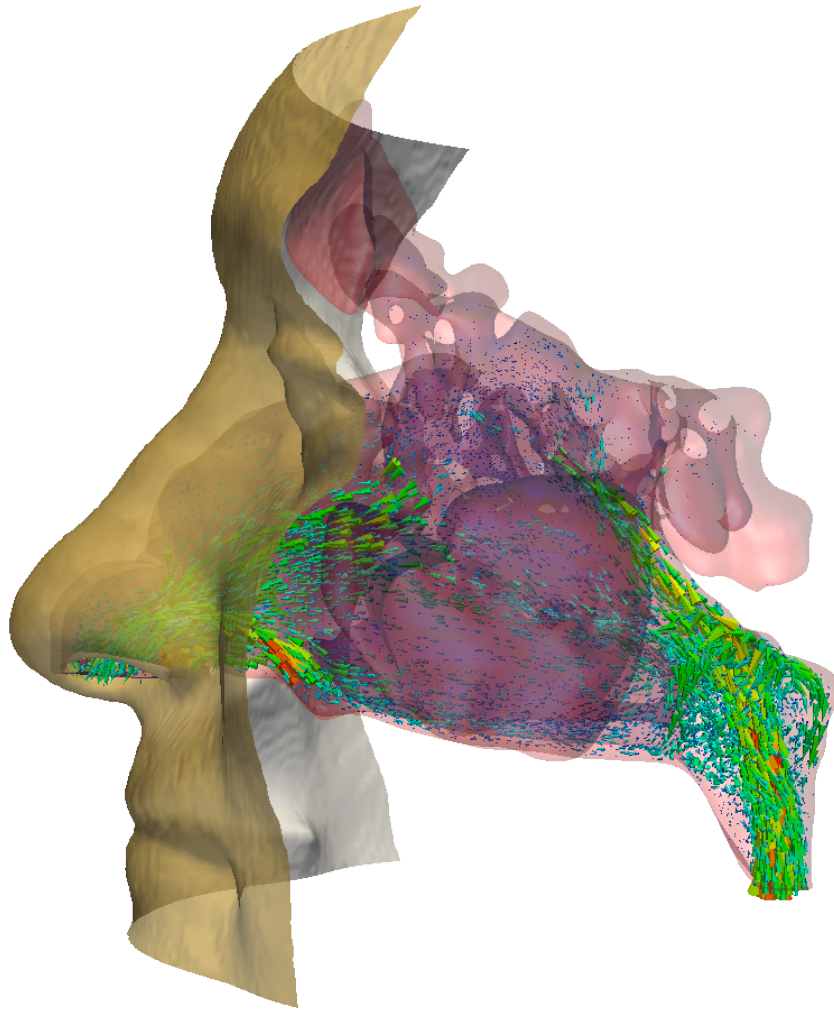


OpenLB User Guide
Associated to Release 1.1 of the Code



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1 Introduction

1.1 Fluid Flow Simulations

1.2 Lattice Boltzmann Methods

This text is directed at people who want gain insight into *Lattice-Boltzmann Methods (LBM)*.

- The most recent publication that this documentation refers to, was written by **Erlend Magnus Viggen**. His PhD Thesis *THE LATTICE BOLTZMANN METHOD: FUNDAMENTALS AND ACOUSTICS* published in 2014, delivers a clear and complete introduction for beginners. Chapters 3 and 4 are particularly relevant, in which he develops the fundamentals, such as *theory of gas kinetics* and *the Boltzmann equation*.
- A concise introduction is given by **A. A. Mohamad**. In his book *LATTICE BOLTZMANN METHOD* [2011], he shows clearly, how one obtains macroscopic equations from *LBM* using *Chapman-Enskog expansion*.
- The readers who want insight into *Lattice-Gas Cellular Automatas* - the historical origin of *LBM* - may want to refer to **Dieter A. Wolf-Glodrow's** book *LATTICE-GAS CELLULAR AUTOMATA AND LATTICE BOLTZMANN MODELS* [2000]. Starting with *Cellular Automata*, he explores the beauty of *LBM*. A helpful interpretation of *LBM* is given in the beginning of the book.
- A quick overview of *LBM*, is obtained from the often cited paper of **S. Chen** and **G. D. Doolen** *LATTICE BOLTZMANN METHOD FOR FLUID FLOWS* published in 1998.

1.3 The OpenLB Project

1.3.1 What is OpenLB?

OpenLB is a numerical framework for lattice Boltzmann simulations, created by students and researchers with different backgrounds in computational fluid dynamics. The code can be used by application programmers to implement specific flow geometries in a straightforward way, and by developers to formulate new models. For this first group of users, OpenLB offers a neat interface through which it is possible to set up a simulation with little effort. For the second group, the structure of the code is kept conceptually simple, implementing basic concepts of the lattice Boltzmann theory step-by-step. Thanks to this, the code is an excellent framework for programmers to develop pieces of reusable code that can be exchanged in the community.

One key aspect of the OpenLB code is genericity in its many facets. The core concept of generic programming is to offer a single code that can serve many purposes. On one hand, the code implements dynamic genericity through the use of object-oriented interfaces. One use of this is that the behavior of lattice sites can be modified during program execution, to distinguish for example between bulk and boundary cells, or to modify the fluid viscosity or the value of a body force dynamically. Furthermore, C++ templates are used to achieve static genericity. As a result, it is sufficient to write a single generic code for various 3D lattice structures, such as D3Q15, D3Q19, and D3Q27 (for more information on lattice structures, see Section 5.1.2).

1.3.2 Getting help with OpenLB

The following resources are available for OpenLB users:

Web site. Most recent releases of the code and documentation, including this user guide, are found on the website <http://www.openlb.net/>.

Forum. If you experience troubles with OpenLB, you may wish to post your concerns to the Lattice Boltzmann community in the forum on the OpenLB homepage.

Bug reports. If you think you found a bug in OpenLB, we encourage you to submit a report to bug@openlb.net. Useful bug reports include the full source code of the program in question, a description of the problem, an explanation of the circumstances under which the problem occurred, and a short description of the hardware and the compiler used. Moreover, other Makefile switches, such as

buildtype and mode of parallelization found in `Makefile.inc` can provide useful information too.

1.3.3 Compiling OpenLB programs

Note: The framework for compiling OpenLB code is based on Makefiles and has so far been tested only on platforms of the Linux/Unix family, including Mac OS X and Cygwin. If you are working under Windows and want to get started quickly, you might consider installing the free Cygwin software [1], which efficiently emulates a Posix environment under Windows (a large part of OpenLB was developed under Cygwin).

OpenLB consists of generic, template-based code, which needs to be included in the code of application programs, and precompiled libraries that are to be linked with the program. The installation process is light and does not require an explicit precompilation and installation of libraries. Instead, it is sufficient to unpack the source code into an arbitrary directory. Compilation of libraries is handled on-demand by the Makefile of an application program.

To get familiar with OpenLB, new users are encouraged to have a look at programs in the `examples` directory. Once inside one of the example directories, entering the command `make` will first produce libraries and then the end-user example program. This close relationship between the production of libraries and end-user programs reflects the fact that many OpenLB users presently tend to play around with the OpenLB code as well.

The file `Makefile.inc` in the root directory can be easily edited to modify the compilation process. Available options include the choice of the compiler (GNU `g++` is the default), optimization flags, and a switch between normal/debug mode, and between sequential/openmp-parallel/mpi-parallel programs.

To compile your own OpenLB programs from an arbitrary directory, make a copy of a sample Makefile. Edit the `ROOT :=` entry to indicate the location of the OpenLB source, and the `OUTPUT :=` entry to explicit the name of your program, without file extension.

1.3.4 Which features are currently implemented?

Lattice Boltzmann models

BGK model for fluids	Section 5.1.3	Reference [16]
Regularized model for fluids	Section 5.1.3	Reference [27]
Multiple Relaxation Times (MRT)	Section 5.1.3	References [18, 38]
Entropic Lattice Boltzmann	Section 5.1.3	Reference [9]
BGK with adjustable speed of sound	Section 5.1.3	References [2, 17]
BGK and MRT with Smagorinsky model	Section 5.1.3	References [29]
Porous media model	Section 5.1.3	
Power law model	Section 5.1.3	

Multiphysics Coupling

Shan-Chen two-component fluid	Section 5.7	Reference [32]
Thermal fluid with Boussinesq approximation	Section 5.7	Reference [22]

Lattice Structures

D2Q9	This lattice is available in the precompiled library
D3Q13	This lattice requires the use of a specific dynamics object (see also Ref. [19])
D3Q15	
D3Q19	This lattice is available in the precompiled library
D3Q27	

Boundary Conditions for straight Boundaries (including corners)

Regularized	local	Default choice for local boundaries
Finite difference (FD) velocity gradients	non-local	Default choice for non-local boundaries
Inamuro	local	
Zou/He	local	
Non-linear FD velocity gradients	non-local	

Boundary Conditions for curved Boundaries

Bouzidi	non-local	first order	References [11]
---------	-----------	-------------	-----------------

Data Structures

The basic data structure used by an application programmer is the `BlockLatticeXD`. Here, the placeholder X stands for the number 2 or 3, depending on whether a 2D or 3D lattice is instantiated. A generalization of the `BlockLatticeXD` are the `CuboidStructureXD` and the `SuperLatticeXD`, both of which have similar functionality but a slightly different scope. These advanced data structures generate a patchwork consisting of many `BlockLatticeXD` structures that are presented behind a unified interface. Applications of these structures are MPI-parallel and memory saving simulations that do not allocate memory in chosen subdomains of the numerical grid.

Input / Output

The basic mechanism behind I/O operations in OpenLB is the serialization and unserialization of a `BlockLatticeXD` and a `DataFieldXD`. This mechanism is used to save the state of a simulation, and to produce VTK output for data post-processing with external tools. In both cases, the data is saved in the binary Base64 format, which ensures compact and (relatively) platform-independent data storage.

1.3.5 Project Participants

The OpenLB project was initiated in 2006. Between 2006 and 2008 Jonas Latt was the project coordinator. As of 2009, Mathias J. Krause has been coordinating the project. Since 2006 the following persons have contributed source code to OpenLB:

Armani Arfaoui: **core:** performance improvements for D3Q19 BGK collision operator

Saada Badie: **core:** performance improvements for D3Q19 BGK collision operator

Lukas Baron: **utilities:** (parallel) console output, time and performance measurement, **dynamics:** porous media model, **functors:** concept, div. functors implementation

Vojtech Cvrcek: **functors:** 2D adaptation, **dynamics:** power law, **examples:** power law, updates

Tim Dornieden: **functors:** smooth start scaling, **io:** vti writer

Jonas Fietz: **io:** configure file parsing based on XML, octree STL reader interface to CVMLCPP (< release 0.9), **communication:** heuristic load balancer

Benjamin Förster: **core:** super data implementation **io:** new serializer and serializable implementation, vti writer, new vti reader, **functors:** new discrete indicator

Marc Haussmann (active): **dynamics:** turbulence modelling, **examples:** tgv3d

Thomas Henn: **io:** voxelizer interface based on STL, **particles:** particulate flows

Fabian Klemens (active): **functors:** flux, indicator-based functors **io:** gnuplot interface

Jonas Kratzke: **core:** unit converter, **io:** GUI interface based on description files and OpenGPI, **boundaries:** Bouzidi boundary condition

Mathias J. Krause (active): **core:** hybrid-parallelization approach, super structure, **communication:** OpenMP parallelization, cuboid data structure for MPI parallelization, load balancing, **general:** makefile environment for compilation, integration and maintenance of added components (since 2008), **boundaries:** Bouzidi boundary condition, convection, **geometry:** concept, parallelization, statistics, **io** new serializer and serializable concept, **functors:** concept, div. functors implementation, **examples:** venturi3d, aorta3d

Jonas Latt: **core:** basic block structure, **communication:** basic parallel block lattice approach (< release 0.9), **io:** vti writer, **general:** integration and maintenance of added components (2006-2008), **boundaries:** basic boundary structure, **dynamics:** basic dynamics structure, **examples:** numerous examples, which have been further developed in recent years

Marie-Luise Maier (active): **particles:** particulate flows, frame change

Orestis Malaspinas: **boundaries:** alternative boundary conditions (Inamuro, Zou/He, Nonlinear FD), **dynamics:** alternative LB models (Entropic LB, MRT)

Cyril Masquelier: **functors:** indicator, smooth indicator

Albert Mink (active): **functors:** arithmetic, **io:** parallel VTK interface3, zLib compression for VTK data, GifWriter, **dynamics:** radiative transport, **boundary:** diffuse reflective boundary

Patrick Nathen (active): **dynamics:** turbulence modeling (advanced subgrid-scale models), **examples:** nozzle3d

Bernd Stahl: **communication:** 3D extension to MultiBlock structure for MPI parallelization (< release 0.9), **core:** parallel version of (scalar or tensor-valued) data fields (< release 0.9), **io:** VTK output of data (< release 0.9)

Robin Trunk (active): dynamics: parallel thermal, advection diffusion models

Peter Weisbrod (active): dynamics: parallel multi phase/component,
examples: structure and showcases, phaseSeparationXd

Gilles Zahnd: functors: rotating frame functors

Asher Zarth: core: vector implementation

Simon Zimny: io: pre-processing: automated setting of boundary conditions

2 Using OpenLB for Applications

The general way of functioning in OpenLB follows a generic path. The following structure is maintained throughout every OpenLB application example, to provide a common structure and guide beginners.

1st Step: Initialization The converter between physical and lattice units is set in this step. It is also defined, where the simulation data is stored and which lattice type is used.

2nd Step: Prepare geometry The geometry is acquired, either from another file (a `.stl` file) or from defining indicator functions. Then, the mesh is created and initialized based on the given geometry. This consists of classifying voxels with material numbers, according to the kind of voxels they are: an inner voxel containing fluid ruled by the fluid dynamics will have a different number than a voxel on the inflow with conditions on its velocity. The function `prepareGeometry` is called for these tasks. Further, the mesh is distributed over the threads to establish good scaling properties.

3rd Step: Prepare lattice According to the material numbers of the geometry, the lattice dynamics are set here. This step characterizes the collision model and boundary behavior. The choices depend on whether a force is acting or not, the use of single relaxation time (BGK) or multiple relaxation times (MRT), the simulation dimension (it can also be a 2D model), whether compressible or incompressible fluid is considered, and the number of neighbouring voxels chosen. By the creation of a computing grid, the `SuperLattice`, the allocation of the required data is done as well.

4th Step: Main loop with timer The timer is initialized and started, then a loop over all time steps `iT` starts the simulation, during which the functions `setBoundaryValues`, `collideAndStream` and `getResults` (steps 5, 6 and 7 respectively) are called repeatedly until a maximum of iterations is reached, or the simulation has converged. At the end, the timer is stopped and the summary is printed to the console.

5th Step: Definition of initial and boundary conditions The first of the three important functions called during the loop, `setBoundaryValues`, sets the slowly increasing inflow boundary condition. Since the boundary is time dependent, this happens in the main loop. In some applications, the boundaries stay the same during the whole simulation and the function doesn't need to do anything after the very first iteration.

6th Step: Collide and stream execution Another function `collideAndStream` is called each iteration step, to perform the collision and the streaming step. If more than one lattice is used, the function is called for each lattice separately.

7th Step: Computation and output of results At the end of each iteration step, the function `getResults` is called, which creates console output, `.ppm` files or `.vti` files of the results at certain timesteps. The ideal is to get the relevant simulation data with functors and thus facilitate the post processing significantly. By passing the converter and the time step, the frequency of writing or displaying data can be chosen easily. In many applications, the console output is required more often than the vtk data.

2.1 Lesson 1: Getting Started - Sketch of Application

This Section presents example `bstep2d` which can be found in the recent release of OpenLB. This well known example simulates a flow over a backward-facing step and serves as an illustration of OpenLB and its features.

In order to execute the simulation and get some results, download and unpack OpenLB on a Linux system, see Section 3.1. Then, generate a executable file by compiling the program through the command `make`. Finally, launch the simulation by `./bstep2d` and observe the terminal output, see Section 7.5.

A few lines are invariably the same for all OpenLB applications, see Listing 2.1.

```
#include "olb2D.h"
#ifdef OLB_PRECOMPILED // Unless precompiled version is used,
    #include "olb2D.hh" // include full template code
#endif
5
#include <vector> // Some C++ library for vectors
#include <cmath> // required to compute squares, sin, ...
#include <iostream> // to write to console
#include <fstream>
```

10

```

using namespace olb; // OpenLB namespaces
using namespace olb::descriptors; //

typedef double T;
15 #define DESCRIPTOR D2Q9Descriptor

```

Listing 2.1: Framework of an OpenLB program. Fundamental properties of the simulation are defined here.

Line 1: The header file `olb2D.h` includes definitions for the whole 2D code present in the release. In the same way, access to 3D code is obtained by including the file `olb3D.h`.

Line 3: Most OpenLB code depends on template parameters. Therefore, it cannot be compiled in advance, and needs to be integrated “as is” into your programs via the file `olb2D.hh` or `olb3D.hh` respectively. Including all this code slows down compilation (2D codes may take around 10 seconds to compile, and 3D codes around 30 seconds). If this overhead becomes too annoying during frequent development-compilation cycles, the code can be precompiled for the required data types. Although this topic is not covered in the tutorial, this short explanation should clarify the meaning of the the cryptic `#ifndef OLB_PRECOMPILED`.

Line 11: All OpenLB code is contained in the namespace `olb`. The descriptors have an own namespace and define the lattice arrangement, e.g. `D2Q9` or `D3Q19`.

Line 14: Choice of double precision floating point arithmetic. Any other floating point type can be used, including built-in types and user-defined types which are implemented through a C++ class.

Line 15: Choice of a lattice descriptor. Lattice descriptors specify not only which lattice you are going to use (for 2D simulations, the current OpenLB release gives you no choice but `D2Q9` anyway), but also potentially the nature of additional scalars, such as an external force field, for which memory needs to be allocated on a grid cell.

The next code presents a brief overview about the structure of an OpenLB application, see Listing 2.2. It aims rather to introduce and guidelines the beginners, than explain the classes and methods in depth. Details on the shown functions can be found in the source code, this means in the `bstep2d.cpp` file, as well as in the following Chapters.

```

SuperGeometry2D<T> prepareGeometry(LBconverter<T> const& converter)
{
    // create Cuboids and assign them to threads
    // create SuperGeometry
5 // set material numbers
    return superGeometry;
}
void prepareLattice(...)
{
10 // set dynamics for fluid and boundary lattices
    // set initial values, rho and u
}
void setBoundaryValues(...)
{
15 // set Poiseuille velocity profile at inflow
    // increase inflow velocity slowly over time
}
void getResult(...)
{
20 //write simulation data do vtk files and terminal
}

int main(int argc, char* argv[])
{
25 // === 1st Step: Initialization ===
    olbInit(&argc, &argv);
    // set output directory
    singleton::directories().setOutputDir("./tmp/");
    OstreamManager clout(std::cout, "main");
30 // create converter
    LBconverter<T> converter(
        // define discretization and characteristic parameter
    );
    converter.print(); // write conversion factors to console
35 // === 2rd Step: Prepare Geometry ===
    SuperGeometry2D<T> superGeometry( prepareGeometry(converter) );

    // === 3rd Step: Prepare Lattice ===
40 SuperLattice2D<T, DESCRIPTOR> sLattice(superGeometry);

    BGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> bulkDynamics (
        converter.getOmega(),
        instances::getBulkMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>()
45 );
}

```

```

// choose local boundary condition
sOnLatticeBoundaryCondition2D<T, DESCRIPTOR> sBoundaryCondition(
    sLattice);
createLocalBoundaryCondition2D<T, DESCRIPTOR>(sBoundaryCondition);
50
prepareLattice(converter, sLattice, bulkDynamics,
               sBoundaryCondition, superGeometry);

// === 4th Step: Main Loop with Timer ===
55 Timer<T> timer(converter.numTimeSteps(maxPhysT),
                 superGeometry.getStatistics().getNvoxel());
timer.start();

for (int iT = 0; iT < converter.numTimeSteps(maxPhysT); ++iT) {
60 // == 5th Step: Definition of Initial and Boundary Conditions ==
    setBoundaryValues(converter, sLattice, iT, superGeometry);
    // == 6th Step: Collide and Stream Execution ==
    sLattice.collideAndStream();
    // == 7th Step: Computation and Output of the Results ==
65 getResults(sLattice, converter, iT, superGeometry, timer);
}

timer.stop();
timer.printSummary();
70 }

```

Listing 2.2: A brief overview of a typically OpenLB application, `bstep2d`. Details on the specific functions can be found in the following Chapters.

2.2 Lesson 2: Understand the BlockLattice

This second lesson starts with a response to the scream of indignation you emitted in Lesson 1, when you learned that each cell of a `BlockLatticeXD` carries along its own `Dynamics` object, and collision is triggered by some dynamic run-time mechanism. How could the OpenLB developers favor object-oriented mumbojumbo over efficiency, right there in the core of the library?

The truth is that the overhead incurred by delegating collision to an object (instead of hard-coding collision somewhere inside the loop over grid nodes) is completely irrelevant. The efficiency loss is minimal on all platforms on which OpenLB has been tested so far, and it is negligible in face of other big-picture efficiency considerations.

One such consideration is about the separation of collision and streaming in Line 63 of Listing 2.2. The question to ask, instead of nitpicking over object-oriented vs. non-object-oriented issues, is whether it is really necessary to step through memory twice; once to execute collision and once to execute streaming. As a matter of fact, there are several ways of avoiding this time-consuming double access to memory, one of which is implemented in OpenLB and documented in Ref. [3]. For an OpenLB user, doing this is as easy as replacing the collision-streaming sequence by a call to the method `collideAndStream()`:

```
// collision-streaming cycles
// lattice.collide();
// lattice.stream(true);
lattice.collideAndStream(true);
```

Listing 2.3: Collision and streaming in one step for improved efficiency

Using the method `collideAndStream` is, of course, only possible when you don't need to compute or modify anything between collision and streaming. When this is the case, the use of this method can however reduce by as much as 40% the execution time of your code, depending on your hardware.

