

The Open Source CFD Toolbox

Programmer's Guide

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Contents

\mathbf{C}	opyri	ght No	otice	P-2
	NU I 1. A 2. V 3. C 4. M 5. C 6. C 7. A 8. T 9. T	Free D PPLIC ERBAT OPYIN ODIFI OMBIN OLLEC GGRE TRANSI	ocumentation Licence ABILITY AND DEFINITIONS TIM COPYING IG IN QUANTITY CATIONS NING DOCUMENTS CTIONS OF DOCUMENTS GATION WITH INDEPENDENT WORKS LATION NATION RE REVISIONS OF THIS LICENSE	P-2 P-3 P-3 P-4 P-4 P-5 P-6 P-7 P-7 P-7 P-8
T.	,			D 0
Ti	cader	narks		P-9
C	onter	nts		P-11
1	Ten	sor ma	athematics	P-15
-	1.1		inate system	P-15
	1.1		S	P-15
	1.2	1.2.1	Tensor notation	P-17
	1.3		raic tensor operations	P-18
	1.0	1.3.1	The inner product	P-18
		1.3.1	The double inner product of two tensors	P-19
		1.3.3	The triple inner product of two third rank tensors	P-19
		1.3.3 1.3.4		P-19
		1.3.4 $1.3.5$	The outer product	P-20
		1.3.6		P-20
		1.3.0 $1.3.7$	Other general tensor operations	P-21
		1.3.7	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	P-21
		1.3.9	Useful tensor identities	P-21 P-22
			Operations exclusive to tensors of rank 2	P-22 P-23
	1.4		FOAM tensor classes	P-23 P-23
	1.4	1.4.1	Algebraic tensor operations in OpenFOAM	P-24
	1.5		asional units	P-26
	T.0		IDIOHAH UHUM	1-40

P-12 Contents

2	Dis	cretisation p	orocedures	P-27
	2.1	_	operators	P-27
			$\stackrel{ ext{lient}}{ ext{lient}}$	P-27
			rgence	P-28
				P-28
			acian	P-28
		-	poral derivative	P-28
	2.2	_	discretisation	P-29
			nFOAM lists and fields	P-29
	2.3	-	on of the solution domain	P-30
			ning a mesh in OpenFOAM	P-31
			ning a geometricField in OpenFOAM	P-32
	2.4		scretisation	P-33
		_	Laplacian term	P-38
			convection term	P-38
			time derivative	P-39
			nd time derivative	P-39
			rgence	P-39
			lient	P-40
			l-grad squared	P-41
				P-41
			ce terms	P-41
			er explicit discretisation schemes	P-41
	2.5		scretisation	P-42
		-	tment of temporal discretisation in OpenFOAM	P-43
	2.6		${ m conditions}$	P-43
		•	sical boundary conditions	P-44
3	Fye	mples of the	e use of OpenFOAM	P-45
3	3.1		l a cylinder	P-45
	0.1			P-46
		3.1.1 F100 3.1.2 Note	lem specification	P-47
				P-47
			n generation	P-49
			ndary conditions and initial fields	P-49
			ning the case	P-50
			erating the analytical solution	P-54
	3.2		ulent flow over a backward-facing step	P-54
	J.Z		lem specification	P-54
			•	P-55
			n generation	P-58
			ndary conditions and initial fields	P-58 P-58
				P-58 P-59
	2 2		ning the case and post-processing	P-59 P-59
	3.3	_	dow over a forward-facing step	
			elem specification	P-60
			generation	P-61
			ning the case	P-62
		3.3.4 Exerc	<u>cise</u>	P-62

Content	s		P-13
3.4	Decor	npression of a tank internally pressurised with water	P-63
	3.4.1	Problem specification	P-63
	3.4.2	Mesh Generation	P-65
	3.4.3	Preparing the Run	P-66
	3.4.4	Running the case	P-67

Index			P-73
	3.5.3	Running the case	P-71
		Mesh generation	P-70
	3.5.1	Problem specification	P-69
3.5	Magne	tohydrodynamic flow of a liquid	P-69
	3.4.5	Improving the solution by refining the mesh	P-68
	3.4.4	Running the case	P-67
	3.4.3	Preparing the Run	P-66
	3.4.2	Mesh Generation	P-65
	3.4.1	Problem specification	P-63
0.1	DCCOII	ipression of a tank internally pressurised with water	1 00

P-14 Contents

Chapter 1

Tensor mathematics

This Chapter describes tensors and their algebraic operations and how they are represented in mathematical text in this book. It then explains how tensors and tensor algebra are programmed in OpenFOAM.

1.1 Coordinate system

OpenFOAM is primarily designed to solve problems in continuum mechanics, *i.e.* the branch of mechanics concerned with the stresses in solids, liquids and gases and the deformation or flow of these materials. OpenFOAM is therefore based in 3 dimensional space and time and deals with physical entities described by tensors. The coordinate system used by OpenFOAM is the right-handed rectangular Cartesian axes as shown in Figure 1.1. This system of axes is constructed by defining an origin O from which three lines are drawn at right angles to each other, termed the Ox, Oy, Oz axes. A right-handed set of axes is defined such that to an observer looking down the Oz axis (with O nearest them), the arc from a point on the Ox axis to a point on the Oy axis is in a clockwise sense.

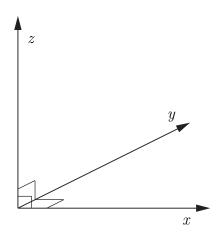


Figure 1.1: Right handed axes

1.2 Tensors

The term tensor describes an entity that belongs to a particular space and obeys certain mathematical rules. Briefly, tensors are represented by a set of *component values* relating

P-16 Tensor mathematics

to a set of unit base vectors; in OpenFOAM the unit base vectors \mathbf{i}_x , \mathbf{i}_y and \mathbf{i}_z are aligned with the right-handed rectangular Cartesian axes x, y and z respectively. The base vectors are therefore orthogonal, *i.e.* at right-angles to one another. Every tensor has the following attributes:

Dimension d of the particular space to which they belong, i.e. d = 3 in OpenFOAM;

Rank An integer $r \geq 0$, such that the number of component values $= d^r$.

While OpenFOAM 1.x is set to 3 dimensions, it offers tensors of ranks 0 to 3 as standard while being written in such a way to allow this basic set of ranks to be extended indefinitely. Tensors of rank 0 and 1, better known as scalars and vectors, should be familiar to readers; tensors of rank 2 and 3 may not be so familiar. For completeness all ranks of tensor offered as standard in OpenFOAM 1.x are reviewed below.

Rank 0 'scalar' Any property which can be represented by a single real number, denoted by characters in italics, e.g. mass m, volume V, pressure p and viscosity μ .

Rank 1 'vector' An entity which can be represented physically by both magnitude and direction. In component form, the vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$ relates to a set of Cartesian axes x, y, z respectively. The *index notation* presents the same vector as a_i , i = 1, 2, 3, although the list of indices i = 1, 2, 3 will be omitted in this book, as it is intuitive since we are always dealing with 3 dimensions.

Rank 2 'tensor' or second rank tensor, T has 9 components which can be expressed in array notation as:

$$\mathbf{T} = T_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tag{1.1}$$

The components T_{ij} are now represented using 2 indices since r=2 and the list of indices i, j=1,2,3 is omitted as before. The components for which i=j are referred to as the diagonal components, and those for which $i \neq j$ are referred to as the off-diagonal components. The *transpose* of **T** is produced by exchanging components across the diagonal such that

$$\mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}} = T_{ji} = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & T_{21} & T_{31} \\ T_{12} & T_{22} & T_{32} \\ T_{13} & T_{23} & T_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$
(1.2)

Note: a rank 2 tensor is often colloquially termed 'tensor' since the occurrence of higher order tensors is fairly rare.

Symmetric rank 2 The term 'symmetric' refers to components being symmetric about the diagonal, i.e. $T_{ij} = T_{ji}$. In this case, there are only 6 independent components since $T_{12} = T_{21}$, $T_{13} = T_{31}$ and $T_{23} = T_{32}$. OpenFOAM distinguishes between symmetric and non-symmetric tensors to save memory by storing 6 components rather than 9 if the tensor is symmetric. Most tensors encountered in continuum mechanics are symmetric.

1.2 Tensors P-17

Rank 3 has 27 components and is represented in index notation as P_{ijk} which is too long to represent in array notation as in Equation 1.1.

Symmetric rank 3 Symmetry of a rank 3 tensor is defined in OpenFOAM to mean that $P_{ijk} = P_{ikj} = P_{jik} = P_{jki} = P_{kij} = P_{kji}$ and therefore has 10 independent components. More specifically, it is formed by the outer product of 3 identical vectors, where the outer product operation is described in Section 1.3.4.

1.2.1 Tensor notation

This is a book on computational continuum mechanics that deals with problems involving complex PDEs in 3 spatial dimensions and in time. It is vital from the beginning to adopt a notation for the equations which is compact yet unambiguous. To make the equations easy to follow, we must use a notation that encapsulates the idea of a tensor as an entity in the own right, rather than a list of scalar components. Additionally, any tensor operation should be perceived as an operation on the entire tensor entity rather than a series of operations on its components.

Consequently, in this book the *tensor notation* is preferred in which any tensor of rank 1 and above, *i.e.* all tensors other than scalars, are represented by letters in bold face, *e.g.* a. This actively promotes the concept of a tensor as a entity in its own right since it is denoted by a single symbol, and it is also extremely compact. The potential drawback is that the rank of a bold face symbol is not immediately apparent, although it is clearly not zero. However, in practice this presents no real problem since we are aware of the property each symbol represents and therefore intuitively know its rank, *e.g.* we know velocity U is a tensor of rank 1.

A further, more fundamental idea regarding the choice of notation is that the mathematical representation of a tensor should not change depending on our coordinate system, *i.e.* the vector ais the same vector irrespective of where we view it from. The tensor notation supports this concept as it implies nothing about the coordinate system. However, other notations, *e.g.* a_i , expose the individual components of the tensor which naturally implies the choice of coordinate system. The unsatisfactory consequence of this is that the tensor is then represented by a set of values which are not unique — they depend on the coordinate system.

That said, the index notation, introduced in Section 1.2, is adopted from time to time in this book mainly to expand tensor operations into the constituent components. When using the index notation, we adopt the *summation convention* which states that whenever the same letter subscript occurs twice in a term, the that subscript is to be given all values, *i.e.* 1, 2, 3, and the results added together, *e.g.*

$$a_i b_i = \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i b_i = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 \tag{1.3}$$

In the remainder of the book the symbol \sum is omitted since the repeated subscript indicates the summation.

P-18 Tensor mathematics

1.3 Algebraic tensor operations

This section describes all the algebraic operations for tensors that are available in Open-FOAM. Let us first review the most simple tensor operations: addition, subtraction, and scalar multiplication and division. Addition and subtraction are both commutative and associative and are only valid between tensors of the same rank. The operations are performed by addition/subtraction of respective components of the tensors, *e.g.* the subtraction of two vectors **a** and **b** is

$$\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = a_i - b_i = (a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2, a_3 - b_3) \tag{1.4}$$

Multiplication of any tensor \mathbf{a} by a scalar s is also commutative and associative and is performed by multiplying all the tensor components by the scalar. For example,

$$s\mathbf{a} = sa_i = (sa_1, sa_2, sa_3)$$
 (1.5)

Division between a tensor \mathbf{a} and a scalar is only relevant when the scalar is the second argument of the operation, *i.e.*

$$\mathbf{a}/s = a_i/s = (a_1/s, a_2/s, a_3/s) \tag{1.6}$$

Following these operations are a set of more complex products between tensors of rank 1 and above, described in the following Sections.

1.3.1 The inner product

The inner product operates on any two tensors of rank r_1 and r_2 such that the rank of the result $r = r_1 + r_2 - 2$. Inner product operations with tensors up to rank 3 are described below:

• The inner product of two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is commutative and produces a scalar $s = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ where

$$s = a_i b_i = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 \tag{1.7}$$

• The inner product of a tensor T and vector a produces a vector $b = T \cdot a$, represented below as a column array for convenience

$$b_{i} = T_{ij}a_{j} = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11}a_{1} + T_{12}a_{2} + T_{13}a_{3} \\ T_{21}a_{1} + T_{22}a_{2} + T_{23}a_{3} \\ T_{31}a_{1} + T_{32}a_{2} + T_{33}a_{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(1.8)$$

It is non-commutative if **T** is non-symmetric such that $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot \mathbf{a}$ is

$$b_i = a_j T_{ji} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 T_{11} + a_2 T_{21} + a_3 T_{31} \\ a_1 T_{12} + a_2 T_{22} + a_3 T_{32} \\ a_1 T_{13} + a_2 T_{23} + a_3 T_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(1.9)$$

• The inner product of two tensors T and S produces a tensor $P = T \cdot S$ whose components are evaluated as:

$$P_{ij} = T_{ik} S_{kj} (1.10)$$

It is non-commutative such that $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{S} = (\mathbf{S}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot \mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}})^{\mathrm{T}}$

• The inner product of a vector \mathbf{a} and third rank tensor \mathbf{P} produces a second rank tensor $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{P}$ whose components are

$$T_{ij} = a_k P_{kij} \tag{1.11}$$

Again this is non-commutative so that $T = P \cdot a$ is

$$T_{ij} = P_{ijk} a_k \tag{1.12}$$

• The inner product of a second rank tensor T and third rank tensor P produces a third rank tensor $Q = T \cdot P$ whose components are

$$Q_{ijk} = T_{il}P_{ljk} \tag{1.13}$$

Again this is non-commutative so that $Q = P \cdot T$ is

$$Q_{ijk} = P_{ijl}T_{lk} \tag{1.14}$$

1.3.2 The double inner product of two tensors

The double inner product of two second-rank tensors T and S produces a scalar s = T : S which can be evaluated as the sum of the 9 products of the tensor components

$$s = T_{ij}S_{ij} = T_{11}S_{11} + T_{12}S_{12} + T_{13}S_{13} + T_{21}S_{21} + T_{22}S_{22} + T_{23}S_{23} + T_{31}S_{31} + T_{32}S_{32} + T_{33}S_{33}$$

$$(1.15)$$

The double inner product between a second rank tensor T and third rank tensor P produces a vector $\mathbf{a} = T \colon P$ with components

$$a_i = T_{jk} P_{jki} (1.16)$$

This is non-commutative so that $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{T}$ is

$$a_i = P_{ijk}T_{jk} (1.17)$$

1.3.3 The triple inner product of two third rank tensors

The triple inner product of two third rank tensors \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} produces a scalar $s = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{Q}$ which can be evaluated as the sum of the 27 products of the tensor components

$$s = P_{ijk}Q_{ijk} \tag{1.18}$$

1.3.4 The outer product

The outer product operates between vectors and tensors as follows:

• The outer product of two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is non-commutative and produces a tensor $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{b}\mathbf{a})^{\mathrm{T}}$ whose components are evaluated as:

$$T_{ij} = a_i b_j = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 b_1 & a_1 b_2 & a_1 b_3 \\ a_2 b_1 & a_2 b_2 & a_2 b_3 \\ a_3 b_1 & a_3 b_2 & a_3 b_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(1.19)$$

P-20 Tensor mathematics

• An outer product of a vector \mathbf{a} and second rank tensor \mathbf{T} produces a third rank tensor $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{T}$ whose components are

$$P_{ijk} = a_i T_{jk} (1.20)$$

This is non-commutative so that P = Ta produces

$$P_{ijk} = T_{ij}a_k (1.21)$$

1.3.5 The cross product of two vectors

The cross product operation is exclusive to vectors only. For two vectors \mathbf{a} with \mathbf{b} , it produces a vector $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ whose components are

$$c_i = e_{ijk}a_jb_k = (a_2b_3 - a_3b_2, a_3b_1 - a_1b_3, a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)$$

$$(1.22)$$

where the *permutation symbol* is defined by

$$e_{ijk} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{when any two indices are equal} \\ +1 & \text{when } i, j, k \text{ are an even permutation of } 1, 2, 3 \\ -1 & \text{when } i, j, k \text{ are an odd permutation of } 1, 2, 3 \end{cases}$$

$$(1.23)$$

in which the even permutations are 123, 231 and 312 and the odd permutations are 132, 213 and 321.

1.3.6 Other general tensor operations

Some less common tensor operations and terminology used by OpenFOAM are described below.

Square of a tensor is defined as the outer product of the tensor with itself, *e.g.* for a vector \mathbf{a} , the square $\mathbf{a}^2 = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}$.

nth power of a tensor is evaluated by n outer products of the tensor, e.g. for a vector \mathbf{a} , the 3rd power $\mathbf{a}^3 = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}$.

Magnitude squared of a tensor is the rth inner product of the tensor of rank r with itself, to produce a scalar. For example, for a second rank tensor \mathbf{T} , $|\mathbf{T}|^2 = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T}$.

Magnitude is the square root of the magnitude squared, e.g. for a tensor \mathbf{T} , $|\mathbf{T}| = \sqrt{\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T}}$. Vectors of unit magnitude are referred to as unit vectors.

Component maximum is the component of the tensor with greatest value, inclusive of sign, *i.e.* not the largest magnitude.

Component minimum is the component of the tensor with smallest value.

Component average is the mean of all components of a tensor.

Scale As the name suggests, the scale function is a tool for scaling the components of one tensor by the components of another tensor of the same rank. It is evaluated as the product of corresponding components of 2 tensors, e.g., scaling vector \mathbf{a} by vector \mathbf{b} would produce vector \mathbf{c} whose components are

$$c_i = \text{scale}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = (a_1 b_1, a_2 b_2, a_3 b_3)$$
 (1.24)

1.3.7 Geometric transformation and the identity tensor

A second rank tensor **T** is strictly defined as a linear vector function, i.e. it is a function which associates an argument vector **a** to another vector **b** by the inner product $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{a}$. The components of **T** can be chosen to perform a specific geometric transformation of a tensor from the x, y, z coordinate system to a new coordinate system x^*, y^*, z^* ; **T** is then referred to as the *transformation tensor*. While a scalar remains unchanged under a transformation, the vector **a** is transformed to \mathbf{a}^* by

$$\mathbf{a}^* = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{a} \tag{1.25}$$

A second rank tensor S is transformed to S^* according to

$$\mathbf{S}^* = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}} \tag{1.26}$$

The *identity tensor* I is defined by the requirement that it transforms another tensor onto itself. For all vectors a

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{a} \tag{1.27}$$

and therefore

$$\mathbf{I} = \delta_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{1.28}$$

where δ_{ij} is known as the Kronecker delta symbol.

1.3.8 Useful tensor identities

Several identities are listed below which can be verified by under the assumption that all the relevant derivatives exist and are continuous. The identities are expressed for scalar s and vector \mathbf{a} .

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{a}) \equiv 0$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla s) \equiv \mathbf{0}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (s\mathbf{a}) \equiv s \nabla \cdot \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla s$$

$$\nabla \times (s\mathbf{a}) \equiv s \nabla \times \mathbf{a} + \nabla s \times \mathbf{a}$$

$$\nabla (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) \equiv \mathbf{a} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{b} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{a}) + (\mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{b} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{a}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \equiv \mathbf{b} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{a}) - \mathbf{a} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{b})$$

$$\nabla \times (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \equiv \mathbf{a} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{b} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{a}) + (\mathbf{b} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{a} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{b}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{a}) \equiv \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{a}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{a}$$

$$(\nabla \times \mathbf{a}) \times \mathbf{a} \equiv \mathbf{a} \cdot (\nabla \mathbf{a}) - \nabla (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a})$$

It is sometimes useful to know the $e-\delta$ identity to help to manipulate equations in index notation:

$$e_{ijk}e_{irs} = \delta_{jr}\delta_{ks} - \delta_{js}\delta_{kr} \tag{1.30}$$

P-22 Tensor mathematics

1.3.9 Operations exclusive to tensors of rank 2

There are several operations that manipulate the components of tensors of rank 2 that are listed below:

Transpose of a tensor $\mathbf{T} = T_{ij}$ is $\mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}} = T_{ji}$ as described in Equation 1.2.

Symmetric and skew (antisymmetric) tensors As discussed in section 1.2, a tensor is said to be symmetric if its components are symmetric about the diagonal, i.e. $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}}$. A skew or antisymmetric tensor has $\mathbf{T} = -\mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}}$ which intuitively implies that $T_{11} = T_{22} = T_{33} = 0$. Every second order tensor can be decomposed into symmetric and skew parts by

$$\mathbf{T} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{T} + \mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}})}_{symmetric} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}})}_{skew} = \operatorname{symm} \mathbf{T} + \operatorname{skew} \mathbf{T}$$
(1.31)

Trace The trace of a tensor **T** is a scalar, evaluated by summing the diagonal components

$$\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{T} = T_{11} + T_{22} + T_{33} \tag{1.32}$$

 ${f Diagonal}$ returns a vector whose components are the diagonal components of the second rank tensor ${f T}$

$$\operatorname{diag} \mathbf{T} = (T_{11}, T_{22}, T_{33}) \tag{1.33}$$

Deviatoric and hydrostatic tensors Every second rank tensor \mathbf{T} can be decomposed into a deviatoric component, for which $\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{T} = 0$ and a hydrostatic component of the form $\mathbf{T} = s\mathbf{I}$ where s is a scalar. Every second rank tensor can be decomposed into deviatoric and hydrostatic parts as follows:

$$\mathbf{T} = \underbrace{\mathbf{T} - \frac{1}{3} (\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{T}) \mathbf{I}}_{deviatoric} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{3} (\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{T}) \mathbf{I}}_{hydrostatic} = \operatorname{dev} \mathbf{T} + \operatorname{hyd} \mathbf{T}$$
(1.34)

Determinant The determinant of a second rank tensor is evaluated by

$$\det \mathbf{T} = \begin{vmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} \end{vmatrix} = T_{11}(T_{22}T_{33} - T_{23}T_{32}) - T_{12}(T_{21}T_{33} - T_{23}T_{31}) + T_{13}(T_{21}T_{32} - T_{22}T_{31})$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}e_{ijk}e_{pqr}T_{ip}T_{jq}T_{kr}$$
(1.35)

Cofactors The *minors* of a tensor are evaluated for each component by deleting the row and column in which the component is situated and evaluating the resulting entries as a 2×2 determinant. For example, the minor of T_{12} is

$$\begin{vmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} T_{21} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{33} \end{vmatrix} = T_{21}T_{33} - T_{23}T_{31}$$

$$(1.36)$$

The cofactors are *signed minors* where each minor is component is given a sign based on the rule

+ve if
$$i + j$$
 is even
-ve if $i + j$ is odd (1.37)

The cofactors of T can be evaluated as

$$\operatorname{cof} \mathbf{T} = \frac{1}{2} e_{jkr} e_{ist} T_{sk} T_{tr} \tag{1.38}$$

Inverse The inverse of a tensor can be evaluated as

$$\operatorname{inv} \mathbf{T} = \frac{\operatorname{cof} \mathbf{T}^{\mathrm{T}}}{\det \mathbf{T}} \tag{1.39}$$

Hodge dual of a tensor is a vector whose components are

$$*\mathbf{T} = (T_{23}, -T_{13}, T_{12}) \tag{1.40}$$

1.3.10 Operations exclusive to scalars

OpenFOAM supports most of the well known functions that operate on scalars, e.g. square root, exponential, logarithm, sine, cosine etc.., a list of which can be found in Table 1.2. There are 3 additional functions defined within OpenFOAM that are described below:

Sign of a scalar s is

$$\operatorname{sgn}(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \ge 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } s < 0. \end{cases}$$
 (1.41)

Positive of a scalar s is

$$pos(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \ge 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } s < 0. \end{cases}$$
 (1.42)

Limit of a scalar s by the scalar n

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \lim_{n \to \infty} f(s, n) = \begin{cases} s & \text{if } s < n, \\ 0 & \text{if } s \ge n. \end{cases} \tag{1.43}$$

1.4 OpenFOAM tensor classes

OpenFOAM contains a C++ class library primitive that contains the classes for the tensor mathematics described so far. The basic tensor classes that are available as standard in OpenFOAM are listed in Table 1.1. The Table also lists the functions that allow the user to access individual components of a tensor, known as access functions.

