (47), viz. the wavy film 820 thickness h and the inertialess film flow rate q^* , are linearly perturbed around 821 the afore discussed (see § 4.1.1) base state vector \mathbf{Q}_0 , via superimposition of 822 infinitesimal disturbances of amplitude $\|\hat{\mathbf{Q}}\| \ll \|\mathbf{Q}_0\|$: 823

$$h(x, t) = h_0 + \hat{h}(x, t)$$
 (48a)

$$q^{\star}(h) = q_0 + \hat{q}(h).$$
 (48b)

⁸²⁴ By virtue of (48) it is now possible to discriminate between the magnitude ⁸²⁵ of perturbations \hat{q}^g and \hat{q}^{Ma} , which are, respectively, of gravitational and ⁸²⁶ compressible provenance:

$$\hat{q}\left(\hat{h}\right) = \underbrace{\Lambda h_0^2 \hat{h}}_{\hat{q}^g} + \underbrace{\frac{Ma^2 h_0^3 \hat{h} \Lambda^2 \cot \beta}{2 Re}}_{\hat{q}^{Ma}}.$$
(49)

The following expression can be obtained for the so-defined compressibleto-total amplitude ratio \hat{q}^{Ma}/\hat{q} :

$$\left|\frac{\hat{q}^{Ma}}{\hat{q}}\right| = \frac{3\,Ma^2\,\cot\beta}{2\,Re+3\,Ma^2\,\cot\beta} \stackrel{(*)}{=} \frac{9\,Ma^2}{5\,\mathrm{RCR}+9\,Ma^2},\tag{50}$$



Figure 11: Percentage contribution of the compressibility-related perturbation \hat{q}^{Ma} to the total inertialess flow rate perturbation \hat{q} (49) (a) as a function of the Mach number $Ma = O(\varepsilon)$ for different fixed values of the Reynolds critical ratio RCR (displayed in the legend) and (b) vice versa.

in which use has been made of the equality $\Lambda = 3$ and of the identity $h_0 \equiv 1$, 829 (*) together with the definition of the Reynolds critical ratio RCR (38), cou-830 pled with the incompressible evaluation of the critical threshold $\lim_{Ma\to 0^+} (36)$, 831 in lieu of the Reynolds number Re. Figure 11 shows that the ratio expressed 832 by (50) (a) increases with the Mach number Ma and (b) decreases with the 833 Reynolds critical ratio RCR, which is in accordance with the most promi-834 nent role played by compressibility in the film flow destabilisation shown in 835 section \S 5. 836

7. Conclusions

Liquid films occur over a wide range of length scales and are central to numerous areas of pure and applied sciences (Craster and Matar, 2009). The development of long-wave instabilities along its interface leads to selfexcitation of non-trivial dynamics (Sharma and Dandapat, 2006). The motivation behind this study is addressing theoretically how changes in the fluid density fit into this context. For such purpose, we have discussed three guiding questions.

(i) How does compressibility affect the structure of a depth-integral model? We considered a barotropic relation involving the Mach number of the mean flow. Under the assumption of weak compressibility $Ma \ll 1$, the density of the fluid is found to be exponentially stratified against gravity along the crosswise direction. In the final depth-averaged system (25) this is reflected in two additional terms: one $\propto \cot \beta Ma^2/Re$ in the continuity equation, and the other $\propto \cot \beta Ma^2/Re^2$ in the momentum conservation equation.

(ii) To what extent does compressibility take part in long-wave insta-852 bility? According to our linear analysis, a low degree of compressibility 853 boosts the inception of interfacial instability. This effect is most marked in 854 low-inertial regimes. For instance, with reference to figure 5b, the instabil-855 ity threshold of a water–glycerin film flow having Re = 2.40, β = 20° and 856 Ma = 0.1 as set of distinctive parameters is seen to increase by 35% in terms 857 of the cut-off wavenumber with respect to its incompressible analogue. A 858 higher-order additive correction of the base flow rate, hydrostatic in nature, 859 has been highlighted via (44). As perspective on future research, the de-860 rived depth-integrated model (25) will be also of interest to simulate the 861 non-linear dynamics of weakly-compressible falling liquid films, on condi-862 tion that proper manipulations are performed for the numerical treatment of 863 capillary terms (Lavalle et al., 2015). 864

(iii) Which is the underlying physical foundation? Albeit of small magnitude, differences between the compressible and incompressible nature of the long-wave instability can be traced back to a compressible-induced deceleration of dynamic waves (figure 9) or, equivalently, to an additional inertiainduced delay (relative to the kinematic waves) of the flow rate in adapting to a time-varying film-thickness (figure 11).