The `BlockLattice2D<T, LATTICE>` is basically a n_x -by- n_y -by- q array of variables of type `T`. The following code for example is valid (although it is bad practice, as explained below):

```
1 int nx, ny, someX, someY, someF;
// <...> some code to initialize nx, ny, someX and someY
BlockLattice2D<T, LATTICE> lattice(nx,ny); // instantiate
BlockLattice
T value = lattice.get(someX,someY)[someF]; // read values
lattice.get(someX,someY)[someF] = 0.; // write values
```

Listing 2.4: Direct access to values in a `BlockLattice2D`

The method `BlockLattice2D<T, LATTICE>::get()` delivers an object of type `Cell<LATTICE>`, which contains storage space for the particle populations and, if required by the `LATTICE` template, for additional scalars. The `Cell` offers many methods to read and manipulate the data. You are much more likely to use those methods in practice, rather than accessing particle populations directly as in Listing 2.4:

```
int nx, ny, someX, someY, someF;
// <...> some code to initialize nx, ny, someX and someY
BlockLattice2D<T, LATTICE> lattice(nx,ny); // instantiate
BlockLattice
```

```

// <...> some code to initialize dynamics objects of the lattice
5 T velocity[2];
  lattice.get(someX,someY).computeU(velocity); // compute velocity
  velocity[0] = 0.;
  lattice.get(someX,someY).defineU(velocity); // modify velocity

```

Listing 2.5: Manipulation of data through methods of a Cell

In this example, the method `Cell<T>::computeU()` computes the velocity on a cell for you, using its dynamics object. Conversely, the method `Cell<T>::defineU()` modifies the velocity by translating the particle populations into space of moments, modifying the moment of the velocity, and leaving the others as they are.

In addition to being more convenient, the access to the data in Listing 2.5 has a distinct advantage to the approach of Listing 2.4. In Listing 2.4 the data inside a `Cell` is accessed directly, whereas in Listing 2.5 it is accessed indirectly through the dynamics object of the cell. Although direct data access works in simple data structures, such as the present `BlockLattice2D`, only indirect data access can be used in complicated data structures. When the code is, for example executed in parallel, you cannot access the data directly, because it might not be found on your processor. The dynamics object, on the other hand, is smart enough to locate the data on the right processor, and to instantiate MPI communication to access it.

Generally speaking, the methods of a `Cell` are separated into two groups, one for direct data access, and one for indirect data access through the dynamics object. When using OpenLB as an application programmer, it is strongly recommended that you only make use of methods in the second group, in order for your code to be extensible. Methods of the first group are used by programmers who wish to extend the OpenLB library, for example by writing a class to implement a new type of dynamics. Most of the subsequent lessons are written for application programmers, and the code is written with extensibility in mind, for example, by insisting on the possibility for it to be run in parallel with minimal changes.

The following list details some useful methods to access the data of a `Cell` indirectly through the dynamics object:

void iniEquilibrium(T rho, const T u[Lattice<T>::d]) Initialize all particle populations at an equilibrium distribution with density `rho` and velocity `u`.

T computeRho() const Compute the particle density on the cell.

void computeU(T u[Lattice<T>::d]) const Compute the velocity on the cell.

void computeStress (T pi[util::TensorVal<Lattice<T>>::n] const) Compute the off-equilibrium stress-tensor $\Pi^{(1)}$ on the cell.

void computePopulations(T* f) const Retrieve the particle populations and store them in a q -element C-array.

void computeExternalField(int pos, int size, T* ext) const Retrieve the external scalars and store them in a C-array.

void defineRho(T rho) Modify the populations such that the density yields `rho` and the other moments are unchanged.

void defineU(const T u[Lattice<T>::d]) Modify the populations such that the velocity yields `u` and the other moments are unchanged.

void defineStress(const T pi[util::TensorVal<Lattice<T>>::n]) Modify the populations such that the tensor $\Pi^{(1)}$ yields `pi` and the other moments are unchanged.

void definePopulations(const T* f) Attribute new values to all populations. The argument `f` is a C-array with q elements.

void defineExternalField(int pos, int size, const T* ext) Attribute new values to all external scalars.

The discussion of this lesson is also valid for 3D lattices, which are instantiated with the following instruction:

```
#define D3Q19Descriptor LATTICE
int nx, ny, nz;
// <...> initialization of nx, ny, nz
BlockLattice3D<T, LATTICE> lattice(nx, ny, nz);
```

Listing 2.6: Instantiation of a 3D lattice

The `BlockLattice2D` and the `BlockLattice3D` have different types, because they have distinct interfaces. The method `get()` for example requires 2 arguments in the 2D case and 3 arguments in 3D. The `Cell` class, an instance of which is delivered by the method `get()`, is however the same in 2D and 3D, although its template is instantiated with a different lattice descriptor (e.g. `D2Q9Descriptor` vs. `D3Q19Descriptor`). The above list of methods of the `Cell` is therefore valid in 3D as well.

2.3 Lesson 3: Define and use boundary conditions

The current OpenLB release offers five different boundary conditions for the implementation of pressure and velocity boundaries. They support boundaries that are aligned with the numerical grid, and also implement proper corner nodes in 2D and 3D, and edge nodes that connect two plane boundaries in 3D. The choice of a boundary condition is conceptually separated from the definition of the location of boundary nodes. It is therefore possible to modify the choice of the boundary condition by changing a single instruction in a program. This instruction is the instantiation of a `OnLatticeBoundaryCondition` object:

```
// Instantiate 2D boundary condition
OnLatticeBoundaryCondition2D<T,D2Q9Descriptor>* boundaryCondition2D =
    createLocalBoundaryCondition2D(lattice);

5 // Instantiate 3D boundary condition
OnLatticeBoundaryCondition2D<T,D3Q19Descriptor>* boundaryCondition3D
    =
    createLocalBoundaryCondition3D(lattice);
```

Listing 2.7: Instantiation of `OnLatticeBoundaryCondition`.

Objects of type `OnLatticeBoundaryConditionXD` are used to attribute the role of boundary node to chosen nodes of the lattice. The following code configures a lattice in such a way that the rectangle following the lattice boundaries implements a boundary condition on the velocity.

```
template<typename T>
void velocityBoundaryBox (
    BlockLattice2D<T,D2Q9Descriptor>& lattice,
    OnLatticeBoundaryCondition2D<T,D2Q9Descriptor>& bc, T omega)
5 {
    int nx = lattice.getNx();
    int ny = lattice.getNy();
    // top boundary
    bc.addVelocityBoundary1P(1,nx-2,ny-1,ny-1, omega);
10 // bottom boundary
    bc.addVelocityBoundary1N(1,nx-2, 0, 0, omega);
    // left boundary
    bc.addVelocityBoundary0N(0,0, 1, ny-2, omega);
    // right boundary
15 bc.addVelocityBoundary0P(nx-1,nx-1, 1, ny-2, omega);

    // Corner nodes
```

```

bc.addExternalVelocityCornerNN(0,0, omega);
bc.addExternalVelocityCornerNP(0,ny-1, omega);
20 bc.addExternalVelocityCornerPN(nx-1,0, omega);
bc.addExternalVelocityCornerPP(nx-1,ny-1, omega);

// Make the lattice ready for simulation
lattice.initialize();
25 }

```

Listing 2.8: Instantiation of velocity boundary condition along lattice boundaries.

When boundary nodes are instantiated, it is necessary to specify the orientation of the boundary through the normal vector that points outside of the domain. The instruction `addVelocityBoundary1P` refers to a boundary whose normal is in positive y -direction (P stands for “positive”, and indexes are numbered as 0 for the x -index and 1 for the y -index). For external corners, the expression NN refers to any boundary vector whose opposite direction points inside the numerical domain. In this case, this boundary vector points in negative x -direction and negative y -direction. The term `External` in the method `addExternalVelocityCornerNN` refers to the fact that the domain boundaries are convex shaped. Corners of concave shaped boundaries are instantiated with methods of the form `addInternalVelocityCornerXX`, where X stands again for N or P and indicates the direction of a vector pointing outside the numerical domain.

Pressure boundaries are instantiated just as easily by replacing the word `Velocity` by `Pressure` in the methods of the `OnLatticeBoundaryCondition` object.

Things are slightly more complicated in 3D, where edges also need separate treatment. Edges are locations where two boundary surfaces that are orthogonal to each other meet. The following are typical instructions one may use in the 3D case. In 3D, the instruction `addVelocityBoundary0N` instantiates a plane boundary domain in negative x -direction (a left boundary). It takes 6 arguments, in addition to the `omega`-argument, in order to delimit the plane like a sub-volume with one degenerate space direction. The instruction `addExternalVelocityEdge0NP` instantiates an edge whose outward-pointing normal vector is in the 0-plane (in the plane in which $x = 0$) and which points in negative y - and positive z -direction. Counting of indexes is cyclic: the instruction `addExternalVelocityEdge1NP` denotes an edge with normal vector in the $y = 0$ -plane and with negative z - and positive x -direction. The `Edge` instructions also take 6+1 arguments, because they treat the edge like a sub-volume with two degenerate directions. In 3D, there are external and internal corners, and there are external and internal edges.

Although setting up the geometry of the numerical domain can be somewhat bothersome, especially in 3D, this is a one-time job. Once the setup is completed, specifying the required velocity and density on boundaries is straightforward. This is done through a call to the method `defineVelocity` or `defineDensity` of the corresponding cell. You may remember from LESSON 2, that on normal lattice Boltzmann nodes, these methods modify the value of particle populations in order to obtain the required velocity/density. On boundary nodes, the rules are different. Here, particle populations are *not modified* (which is necessary, as you may want to change the boundary velocity during a simulation, without tampering with the particle populations). On velocity boundaries, the method `defineVelocity` modifies the required velocity value for the boundary, whereas `defineDensity` has no effect. On pressure boundaries, the method `defineVelocity` has no effect and `defineDensity` picks out the required density value on the boundary. It should be pointed out that although the domain geometry is specified piece-wise (plane per plane, edge per edge, and corner per corner), the velocity/density can be adapted individually on every node. Furthermore, accessing parameters of the boundary on a per-cell base is convenient, because it does not require the programmer to distinguish any more between plane boundaries, edges or corners. Finally, the choice of the velocity/density value is not static: it can be altered at every time step to model time-dependent boundaries.

The following is a list of available boundary conditions. Instead of showing the actual class name of the boundary condition, the list indicates the names of functions that generate the boundary condition, as these are the ones you are likely to access as an end user. The `X` is a placeholder for 2 respectively 3, as all boundary conditions are implemented in 2D and 3D.

`createLocalBoundaryConditionXD` This is the default local boundary condition. It implements a regularized boundary [27], which tends to be numerically stable in a last range of regimes.

`createInterpBoundaryConditionXD` This is the default non-local boundary condition. It is based on the algorithm proposed by Skordos [34], and uses a finite difference scheme over adjacent neighbors to evaluate velocity gradients.

`createZouHeBoundaryConditionXD` The local boundary condition introduced by Zou and He [39]. It is very accurate, especially in 2D simulations, but can have stability issues.

`createInamuroBoundaryConditionXD` The local boundary condition by Inamuro In-

amuro et al. [25]. It is very accurate in 2D and 3D, but can have stability issues. In 3D, it is slower than other boundary conditions, because it solves an implicit equation at every time step.

createExtendedFdBoundaryConditionXD The approach is the same as in the boundary condition generated by `createInterpBoundaryConditionXD`, but this time, non-linear velocity terms of the Chapman-Enskog expansion are taken into account. This is rarely useful, but can make a difference in a very low Mach-number regime.

It should be clear by now, how powerful the abstraction mechanism of the “OnLatticeBoundaryConditionXD” objects is. With the help of this mechanism, one can treat local and non-local boundary conditions the same way. Furthermore, they can be used both for sequential and parallel program execution, as it is shown in Lesson 10. The mechanism behind this is explained in Lesson 7. The bottom line is that both local and non-local boundary conditions instantiate a special dynamics object and assign it to boundary cells. Non-local boundaries additionally instantiate post-processing objects which take care of non-local aspects of the algorithm.

This mechanism for the instantiation of boundary conditions is generic and easy to use, but it makes sense only in quite regular geometries. In irregular geometries, even if you agree on using a staircase approximation of domain boundaries, you will experience a hard time attributing the right boundary type to each cell. Although off-lattice boundaries are under investigation in the OpenLB project, they are not currently available. If your irregular domain boundaries implement a no-slip condition, your current best bet is to implement them through a fullway bounce-back dynamics. In this approach, particle populations that are opposite to each other are swapped at each iteration step, and no additional collision is executed. The advantage of this procedure is that it is independent of the orientation of the domain. The following code implements for example a circular obstacle with no-slip walls in the center of a 2D domain:

```

<...> definition of the types T and DESCRIPTOR
int nx, ny, r;
<...> initialization of nx and ny, r
BlockLattice2D<T, DESCRIPTOR> lattice(nx, ny);
5 <...> setup of the lattice
  for (int iX=0; iX<nx; ++iX) {
    for (int iY=0; iY<ny; ++iY) {
      if ((iX-nx/2)*(iX-nx/2) + (iY-ny/2)*(iY-ny/2) < r*r) {
        lattice.defineDynamics(iX, iX, iY, iY,
10         &instances::getBounceBack<T, D2Q9Descriptor>() );

```

```
}  
}  
}
```

Listing 2.9: Implementation of a bounce-back cylinder in the domain center

2.4 Lesson 4: Converter - Lattice and Physical Units

Fluid flow problems are usually given in a system of metric units. For example consider a cylinder of diameter 3cm in a fluid channel with average inflow velocity of 4m/s . The fluid has a kinematic viscosity of $0,001\text{m}^2/\text{s}$. The value of interest is the pressure difference measured in Pa at the front and the back of the cylinder (with respect to the flow direction). However, the variables used in a LB simulation live in a system of lattice units, in which the distance between two lattice cells and the time interval between two iteration steps are unity. Therefore, when setting up a simulation, a conversion directive has to be defined that takes care of translating variables from physical units into lattice units and *vice versa*. In OpenLB, all these conversions are handled by a class called `LBconverter`, see Listing 2.10. An instance of the `LBconverter` is generated with some reference values of the simulation and the desired discretization parameters. It provides a set of conversion functions, to enable a fast and easy way to convert between physical units and lattice units. In addition, it gives information about the parameters of the fluid flow simulation, such as the Reynolds number or the relaxation parameter ω .

Let's have a closer look at the input parameters: The reference values represent characteristic quantities of the fluid flow problem. In this example, it is suitable to choose the cylinder's diameter as characteristic length and the average inflow speed as characteristic velocity. The converter internally builds a "dimensionless" system of units in which the characteristic values are one. The Reynolds number Re is an important parameter of this system. Furthermore, two discretization parameters $latticeL$ and $latticeU$ are provided to the converter. $latticeL$ is the discrete space interval in physical units and from this the dimensionless discretization parameter δ_x is determined: $\delta_x = latticeL/charL$. $latticeU$ sets the relation between the discretization parameters for space δ_x and time δ_t in dimensionless units: $latticeU = \delta_u = \delta_t/\delta_x$. Instead of δ_t , those working with LBM often like to specify $latticeU$. One reason for this is that $latticeU$ is proportional to the Mach number, and its choice is important to control compressibility effects.

Once the converter is initialized, its methods can be used to convert various quantities such as velocity, time, force or pressure. The function for the latter helps us to evaluate the pressure drop in our example problem, as shown in the the following code snippet:

```

LBconverter<T> converter(
    (int) 3; // dimension
    (T) 0.003; // latticeL
    (T) 0.02; // latticeU
5   (T) 0.001; // charNu
    (T) 0.03; // charL
    (T) 4.; // charU
    (T) 1.; // charRho
    (T) 0.; // pressureLevel
10 );
writeLogFile(converter, "converterLog.dat"); // write to file
converter.print(); // write to terminal
std::cout << converter.getRe() << std::endl; // access data
// conversion from seconds to iteration steps and vice-versa
15 int iT = converter.numTimeSteps(maxPhysT);
    T sec = converter.physTime(iT);
    <...> simulation
    <...> evaluation of latticeRho at the back and the front of the
        cylinder
    T pressureDrop = converter.physPressure(latticeRhoFront)
20                 - converter.physPressure(latticeRhoBack);

```

Listing 2.10: Use of LBconverter in a 3D problem.

Line 1-10: Instantiate an `LBconverter` object and specify discretization parameters as well as characteristic values.

Line 11: Write simulation parameters and conversion factors in a logfile.

Line 12: Write simulation parameters and conversion factors to terminal.

Line 13: Access Reynolds number Re and print it to terminal. Other characteristic values, e.g. kinematic viscosity ν , can be accessed via corresponding functions.

Line 15,16: The conversion from physical units (seconds) to discrete ones (time steps) is managed by the converter.

Line 19: The converter automatically calculates the pressure values from the local density.

2.5 Lesson 5: Extract data from a simulation

When the collision step is executed, the value of the density and the velocity are computed internally, in order to evaluate the equilibrium distribution. Those macroscopic variables are however interesting for the OpenLB end-user as well, and it would be a shame to simply neglect their value after use. These values are accessed through the method `getStatistics()` of a `BlockLattice`:

T `lattice.getStatistics().getAverageRho()` Returns average density evaluated during the previous collision step.

T `lattice.getStatistics().getAverageEnergy()` Returns half the average velocity norm evaluated during the previous collision step.

T `lattice.getStatistics().getMaxU()` Returns maximum value of the velocity norm evaluated during the previous collision step.

Often, the information provided by the statistics of a lattice is not sufficient, and more generally numerical results are required. To do this, you can get data cell-by-cell from the `BlockLatticeXD` and `SuperLatticeXD` through functors, see Chapter 9. Functors act on the underlying lattice and process its data to relevant macroscopic units, e.g. density, velocity, stress, flux, pressure and drag. Functors provide an `operator()` that instead of accessing stored data, computes every time it is called the data. Since OpenLB version 0.8, the concept of functors unfolded not only for postprocessing, but also for boundary conditions and the generation of geometry, see Chapter 9. In Listing 2.11 it is shown, how to extract data out of a `SuperLattice3D` named `sLattice` and a `SuperGeometry3D` named `sGeometry`. The data format is a legal `vtk` file, that can be processed further with `ParaView`.

```
// generate the writer object
SuperVTMWriter3D<T> vtmWriter("bstep3d");
// write every 0.2 seconds
if (iT==converter.numTimeSteps(0.2)) {
5 // create functors
  SuperLatticeGeometry3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> geometry(sLattice, sGeometry
    );
  SuperLatticeCuboid3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> cuboid(sLattice);
  SuperLatticeRank3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> rank(sLattice);
  // write functors to file system, vtk format
10 vtmWriter.write(geometry);
   vtmWriter.write(cuboid);
   vtmWriter.write(rank);
}
```

```
}
```

Listing 2.11: Extract simulation data to `vtk` file format.

As before mentioned, OpenLB provides functors for a bunch of data, see Listing 2.12. More details about writing simulation data can be found in Chapter 7.

```
// Create the functors by only passing lattice and converter
2 SuperLatticePhysVelocity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> velocity(&sLattice, &
  converter);
SuperLatticePhysPressure3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> pressure(&sLattice, &
  converter);
// Create functor that corresponds to material numbers
SuperLatticeGeometry3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> geometry(sLattice, superGeometry
  );
```

Listing 2.12: Code example for creating velocity, pressure and geometry functors.

The most straightforward and convenient way of visualizing simulation data is to produce a 2D snapshot of a scalar valued functor. This is done through the `BlockLatticeReduction3D`, which puts a plane into arbitrary 3D functors. Afterwards, this plane can be easily written to a image file. OpenLB creates images of format PPM as shown in Listing 2.18.

```
// velocity is an application: R^3 -> R^3
// an image in its very basic sense is an application: R^2 -> R

// transformation of data is presented below
5 // get velocity functor
SuperLatticePhysVelocity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> velocity(&sLattice, &
  converter);
// get scalar valued functor by applying the point wise l2 norm
SuperEuklidNorm3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> normVel( velocity );
// put a plane with normal (0,0,1) in the 3 dimensional data
10 BlockLatticeReduction3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> planeReduction( normVel, 0, 0,
  1 );
BlockGifWriter<T> gifWriter;
// write ppm image to file system
gifWriter.write( planeReduction, iT, "vel" );
```

Listing 2.13: Create a PPM image out of a 3D velocity functor.

This image writer provides insitu visualization which, in contrast to the `vtk` writer, produces smaller data sets that can be interpreted immediately without requiring other

software.

2.6 Lesson 6: Convergence Check

The class `ValueTracer` checks for time-convergence of a given scalar ϕ . The convergence is reached when the standard deviation σ of the monitored value ϕ is smaller than a given residuum ϵ times the expected value $\bar{\phi}$.

$$\sigma(\phi) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^N (\phi_i - \bar{\phi})^2} < \epsilon \bar{\phi} \quad (2.1)$$

The expected value $\bar{\phi}$ is the average over the last N time steps with $\phi_i := \phi(t * -i\Delta t)$ and time steps Δt .

$$\bar{\phi} = \frac{1}{N+1} \sum_{i=0}^N \phi_i \quad (2.2)$$

N should be chosen as a problem specific time period. As an example $charT = charL/charU$ and $N = converter.numTimeSteps(charT)$. To initialize a `ValueTracer` object use:

```
util::ValueTracer<T> converge( numberTimeSteps, residuum );
```

Listing 2.14: Create a PPM image out of a 3D velocity functor.

For example, to check for convergence with a residuum of $\epsilon = 10^{-5}$ every physical second:

```
util::ValueTracer<T> converge( converter.numTimeSteps(1.0), 1e-5 );
```

Listing 2.15: Create a PPM image out of a 3D velocity functor.