We can declare the tensor

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \tag{1.44}$$

in OpenFOAM by the line:

P-24 Tensor mathematics

Rank	Common name	Basic class	Access functions
0	Scalar	scalar	
1	Vector	vector	x(), y(), z()
2	Tensor	tensor	xx(), xy(), xz()

Table 1.1: Basic tensor classes in OpenFOAM

We can then access the component T_{13} , or T_{xz} using the xz() access function. For instance the code

outputs to the screen:

Txz = 3

1.4.1 Algebraic tensor operations in OpenFOAM

The algebraic operations described in Section 1.3 are all available to the OpenFOAM tensor classes using syntax which closely mimics the notation used in written mathematics. Some functions are represented solely by descriptive functions, e.g.symm(), but others can also be executed using symbolic operators, e.g.*. All functions are listed in Table 1.2.

Operation	Comment	Mathematical	Description
		Description	in OpenFOAM
Addition		a + b	a + b
Subtraction		a - b	a - b
Scalar multiplication		$s\mathbf{a}$	s * a
Scalar division		\mathbf{a}/s	a / s
Outer product	$rank \ \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} >= 1$	ab	a * b
Inner product	$rank \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} = 1$	a•b	a & b
Double inner product	$rank \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} >= 2$	a:b	a && b
Cross product	$rank \ \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} = 1$	$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$	a ^ b
Square		\mathbf{a}^2	sqr(a)
Magnitude squared		$ \mathbf{a} ^2$	magSqr(a)
Magnitude		$ \mathbf{a} $	mag(a)
Power	n = 0, 1,, 4	\mathbf{a}^n	pow(a,n)
Component average	i = 1,, N	$\overline{a_i}$	cmptAv(a)
Component maximum	i = 1,, N	$\max(a_i)$	max(a)
Component minimum	i = 1,, N	$\min(a_i)$	min(a)
Scale		$scale(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$	scale(a,b)
Geometric transformation	transforms a u	sing tensor T	<pre>transform(T,a)</pre>

Operations exclusive to tensors of rank 2

Continued from previous page			
Operation	Comment	Mathematical	Description
		Description	in OpenFOAM
Transpose		\mathbf{T}^{T}	T.T()
Diagonal		$\operatorname{diag}\mathbf{T}$	<pre>diag(T)</pre>
Trace		${ m tr}{f T}$	tr(T)
Deviatoric component		$\operatorname{dev} \mathbf{T}$	dev(T)
Symmetric component		$\operatorname{symm} \mathbf{T}$	symm(T)
Skew-symmetric component		$\mathrm{skew} \mathbf{T}$	skew(T)
Determinant		$\det \mathbf{T}$	det(T)
Cofactors		$\operatorname{cof}\mathbf{T}$	cof(T)
Inverse		$\mathrm{inv}\mathbf{T}$	inv(T)
Hodge dual		*T	*T
Operations exclusive to scalar	` S		
Sign (boolean)		sgn(s)	sign(s)
Positive (boolean)		s >= 0	pos(s)
Negative (boolean)		s < 0	neg(s)
Limit	ı scalar	limit(s, n)	limit(s,n)
Square root		\sqrt{s}	sqrt(s)
Exponential		$\exp s$	exp(s)
Natural logarithm		$\ln s$	log(s)
Base 10 logarithm		$\log_{10} s$	log10(s)
Sine		$\sin s$	sin(s)
Cosine		$\cos s$	cos(s)
Tangent		$\tan s$	tan(s)
Arc sine		$a\sin s$	asin(s)
Arc cosine		$a\cos s$	acos(s)
Arc tangent		a tan s	atan(s)
Hyperbolic sine		$\sinh s$	sinh(s)
Hyperbolic cosine		$\cosh s$	cosh(s)
Hyperbolic tangent		$\tanh s$	tanh(s)
Hyperbolic arc sine		a s inh s	asinh(s)
Hyperbolic arc cosine		$\operatorname{a}\cosh s$	acosh(s)
Hyperbolic arc tangent		$\operatorname{atanh} s$	atanh(s)
Error function		$\operatorname{erf} s$	erf(s)
Complement error function		$\operatorname{erfc} s$	erfc(s)
Logarithm gamma function		$\ln \Gamma s$	lgamma(s)
Type 1 Bessel function of order 0		$J_0 s$	j0(s)
Type 1 Bessel function of order 1		$J_1 s$	j1(s)
Type 2 Bessel function of order 0		$Y_0 s$	y0(s)
Type 2 Bessel function of order 0 Type 2 Bessel function of order 1		$Y_1 s$	y1(s)
a b are tensors of arbitrary rank			y ± (6)

a, b are tensors of arbitrary rank unless otherwise stated

Table 1.2: Algebraic tensor operations in OpenFOAM

s is a scalar, N is the number of tensor components

P-26 Tensor mathematics

1.5 Dimensional units

In continuum mechanics, properties are represented in some chosen units, e.g. mass in kilograms (kg), volume in cubic metres (m³), pressure in Pascals (kg m s⁻²). Algebraic operations must be performed on these properties using consistent units of measurement; in particular, addition, subtraction and equality are only physically meaningful for properties of the same dimensional units. As a safeguard against implementing a meaningless operation, OpenFOAM encourages the user to attach dimensional units to any tensor and will then perform dimension checking of any tensor operation.

Units are defined using the dimensionSet class, e.q.

dimensionSet pressureDims(1, -1, -2, 0, 0, 0);

No.	Property	Unit	Symbol
1	Mass	kilogram	k
2	Length	metre	m
3	Time	second	S
4	Temperature	Kelvin	K
5	Quantity	moles	mol
6	Current	ampere	A
7	Luminous intensity	candela	cd

Table 1.3: S.I. base units of measurement

where each of the values corresponds to the power of each of the S.I. base units of measurement listed in Table 1.3. The line of code declares pressureDims to be the dimensionSet for pressure kg m s⁻² since the first entry in the pressureDims array, 1, corresponds to k^1 , the second entry, -1, corresponds to m^{-1} etc.. A tensor with units is defined using the dimensioned<Type> template class, the <Type> being scalar, vector, tensor, etc.. The dimensioned<Type> stores a variable name of class word, the value <Type> and a dimensionSet

```
dimensionedTensor sigma
    (
          "sigma",
           dimensionSet(1, -1, -2, 0, 0, 0, 0),
           tensor(1e6,0,0,0,1e6,0,0,0,1e6),
    );
```

creates a tensor with correct dimensions of pressure, or stress

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix}
10^6 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 10^6 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 10^6
\end{pmatrix}$$
(1.45)

Chapter 2

Discretisation procedures

So far we have dealt with algebra of tensors at a point. The PDEs we wish to solve involve derivatives of tensors with respect to time and space. We therefore need to extend our description to a *tensor field*, *i.e.* a tensor that varies across time and spatial domains. In this Chapter we will first present a mathematical description of all the differential operators we may encounter. We will then show how a tensor field is constructed in OpenFOAM and how the derivatives of these fields are discretised into a set of algebraic equations.

2.1 Differential operators

Before defining the spatial derivatives we first introduce the nabla vector operator ∇ , represented in index notation as ∂_i :

$$\nabla \equiv \partial_i \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \equiv \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3}\right) \tag{2.1}$$

The nabla operator is a useful notation that obeys the following rules:

- it operates on the tensors to its right and the conventional rules of a derivative of a product, e.g. $\partial_i ab = (\partial_i a) b + a (\partial_i b)$;
- otherwise the nabla operator behaves like any other vector in an algebraic operation.

2.1.1 Gradient

If a scalar field s is defined and continuously differentiable then the gradient of s, ∇s is a vector field

$$\nabla s = \partial_i s = \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial s}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial s}{\partial x_3}\right) \tag{2.2}$$

The gradient can operate on any tensor field to produce a tensor field that is one rank higher. For example, the gradient of a vector field \mathbf{a} is a second rank tensor field

$$\nabla \mathbf{a} = \partial_i a_j = \begin{pmatrix} \partial a_1 / \partial x_1 & \partial a_2 / \partial x_1 & \partial a_3 / \partial x_1 \\ \partial a_1 / \partial x_2 & \partial a_2 / \partial x_2 & \partial a_3 / \partial x_2 \\ \partial a_1 / \partial x_3 & \partial a_2 / \partial x_3 & \partial a_3 / \partial x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.3)

2.1.2 Divergence

If a vector field \mathbf{a} is defined and continuously differentiable then the divergence of \mathbf{a} is a scalar field

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{a} = \partial_i a_i = \frac{\partial a_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial a_2}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial a_3}{\partial x_3}$$
 (2.4)

The divergence can operate on any tensor field of rank 1 and above to produce a tensor that is one rank lower. For example the divergence of a second rank tensor field T is a vector field (expanding the vector as a column array for convenience)

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{T} = \partial_i T_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} \partial T_{11}/\partial x_1 + \partial T_{12}/\partial x_1 + \partial T_{13}/\partial x_1 \\ \partial T_{21}/\partial x_2 + \partial T_{22}/\partial x_2 + \partial T_{23}/\partial x_2 \\ \partial T_{31}/\partial x_3 + \partial T_{32}/\partial x_3 + \partial T_{33}/\partial x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$
(2.5)

2.1.3 Curl

If a vector field **a** is defined and continuously differentiable then the curl of **a**, $\nabla \times \mathbf{a}$ is a vector field

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{a} = e_{ijk} \partial_j a_k = \left(\frac{\partial a_3}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial a_2}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial a_1}{\partial x_3} - \frac{\partial a_3}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial a_2}{\partial x_1} - \frac{\partial a_1}{\partial x_2} \right)$$
(2.6)

The curl is related to the gradient by

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{a} = 2 \,(* \,\mathrm{skew} \,\nabla \mathbf{a}) \tag{2.7}$$

2.1.4 Laplacian

The Laplacian is an operation that can be defined mathematically by a combination of the divergence and gradient operators by $\nabla^2 \equiv \nabla \cdot \nabla$. However, the Laplacian should be considered as a single operation that transforms a tensor field into another tensor field of the same rank, rather than a combination of two operations, one which raises the rank by 1 and one which reduces the rank by 1.

In fact, the Laplacian is best defined as a *scalar operator*, just as we defined nabla as a vector operator, by

$$\nabla^2 \equiv \partial^2 \equiv \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_3^2}$$
 (2.8)

For example, the Laplacian of a scalar field s is the scalar field

$$\nabla^2 s = \partial^2 s = \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial x_2^2} + \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial x_2^2}$$
 (2.9)

2.1.5 Temporal derivative

There is more than one definition of temporal, or time, derivative of a tensor. To describe the temporal derivatives we must first recall that the tensor relates to a property of a volume of material that may be moving. If we track an infinitesimally small volume of material, or particle, as it moves and observe the change in the tensorial property ϕ in time, we have the *total*, or *material* time derivative denoted by

$$\frac{D\phi}{Dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta\phi}{\Delta t} \tag{2.10}$$

However in continuum mechanics, particularly fluid mechanics, we often observe the change of a ϕ in time at a fixed point in space as different particles move across that point. This change at a point in space is termed the *spatial* time derivative which is denoted by $\partial/\partial t$ and is related to the material derivative by:

$$\frac{D\phi}{Dt} = \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \mathbf{U} \cdot \nabla\phi \tag{2.11}$$

where **U** is the velocity field of property ϕ . The second term on the right is known as the convective rate of change of ϕ .

2.2 Overview of discretisation

The term discretisation means approximation of a problem into discrete quantities. The FV method and others, such as the finite element and finite difference methods, all discretise the problem as follows:

Spatial discretisation Defining the solution domain by a set of points that fill and bound a region of space when connected;

Temporal discretisation (For transient problems) dividing the time domain into into a finite number of time intervals, or steps;

Equation discretisation Generating a system of algebraic equations in terms of discrete quantities defined at specific locations in the domain, from the PDEs that characterise the problem.

2.2.1 OpenFOAM lists and fields

OpenFOAM frequently needs to store sets of data and perform functions, such as mathematical operations, on the data. OpenFOAM therefore provides an array template class List<Type>, making it possible to create a list of any object of class Type that inherits the functions of the Type. For example a List of vector is List<vector>.

Lists of the tensor classes are defined as standard in OpenFOAM by the template class Field<Type>. For better code legibility, all instances of Field<Type>, e.g.Field<vector>, are renamed using typedef declarations as scalarField, vectorField, tensorField, symmTensorField, tensorThirdField and symmTensorThirdField. Algebraic operations can be performed between Fields subject to obvious restrictions such as the fields having the same number of elements. OpenFOAM also supports operations between a field and single tensor, e.g. all values of a Field U can be multiplied by the scalar 2 with the operation U = 2.0 * U.

2.3 Discretisation of the solution domain

Discretisation of the solution domain is shown in Figure 2.1. The space domain is discretised into computational mesh on which the PDEs are subsequently discretised. Discretisation of time, if required, is simple: it is broken into a set of time steps Δt that may change during a numerical simulation, perhaps depending on some condition calculated during the simulation.

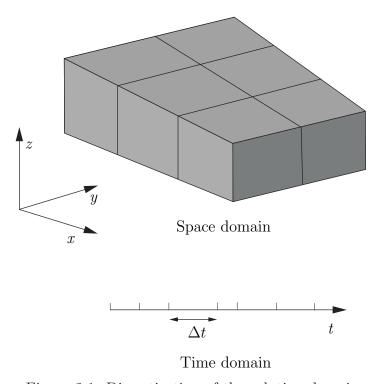


Figure 2.1: Discretisation of the solution domain

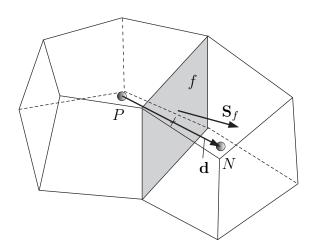


Figure 2.2: Parameters in finite volume discretisation

On a more detailed level, discretisation of space requires the subdivision of the domain into a number of cells, or control volumes. The cells are contiguous, *i.e.* they do not overlap one another and completely fill the domain. A typical cell is shown in Figure 2.2. Dependent variables and other properties are principally stored at the cell centroid P although they

may be stored on faces or vertices. The cell is bounded by a set of flat faces, given the generic label f. In OpenFOAM there is no limitation on the number of faces bounding each cell, nor any restriction on the alignment of each face. This kind of mesh is often referred to as "arbitrarily unstructured" to differentiate it from meshes in which the cell faces have a prescribed alignment, typically with the coordinate axes. Codes with arbitrarily unstructured meshes offer greater freedom in mesh generation and manipulation in particular when the geometry of the domain is complex or changes over time.

Whilst most properties are defined at the cell centroids, some are defined at cell faces. There are two types of cell face.

Internal faces Those faces that connect two cells (and it can never be more than two). For each internal face, OpenFOAM designates one adjoining cell to be the face owner and the other to be the neighbour;

Boundary faces Those belonging to one cell since they coincide with the boundary of the domain. These faces simply have an owner cell.

2.3.1 Defining a mesh in OpenFOAM

There are different levels of mesh description in OpenFOAM, beginning with the most basic mesh class, named polyMesh since it is based on polyhedra. A polyMesh is constructed using the minimum information required to define the mesh geometry described below and presented in Figure 2.3:

Points A list of cell vertex point coordinate vectors, *i.e.* a vectorField, that is renamed pointField using a typedef declaration;

Faces A list of cell faces List<face>, or faceList, where the face class is defined by a list of vertex numbers, corresponding to the pointField;

Cells a list of cells List<cell>, or cellList, where the cell class is defined by a list of face numbers, corresponding to the faceList described previously.

Boundary a polyBoundaryMesh decomposed into a list of patches, polyPatchList representing different regions of the boundary. The boundary is subdivided in this manner to allow different boundary conditions to be specified on different patches during a solution. All the faces of any polyPatch are stored as a single block of the faceList, so that its faces can be easily accessed using the slice class which stores references to the first and last face of the block. Each polyPatch is then constructed from

- a slice;
- a word to assign it a name.

FV discretisation uses specific data that is derived from the mesh geometry stored in polyMesh. OpenFOAM therefore extends the polyMesh class to fvMesh which stores the additional data needed for FV discretisation. fvMesh is constructed from polyMesh and stores the data in Table 2.1 which can be updated during runtime in cases where the mesh moves, is refined *etc.*.

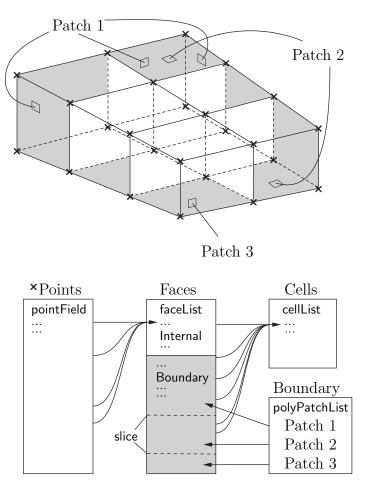


Figure 2.3: Schematic of the basic mesh description used in OpenFOAM

2.3.2 Defining a geometricField in OpenFOAM

So far we can define a field, *i.e.* a list of tensors, and a mesh. These can be combined to define a tensor field relating to discrete points in our domain, specified in OpenFOAM by the template class geometricField<Type>. The Field values are separated into those defined within the internal region of the domain, *e.g.* at the cell centres, and those defined on the domain boundary, *e.g.* on the boundary faces. The geometricField<Type> stores the following information:

Internal field This is simply a Field<Type>, described in Section 2.2.1;

BoundaryField This is a GeometricBoundaryField, in which a Field is defined for the faces of each patch and a Field is defined for the patches of the boundary. This is then a field of fields, stored within an object of the FieldField<Type> class. A reference to the fvBoundaryMesh is also stored [**].

Mesh A reference to an fvMesh, with some additional detail as to the whether the field is defined at cell centres, faces, etc..

Dimensions A dimensionSet, described in Section 4.2.6.

Old values Discretisation of time derivatives requires field data from previous time steps.

Class	Description	Symbol	Access function
volScalarField	Cell volumes	V	۷()
surfaceVectorField	Face area vectors	\mathbf{S}_f	Sf()
surfaceScalarField	Face area magnitudes	$ \mathbf{S}_f $	magSf()
volVectorField	Cell centres	\mathbf{C}	C()
surfaceVectorField	Face centres	\mathbf{C}_f	Cf()
surfaceScalarField	Face motion fluxes **	ϕ_g	phi()

Table 2.1: fvMesh stored data.

The geometricField<Type> will store references to stored fields from the previous, or old, time step and its previous, or old-old, time step where necessary.

Previous iteration values The iterative solution procedures can use under-relaxation which requires access to data from the previous iteration. Again, if required, geometricField<Type> stores a reference to the data from the previous iteration.

As discussed in Section 2.3, we principally define a property at the cell centres but quite often it is stored at the cell faces and on occasion it is defined on cell vertices. The geometricField<Type> is renamed using typedef declarations to indicate where the field variable is defined as follows:

volField<Type> A field defined at cell centres;

surfaceField<Type> A field defined on cell faces;

pointField<Type> A field defined on cell vertices.

These typedef field classes of geometricField<Type>are illustrated in Figure 2.4. A geometricField<Type> inherits all the tensor algebra of Field<Type> and has all operations subjected to dimension checking using the dimensionSet. It can also be subjected to the FV discretisation procedures described in the following Section. The class structure used to build geometricField<Type> is shown in Figure 2.5¹.

2.4 Equation discretisation

Equation discretisation converts the PDEs into a set of algebraic equations that are commonly expressed in matrix form as:

$$[A][x] = [b] \tag{2.12}$$

where [A] is a square matrix, [x] is the column vector of dependent variable and [b] is the source vector. The description of [x] and [b] as 'vectors' comes from matrix terminology rather than being a precise description of what they truly are: a list of values defined at locations in the geometry, i.e. a geometricField<Type>, or more specifically a volField<Type> when using FV discretisation.

¹The diagram is not an exact description of the class hierarchy, rather a representation of the general structure leading from some primitive classes to geometric<Type>Field.

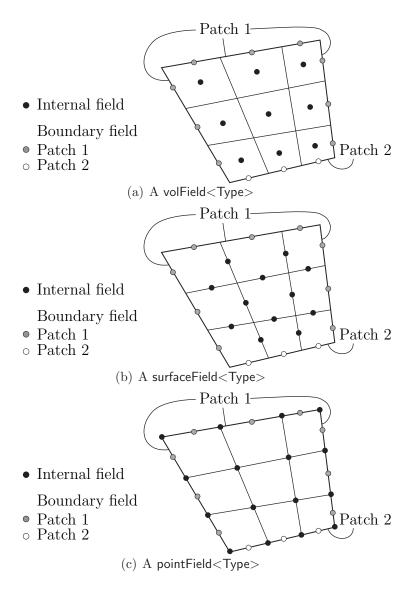


Figure 2.4: Types of geometricField<Type> defined on a mesh with 2 boundary patches (in 2 dimensions for simplicity)

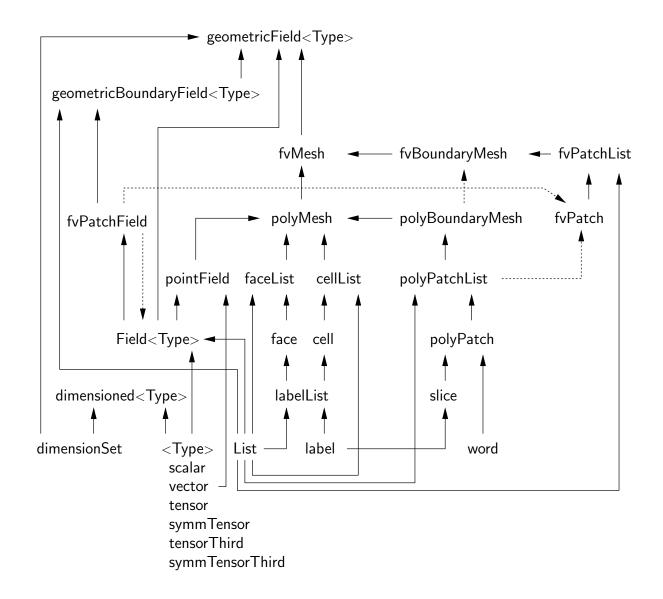


Figure 2.5: Basic class structure leading to geometricField<Type>

[A] is a list of coefficients of a set of algebraic equations, and cannot be described as a geometricField<Type>. It is therefore given a class of its own: fvMatrix. fvMatrix<Type> is created through discretisation of a geometric<Type>Field and therefore inherits the <Type>. It supports many of the standard algebraic matrix operations of addition +, subtraction - and multiplication *.

Each term in a PDE is represented individually in OpenFOAM code using the classes of static functions finiteVolumeMethod and finiteVolumeCalculus, abbreviated by a typedef to fvm and fvc respectively. fvm and fvc contain static functions, representing differential operators, e.g. ∇^2 , $\nabla \cdot$ and $\partial/\partial t$, that discretise geometricField<Type>s. The purpose of defining these functions within two classes, fvm and fvc, rather than one, is to distinguish:

- functions of fvm that calculate implicit derivatives of and return an fvMatrix<Type>
- some functions of fvc that calculate explicit derivatives and other explicit calculations, returning a geometricField<Type>.

Figure 2.6 shows a geometricField<Type> defined on a mesh with 2 boundary patches and illustrates the explicit operations merely transform one field to another and drawn in 2D for simplicity.