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876 Declaration of interests

⁸⁷⁷ The authors report no conflict of interest.

⁸⁷⁸ Appendix A. Reduction of the pressure profile

The complete solution of (16) is given by:

$$p(x, y, t; \vartheta) = p_i + \underbrace{\exp\left[\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^2(h-y)\right] - 1}_{Ma^2} - \frac{\varepsilon^2}{We}\partial_{xx}h + \underbrace{\varepsilon}_{Re}\left[\mathcal{W} - \mathcal{W}|_h \exp\left[\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^2(h-y)\right] - \left(\frac{2}{3} - \vartheta\right)(\partial_x u + \partial_y v)|_h A.1\right) + 2(\partial_y v)|_h - 2\underbrace{\partial_x h}(\partial_y u)|_h\right] - \mathcal{I}(y, \mathcal{W}) \exp\left(-\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr}Ma^2y\right),$$

where $\mathcal{I}(y, \mathcal{W})$ is the so-defined primitive

$$\mathcal{I}'(y, \mathcal{W}) = \varepsilon \, Ma^2 \, \frac{\cos\beta}{Re \, Fr} \, \mathcal{W} \, \exp\left(\frac{\cos\beta}{Fr} Ma^2 \, y\right), \tag{A.2}$$

the prime mark denoting total differentiation with respect to y. By inspection 881 of (A.2), since it is assumed $Re \sim Fr = O(1), \mathcal{I}'$ can be regarded as an 882 $O(\varepsilon Ma^2)$ residual contribution, originating from the process of integration 883 by parts in the context of the application of Duhamel's technique. Given that 884 its analytical integration would at least require *a priori* knowledge concerning 885 the explicit expression for the unknown spatial derivatives of the velocity field 886 $\mathbf{v} = (u, v)$ involved within \mathcal{W} as part of the integrand function (A.2), we seek 887 for a low-compressibility restriction of the kind 888

$$\varepsilon Ma^2 \lesssim \varepsilon^3,$$
 (A.3)

a condition wherein it is legitimate to consistently ignore its respective contribution within the ultimate problem (9) via (14). Indeed, assignment (A.3) has been formalised in asymptotic terms through the equivalence relation (19), with $\alpha \ge 1$ and $M = O(1) \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$. By recalling expansion (20) with (A.3) in mind, the $O(\varepsilon)$ -exponential term denoted as \blacklozenge can be shortened to the unitary value only. Furthermore, starting from the definition of \mathcal{W} – jointly given with (16) – it is straightforward to verify that

$$-\mathcal{W}|_{h} - \left(\frac{2}{3} - \vartheta\right) \left(\partial_{x}u + \partial_{y}v\right)|_{h} + 2\left(\partial_{y}v\right)|_{h} \equiv -\left(\partial_{x}u\right)|_{h}.$$
 (A.4)

Finally, the boundary condition (10c) highlights the fact that $(\partial_y u)|_h = O(\varepsilon^2)$, thereby allowing for the removal of \diamond , which ultimately contributes as an $O(\varepsilon^3)$ term within (A.1). As a result, (A.1) is consistently tantamount to (17).

900 Appendix B. Asymptotic expansions

901 Appendix B.1. Leading order $O(\varepsilon^0)$

$$u^{(0)}(h(x,t),y) = -\frac{\Lambda \left(y^2 - 2hy\right)}{2}$$
(B.1a)

$$v^{(0)}(h(x,t),y) = -\frac{\Lambda(\partial_x h) y^2}{2}$$
 (B.1b)

$$q^{(0)}(h(x,t)) = \frac{\Lambda h^3}{3}$$
 (B.1c)

The steady-state flat-film solution, corresponding to Nusselt flow (Nusselt, 1916), can be recovered by substituting unity for h in equations (B.1). This shows that the leading order of Benney's development corresponds to local equilibrium.