There for it is needed to pass the monitored value to the `ValueTracer` object every time steps by:

```
for (iT = 0; iT < maxIter; ++iT) {  
    ...  
    converge.takeValue( monitoredValue, isVerbose );  
4 ...  
}
```

Listing 2.16: Create a PPM image out of a 3D velocity functor.

If you like to print average value and its standard derivation every number of time steps chosen during initialization set `isVerbose` to true otherwise choose false. It is good idea to choose average energy as monitored value:

```
converge.takeValue( SLattice.getStatistics().getAverageEnergy(), true
);
```

Listing 2.17: Create a PPM image out of a 3D velocity functor.

Do something like the following in the timeloop:

```
if (converge.hasConverged()) {
clout << "Simulation converged." << endl;
break;
4 }
```

Listing 2.18: Create a PPM image out of a 3D velocity functor.

2.7 Lesson 7: Use an external force

In simulations, the dynamics of a fluid is often driven by a force field (gravity, intermolecular interaction, etc.) which is space- and time-dependent, and which is possibly computed from an external source, independent of the LB simulation. In order to optimize memory access and to minimize cache-misses, the value of this force can be stored in a cell, adjacent to the particle populations. This is achieved by specifying external scalars in the lattice descriptor (see also Lesson 7). OpenLB offers, by default, the two descriptors `ForcedD2Q9Descriptor` and `ForcedD3Q19Descriptor`. The dynamics `ForcedBGKdynamics` accesses the force term defined by these descriptors, and implements a LB dynamics with body force. The algorithm is taken from Ref. [21] to guarantee second-order accuracy even when the force field is space and time dependent. An example for the implementation of a LB simulation with force term is found in the code `examples/poiseuille2d/forced`.

2.8 Lesson 8: Understand genericity in OpenLB

OpenLB is a framework for the implementation of lattice Boltzmann algorithms. Although most of the code shipped with the distribution is about fluid dynamics, it is open to various types of physical models. Generally speaking, a model which makes

use of OpenLB must be formulated in terms of the “local collision followed by nearest-neighbor streaming” philosophy. A current restriction to OpenLB is that the streaming step can only include nearest neighbors: there is no possibility to include larger neighborhoods within the modular framework of the library, *i.e.* without tampering with OpenLB source code. Except for this restriction, one is completely free to define the topology of the neighborhood of cells, to implement an arbitrary local collision step, and to add non-local corrections for the implementation of, say, a boundary condition.

To reach this level of genericity, OpenLB distinguishes between non-modifiable core components, which you’ll always use as they are, and modular extensions. As far as these extensions are concerned, you have the choice to use default implementations that are part of OpenLB or to write your own. As a scientific developer, concentrating on these, usually quite short, extensions means that you can concentrate on the physics of your model instead of technical implementation details. By respecting this concept of modularity, you can automatically take advantage of all structural additions to OpenLB. In the current release, the most important addition is parallelism: you can run your code in parallel without (or almost without) having to care about parallelism and MPI.

The most important non-modifiable components are the lattice and the cell. You can configure their behavior, but you are not expected to write a new class which inherits from or replaces the lattice or the cell. Lattices are offered in different flavours, most of which inherit from a common interface `BlockStructureXD`. The most common lattice is the regular `BlockLatticeXD`, which is replaced by the `MultiBlockLatticeXD` for parallel applications and for memory-saving applications when faced with irregular domain boundaries. An alternative choice for parallelism and memory savings is the `CuboidStructureXD`, which does not inherit from `BlockStructureXD`, but instead allows for more general constructs.

The modular extensions are classes that customize the behavior of core-components. An important extension of this kind is the lattice descriptor. This specifies the number of particle populations contained in a cell, and defines the lattice constants and lattice velocities, which are used to specify the neighborhood relation between a cell and its nearest neighbors. The lattice descriptor can also be used to require additional allocation of memory on a cell for external scalars, such as a force field. The integration of a lattice descriptor in a lattice happens via a template mechanism of C++. This mechanism takes place statically, *i.e.* before program execution, and avoids the potential efficiency loss of a dynamic, object-oriented approach. Furthermore, template specialization is used to optimize the OpenLB code specifically for some types of lattices. Be-

cause of the template-based approach, a lattice descriptor needs not inherit from some interface. Instead, you are free to simply implement a new class, inspired from the default descriptors in the files `core/latticeDescriptors.h` and `core/latticeDescriptor.hh`.

The dynamics executed by a cell are implemented through a mechanism of dynamic (run-time) genericity. In this way, the dynamics can be different from one cell to another, and can change during program execution. There are two mechanisms of this type in OpenLB, one to implement local dynamics, and one for non-local dynamics. To implement local dynamics, one needs to write a new class which inherits the interface of the abstract class `Dynamics`. The purpose of this class is to specify the nature of the collision step, as well as other important information (for example, how to compute the velocity moments on a cell). For non-local dynamics, a so-called post-processor needs to be implemented and integrated into a `BlockLatticeXD` through a call to the method `addPostProcessorXD`. This terminology can be somewhat confusing, because the term “post-processing” is used in the CFD community in the context of data analysis at the end of a simulation. In OpenLB, a post-processor is an operator which is applied to the lattice after each streaming step. Thus, the time-evolution of an OpenLB lattice consists of three steps: (1) local collision, (2) nearest-neighbor streaming, and (3) non-local postprocessing. Implementing the dynamics of a cell through a postprocessor is usually less efficient than when the mechanism of the `Dynamics` classes is used. It is therefore important to respect the spirit of the lattice Boltzmann method and to express the collision as a local operation whenever possible.

2.9 Lesson 9: Use checkpointing for long duration simulations

All types of data in OpenLB can be stored in a file or loaded from a file. This includes the data of a `BlockLatticeXD` and the data of a `ScalarFieldXD` or a `TensorFieldXD`. All these classes implement the interface `Serializable<T>`. This guarantees that they can transform their content into a data stream of type `T`, or read from such a stream. Serialization and unserialization of data is mainly used for file access, but it can be applied to different aims, such as copying data between two objects of different type. The data is stored in the ascii-based binary format `Base64`. Although `Base64`-encoded data requires 25% more storage space than when a pure binary format is used, this approach was chosen in OpenLB to enhance compatibility of the code between platforms. Saving and loading data is invoked by calling the `save` and `load` method on the object to be serialized. These methods take the filename as an optional (but recommended)

argument, as shown below:

```
int nx, ny;
<...> initialization of nx and ny
BlockLattice2D<T, DESCRIPTOR> lattice(nx, ny);
// load data from a previous simulation
5 lattice.load("simulation.checkpoint");
<...> run the simulation
// save data for security, to be able to take up
// the simulation at this point later
lattice.save("simulation.checkpoint");
```

Listing 2.19: Store and load the state of the simulation.

Checkpointing is also illustrated in the example programs `bstep2D` and `bstep3D` (Section 11.3).

2.10 Lesson 10: Save memory when domain boundaries are irregular

It is possible in OpenLB to allocate several lattices of type `BlockLatticeXD` and hide them behind a common interface, to treat them as the components of a larger lattice. This technique can be used to achieve parallelism, as it is described in the next lesson. Another application is the creation of lattices in which memory is allocated in selected subdomains only. This is useful for the simulation of flows with complicated domain boundaries, as no memory needs to be allocated outside the domain. An example program for this technique is under development, but is not yet available in the current release.

2.11 Lesson 11: Run your programs on a parallel machine

OpenLB programs can be executed on a parallel machine with distributed memory, based on MPI. To compile an OpenLB program for parallel execution, modify the file named `Makefile.inc`, found in the OpenLB root directory, by removing the hashes before the lines: `#CXX := mpic++`, and `#PARALLEL_MODE := MPI`. The modified lines are shown in Listing 2.20. Execute `make clean` and `make cleanbuild` within the desired program directory to eliminate previously compiled libraries, and recompile the program by executing the `make` command. To run the program in parallel,

use the command `mpirun -np 2 ./cavity2d`. Here `-np 2` specifies the number of processors to be used.

```
CXX          := g++
#CXX        := icpc -D__aligned__=ignored
#CXX        := mpiCC
CXX          := mpic++
5 ...
PARALLEL_MODE := OFF
PARALLEL_MODE := MPI
#PARALLEL_MODE := OMP
#PARALLEL_MODE := HYBRID
```

Listing 2.20: Edited Makefile.inc for MPI-parallel programs.

3 Install Dependencies

OpenLB is developed for high performance computing and hence, for Linux based operation systems. As a natural choice, the programming happens mainly on Linux systems which is as well the recommended platform to run applications.

In recent years, virtualbox turned into a powerful alternative to run a Linux operation system within Windows. In case you are a windows user, consider to run a Linux distribution in a virtual machine, e.g. virtualbox.

3.1 Linux

The developer are very proud to announce that OpenLB has no dependencies and requires only a c++ compiler alongside an OpenMPI implementation. Both can be installed on a Ubuntu system through

```
sudo apt-get install g++ openmpi-bin openmpi-doc libopenmpi-dev
```

ParaView is often used for visualization and can be installed from the Ubuntu packages as well

```
sudo apt-get install paraview
```

The very recent version has to be downloaded from the web. Paraview is an application built on top of the *Visualization Tool Kit* (VTK) libraries which can read VTK-files written by OpenLB.

To compile the software library and all examples, go into the root folder of OpenLB and type

```
make
```

If your system is set up correctly, you should see a lot compiler messages but no errors.

3.2 Mac

A working c++ and OpenMPI compiler enables you to compile and run OpenLB on Mac.

3.3 Windows

An installation guide for Windows using Cygwin can be found in the technical report TR4: Installing OpenLB in Windows/Cygwin [4].

4 Geometry

This Chapter presents how geometry data can be loaded in or created by OpenLB. Furthermore, it is shown the concept of material numbers.

4.1 Creating a Geometry

OpenLB provides an interface for `stl` based geometry data and generates fully automated a regular mesh. On the other hand, geometries can be build out of geometric primitives such as cuboids, spheres and cylinders. By the implemented arithmetic that includes intersection, union and complement those primitives can be assembled very generally.

A computational domain such as the `SuperLattice3D` is created in 6 simple steps (see also Fig 4.1):

- 1. Step:** Create an `Indicator3D` instance by
 1. Reading an STL-file, see example `aorta3d` 11.1.
 2. Pre-defined geometric primitives and its combinations (+, -, ·), see example `venturi3d` 11.13.
- 2. Step:** Construct `CuboidGeometry3D`. During construction cuboids will be automatically removed, shrunk and weighted for a good load balance.
- 3. Step:** Construct `LoadBalancer` that assigns cuboids to threads.
- 4. Step:** Construct `SuperGeometry3D` that links material numbers to voxels.
- 5. Step:** Set *material numbers* to define dynamics for fluid and boundary.
- 6. Step:** Construct `SuperLattice3D` to perform stream and collide algorithm.

```
// 1. Step: Create Indicator
STLreader<T> stlreader("filename.stl", voxelSize);
IndicatorCuboid3D<T> cylinderInFlow( extend, origin );
```

```

// 2. Step: Construct cuboidGeometry.
5 CuboidGeometry3D<T> cuboidGeometry(indicator, voxelSize, noOfCuboids)
  ;
// 3. Step: Construct LoadBalancer.
HeuristicLoadBalancer<T> loadBalancer(cuboidGeometry);
// 4. Step: Construct SuperGeometry.
SuperGeometry3D<T> superGeometry(cuboidGeometry, loadBalancer);
10 // 5. Step: Set material numbers.
// set material number 2 for whole geometry
superGeometry.rename(0,2,geometryIndicator);
// change material number from 2 to 1 for inner (fluid) cells, so
// that only boundary cells have material number 2
superGeometry.rename(2,1,1,1,1);
15 // or simply use an indicator that changes its lattices to one
superGeometry.rename(2,1,fluidIndicator);
// additional material numbers for other boundary conditions
superGeometry.rename(2,3,1,cylinderInFlow);
superGeometry.rename(2,4,1,outflowIndicator0);
20 superGeometry.rename(2,5,1,outflowIndicator1);
// 6. Step: Construct SuperLattice.
SuperLattice3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> sLattice(superGeometry);

```

Listing 4.1: Create geometry based on STL or geometric primitives. All six steps are presented briefly as source code.

The powerful application of the geometry generation of OpenLB can be demonstrated on the example `aorta3d`. This example is based on a very complex geometry and illustrated the highly user friendly and automated process from STL to computation grid the `SuperLattice3D`, see Figure 4.1.

4.2 Setting Material Numbers

OpenLB has a general concept for representation of a geometry. A specific number called the *material number* is assigned to each cell, defining whether that cell lies on the boundary or in the fluid domain or whether it is superfluous in the computations. Figure 4.2 illustrates this using the example of an channel flow with an obstacle. The different collision and stream steps on the boundary and the fluid are defined with respect to the material number. The benefit of using material numbers in flow simulations is the automatic determination of fluid directions on boundary nodes, as this is not always practical by hand e.g. if material numbers of a complex geometry are obtained from a `stl` file.

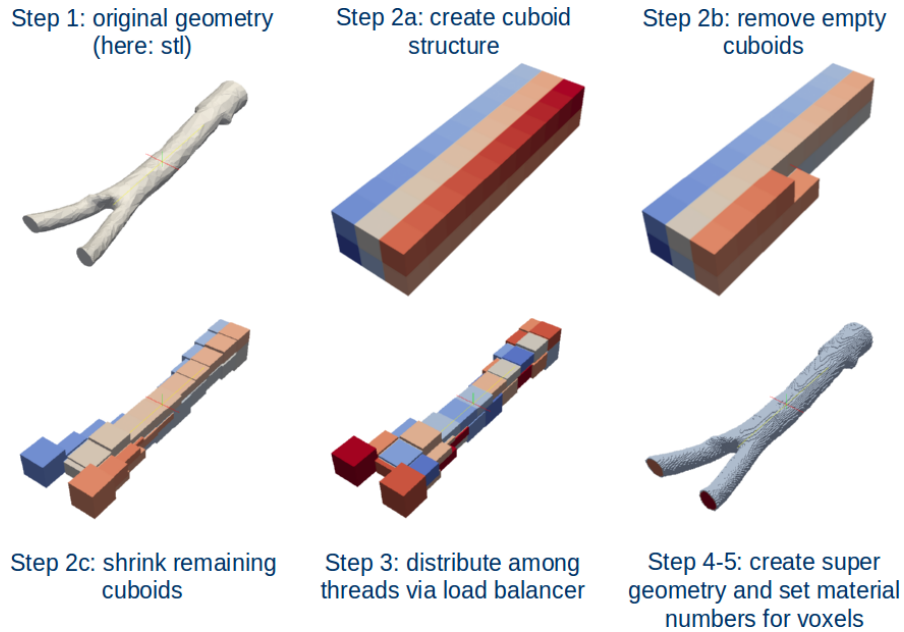


Figure 4.1: Six steps to create a Geometry. It starts by reading an `stl` file with the help of an `STLreader` and end with the creation of a `SuperLattice3D`.

Besides creating the domain, `IndicatorFXD` functions can be used to set *material numbers* with the help of one of the `rename` functions in `SuperGeometryXD`.

```

/// replace one material with another
void rename(int fromM, int toM);
/// replace one material that fulfills an indicator functor condition
    with another
void rename(int fromM, int toM, IndicatorF3D<bool, T>& condition);
5  /// replace one material with another respecting an offset (overlap)
void rename(int fromM, int toM, unsigned offsetX, unsigned offsetY,
    unsigned offsetZ);
/// renames all voxels of material fromM to toM if the number of
    voxels given by testDirection is of material testM
void rename(int fromM, int toM, int testM, std::vector<int>
    testDirection);
/// renames all boundary voxels of material fromBcMat to toBcMat if
    two neighbour voxels in the direction of the discrete normal are
    fluid voxels with material fluidM in the region where the
    indicator function is fulfilled
10 void rename(int fromBcMat, int toBcMat, int fluidMat, IndicatorF3D<
    bool, T>& condition);

```

Listing 4.2: Different `rename` functions to set material numbers.

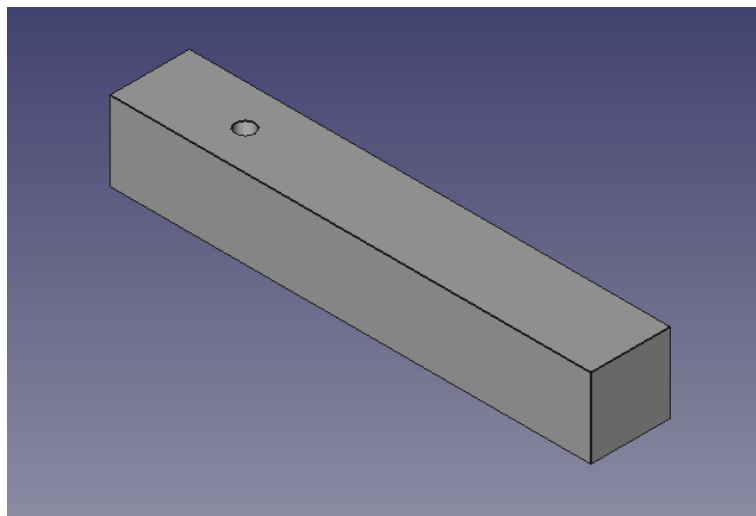


Figure 4.3: The geometry for the example `cylinder3d` from Section 11.5 opened in FreeCAD.

5 Lattice Boltzmann Models and Core Data Structures

5.1 Concept - Data Organization

5.1.1 Cell - BlockLattice - SuperLattice

LBM, in its most widely accepted formulation, is executed on a regular, homogeneous lattice Ω_h with equal grid spacing $h \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ in all directions. When numerical constraints require that a given problem is solved on an inhomogeneous grid, it is common to adopt a so-called *multi-block* approach: the computational domain is partitioned into sub-grids with different levels of resolution, and the interface between those sub-grids is handled appropriately. This approach appears to respect the spirit of LBM well and leads to implementations that are both elegant and efficient, since the execution on a set of regular blocks is relatively fast compared to an unstructured grid representation of the whole geometry. For complex domains, a multi-block approach provides another advantage. A given domain can be represented by a certain number of regular blocks, which leads to cheap execution times on the one hand, and to a sparse memory consumption on the other hand. Furthermore, it encourages a particularly efficient form of *data parallelism*, in which an array is cut into regular pieces and distributed over the nodes of a parallel machine. As a result, LB applications can even be run on large parallel machines with a particularly satisfying gain of speed.

The same spirit is adopted in the OpenLB package, see Figure 5.1. The very basic data structure is called `Cell` and is orchestrated by a `BlockLattice`, which represents a regular array of `Cells`. In each `Cell`, the q variables for the storage of the discrete velocity distribution functions f_i ($i = 0, 1, \dots, q - 1$) are contiguous in memory. Note, in terms of optimization the cells hold

$$Cell[iPop] = f_{iPop} - t_{iPop},$$

where t_{iPop} corresponds to the lattice weights. This data structure is encapsulated by

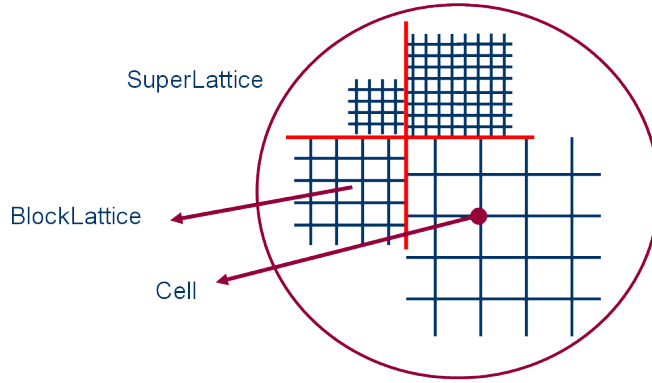


Figure 5.1: Data structures in OpenLB: A number of `BlockLattices` build a `SuperLattice` to adopt higher level software constructs like multi-block, grid refined lattices and parallelised lattices.

a higher level, object-oriented layer. The purpose of this layer is to handle groups of `BlockLattice`, and to build higher level software constructs in a transparent way. Those constructs are called `SuperLattice`.

5.1.2 Descriptor

5.1.3 Dynamics

The core of OpenLB consists of a simple and efficient array-like construct called a `BlockLattice`. This object executes an LB algorithm in a very traditional sense, i.e. the lattice Boltzmann equation is split into two equations, namely the *collision step*:

$$\tilde{f}_i^h(t, \vec{r}) = f_i^h(t, \vec{r}) - \frac{1}{3\nu + 1/2} \left(f_i^h(t, \vec{r}) - M_{f_i^h}^{eq}(t, \vec{r}) \right) \quad \text{in } I_h \times \Omega_h \times Q \quad (5.1)$$

and the *streaming step (propagation step)*:

$$f_i^h(t + h^2, \vec{r} + h^2 \vec{v}_i) = \tilde{f}_i^h(t, \vec{r}) \quad \text{in } I_h \times \Omega_h \times Q. \quad (5.2)$$

All `Cells` of the `BlockLattice` are iteratively parsed, and a local collision step is executed, followed by a non-local streaming step. The streaming step is independent of the choice of lattice Boltzmann dynamics and remains invariant. On the other hand, the collision step determines the physics of the model and can be configured by the user, by attributing a fully configurable dynamics object to each `Cell`. In this way, it is easy to implement inhomogeneous fluids which use a different type of physics from one

Cell to another. For each time step the collision and streaming step can be executed separately in two loops over all Cells or only in one. Both versions are implemented in OpenLB. Yet, for many applications the method fusing the two loops is preferable.

Although this concept of a BlockLattice is neat and should please the programmer by being conceptually close to the theory of LBM, it is not sufficiently general to address all possible issues arising in real life. As a case in point, some boundary conditions are non-local and need to access neighbouring nodes. Therefore, their implementation does not fit into the framework of a BlockLattice explained previously. The philosophy of OpenLB takes for granted that such situations, although they arise, take place in spatially confined areas only, for example the domain boundaries. They may therefore be implemented by slightly less efficient means, without spoiling the overall efficiency of the code. Their execution is taken care of by a post-processing step, which, instead of stepping over the whole lattice a second time, parses selected Cells only.