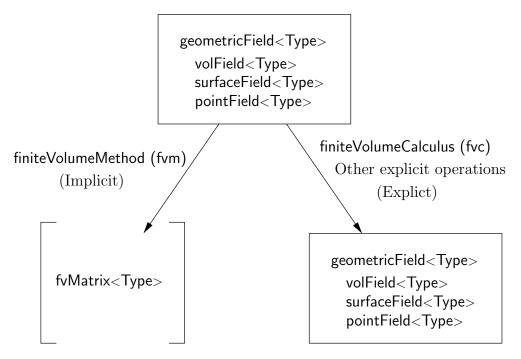


Figure 2.6: A geometricField<Type> and its operators

Table 2.2 lists the main functions that are available in fvm and fvc to discretise terms that may be found in a PDE. FV discretisation of each term is formulated by first integrating the term over a cell volume V. Most spatial derivative terms are then converted to integrals over the cell surface S bounding the volume using Gauss's theorem

$$\int_{V} \nabla \star \phi \ dV = \int_{S} d\mathbf{S} \star \phi \tag{2.13}$$

where **S** is the surface area vector, ϕ can represent any tensor field and the star notation \star is used to represent any tensor product, *i.e.* inner, outer and cross and the respective

Term description	Implicit /	Text	fvm::/fvc:: functions
	Explicit	expression	·
Laplacian	Imp/Exp	$ abla^2 \phi$	laplacian(phi)
		$ abla \cdot \Gamma abla \phi$	laplacian(Gamma, phi)
Time derivative	Imp/Exp	$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}$	ddt(phi)
		$\frac{\partial \rho \phi}{\partial t}$	ddt(rho,phi)
Second time derivative	Imp/Exp	$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\rho \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)$	d2dt2(rho, phi)
Convection	Imp/Exp	$\nabla \cdot (\psi)$	div(psi,scheme)*
		$\nabla \cdot (\psi \phi)$	div(psi, phi, word)*
			div(psi, phi)
Divergence	Exp	$\nabla \cdot \chi$	div(chi)
Gradient	Exp	$ abla \chi$	grad(chi)
		$ abla \phi$	gGrad(phi)
			lsGrad(phi)
			<pre>snGrad(phi)</pre>
			<pre>snGradCorrection(phi)</pre>
Grad-grad squared	Exp	$ \nabla\nabla\phi ^2$	sqrGradGrad(phi)
Curl	Exp	$\nabla \times \phi$	curl(phi)
Source	Imp	$\rho\phi$	Sp(rho,phi)
	$Imp/Exp\dagger$		SuSp(rho,phi)

†fvm::SuSp source is discretised implicit or explicit depending on the sign of rho. †An explicit source can be introduced simply as a vol<Type>Field, e.g.rho*phi. Function arguments can be of the following classes:

phi: vol<Type>Field

Gamma: scalar volScalarField, surfaceScalarField, volTensorField, surfaceTensorField.

rho: scalar, volScalarField psi: surfaceScalarField.

chi: surface<Type>Field, vol<Type>Field.

Table 2.2: Discretisation of PDE terms in OpenFOAM

derivatives: divergence $\nabla \cdot \phi$, gradient $\nabla \phi$ and $\nabla \times \phi$. Volume and surface integrals are then linearised using appropriate schemes which are described for each term in the following Sections. Some terms are always discretised using one scheme, a selection of schemes is offered in OpenFOAM for the discretisation of other terms. The choice of scheme is either made by a direct specification within the code or it can be read from an input file at job run-time and stored within an fvSchemes class object.

2.4.1 The Laplacian term

The Laplacian term is integrated over a control volume and linearised as follows:

$$\int_{V} \nabla \cdot (\Gamma \nabla \phi) \ dV = \int_{S} d\mathbf{S} \cdot (\Gamma \nabla \phi) = \sum_{f} \Gamma_{f} \mathbf{S}_{f} \cdot (\nabla \phi)_{f}$$
(2.14)

The face gradient discretisation is implicit when the length vector \mathbf{d} between the centre of the cell of interest P and the centre of a neighbouring cell N is orthogonal to the face plane, i.e. parallel to \mathbf{S}_f :

$$\mathbf{S}_f \bullet (\nabla \phi)_f = |S_f| \frac{\phi_N - \phi_P}{|\mathbf{d}|} \tag{2.15}$$

In the case of non-orthogonal meshes, an additional explicit term is introduced which is evaluated by interpolating cell centre gradients, themselves calculated by central differencing cell centre values.

2.4.2 The convection term

The convection term is integrated over a control volume and linearised as follows:

$$\int_{V} \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U}\phi) \ dV = \int_{S} d\mathbf{S} \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U}\phi) = \sum_{f} \mathbf{S}_{f} \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U})_{f} \phi_{f} = \sum_{f} F \phi_{f}$$
(2.16)

The face field ϕ_f can be evaluated using a variety of schemes:

Central differencing (CD) is second-order accurate but unbounded

$$\phi_f = f_x \phi_P + (1 - f_x) \phi_N \tag{2.17}$$

where $f_x \equiv \overline{fN}/\overline{PN}$ where \overline{fN} is the distance between f and cell centre N and \overline{PN} is the distance between cell centres P and N.

Upwind differencing (UD) determines ϕ_f from the direction of flow and is bounded at the expense of accuracy

$$\phi_f = \begin{cases} \phi_P & \text{for } F \ge 0\\ \phi_N & \text{for } F < 0 \end{cases}$$
 (2.18)

Blended differencing (BD) schemes combine UD and CD in an attempt to preserve boundedness with reasonable accuracy,

$$\phi_f = (1 - \gamma) \left(\phi_f\right)_{UD} + \gamma \left(\phi_f\right)_{CD} \tag{2.19}$$

OpenFOAM has several implementations of the Gamma differencing scheme to select the blending coefficient γ but it offers other well-known schemes such as van Leer, SUPERBEE, MINMOD etc.

2.4.3 First time derivative

The first time derivative $\partial/\partial t$ is integrated over a control volume as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{V} \rho \phi \ dV \tag{2.20}$$

The term is discretised by simple differencing in time using:

new values $\phi^n \equiv \phi(t + \Delta t)$ at the time step we are solving for;

old values $\phi^o \equiv \phi(t)$ that were stored from the previous time step;

old-old values $\phi^{oo} \equiv \phi(t - \Delta t)$ stored from a time step previous to the last.

One of two discretisation schemes can be declared using the timeScheme keyword in the appropriate input file, described in detail in section 4.4 of the User Guide.

Euler implicit scheme, timeScheme EulerImplicit, that is first order accurate in time:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{V} \rho \phi \ dV = \frac{(\rho_P \phi_P V)^n - (\rho_P \phi_P V)^o}{\Delta t} \tag{2.21}$$

Backward differencing scheme, timeScheme BackwardDifferencing, that is second order accurate in time by storing the old-old values and therefore with a larger overhead in data storage than EulerImplicit:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{V} \rho \phi \ dV = \frac{3 \left(\rho_P \phi_P V\right)^n - 4 \left(\rho_P \phi_P V\right)^o + \left(\rho_P \phi_P V\right)^{oo}}{2\Delta t} \tag{2.22}$$

2.4.4 Second time derivative

The second time derivative is integrated over a control volume and linearised as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{V} \rho \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} dV = \frac{(\rho_P \phi_P V)^n - 2(\rho_P \phi_P V)^o + (\rho_P \phi_P V)^{oo}}{\Delta t^2}$$
(2.23)

It is first order accurate in time.

2.4.5 Divergence

The divergence term described in this Section is strictly an explicit term that is distinguished from the convection term of Section 2.4.2, *i.e.* in that it is not the divergence of the product of a velocity and dependent variable. The term is integrated over a control volume and linearised as follows:

$$\int_{V} \nabla \cdot \phi \ dV = \int_{S} d\mathbf{S} \cdot \phi = \sum_{f} \mathbf{S}_{f} \cdot \phi_{f}$$
(2.24)

The fvc::div function can take as its argument either a surface<Type>Field, in which case ϕ_f is specified directly, or a vol<Type>Field which is interpolated to the face by central differencing as described in Section 2.4.10:

2.4.6 Gradient

The gradient term is an explicit term that can be evaluated in a variety of ways. The scheme can be evaluated either by selecting the particular grad function relevant to the discretisation scheme, e.g.fvc::gGrad, fvc::lsGrad etc., or by using the fvc::grad function combined with the appropriate timeScheme keyword in an input file

Gauss integration is invoked using the fvc::grad function with timeScheme Gauss or directly using the fvc::gGrad function. The discretisation is performed using the standard method of applying Gauss's theorem to the volume integral:

$$\int_{V} \nabla \phi \ dV = \int_{S} d\mathbf{S} \, \phi = \sum_{f} \mathbf{S}_{f} \phi_{f} \tag{2.25}$$

As with the fvc::div function, the Gaussian integration fvc::grad function can take either a surfaceField<Type> or a volField<Type> as an argument.

Least squares method is based on the following idea:

- 1. a value at point P can be extrapolated to neighbouring point N using the gradient at P:
- 2. the extrapolated value at N can be compared to the actual value at N, the difference being the error;
- 3. if we now minimise the sum of the square of weighted errors at all neighbours of *P* with the respect to the gradient, then the gradient should be a good approximation.

Least squares is invoked using the fvc::grad function with timeScheme leastSquares or directly using the fvc::lsGrad function. The discretisation is performed as by first calculating the tensor G at every point P by summing over neighbours N:

$$\mathbf{G} = \sum_{N} w_N^2 \mathbf{dd} \tag{2.26}$$

where **d** is the vector from P to N and the weighting function $w_N = 1/|\mathbf{d}|$. The gradient is then evaluated as:

$$(\nabla \phi)_P = \sum_N w_N^2 \mathbf{G}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{d} (\phi_N - \phi_P)$$
(2.27)

Surface normal gradient The gradient normal to a surface $\mathbf{n}_f \cdot (\nabla \phi)_f$ can be evaluated at cell faces using the scheme

$$(\nabla \phi)_f = \frac{\phi_N - \phi_P}{|\mathbf{d}|} \tag{2.28}$$

This gradient is called by the function fvc::snGrad and returns a surfaceField<Type>. The scheme is directly analogous to that evaluated for the Laplacian discretisation scheme in Section 2.4.1, and in the same manner, a correction can be introduced to improve the accuracy of this face gradient in the case of non-orthogonal meshes. This correction is called using the function fvc::snGradCorrection [Check**].

2.4.7 Grad-grad squared

The grad-grad squared term is evaluated by: taking the gradient of the field; taking the gradient of the resulting gradient field; and then calculating the magnitude squared of the result. The mathematical expression for grad-grad squared of ϕ is $|\nabla (\nabla \phi)|^2$.

2.4.8 Curl

The curl is evaluated from the gradient term described in Section 2.4.6. First, the gradient is discretised and then the curl is evaluated using the relationship from Equation 2.7, repeated here for convenience

$$\nabla \times \phi = 2 * (\text{skew } \nabla \phi)$$

2.4.9 Source terms

Source terms can be specified in 3 ways

Explicit Every explicit term is a volField<Type>. Hence, an explicit source term can be incorporated into an equation simply as a field of values. For example if we wished to solve Poisson's equation $\nabla^2 \phi = f$, we would define phi and f as volScalarField and then do

Implicit An implicit source term is integrated over a control volume and linearised by

$$\int_{V} \rho \phi \ dV = \rho_P V_P \phi_P \tag{2.29}$$

Implicit/Explicit The implicit source term changes the coefficient of the diagonal of the matrix. Depending on the sign of the coefficient and matrix terms, this will either increase or decrease diagonal dominance of the matrix. Decreasing the diagonal dominance could cause instability during iterative solution of the matrix equation. Therefore OpenFOAM provides a mixed source discretisation procedure that is implicit when the coefficients that are greater than zero, and explicit for the coefficients less than zero. In mathematical terms the matrix coefficient for node P is $V_P \max(\rho_P, 0)$ and the source term is $V_P \phi_P \min(\rho_P, 0)$.

2.4.10 Other explicit discretisation schemes

There are some other discretisation procedures that convert volField<Type>s into surface<Type>Fields and visa versa.

Surface integral fvc::surfaceIntegrate performs a summation of surface<Type>Field face values bounding each cell and dividing by the cell volume, i.e. $(\sum_f \phi_f)/V_P$. It returns a volField<Type>.

Surface sum fvc::surfaceSum performs a summation of surface
Type>Field face values bounding each cell, i.e. $\sum_f \phi_f$ returning a volField
Type>.

Average fvc::average produces an area weighted average of surface<Type>Field face values, i.e. $(\sum_f S_f \phi_f) / \sum_f S_f$, and returns a volField<Type>.

Reconstruct

Face interpolate The geometric<Type>Field function faceInterpolate() interpolates volField<Type> cell centre values to cell faces using central differencing, returning a surface<Type>Field.

2.5 Temporal discretisation

Although we have described the discretisation of temporal derivatives in Sections 2.4.3 and 2.4.4, we need to consider how to treat the spatial derivatives in a transient problem. If we denote all the spatial terms as $\mathcal{A}\phi$ where \mathcal{A} is any spatial operator, e.g. Laplacian, then we can express a transient PDE in integral form as

$$\int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{V} \rho \phi \ dV + \int_{V} \mathcal{A}\phi \ dV \right] \ dt = 0$$
 (2.30)

Using the Euler implicit method of Equation 2.21, the first term can be expressed as

$$\int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{V} \rho \phi \ dV \right] dt = \int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \frac{(\rho_{P} \phi_{P} V)^{n} - (\rho_{P} \phi_{P} V)^{o}}{\Delta t} dt$$

$$= \frac{(\rho_{P} \phi_{P} V)^{n} - (\rho_{P} \phi_{P} V)^{o}}{\Delta t} \Delta t \tag{2.31}$$

The second term can be expressed as

$$\int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \left[\int_{V} \mathcal{A}\phi \ dV \right] \ dt = \int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \mathcal{A}^{*}\phi \ dt \tag{2.32}$$

where \mathcal{A}^* represents the spatial discretisation of \mathcal{A} . The time integral can be discretised in three ways:

Euler implicit uses implicit discretisation of the spatial terms, thereby taking current values ϕ^n .

$$\int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \mathcal{A}^* \phi \ dt = \mathcal{A}^* \phi^n \Delta t \tag{2.33}$$

It is first order accurate in time, guarantees boundedness and is unconditionally stable.

Explicit uses explicit discretisation of the spatial terms, thereby taking old values ϕ^o .

$$\int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \mathcal{A}^* \phi \ dt = \mathcal{A}^* \phi^o \Delta t \tag{2.34}$$

It is first order accurate in time and is unstable if the Courant number Co is greater than 1. The Courant number is defined as

$$Co = \frac{\mathbf{U}_f \cdot \mathbf{d}}{|\mathbf{d}|^2 \Delta t} \tag{2.35}$$

where \mathbf{U}_f is a characteristic velocity, e.g. velocity of a wave front, velocity of flow.

Crank Nicholson uses the trapezoid rule to discretise the spatial terms, thereby taking a mean of current values ϕ^n and old values ϕ^o .

$$\int_{t}^{t+\Delta t} \mathcal{A}^* \phi \ dt = \mathcal{A}^* \left(\frac{\phi^n + \phi^o}{2} \right) \Delta t \tag{2.36}$$

It is second order accurate in time, is unconditionally stable but does not guarantee boundedness.

2.5.1 Treatment of temporal discretisation in OpenFOAM

At present the treatment of the temporal discretisation is controlled by the implementation of the spatial derivatives in the PDE we wish to solve. For example, let us say we wish to solve a transient diffusion equation

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \kappa \nabla^2 \phi \tag{2.37}$$

An Euler implicit implementation of this would read

```
solve(fvm::ddt(phi) == kappa*fvm::laplacian(phi))
```

where we use the fvm class to discretise the Laplacian term implicitly. An explicit implementation would read

```
solve(fvm::ddt(phi) == kappa*fvc::laplacian(phi))
```

where we now use the fvc class to discretise the Laplacian term explicitly. The Crank Nicholson scheme can be implemented by the mean of implicit and explicit terms:

```
solve
   (
   fvm::ddt(phi)
   ==
   kappa*0.5*(fvm::laplacian(phi) + fvc::laplacian(phi))
   )
```

2.6 Boundary Conditions

Boundary conditions are required to complete the problem we wish to solve. We therefore need to specify boundary conditions on all our boundary faces. Boundary conditions can be divided into 2 types:

Dirichlet prescribes the value of the dependent variable on the boundary and is therefore termed 'fixed value' in this guide;

Neumann prescribes the gradient of the variable normal to the boundary and is therefore termed 'fixed gradient' in this guide.

When we perform discretisation of terms that include the sum over faces \sum_f , we need to consider what happens when one of the faces is a boundary face.

Fixed value We specify a fixed value at the boundary ϕ_b

- We can simply substitute ϕ_b in cases where the discretisation requires the value on a boundary face ϕ_f , e.g. in the convection term in Equation 2.16.
- In terms where the face gradient $(\nabla \phi)_f$ is required, e.g. Laplacian, it is calculated using the boundary face value and cell centre value,

$$\mathbf{S}_f \bullet (\nabla \phi)_f = |S_f| \frac{\phi_b - \phi_P}{|\mathbf{d}|} \tag{2.38}$$

Fixed gradient The fixed gradient boundary condition g_b is a specification on inner product of the gradient and unit normal to the boundary, or

$$g_b = \left(\frac{\mathbf{S}}{|\mathbf{S}|} \bullet \nabla \phi\right)_f \tag{2.39}$$

• When discretisation requires the value on a boundary face ϕ_f we must interpolate the cell centre value to the boundary by

$$\phi_f = \phi_P + \mathbf{d} \cdot (\nabla \phi)_f$$

$$= \phi_P + |\mathbf{d}| g_b$$
(2.40)

• ϕ_b can be directly substituted in cases where the discretisation requires the face gradient to be evaluated,

$$\mathbf{S}_f \bullet (\nabla \phi)_f = |S_f| \, g_b \tag{2.41}$$

2.6.1 Physical boundary conditions

The specification of boundary conditions is usually an engineer's interpretation of the true behaviour. Real boundary conditions are generally defined by some physical attributes rather than the numerical description as described of the previous Section. In incompressible fluid flow there are the following physical boundaries

Inlet The velocity field at the inlet is supplied and, for consistency, the boundary condition on pressure is zero gradient.

Outlet The pressure field at the outlet is supplied and a zero gradient boundary condition on velocity is specified.

No-slip impermeable wall The velocity of the fluid is equal to that of the wall itself, *i.e.* a fixed value condition can be specified. The pressure is specified zero gradient since the flux through the wall is zero.

In a problem whose solution domain and boundary conditions are symmetric about a plane, we only need to model half the domain to one side of the symmetry plane. The boundary condition on the plane must be specified according to

Symmetry plane The symmetry plane condition specifies the component of the gradient normal to the plane should be zero. [Check**]

Chapter 3

Examples of the use of OpenFOAM

In this section we shall describe several test cases supplied with the OpenFOAM distribution. The intention is to provide example cases, including those in the tutorials in chapter 2 of the User Guide, for every standard solver. The examples are designed to introduce certain tools and features of OpenFOAM, e.g. within pre-/post-processing, numerical schemes, algorithms. They also provide a means for validation of solvers although that is not their principal function.

Each example contains a description of the problem: the geometry, initial and boundary conditions, a brief description of the equations being solved, models used, and physical properties required. The solution domain is selected which may be a portion of the original geometry, e.g. if we introduce symmetry planes. The method of meshing, usually blockMesh, is specified; of course the user can simply view the mesh since every example is distributed with the polyMesh directory containing the data files that describe the mesh.

The examples coexist with the tutorials in the *tutorials* subdirectory of the OpenFOAM installation. They are organised into a set of subdirectories by solver, *e.g.* all the icoFoam cases are stored within a subdirectory *icoFoam*. Before running a particular example, the user is urged to copy it into their user account. We recommend that the user stores all OpenFOAM cases in a directory we recommend that the tutorials are copied into a directory \$FOAM_RUN. If this directory structure has not yet been created in the user's account, it can be created with

```
mkdir -p $FOAM_RUN
```

The tutorials can then be copied into this directory with

```
cp -r $FOAM_TUTORIALS/* $FOAM_RUN
```

3.1 Flow around a cylinder

In this example we shall investigate potential flow around a cylinder using potentialFoam. This example introduces the following OpenFOAM features:

- non-orthogonal meshes;
- generating an analytical solution to a problem in OpenFOAM.

3.1.1 Problem specification

The problem is defined as follows:

Solution domain The domain is 2 dimensional and consists of a square domain with a cylinder collocated with the centre of the square as shown in Figure 3.1.

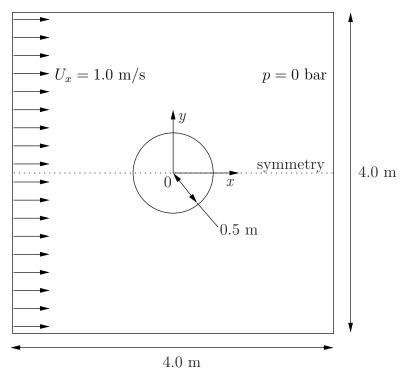


Figure 3.1: Geometry of flow round a cylinder

Governing equations

• Mass continuity for an incompressible fluid

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{U} = 0 \tag{3.1}$$

• Pressure equation for an incompressible, irrotational fluid assuming steady-state conditions

$$\nabla^2 p = 0 \tag{3.2}$$

Boundary conditions

- Inlet (left) with fixed velocity $\mathbf{U} = (1, 0, 0) \text{ m/s}$.
- Outlet (right) with a fixed pressure p = 0 Pa.
- No-slip wall (bottom);
- Symmetry plane (top).

Initial conditions U = 0 m/s, p = 0 Pa — required in OpenFOAM input files but not necessary for the solution since the problem is steady-state.

Solver name potentialFoam: a potential flow code, *i.e.* assumes the flow is incompressible, steady, irrotational, inviscid and it ignores gravity.

Case name cylinder case located in the \$FOAM_TUTORIALS/potentialFoam directory.

3.1.2 Note on potentialFoam

potentialFoam is a useful solver to validate OpenFOAM since the assumptions of potential flow are such that an analytical solution exists for cases whose geometries are relatively simple. In this example of flow around a cylinder an analytical solution exists with which we can compare our numerical solution. potentialFoam can also be run more like a utility to provide a (reasonably) conservative initial U field for a problem. When running certain cases, this can useful for avoiding instabilities due to the initial field being unstable. In short, potentialFoam creates a conservative field from a non-conservative initial field supplied by the user.