906 Appendix B.2. First order $O(\varepsilon^1)$

$$u^{(1)}(h(x,t),y) = \frac{Re\,\varepsilon^2}{We}\,\partial_{xxx}h\left(hy - \frac{y^2}{2}\right) + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\,\partial_xh\left(-hy + \frac{y^2}{2}\right) + \\ + Re\,\Lambda^2\partial_xh\left(\frac{hy^4}{24} - \frac{h^4y}{6}\right) + Re\,\Lambda\partial_th\left(\frac{y^3}{6} - \frac{h^2y}{2}\right) \qquad (B.2a)$$

$$v^{(1)}(h(x,t),y) = \frac{Re\,\varepsilon^2}{We}\left[\partial_{4x}h\left(\frac{y^3}{6} - \frac{hy^2}{2}\right) - (\partial_xh)\left(\partial_{xxx}h\right)\frac{y^2}{2}\right] + \\ + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\left[\partial_{xx}h\left(-\frac{y^3}{6} + \frac{hy^2}{2}\right) + \partial_x^2h\frac{y^2}{2}\right] + \\ + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\left[\partial_xh\left(-\frac{y^2}{6} + \frac{h^2}{2}\right) + (\partial_xh)\left(\partial_xh\right)\frac{h}{2}\right] + \\ + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\left[\partial_xh\left(-\frac{y^2}{6} + \frac{h^2}{2}\right] + \\ + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\left[\partial_xh\left(-\frac{y^2}{6} + \frac{h^2}{2}\right] + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\left[\partial_xh\left(-\frac{y^2}{6} + \frac{h^2}{2}\right] + \\ + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\left[\partial_xh\left(-\frac{h^2}{6} + \frac{h^2}{2}\right] + \\ + \\ + \frac{Re\,\cos\beta}{Fr}\left[\partial_xh\left(-\frac{h^2}{6} + \frac{h^2}{2}\right] + \\ + \\ +$$

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$$+Re\Lambda y^{2}\left[\partial_{tx}h\left(-\frac{y^{2}}{24}+\frac{h^{2}}{4}\right)+\left(\partial_{t}h\right)\left(\partial_{x}h\right)\frac{h}{2}\right]+$$

911

$$+Re\,\Lambda^{2}\left[\partial_{xx}h\left(-\frac{hy^{5}}{120}+\frac{h^{4}y^{2}}{12}\right)+\partial_{x}^{2}h\left(-\frac{y^{5}}{120}+\frac{h^{3}y^{2}}{3}\right)\right]$$
(B.2b)

912 Appendix B.3. Second order $O(\varepsilon^2)$

$$\begin{split} u^{(2)}(h(x,t),y) &= \frac{Re^{2}\Lambda\varepsilon^{2}}{We}\partial_{xxxx}h\left(\frac{y^{6}}{360} - \frac{hy^{5}}{60} + \frac{h^{2}y^{4}}{12} - \frac{h^{3}y^{3}}{6} + \frac{7h^{5}y}{30}\right) + \\ &+ \frac{Re^{2}\Lambda\varepsilon^{2}}{We}\partial_{x}h\partial_{xxx}h\left(\frac{5hy^{4}}{12} - \frac{3h^{2}y^{3}}{2} + \frac{17h^{4}y}{6}\right) + \\ &+ \frac{Re^{2}\Lambda\varepsilon^{2}}{We}\partial_{x}^{2}h\left(\frac{hy^{4}}{4} - h^{2}y^{3} + 2h^{4}y\right) + \\ &+ \frac{Re^{2}\Lambda\varepsilon^{2}}{We}\partial_{x}^{2}h\partial_{xx}h\left(\frac{y^{4}}{2} - 2hy^{3} + 4h^{3}y\right) + \\ &+ \frac{Re^{2}\Lambda\cos\beta}{Fr}\partial_{x}^{2}h\left(-\frac{hy^{4}}{6} + \frac{h^{2}y^{3}}{2} - \frac{5h^{4}y}{6}\right) + \\ &+ \frac{Re^{2}\Lambda\cos\beta}{Fr}\partial_{xx}h\left(-\frac{y^{6}}{360} + \frac{hy^{5}}{60} - \frac{h^{2}y^{4}}{12} + \frac{h^{3}y^{3}}{6} - \frac{7h^{5}y}{30}\right) + \\ &+ \Lambda\partial_{xx}h\left(-\frac{y^{3}}{3} - \frac{hy^{2}}{2} + \frac{5h^{2}y}{2}\right) + \\ &+ Re^{2}\Lambda^{3}\partial_{xx}h\left(-\frac{hy^{8}}{4480} + \frac{h^{2}y^{7}}{560} - \frac{h^{3}y^{6}}{180} + \frac{h^{4}y^{5}}{120} + \frac{h^{5}y^{4}}{72} - \frac{h^{6}y^{3}}{18} + \frac{29h^{8}y}{315}\right) + \\ &+ Re^{2}\Lambda^{3}\partial_{x}^{2}h\left(-\frac{y^{8}}{4480} + \frac{hy^{7}}{560} - \frac{7h^{2}y^{6}}{720} + \frac{h^{3}y^{5}}{30} + \frac{5h^{4}y^{4}}{72} - \frac{h^{5}y^{3}}{3} + \frac{38h^{7}y}{63}\right) + \\ &+ \Lambda\partial_{x}^{2}h\left(5hy - \frac{y^{2}}{2}\right) + \frac{M^{2}\Lambda\cos\beta}{Fr}\left(\frac{y^{3}}{6} - \frac{hy^{2}}{2} + \frac{h^{2}y}{2}\right) \end{split}$$
(B.3)