5.2 Classic BGK Model

5.3 MRT Model

5.4 Porous Media Model

The permeability parameter K is a physical parameter that describes the macroscopic drag in a porous media model. For laminar flows it is defined by Darcy's law:

$$K = -\frac{Q\mu L}{\Delta P}, \quad (5.3)$$

where $Q = UA$ is the flow rate, U a characteristic velocity, A a cross-sectional area, μ the dynamic viscosity, L a characteristic length, ΔP the pressure difference in between starting point and endpoint of the volume.

The porosity-value $d \in [0, 1]$ is a lattice-dependent value, $d = 0$ means the medium is solid and $d = 1$ denotes a liquid. According to Brinkman [13, 14], Borrvall and Petersson [10] and Pinget et al. [30], the Navier-Stokes equation is transformed (see Dornieden [20] and Stasius [35]). The discrete formulation of d describes a flow region by its permeability:

$$d = 1 - h^{dim-1} \frac{\nu_{LB} \tau_{LB}}{K} \quad (5.4)$$

τ_{LB} is the relaxation time, ν_{LB} is the discrete kinematic viscosity and h is the length. Therefore $K \in [\nu_{LB} \tau_{LB} h^{dim-1}, \infty]$. To describe the porosity or permeability of a medium,

a descriptor for porosity must be used, such as:

```
#define DESCRIPTOR PorousD3Q19Descriptor
```

Be aware that the porous media model only works in the generic compilation mode. In the function `prepareLattice`, dynamics for the corresponding number of the porous material are defined for example as follows:

```
void prepareLattice(..., Dynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR>& porousDynamics,
    ...) {
    // Material=3 --> porous material
    sLattice.defineDynamics(superGeometry, 3, &porousDynamics);
4    ...
}
```

In function `setBoundaryValues`, the initial porosity value and external field is defined:

```
void setBoundaryValues(..., T physPermeability, int dim, ...) {
    // d in [0,1] is a lattice-dependent porosity-value
    // depending on physical permeability K = physPermeability
    T d = converter->latticePorosity(physPermeability);
5    AnalyticalConst3D<T, T> porosity(d);
    sLattice.defineExternalField(superGeometry, 3,
        DESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::porosityIsAt, 1, porosity);
    ...
}
```

In the main function, the required parameters as well as the porous media dynamics are defined:

```
1 int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    ...
    T physPermeability = 0.0003;
    ...
    PorousBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> porousDynamics(converter->getOmega
        ());
6    instances::getBulkMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>();
    ...
}
```

Additionally, the `UnitConverter` class in `src/core/units.h` provides useful functions for conversion between physical and lattice values:

```
/// converts a physical permeability K to a lattice-dependent
    porosity d
2 /// (a velocity scaling factor depending on Maxwellian distribution
```

```

/// function), needs PorousBGKdynamics
T latticePorosity(T K) const
{ return 1 - pow(physLength(),getDim()-1)*getLatticeNu()*getTau()/K;
  }

7 /// converts a lattice-dependent porosity d (a velocity scaling
  factor
  /// depending on Maxwellian distribution function) to a physical
  /// permeability K, needs PorousBGKdynamics
T physPermeability(T d) const
{ return pow(physLength(),getDim()-1)*getLatticeNu()*getTau()/(1-d);
  }

```

5.5 Power Law Model

The two most common deviation from Newton's Law observed in real systems are pseudo-plastic fluids and dilatant fluids. By pseudo-plastic fluids the viscosity of the system decreases as the shear rate is increased. On the other hand, as the shear rate by dilatant fluids is increased, the viscosity of the system also increases. The simplest model, that describes this two type of deviations, was proposed by *de Waele* and *Ostwald* and is called the Power Law model that is defined by the viscosity as

$$\mu = m\dot{\gamma}^{n-1}. \quad (5.5)$$

where m is the flow consistency index, $\dot{\gamma}$ the shear rate and n the flow behaviour index. Then

- $n < 1$ - pseudoplastic fluids,
- $n = 1$ - Newtonian fluids,
- $n > 1$ - dilatant fluids.

To simulate power law fluid a descriptor for dynamic omega must be used, such as:

```
#define DESCRIPTOR DynOmegaD2Q9Descriptor
```

In function `setBoundaryValues`, the initial same omega-argument is defined:

```

AnalyticalConst2D<T,T> omega0(converter.getOmega());
sLattice.defineExternalField(superGeometry, 1, DESCRIPTOR<T>::
  ExternalField::omegaBeginsAt, 1, omega0 );
sLattice.defineExternalField(superGeometry, 2, DESCRIPTOR<T>::
  ExternalField::omegaBeginsAt, 1, omega0 );

```

```

4   sLattice.defineExternalField (superGeometry, 3, DESCRIPTOR<T>::
      ExternalField::omegaBeginsAt, 1, omega0 );
   sLattice.defineExternalField (superGeometry, 4, DESCRIPTOR<T>::
      ExternalField::omegaBeginsAt, 1, omega0 );

```

In the main function, the power law dynamics is defined:

```

int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    ...
    PowerLawBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> bulkDynamics(converter.getOmega
        (), instances::getBulkMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>(), m, n, converter.
        physTime());
}

```

In 5.1 the kinematic viscosity is not more constant and then also the `omega`-argument is not more constant. With using the power law model 5.5 the kinematic viscosity is computed in each step as

$$\nu = \frac{1}{\rho} m \dot{\gamma}^{n-1}. \quad (5.6)$$

The shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ is possible to compute with using the second invariant of the strain rate tensor D_{II}

$$\dot{\gamma} = \sqrt{2D_{II}}, \quad (5.7)$$

where

$$D_{II} = \sum_{\alpha, \beta=1}^d E_{\alpha\beta} E_{\alpha\beta}, \quad (5.8)$$

where

$$E_{\alpha\beta} = - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\tau} \right) \frac{1}{2\rho\nu} \sum_{i=0}^{q-1} f_i^h \boldsymbol{\xi}_{i\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi}_{i\beta}. \quad (5.9)$$

This concept is very significant because $f_i^h \boldsymbol{\xi}_{i\alpha} \boldsymbol{\xi}_{i\beta}$ is usually computed during the collision process and therefore this costs in comparison to other CFD methods at almost no additional computational cost. The computation of a new `omega`-argument is done in `src/dynamics/powerLawBGKdynamics.h`

```

1 T computeOmega(T omega0_, T preFactor_, T rho_, T pi_[util::TensorVal
    <Lattice<T> >::n] );

```

5.6 External Force

In simulations, the dynamics of a fluid is often driven by a force field (gravity, intermolecular interaction, etc.) which is space- and time-dependent, and which is possibly computed from an external source, independent of the LB simulation. In order to optimize memory access and to minimize cache-misses, the value of this force can be stored in a cell, adjacent to the particle populations. This is achieved by specifying external scalars in the lattice descriptor (see also Lesson 7). OpenLB offers by default the two descriptors `ForcedD2Q9Descriptor` and `ForcedD3Q19Descriptor`. The dynamics `ForcedBGKdynamics` accesses the force term defined by these descriptors, and implements a LB dynamics with body force. The algorithm is taken from Ref. [21] to guarantee second-order accuracy even when the force field is space and time dependent. An example for the implementation of a LB simulation with force term is found in the code `examples/poiseuille2d/forced`.

As an alternative, the velocity shift forcing scheme developed by Shan and Chen [32] and improved by Shan and Doolen [33] is also implemented and can be accessed using `ForcedShanChenBGKdynamics`.

5.7 Multiphysics Couplings

5.7.1 The Shan-Chen Model

For the simulation of both multiphase and multicomponent flow the Shan-Chen model is implemented in OpenLB. Since its first introduction [32], many variants of the model have been developed. In this implementation, there are several forcing schemes [21, 33] and interaction potentials to choose from.

5.7.2 Implementation of Shan-Chen Two-phase Fluid

The two phases can be simulated on the same lattice instance:

```
SuperLattice3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> sLattice(superGeometry);
```

Then the dynamics are chosen, which have to support external forces:

```
ForcedShanChenBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> bulkDynamics1 (
  omegal, instances::getExternalVelocityMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>() );
```

Possible choices for the dynamics are `ForcedBGKdynamics` and `ForcedShanChenBGKdynamics`.

Then the interaction potential is chosen:

```
ShanChen93<T, T> interactionPotential;
```

Viable interaction potentials for one component multiphase flow are ShanChen93, ShanChen94, CarnahanStarling and PengRobinson. In this model `PsiEqualsRho` should not be used, because this would make all the mass gather in the same place.

To enable interaction between the fluid, they have to be coupled, so the kind of coupling has to be chosen (here: `ShanChenForcedSingleComponentGenerator3D`) and the material numbers to which it applies. Since in the case of single component flow there is only one lattice, it is coupled with itself.

```
const T G = -120.;
ShanChenForcedSingleComponentGenerator3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> coupling(
    G, rho0, interactionPotential);
4 sLattice.addLatticeCoupling(superGeometry, 1, coupling, sLattice);
```

The interaction strength `G` has to be negative and the correct choice depends on the chosen interaction potential. When using `PengRobinson` or `CarnahanStarling` interaction potential, `G` is canceled out during computation, so the result is not affected by it (though it still has to be negative).

Finally, during the main loop the lattices have to interact with each other (or in the case of only one fluid component the lattice with itself):

```
1 sLattice.communicate();
sLattice.executeCoupling();
```

These steps are placed immediately after the `collideAndStream` command.

Examples for the implementation of a LB simulation using the Shan-Chen model for two-phase flow are `examples/phaseSeparation2d` and `examples/phaseSeparation3d`.

5.7.3 Implementation of Shan-Chen Two-component Fluid

Two lattice instances are needed – one for each component (though there is still only one geometry):

```
SuperLattice3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> sLatticeOne(superGeometry);
SuperLattice3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> sLatticeTwo(superGeometry);
```

Then the dynamics are chosen, which have to support external forces:

```
ForcedShanChenBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> bulkDynamics1 (
    omegal, instances::getExternalVelocityMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>() );
```

```
3 ForcedShanChenBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> bulkDynamics2 (
  omega2, instances::getExternalVelocityMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>() );
```

Possible choices for the dynamics are `ForcedBGKdynamics` and `ForcedShanChenBGKdynamics`. One should keep in mind that tasks like definition of dynamics, external fields and initial values and the collide and stream execution have to be carried out for each lattice instance separately. The same is true for data output.

Then the interaction potential is chosen:

```
1 PsiEqualsRho<T, T> interactionPotential;
```

In the multicomponent case the most frequently used interaction potential is `PsiEqualsRho`, but `ShanChen93`, for example, would also be a viable choice.

To enable interaction between the fluid, they have to be coupled, so the kind of coupling has to be chosen (here: `ShanChenForcedGenerator3D`) and the material numbers to which it applies.

```
const T G = 3.;
ShanChenForcedGenerator3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> coupling(
  G, rho0, interactionPotential);
4 sLatticeOne.addLatticeCoupling(superGeometry, 1, coupling,
  sLatticeTwo);
sLatticeOne.addLatticeCoupling(superGeometry, 2, coupling,
  sLatticeTwo);
```

The interaction strength G has to be positive. If the chosen interaction potential is `PsiEqualsRho`, $G > 1$ is needed for separation of the fluids, but it should not be much higher than 3 for stability reasons.

Finally, during the main loop the lattices have to interact with each other:

```
sLatticeOne.communicate();
sLatticeTwo.communicate();
sLatticeOne.executeCoupling();
```

These steps are placed immediately after the `collideAndStream` command.

Examples for the implementation of a LB simulation using the Shan-Chen model for two-component flow are `examples/multiComponent2d` and `examples/multiComponent3d`.

5.7.4 Thermal Fluid with Boussinesq Approximation

5.8 Advection Diffusion Equation

Transport of a macroscopic density, energy or temperature is governed by the Advection-Diffusion-Equation

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (D \nabla c) - \nabla \cdot (\vec{v} c), \quad (5.10)$$

where c is the considered physical quantity (temperature, particle density), D is the diffusion coefficient and v is a velocity field affecting c . It is possible to solve this equation in terms of LBM by using an equilibrium distribution function different from the one for the Navier-Stokes Equation [28]

$$g_i^{eq} = w_i \rho \left(1 + \frac{c_i \cdot \vec{v}}{c_s^2} \right), \quad (5.11)$$

that takes the advective transport into account. In this equation w_i is a weighting factor, c_i a unit vector along the lattice directions and c_s the speed of sound. To use this implementation the dynamics object has to be replaced by special advection-diffusion dynamics:

```
AdvectionDiffusionBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> bulkDynamics (  
2 converter.getOmega(),  
instances::getBulkMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>());
```

Listing 5.1: advection diffusion dynamics object

Additionally, a different descriptor with fewer lattice velocities is used [23]:

```
#define DESCRIPTOR AdvectionDiffusionD3Q7Descriptor
```

Listing 5.2: advection diffusion descriptor

In OpenLB D2Q5 and D3Q7 descriptors are implemented for the Advection-Diffusion Equation. Since the Advection-Diffusion Equation simulates different physical conditions than the Navier-Stokes-Equation, another set of boundary conditions is needed. A Dirichlet condition for the density is already implemented, for example to simulate a boundary with a constant temperature. To apply this condition, firstly a `sOnLatticeBoundaryCondition3D` object for the advection-diffusion boundaries has to be constructed:

```
sOnLatticeBoundaryCondition3D<T, DESCRIPTOR>
```

```

    sBoundaryConditionAD(sLattice);
    int nC = sBoundaryConditionAD.get_sLattice().getLoadBalancer().size()
    ;
    sBoundaryConditionAD.set_overlap(1);
5  for (int iC = 0; iC < nC; iC++) {
    OnLatticeAdvectionDiffusionBoundaryCondition3D<T, DESCRIPTOR>*
    ADblockBC =
        createAdvectionDiffusionBoundaryCondition3D<T, DESCRIPTOR,
        AdvectionDiffusionBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR> >
10    (sBoundaryConditionAD.get_sLattice().getExtendedBlockLattice(iC)
        );
    sBoundaryConditionAD.get_CDblockBCs().push_back(ADblockBC);
    }

```

Listing 5.3: advection diffusion dynamics object

Finally the boundary condition is set to the desired material number:

```

void prepareLattice(..., SuperLattice3D<T, DESCRIPTOR>& sLattice,
                   sOnLatticeBoundaryCondition3D<T, DESCRIPTOR>& bc,
3   SuperGeometry3D<T>& superGeometry, T omega, ...) {
    ...
    /// Material=3 -> boundary with constant temperature
    bc.addTemperatureBoundary(superGeometry, 3, omega);
    ...
8 }

```

Listing 5.4: advection diffusion descriptor

To apply convective transport, a velocity vector has to be passed. This can either be done individually on each cell by using:

```

T velocity[3] = {vx,vy,vz};
2 ...
cell.defineExternalField (
    DESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::velocityBeginsAt,
    DESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::sizeOfVelocity,
    velocity);

```

Listing 5.5: add advective velocity on a cell

Alternatively, it can be passed to the whole SuperLattice using:

```

ConstAnalyticalF3D<T, T> velocity(vel);
...
/// sets advective velocity for material 1

```

```

4 superLattice.defineExternalField(superGeometry, 1,
  DESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::velocityBeginsAt,
  DESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::sizeOfVelocity,
  velocity)

```

Listing 5.6: add advective velocity on a superlattice

Here, `vel` is a `std::vector<T>`.

5.8.1 Particle Flows as Advection Diffusion Problem

The quantity c in the Advection–Diffusion equation can be considered as particle density, thereby giving an continuous ansatz for simulating particle flows. To solve for the particle distribution an additional lattice is required with an appropriate descriptor and dynamics, which are only implemented for the 3D case.

```

#define ADDESCRIPTOR particleAdvectionDiffusionD3Q7Descriptor

```

Listing 5.7: Advection–Diffusion descriptor for particle flows

The descriptor in Listing 5.7 allocates additional memory since for the computation of the particle velocity also the vleocity of the last time step hast to be stored. This calculations also are non-local, therefore the communication of the additional data has to be ensured by an additional object, which is constructed according to Line 1 of Listing 5.8 and communicates the data by a function as shown in Line 2 of the Listing, which has to be called in the time loop.

```

SuperExternal3D<T, ADDESCRIPTOR> sExternal( superGeometry,
  sLatticeADE, ADDESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::velocityBeginsAt,
  ADDESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::numScalars, sLatticeAD.getOverlap
  () );
sExternal.communicate();

```

Listing 5.8: SuperExternal3D object for the communication of additional data

Although the same unit converter can be used for the Advection–Diffusion lattice, another relaxation parameter has to be handed to the dynamics, as shown in Listing 5.9, and some of the boundary conditions to take the diffusion coefficient into account.

Therefore a new ω_{ADE} is computed by

$$\omega_{ADE} = \left(4D \frac{U_L}{L_L U_C} + 0.5 \right)^{-1}, \quad (5.12)$$

with lattice and characteristic velocity U_L and U_C , lattice length L_L as well as the desired diffusion coefficient D .

```
ParticleAdvectionDiffusionBGKdynamics<T, ADESCRIPTOR> bulkDynamicsAD
  ( omegaAD, instances::getBulkMomenta<T, ADESCRIPTOR>() );
```

Listing 5.9: Dynamics for the simulation of particle flows the the Advection–Diffusion equation

Applying the Advection–Diffusion equation to particle flow problems requires a new dynamics due to the handling of the particle velocity by the coupling processor of the two lattices, which differs for reasons of efficiency. When constructing the coupling post-processor as shown in Listing 5.10, forces acting on the particle can be added like the Stokes drag force as shown in Line 2 and 3 of Listing 5.10. The implementation of new forces is straight forward, since only a new class which provides a function `applyForce(...)`, computing the force in a cell, needs to be written analogously to the existing `advDiffDragForce3D`. Finally the lattices are linked by Line 4 of Listing 5.10, which needs to be applied to the Navier–Stokes lattice for reasons of accessibility.

```
AdvectionDiffusionParticleCouplingGenerator3D<T, NSDESCRIPTOR>
  coupling( ADESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::velocityBeginsAt );
advDiffDragForce3D<T, NSDESCRIPTOR> dragForce( converter, radius,
  partRho );
coupling.addForce( dragForce );
4 sLatticeNS.addLatticeCoupling( superGeometry, 1, coupling, sLatticeAD
  );
```

Listing 5.10: Coupling of an Advection Diffusion and a Navier–Stokes lattice for particle flow simulations

For the boundary conditions the same basic objects as for the Advection–Diffusion equation can be used, however there is an additional boundary condition shown on Listing 5.11 which has to be applied at all boundaries to ensure correctness of the finite differences scheme used to compute the particle velocity.

Further information as well as results can be found in Trunk et al. [36] as well as in the examples section.

```
1 bcAD.addExtFieldBoundary( superGeometry, 2, ADDESCRIPTOR<T>::  
    ExternalField::velocityBeginsAt );
```

Listing 5.11: Example of a boundary condition for the particle velocity for particle flow simulations

6 Discrete Particle Method

In this chapter the use of Lagrangian particles with OpenLB is shown.

6.1 Structure of the Particles Systems

Similar to the `BlockLattice` and `SuperLattice` structure a `ParticleSystem3D` and `SuperParticleSystem3D` structure exists. In line 2 of Listing 6.1 the `SuperParticleSystem3D` is instantiated. It takes a `SuperGeometry` and `LBconverter` as parameters. In line 4 the `SuperParticleSysVtuWriter` is instantiated. It takes the `SuperParticleSystem3D`, a filename as string, and the wanted particle properties as arguments. Calling the function `SuperParticleSysVtuWriter.write(int timestep)` does create `*.vtu` files of the particles positions for the given timestep. These files can be visualized with Paraview.

Line 10 of the listing instantiates an interpolation functor for the fluids velocity, which is used in line 13 during the instantiation of `StokesDragForce3D`. Particles need boundary conditions also. In the listing, the simplest possible material boundary is presented. If a particle moves into a lattice node with material number 2, 4 or 5 its velocity is set to 0 and it is neglected during further computations, its state of activity is set to false. This `MaterialBoundary3D` is instantiated in line 16. In lines 18 and 19 the force and boundary condition are added to and stored in the respective lists in the `SuperParticleSystem3D`.

The actual number crunching is then done in line 25 which is positioned in the main loop of the program. The `supParticleSystem.simulate(T timeStep);` function integrates the particle trajectories by timeStep. Therefore all stored particle forces are computed and summed up. The particles are moved one step according to Newton's laws. Then all stored particle boundary conditions are applied. Parallelization of the particles is done automatically.

Results of this simulation are published in Henn et al. [24].

```
// SuperParticleSystems3D
SuperParticleSystem3D<T, PARTICLE> supParticleSystem(superGeometry,
    converter);
// define which properties are to be written in output data
```

```

SuperParticleSysVtuWriter<T, PARTICLE> supParticleWriter(
    supParticleSystem, "particles",
5   SuperParticleSysVtuWriter<T, PARTICLE>::particleProperties::
    velocity |
    SuperParticleSysVtuWriter<T, PARTICLE>::particleProperties::mass |
    SuperParticleSysVtuWriter<T, PARTICLE>::particleProperties::radius
    |
    SuperParticleSysVtuWriter<T, PARTICLE>::particleProperties::active
    );

10  SuperLatticeInterpPhysVelocity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> getVel(sLattice,
    converter);

    auto stokesDragForce = make_shared<StokesDragForce3D<T, PARTICLE,
        DESCRIPTOR>> (getVel, converter);

    // material numbers where particles should be reflected
15  std::set<int> boundMaterial = { 2, 4, 5};
    auto materialBoundary = make_shared<MaterialBoundary3D<T, PARTICLE
        >> (superGeometry, boundMaterial);

    supParticleSystem.addForce(stokesDragForce);
    supParticleSystem.addBoundary(materialBoundary);
20  supParticleSystem.setOverlap(2. * converter.getLatticeL());

    \* ... *\

    main loop {
25    supParticleSystem.simulate(converter.physTime());
    }

```

Listing 6.1: Usage of class SuperParticleSystem

6.2 Interpolation of fluid velocity

As the particle position $\vec{X} : I \rightarrow \Omega$ moves in the continuous domain Ω and information on the fluid velocity can only be computed on lattice nodes $\vec{x}_i \in \Omega_h$ interpolation of the fluid velocity is necessary every time fluid-particle forces are computed. Let $\vec{u}_i^F = \vec{u}^F(\vec{x}_i)$ be the computed solution of the Navier–Stokes Equation at lattice nodes \vec{x}_i . Let $p \in P_n$ be the interpolating polynomial of order n with $p(\vec{x}_i) = \vec{u}_i^F$ and $(\vec{x}_0, \dots, \vec{x}_n)$ the smallest interval containing all points in the brackets. Furthermore, let $C^n[\vec{a}, \vec{b}]$ be the vector space of continuous functions that have continuous first n derivatives in $[\vec{a}, \vec{b}]$.