3.1.3 Mesh generation

Mesh generation using blockMesh has been described in tutorials in the User Guide. In this case, the mesh consists of 10 blocks as shown in Figure 3.2. Remember that all meshes

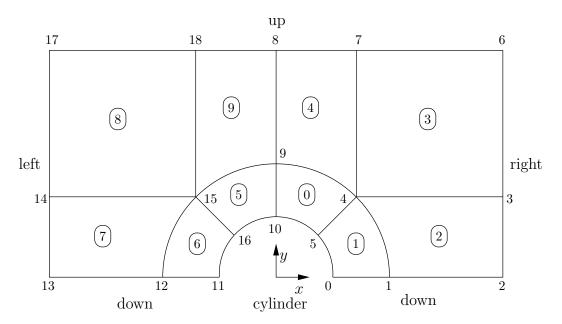


Figure 3.2: Blocks in cylinder geometry

are treated as 3 dimensional in OpenFOAM. If we wish to solve a 2 dimensional problem, we must describe a 3 dimensional mesh that is only one cell thick in the third direction that is not solved. In Figure 3.2 we show only the back plane of the geometry, along z = -0.5, in which the vertex numbers are numbered 0-18. The other 19 vertices in the front plane, z = +0.5, are numbered in the same order as the back plane, as shown in the mesh description file below:

```
2
                                      OpenFOAM: The Open Source CFD Toolbox
                   F ield
3
4
                   O peration
                                      Version:
                                                 1.7.1
                                                 www.OpenFOAM.org
5
                   A nd
                   M anipulation
6
    FoamFile
8
9
         version
                      2.0;
10
                      ascii:
         format
11
         class
                      dictionary;
12
```

```
blockMeshDict;
13
            object
14
15
16
      convertToMeters 1;
17
18
19
      vertices
20
            (0.5 \ 0 \ -0.5)
21
            (1 0 -0.5)
(2 0 -0.5)
22
23
            (2 0.707107 -0.5)
(0.707107 0.707107 -0.5)
^{24}
25
            (0.353553 0.353553 -0.5)
(2 2 -0.5)
(0.707107 2 -0.5)
26
27
28
            (0 2 -0.5)
(0 1 -0.5)
29
30
            (0\ 0.5\ -0.5)
            (-0.5\ 0\ -0.5)
32
            (-1 \ 0 \ -0.5)
33
            (-2 \ 0 \ -0.5)
34
            (-2 0.707107 -0.5)
(-0.707107 0.707107 -0.5)
(-0.353553 0.353553 -0.5)
35
36
37
            (-2\ 2\ -0.5)
38
            (-0.7071072 -0.5)
39
            (0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5)
40
            (1 0 0.5)
(2 0 0.5)
(2 0.707107 0.5)
(0.707107 0.707107 0.5)
(0.353553 0.353553 0.5)
41
42
43
44
45
            (2 2 0.5)
(0.707107 2 0.5)
46
47
            (0 2 0.5)
(0 1 0.5)
48
49
50
            (0\ 0.5\ 0.5)
            (-0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5)
51
            (-1 \ 0 \ 0.5)
52
            (-2 0 0.5)
(-2 0.707107 0.5)
(-0.707107 0.707107 0.5)
53
54
55
            (-0.353553 0.353553 0.5)
56
            (-2\ 2\ 0.5)
57
            (-0.707107 2 0.5)
58
      );
59
60
      blocks
61
62
            hex (5 4 9 10 24 23 28 29) (10 10 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
63
            hex (0 1 4 5 19 20 23 24) (10 10 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
64
            hex (1 2 3 4 20 21 22 23)
                                                  (20 10 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
65
            hex (4 3 6 7 23 22 25 26)
                                                  (20 20 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
66
            hex (9 4 7 8 28 23 26 27) (10 20 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
67
            hex (15 16 10 9 34 35 29 28) (10 10 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
68
            hex (12 11 16 15 31 30 35 34) (10 10 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
69
            hex (13 12 15 14 32 31 34 33) (20 10 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
70
            hex (14 15 18 17 33 34 37 36) (20 20 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
71
            hex (15 9 8 18 34 28 27 37) (10 20 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
72
73
      );
      edges
75
76
      (
            arc 0 5 (0.469846 0.17101 -0.5)
77
           arc 5 10 (0.17101 0.469846 -0.5)
arc 1 4 (0.939693 0.34202 -0.5)
78
79
           arc 4 9 (0.34202 0.939693 -0.5)
arc 19 24 (0.469846 0.17101 0.5)
arc 24 29 (0.17101 0.469846 0.5)
80
           arc 19 24
arc 24 29
arc 20 23
81
                          (0.939693 0.34202 0.5)
83
                           (0.34202 0.939693 0.5)
            arc
84
           arc 16 10 (-0.469846 0.17101 -0.5)
arc 16 10 (-0.17101 0.469846 -0.5)
arc 12 15 (-0.939693 0.34202 -0.5)
arc 15 9 (-0.34202 0.939693 -0.5)
arc 30 35 (-0.469846 0.17101 0.5)
85
86
87
89
                           (-0.17101 \ 0.469846 \ 0.5)
90
                          (-0.939693 0.34202 0.5)
91
```

```
arc 34 28 (-0.34202 0.939693 0.5)
92
93
94
     patches
95
96
          symmetryPlane down
97
98
               (0 1 20 19)
(1 2 21 20)
(12 11 30 31)
99
100
101
               (13 12 31 32)
102
103
          patch right
104
105
               (2 3 22 21)
(3 6 25 22)
106
107
108
          symmetryPlane up
109
               (7 8 27 26)
(6 7 26 25)
(8 18 37 27)
111
112
113
               (18 17 36 37)
114
115
          patch left
116
117
               (14 13 32 33)
(17 14 33 36)
118
119
120
          symmetryPlane cylinder
121
122
               (10 5 24 29)
123
               (5 0 19 24)
(16 10 29 35)
124
125
               (11 16 35 30)
127
     );
128
129
     mergePatchPairs
130
131
     );
132
133
```

3.1.4 Boundary conditions and initial fields

Using FoamX or editing case files by hand, set the boundary conditions in accordance with the problem description in Figure 3.1, *i.e.* the left boundary should be an Inlet, the right boundary should be an Outlet and the down and cylinder boundaries should be symmetryPlane. The top boundary conditions is chosen so that we can make the most genuine comparison with our analytical solution which uses the assumption that the domain is infinite in the y direction. The result is that the normal gradient of U is small along a plane coinciding with our boundary. We therefore impose the condition that the normal component is zero, *i.e.* specify the boundary as a symmetryPlane, thereby ensuring that the comparison with the analytical is reasonable.

3.1.5 Running the case

No fluid properties need be specified in this problem since the flow is assumed to be incompressible and inviscid. In the *system* subdirectory, the *controlDict* specifies the control parameters for the run. Note that since we assume steady flow, we only run for 1 time step:

```
\\/
                  M anipulation |
6
    FoamFile
8
9
                     2.0;
ascii;
        version
10
11
        format
        class
                     dictionary;
13
        location
                     "system"
                     controlDict:
        object
14
15
16
17
    application
                     potentialFoam;
18
19
    startFrom
                     startTime;
21
    startTime
                     0;
22
23
    stopAt
                     endTime;
24
25
    endTime
                     1;
26
27
    deltaT
                     1;
28
29
    writeControl
                     timeStep;
30
31
32
    writeInterval
                     1;
33
    purgeWrite
34
35
    writeFormat
                     ascii;
36
37
    writePrecision
38
39
    writeCompression uncompressed;
40
41
    timeFormat
                     general;
42
43
    timePrecision
45
    runTimeModifiable yes;
46
47
48
    // ***********************************//
```

potentialFoam executes an iterative loop around the pressure equation which it solves in order that explicit terms relating to non-orthogonal correction in the Laplacian term may be updated in successive iterations. The number of iterations around the pressure equation is controlled by the nNonOrthogonalCorrectors keyword in *controlDict*. In the first instance we can set nNonOrthogonalCorrectors to 0 so that no loops are performed, *i.e.* the pressure equation is solved once, and there is no non-orthogonal correction. The solution is shown in Figure 3.3(a) (at t=1, when the steady-state simulation is complete). We expect the solution to show smooth streamlines passing across the domain as in the analytical solution in Figure 3.3(c), yet there is clearly some error in the regions where there is high non-orthogonality in the mesh, *e.g.* at the join of blocks 0, 1 and 3. The case can be run a second time with some non-orthogonal correction by setting nNonOrthogonalCorrectors to 3. The solution shows smooth streamlines with no significant error due to non-orthogonality as shown in Figure 3.3(b).

3.1.6 Generating the analytical solution

Source code is included in the $FOAM_TUTORIALS/potentialFoam/analyticalCylinder$ directory to generate the analytical solution for the potential flow case. The velocity at any point

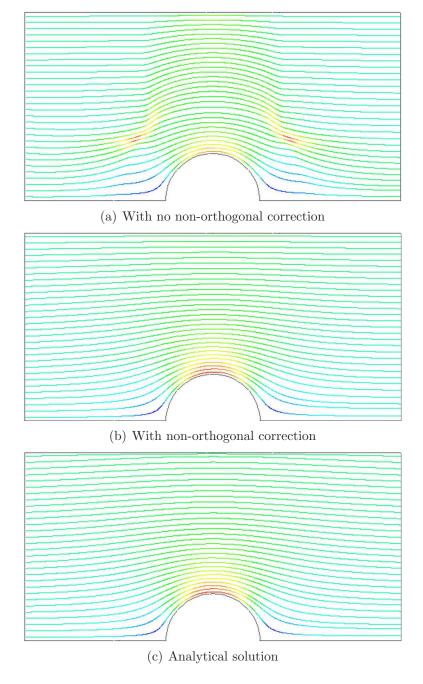


Figure 3.3: Streamlines of potential flow

at a distance d and angle θ from the cylinder centre is described analytically as

$$U_x = U_\infty \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{d} \right)^2 \cos 2\theta \right]$$

$$U_y = U_\infty \left(\frac{r}{d} \right)^2 \sin 2\theta \quad (3.3)$$

where r is the cylinder radius and U_{∞} is the inlet flow velocity. Here, θ describes the angle subtended from the x-axis.

Let us examine some details of the source code in the <code>analyticalCylinder</code> directory. In <code>createFields.H</code>, the velocity field is read in using the <code>IOobject::NO_WRITE</code> option to ensure that the field data can never be overwritten during execution of <code>analyticalCylinder</code>. The inlet velocity and cylinder radius are taken from data read from the mesh and a field <code>UA</code> is set up to store the analytical solution:

```
Info<< "Reading field U\n" << endl; volVectorField U
          IOobject
                "[]"
                runTime.timeName(),
               mesh.
                IOobject::MUST_READ,
9
                IOobject::NO_WRITE
10
11
          mesh
12
     );
13
14
     Info<< "Reading inlet velocity uInfX\n" << endl;</pre>
15
16
     dimensionedScalar uInfX
17
18
           "uInfx"
19
          dimensionSet(0, 1, -1, 0, 0),
U.boundaryField()[3][0].x()
20
21
     Info << "U at inlet = " << uInfX.value() << " m/s" << endl;</pre>
23
24
     dimensionedScalar radius
25
26
           "radius",
          dimensionSet(0, 1, 0, 0, 0),
mag(U.mesh().boundary()[4].Cf()[0])
28
29
30
31
     Info << "Cylinder radius = " << radius.value() << " m" << endl;</pre>
32
33
     volVectorField UA
34
35
          IOobject
36
37
                "UA"
38
                runTime.timeName(),
39
               mesh, IOobject::NO_READ, IOobject::AUTO_WRITE
40
41
42
          ),
U
43
     );
```

Thea main code analyticalCylinder. C performs the following tasks:

- increments the time step by runTime++;
- generates the analytical solution for field UA using tensor arithmetic;
- writes the solution to file by runTime.writeObjects().

```
2
                   F ield
                                    | OpenFOAM: The Open Source CFD Toolbox
3
                   O peration
4
                   A nd
                                    | Copyright (C) 1991-2010 OpenCFD Ltd.
5
6
                   M anipulation |
    License
8
         This file is part of OpenFOAM.
9
10
         OpenFOAM is free software: you can redistribute it and/or modify it under the terms of the GNU General Public License as published by the Free Software Foundation, either version 3 of the License, or
11
12
13
         (at your option) any later version.
14
15
         OpenFOAM is distributed in the hope that it will be useful, but WITHOUT ANY WARRANTY; without even the implied warranty of MERCHANTABILITY or FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE. See the GNU General Public License
16
17
18
         for more details.
19
20
         You should have received a copy of the GNU General Public License
21
         along with OpenFOAM. If not, see <a href="http://www.gnu.org/licenses/">http://www.gnu.org/licenses/</a>.
22
23
24
    Application
25
         analyticalCylinder
26
    Description
27
         Generates an analytical solution for potential flow around a cylinder.
28
         Can be compared with the solution from the potentialFlow/cylinder example.
29
30
31
32
    #include "fvCFD.H"
33
34
35
    36
37
    int main(int argc, char *argv[])
38
39
40
41
         include "setRootCase.H"
42
         include "createTime.H"
43
         include "createMesh.H"
44
         include "createFields.H"
45
46
    47
48
         Info << "\nEvaluating analytical solution" << endl;</pre>
49
50
         volVectorField centres = UA.mesh().C();
51
         volScalarField magCentres = mag(centres);
52
         volScalarField theta = acos((centres & vector(1,0,0))/magCentres);
53
         volVectorField cs2theta =
55
           cos(2*theta)*vector(1,0,0)
+ sin(2*theta)*vector(0,1,0);
56
57
58
         UA = uInfX*(dimensionedVector(vector(1,0,0))
59
60
           - pow((radius/magCentres),2)*cs2theta);
61
         runTime.write();
62
63
         Info<< "end" << endl;</pre>
64
65
         return 0;
66
67
    }
68
```

The utility must be compiled with wmake as normal. It can then be run by typing

analyticalCylinder \$FOAM_RUN/potentialFoam cylinder

The analytical solution is plotted as streamlines as shown in Figure 3.3(c). Note that differences in the analytical and numerical solutions at the top plane are due to the fact

that the analytical solution assumes an infinite boundary and the numerical solution specifies a zeroGradient boundary condition at that boundary.

3.1.7 Exercise

Investigate the accuracy of the numerical solution by implementing some measure of comparison between the numerical and analytical in analyticalCylinder.

3.2 Steady turbulent flow over a backward-facing step

In this example we shall investigate steady turbulent flow over a backward-facing step. The problem description is taken from one used by Pitz and Daily in an experimental investigation [**] against which the computed solution can be compared. This example introduces the following OpenFOAM features for the first time:

- generation of a mesh using blockMesh using full mesh grading capability;
- steady turbulent flow.

3.2.1 Problem specification

The problem is defined as follows:

Solution domain The domain is 2 dimensional, consisting of a short inlet, a backward-facing step and converging nozzle at outlet as shown in Figure 3.4.



Figure 3.4: Geometry of backward-facing step

Governing equations

• Mass continuity for incompressible flow

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{U} = 0 \tag{3.4}$$

• Steady flow momentum equation

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}) + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{R} = -\nabla p \tag{3.5}$$

where p is kinematic pressure and (in slightly over-simplistic terms) $\mathbf{R} = \nu_{eff} \nabla \mathbf{U}$ is the viscous stress term with an effective kinematic viscosity ν_{eff} , calculated from selected transport and turbulence models.

Initial conditions U = 0 m/s, p = 0 Pa — required in OpenFOAM input files but not necessary for the solution since the problem is steady-state.

Boundary conditions

- Inlet (left) with fixed velocity U = (10, 0, 0) m/s;
- Outlet (right) with fixed pressure p = 0 Pa;
- No-slip walls on other boundaries.

Transport properties

• Kinematic viscosity of air $\nu = \mu/\rho = 18.1 \times 10^{-6}/1.293 = 14.0 \ \mu m^2/s$

Turbulence model

- Standard $k \epsilon$;
- Coefficients: $C_{\mu} = 0.09$; $C_1 = 1.44$; $C_2 = 1.92$; $\alpha_k = 1$; $\alpha_{\epsilon} = 0.76923$.

Solver name simpleFoam: an implementation for steady incompressible flow.

Case name pitzDaily, located in the \$FOAM_TUTORIALS/simpleFoam directory.

The problem is solved using simpleFoam, so-called as it is an implementation for steady flow using the SIMPLE algorithm [**]. The solver has full access to all the turbulence models in the incompressibleTurbulenceModels library and the non-Newtonian models incompressibleTransportModels library of the standard OpenFOAM release.

3.2.2 Mesh generation

We expect that the flow in this problem is reasonably complex and an optimum solution will require grading of the mesh. In general, the regions of highest shear are particularly critical, requiring a finer mesh than in the regions of low shear. We can anticipate where high shear will occur by considering what the solution might be in advance of any calculation. At the inlet we have strong uniform flow in the x direction and, as it passes over the step, it generates shear on the fluid below, generating a vortex in the bottom half of the domain. The regions of high shear will therefore be close to the centreline of the domain and close to the walls.

The domain is subdivided into 12 blocks as shown in Figure 3.5.

The mesh is 3 dimensional, as always in OpenFOAM, so in Figure 3.5 we are viewing the back plane along z = -0.5. The full set of vertices and blocks are given in the mesh description file below:

```
2
                  F ield
                                  | OpenFOAM: The Open Source CFD Toolbox
3
                  O peration
                                  | Version: 1.7.1
                                               www.OpenFOAM.org
                  A nd
                                  | Web:
                  M anipulation |
    FoamFile
        version
                     2.0;
10
                     ascii;
        format
11
                     dictionary:
        class
12
                     blockMeshĎíct;
        object
13
```

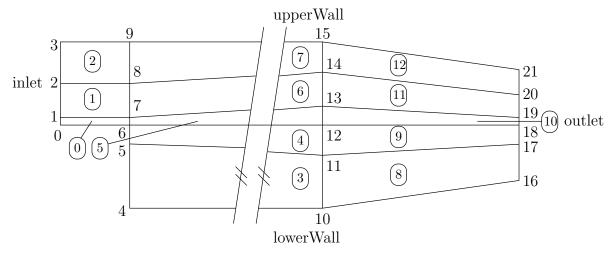


Figure 3.5: Blocks in backward-facing step

```
14
15
16
                convertToMeters 0.001;
 17
18
                vertices
19
                              (-20.6 0 -0.5)

(-20.6 3 -0.5)

(-20.6 12.7 -0.5)

(-20.6 25.4 -0.5)

(0 -25.4 -0.5)

(0 -5 -0.5)

(0 0 -0.5)

(0 12.7 -0.5)

(0 25.4 -0.5)

(206 -25.4 -0.5)

(206 -8.5 -0.5)

(206 0 -0.5)

(206 6.5 -0.5)

(206 17 -0.5)

(206 25.4 -0.5)

(206 25.4 -0.5)

(206 25.4 -0.5)
20
21
22
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
                               (290 -16.6 -0.5)
(290 -6.3 -0.5)
(290 0 -0.5)
37
38
39
                               (290 4.5 -0.5)
(290 11 -0.5)
(290 16.6 -0.5)
40
41
                              (290 16.6 -0.5)

(-20.6 0 0.5)

(-20.6 3 0.5)

(-20.6 12.7 0.5)

(-20.6 25.4 0.5)

(0 -25.4 0.5)

(0 -5 0.5)

(0 3 0.5)

(0 12.7 0.5)

(0 25.4 0.5)

(206 -25.4 0.5)

(206 -8.5 0.5)

(206 0 0.5)
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
                              (206 -8.5 0.5)
(206 0 0.5)
(206 6.5 0.5)
(206 17 0.5)
(206 25.4 0.5)
(290 -16.6 0.5)
(290 -6.3 0.5)
55
56
57
58
59
60
                               (290\ 0\ 0.5)
61
                               (290 4.5 0.5)
(290 11 0.5)
(290 16.6 0.5)
62
63
64
               );
65
66
               blocks
67
68
```

```
hex (0 6 7 1 22 28 29 23) (18 7 1) simpleGrading (0.5 1.8 1)
 69
            hex (1 7 8 2 23 29 30 24) (18 10 1) simpleGrading (0.5 4 1)
             hex (2 8 9 3 24 30 31 25) (18 13 1) simpleGrading (0.5 0.25 1)
 71
            hex (4 10 11 5 26 32 33 27) (180 18 1) simpleGrading (4 1 1)
            hex (5 11 12 6 27 33 34 28) (180 9 1) edgeGrading (4 4 4 4 0.5 1 1 0.5 1 1 1 1)
 73
            hex (6 12 13 7 28 34 35 29)
                                                    (180 7 1) edgeGrading (4 4 4 4 1.8 1 1 1.8 1 1 1)
 74
             hex (7 13 14 8 29 35 36 30) (180 10 1) edgeGrading (4 4 4 4 4 1 1 4 1 1 1 1)
 75
             hex (8 14 15 9 30 36 37 31) (180 13 1) simpleGrading (4 0.25 1)
 76
             hex (10 16 17 11 32 38 39 33) (25 18 1) simpleGrading (2.5 1 1)
 77
            hex (11 17 18 12 33 39 40 34) (25 9 1) simpleGrading (2.5 1 1)
 78
            hex (12 18 19 13 34 40 41 35) (25 7 1) simpleGrading (2.5 1 1)
 79
            hex (13 19 20 14 35 41 42 36) (25 10 1) simpleGrading (2.5 1 1)
 80
            hex (14 20 21 15 36 42 43 37) (25 13 1) simpleGrading (2.5 0.25 1)
 81
 82
       );
 83
       edges
 84
 85
       );
 86
 87
       patches
 88
 89
             patch inlet
 90
 91
                  (0 22 23 1)
(1 23 24 2)
(2 24 25 3)
 92
 93
 94
 95
             patch outlet
 96
 97
                  (16 17 39 38)
(17 18 40 39)
 98
 99
                  (17 18 40 39)
(18 19 41 40)
(19 20 42 41)
(20 21 43 42)
100
101
102
103
             wall upperWall
104
105
                   (3 25 31 9)
(9 31 37 15)
106
107
                   (15 37 43 21)
108
109
             wall lowerWall
110
111
                   (0 6 28
(6 5 27
                   (0 6 28 22)
(6 5 27 28)
(5 4 26 27)
112
113
114
                   (4 10 32 26)
115
                   (10 16 38 32)
116
117
             empty frontAndBack
118
119
                   (22 28 29 23)
                  (22 28 29 23)
(23 29 30 24)
(24 30 31 25)
(26 32 33 27)
(27 33 34 28)
(28 34 35 29)
(29 35 36 30)
(30 36 37 31)
(32 38 39 33)
(33 39 40 34)
(34 40 41 35)
(35 41 42 36)
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
                                34)
35)
36)
129
                  (34 40 41 3
(35 41 42 3
(36 42 43 3
(0 1 7 6)
(1 2 8 7)
(2 3 9 8)
(4 5 11 10)
(5 6 12 11)
(6 7 13 12)
(7 8 14 13)
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
                   (8 9
                   (8 9 15 14)
(10 11 17 16)
(11 12 18 17)
140
141
142
                       13 19 18)
14 20 19)
                   (12
143
                   (\bar{1}\bar{3}
144
                   (14 15 21 20)
```

A major feature of this problem is the use of the full mesh grading capability of blockMesh that is described in section 5.3.1 of the User Guide. The user can see that blocks 4,5 and 6 use the full list of 12 expansion ratios. The expansion ratios correspond to each edge of the block, the first 4 to the edges aligned in the local x_1 direction, the second 4 to the edges in the local x_2 direction and the last 4 to the edges in the local x_3 direction. In blocks 4, 5, and 6, the ratios are equal for all edges in the local x_1 and x_3 directions but not for the edges in the x_2 direction that corresponds in all blocks to the global y. If we consider the ratios used in relation to the block definition in section 5.3.1 of the User Guide, we realize that different gradings have been prescribed along the left and right edges in blocks 4,5 and 6 in Figure 3.5. The purpose of this differential grading is to generate a fine mesh close to the most critical region of flow, the corner of the step, and allow it to expand into the rest of the domain.

The mesh can be generated using blockMesh from the command line or from within FoamX and viewed as described in previous examples.