⁹¹³ Appendix C. Validation with Orr–Sommerfeld problem within the ⁹¹⁴ incompressible limit

⁹¹⁵ Our second-order model (25) correctly recovers the expressions for $c^{(0)}$, $c^{(1)}|_{Ma \to 0^+}$ ⁹¹⁶ and $c^{(2)}|_{Ma \to 0^+}$, which show accordance with the asymptotic expansions of ⁹¹⁷ solutions to Orr-Sommerfeld boundary-value problem – reported in Ruyer-⁹¹⁸ Quil and Manneville (1998). However, it is expected that higher-order ex-

$Re\cot^2\beta$	$Re^2 \cot \beta$	$\cot eta$	Re/We	Re^3	Re
-16.7	21.6	-63.0	0	28.9	7.8

Table C.2: Percent errors [%] (expressed to one decimal place) committed by the incompressible evaluation of the present second-order model $(25)|_{Ma\to0^+}$ in the estimate of polynomial coefficients \star of the $O(k^3)$ incompressible wave celerity $c^{(3)}|_{Ma\to0^+}$, given by $(34d)|_{Ma\to0^+}$ by comparison with the exact ones (Ruyer-Quil and Manneville, 1998; Chang and Demekhin, 2002) provided by the Orr–Sommerfeld theory.

pressions of $c^{(j)}$ with j > 2 are not correctly captured. Specifically, when the incompressible limit of $c^{(3)}$, expressed by $(34d)|_{Ma\to 0^+}$, is contrasted with its exact Orr-Sommerfeld (O–S) analogue, we notice that all terms are present, but with different numerical coefficients in front of them in almost every occurrence \star . As shown in table C.2, such discrepancies can be quantified in terms of relative percentage deviation

$$\frac{\star_{(34d)}^{(3)}\Big|_{Ma\to 0^+} - \star_{O-S}^{(3)}}{\star_{O-S}^{(3)}} \cdot 100\% \quad [\%] \,. \tag{C.1}$$

A numerical validation of the present second-order weakly-compressible 925 model within its incompressible limit $(25)|_{Ma\to 0^+}$ can be accomplished by 926 comparing its predictions to data from the literature concerning the long-927 wave interfacial instability for a liquid falling film flow. Figure C.12 com-928 pares growth rate and angular frequency of linear surface waves with results 929 of Brevdo et al. (1999) for the case of a liquid film falling down an incline 930 within a passive atmosphere. We remark that agreement is achieved between 931 the two sets of data with reference to the immediate proximity to the limit of 932 infinitely long-wave $(k \to 0^+)$, as long as the Reynolds number Re is chosen 933



Figure C.12: Comparison of the dimensionless (a) temporal growth rate $k c_i(k)$ and (b) angular wave frequency $k c_r(k)$ between our work and Brevdo et al. (1999) (figure 2 there). Parameter values: $g = 9.81 \,\mathrm{m \, s^{-2}}$, $\beta = 4.6^{\circ}$, $\tilde{\rho}_0 = 1130 \,\mathrm{kg \, m^{-3}}$, $\tilde{\mu}_0 = 5.673 \,10^{-3} \,\mathrm{Pa \, s}$, $\tilde{\gamma}_0 = 69.0 \,10^{-3} \,\mathrm{N \, m^{-1}}$. Values of the Reynolds number $Re^{(B)} = (3/2) \,Re$ according to Brevdo's scaling: 10 (dashed line), $Re_{cr}^{(B)} = (5/4) \cot \beta$ (bare solid line), 20 (pluses). Note that $k^{(B)}$, $(k c_r)^{(B)}$ and $(k c_i)^{(B)}$ are scaled as in Brevdo et al. (1999), *i.e.* using the Nusselt film thickness \tilde{h}_N and the free–surface velocity $(3/2) \,\tilde{U}_N$ as length and velocity scales, respectively, instead of the film mean velocity \tilde{U}_N as done here.

⁹³⁴ to be compliant with the pertinent assumption Re = O(1) made in § 3.

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