Then the interpolation error of the polynomial interpolation is stated by the following theorem.

Theorem 1 (Interpolation error). *Let $\vec{u} \in C^{n+1} [\vec{a}, \vec{b}]$, $\vec{a}, \vec{b} \in \Omega$. Then for every $\vec{x} \in [\vec{a}, \vec{b}]$ there exists one $\hat{\vec{x}} \in (\vec{x}_0, \dots, \vec{x}_n, \vec{x})$, such that*

$$\vec{u}^F(\vec{x}) - p_n(\vec{x}) = \frac{d_{\vec{x}}^{n+1} \vec{u}^F(\hat{\vec{x}})}{(n+1)!} \prod_{j=0}^n (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_j) \quad (6.1)$$

holds.

Proof. See Rannacher [31, Satz 2.3]. □

Using linear ($n = 1$) interpolation for the fluid velocity between two neighbouring lattice nodes $\vec{a} = \vec{x}_0 \in \Omega_h, \vec{b} = \vec{x}_1 \in \Omega_h, \|\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_0\|_2 = h$ clearly the following holds

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{x}) - p_1(\vec{x}) &= \frac{1}{2} d_{\vec{x}}^2 \vec{u}^F(\hat{\vec{x}}) (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0) (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_1) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} d_{\vec{x}}^2 \vec{u}^F(\hat{\vec{x}}) h^2 \end{aligned}$$

and the approximation error of the linear interpolation is of order $\mathbb{O}(h^2)$. In the following we give reason why this order of interpolation is sufficient.

Lets assume there exists an ideal error law of the form

$$\|\vec{u}_i^F - \vec{u}_i^{F*}\|_{L^2(\Omega_h)} = ch^\alpha,$$

for the discrete solution \vec{u}_h^F obtained by an LBM with lattice spacing h and the analytic solution \vec{u}^{F*} . Then $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+$ is the to be determined order of convergence. We further define the relative error

$$\text{Err}_h = \frac{\|\vec{u}_h^F - \vec{u}^{F*}\|_{L^2(\Omega_h)}}{\|\vec{u}^{F*}\|_{L^2(\Omega_h)}}.$$

The ratio of the error laws of two distinct lattice spacings h_i and h_j , forms the EOC as

$$\text{EOC}_{i,j} = \frac{\ln(\text{Err}_{h_i}/\text{Err}_{h_j})}{\ln(h_i/h_j)}. \quad (6.2)$$

With this Krause [26, Chapter 2.3] determines an of EOC ≈ 2 for the discrete solution towards the analytic solution of a stationary flow in the unit cube governed by the incompressible NSE. Therefore the order of converge of the fluid velocity obtained by an LBM can be assumed to be $\mathbb{O}(h^2)$. This conclusion is backed up by the theoretical

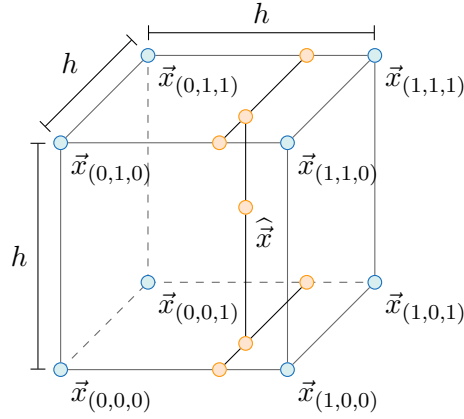


Figure 6.1: Trilinear interpolation.

results obtained by [15] This leads to the assumption that, each interpolation scheme of higher order than 2, would not be exhausted as the error of the incoming data is too large.

The interpolation is implemented as a trilinear interpolation using the eight nodes surrounding the particle. Let the point of interpolation $\hat{x} \in [x_{(0,0,0)}, x_{(1,1,1)}]$ be in the cube spanned by the lattice nodes $\vec{x}_{(0,0,0)}$ and $\vec{x}_{(1,1,1)}$, see Figure 6.1 for an illustration. We will denote by

$$\vec{d} = (d_0, d_1, d_2)^T = \hat{x} - \vec{x}_{(0,0,0)}$$

the distance of the particle to the next smaller lattice node. The fluid velocities at the eight corners are named accordingly $\vec{u}_{(i,j,k)}$, $i, j, k \in \{0, 1\}$. The trilinear interpolation is executed by three consecutive linear interpolations in the three different space directions. First we interpolate along the x -axis

$$\begin{aligned} u_{(d,0,0)} &= u_{(0,0,0)}(h - d_0) + u_{(1,0,0)}d_0 \\ u_{(d,1,0)} &= u_{(0,1,0)}(h - d_0) + u_{(1,1,0)}d_0 \\ u_{(d,0,1)} &= u_{(0,0,1)}(h - d_0) + u_{(1,0,1)}d_0 \\ u_{(d,1,1)} &= u_{(0,1,1)}(h - d_0) + u_{(1,1,1)}d_0 \end{aligned}$$

followed by interpolation along the y -axis

$$u_{(d,d,0)} = u_{(d,0,0)}(h - d_1) + u_{(d,1,0)}d_1$$

$$u_{(d,d,1)} = u_{(d,0,1)}(h - d_1) + u_{(d,1,1)}d_1$$

and finally in direction of the z -axis

$$\vec{u}(\hat{x}) = u_{(d,d,d)} = u_{(d,d,0)}(h - d_2) + u_{(d,d,1)}d_2.$$

6.3 The class `SuperParticleSystem3D`

The implementation of the particle phase follows an hierarchical ansatz, similar to the `Cell` \rightarrow `BlockLattice3D` \rightarrow `SuperLattice3D` ansatz used for the implementation of the LBM. The equivalent class in the context of Lagrangian particles are `Particle3D` \rightarrow `ParticleSystem3D` \rightarrow `SuperParticleSystem3D`. The class `Particle3D` allocates memory for the variables of one single particle, such as its position, velocity, mass, radius and the force acting on it. It also provides the function `bool` `getActive()`, which returns the active state of the particle. Active particles' positions are updated during the simulation, in contrast to non-active particles, which are only used for particle-particle interaction. The class `Particle3D` is intended to be inherited from, in order to provide additional properties, such as electric or magnetic charge. The particles in the domain of a specific `BlockLattice3D` are combined in the class `ParticleSystem3D`. Finally the class `SuperParticleSystem3D` combines all `ParticleSystem3Ds`, and handles the transfer of particles between them.

The concept of the class `SuperParticleSystem3D` is to provide an easily adaptable framework for simulation of a large number of particles arranged in and interacting with a fluid. In this context *easily adaptable* means that simulated forces and boundary conditions are implemented in a modular manner, such that they are easily exchangeable. Development of new forces and boundary conditions can be readily done by inheritance of provided base classes. Particle-particle interaction can be activated if necessary and deactivated to decrease simulation time. The contact detection algorithm is interchangeable. This section introduces the `SuperParticleSystem3D` and the mentioned properties in more detail.

The class `SuperParticleSystem3D` is initialised by a call to the constructor simultaneously on all PUs:

```

SuperParticleSystem3D(CuboidGeometry3D<T>& cuboidGeometry,
    LoadBalancer<T>& loadBalancer, SuperGeometry3D<T>&, LBconverter<
    T>& conv);

```

During the construction each PU instantiates one `ParticleSystem3D` for each local cuboid. Subsequently for each `ParticleSystem3D` a list of the ranks of PUs holding neighbouring cuboids is created.

Particles can be added to the `SuperParticleSystem3D` by a call to one of the `addParticle()` functions:

```

// Add a Particle to SuperParticleSystem
void addParticle(PARTICLETYPE<T> &p);
// Add a number of identical Particles equally distributed in a
// given IndicatorF3D
void addParticle(IndicatorF3D<T>& ind, T mas, T rad, int no=1, std::
    vector<T> vel={0.,0.,0.});
5 // Add a number of identical Particles equally distributed in a
// given Material Number
void addParticle(std::set<int> material, T mas, T rad, int no=1,
    std::vector<T> vel={0.,0.,0.});
// Add Particles form a File. Save using saveToFile(std::string
    name)
void addParticlesFromFile(std::string name, T mass, T radius);

```

Currently there are four implementations of this class. The first adds single predefined particles, the second and third add a given number of equally distributed particles of the same mass and radius in an area that can be defined by either a set of material numbers or an indicator function. The initial particle velocity can be set optionally. Finally particles can be added from an external file, containing their positions. In all cases the assignment to the correct `ParticleSystem3D` is carried out internally.

Particle forces and boundaries are implemented by the base classes `Force3D` and `Boundary3D`.

```

template<typename T, template<typename U> class PARTICLETYPE>
class Force3D {
public:
    Force3D();
5    virtual void applyForce(typename std::deque<PARTICLETYPE<T> >::
        iterator p, int pInt, ParticleSystem3D<T, PARTICLETYPE>& psSys
        )=0;
}

```

Both classes are intended to be derived from in order to implement force and

boundary specialisations. The key function in both classes are `applyForce()` and `applyBoundary()`, which are called during each timestep of the main LBM loop. `Force3D` and `Boundary3D` specialisations are added to the `SuperParticleSystem3D` by passing a pointer to a class instantiation via a call to the respective function.

```

/// Add a force to system
void addForce(std::shared_ptr<Force3D<T, PARTICLETYPE> > f);
/// Add a boundary to system
void addBoundary(std::shared_ptr<Boundary3D<T, PARTICLETYPE> > b);

```

Both functions add the passed pointer to a list of forces and boundaries, which will be looped over during the simulation step. If necessary a contact detection algorithm can be added.

```

1 /// Set contact detection algorithm for particle-particle contact.
void setContactDetection(ContactDetection<T, PARTICLETYPE>&
    contactDetection);

```

A force based on contact between two particles is the contact force like described in the theory of Hertz and others and is named here as `HertzMindlinDeresiewicz3D`.

```

auto hertz = make_shared < HertzMindlinDeresiewicz3D<T, PARTICLE,
    DESCRIPTOR>
    > (0.0003e9, 0.0003e9, 0.499, 0.499);
spSys.addForce(hertz);

```

Finally one timestep is computed by a call to the function `simulate()`.

```

template<typename T, template<typename U> class PARTICLETYPE>
void SuperParticleSystem3D<T, PARTICLETYPE>::simulate(T dT)
{
    for (auto pS : _pSystems) {
5      pS->_contactDetection->sort();
      pS->simulate(dT);
      pS->computeBoundary();
    }
    updateParticleDistribution();
10 }

```

This function contains a loop over the local `ParticleSystem3Ds` calling the local sorting algorithm and the functions `ParticleSystem3D::simulate()` and `ParticleSystem3D::computeBoundary()`. The sorting algorithm determines potential contact between particles according to the set `ContactDetection`.

```

inline void simulate(T dT) {
    _pSys->computeForce();
    _pSys->explicitEuler(dT);
}

```

The inline function `ParticleSystem3D::simulate()` first calls the local function `ParticleSystem3D::computeForce()`.

```

template<typename T, template<typename U> class PARTICLETYPE>
void ParticleSystem3D<T, PARTICLETYPE>::computeForce()
{
    typename std::deque<PARTICLETYPE<T> >::iterator p;
5   int pInt = 0;
    for (p = _particles.begin(); p != _particles.end(); ++p, ++pInt) {
        if (p->getActive()) {
            p->resetForce();
            for (auto f : _forces) {
10             f->applyForce(p, pInt, *this);
            }
        }
    }
}

```

This function consists of a loop over all particles stored by the calling `ParticleSystem3D`. If the particle state is active, its force variable is reset to zero. Then the value computed by each previously added particle force is added to the particle's force variable. Finally, the particle velocity and position is updated by one step of an integration method.

Returning to the function `SuperParticleSystem3D::simulate(T dT)` the next command in the loop is a call of the function `ParticleSystem3D::computeBoundary()`, which has the same structure as the `ParticleSystem3D::computeForce()`. After executing the loop, the function `updateParticleDistribution()` is called, which redistributes the particles over the `ParticleSystem3Ds` according to their updated position. A detailed description of this function is provided at the end of the next section.

6.4 Implementation of the *communication optimal strategy*

The *communication optimal strategy* is implemented in the function `SuperParticleSystem3D::updateParticleDistribution()` already mentioned above. The function has to be called after every update of the particle positions, in order to check if the particle remained in its current cuboid, as otherwise segmentation

faults may occur during the computation of particle forces. The transfer is implemented using nonblocking operations of the MPI library.

```

template<typename T, template<typename U> class PARTICLETYPE>
void SuperParticleSystem3D<T, PARTICLETYPE>::
    updateParticleDistribution()
{
    /* Find particles on wrong cuboid, store in relocate and delete */
5 //maps particles to their new rank
    _relocate.clear();
    for (unsigned int pS = 0; pS < _pSystems.size(); ++pS) {
        auto par = _pSystems[pS]->_particles.begin();
        while (par != _pSystems[pS]->_particles.end()) {
10 //Check if particle is still in his cuboid
            if (checkCuboid(*par, 0)) {
                par++
            }
            //If not --> find new cuboid
15 else {
                findCuboid(*par, 0);
                _relocate.insert(
                    std::make_pair(this->_loadBalancer.rank(par->getCuboid()),
                        (*par)));
                par = _pSystems[pS]->_particles.erase(par);
20     }
        }
    }
}

```

The function begins with two nested loops. The outer loop is over all local `ParticleSystem3Ds`, the inner loop over the `Particle3Ds` of the current `ParticleSystem3D`. Each particle is checked if it remained in its cuboid during the last update, by the function `checkCuboid(*par, 0)`. The first parameter of `checkCuboid(*par, 0)` is the particle to be tested and the second parameter is an optional spatial extension of the cuboid. If the function returns `true` the counter is incremented and the next particle is tested. If the function returns `false` the particle together with the rank of its new cuboid are copied to the `std::multimap<int, PARTICLETYPE<T> > _relocate` for future treatment and removed from the `std::deque<PARTICLETYPE<T> > _particles` of particles.

```

/* Communicate number of Particles per cuboid*/
singleton::MpiNonBlockingHelper mpiNbHelper;

/* Serialise particles */
5  _send_buffer.clear();
   T buffer[PARTICLETYPE<T>::serialPartSize];
   for (auto rN : _relocate) {
       rN.second.serialize(buffer);
       _send_buffer[rN.first].insert(_send_buffer[rN.first].end(),
           buffer, buffer+PARTICLETYPE<T>::serialPartSize);
10  }

```

The function continues by instantiating the class `singleton::MpiNonBlockingHelper`, which handles memory for `MPI_Request` and `MPI_Status` messages. Then the particles buffered in `_relocate` are serialised. Meaning their data is written consecutively in memory and stored in a buffer `std::map<int, std::vector<double> > _send_buffer` in preparation for the transfer.

```

/*Send Particles */
int noSends = 0;
for (auto rN : _rankNeighbours) {
   if (_send_buffer[rN].size() > 0) {
5     ++noSends;
   }
}
mpiNbHelper.allocate(noSends);
for (auto rN : _rankNeighbours) {
10  if (_send_buffer[rN].size() > 0) {
       singleton::mpi().iSend<double>(&_send_buffer[rN][0], _relocate
           .count(rN)*PARTICLETYPE<T>::serialPartSize, rN, &
           mpiNbHelper.get_mpiRequest()[k++], 1);
   }
}
singleton::mpi().barrier();

```

To find the number of send operations a loop over the ranks of neighbouring cuboids is carried out, increasing the variable `count` each time data for a specific rank is available. Then the appropriate number of `MPI_Requests` is allocated. Finally the data is sent to the respective PUs via a nonblocking `MPI_Isend()` and all PUs wait until the send process is finished on each PU.

```

/*Receive and add particles*/
int flag = 0;
MPI_Iprobe(MPI_ANY_SOURCE, 1, MPI_COMM_WORLD, &flag,
    MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
if (flag) {

```

```

5   for (auto rN : _rankNeighbours) {
    MPI_Status status;
    int flag = 0;
    MPI_Iprobe(rN, 1, MPI_COMM_WORLD, &flag, &status);
    if (flag) {
10      int amount = 0;
        MPI_Get_count(&status, MPI_DOUBLE, &number_amount);
        T recv_buffer[amount];
        singleton::mpi().receive(recv_buffer, amount, rN, 1);
        for (int iPar=0; iPar<amount; iPar+=PARTICLETYPE<T:::
            serialPartSize) {
15          PARTICLETYPE<T> p;
            p.unserialize(&recv_buffer[iPar]);
            if (singleton::mpi().getRank() == this->_loadBalancer.rank
                (p.getCuboid())) {
                _pSystems[this->_loadBalancer.loc(p.getCuboid())]->
                    addParticle(p);
            }
20        }
    }
}
}
if (noSends > 0) {
25  singleton::mpi().waitAll(mpiNbHelper);
}
}

```

On the receiving side the nonblocking routine `MPI_Iprobe()` checks whether an incoming transmission is available. The constant `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` indicates that messages from all ranks are accepted. If a message is awaiting reception the flag `flag` is set to a nonzero value and the following switch will be true. This query is not necessary, but the following loop can be entirely skipped if no particles are transferred, which is expected to be the case most of the time.

The subsequent loop tests for each single neighbouring rank if a message awaits reception. If true the number of send `MPI_Doubles` is read from the `status` variable via an `MPI_Get_count()`. The appropriate memory is allocated and the message is received by wrapped call to `MPI_Recv()`, and written consecutively. Then new `Particle3Ds` are instantiated, initialised with the received data and assigned to the respective `ParticleSystem3D` on the updated PU. Finally, a call to `MPI_Waitall()` makes sure, that all `MPI_Isend()`s have been processed by the recipients.

6.4.1 Shadow Particles

If particle collisions are considered, it may happen that particles P_m with centre $\vec{X}_m \in \tilde{\Omega}^j$ collide with particle P_n with centre $\vec{X}_n \in \tilde{\Omega}^k$ in a different cuboid, as illustrated in Figure 6.2. Therefore P_n has to be known on $\vec{X}_m \in \tilde{\Omega}^j$ and so-called shadow particles are introduced. Shadow particles are static particles, whose positions and velocities are not explicitly computed during the update step. Particle collision across cuboid boundaries can only occur if the distance $d = \|\vec{X}_n - \vec{X}_m\|_2$ between the participating particles is less than the sum of the two largest radii of all particles in the system. Hence the width of the particle overlap has to be at least the sum of the two largest particle radii and all particles within this overlap have to be transferred to the neighbour cuboid after each update of the particle position by an additional communication step similar to the one introduced above.

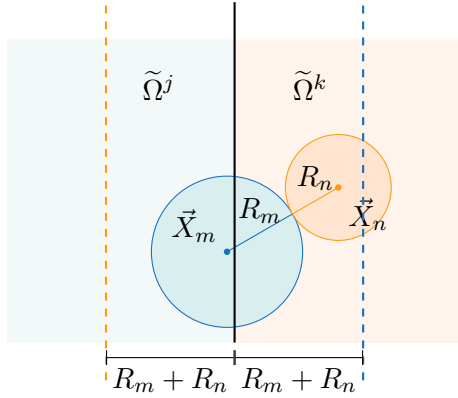


Figure 6.2: Overlap of the particle domains. Particles within a distance to of the sum of the two largest radii to a neighbour cuboid have to be transferred to this specific neighbour cuboid.

7 Input / Output

During development or even during actual simulation, it might be necessary to parametrize your program. For this case, OpenLB provides an XML parser, which can read files produced by OpenGPI [6], thereby providing a nice GUI, if you are so inclined. Details on the XML format and functions are given in Section 7.7.

The simulation data is stored in the VTK data format and can be further processed with Paraview. For output tasks that are performed only once during the simulation, it is recommended to write the data sequentially. Commonly, the geometry or cuboid information is one of these tasks. In contrast to the parallel version, it is easier to use and does not produce unnecessary data overhead. However, if the output is performed regularly in a parallel simulation, the performance may slow down using the sequential output method. Therefore, OpenLB has implemented a parallel data output functionality. At the lowest scope, every thread writes 'vti' files that contain the data. OpenLB writes a 'vti' file for every cuboid, to provide parallel data processing. Those 'vti' files are summarized and put together by the next hierarchy, the 'vtm' file. A 'vtm' file corresponds to the entire domain with respect to a certain time step. At the end, the different time steps are packed to a 'pvd' file, that is a collection of 'vtm' according to time steps.

The technical aspects are presented in Section 7.1, whereas the usage is demonstrated with an example in Section 7.2.

7.1 Output Data Structure

OpenLB simulation data is stored in file system according to the VTK data format [7]. This format has XML structure and the data therein is written as binary Base64 code. Additionally, the simulation data is compressed by zlib, which allows to reduce data tremendously.

On the top level, the parallel output hierarchy contains a pvd file, which consists of links to vtm files. The vtm files summarize the cuboids represented by vti files.