3.2.3 Boundary conditions and initial fields

The case files can be viewed, or edited from within FoamX or by hand. In this case, we are required to set the initial and boundary fields for velocity \mathbf{U} , pressure p, turbulent kinetic energy k and dissipation rate ε . The boundary conditions can be specified by setting the physical patch types in FoamX: the upper and lower walls are set to Wall, the left patch to Inlet and the right patch to Outlet. These physical boundary conditions require us to specify a fixedValue at the inlet on \mathbf{U} , k and ε . \mathbf{U} is given in the problem specification, but the values of k and ε must be chosen by the user in a similar manner to that described in section 2.1.8.1 of the User Guide. We assume that the inlet turbulence is isotropic and estimate the fluctuations to be 5% of \mathbf{U} at the inlet. We have

$$U'_x = U'_y = U'_z = \frac{5}{100} 10 = 0.5 \text{ m/s}$$
 (3.6)

and

$$k = \frac{3}{2}(0.5)^2 = 0.375 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$$
 (3.7)

If we estimate the turbulent length scale l to be 10% of the width of the inlet then

$$\varepsilon = \frac{C_{\mu}^{0.75} k^{1.5}}{l} = \frac{0.09^{0.75} 0.375^{1.5}}{0.1 \times 25.4 \times 10^{-3}} = 14.855 \,\mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{s}^3$$
(3.8)

At the outlet we need only specify the pressure p = 0Pa.

3.2.4 Case control

The choices of *fvSchemes* are as follows: the timeScheme should be SteadyState; the gradScheme and laplacianScheme should be set as default to Gauss; and, the divScheme should be set to UD to ensure boundedness.

Special attention should be paid to the settings of *fvTolerances*. Although the top level simpleFoam code contains only equations for p and \mathbf{U} , the turbulent model solves equations for k, ε and \mathbf{R} , and tolerance settings are required for all 5 equations. A solverTolerance of 10^{-5} and solverRelativeTolerance of 0.1 are acceptable for all variables with the exception of p when 10^{-6} and 0.01 are recommended. Under-relaxation of the solution is required since the problem is steady. A relaxationFactor of 0.7 is acceptable for \mathbf{U} , k, ε and \mathbf{R} but 0.3 is required for p to avoid numerical instability.

Finally, in *controlDict*, the time step deltaT should be set to 1 since in steady state cases such as this is effectively an iteration counter. With benefit of hindsight we know that the solution requires 1000 iterations reach reasonable convergence, hence endTime is set to 1000. Ensure that the writeFrequency is sufficiently high, e.g. 50, that you will not fill the hard disk with data during run time.

3.2.5 Running the case and post-processing

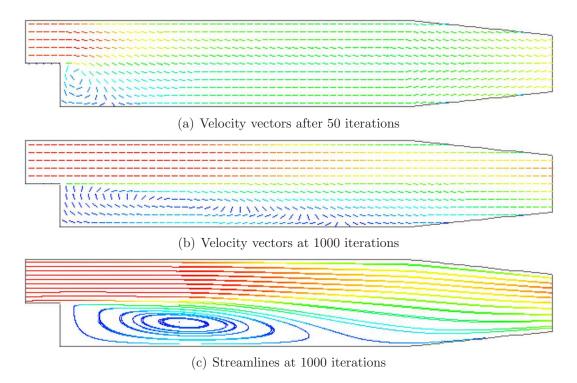


Figure 3.6: Development of a vortex in the backward-facing step.

Run the case and post-process the results. After a few iterations, e.g. 50, a vortex develops beneath the corner of the step that is the height of the step but narrow in the x-direction as shown by the vector plot of velocities is shown Figure 3.6(a). Over several iterations the vortex stretches in the x-direction from the step to the outlet until at 1000 iterations the system reaches a steady-state in which the vortex is fully developed as shown in Figure 3.6(b-c).

3.3 Supersonic flow over a forward-facing step

In this example we shall investigate supersonic flow over a forward-facing step. The problem description involves a flow of Mach 3 at an inlet to a rectangular geometry with a step near

the inlet region that generates shock waves.

This example introduces the following OpenFOAM features for the first time:

• supersonic flow;

3.3.1 Problem specification

The problem is defined as follows:

Solution domain The domain is 2 dimensional and consists of a short inlet section followed by a forward-facing step of 20% the height of the section as shown in Figure 3.7

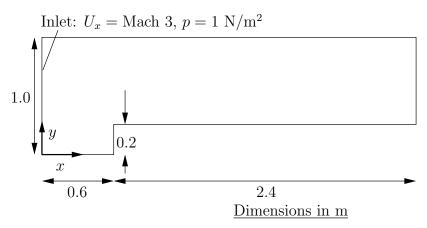


Figure 3.7: Geometry of the forward step geometry

Governing equations

• Mass continuity

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U}) = 0 \tag{3.9}$$

• Ideal gas

$$p = \rho RT \tag{3.10}$$

• Momentum equation for Newtonian fluid

$$\frac{\partial \rho \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}) - \nabla \cdot \mu \nabla \mathbf{U} = -\nabla p \tag{3.11}$$

• Energy equation for fluid (ignoring some viscous terms), $e = C_v T$, with Fourier's Law $\mathbf{q} = -k \nabla T$

$$\frac{\partial \rho e}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U} e) - \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{k}{C_v}\right) \nabla e = p \nabla \cdot \mathbf{U}$$
(3.12)

Initial conditions U = 0 m/s, p = 1 Pa, T = 1 K.

Boundary conditions

- Inlet (left) with fixedValue for velocity U = 3 m/s = Mach 3, pressure p = 1 Pa and temperature T = 1 K;
- Outlet (right) with zeroGradient on U, p and T;
- No-slip adiabatic wall (bottom);
- Symmetry plane (top).

Transport properties

• Dynamic viscosity of air $\mu = 18.1 \mu Pa s$

Thermodynamic properties

- Specific heat at constant volume $C_v = 1.78571 \text{ J/kg K}$
- Gas constant R = 0.714286 J/kg K
- Conductivity $k = 32.3 \, \mu \text{W/m K}$

Case name forwardStep case located in the \$FOAM_TUTORIALS/sonicFoam directory.

Solver name sonicFoam: an implementation for compressible trans-sonic/supersonic laminar gas flow.

The case is designed such that the speed of sound of the gas $c = \sqrt{\gamma RT} = 1$ m/s, the consequence being that the velocities are directly equivalent to the Mach number, e.g. the inlet velocity of 3 m/s is equivalent to Mach 3. This speed of sound calculation can be verified using the relationship for a perfect gas, $C_p - Cv = R$, i.e. the ratio of specific heats

$$\gamma = C_p/C_v = \frac{R}{C_v} + 1 \tag{3.13}$$

3.3.2 Mesh generation

The mesh used in this case is relatively simple, specified with uniform rectangular cells of length 0.06 m in the x direction and 0.05 m in the y direction. The geometry can simply be divided into 3 blocks, one below the top of the step, and two above the step, one either side of the step front. The full set of vertices and blocks are given in the mesh description file below:

```
---*- C++ -*-----*\
2
3
               F ield
                              OpenFOAM: The Open Source CFD Toolbox
                              | Version: 1.7.1
4
                O peration
                                          www.OpenFOAM.org
                                Web:
5
6
   FoamFile
9
10
       version
       format
11
       class
                   dictionary
12
                   blockMeshDict;
   convertToMeters 1;
17
18
   vertices
19
20
```

```
(0 0 -0.05)
(0.6 0 -0.05)
(0 0.2 -0.05)
21
22
23
          (0.6 0.2 -0.05)
(3 0.2 -0.05)
24
25
               -0.05)
1 -0.05)
26
27
                -0.05)
28
          (3 1 -0.05)
(0 0 0.05)
(0.6 0 0.05)
(0 0.2 0.05)
(0.6 0.2 0.05)
(3 0.2 0.05)
29
30
32
33
          (0 1 0.05)
(0.6 1 0.05)
34
35
          (3 1 0.05)
36
     );
38
     blocks
39
40
          hex (0 1 3 2 8 9 11 10) (25 10 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
41
          hex (2 3 6 5 10 11 14 13) (25 40 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
42
          hex (3 4 7 6 11 12 15 14) (100 40 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
43
     );
44
45
     edges
46
47
     );
48
49
50
     patches
51
          patch inlet
52
53
               (0 \ 8 \ 10 \ 2)
54
               (2\ 10\ 13\ 5)
55
56
          patch outlet
57
58
               (471512)
59
60
          symmetryPlane bottom
61
62
               (0 1 9 8)
63
64
          symmetryPlane top
65
66
               (5 13 14 6)
(6 14 15 7)
67
68
69
          patch obstacle
70
71
               (1 3 11 9)
(3 4 12 11)
72
73
74
     );
75
76
     mergePatchPairs
77
78
     ();
79
80
```

3.3.3 Running the case

The case approaches a steady-state at some time after 5 s. The results for pressure at 10 s are shown in Figure 3.8. The results clearly show discontinuities in pressure, i.e. shock waves, emanating from ahead of the base of the step.

3.3.4 Exercise

The user can examine the effect on the solution of increasing the inlet velocity.

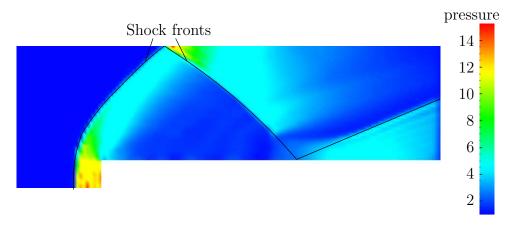


Figure 3.8: Shock fronts in the forward step problem

3.4 Decompression of a tank internally pressurised with water

In this example we shall investigate a problem of rapid opening of a pipe valve close to a pressurised liquid-filled tank. The prominent feature of the result in such cases is the propagation of pressure waves which must therefore be modelled as a compressible liquid.

This tutorial introduces the following OpenFOAM features for the first time:

- Mesh refinement
- Pressure waves in liquids

3.4.1 Problem specification

Solution domain The domain is 2 dimensional and consists of a tank with a small outflow pipe as shown in Figure 3.9

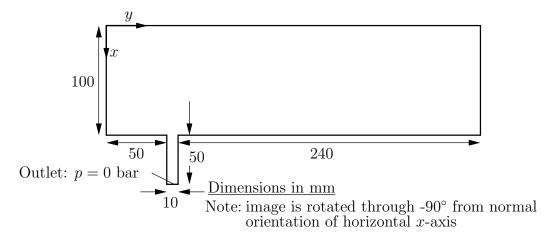


Figure 3.9: Geometry of a tank with outflow pipe

Governing equations This problem requires a model for compressibility ψ in the fluid in order to be able to resolve waves propagating at a finite speed. A barotropic relationship is used to relate density ρ and pressure p are related to ψ .

• Mass continuity

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U}) = 0 \tag{3.14}$$

• The barotropic relationship

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial p} = \frac{\rho}{K} = \psi \tag{3.15}$$

where K is the bulk modulus

• Equation 3.15 is linearised as

$$\rho \approx \rho_0 + \psi \left(p - p_0 \right) \tag{3.16}$$

where ρ_0 and p_0 are the reference density and pressure respectively such that $\rho(p_0) = \rho_0$.

• Momentum equation for Newtonian fluid

$$\frac{\partial \rho \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}) - \nabla \cdot \mu \nabla \mathbf{U} = -\nabla p \tag{3.17}$$

Boundary conditions Using FoamX the following physical boundary conditions can be set:

- outerWall is specified the wall condition;
- axis is specified as the symmetryPlane;
- nozzle is specified as a pressureOutlet where p = 0 bar.
- front and back boundaries are specified as empty.

Initial conditions U = 0 m/s, p = 100 bar.

Transport properties

• Dynamic viscosity of water $\mu = 1.0 \text{ mPa s}$

Thermodynamic properties

- Density of water $\rho = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$
- Reference pressure $p_0 = 1$ bar
- Compressibility of water $\psi = 4.54 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}^2/\text{m}^2$

Solver name sonicLiquidFoam: a compressible sonic laminar liquid flow code.

Case name decompressionTank case located in the \$FOAM_TUTORIALS/sonicLiquidFoam directory.

3.4.2 Mesh Generation

The full geometry is modelled in this case; the set of vertices and blocks are given in the mesh description file below:

```
----*- C++ -*------
2
                                           OpenFOAM: The Open Source CFD Toolbox
                      F ield
                      {\tt O} peration
                                           | Version: 1.7.1
4
                      A nd
                                           | Web:
                                                          www.OpenFOAM.org
5
                      M anipulation |
6
7
     FoamFile
8
9
                          2.0;
10
           version
                          ascii;
11
                           dictionary;
12
           class
                          blockMeshĎíct;
           object
13
14
15
16
     convertToMeters 0.1;
17
19
     vertices
20
           (0\ 0\ -0.1)
21
          (1 0 -0.1)
(1 0 -0.1)
(0 0.5 -0.1)
(1 0.5 -0.1)
(1.5 0.5 -0.1)
22
23
24
25
           (0.6 - 0.1)
26
           (1 0.6 -0.1)
(1.5 0.6 -0.1)
(0 3 -0.1)
(1 3 -0.1)
27
28
29
30
           (0 0 0.1)
(1 0 0.1)
(0 0.5 0.1)
31
32
33
           (1 0.5 0.1)
(1.5 0.5 0.1)
(0 0.6 0.1)
34
35
36
          (1 0.6 0.1)
(1.5 0.6 0.1)
(0 3 0.1)
(1 3 0.1)
37
38
39
40
41
     );
42
     blocks
43
44
          hex (0 1 3 2 10 11 13 12) (30 20 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
45
          hex (2 3 6 5 12 13 16 15) (30 5 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
46
          hex (3 4 7 6 13 14 17 16) (25 5 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
47
48
          hex (5 6 9 8 15 16 19 18) (30 95 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
     );
49
50
     edges
51
52
     );
53
54
     patches
55
56
           wall outerWall
57
58
                   1 11 10)
59
                (1 3 13 11)
(3 4 14 13)
(7 6 16 17)
61
62
                   9
                      19
                          16)
63
                   8 18 19)
64
           symmetryPlane axis
66
67
                (0 10 12 2)
(2 12 15 5)
(5 15 18 8)
68
69
70
71
72
          patch nozzle
```

```
73
             (471714)
74
75
         empty back
76
77
             (0 2 3 1)
(2 5 6 3)
(3 6 7 4)
(5 8 9 6)
78
80
81
82
         empty front
83
84
             (10 11 13 12)
(12 13 16 15)
(13 14 17 16)
85
86
                 16 19
88
         )
89
    );
90
91
    mergePatchPairs
92
93
94
```

In order to improve the numerical accuracy, we shall use the reference level of 1 bar for the pressure field. Note that both the internal field level and the boundary conditions are offset by the reference level.

3.4.3 Preparing the Run

Before we commence the setup of the calculation, we need to consider the characteristic velocity of the phenomenon we are trying to capture. In the case under consideration, the fluid velocity will be very small, but the pressure wave will propagate with the speed of sound in water. The speed of sound is calculated as:

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\psi}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4.54 \times 10^{-7}}} = 1483.2 \text{m/s}.$$
 (3.18)

For the mesh described above, the characteristic mesh size is approximately 2 mm (note the scaling factor of 0.1 in the blockMeshDict file). Using

$$Co = \frac{U\,\Delta t}{\Delta x}\tag{3.19}$$

a reasonable time step is around $\Delta t = 5 \times 10^{-7} \text{s}$, giving the Co number of 0.35, based on the speed of sound. Also, note that the reported Co number by the code (associated with the convective velocity) will be two orders of magnitude smaller. As we are interested in the pressure wave propagation, we shall set the simulation time to 0.25 ms. For reference, the *controlDict* file is quoted below.

```
----*- C++ -*------
2
                F ield
                                OpenFOAM: The Open Source CFD Toolbox
3
                O peration
                              | Version: 1.7.1
                                          www.OpenFOAM.org
                A nd
                              | Web:
                M anipulation
   FoamFile
10
       version
                   ascii;
       format
11
                   dictionary;
       class
12
                   "system";
       location
13
```

```
object
                    controlDict;
14
15
16
17
    application
                    sonicLiquidFoam;
18
19
    startFrom
                    startTime;
20
21
    startTime
                    0;
22
23
                    endTime;
   stopAt
^{24}
25
                    0.0001;
    endTime
26
   deltaT
                    5e-07;
28
29
   writeControl
                    timeStep;
30
31
   writeInterval
                    20;
33
34
   purgeWrite
                    0;
35
   writeFormat
                    ascii;
36
37
   writePrecision
39
   writeCompression compressed;
40
41
   timeFormat
                    general;
42
43
   {\tt timePrecision}
44
45
   runTimeModifiable yes;
46
47
48
```

3.4.4 Running the case

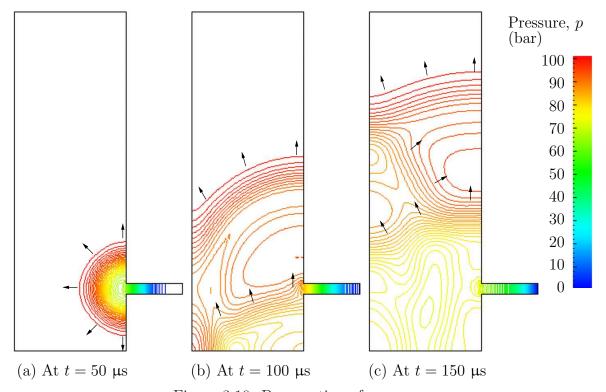


Figure 3.10: Propagation of pressure waves

The user can run the case and view results in dxFoam. The liquid flows out through

the nozzle causing a wave to move along the nozzle. As it reaches the inlet to the tank, some of the wave is transmitted into the tank and some of it is reflected. While a wave is reflected up and down the inlet pipe, the waves transmitted into the tank expand and propagate through the tank. In Figure 3.10, the pressures are shown as contours so that the wave fronts are more clearly defined than if plotted as a normal isoline plot.

If the simulation is run for a long enough time for the reflected wave to return to the pipe, we can see that negative absolute pressure is detected. The modelling permits this and has some physical basis since liquids can support tension, *i.e.* negative pressures. In reality, however, impurities or dissolved gases in liquids act as sites for cavitation, or vapourisation/boiling, of the liquid due to the low pressure. Therefore in practical situations, we generally do not observe pressures falling below the vapourisation pressure of the liquid; not at least for longer than it takes for the cavitation process to occur.

3.4.5 Improving the solution by refining the mesh

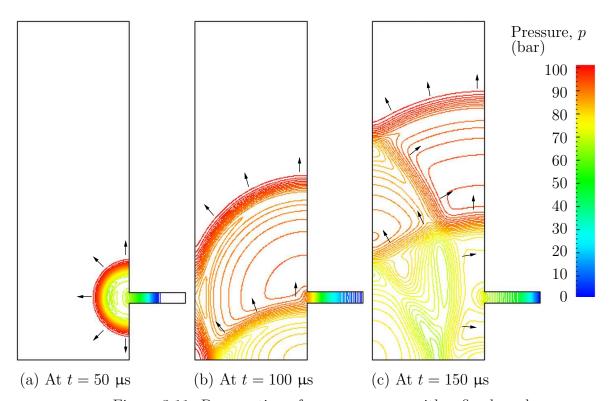


Figure 3.11: Propagation of pressure waves with refined mesh

Looking at the evolution of the resulting pressure field in time, we can clearly see the propagation of the pressure wave into the tank and numerous reflections from the inside walls. It is also obvious that the pressure wave is smeared over a number of cells. We shall now refine the mesh and reduce the time step to obtain a sharper front resolution. Simply edit the *blockMeshDict* and increase the number of cells by a factor of 4 in the x and y directions, *i.e.* block 0 becomes (120 80 1) from (30 20 1) and so on. Run blockMesh on this file. In addition, in order to maintain a Courant number below 1, the time step must be reduced accordingly to $\Delta t = 10^{-7}$ s. The second simulation gives considerably better resolution of the pressure waves as shown in Figure 3.11.

3.5 Magnetohydrodynamic flow of a liquid

In this example we shall investigate an flow of an electrically-conducting liquid through a magnetic field. The problem is one belonging to the branch of fluid dynamics known as magnetohydrodynamics (MHD) that uses mhdFoam.

3.5.1 Problem specification

The problem is known as the Hartmann problem, chosen as it contains an analytical solution with which mhdFoam can be validated. It is defined as follows:

Solution domain The domain is 2 dimensional and consists of flow along two parallel plates as shown in Fig. 3.12.

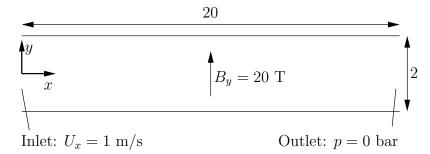


Figure 3.12: Geometry of the Hartmann problem

Governing equations

• Mass continuity for incompressible fluid

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{U} = 0 \tag{3.20}$$

• Momentum equation for incompressible fluid

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \bullet \left(\mathbf{U} \mathbf{U} \right) + \nabla \bullet \left(2 \mathbf{B} \Gamma_{\mathbf{B} \mathbf{U}} \mathbf{B} \right) + \nabla \bullet \left(\nu \mathbf{U} \right) + \nabla \left(\Gamma_{\mathbf{B} \mathbf{U}} \mathbf{B} \mathop{\vdots} \mathbf{B} \right) = - \nabla p \ \, (3.21)$$

where **B** is the magnetic flux density, $\Gamma_{\mathbf{B}\mathbf{U}} = (2\mu\rho)^{-1}$.

• Maxwell's equations

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} \tag{3.22}$$

where **E** is the electric field strength.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \tag{3.23}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} = \mathbf{J} \tag{3.24}$$

assuming $\partial \mathbf{D}/\partial t \ll \mathbf{J}$. Here, **H** is the magnetic field strength, **J** is the current density and **D** is the electric flux density.

• Charge continuity

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} = 0 \tag{3.25}$$

• Constitutive law

$$\mathbf{B} = \mu \mathbf{H} \tag{3.26}$$

• Ohm's law

$$\mathbf{J} = \sigma \left(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{U} \times \mathbf{B} \right) \tag{3.27}$$

• Combining Equation 3.22, Equation 3.24, Equation 3.27, and taking the curl

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{U}\mathbf{B}) - \nabla \cdot (\phi_{\mathbf{B}}\mathbf{U}) - \nabla \cdot (\Gamma_{\mathbf{B}}\mathbf{B}) = 0$$
(3.28)

Boundary conditions

- inlet is specified the inlet condition with fixed velocity U = (1, 0, 0) m/s;
- outlet is specified as the outlet with with fixed pressure p = 0 Pa;
- upperWall is specified as a wall where $\mathbf{B} = (0, 20, 0) \mathrm{T}$.
- lowerWall is specified as a wall where $\mathbf{B} = (0, 20, 0) \mathrm{T}$.
- front and back boundaries are specified as empty.

Initial conditions U = 0 m/s, p = 100 Pa, B = (0, 20, 0) T.

Transport properties

- Kinematic viscosity $\nu = 1 \text{ Pas}$
- Density $\rho = 1 \text{ kg m/s}$
- Electrical conductivity $\sigma = 1 \ (\Omega \, \mathrm{m})^{-1}$
- Permeability $\mu = 1 \text{ H/m}$

Solver name mhdFoam: an incompressible laminar magneto-hydrodynamics code.

Case name hartmann case located in the \$FOAM_TUTORIALS/mhdFoam directory.