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>
```

```

<VTKFile type="Collection" version="0.1" byte_order="LittleEndian">
<Collection>
<DataSet timestep="81920" group="" part="" file="data/VTM_iT0081920.vtm"/>
<DataSet timestep="163840" group="" part="" file="data/VTM_iT0163840.vtm"/>
<DataSet timestep="245760" group="" part="" file="data/VTM_iT0245760.vtm"/>
<DataSet timestep="327680" group="" part="" file="data/VTM_iT0327680.vtm"/>
<DataSet timestep="409600" group="" part="" file="data/VTM_iT0409600.vtm"/>
</Collection>
</VTKFile>

```

Listing 7.1: Example of a 'pvd' file that points for every time step to the corresponding 'vtm' file. Every time step is associated to a 'vtm' file.

```

<?xml version="1.0"?>
<VTKFile type="vtkMultiBlockDataSet" version="1.0" byte_order="LittleEndian">
<vtkMultiBlockDataSet>
<Block index="0" >
<DataSet index="0" file="VTM_iT0081920iC00000.vti"></DataSet>
</Block>
<Block index="1" >
<DataSet index="0" file="VTM_iT0081920iC00001.vti"></DataSet>
</Block>
<Block index="2" >
<DataSet index="0" file="VTM_iT0081920iC00002.vti"></DataSet>
</Block>
<Block index="3" >
<DataSet index="0" file="VTM_iT0081920iC00003.vti"></DataSet>
</Block>
</vtkMultiBlockDataSet>
</VTKFile>

```

Listing 7.2: Example of a 'vtm' file that points to 'vti' files that hold data of a cuboids. Every cuboid writes its data to a 'vti' file, which are assembled by a 'vtm' file.

There is also a `BlockVTKwriter` that writes data sequentially. More details can be found in the source code and its documentation.

7.2 Write Simulation Data to VTK File Format

VTK data files can be visualized and postprocessed with the free software Paraview [8], which offers a nice graphical interface. The following listing shows, on the one hand, how to write VTK files sequential for a geometry and cuboid functors. On the other hand, the usage of the parallel write-routine for velocity and pressure functors is shown.

```

// create VTK writer object
SuperVTMwriter3D<T> vtmWriter("FileNameGoesHere");
3 // write only the first iteration step

```

```

if (iT==0) {
    SuperLatticeGeometry3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> geometry(sLattice,
        superGeometry);
    SuperLatticeCuboid3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> cuboid(sLattice);
    // writes the geometry and cuboids to file system, sequentially
8   vtmWriter.write(geometry);
    vtmWriter.write(cuboid);
    // mandatory to call the following write()-method
    vtmWriter.createMasterFile();
}
13 // write every 2 sec (physical time scale)
if (iT%converter.numTimeSteps(2.)==0) {
    // create functors that process data from SuperLattice
    SuperLatticePhysVelocity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> velocity(sLattice,
                                                converter);
18   SuperLatticePhysPressure3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> pressure(sLattice,
                                                converter);

    vtmWriter.addFunctor( velocity );
    vtmWriter.addFunctor( pressure );
    // writes the added functors to file system, parallel
23  vtmWriter.write(iT);
}

```

Listing 7.3: An exemplary code to write simulation data to file system.

Note, that the function call `creatMasterFile()` in `iT == 0` is essential to write parallel vtk data.

7.3 Write Images Instantaneously

OpenLB is able to output image data directly. This is helpful to get a brief overview of how the simulation is going on without using external visualization tools. Note that only $1D$ data or equivalent scalar-valued data can be represented by images. Hence, for vector-valued data, e.g. velocity, it is important to take an appropriate norm. This step transforms the vector into a scalar and the data becomes one dimensional as required.

For $2D$ application it is straight forward to generate images, since every point of the computational grid represents a pixel. However, for $3D$ applications this assignment fails. OpenLB allows to reduce the $3D$ grid with the help of a plane. The resulting plane represents then the image by assigning plane points to pixels.

An example of how to take a norm and how to place a plane is shown below

```

1 // get the pointwise l2 norm of velocity

```

```

SuperEuklidNorm3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> normVel( velocity );
// put a plane with normal (0,0,1) in the 3 dimensional data
BlockLatticeReduction3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> planeReduction( normVel, 0, 0,
1 );
BlockGifWriter<T> gifWriter;
6 //gifWriter.write(planeReduction, 0, 0.7, iT, "vel"); //static scale
gifWriter.write( planeReduction, iT, "vel" ); // scaled

```

Listing 7.4: An exemplary code to write images out of simulation data.

With `imagemagick`'s command `convert` the PPM files generated by `gifWriter` can be combined to an animated GIF file as follows:

```
convert tmp/imageData/*.ppm animation.gif
```

To reduce the GIF's file size you can use the options `fuzz` and `OptimizeFrame`, for example:

```
convert -fuzz 3% -layers OptimizeFrame tmp/imageData/*.ppm animation.gif
```

Even smaller files are possible with `ffmpeg` and conversion to MP4 video file. This could be done using a command like:

```
ffmpeg -pattern_type glob -i 'tmp2/imageData/*.ppm' animation.mp4
```

7.4 Gnuplot Interface

Often, for the analysis of simulations a plot of the data is required. OpenLB has a interface, which uses `Gnuplot` to create plots. Furthermore, it is possible to see the particular data needed plotting in realtime. It is also possible to use comparison data, which are directly used in the plot.

An example for the usage is shown below, and can be found in `examples/cylinder2d`.

```

// Gnuplot constructor (must be static!)
// for real-time plotting: gplot("name", true) // experimental!
static Gnuplot<T> gplot( "drag" );
4
...

// set data for gnuplot: input={xValue, yValue(s),
// names (optional), position of key (optional)}
9 gplot.setData( converter.physTime( iT ), {_drag[0], 5.58},
{"drag(openLB)", "drag(schaeferTurek)"}, "bottom right" );

```



```

// writes a png (or optional pdf) in one file for every timestep,
// if the png file is opened by an imageviewer it can be used as a "
  liveplot"
14 // optional for pdf output, use: gplot.writePDF()
gplot.writePNG();
}

```

Listing 7.5: An exemplary code to plot simulation data.

The data `drag[0]` is calculated in the example and compared with the value 5.58. This is then plotted as shown in Fig. 7.1.

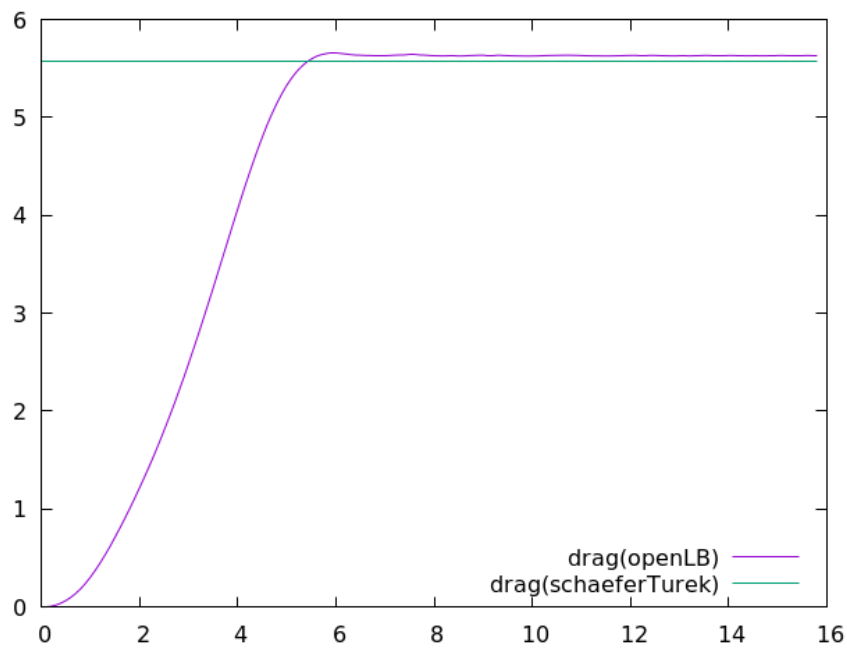


Figure 7.1: Gnuplot output of drag calculation in cylinder2d.

In order to have plots for different times following usage is recommended.

```

...
// every (iT%vtkIter) write an png of the plot
4 if ( iT%( vtkIter ) == 0 ) {
// writes pngs: input={name of the files (optional),
// x range for the plot (optional)}
gplot.writePNG( iT, maxPhysT );
}

```

Listing 7.6: Creating plots for different time steps.

7.5 Console Output

In OpenLB, there is an extension of default ostreams, which handles parallel output and prefixes each line with the name of the class that produced the output. Listing 7.7 is the output of the `bstep2d` example.

It is easy to determine which part of OpenLB has produced a specific message. This can be very helpful in the debugging process, as well as for quickly postprocessing console output or filtering out important information without any need to go into the code. Together with OpenLB's semi-CSV style output standard, it is possible to easily visualize any data imaginable diagrams, such as convergence rate, data errors, or simple average mass density.

```
void MyClass::print() {
OstreamManager clout(std::cout, "MyClass");
3 ...
clout << "step=" << step << "; avRho=" << avRho
    << "; maxU=" << maxU << std::endl;
}
```

Using the `OstreamManager` is easy and consists of two parts. First, an instance of the class `OstreamManager` is needed. The one created here in Line 2 is called `clout` like all the other instances in OpenLB. This word consists of the two words class and output. Moreover, it is quite similar to standard `cout`. The constructor receives two arguments: one describing the ostream to use, the other one setting the prefix-text. In line 4 the usage of an instance of the `OstreamManager` is shown. There is not much difference in usage between a default `std::cout` and an instance of OpenLB's `OstreamManager`. The only thing to consider is that a normal `"\n"` won't have the expected effect, so use `std::endl` instead.

In classes with many output producing functions however, you wouldn't like to instantiate `OstreamManager` for every single function, so a central instantiation is preferred. This is done by adding a mutable `OstreamManager` object as a private class member and initializing it in the initialization list of each defined constructor. An example implementation of this method can be found in `src/utilities/timer.{h, hh}`.

Another great benefit of `OstreamManager` is the reduction of output in parallel. Running a program using `cout` on multiple cores normally means getting one line of output for each process. `OstreamManager` will avoid this by default and display only the output of the first processor. If this behavior is unwanted in a specific case, it can be turned off for an instance named `clout` by `clout.setMultiOutput(true)`.

Further scenarios that are not yet implemented in OpenLB can make use of different

streams like the ostream `std::cerr` for separate error output, file streams, or something completely different. In doing so, every stream, of course, needs its own instance.

```
$ ./bstep2d
[LBconverter] LBconverter information
[LBconverter] characteristical values
[LBconverter] Dimension(d):                dim=2
....
[prepareGeometry] Prepare Geometry ...
[SuperGeometry2D] cleaned 0 outer boundary voxel(s)
[SuperGeometry2D] cleaned 0 inner boundary voxel(s)
[SuperGeometry2D] the model is correct!
[SuperGeometryStatistics2D] updated
[SuperGeometryStatistics2D] materialNumber=0; count=4600; minPhysR=(3.35,0); maxPhysR=(5,0.75)
[SuperGeometryStatistics2D] materialNumber=1; count=92865; minPhysR=(0.0166667,0.0166667); ...
[SuperGeometryStatistics2D] materialNumber=2; count=2448; minPhysR=(0,0); maxPhysR=(20,1.5)
[SuperGeometryStatistics2D] materialNumber=3; count=43; minPhysR=(0,0.783333); maxPhysR=(0,1.48333)
[SuperGeometryStatistics2D] materialNumber=4; count=89; minPhysR=(20,0.0166667); maxPhysR=(20,1.48333)
[main] starting simulation...
[SuperGeometryStatistics2D] updated
[Timer] step=0; percent=0; passedTime=0.109; remTime=inf; MLUPs=0
[LatticeStatistics] step=0; t=0; uMax=1.49167e-154; avEnergy=0; avRho=1
[Timer] step=300; percent=0.25; passedTime=1.199; remTime=478.401; MLUPs=26.2693
[LatticeStatistics] step=300; t=0.1; uMax=5.75006e-07; avEnergy=8.66459e-16; avRho=1
```

Listing 7.7: Terminal output of example bstep2d.

7.6 Read and write STL files

OpenLB offers the possibility to read and write geometry data in the Standard Triangulation Language, STL for short. The OpenLB class `stlReader` provides the desired functionality. In the case that the `.stl`-file you want to read is too large, you can use Paraview's filter "Decimate" to reduce the number of facets.

The constructor of the class `STLReader` takes 2 necessary and 3 optional arguments.

```
STLReader(const std::string fName, T voxelSize, T stlSize=1,  
          unsigned short int method = 2, bool verbose = false);
```

- *fName*: The filename of the STL file to be read.
- *voxelSize*: The intended spatial step size for the simulation in SI units (m).
- *stlSize*: Conversion factor if the STL file is not given in SI units. E.g. STL file in cm → `stlSize = 0.01`.
- *method*: Switch between methods for determining inside and outside of geometry.
 - default: fast, less stable
 - 1: slow, more stable (for untight STLs)
- *verbose*: Switch to get more output.

Functionality: The STL file is read and stored in the class `STLmesh`. A class `Octree` is instantiated of side-length $\text{rad} = 2^{j-1} \cdot \text{voxelSize}$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$ with j such that a cube with diameter 2rad covers the entire STL. Intersections of triangles and the nodes of the Octree are computed and an index of the respective triangles is stored in each node. A node is a leaf if either $\text{rad} = \text{voxelSize}$ or if it does not contain any triangles.

In a second step, it is determined whether a leaf is inside the STL geometry by one of the following methods:

- (Default) One ray in Z-direction is defined for each Voxel in XY-layer. All nodes are indicated on the fly (faster, less stable).
- Define three rays (X-, Y-, Z-direction) for each leaf and count intersections with STL for each ray. Odd number of intersection means inside. The final state is decided by a majority vote (slower, more stable).

7.7 XML Parameter Files

In OpenLB essential simulation parameter can be placed in a XML. This is a useful feature, since once a program is compiled the parameter can be changed through the XML file and recompilation is redundant. As a consequence whenever parameter fitting or general simulations are wanted, this approach can help you editing only the XML file. The parsing is implemented in the the header file `io/xmlReader.h`.

The general format for the XML files is:

```
<Param>
  <Mesh>
    <lx>1</lx>
    <ly>3</ly>
  </Mesh>
  <VisualizationImages>
    <Filename>image</Filename>
  </VisualizationImages>
</Param>
```

All parameters need to be wrapped in a `<Param>` tag. To open a config file, you just pass a string with the file name to the class constructor of `XMLreader`.

```
std::string fName("demo.xml");
XMLreader config(fName);

int lx, ly;
5 std::string imagename;
  config["Mesh"]["lx"].get(lx);
  XMLreader meshconfig = config["Mesh"];

  ly = config["Mesh"]["ly"].get<int>();
10 config["VisualizationImages"]["Filename"].get(Filename);
```

First, an `XMLreader` object `config` is created. There are multiple ways to access the configuration data. To select the tag you would like to read, you just use an associative array like syntax as shown above.

To get a specific value out of an XML parameter file, there are multiple methods. One is to pass a predefined variable to the method `get()`, which automatically converts the string in the config file to the correct type, if it is one of the basic C++ types. The other method is to call `get` without a parameter but with the needed type as a template parameter, like `get<int>()`. For large subtrees with lots of parameters, you can also create a subobject. For this, you just have to reassign your selected subtree to a new `XMLreader`-object as is done above for `Mesh`.

8 Visualization with Paraview

As already mentioned, there are several data formats that can be used in Paraview. Use 'File – Open' and choose the set of data you want to use. If there is a plus in front of the file name, choose this file to open the numbered collection of single files. The chosen files should now be part of the 'Pipeline Browser', which should be on the left hand side (if any of the panels are missing you can add them in the 'View' menu on the top). Click on 'Apply' in the 'Properties' panel (usually located below the 'Pipeline Browser') after opening.

Your data should now be visible in the center window. From within the 'Properties' or in one of the top tool bars, you can change the 'Coloring' properties, which selects what shall be displayed (e.g. physical velocity, phys pressure), which part of this choice shall be displayed (e.g. magnitude, x-value) and the way it is colored.

Make sure that '3D' is part of the tool bar directly above the window where you can see your objects. If you cannot find it click on '2D' which should be written instead and change it to '3D' by doing this. The commands for moving your whole set of visible objects and thus changing the perspective are the following:

- Using the mouse wheel, you can zoom in and out.
- Using the right mouse button or 'Ctrl + left mouse button', you can move the object to the background or the foreground. In comparison to zooming in and out, this changes the level of the 3D-effect.
- Using the left mouse button allows you to turn the object.
- Clicking the mouse wheel allows you to move the object centre.

Of course you can also stick to '2D', although in this case the mouse commands might change a bit.

You can visualize the temporal development of your simulation using the 'Play' button and the related buttons directly next to it. If you want to go to a certain time step, use the input field 'Time', which is also located here.

To manipulate your data in Paraview numerous so called 'Filters' are provided in the 'Filters' menu in the top bar.

8.1 Clip

With this filter, you can cut off parts of your objects, for example, to make it possible to look inside the geometry. There are several tool options to determine which part is cut off. You can choose between plane, box and sphere.

If the “wrong” side is cut off, check ‘inside out’ to make the other side visible.

Contour

Using ‘Contour’ you can show lines or planes of certain data values, which you can set.

8.2 Glyph

If you have a point data set, you can represent it as spheres using the filter ‘Glyph’ and choosing ‘Sphere’ as setting for ‘Glyph Type’. Using the resolution settings, you can smooth the surface to make the sphere look more rounded.

There are alternative ways to represent the data. As an example, arrows can be used to show the direction of a velocity. Check ‘Glyph Type’ for further possibilities.

8.3 Stream Tracer

Using the Stream Tracer allows you to draw flow lines.

Temporal Interpolator

Using this filter, you can interpolate between sets of data.

8.4 Transform

Using ‘Transform’ you can change the position and orientation of your objects, as well as the scale.

9 Functors – A General Concept For Input and Output of Data

Roughly speaking, a functor is a class that behaves like a function. Objects of a functor class perform computations by overloading the `operator()`. One big advantage of functors over functions is, that they allow the creation of a hierarchy and bundle “classes of functions”. Moreover, parameters that are constant over several function evaluations only need to be passed once during instantiation.

9.1 Basic Functor Types

The functor concept is a user friendly and efficient technique to process lattice data and extract relevant data for postprocessing. In the meanwhile, OpenLB deploys the functors also for the geometry, which is a very intuitive and powerful choice.

Basically, functors are applications that operate either on the lattice \mathbb{N}^3 or more generally on \mathbb{R}^3 . The values of such an functor may be three dimensional, e.g. velocity.

$$Functor : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d, \quad d \in \mathbb{N} \quad (9.1)$$

The nomenclature is based on the dimension of the domain. Let’s say the functor acts on a $3d$ (super) lattice, the the functor is called `SuperLatticeF3D`. If the functor value is density, then this functor is called `SuperLatticeDensity3D`.

9.1.1 GenericF

The `GenericF` functor stands at the top of the hierarchy and is a virtual base class that provides interfaces. Template parameter `S` defines the input data type and template parameter `T`, the output. The essential interface is the unwritten (pure virtual function) `operator()`. Commonly, this `()`-operator is used as an evaluation of a certain functor, e.g. pressure at position x .

9.1.2 AnalyticalF

This a subclass of `GenericF` for functions that lives in SI-units, e.g. for setting velocities in m/s . Parts of this class are, for example, constant, linear, interpolation and random functors, which can be evaluated by the `()`-operator. There is a `AnalyticalCalc` class, which inherits from `AnalyticalF` and establishes arithmetic operations ($+$, $-$, $*$, $/$) between every type of `AnalyticalF`.

$$\text{AnalyticalF3D} : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d, \quad d \in \mathbb{N} \quad (9.2)$$

9.1.3 IndicatorF

This an other subclass of `GenericF` that returns a vector with elements 0 or 1. These are used to construct geometries, e.g. `IndicatorSphere3D` creates a sphere using an origin and radius. Evaluation returns 1, if the vector is inside the sphere and 0 otherwise. In analogy to the `AnalyticalF`, there are arithmetic operations as well, but with a slightly different definition. The returned object of an addition is the union, multiplication returns the intersection and subtraction represents the relative complement.

$$\text{IndicatorF3D} : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \quad (9.3)$$

9.1.4 SmoothIndicatorF

SmoothIndicators are very similar to Indicators but their image is smooth from 0 to 1. `SmoothIndicators` defines a small epsilon region around the object such that is has a smooth transition form 0 to 1.

$$\text{SmoothIndicatorF3D} : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow [0, 1] \quad (9.4)$$

9.1.5 BlockLatticeF/SuperLatticeF

These functors are defined on the lattice and commonly represent the raw simulation data, e.g. pressure, velocity. `SuperLattice` functors are part of the parallelism layer and they delegate the calculations to the corresponding `BlockLattice` functors.

$$\text{SuperLatticeF3D} : \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d, \quad d \in \mathbb{N} \quad (9.5)$$

9.1.6 InterpolationF

functors establish conversion between the analytical and lattice functors. They are very important in setting analytical boundary conditions, by evaluating the given analytical function on the lattice points. The reverse direction - from lattice to analytical functors - is where this functor receives its name, as the conversion is achieved by interpolation between the lattice points.

9.2 Application of Functors

The concept of functors benefits from generality and therefore, they are used for many applications.

9.2.1 Extract Simulation Data

Velocity, pressure and other information can be extracted from the lattice using pre-defined functors, see Listing 9.1. All they need to know is a `SuperLatticeXD` and an `LBconverter` - if dimension or physical units are wanted.

```
// Create functors
SuperLatticePhysVelocity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> velocity(&sLattice,
                                                    &converter);
SuperLatticePhysPressure3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> pressure(&sLattice,
                                                    &converter);
```

5

Listing 9.1: Code example for calculating velocity and pressure using functors.

9.2.2 Define Analytic Functions

Often the inflow velocity has Poiseuille profile which is defined analytically, by means of a function. OpenLB provide analytic functors to define e.g. Poiseuille velocity profile, random values, linear and constant values.

```
Poiseuille2D<T> poiseuilleU(superGeometry, 3, maxVelocity,
                             distance2Wall);
```

Listing 9.2: Define a poiseuille velocity profile for inflow boundary condition.

9.2.3 Interpolation

Another case for interpolation functors is the conversion of a given analytical functor, such as an analytical solution to a SuperLattice functor. Afterwards, the difference can be easily calculated with the help of the functor arithmetic, see Listing 9.4. Finally, specific norms implemented as functors facilitate analysis of convergence.

```
// define a analytic functor: R^3 -> R
AnalyticalConst3D<T, T> constAna(1.);
// get analytic functor on the lattice: N^3 -> R
4 SuperLatticeFfromAnalyticalF3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> constLat( constAna,
                                                         lattice );
```

Listing 9.3: Transition from an analytic functor to a lattice functor.

Application of this is shown in the example `poiseuille2d`, which is discussed in Section 11.10

9.2.4 Arithmetic and Advanced Functor Usage

Functors can be added, subtracted, ... which is a very useful and elegant method to treat data. Listing 9.4 shows how to compute the relative error over the whole three dimensional problem.

```
int input[1];
T normAnaSol[1], absErr[1], relErr[1];
// define analytical solution: R^3 -> R
// for snake of simplicity it is a constant function,
5 // however it may be any specialization of AnalyticalF3D<T, T>
AnalyticalConst3D<T, T> dSol(1.);
// get analytical solution on the lattice: N^3 -> R
SuperLatticeFfromAnalyticalF3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> dSolLattice( dSol,
                                                         lattice );
// get density out of simulation data
10 SuperLatticeDensity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> d( lattice );
// compute absolute error
SuperL2Norm3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> dL2Norm( dSolLattice - d,
                                     superGeometry, 1 );
// compute norm of solution
15 SuperL2Norm3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> dSolL2Norm( dSolLattice,
                                           superGeometry, 1 );
dL2Norm( absErr, input ); // access absolute error
dSolL2Norm( normAnaSol, input ); // access norm of the solution
relErr[0] = absErr[0] / normAnaSol[0];
20 clout << "density-L2-error(abs)=" << absErr[0] << " ;"
```

```
<< "density-L2-error(rel)=" << relErr[0] << std::endl;
```

Listing 9.4: Computation of a relative error with respect to L^2 -norm.

For more detail, see the source code of example 11.10.

Assemble geometry with geometric primitives of type `IndicatorFXD`.

```
Vector<T,2> extendChannel(lx0,ly0);
Vector<T,2> originChannel;
IndicatorCuboid2D<T> channel(extendChannel, originChannel);
// setup step
5 Vector<T,2> extendStep(lx1,ly1);
Vector<T,2> originStep;
IndicatorCuboid2D<T> step(extendStep, originStep);
// remove step from channel
IndicatorIdentity2D<T> channelIdent(channel-step);
```

Listing 9.5: Deploy functor arithmetic to build geometry data.

9.2.5 Setting Boundary Value

Boundary cells are marked by a certain material number in the `SuperGeometryXD`. Using a functor, velocities can be set simultaneously on all cells of this material. First, a vector that characterizes the maximum flow velocity and its directions is necessary. Then, a special functor uses this vector to initialize a Poiseuille profile. The direction can be extracted in the case of axis-parallel inflow regions automatically from the `SuperGeometryXD`. In the last step, the `SuperLattice` initializes all cells of a certain material given by the `SuperLatticeXD` with the velocities computed by the functor.

```
// Creates and sets the Poiseuille inflow profile using functors
std::vector<T> maxVelocity(3,0);
maxVelocity[0] = 2.25*frac*converter.getLatticeU();
SquarePoiseuilleInflow3D<T> poiseuilleU(superGeometry, 3, maxVelocity
);
5 sLattice.defineU(superGeometry, 3, poiseuilleU);
```

Listing 9.6: Code example for setting a Poiseuille velocity profile and a constant pressure boundary in `cylinder3d`.

9.2.6 Flux Functor

The *flux* of a quantity is defined as the rate at which this quantity passes through a fixed boundary per unit time.

As a *mathematical concept*, flux is represented by the surface integral of a vector field,

$$\Phi = \int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A}$$

where \vec{F} is a vector field, and $d\vec{A}$ is an area element of the surface A , in the direction of the surface normal \vec{n} .

The *flux functor* calculates the discrete flux

$$\Phi_h = h^2 \sum_i \vec{f}_i \cdot \vec{n}$$

with h as the grid length of the surface and \vec{f}_i the vector of the quantity at grid point i .

As the grid of the area has to be independent from the lattice, the value of \vec{f}_i will be interpolated from the surrounding lattice points.

So, for the SuperLatticeFlux functor a surface needs to be defined, here a plane, and an SuperLatticeF functor.

The *plane* can be defined by a circle indicator, a starting point and a normal, or a starting point and two vectors. Optionally, you can set a *radius* for the plane. The *grid length* of the area can be defined. The default for this value is the lattice length. Another optional feature is a *material list*, so that only the points with the predefined material numbers are used for calculation (the default material number is 1). Next is a *SuperLatticeF functor*, which defines the quantity you want to measure.

Step 1: Define the plane by

a) a circle indicator

```
IndicatorCircle3D<T, T> circleInd(center1, center2, center3, normal1,  
    normal2, normal3, radius);
```

b) a normal, a starting point and, optionally, a radius

```
std::vector<T> startingPoint, planeNormal;  
T radius;
```

c) two vectors, a starting point and, optionally, a radius

```
std::vector<T> startingPoint, planeVectorU, planeVectorV;  
T radius;
```

Step 2 (optional): Define the grid length of the plane

```
T h = converter.getLatticeL();
```

Step 3 (optional): Define the material list

```
std::list<int> materials;
```

Step 4: Create a SuperLatticeF functor

a) *for velocity flow*

```
SuperLatticePhysVelocity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> vel(sLattice, converter);
```

b) *for pressure*

```
SuperLatticePhysPressure3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> press(sLattice, converter);
```

c) *or any other SuperLatticeF functor*

```
SuperLatticeF3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> ...;
```

Step 5: create a SuperLatticeFlux functor (depending on how the plane was defined)

a) *circle indicator*

```
SuperLatticeFlux3D(SuperLatticeF3D<T, DESCRIPTOR>& f, SuperGeometry3D<T>& sg, IndicatorCircle3D<bool, T>& circle, std::list<int> materials, T h = T());
```

b) *normal and startingPoint*

```
SuperLatticeFlux3D(SuperLatticeF3D<T, DESCRIPTOR>& f, SuperGeometry3D<T>& sg, std::vector<T>& n, std::vector<T> A, std::list<int> materials, T radius = T(), T h = T());
```

c) *two vectors and startingPoint*

```
SuperLatticeFlux3D(SuperLatticeF3D<T, DESCRIPTOR>& f, SuperGeometry3D<T>& sg, std::vector<T>& u, std::vector<T>& v, std::vector<T> A, std::list<int> materials, T radius = T(), T h = T());
```

In addition to the arguments for the plane, the constructor takes 2 **necessary** and 3 **optional** arguments.

- *f*: the functor defined in **Step 4**

- *sg*: the SuperGeometry3D object
- *materials*: **default** is material number 1
- *radius*: **default** is the diameter of the geometry
- *h*: **default** is the lattice length

Step 6: Get results by using the operator()

```
int input[3];
T output[5];
flux(output, input);
```

- *output[0]*: flow rate, or force (if quantity has dimension 1)
- *output[1]*: size of the area
- *output[2..4]*: flow vector (ie. vector of summed quantities)

Because, in general, the SuperLattice functor is either the velocity functor or the pressure functor, **Step 4** and **Step 5** can be combined. The constructors, depending on how the plane is defined, are identical to the ones used for SuperLatticeFluxF3D, only the SuperLatticeF3D argument is replaced by the two arguments SuperLattice3D and LBconverter.

Step 4.1): Combined steps for velocity flow

```
SuperLatticePhysVelocityFlux3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> vFlux(SuperLattice3D<T,
DESCRIPTOR> sLattice, LBconverter<T> converter, ...);
```

Step 4.2): Combined steps for pressure

```
SuperLatticePhysPressureFlux3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> pFlux(SuperLattice3D<T,
DESCRIPTOR> sLattice, LBconverter<T> converter, ...);
```

For these two functors there is a *print()* function.

Step 5.1): Output for velocity functor (region size[m^2], volumetric flow rate and mean velocity)

```
vFlux.print(std::string fluxSiScale, std::string meanSiScale);
```

- *fluxSiScale*: 'ml/s' or 'l/s' or '' (default= m^3/s)
- *meanSiScale*: 'mm/s' or '' (default= m/s)

Step 5.2): output for pressure functor (region size[m^2], force and pressure)

```
pFlux.print(std::string fluxSiScale, std::string meanSiScale);
```

- *fluxSiScale*: 'MN' or 'kN' or '' (default= N)
- *meanSiScale*: 'mmHg' or '' (default= Pa)

Shown below are two code examples for the implementation of the flux functor in cylinder3d.

Example 1: *circle indicator, material list and SuperLatticeFlux3D*

```
std::list<int> materials;  
materials.push_back(1);  
materials.push_back(6);  
4  
IndicatorCircle3D<bool, T> circleInd(2., 0.205, 0.205, 1., 1., 0., 2.)  
    ;  
SuperLatticePhysVelocity3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> vel(sLattice, converter);  
SuperLatticeFlux3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> flux(vel, superGeometry, circleInd);  
9 clout << "flowRate=" << flux(input)[0];  
clout << "regionSize=" << flux(input)[1] << endl;
```

Listing 9.7: Code example for getting the volumetric flow rate of the velocity flow in cylinder3d.

Example 2: *normal, startingPoint and SuperLatticePhysPressureFlux3D*

```
std::vector<T> A(3, T()), n(3, T());  
A[0]=2.;A[1]=0.205;A[2]=0.205;
```

```

n[0]=1.;n[1]=1.;n[2]=0.;
5 SuperLatticePhysPressureFlux3D<T, DESCRIPTOR> pFlux(sLattice,
  converter, superGeometry, n, A);
pFlux.print();

```

Listing 9.8: Code example for getting the pressure on a area in cylinder3d.

9.3 Functor Arithmetic

Simulation data often needs heavy post-processing, in order to get relevant data. With the functor arithmetic OpenLB provides a very user friendly tool to process simulation data during simulation time. E.g. it facilitates the computation of relative errors.

```

AnalyticalConst2D<T, T> one(1.);
AnalyticalConst2D<T, T> two(2.);
AnalyticalIdentity2D<T, T> tmp(one + two);
4 // or equivalent
AnalyticPlus2D<T, T> aPlus(one, two);
AnalyticalIdentity2D<T, T> tmp2(aPlus);

```

Listing 9.9: Basic showcase for arithmetic operations for AnalyticalF2D.

The following explains the memory management of the functor arithmetic in OpenLB. It is strongly based on the example shown in Listing 9.9 and in particular on its third line. First, the `operator+()` declared in `AnalyticalF2<T, S>` is called by the object `one`, as shown in Figure 9.1. Its implementation is realized in the file `analyticCalc2D.hh`. Basically, there happens two things. A new object of type `AnalyticalPlus2D<T, S>` will be created and a `shared_ptr` to it, is stored into a variable of the object `one`. The `shared_ptr` is used to free the memory allocated by the new object. By now, object `one` cares about the arithmetic operation. However, if `one` is used for other arithmetic operations, its `shared_ptr` may be overwritten, which can causes runtime errors. It would be more intuitive if `tmp` cared about memory management. As a consequence, `tmp` should hold the `shared_ptr`, which is achieved in two steps. First, constructing an `AnalyticalPlus2D<T, S>` object, moves the `shared_ptr` from object `one` to `AnalyticalPlus2D<T, S>`. Then by constructing `tmp` the `shared_ptr` moves once again to the created `AnalyticalIdentity2D<T, S>`. Finally, `tmp` holds the `shared_ptr` and thus is responsible for the memory management.

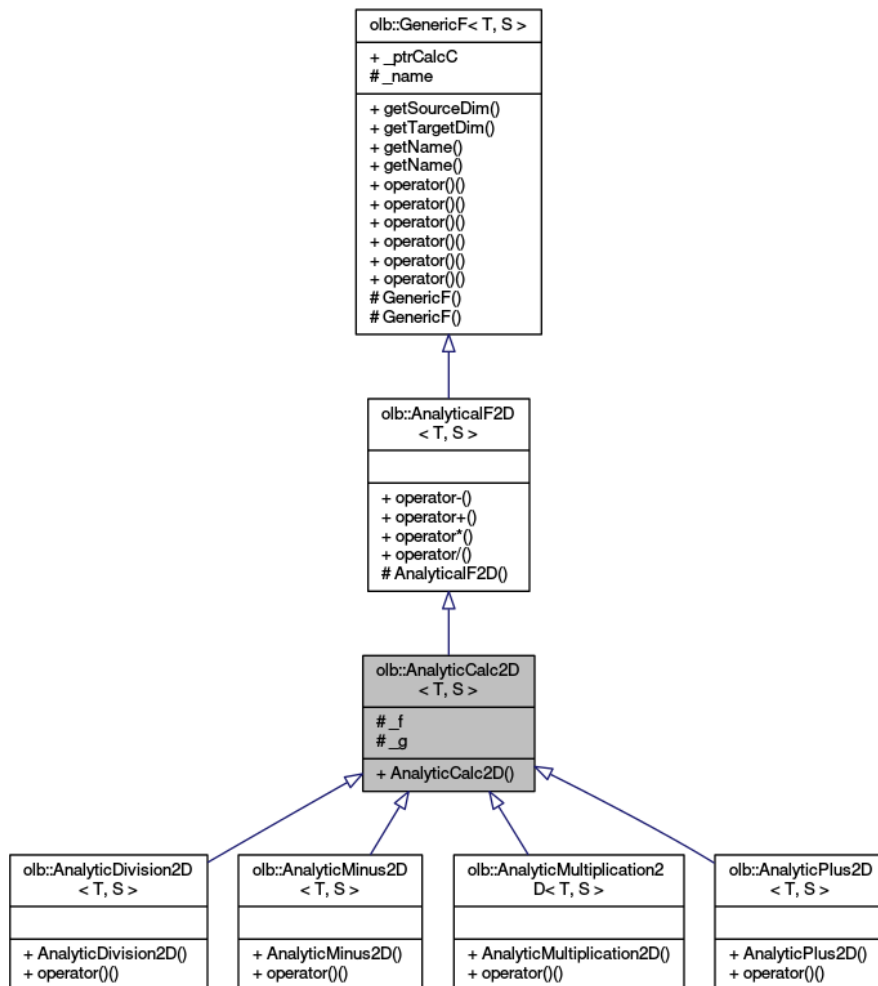


Figure 9.1: Inheritance for `AnalyticCalc2D` is shown.

10 Parallel Program Execution

Whenever possible, an OpenLB application should be written in such a way that it works well on both serial and parallel platforms. As applications in computational fluid dynamics require a large amount of resources, it is essential to have the flexibility to switch to a parallel platform easily. This Section concentrates on parallelism on distributed memory machines using MPI, as distributed memory is the most common model on large-scale, parallel machines. Furthermore, MPI parallelism has become an important option even on simple desktop computers, which quite often possess multi-core processors. In this case, you will often find that MPI is actually more efficient and/or easier to obtain in a non-commercial compiler setting than OpenMP. Fortunately, it is straightforward to write parallelizable applications with OpenLB if a few basic concepts are respected. As a matter of fact, all example programs in the OpenLB distribution can be compiled with MPI and executed in parallel.

To achieve parallelism with programs that have the look and feel of serial applications, OpenLB distinguishes two classes of data. Data which is spatially distributed, such as the lattice and scalar- or vector-valued data fields, is handled through a data-parallel paradigm. The data space is partitioned into smaller regions that are distributed over the nodes of a parallel machine. In the following, these types of structures are referred to as data-parallel structures. Other data types that require a small amount of storage space are duplicated on every node. These are referred to as duplicated data. All native C++ data types are automatically duplicated by virtue of the Single-Program-Multiple-Data model of MPI. These types should be used to handle scalar values, such as the parameters of the simulation, or integral values over the solution (e.g. the average energy).

For output on the console it is strongly recommended to use OpenLB's `OstreamManager` since it can help reducing output in case of parallel execution (cf Chapter 7.5).

10.1 Data-Parallel Structures

Obtaining data-parallelism in OpenLB is as easy as using the `MultiBlockLatticeXD` instead of a `BlockLatticeXD`, a `MultiScalarFieldXD` instead of a `ScalarFieldXD`, and a `MultiVectorFieldXD` instead of a `VectorFieldXD`. In most common situations, only the case of the `BlockLatticeXD` actually needs to be treated explicitly, and this is handled in a single line of code, as it is shown in Lesson 10 (Section 2.11). Scalar- and vector-valued fields are usually generated automatically, as in the following expression:

```
// This yields an object of type ScalarFieldXD in serial,  
//   and an object of type MultiScalarFieldXD in parallel  
lattice.getDataAnalysis().getVelocity();
```

The difference between the serial and the parallel case is handled transparently by addressing the data fields through the virtual base `ScalarFieldBaseXD` and `VectorFieldBaseXD`, which is the same for the serial and the parallel data type:

```
// The following instruction works for in serial as well as  
2 //   in parallel, because ScalarFieldBase2D is an abstract  
//   base to both ScalarField2D and MultiScalarField2D  
ScalarFieldBase2D<T,Lattice> const& velocity  
  = lattice.getDataAnalysis().getVelocity();
```

The most important rule to respect when handling data-parallel types in application programs is to never implement explicit loops over space dimensions. Although the resulting code does yield the expected result, it is likely to run very slowly. The reason for this is that the loops cannot be parallelized, and the code therefore runs at the speed of a single processor, or even slower because of the implied MPI communications. An example is given in Section 7, where it is shown how to use predefined functions for I/O operations on data-parallel structures, instead of explicit space loops.

10.2 Duplicated Data Types

The rule for duplicated data types is simple: all data types except for the data-parallel ones mentioned in the previous section are duplicated. The three following rules need to be respected to ensure that the value from some input is properly duplicated over processors:

1. The call to `olbInit` at the beginning of a program ensures distribution of input from the command-line.

2. The use of `cin` ensures distribution of input from the terminal.
3. The use of `olb_ifstream` instead of `fstream` ensures distribution of input from a data file.

11 The Example Programs

All the demo codes can be compiled with or without MPI, with or without OpenMP, and executed in serial or parallel.

11.1 aorta3d

In this example, the fluid flow through a bifurcation is simulated. The geometry is obtained from a mesh in STL-format. With Bouzidi boundary conditions, the curved boundary is adequately mapped and initialized entirely automatically. A Smagorinsky turbulent BGK model is used for the dynamics to stabilize the simulation for low resolutions. The output is the flux computed at the inflow and outflow region. The results have been validated through comparison with other results obtained with FEM and FVM.

11.2 bifurcation3d

The bifurcation3d example simulates particulate flow through an exemplary bifurcation of the human bronchial system. The geometry is a splitting pipe, with one inflow and two outflows. The fluid is transporting micrometer scale particles and the escape and capture rate is computed. There exist two implemetations of the problem. The first one is a Euler–Euler ansatz, meaning that the fluid phase as well as the particle phase are modelled as continua. The second is an Euler–Lagrange ansatz, where the particles are modelled as discrete objects.

11.2.1 Euler – Euler

In this example the particles are viewed as a continuum and described by a advection–diffusion equation. This is done similar to the example `thermal3d` where the temperature is the considered quantity. For particles however, inertia has to be taken into account. This is achieved by applying the Stokes drag force to the velocity field. Since for this computations also the velocity of the previous time step is required, the new

descriptor `particleAdvectionDiffusionD3Q7Descriptor` has to be used, that is capable of saving 2 velocity fields. Besides an extra lattice for the advection–diffusion equation, a `SuperExternal3D` structure is required to manage the communication for parallel execution.

```

SuperExternal3D<T, ADDESCRIPTOR> sExternal(
    superGeometry,
    sLatticeAD,
    ADDESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::velocityBeginsAt,
5    ADDESCRIPTOR<T>::ExternalField::numScalars,
    sLatticeAD.getOverlap());

    ...