3.5.2 Mesh generation

The geometry is simply modelled with 100 cells in the x-direction and 40 cells in the y-direction; the set of vertices and blocks are given in the mesh description file below:

```
format
11
          class
                          dictionary:
12
                          blockMeshDict;
          object
13
14
15
16
     convertToMeters 1;
18
     vertices
19
20
           (0 -1 0)
(20 -1 0)
(20 1 0)
21
22
23
25
           (20 -1 0.1)
26
          (20 1 0.1)
(0 1 0.1)
27
28
29
     );
30
31
     blocks
32
          hex (0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7) (100 40 1) simpleGrading (1 1 1)
33
34
35
     edges
36
     ();
37
38
39
40
     patches
41
          patch inlet
42
43
                (0 4 7 3)
44
45
          patch outlet
46
47
                (2651)
48
49
          patch lowerWall
51
                (1540)
53
          patch upperWall
54
55
                (3762)
56
57
          empty frontAndBack
58
59
                (0 \ 3 \ 2 \ 1)
(4 \ 5 \ 6 \ 7)
60
61
62
     );
63
64
     mergePatchPairs
65
66
     );
67
68
```

3.5.3 Running the case

The user can run the case and view results in dxFoam. It is also useful at this stage to run the Ucomponents utility to convert the U vector field into individual scalar components. MHD flow is governed by, amongst other things, the Hartmann number which is a measure of the ratio of electromagnetic body force to viscous force

$$M = BL\sqrt{\frac{\sigma}{\rho\nu}} \tag{3.29}$$

where L is the characteristic length scale. In this case with $B_y = 20$ T, M = 20 and the electromagnetic body forces dominate the viscous forces. Consequently with the flow fairly

steady at t=2 s the velocity profile is almost planar, viewed at a cross section midway along the domain x=10 m. The user can plot a graph of the profile of U_x in dxFoam. Now the user should reduce the magnetic flux density **B** to 1 Tand re-run the code and

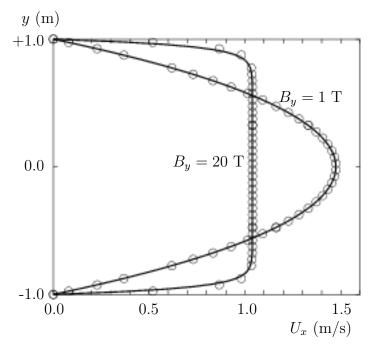


Figure 3.13: Velocity profile in the Hartmann problem for $B_y = 1$ T and $B_y = 20$ T.

Ucomponents. In this case, M = 1 and the electromagnetic body forces no longer dominate. The velocity profile consequently takes on the parabolic form, characteristic of Poiseuille flow as shown in Figure 3.13. To validate the code the analytical solution for the velocity profile U_x is superimposed in Figure 3.13, given by:

$$\frac{U_x(y)}{U_x(0)} = \frac{\cosh M - \cosh M(y/L)}{\cosh M - 1} \tag{3.30}$$

where the characteristic length L is half the width of the domain, *i.e.* 1 m.

Index

Symbols Numbers A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Z

Symbols	addLayersControls keyword, U-150
*	adiabaticFlameT utility, U-97
tensor member function, P-25	adjustableRunTime
+	keyword entry, U-63, U-113
tensor member function, P-25	adjustTimeStep keyword, U-63
-	agglomerator keyword, U-125
tensor member function, P-25	algorithms tools, U-98
	alphaContactAngle
tensor member function, P-25	boundary condition, U-60
/**/	analytical solution, P-45
C++ syntax, U-81 //	anisotropicFilter model, U-102
C++ syntax, U-81	Annotation window panel, U-26, U-172
OpenFOAM file syntax, U-106	ansysToFoam utility, U-92
# include	APIfunctions model, U-101
C++ syntax, U-74, U-81	applications, U-71
&	Apply button, U-168, U-172
tensor member function, P-25	applyBoundaryLayer utility, $U-92$
&&	${\sf applyWallFunctionBoundaryConditions} \qquad {\sf utility},$
tensor member function, P-25	U-92
^	arbitrarily unstructured, P-31
tensor member function, P-25	arc
<pre><lesmodel>Coeffs keyword, U-190</lesmodel></pre>	keyword entry, U-144
<pre><rasmodel>Coeffs keyword, U-189</rasmodel></pre>	arc keyword, U-143
<delta>Coeffs keyword, U-190</delta>	ascii
cellSet utility, U-93	keyword entry, U-113
faceSet utility, U-93	attachMesh utility, U-93
pointSet utility, U-93	Auto Accept button, U-172
0.000000e+00 directory, U-106	autoMesh
1-dimensional mesh, U-133 1D mesh, U-133	library, U-99
2-dimensional mesh, U-133	autoPatch utility, U-93
2D mesh, U-133	autoRefineMesh utility, U-94
2D mosn, 0 199	axes
Numbers	right-handed, U-142
0 directory, U-106	right-handed rectangular Cartesian, P-15, U-20
${f A}$	axi-symmetric cases, U-138, U-148
access functions, P-23	axi-symmetric mesh, U-133

P-74 Index

В	pressureOutlet, P-64
background	pressureTransmissive, U-141
process, U-27, U-83	processor, U-138
backward	setup, U-22
keyword entry, U-121	slip, U-141
Backward differencing, P-39	supersonicFreeStream, $U-141$
barotropicCompressibilityModels	surfaceNormalFixedValue, U-141
library, U-101	symmetryPlane, P-64, U-138
$basic Multi Component Mixture \mod el, \qquad U\text{-}100,$	totalPressure, U-141
U-186	turbulentInlet, U -141
basic Thermophysical Models	wall, U-42
library, U-99	wall, P-64, P-70, U-60, U-137
binary	wallBuoyantPressure, $U-141$
keyword entry, U-113	wedge, $U-133$, $U-138$, $U-148$
BirdCarreau model, U-103	zeroGradient, U -140
blended differencing, P-38	boundary conditions, P-43
block	Dirichlet, P-43
expansion ratio, U-144	inlet, P-44
block keyword, U-143	Neumann, P-43
blockMesh solver, P-47	no-slip impermeable wall, P-44
blockMesh utility, U-39, U-92, U-139	outlet, P-44
blockMesh executable	physical, P-44
vertex numbering, U-144	symmetry plane, P-44
blockMeshDict	boundaryField keyword, U-23, U-111
dictionary, U-20, U-22, U-37, U-50, U-139,	
U-148	bounded
blocks keyword, U-22, U-32, U-144	keyword entry, U-119, U-120
boundaries, U-133	boxToCell keyword, U-61
boundary, U-133	boxTurb utility, U-92
boundary	breaking of a dam, U-58
dictionary, U-132, U-139	bubbleFoam solver, U-89
boundary condition	buoyantBoussinesqPimpleFoam solver, U-90
alphaContactAngle, U-60	buoyantBoussinesqSimpleFoam solver, U-90
calculated, U-140	buoyantPimpleFoam solver, U-90
cyclic, U-138	buoyantSimpleFoam solver, U-90
directionMixed, U-140	buoyantSimpleRadiationFoam solver, U-90
empty, P-64, P-70, U-20, U-133, U-138	button
fixedGradient, U-140	Apply, U-168, U-172
fixedValue, U-140	Auto Accept, U-172
fluxCorrectedVelocity, U-141	Choose Preset, U-170
inlet, P-70	Delete, U-168
inletOutlet, U-141	Edit Color Map, U-170
mixed, U-140	Enable Line Series, U-36
movingWallVelocity, U-141	Orientation Axes, U-26, U-172
outlet P-70	Rescale to Data Range, U-27
outletInlet, U-141	Reset, U-168
partialSlip, U-141	Set Solid Color, U-171 Update GUI, U-27, U-169
patch, U-137	
pressureInletVelocity, U-141	Use Parallel Projection, U-26
pressureInletVelocity, U-141	Use parallel projection, U-171

\mathbf{C}	class
C++ syntax	cell, P-31
/**/, U-81	dimensionSet, P-26, P-32, P-33
//, U-81	face, P-31
# include, U-74, U-81	finiteVolumeCalculus, P-36
cacheAgglomeration keyword, U-125	finiteVolumeMethod, P-36
calculated	fvMesh, P-31
boundary condition, U-140	fvSchemes, P-38
cAlpha keyword, U-65	fvc, P-36
cases, U-105	fvm, P-36
castellatedMesh keyword, U-150	pointField, P-31
castellatedMeshControls	polyBoundaryMesh, P-31
dictionary, U-151-U-153	polyMesh, P-31, U-129, U-131
castellatedMeshControls keyword, U-150	polyPatchList, P-31
cavitatingFoam solver, U-89	polyPatch, P-31
cavity flow, U-19	scalarField, P-29
CELARCH	scalar, P-24
environment variable, U-177	slice, P-31
CEI_HOME	symmTensorField, P-29
environment variable, U-177	symmTensorThirdField, P-29
cell	tensorField, P-29
expansion ratio, U-144	tensorThirdField, P-29
cell class, P-31	tensor, P-24
cell	vectorField, P-29
keyword entry, U-179	vector, P-24, U-109
cellLimited	word, P-26, P-31
keyword entry, U-119	class keyword, U-107
cellPoint	clockTime
keyword entry, U-179	keyword entry, U-113
cellPointFace	cloud keyword, U-180
keyword entry, U-179	cmptAv
cells	tensor member function, P-25
dictionary, U-139	Co utility, U-95
central differencing, P-38	coalChemistryFoam solver, U-91
cfdTools tools, U-98	coalCombustion
cfx4ToFoam utility, U-92, U-156	library, U-99
changeDictionary utility, U-92	cofactors
channelFoam solver, U-88	tensor member function, P-25
Chart Options window, U-36	coldEngineFoam solver, U-90
checkMesh utility, U-93, U-159	collapseEdges utility, U-94
chemistryModel	Color By menu, U-171
library, U-101	Color Legend window, U-29
chemistryModel model, U-101	Color Legend window panel, U-170
chemistrySolver model, U-101	Color Scale window panel, U-170
chemkinToFoam utility, U-97	combinePatchFaces utility, U-94
Choose Preset button, U-170	comments, U-81
chtMultiRegionFoam solver, U-90	compressed
chtMultiRegionSimpleFoam solver, U-90	keyword entry, U-114
Chung	compressibleInterFoam solver, $U-89$
library, U-101	compressibleLESModels

P-76 Index

library, U-103	houndary condition II 199
0 /	boundary condition, U-138
compressibleRASModels	cyclic
library, U-102	keyword entry, U-138
constant directory, U-105, U-185	cylinder
constLaminarFlameSpeed model, U-100	flow around a, P-45
constTransport model, U-101, U-186 containers tools, U-98	D
continuum	d2dt2
mechanics, P-15	fvc member function, P-37
control	fvm member function, P-37
of time, U-112	dam
controlDict	breaking of a, U-58
dictionary, P-66, U-24, U-33, U-43, U-53,	
U-63, U-105, U-164	ddt
controlDict file, P-49	fvc member function, P-37
convection, see divergence, P-38	fvm member function, P-37
convergence, U-41	DeardorffDiffStress model, U-103
conversion	debug keyword, U-150
library, U-99	decomposePar utility, $U-84$, $U-85$, $U-96$
convertToMeters keyword, U-142, U-143	decomposeParDict
coordinate	dictionary, U-84
system, P-15	decomposition
coordinate system, U-20	of field, U-84
corrected	of mesh, U-84
keyword entry, U-119, U-120	decompositionMethods
Courant number, P-42, U-24	library, U-99
cpuTime	decompression of a tank, P-63
keyword entry, U-113	defaultFieldValues keyword, U-61
Crank Nicholson	deformedGeom utility, U-93
temporal discretisation, P-43	Delete button, U-168
CrankNicholson	delta keyword, U-86, U-190
keyword entry, U-121	deltaT keyword, U-113
createBaffles utility, U-93	dependencies, U-74
createPatch utility, U-93	dependency lists, U-74
createTurbulenceFields utility, U-96	det
cross product, see tensor, vector cross product	tensor member function, P-25
CrossPowerLaw	determinant, see tensor, determinant
keyword entry, U-61	dev
CrossPowerLaw model, U-103	tensor member function, P-25
cubeRootVolDelta model, U-102 cubicCorrected	tensor member function, P-25
keyword entry, U-121	diagonal
cubicCorrection	keyword entry, U-124
keyword entry, U-118	DIC
curl, P-37	keyword entry, U-124
curl	DICGaussSeidel
fvc member function, P-37	keyword entry, U-124
Current Time Controls menu, U-27, U-169	dictionary
curve keyword, U-180	LESProperties, U-189
cyclic	PISO, U-25
- <i>j</i> -··	

blockMeshDict, U-20, U-22, U-37, U-50,	Make, U-75
U-139, U-148	constant, U-105, U-185
boundary, U-132, U-139	fluentInterface, U-174
castellatedMeshControls, U-151–U-153	polyMesh, U-105, U-131
cells, U-139	processorN, U-85
controlDict, P-66, U-24, U-33, U-43, U-53,	run, U-105
U-63, U-105, U-164	system, P-49, U-105
decomposeParDict, U-84	tutorials, P-45, U-19 discretisation
faces, U-131, U-139	
fvSchemes, U-64, U-105, U-115	equation, P-33
fvSolution, U-105, U-122	Display window panel, U-26, U-27, U-168, U-169 distance
mechanicalProperties, U-52	
neighbour, U-132	keyword entry, U-154, U-180 distributed keyword, U-86, U-87
owner, U-131	div
points, U-131, U-139	fvc member function, P-37
thermalProperties, U-52, U-53	fvm member function, P-37
thermophysicalProperties, U-185	divergence, P-37, P-39
transportProperties, U-23, U-40, U-43	divSchemes keyword, U-115
turbulenceProperties, U-43, U-62, U-189	dnsFoam solver, U-90
dieselEngineFoam solver, U-90	doLayers keyword, U-150
dieselFoam solver, U-90	double inner product, see tensor, double inner
dieselMixture model, U-100, U-186	product, see tensor, double inner
dieselSpray	dsmc
library, U-99	library, U-99
differencing	dsmcFieldsCalc utility, U-96
Backward, P-39	dsmcFoam solver, U-91
blended, P-38	dsmcInitialise utility, U-92
central, P-38	dx
Euler implicit, P-39	keyword entry, U-179
Gamma, P-38	dynamicFvMesh
MINMOD, P-38	library, U-99
SUPERBEE, P-38	dynamicMesh
upwind, P-38	library, U-99
van Leer, P-38	dynMixedSmagorinsky model, U-103
DILU	dynOneEqEddy model, U-103
keyword entry, U-124	dynSmagorinsky model, U-103
dimension	dynomagormsky moder, 0-105
checking in OpenFOAM, P-26, U-109	${f E}$
dimensional units, U-109	eConstThermo model, U-101, U-185
dimensioned <type> template class, P-26</type>	edgeGrading keyword, U-145
dimensionedTypes tools, U-98	edgeMesh
dimensions keyword, U-23, U-111	library, U-99
dimensionSet class, P-26, P-32, P-33	edges keyword, U-143
dimensionSet tools, U-98	Edit menu, U-171, U-172
direct numerical simulation, U-64	Edit Color Map button, U-170
directionMixed	egrMixture model, U-100, U-186
boundary condition, U-140	electrostaticFoam solver, U-91
directory	empty
0.000000e+00, U-106	boundary condition, P-64, P-70, U-20,
0, U-106	U-133, U-138

P-78 Index

empty	keyword entry, U-121
keyword entry, U-138	Euler implicit
Enable Line Series button, U-36	differencing, P-39
endTime keyword, U-24, U-113	temporal discretisation, P-42
engine	examples
library, U-99	decompression of a tank, P-63
engineCompRatio utility, U-96	flow around a cylinder, P-45
engineFoam solver, U-90	flow over backward step, P-54
engineSwirl utility, U-92	Hartmann problem, P-69
ensight74FoamExec utility, U-176	supersonic flow over forward step, P-59
ENSIGHT7_INPUT	execFlowFunctionObjects utility, U-96
environment variable, U-177	expandDictionary utility, U-97
ENSIGHT7_READER	expansionRatio keyword, U-157
environment variable, U-177	explicit
ensightFoamReader utility, U-94	temporal discretisation, P-42
enstrophy utility, U-95	exponential model, U-101
environment variable	extrude2DMesh utility, U-92
	extrudeMesh utility, U-92
CELLOME II 177	5.01 dd 100.00 dd 100.00 d 100
CEI_HOME, U-177	${f F}$
ENSIGHT7_INPUT, U-177	face class, P-31
ENSIGHT7_READER, U-177	face keyword, U-180
FOAM_RUN, U-105	faceAreaPair
WM_ARCH_OPTION, U-78	keyword entry, U-125
WM_ARCH, U-78	faceLimited
WM_COMPILER_BIN, U-78	keyword entry, U-119
WM_COMPILER_DIR, U-78	faces
WM_COMPILER_LIB, U-78	dictionary, U-131, U-139
WM_COMPILER, U-78	FDIC
WM_COMPILE_OPTION, U-78	keyword entry, U-124
WM_DIR, U-78	featureAngle keyword, U-157
WM_JAVAC_OPTION, U-78	features keyword, U-151, U-152
WM_LINK_LANGUAGE, U-78	field
WM_MPLIB, U-78	U, U-24
WM_OPTIONS, U-78	p, U-24
WM_PRECISION_OPTION, U-78	decomposition, U-84
WM_PROJECT_DIR, U-78	FieldField <type> template class, P-32</type>
WM_PROJECT_INST_DIR, U-78	fieldFunctionObjects
WM_PROJECT_LANGUAGE, U-78	library, U-98
WM_PROJECT_USER_DIR, U-78	fields, P-29
WM_PROJECT_VERSION, U-78	mapping, U-164
WM_PROJECT, U-78	fields tools, U-98
wmake, U-78	fields keyword, U-179
ePsiThermo model, U-100, U-186	Field <type> template class, P-29</type>
equilibriumCO utility, U-97	fieldValues keyword, U-61
equilibriumFlameT utility, U-97	fieldview9Reader utility, U-94
errorEstimation	file
library, U-99	Make/files, U-77
errorReduction keyword, U-158	controlDict, P-49
estimateScalarError utility, U-97	files, U-75
Euler	g, U-61
	- ·

options, $\mathrm{U} ext{-}75$	foamFile
snappyHexMeshDict, U-149	keyword entry, U-179
transportProperties, U-61	foamFormatConvert utility, U-97
file format, U-106	foamInfoExec utility, U-97
files file, U-75	foamJob script/alias, U-181
finalLayerRatio keyword, U-157	foamLog script/alias, U-182
financialFoam solver, U-91	foamMeshToFluent utility, U-92, U-174
finite volume	foamToEnsight utility, U-94
discretisation, P-27	foamToEnsightParts utility, U-94
mesh, P-31	foamToFieldview9 utility, U-95
finiteVolume	foamToGMV utility, U-95
library, U-98	foamToStarMesh utility, U-92
finiteVolume tools, U-98	foamToTecplot360 utility, $U-95$
finiteVolumeCalculus class, P-36	foamToVTK utility, U-95
finiteVolumeMethod class, P-36	foamUpgradeFvSolution utility, U-92
fireFoam solver, U-90	forces
firstTime keyword, U-113	library, U-98
fixed	foreground
keyword entry, U-114	process, U-27
fixedGradient	format keyword, U-107
boundary condition, U-140	fourth
fixedValue	keyword entry, U-119, U-120
boundary condition, U-140	functions keyword, U-114
flattenMesh utility, U-93	fvc class, P-36
flow	fvc member function
free surface, U-58	curl, P-37
laminar, U-19	d2dt2, P-37
steady, turbulent, P-54	ddt, P-37
supersonic, P-60	div, P-37
turbulent, U-19	gGrad, P-37
flow around a cylinder, P-45	grad, P-37
flow over backward step, P-54	laplacian, P-37
flowType utility, U-95	lsGrad, P-37
fluent3DMeshToFoam utility, U-92	snGrad, P-37
fluentInterface directory, U-174	snGradCorrection, P-37
fluentMeshToFoam utility, U-92, U-156	sqrGradGrad, P-37
fluxCorrectedVelocity	fvDOM
boundary condition, U-141	library, U-100
fluxRequired keyword, U-115	fvm class, P-36
OpenFOAM	fvm member function
cases, U-105	d2dt2, P-37
FOAM_RUN	ddt, P-37
environment variable, U-105	div, P-37
foamCalc utility, U-34	laplacian, P-37
foamCalcFunctions	Su, P-37
library, U-98	SuSp, P-37
foamCorrectVrt script/alias, U-163	fvMatrices tools, U-98
foamDataToFluent utility, U-94, U-174	fvMatrix template class, P-36
foamDebugSwitches utility, U-97	fvMesh class, P-31
FoamFile keyword, U-107	fvMesh tools, U-98

P-80 Index

fvMotionSolver	\mathbf{H}
library, U-99	hConstThermo model, U-101, U-185
fvSchemes	Help menu, U-171
dictionary, U-64, U-105, U-115	HerschelBulkley model, U-103
fvSchemes class, P-38	hhuMixtureThermo model, U-100, U-187
fvSchemes	hierarchical
menu entry, U-54	keyword entry, U-85, U-86
fvSolution	homogeneousMixture model, U-100, U-186
dictionary, U-105, U-122	hPolynomialThermo model, U-101, U-185
dieticially, o 100, o 122	hPsiMixtureThermo model, U-100, U-186
${f G}$	hPsiThermo model, U-99, U-186
g file, U-61	hRhoMixtureThermo model, U-100, U-187
gambitToFoam utility, U-93, U-156	hRhoThermo model, U-100, U-186
GAMG	hsPsiMixtureThermo model, U-100, U-186
keyword entry, U-54, U-123, U-124	hsPsiThermo model, U-99, U-186
Gamma	hsRhoMixtureThermo model, U-100, U-187
keyword entry, U-118	iistiiowiixtare meimo model, 0-100, 0-107
Gamma differencing, P-38	I
Gauss	I
keyword entry, U-119	tensor member function, P-25
Gauss's theorem, P-36	icoErrorEstimate utility, U-97
GaussSeidel	icoFoam solver, U-19, U-23, U-24, U-27, U-88
keyword entry, U-124	icoMomentError utility, U-97
General window panel, U-171, U-172	icoPolynomial model, U-101, U-185
general model, U-101	ideasToFoam utility, U-156
general	ideasUnvToFoam utility, U-93
keyword entry, U-114	identities, see tensor, identities
geometric-algebraic multi-grid, U-125	identity, see tensor, identity
GeometricBoundaryField template class, P-32	IFCLookUpTableGen utility, U-97
geometricField <type> template class, P-32</type>	incompressibleLESModels
geometry keyword, U-150	library, U-103
gGrad	incompressibleRASModels
fvc member function, P-37	library, U-102
global tools, U-98	incompressible Transport Models
gmshToFoam utility, U-93	library, P-55, U-103
gnuplot	incompressible Turbulence Models
keyword entry, U-114, U-179	library, P-55
grad	index
fvc member function, P-37	notation, P-16, P-17
(Grad Grad) squared, P-37	Information window panel, U-168
gradient, P-37, P-40	inhomogeneousMixture model, U-100, U-186
Gauss scheme, P-40	inlet
Gauss's theorem, U-54	boundary condition, P-70
least square fit, U-54	inletOutlet
least squares method, P-40, U-54	boundary condition, U-141
surface normal, P-40	inner product, see tensor, inner product
gradSchemes keyword, U-115	inside
graph tools, U-98	keyword entry, U-153
graphFormat keyword, U-114	insideCells utility, U-93
GuldersEGRLaminarFlameSpeed model, U-101	interfaceProperties model, U-103
GuldersLaminarFlameSpeed model, U-100	interFoam solver, U-89
Garaciscammari famicopecta model, 0-100	meen dam borver, 0-00

interMixingFoam solver, U-89	featureAngle, U-157
internalField keyword, U-23, U-111	features, U-151, U-152
interPhaseChangeFoam solver, U-90	fieldValues, U-61
interpolation tools, U-98	fields, U-179
interpolationScheme keyword, U-179	finalLayerRatio, U-157
interpolations tools, U-98	firstTime, U-113
interpolationSchemes keyword, U-115	fluxRequired, U-115
inv	format, U-107
tensor member function, P-25	functions, U-114
	geometry, U-150
J	gradSchemes, U-115
janafThermo model, U-101, U-186	graphFormat, U-114
jplot	internalField, U-23, U-111
keyword entry, U-114, U-179	interpolationSchemes, U-115
K	interpolationScheme, U-179
	laplacianSchemes, U-115
kEpsilon model, U-102	latestTime, U-40
keyword	layers, U-157
FoamFile, U-107	leastSquares, U-54
LESModel, U-190	levels, U-154
RASModel, U-189	libs, U-82, U-114
addLayersControls, U-150	locationInMesh, U-151, U-153
adjustTimeStep, U-63	location, U-107
agglomerator, U-125	manualCoeffs, U-86
arc, U-143	maxAlphaCo, U-63
blocks, U-22, U-32, U-144	maxBoundarySkewness, U-158
block, U-143	maxConcave, U-158
boundaryField, U-23, U-111 boxToCell, U-61	$\mathtt{maxCo}, \mathtt{U} ext{-}63$
cAlpha, U-65	maxDeltaT, U-63
cacheAgglomeration, U-125	maxFaceThicknessRatio, U-157
castellatedMeshControls, U-150	maxGlobalCells, U-151
castellatedMesh, U-150	maxInternalSkewness, U-158
class, U-107	maxLocalCells, U-151
cloud, U-180	maxNonOrtho, U-158
convertToMeters, U-142, U-143	maxThicknessToMedialRatio, U-157
curve, U-180	mergeLevels, U-125
debug, U-150	mergePatchPairs, U-143
defaultFieldValues, U-61	mergeTolerance, U-150
deltaT, U-113	meshQualityControls, U-150
delta, U-86, U-190	method, U-86
dimensions, U-23, U-111	metisCoeffs, U-86
distributed, U-86, U-87	midPointAndFace, U-180
divSchemes, U-115	midPoint, U-180
doLayers, U-150	minArea, U-158
edgeGrading, U-145	minDeterminant, U-158
edges, U-143	minFaceWeight, U-158
endTime, U-24, U-113	minFlatness, U-158
errorReduction, U-158	minMedianAxisAngle, U-157
expansionRatio, U-157	minRefinementCells, U-151
face. U-180	minThickness. U-157

P-82 Index

minTriangleTwist, U-158	scotchCoeffs, U-86
minTwist, U-158	setFormat, U-179
minVolRatio, U-158	sets, U-179
minVol. U-158	simpleGrading, U-144
mode, U-153	simulationType, U-43, U-62, U-189
nAlphaSubCycles, U-65	smoother, U-125
nBufferCellsNoExtrude, U-157	snGradSchemes, U-115
nCellsBetweenLevels, U-151	snapControls, U-150
nFaces, U-132	snap, U-150
nFinestSweeps, U-125	solvers, U-123
nGrow, U-157	solver, U-54, U-123
nLayerIter, U-157	spline, U-143
nPostSweeps, U-125	startFace, U-132
nPreSweeps, U-125	startFrom, U-24, U-113
nRelaxIter, U-155, U-157	startTime, U-24, U-113
nRelaxedIter, U-157	stopAt, U-113
nSmoothNormals, U-157	strategy, U-85, U-86
nSmoothPatch, U-155	surfaceFormat, U-179
nSmoothScale, U-158	surfaces, U-179
nSmoothSurfaceNormals, U-157	thermoType, U-185
nSmoothThickness, U-157	timeFormat, U-114
nSolveIter, U-155	timePrecision, U-114
numberOfSubdomains, U-86	timeScheme, U-115
n, U-86	tolerance, U-54, U-123, U-124, U-155
object, $U-107$	topoSetSource, U-61
order, $U-86$	$ ext{traction}, ext{U-52}$
$\mathtt{pRefCell},\ U\text{-}25,\ U\text{-}127$	turbulence, U-189
$\mathtt{pRefValue},\ U\text{-}25,\ U\text{-}127$	type, U-133, U-136
$p_rhgRefCell, U-127$	uniform, U-180
$ t p_rhgRefValue, U-127$	$ ext{valueFraction}, ext{U-}140$
$\mathtt{patchMap},\ \mathrm{U}\text{-}165$	$\mathtt{value},\ \mathrm{U}\text{-}23,\ \mathrm{U}\text{-}140$
$\mathtt{patches}, \mathrm{U}\text{-}143, \mathrm{U}\text{-}145$	version, $U-107$
preconditioner, U-123, U-124	$\mathtt{vertices}, U\text{-}22, U\text{-}143$
pressure, U-52	writeCompression, U -114
printCeoffs, U-189	$\mathtt{writeControl},\ U\text{-}24,\ U\text{-}63,\ U\text{-}113$
printCoeffs, U-43	$\verb writeFormat , U-57, U-113 $
processorWeights, $ ext{U-85}$	$\mathtt{writeInterval},\ U\text{-}24,\ U\text{-}33,\ U\text{-}113$
processorWeights, $ ext{U-}86$	writePrecision, U -113
purgeWrite, U - 113	<LESModel $>$ Coeffs, U -190
refGradient, U-140	<rasmodel>Coeffs, U-189</rasmodel>
refinementRegions, U-151, U-154	<delta>Coeffs, U-190</delta>
refinementSurfaces, U-151, U-152	keyword entry
refinementRegions, U-153	CrankNicholson, U-121
regions, U-61	CrossPowerLaw, U-61
relTol, U-54, U-123, U-124	DICGaussSeidel, U-124
relativeSizes, U-157	DIC, U-124
relaxed, U-158	DILU, U-124
resolveFeatureAngle, U-151, U-152	Euler, U-121
roots, U-86, U-87	FDIC, U-124
$ ext{runTimeModifiable}, ext{U-}114$	GAMG, U-54, U-123, U-124

Gamma, U-118	linearUpwind, U-118, U-121
GaussSeidel, U-124	linear, U-118, U-121
${\tt Gauss}, {\tt U-119}$	line, U-144
LESModel, U-43, U-189	manual, U-85, U-86
MGridGen, U-125	metis, $U-85$, $U-86$
MUSCL, U-118	${\tt midPoint}, U\text{-}118$
Newtonian, U-61	nextWrite, $U\text{-}113$
$PBiCG,\ \mathrm{U}\text{-}123$	${\tt noWriteNow}, \text{U-}113$
PCG, U-123	none, U-116, U-124
QUICK, U-118, U-121	null, U-179
RASModel, U-43, U-189	outside, $ ext{U-}153$
SFCD, U-118, U-121	patch, $U-138$, $U-180$
UMIST, U-117	polyLine, U -144
adjustableRunTime, U-63, U-113	polySpline, $U-144$
arc, U-144	processor, $U-138$
ascii, U-113	raw, U-114, U-179
backward, U-121	$\mathtt{runTime},\ U\text{-}33,\ U\text{-}113$
binary, U-113	scientific, U -114
bounded, U-119, U-120	$\mathtt{scotch},\ \mathrm{U}\text{-}85,\ \mathrm{U}\text{-}86$
cellLimited, U-119	$ exttt{simpleSpline}, exttt{U-}144$
cellPointFace, U-179	$\mathtt{simple}, U\text{-}85, U\text{-}86$
cellPoint, U-179	$\mathtt{skewLinear},\ U\text{-}118,\ U\text{-}121$
cell, U-179	${ t smoothSolver}, ext{U-}123$
clockTime, U-113	startTime, U-24, U-113
compressed, U-114	steadyState, U-121
corrected, U-119, U-120	stl, U-179
cpuTime, U-113	symmetryPlane, U-138
cubicCorrected, U-121	timeStep, U-24, U-33, U-113
cubicCorrection, U-118	uncompressed, U-114
cyclic, U-138	uncorrected, U-119, U-120
diagonal, U-124	upwind, U-118, U-121
distance, U-154, U-180	vanLeer, U-118
dx, U-179	vtk, U-179
empty, U-138	wall, U-138
faceAreaPair, U-125	wedge, U-138
faceLimited, U-119	writeControl, U-113
fixed, U-114	writeNow, U-113
foamFile, U-179	xmgr, U-114, U-179
fourth, U-119, U-120	xyz, U-180
general, U-114	x, U-180
gnuplot, U-114, U-179	y, U-180
hierarchical, U-85, U-86	z, U-180
inside, U-153	kivaToFoam utility, U-93
jplot, U-114, U-179	kOmega model, U-102
laminar, U-43, U-189	kOmegaSST model, U-102, U-103
latestTime, U-113	Kronecker delta, P-21
leastSquares, U-119	${f L}$
limitedCubic, U-118	lagrangian
limitedLinear, U-118	library, U-99
limited, U-119, U-120	lagrangianIntermediate
	abranbiammer mediate

P-84 Index

1:1 II 00	hasiaThannanhuniaalMadala II 00
library, U-99	basicThermophysicalModels, U-99
Lambda2 utility, U-95	chemistryModel, U-101
LamBremhorstKE model, U-102	coalCombustion, U-99
laminar model, U-102	compressible LESModels, U-103
laminar	compressibleRASModels, U-102
keyword entry, U-43, U-189	conversion, U-99
laminarFlameSpeedModels	decompositionMethods, U-99
library, U-100	dieselSpray, U-99
laplaceFilter model, U-102	dsmc, U-99
Laplacian, P-38	dynamicFvMesh, U-99
laplacian, P-37	dynamicMesh, U-99
laplacian	edgeMesh, U-99
fvc member function, P-37	engine, U-99
fvm member function, P-37	errorEstimation, U-99
laplacianFoam solver, U-88	fieldFunctionObjects, U-98
laplacianSchemes keyword, U-115	finiteVolume, U-98
latestTime	foamCalcFunctions, U-98
keyword entry, U-113	forces, U-98
latestTime keyword, U-40	fvDOM, U-100
LaunderGibsonRSTM model, U-102	fvMotionSolver, U-99
LaunderSharmaKE model, U-102	incompressibleLESModels, U-103
layers keyword, U-157	incompressibleRASModels, U-102
leastSquares	incompressibleTransportModels, P-55, U-103
keyword entry, U-119	incompressibleTurbulenceModels, P-55
leastSquares keyword, U-54	lagrangianIntermediate, U-99
LESdeltas	lagrangian, U-99
library, U-102	laminarFlameSpeedModels, U-100
LESfilters	linear, U-101
library, U-102	liquidMixture, U-102
LESModel	liquids, U-102
keyword entry, U-43, U-189	meshTools, U-99
LESModel keyword, U-190	molecularMeasurements, U-99
LESProperties	molecule, U-99
dictionary, U-189	pdf, U-101
levels keyword, U-154	postCalc, U-98
libraries, U-71	potential, U-99
library	primitive, P-23
Chung, U-101	radiation, U-100
LESdeltas, U-102	randomProcesses, U-99
LESfilters, U-102	reactionThermophysicalModels, U-100
MGridGenGAMGAgglomeration, U-99	sampling, U-98
ODE, U-99	solidMixture, U-102
OSspecific, U-99	solidParticle, U-99
OpenFOAM, U-98	solids, U-102
P1, U-100	specie, U-101
PVSFoamReader, U-167	surfMesh, U-99
PVFoamReader, U-167	systemCall, U-98
Wallis, U-101	thermophysical JU 185
autoMesh, U-99	thermophysical, U-185
$barotropic Compressibility Models,\ U\text{-}101$	topoChangerFvMesh, U -99

tri $Surface,U\text{-}99$	Make/files file, U-77
utilityFunctionObjects, U-98	manual
vtkFoam, U- 167	keyword entry, U-85, U-86
vtkPV3Foam, U-167	manualCoeffs keyword, U-86
libs keyword, U-82, U-114	mapFields utility, U-33, U-40, U-44, U-57, U-92
lid-driven cavity flow, U-19	U-164
LienCubicKE model, U-102	mapping
LienCubicKELowRe model, U-102	fields, U-164
LienLeschzinerLowRe model, U-102	Marker Style menu, U-37
Lights window panel, U-171	matrices tools, U-98
limited	max
keyword entry, U-119, U-120	tensor member function, P-25
limitedCubic	maxAlphaCo keyword, U-63
keyword entry, U-118	maxBoundarySkewness keyword, U-158
limitedLinear	maxCo keyword, U-63
keyword entry, U-118	maxConcave keyword, U-158
line	maxDeltaT keyword, U-63
keyword entry, U-144	maxFaceThicknessRatio keyword, U-157
Line Style menu, U-36	maxGlobalCells keyword, U-151
linear	maxInternalSkewness keyword, U-158
library, U-101	maxLocalCells keyword, U-151
linear	maxNonOrtho keyword, U-158
keyword entry, U-118, U-121	maxThicknessToMedialRatio keyword, U-157
linearUpwind	mdEquilibrationFoam solver, U-91
keyword entry, U-118, U-121	mdFoam solver, U-91
liquid	mdInitialise utility, U-92
electrically-conducting, P-69	mechanicalProperties
liquidMixture	dictionary, U-52
library, U-102	memory tools, U-98
liquids	menu
library, U-102	Color By, U-171
lists, P-29	Current Time Controls, U-27, U-169
List <type> template class, P-29</type>	Edit, U-171, U-172
location keyword, U-107	Help, U-171
locationInMesh keyword, U-151, U-153	Line Style, U-36
locDynOneEqEddy model, U-103	Marker Style, U-37
lowReOneEqEddy model, U-103	Plot Type, U-36
LRDDiffStress model, U-103	VCR Controls, U-27, U-169
LRR model, U-102	View, U-171
lsGrad	menu entry
fvc member function, P-37	Plot Over Line, U-36
${f M}$	Save Animation, U-173
	,
Mach utility, U-95	Save Screenshot, U-173
mag	Settings, U-172
tensor member function, P-25	Show Color Legend, U-27
magnetohydrodynamics, P-69	Solid Color, U-171
magSqr	Toolbars, U-171
tensor member function, P-25	View Settings, U-26
Make directory, U-75	View Settings, U-26, U-171
make script/alias, U-73	Wireframe, U-171

P-86 Index

fvSchemes, U-54	minDeterminant keyword, U-158
mergeLevels keyword, U-125	minFaceWeight keyword, U-158
mergeMeshes utility, U-93	minFlatness keyword, U-158
mergeOrSplitBaffles utility, U-93	minMedianAxisAngle keyword, U-157
mergePatchPairs keyword, U-143	MINMOD differencing, P-38
	<u>-</u> ·
mergeTolerance keyword, U-150	minRefinementCells keyword, U-151
mesh	minThickness keyword, U-157
1-dimensional, U-133	minTriangleTwist keyword, U-158
1D, U-133	minTwist keyword, U-158
2-dimensional, U-133	minVol keyword, U-158
2D, U-133	minVolRatio keyword, U-158
axi-symmetric, U-133	mirrorMesh utility, U-93
basic, P-31	mixed
block structured, U-139	boundary condition, U-140
decomposition, U-84	mixedSmagorinsky model, U-103
description, U-129	mixtureAdiabaticFlameT utility, U-97
finite volume, P-31	mode keyword, U-153
generation, U-139, U-148	model
grading, U-139, U-144	APIfunctions, U-101
grading, example of, P-54	$BirdCarreau,\ \underline{U-103}$
non-orthogonal, P-45	CrossPowerLaw, $U-103$
refinement, P-63	DeardorffDiffStress, U-103
resolution, U-32	${\sf GuldersEGRLaminarFlameSpeed},\ U\text{-}101$
specification, U-129	GuldersLaminarFlameSpeed, U-100
split-hex, U-149	HerschelBulkley, U-103
Stereolithography (STL), U-149	LRDDiffStress, U-103
surface, U-149	LRR, U-102
validity constraints, U-129	${\sf LamBremhorstKE},\ U\text{-}102$
meshes tools, U-98	LaunderGibsonRSTM, U-102
meshQualityControls keyword, U-150	LaunderSharmaKE, U-102
meshTools	LienCubicKELowRe, U-102
library, U-99	LienCubicKE, U-102
message passing interface	LienLeschzinerLowRe, U-102
openMPI, U-85	NSRDSfunctions, U-101
method keyword, U-86	Newtonian, U-103
metis	NonlinearKEShih, U-102
keyword entry, U-85, U-86	PrandtlDelta, U-102
metisCoeffs keyword, U-86	RNGkEpsilon, U-102
MGridGenGAMGAgglomeration	RosinRammler, U-101
library, U-99	Smagorinsky2, U-103
MGridGen	Smagorinsky, U-103
keyword entry, U-125	SpalartAllmarasDDES, U-103
mhdFoam solver, P-70, U-91	SpalartAllmarasIDDES, U-103
midPoint	SpalartAllmaras, U-102, U-103
keyword entry, U-118	anisotropicFilter, U-102
midPoint keyword, U-180	basicMultiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186
midPointAndFace keyword, U-180	chemistryModel, U-101
min	chemistryNodel, 0-101 chemistrySolver, U-101
tensor member function, P-25	constLaminarFlameSpeed, U-100
minArea keyword, U-158	constTransport, U-101, U-186
minnied Rey Word, U-100	Collist Hallsport, 0-101, 0-100

cubeRootVolDelta, U-102	veryInhomogeneousMixture, U-100, U-186
dieselMixture, U-100, U-186	modifyMesh utility, U-94
dynMixedSmagorinsky, U-103	molecularMeasurements
dynOneEqEddy, U-103	library, U-99
dynSmagorinsky, U-103	molecule
eConstThermo, U-101, U-185	library, U-99
ePsiThermo, U-100, U-186	momentScalarError utility, U-97
egrMixture, U-100, U-186	moveDynamicMesh utility, U-93
exponential, U-101	moveEngineMesh utility, U-93
general, U-101	moveMesh utility, U-93
hConstThermo, U-101, U-185	movingWallVelocity
hPolynomialThermo, U-101, U-185	boundary condition, U-141
hPsiMixtureThermo, U-100, U-186	MPI
hPsiThermo, U-99, U-186	openMPI, U-85
hRhoMixtureThermo, U-100, U-187	mshToFoam utility, U-93
hRhoThermo, U-100, U-186	multiComponentMixture model, U-100, U-186
hhuMixtureThermo, U-100, U-187	multigrid
homogeneousMixture, U-100, U-186	geometric-algebraic, U-125
hsPsiMixtureThermo, U-100, U-186	multiphaseInterFoam solver, U-90
hsPsiThermo, U-99, U-186	MUSCL
hsRhoMixtureThermo, U-100, U-187	keyword entry, U-118
icoPolynomial, U-101, U-185	
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	${f N}$
inhomogeneousMixture, U-100, U-186	n keyword, U-86
interfaceProperties, U-103	nabla
janafThermo, U-101, U-186	operator, P-27
kEpsilon, U-102	nAlphaSubCycles keyword, U-65
kOmegaSST, U-102, U-103	nBufferCellsNoExtrude keyword, U-157
10	induffer Gerrangez Crude Rey Word, G-197
kOmega, U-102	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151
laminar, U-102	
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102	${\tt nCellsBetweenLevels} \ \operatorname{keyword}, \ \overline{U\text{-}151}$
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186 qZeta, U-102	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157 non-orthogonal mesh, P-45
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186 qZeta, U-102 reactingMixture, U-100, U-186	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157 non-orthogonal mesh, P-45 none keyword entry, U-116, U-124
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186 qZeta, U-102 reactingMixture, U-100, U-186 realizableKE, U-102	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157 non-orthogonal mesh, P-45 none
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186 qZeta, U-102 reactingMixture, U-100, U-186 realizableKE, U-102 scaleSimilarity, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157 non-orthogonal mesh, P-45 none keyword entry, U-116, U-124 NonlinearKEShih model, U-102
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186 qZeta, U-102 reactingMixture, U-100, U-186 realizableKE, U-102 scaleSimilarity, U-103 simpleFilter, U-102	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157 non-orthogonal mesh, P-45 none keyword entry, U-116, U-124 NonlinearKEShih model, U-102 nonNewtonianlcoFoam solver, U-88
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186 qZeta, U-102 reactingMixture, U-100, U-186 realizableKE, U-102 scaleSimilarity, U-103 simpleFilter, U-102 smoothDelta, U-103	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157 non-orthogonal mesh, P-45 none keyword entry, U-116, U-124 NonlinearKEShih model, U-102 nonNewtonianlcoFoam solver, U-88 normal model, U-101
laminar, U-102 laplaceFilter, U-102 locDynOneEqEddy, U-103 lowReOneEqEddy, U-103 mixedSmagorinsky, U-103 multiComponentMixture, U-100, U-186 normal, U-101 oneEqEddy, U-103 perfectGas, U-101, U-185 polynomialTransport, U-101, U-186 powerLaw, U-103 pureMixture, U-100, U-186 qZeta, U-102 reactingMixture, U-100, U-186 realizableKE, U-102 scaleSimilarity, U-103 simpleFilter, U-102 smoothDelta, U-103 specieThermo, U-101, U-186	nCellsBetweenLevels keyword, U-151 neighbour dictionary, U-132 netgenNeutralToFoam utility, U-93 Newtonian keyword entry, U-61 Newtonian model, U-103 nextWrite keyword entry, U-113 nFaces keyword, U-132 nFinestSweeps keyword, U-125 nGrow keyword, U-157 nLayerIter keyword, U-157 non-orthogonal mesh, P-45 none keyword entry, U-116, U-124 NonlinearKEShih model, U-102 nonNewtonianlcoFoam solver, U-88 normal model, U-101 noWriteNow

P-88 Index

nRelaxedIter keyword, U-157	P
nRelaxIter keyword, U-155, U-157	p field, U-24
nSmoothNormals keyword, U-157	P1
nSmoothPatch keyword, U-155	library, U-100
nSmoothScale keyword, U-158	p_rhgRefCell keyword, U-127
nSmoothSurfaceNormals keyword, U-157	p_rhgRefValue keyword, U-127
nSmoothThickness keyword, U-157	paraFoam, U-25, U-167
nSolveIter keyword, U-155	parallel
NSRDSfunctions model, U-101	running, U-84
null	partialSlip
keyword entry, U-179	boundary condition, U-141
numberOfSubdomains keyword, U-86	particleTracks utility, U-96
nambololbabachallib Roy Word, C CO	patch
O	boundary condition, U-137
object keyword, U-107	patch
objToVTK utility, U-93	keyword entry, U-138, U-180
ODE	patchAverage utility, U-96
library, U-99	patches keyword, U-143, U-145
oneEqEddy model, U-103	patchIntegrate utility, U-96
Opacity text box, U-171	patchMap keyword, U-165
OpenFOAM	patchSummary utility, U-97
applications, U-71	PBiCG
file format, U-106	keyword entry, U-123
libraries, U-71	PCG
OpenFOAM	keyword entry, U-123
library, U-98	pdf
• ,	library, U-101
OpenFOAM file syntax //, U-106	pdfPlot utility, U-96
•	PDRFoam solver, U-90
openMPI	Pe utility, U-95
message passing interface, U-85	perfectGas $model$, U-101, U-185
MPI, U-85	permutation symbol, P-20
operator	pimpleDyMFoam solver, U-88
scalar, P-28	pimpleFoam solver, U-89
vector, P-27	Pipeline Browser window, U-25, U-168
Options window, U-172	PISO
options file, U-75	dictionary, U-25
order keyword, U-86	pisoFoam solver, U-19, U-89
Orientation Axes button, U-26, U-172	Plot Over Line
OSspecific	menu entry, U-36
library, U-99	Plot Type menu, U-36
outer product, see tensor, outer product	plot3dToFoam utility, $U-93$
outlet	pointField class, P-31
boundary condition, P-70	pointField <type> template class, P-33</type>
outletInlet	points
boundary condition, U-141	dictionary, U-131, U-139
outside	polyBoundaryMesh class, P-31
keyword entry, U-153	polyDualMesh utility, U-93
owner	polyLine
dictionary, U-131	keyword entry, U-144

polyMesh directory, U-105, U-131	processor
polyMesh class, P-31, U-129, U-131	keyword entry, U-138
polynomialTransport model, U-101, U-186	processorN directory, U-85
polyPatch class, P-31	processorWeights keyword, U-86
polyPatchList class, P-31	Properties window panel, U-27, U-168, U-169
polySpline	ptot utility, U-96
keyword entry, U-144	pureMixture model, U-100, U-186
	purgeWrite keyword, U-113
U-91	PV3FoamReader
porousSimpleFoam solver, U-89	library, U-167
post-processing, U-167	PV3FoamReader utility, U-94
post-processing	PVFoamReader
paraFoam, U-167	library, U-167
postCalc	PVFoamReader utility, U-94
library, U-98	
postChannel utility, U-96	\mathbf{Q}
potential	Q utility, U-95
library, U-99	QUICK
potentialFoam solver, P-46, U-88	keyword entry, U-118, U-121
pow	qZeta model, U-102
tensor member function, P-25	\mathbf{R}
powerLaw model, U-103	
pPrime2 utility, U-95	R utility, U-96 radiation
PrandtlDelta model, U-102	
preconditioner keyword, U-123, U-124	library, U-100 randomProcesses
pRefCell keyword, U-25, U-127	library, U-99
pRefValue keyword, U-25, U-127	RASModel
pressure keyword, U-52	keyword entry, U-43, U-189
pressure waves	RASModel keyword, U-189
in liquids, P-63	
pressure Directed Inlet Velocity	keyword entry, U-114, U-179
boundary condition, U-141	reactingFoam solver, U-90
pressureInletVelocity	reactingMixture model, U-100, U-186
boundary condition, U-141	reactingParcelFoam solver, U-91
pressureOutlet	reacting facen oam solver, 0-31 reactionThermophysicalModels
boundary condition, P-64	library, U-100
pressure Transmissive	realizableKE model, U-102
boundary condition, U-141	reconstructPar utility, U-88, U-96
primitive	reconstructParMesh utility, U-96
library, P-23	redistributeMeshPar utility, U-96
primitives tools, U-98	refGradient keyword, U-140
printCeoffs keyword, U-189	refineHexMesh utility, U-94
printCoeffs keyword, U-43	refinementRegions keyword, U-153
processorWeights keyword, U-85	refinementLevel utility, U-94
probeLocations utility, U-96	refinementRegions keyword, U-151, U-154
process	refinementSurfaces keyword, U-151, U-152
background, U-27, U-83	refineMesh utility, U-93
foreground, U-27	refineWallLayer utility, U-94
processor	Region Status window panel, U-26
boundary condition, U-138	regions keyword. U-61