10 sExternal.communicate();

```

The function `communicate()` is called in the time loop and handles the communication analogue to the lattices.

Furthermore the new dynamics object `ParticleAdvectionDiffusionBGKdynamics` is required to access the saved velocity fields correctly and use them in an efficient way. For information on the coupling of the lattices we refer to the section on the advection–diffusion equation for particle flow problems 5.8.1. In this example only the Stokes drag is applied by

```

advDiffDragForce3D<T, NSDESCRIPTOR> dragForce( converter, radius,
    partRho );

```

For the simulation of particles as a continuum, also new boundary conditions are required. Here `addZeroDistributionBoundary` represents an unidirectional outflow condition, that removes particle concentrations that cross a boundary. For the usual outflow at the bottom of the bifurcation a new `ConvectionBoundary` for advection–diffusion lattices can be applied, that approximates a Neumann boundary condition, for further reference see [36]. Since non-local computations (gradient is required) are performed on the the external field, also a Neumann boundary condition is required that is here implemented as `addExtFieldBoundary`.

11.2.2 Euler – Lagrange

The main task of his example is to show the using of Lagrangian particles with OpenLB. As already described in chapter 6, similar to the `BlockLattice` and `SuperLattice` structure a `ParticleSystem` and `SuperParticleSystem` structure exists. Besides the particles the examples use the save feature of the `SuperLattice`. By

```
sLattice.save("fluidSolution")
```

and

```
sLattice.load("fluidSolution")
```

the current state of the SuperLattice can be saved and loaded again. Using this feature the startup phase for the fluid has to be computed only once.

11.3 bstep2d and bstep3d

This example implements a backward facing step. Furthermore, it is shown how checkpointing is used to regularly save the state of the simulation.

11.4 cavity2d and cavity3d

This example illustrates a flow in a cuboid, lid-driven cavity. The 2D version also shows how to use the XML parameter files and has an example description file for OpenMPI. This example is available in two different versions for sequential and parallel use.

11.5 cylinder2d and cylinder3d

This example examines a steady flow past a cylinder placed in a channel. The cylinder is offset somewhat from the center of the flow to make the steady-state symmetrical flow unstable. At the inlet, a Poiseuille profile is imposed on the velocity, whereas the outlet implements a Dirichlet pressure condition set by $p = 0$, inspired by [37]. For high resolution, low latticeU, and enough time to converge, the results for pressure drop, drag and lift lie within the estimated intervals for the exact results. An unsteady flow with Karman vortex street can be created by changing the Reynolds number to $Re=100$. The 3D version also shows the usage of the STL-reader. The model was created using the open source CAD tool FreeCAD [5].

11.6 power law

This example describe a steady non-Newtonian flow in a channel. At the inlet, a Poiseuille profile is imposed on the velocity, whereas the outlet implements a Dirichlet pressure condition set by $p = 0$.

11.7 multiComponent2d and multiComponent3d

This example demonstrates Rayleigh-Taylor instability in 2D and 3D, generated by a heavy fluid penetrating a light one. The multi-component fluid model by X. Shan and H. Chen is used [32]. These examples show the usage of multicomponent flow and periodic boundaries.

11.8 nozzle3d

On the one hand this example describes building a cylindrical 3d geometry in OpenLB, on the other hand it examines turbulent flow in a nozzle injection tube using different turbulence models and Reynolds numbers.

For characterization different physical parameters have to be set. Resolution N defines lots of physical parameters such as the velocity $charU$, the kinematic viscosity ν and two characteristic lengths $charL$ and $latticeL$. Physical length $charL$ is used to characterize the geometry and the Reynolds number. Lattice length $latticeL$ defines the mesh size and is calculated as $latticeL = charL/N$. More information about the parameter definitions are in the file `units.h`.

Table 11.1: This table shows the preset simulation parameters.

parameter	value
$charL$	$1m$
$latticeL$	$\frac{1}{3}m$
$charU$	$1\frac{m}{s}$
ν	$0.00002\frac{m}{s}$
Re_{inlet}	5000
turbulence model	Smagorinsky

Figure 11.1 illustrates the geometry and the nozzle's size as a function of the characteristic length $charL$. The nozzle consists of two circular cylinders. The inflow (red) is located left in the inletCylinder. The outflow (green) is at the right end of the injectionTube. At the main inlet, either a block profile or a power 1/7 profile is imposed as a Dirichlet velocity boundary condition, whereas at the outlet a Dirichlet pressure condition is set by $p = 0$ (i.e. $rho = 1$).

Two vectors, `origin` and `extend`, describe the centre and normal direction of the cylinder's circular start (`origin`) and end (`extend`) plane. The radius is defined in the function.

As mentioned before, this example examines the turbulence. The flow behavior in the inlet is characterized by the Reynolds number. The following turbulence models are

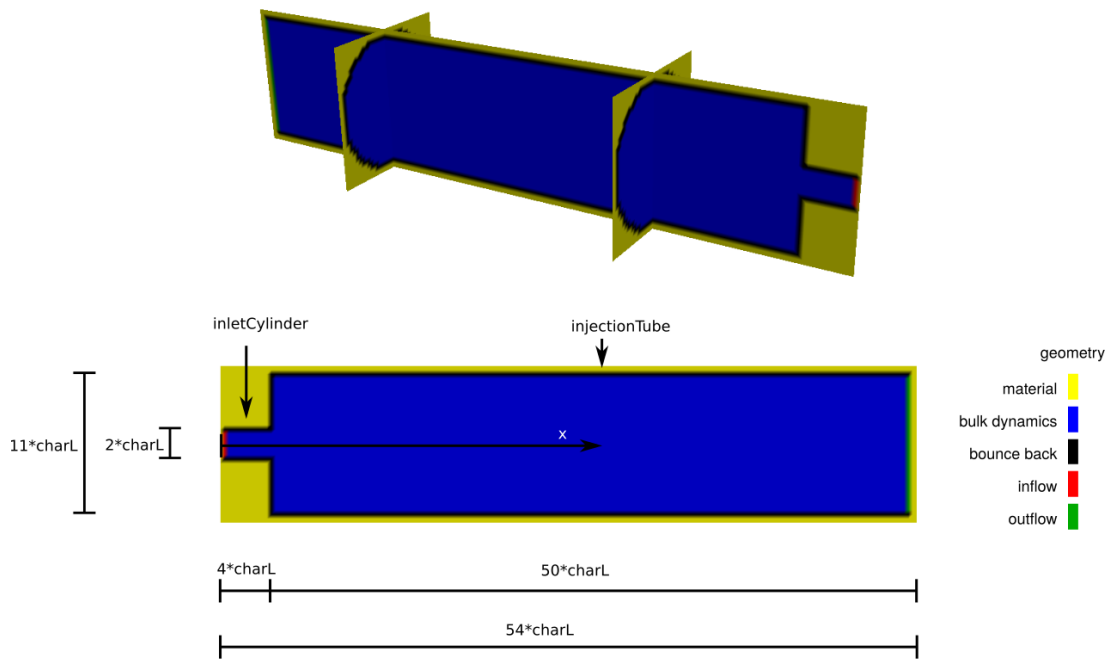


Figure 11.1: Cross section of a 3d geometry of nozzle3d in dependency of characteristic length $charL$.

based on large eddy simulation (LES). The idea behind LES is to simulate only eddies larger than a certain grid filter length, while smaller eddies are modeled. Different models are currently implemented.

- The **Smagorinsky model** reduces the turbulence to a so called eddy viscosity. This viscosity depends on the Smagorinsky Constant, which has to be defined. This model has certain disadvantages at the wall.
- The **Shear-improved Smagorinsky model (SISM)** is based on the Smagorinsky model. Compared to the original model, the SISM works at the wall very well. A model specific constant has to be defined, too.

The following code shows the model selection. A model is selected, when the correlate line is uncommented. Below the model specific constants are defined. In this case the Smagorinsky Model is selected. Smagorinsky Constant is equal to 0.15.

```

/// Choose your turbulent model of choice

#define Smagorinsky

```

5 ...

```
#elif defined(Smagorinsky)
bulkDynamics = new SmagorinskyBGKdynamics<T, DESCRIPTOR>(converter.
    getOmega(), instances::getBulkMomenta<T, DESCRIPTOR>(),
    0.04, converter.getLatticeL(), converter.physTime());
```

As an example, Figure 11.2 shows the results with preset parameters.

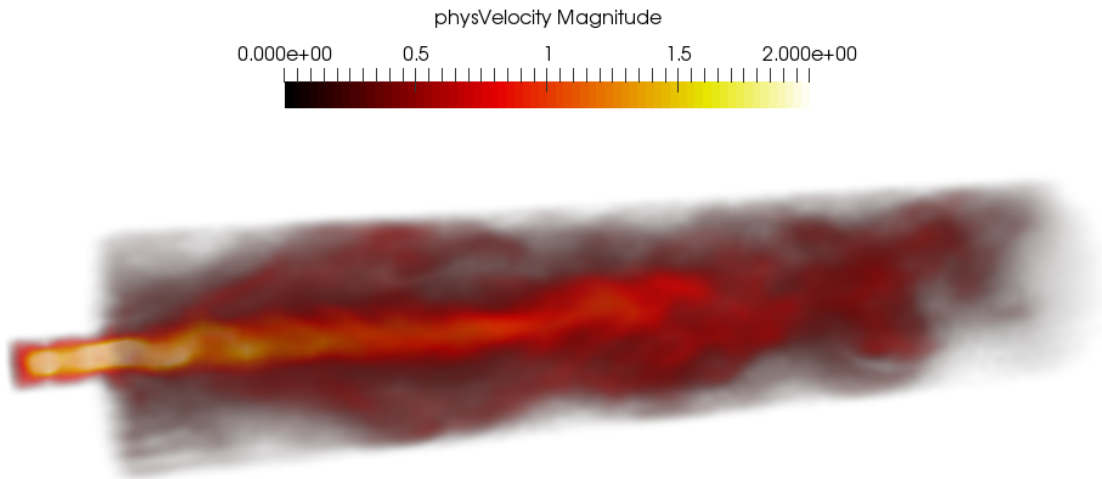


Figure 11.2: Physical velocity field after 200 seconds with preset parameters (Smagorinsky Model, $C_S = 0.15$, $latticeL = \frac{1}{3}m$, $Re_{inlet} = 5000$).

The simulations strongly depends on the constant's value, used in the turbulence model. But, the constant is not a general calculable value and valid for one model. It could be a function of the Reynolds number and/or another dimensionless parameter. Thus, Engineering background knowledge and experience are demanded to find physical useful values.

Generally, if the constant's value is chosen to small, the simulation will be unphysical. If the value is to big, the turbulence will straighten turbulence.

11.9 phaseSeparation2d and phaseSeparation3d

In these examples the simulation is initialized with a given density plus small, random variation over the domain. This condition is unstable and leads to liquid-vapor phase

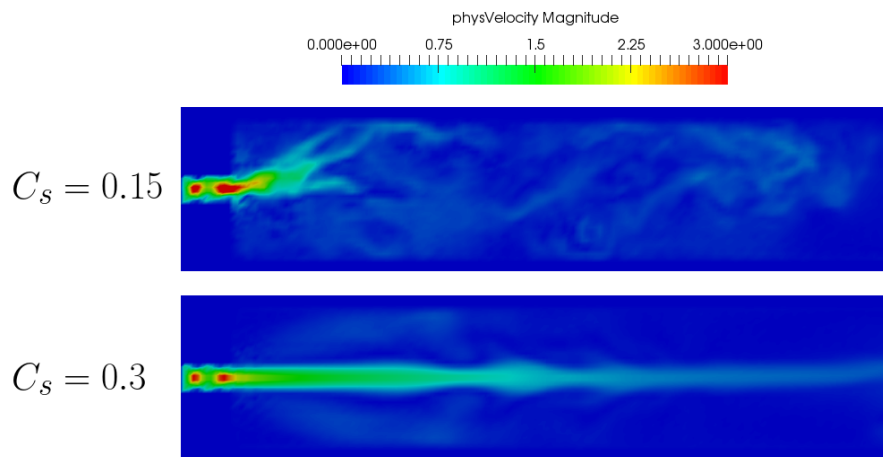


Figure 11.3: Increasing Smagorinsky Constant straightens turbulence.

separation. Boundaries are assumed to be periodic. These examples show the usage of multiphase flow.

11.10 poiseuille2d

This example examines a 2D Poiseuille flow. Computation of error norms via functors is also shown. `bgkPoiseuille2d` and `mrtPoiseuille2d` use a velocity or pressure boundary at the inlet/outlet. In `forcedPoiseuille2d` the boundaries are periodic between the inlet and outlet. As the flow is driven by a body force, it illustrates both the use of a body force and periodic boundaries. In addition to different flavors of BGK [16] and the regularized LB model [27], OpenLB offers implementations of entropic and multiple-relaxation-time (MRT) models. `mrtPoiseuille2d` illustrates the use of MRT. An example program for the entropic model is not yet available.

11.11 tgv3d

The Taylor-Green-Vortex (TGV) is one of the simplest configuration, where you can investigate the generation of small structures and the resulting turbulence. The 2π periodic box domain and the single mode initial conditions contribute to the simplicity. In consequence, the TGV is a common benchmark case for Direct Numerical Simulations (DNS) and Large Eddy Simulations (LES). This example shows the usage and the

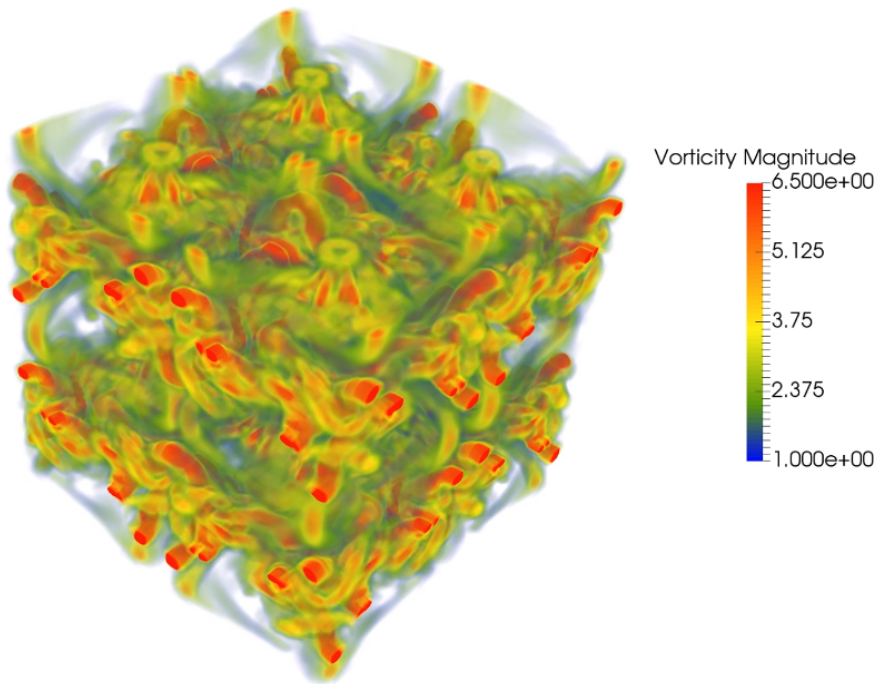


Figure 11.4: Taylor-Green-Vortex vorticity plot by $t = 12 s$

effects of different subgrid scale turbulence models. The molecular dissipation rate, the eddy dissipation rate and the effective dissipation rate are calculated and plotted over the simulation time. This results can be compared with a published DNS solution by Brachet et al. [12].

11.12 thermal2d and thermal3d

This example demonstrates Rayleigh-Bénard convection rolls in 2D and 3D, simulated with the thermal LB model by Guo et al. [22], between a hot plate at the bottom and a cold plate at the top.

11.13 venturi3d

This example examines a steady flow in a venturi tube. A Venturi tube is a cylindrical tube, which has a reduced cross-section in the middle part. At this constriction is an injection tube. As a result of the accelerating fluid in the constriction, the static pressure

decreases and the injection tube's fluid is pumped in the main tube.

The overall geometry is built with adding together single bodies. Each body's geometry is defined by certain points (position vectors) in the coordinate system and their radius. A cone-shaped cylinder needs the centre of the start and end circle as well as the radii. Following code builds the geometry and shows the semantics.

```
/// Definition of the geometry of the venturi

//Definition of the cross-sections' centers
Vector<T,3> C0(0,50,50);
5 Vector<T,3> C1(5,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C2(40,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C3(80,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C4(120,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C5(160,50,50);
10 Vector<T,3> C6(195,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C7(200,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C8(190,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C9(115,50,50);
Vector<T,3> C10(115,25,50);
15 Vector<T,3> C11(115,5,50);
Vector<T,3> C12(115,3,50);
Vector<T,3> C13(115,7,50);

//Definition of the radii
20 T radius1 = 10 ; // radius of the tightest part
T radius2 = 20 ; // radius of the widest part
T radius3 = 4 ; // radius of the small exit

//Building the cylinders and cones
25 IndicatorCylinder3D<T> inflow(C0, C1, radius2);
IndicatorCylinder3D<T> cyl1(C1, C2, radius2);
IndicatorCone3D<T> co1(C2, C3, radius2, radius1);
IndicatorCylinder3D<T> cyl2(C3, C4, radius1);
IndicatorCone3D<T> co2(C4, C5, radius1, radius2);
30 IndicatorCylinder3D<T> cyl3(C5, C6, radius2);
IndicatorCylinder3D<T> outflow0(C7, C8, radius2);
IndicatorCylinder3D<T> cyl4(C9, C10, radius3);
IndicatorCone3D<T> co3(C10, C11, radius3, radius1);
IndicatorCylinder3D<T> outflow1(C12, C13, radius1);
35

//Addition of the cylinders to overall geometry
IndicatorIdentity3D<T> venturi(cyl1 + cyl2 + cyl3 + cyl4 + co1 + co2
+ co3);
```

Following figure visualizes the defined point's position.

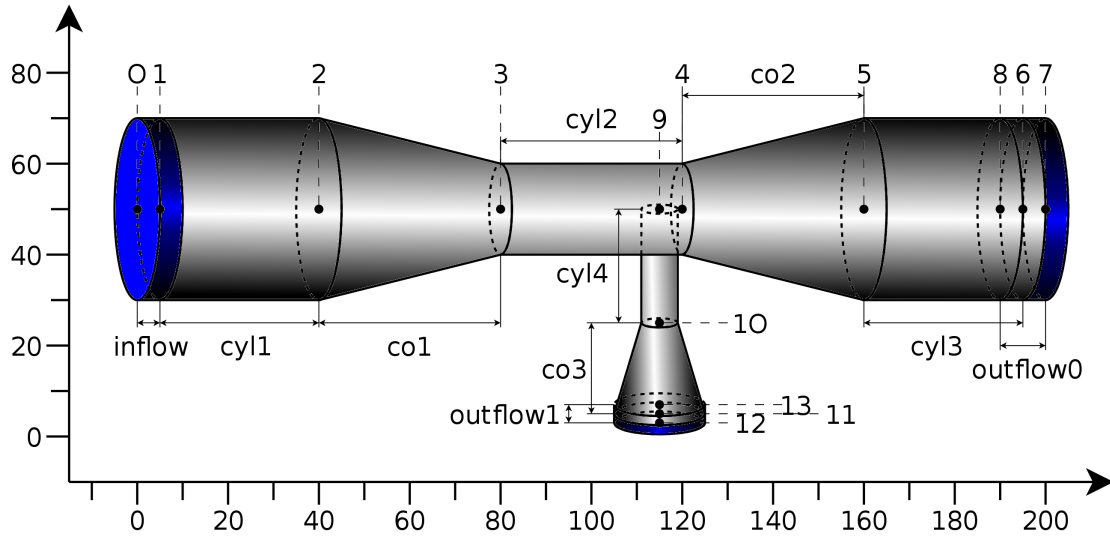


Figure 11.5: Schematic diagram visualizing the defined points position.

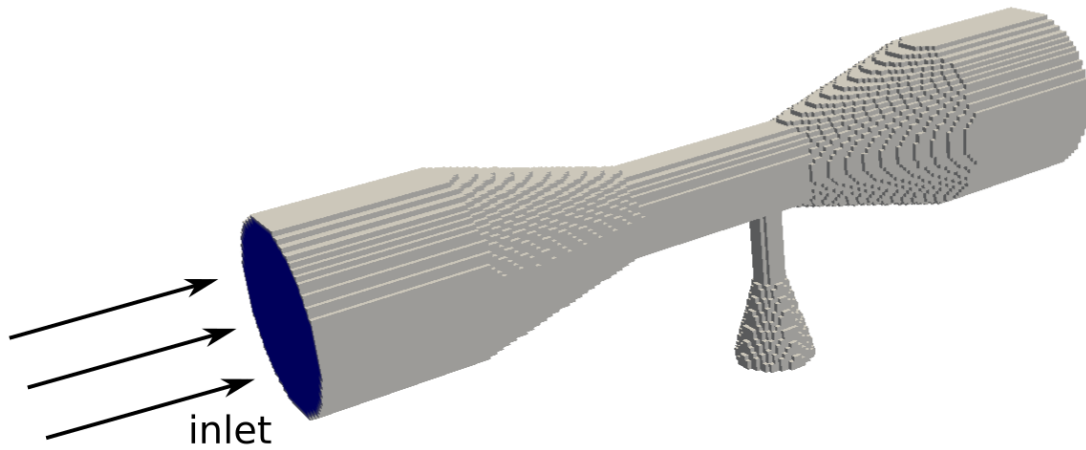


Figure 11.6: Built geometry as used in simulation.

At the main inlet, a Poiseuille profile is imposed as a Dirichlet velocity boundary condition, whereas at the outlet and the minor inlet, a Dirichlet pressure condition is set by $p = 0$ (i.e. $\rho = 1$).

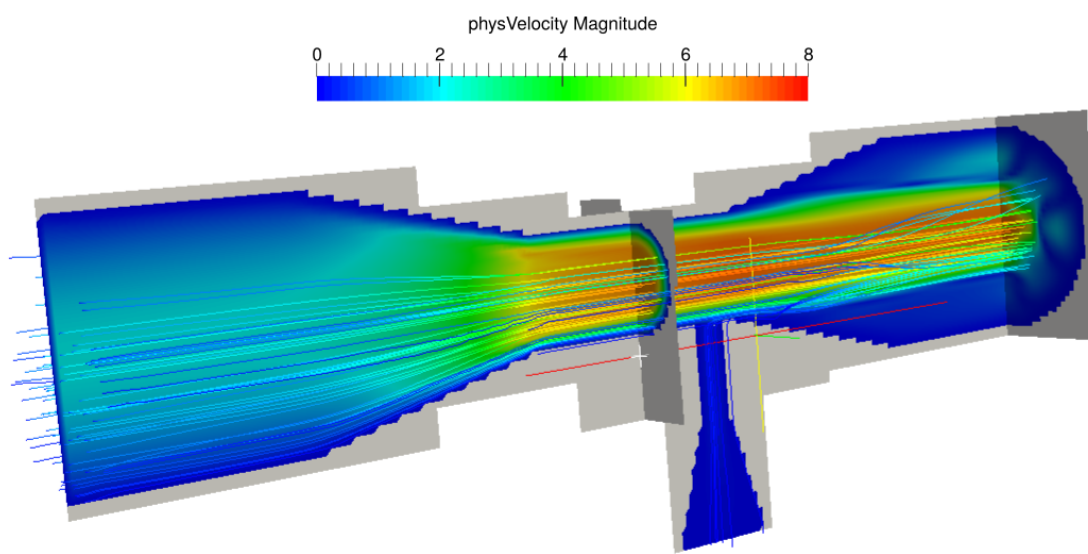


Figure 11.7: Simulation after 200 simulated time steps.

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