P-90 Index

relative tolerance, U-124	scientific
relativeSizes keyword, U-157	keyword entry, U-114
relaxed keyword, U-158	scotch
relTol keyword, U-54, U-123, U-124	keyword entry, U-85, U-86
removeFaces utility, U-94	scotchCoeffs keyword, U-86
Render View window, U-172	script/alias
Render View window panel, U-172	foamCorrectVrt, U-163
Render View Options window, U-171	foamJob, U-181
renumberMesh utility, U-94	foamLog, U-182
Rescale to Data Range button, U-27	make, U-73
Reset button, U-168	rmdepall, U-79
resolveFeatureAngle keyword, U-151, U-152	wclean, U-78
restart, U-40	wmake, U-73
Reynolds number, U-19, U-23	second time derivative, P-37
rhoPorousMRFPimpleFoam solver, U-89	Seed window, U-173
rhoCentralFoam solver, U-89	selectCells utility, U-94
rhoPisoFoam solver, U-89	Set Solid Color button, U-171
rhoPimpleFoam solver, U-89	setFields utility, U-61, U-92
rhoPorousSimpleFoam solver, U-89	setFormat keyword, U-179
rhoReactingFoam solver, U-90	,
rhoSimpleFoam solver, U-89	sets keyword, U-179
rmdepall script/alias, U-79	setSet utility, U-94
RNGkEpsilon model, U-102	setsToZones utility, U-94
roots keyword, U-86, U-87	Settings
RosinRammler model, U-101	menu entry, U-172
rotateMesh utility, U-94	settlingFoam solver, U-90
run	SFCD
parallel, U-84	keyword entry, U-118, U-121
run directory, U-105	shallowWaterFoam solver, U-89
runTime	shape, U-144
keyword entry, U-33, U-113	Show Color Legend
runTimeModifiable keyword, U-114	menu entry, U-27
Tullillierodililable keyword, 0-114	SI units, U-110
\mathbf{S}	simple
sammToFoam utility, U-93	keyword entry, U-85, U-86
sample utility, U-96, U-178	simpleFilter model, U-102
sampling	simpleFoam solver, P-55, U-89
library, U-98	simpleGrading keyword, U-144
Save Animation	simpleSpline
menu entry, U-173	keyword entry, U-144
Save Screenshot	simulationType keyword, U-43, U-62, U-189
menu entry, U-173	skew
scalar, P-16	tensor member function, P-25
operator, P-28	skewLinear
scalar class, P-24	keyword entry, U-118, U-121
scalar class, 1-24 scalar Field class, P-29	slice class, P-31
scalar Transport Foam solver, U-88	slip
scale	boundary condition, U-141
tensor member function, P-25	Smagorinsky model, U-103
	Smagorinsky model, U-103
scalePoints utility, U-161	
scaleSimilarity model, U-103	smapToFoam utility, U-95

smoothDelta model, U-103	dieselFoam, U -90
smoother keyword, U-125	dnsFoam, U-90
smoothSolver	dsmcFoam, U-91
keyword entry, U-123	electrostaticFoam, U-91
snap keyword, U-150	engineFoam, U-90
snapControls keyword, U-150	financialFoam, U-91
snappyHexMesh utility	fireFoam, U - 90
background mesh, U-150	icoFoam, U-19, U-23, U-24, U-27, U-88
cell removal, U-153	interFoam, $ ext{U-89}$
cell splitting, U-151	interMixingFoam, U -89
mesh layers, U-155	interPhaseChangeFoam, U - 90
meshing process, U-149	laplacianFoam, U -88
snapping to surfaces, U-154	mdEquilibrationFoam, U - 91
snappyHexMesh utility, U-92, U-148	$mdFoam, \mathrm{U}\text{-}91$
snappyHexMeshDict file, U-149	mhdFoam, $P-70$, $U-91$
snGrad	multiphaseInterFoam, U - 90
fvc member function, P-37	nonNewtonianlcoFoam, U -88
snGradCorrection	pimpleDyMFoam, U -88
fvc member function, P-37	pimpleFoam, U - 89
snGradSchemes keyword, U-115	pisoFoam, U-19, U-89
Solid Color	porous Explicit Source Reacting Parcel Foam,
menu entry, U-171	U-91
solidDisplacementFoam solver, $U-91$	porous $SimpleFoam,\ U-89$
${\sf solidDisplacementFoam\ solver,\ U-52}$	potentialFoam, P-46, U-88
${\sf solidEquilibriumDisplacementFoam\ solver,\ U-91}$	reactingFoam, U - 90
solidMixture	reacting Parcel Foam, $U-91$
library, U-102	rho $CentralFoam,\ U ext{-}89$
solidParticle	rhoPisoFoam, U - 89
library, U-99	rhoPimpleFoam, U - 89
solids	${\sf rhoPorousSimpleFoam},\ {\hbox{\bf U-89}}$
library, U-102	rhoReactingFoam, U - 90
solver	rhoSimpleFoam, U -89
PDRFoam, $U-90$	${\sf rhoPorousMRFPimpleFoam},\ U\text{-}89$
XiFoam, U-90	scalarTransportFoam, U-88
blockMesh, P-47	settlingFoam, U-90
boundaryFoam, $U-88$	shallowWaterFoam, U-89
bubbleFoam, U-89	simpleFoam, P-55, U-89
buoyantBoussinesqSimpleFoam, U -90	${\sf solidDisplacementFoam}, \hbox{U-91}$
buoyantBoussinesqPimpleFoam, U - 90	${\sf solidDisplacementFoam},\ U\text{-}52$
buoyantPimpleFoam, U-90	solidEquilibriumDisplacementFoam, $U-91$
buoyantSimpleFoam, U -90	sonicDyMFoam, U -89
buoyantSimpleRadiationFoam, $U-90$	sonicFoam, P-61, U-89
cavitatingFoam, $ ext{U-}89$	sonicLiquidFoam, P-64, U-89
channelFoam, U-88	twoLiquidMixingFoam, U -90
chtMultiRegionFoam, U -90	twoPhaseEulerFoam, $U-90$
chtMultiRegionSimpleFoam, U-90	uncoupledKinematicParcelFoam, U-91
coalChemistryFoam, U-91	solver keyword, U-54, U-123
coldEngineFoam, U-90	solver relative tolerance, U-124
compressibleInterFoam, U-89	solver tolerance, U-124
dieselEngineFoam, U - 90	solvers keyword, U-123

P-92 Index

sonicDyMFoam solver, U-89	surfaceField <type> template class, P-33</type>
sonicFoam solver, P-61, U-89	surfaceFormat keyword, U-179
sonicLiquidFoam solver, P-64, U-89	surfaceMesh tools, $U-98$
source, P-37	surfaceNormalFixedValue
SpalartAllmaras model, U-102, U-103	boundary condition, U-141
SpalartAllmarasDDES model, U-103	surfaces keyword, U-179
SpalartAllmarasIDDES model, U-103	surfMesh
specie	library, U-99
library, U-101	SuSp
specieThermo model, U-101, U-186	fvm member function, P-37
spectEddyVisc model, U-103	sutherland Transport $model, U-101, U-186$
spline keyword, U-143	symm
splitCells utility, U-94	tensor member function, P-25
splitMesh utility, U-94	symmetryPlane
splitMeshRegions utility, U-94	boundary condition, P-64, U-138
sqr	symmetryPlane
tensor member function, P-25	keyword entry, U-138
sqrGradGrad	symmTensorField class, P-29
fvc member function, P-37	symmTensorThirdField class, P-29
star4ToFoam utility, U-93	system directory, P-49, U-105
startFace keyword, U-132	systemCall
startFrom keyword, U-24, U-113	library, U-98
starToFoam utility, U-93, U-156	TD.
startTime	T
keyword entry, U-24, U-113	T()
startTime keyword, U-24, U-113	tensor member function, P-25
steady flow	template class
turbulent, P-54	GeometricBoundaryField, P-32
steadyState	fvMatrix, P-36
keyword entry, U-121	dimensioned <type>, P-26</type>
Stereolithography (STL), U-149	FieldField <type>, P-32</type>
stitchMesh utility, U-94	Field <type>, P-29</type>
stl	geometricField <type>, P-32</type>
keyword entry, U-179	List <type>, P-29</type>
stopAt keyword, U-113	pointField <type>, P-33</type>
strategy keyword, U-85, U-86	surfaceField <type>, P-33</type>
streamFunction utility, U-95	volField <type>, P-33</type>
stress analysis of plate with hole, U-47	temporal discretisation, P-42
stressComponents utility, U-95	Crank Nicholson, P-43
Style window panel, U-26, U-171	Euler implicit, P-42
Su Style willdow panel, 0-20, 0-171	explicit, P-42
fvm member function, P-37	in OpenFOAM, P-43
subsetMesh utility, U-94	tensor, P-15
summation convention, P-17	addition, P-18
SUPERBEE differencing, P-38	algebraic operations, P-18
<u> </u>	algebraic operations in OpenFOAM, P-24
supersonic flow, P-60	antisymmetric, see tensor, skew
supersonic flow over forward step, P-59	calculus, P-27
supersonicFreeStream	classes in OpenFOAM, P-23
boundary condition, U-141 surface mesh, U-149	cofactors, P-22 component average, P-20
SHERICE HIESH, U-149	component average P-70

component maximum, P-20	$\mathtt{diag}, P\text{-}25$
component minimum, P-20	I, P-25
determinant, P-22	inv, P-25
deviatoric, P-22	$\mathtt{mag}, P\text{-}25$
diagonal, P-22	${\tt magSqr}, { extstyle P-25}$
dimension, P-16	\max , P-25
double inner product, P-19	min, P-25
geometric transformation, P-21	pow, P-25
Hodge dual, P-23	scale, P-25
hydrostatic, P-22	skew, $P-25$
identities, P-21	sqr, P-25
identity, P-21	symm, P-25
inner product, P-18	T(), P-25
inverse, P-23	$tr,\mathrm{P} ext{-}25$
magnitude, P-20	transform, P-25
magnitude squared, P-20	tensorField class, P-29
mathematics, P-15	tensorThirdField class, P-29
notation, P-17	tetgenToFoam utility, U-93
nth power, P-20	text box
outer product, P-19	Opacity, U-171
rank, P-16	thermalProperties
rank 3, P-17	dictionary, U-52, U-53
scalar division, P-18	thermophysical
scalar multiplication, P-18	library, U-185
scale function, P-20	thermophysicalFunctions
second rank, P-16	library, U-101
skew, P-22	thermophysicalProperties
square of, P-20	dictionary, U-185
subtraction, P-18	thermoType keyword, U-185
symmetric, P-22	time
symmetric rank 2, P-16	control, U-112
symmetric rank 3, P-17	time derivative, P-37
trace, P-22	first, P-39
transformation, P-21	second, P-37, P-39
transpose, P-16, P-22	time step, U-24
triple inner product, P-19	timeFormat keyword, U-114
vector cross product, P-20	timePrecision keyword, U-114
tensor class, P-24	timeScheme keyword, U-115
tensor member function	timeStep
*, P-25	keyword entry, U-24, U-33, U-113
+, P-25	tolerance
-, P-25	solver, U-124
/, P-25	solver relative, U-124
&, P-25	tolerance keyword, U-54, U-123, U-124, U-155
&&, P-25	Toolbars
^, P-25	menu entry, U-171
cmptAv, P-25	tools
cofactors, P-25	algorithms, U-98
det, P-25	cfdTools, U-98
dev, P-25	containers, U-98
~~·, <u> ~</u> ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~	30

P-94 Index

11.00	1:1 1: '. (I II 10
db, U-98	lid-driven cavity flow, U-19
dimensionSet, U-98	stress analysis of plate with hole, U-47
dimensionedTypes, U-98	tutorials directory, P-45, U-19
fields, U-98	twoLiquidMixingFoam solver, U-90
finiteVolume, U-98	twoPhaseEulerFoam solver, U-90
fvMatrices, U-98	type keyword, U-133, U-136
fvMesh, U-98	\mathbf{U}
global, U-98	U field, U-24
graph, U-98	Ucomponents utility, P-71
interpolations, U-98	UMIST
interpolation, U-98	keyword entry, U-117
matrices, U-98	uncompressed
memory, U -98	keyword entry, U-114
meshes, U -98	uncorrected
primitives, U-98	keyword entry, U-119, U-120
surfaceMesh, U -98	uncoupledKinematicParcelFoam solver, U-91
, U-98	uniform model, U-101
topo Changer Fv Mesh	uniform keyword, U-180
library, U-99	units
topoSetSource keyword, U-61	base, U-110
totalPressure	of measurement, P-26, U-109
boundary condition, U-141	S.I. base, P-26
tr	SI, U-110
tensor member function, P-25	Système International, U-110
trace, see tensor, trace	United States Customary System, U-110
traction keyword, U-52	USCS, U-110
transform	Update GUI button, U-27, U-169
tensor member function, P-25	uprime utility, U-95
transformPoints utility, U-94	upwind
transportProperties	keyword entry, U-118, U-121
dictionary, U-23, U-40, U-43	upwind differencing, P-38, U-64
transportProperties file, U-61	USCS units, U-110
triple inner product, P-19	Use Parallel Projection button, U-26
triSurface	Use parallel projection button, U-171
library, U-99	utility
turbulence	Co, U-95
dissipation, U-42	IFCLookUpTableGen, U-97
kinetic energy, U-42	Lambda2, U-95
length scale, U-42	Mach, U-95
turbulence keyword, U-189	PV3FoamReader, U-94
turbulence model	PVFoamReader, $U-94$
RAS, U-41	Pe, U-95
turbulenceProperties	Q, U-95
dictionary, U-43, U-62, U-189	R, U-96
turbulent flow	Ucomponents, P-71
steady, P-54	adiabaticFlameT, U-97
turbulentInlet	ansysToFoam, U-92
boundary condition, U-141	applyBoundaryLayer, U-92
tutorials	applyWallFunctionBoundaryConditions, U-92
breaking of a dam, U-58	attachMesh, U-93
,	,

autoPatch, U-93	icoErrorEstimate, U-97
autoRefineMesh, U-94	icoMomentError, U-97
blockMesh, U-39, U-92, U-139	ideas To Foam, $U-156$
boxTurb, U-92	ideasUnvToFoam, U-93
cfx4ToFoam, $U-92$, $U-156$	insideCells, U-93
changeDictionary, U-92	kivaToFoam, U-93
checkMesh, U-93, U-159	mapFields, U-33, U-40, U-44, U-57, U-92,
chemkinToFoam, U-97	U-164
collapseEdges, U -94	mdInitialise, U-92
combinePatchFaces, U-94	mergeMeshes, $U-93$
createBaffles, U -93	mergeOrSplitBaffles, $U-93$
createPatch, U-93	mirrorMesh, U-93
createTurbulenceFields, U-96	mixtureAdiabaticFlameT, $U-97$
decomposePar, U-84, U-85, U-96	modifyMesh, U-94
deformedGeom, U-93	momentScalarError, U-97
dsmcFieldsCalc, U-96	moveDynamicMesh, U-93
dsmcInitialise, U-92	moveEngineMesh, U-93
engineCompRatio, U-96	moveMesh, U -93
engineSwirl, U-92	mshToFoam, U-93
ensight74FoamExec, U-176	netgenNeutralToFoam, U-93
ensightFoamReader, U-94	objToVTK, U-93
enstrophy, U-95	pPrime2, U-95
equilibriumCO, U-97	particleTracks, U-96
equilibriumFlameT, U-97	patchAverage, U-96
estimateScalarError, U-97	patchIntegrate, U-96
execFlowFunctionObjects, U-96	patchSummary, U-97
expandDictionary, U-97	pdfPlot, U-96
extrude2DMesh, U-92	plot3dToFoam, U-93
extrudeMesh, U-92	polyDualMesh, U-93
fieldview9Reader, U-94	postChannel, U-96
flattenMesh, U-93	probeLocations, U-96
flowType, U-95	ptot, U-96
fluent3DMeshToFoam, U-92	reconstructParMesh, U-96
fluentMeshToFoam, U-92, U-156	reconstructPar, U-88, U-96
foamCalc, U-34	redistributeMeshPar, U-96
foamDataToFluent, U-94, U-174	refineHexMesh, U-94
foamDebugSwitches, U-97	refineMesh, U-93
foamFormatConvert, U-97	refineWallLayer, U-94
foamInfoExec, U-97	refinementLevel, U-94
foamMeshToFluent, U-92, U-174	removeFaces, U-94
foamToEnsightParts, U-94	renumberMesh, U-94
foamToEnsight, U-94	rotateMesh, U-94
foamToFieldview9, U-95	sammToFoam, U-93
foamToGMV, U-95	sample, U-96, U-178
foamToStarMesh, U-92	scalePoints, U-161
foamToTecplot360, U-95	selectCells, U-94
foamToVTK, U-95	setFields, U-61, U-92
foamUpgradeFvSolution, U-92	setSet, U-94
gambitToFoam, U-93, U-156	setsToZones, U-94
gmshToFoam, U-93	smapToFoam, U-95

P-96 Index

II- ML II 00 II 140	1. 4. 11.05 11.45
snappyHexMesh, U-92, U-148	kinematic, U-23, U-43
splitCells, U-94	volField <type> template class, P-33</type>
splitMeshRegions, U-94	vorticity utility, U-95
splitMesh, U-94	vtk
star4ToFoam, U-93	keyword entry, U-179
starToFoam, U-93, U-156	vtkFoam
stitchMesh, U-94	library, U-167
streamFunction, U-95	vtkPV3Foam
stressComponents, U-95	library, U-167
subsetMesh, U-94	\mathbf{W}
tetgenToFoam, U-93	wall
transformPoints, U-94	boundary condition, P-64, P-70, U-60, U-137
uprime, U-95	wall
vorticity, U-95	keyword entry, U-138
wallGradU, U-95	wallBuoyantPressure
wallHeatFlux, U-95	•
wallShearStress, $U-95$	boundary condition, U-141
wdot, U-96	wallGradU utility, U-95
writeCellCentres, U-96	wallHeatFlux utility, U-95
writeMeshObj, U-93	Wallis
yPlusLES, U-95	library, U-101
yPlusRAS, U - 95	wallShearStress utility, U-95
${\sf zipUpMesh},\ {\sf U} extstyle ex$	wclean script/alias, U-78
cellSet, U - 93	wdot utility, U-96
faceSet, U -93	wedge
pointSet, U-93	boundary condition, U-133, U-138, U-148
utilityFunctionObjects	wedge
library, U-98	keyword entry, U-138
\mathbf{V}	window
·	Chart Options, U-36
value keyword, U-23, U-140	Color Legend, U-29
valueFraction keyword, U-140	Options, U-172
van Leer differencing, P-38	Pipeline Browser, U-25, U-168
vanLeer	Render View Options, U-171
keyword entry, U-118	Render View, U-172
VCR Controls menu, U-27, U-169	Seed, U-173
vector, P-16	window panel
operator, P-27	Annotation, U-26, U-172
unit, P-20	Color Seels, U-170
vector class, P-24, U-109	Color Scale, U-170
vector product, see tensor, vector cross product	Display, U-26, U-27, U-168, U-169
vectorField class, P-29	General, U-171, U-172
version keyword, U-107	Information, U-168
vertices keyword, U-22, U-143	Lights, U-171
veryInhomogeneousMixture model, U-100, U-186	Properties, U-27, U-168, U-169
View menu, U-171	Region Status, U-26
View Settings	Render View, U-172
menu entry, U-26, U-171	Style, U-26, U-171
View Settings	Wireframe
menu entry, U-26	menu entry, U-171
viscosity	WM_ARCH

environment variable, U-78	wmake
WM_ARCH_OPTION	platforms, U-75
environment variable, U-78	wmake script/alias, U-73
WM_COMPILE_OPTION	word class, P-26, P-31
environment variable, U-78	writeCellCentres utility, U-96
WM_COMPILER	writeCompression keyword, U-114
environment variable, U-78	writeControl
WM_COMPILER_BIN	keyword entry, U-113
environment variable, U-78	writeControl keyword, U-24, U-63, U-113
WM_COMPILER_DIR	writeFormat keyword, U-57, U-113
environment variable, U-78	writeInterval keyword, U-24, U-33, U-113
WM_COMPILER_LIB	writeMeshObj utility, U-93
environment variable, U-78	writeNow
WM_DIR	keyword entry, U-113
environment variable, U-78	writePrecision keyword, U-113
WM_JAVAC_OPTION	
environment variable, U-78	\mathbf{X}
WM_LINK_LANGUAGE	х
environment variable, U-78	keyword entry, U-180
WM_MPLIB	XiFoam solver, U-90
environment variable, U-78	xmgr
WM_OPTIONS	keyword entry, U-114, U-179
environment variable, U-78	xyz
WM_PRECISION_OPTION	keyword entry, U-180
environment variable, U-78	3 7
WM_PROJECT	\mathbf{Y}
environment variable, U-78	у
WM_PROJECT_DIR	keyword entry, U-180
environment variable, U-78	yPlusLES utility, U-95
WM_PROJECT_INST_DIR	yPlusRAS utility, U-95
environment variable, U-78	${f Z}$
WM_PROJECT_LANGUAGE	
environment variable, U-78	Z
WM_PROJECT_USER_DIR	keyword entry, U-180 zeroGradient
environment variable, U-78	
WM_PROJECT_VERSION	boundary condition, U-140
environment variable, U-78	zipUpMesh utility, U-94