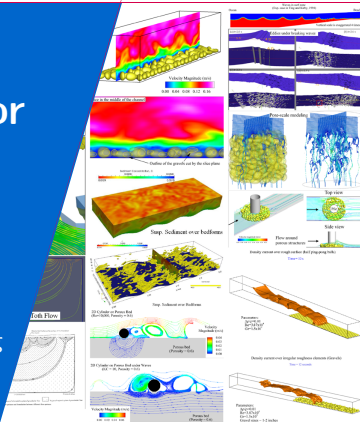


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Review

- Basics

- Review of tensor notations

General equations

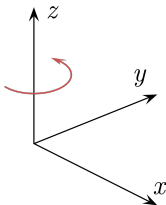
- Governing equations

B.C. and I.C.

Summary

Review of tensor notations (also see Chapter 1 of “OpenFOAM programmer’s guide”).

- ▶ OpenFOAM[®] uses a right handed cartesian coordinate system



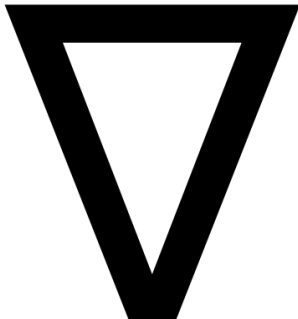
- ▶ Tensors with different ranks: represent a property at a point
 - Scalars in lowercase: a (rank 0)
 - Vectors in bold: $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$, or \vec{a} (rank 1)
 - Tensors in bold capitals: $\mathbf{T} = T_{ij}$, or \vec{T} (rank 2)

$$\mathbf{T} = T_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Review of tensor notations (also see Chapter 1 of “OpenFOAM programmer’s guide”).

- ▶ *nabla* vector operator ∇

$$\nabla \equiv \partial_i \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \equiv \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} \right) \quad (2)$$



- ▶ Summation convention (Einstein notation):

$$a_i b_i = \sum_{i=1}^3 = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial u_3}{\partial x_3} \quad (4)$$

- ▶ Inner and outer product of vectors and tensors.

- Scalar product: $\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b} = a_i b_i$
- Inner vector product, producing a scalar: $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_i b_i$
- Outer vector product, producing a second rank tensor: $\mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}^T$
- Inner product of a vector and a tensor
 - product from the left: $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{T} = a_i T_{ij}$
 - product from the right: $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{a} = a_j T_{ij}$

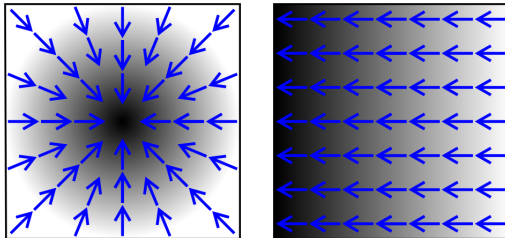
- Gradient of s

$$\nabla s = \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial s}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial s}{\partial x_3} \right) \quad (5)$$

∇ can operate on any tensor field to produce a tensor field one rank higher.

$$s \text{ is a scalar} \quad -> \quad \nabla s \text{ is a vector} \quad (6)$$

$$\mathbf{s} \text{ is a vector} \quad -> \quad \nabla \mathbf{s} \text{ is a second order tensor} \quad (7)$$



Source: wikipedia

- Divergence of \mathbf{a}

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{a} = \frac{\partial a_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial a_2}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial a_3}{\partial x_3} \quad (8)$$

Divergence can operate on any tensor field (rank 1 and above) to produce a tensor field one rank lower.

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{T} = \partial_i T_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial T_{11}}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial T_{12}}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial T_{13}}{\partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial T_{21}}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial T_{22}}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial T_{23}}{\partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial T_{31}}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial T_{32}}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial T_{33}}{\partial x_3} \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

- Curl of a vector field \mathbf{a} (related to vorticity)

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \mathbf{a} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial a_3}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial a_2}{\partial x_3}, \frac{\partial a_1}{\partial x_3} - \frac{\partial a_3}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial a_2}{\partial x_1} - \frac{\partial a_1}{\partial x_2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

- ▶ Laplacian: related to diffusion; transform a tensor field into another tensor field of the same rank

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{a} = \nabla \cdot \nabla \mathbf{a} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{a}}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{a}}{\partial x_2^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{a}}{\partial x_3^2} \quad (11)$$

It is observed that the Laplacian operator is equivalent to "the divergence of the gradient field".

- ▶ Temporal derivative: change with time

$$\text{total or material time derivative: } \frac{D\phi}{Dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta\phi}{\Delta t} \quad (12)$$

$$\text{spatial time derivative: } \frac{D\phi}{Dt} = \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla\phi \quad (13)$$

where \mathbf{u} is the advection (convection) velocity which carries the property ϕ .

- ▶ The governing equations represent mathematical statements of the following conservation laws of physics:
 - Conservation of mass.
 - Newton's second law: the change of momentum equals the sum of forces on a fluid particle.
 - First law of thermodynamics (conservation of energy): rate of change of energy equals the sum of rate of heat addition to and work done on fluid particle.
- ▶ The fluid is treated as a continuum: ignore the molecular structure

Conservation of mass (continuity)

- Rate of increase of mass in a C.V. = net rate of mass flow into the C.V.
(C.V. denotes control volume)

Unsteady, 3D:

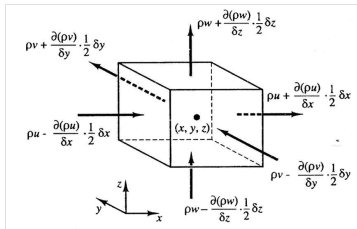
$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(\rho u)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho v)}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial(\rho w)}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (14)$$

or

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0 \quad (15)$$

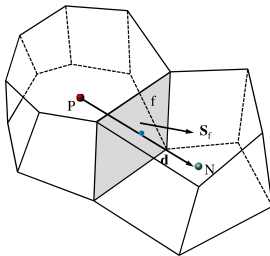
If incompressible, then $\rho = \text{const}$, then

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (16)$$



More generally, we should use Reynolds Transport Theorem (RTT):

- ▶ Reynolds transport theorem is also known as the Leibniz-Reynolds' transport theorem.
- ▶ It is a 3D generalization of the Leibniz integral rule which is also known as differentiation under the integral sign.
- ▶ It can be used to assemble the standard transport equation for a generic property ϕ .



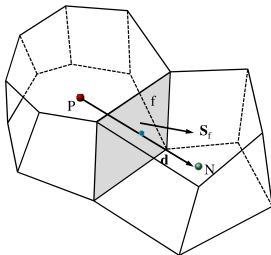
More generally, we should use Reynolds Transport Theorem (RTT):

- For an arbitrarily shaped control volume

The rate of change of a general property ϕ in the system is equal to the rate of change of ϕ in the control volume plus the rate of net outflow of ϕ through the surface of the control volume.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_m} \phi dV = \int_{V_m} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} dV + \oint_{S_m} \phi (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{u}) dS$$

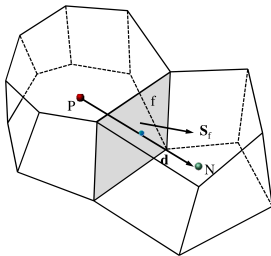
$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \phi dV = \int_V \left[\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\phi \mathbf{u}) \right] dV$$



- ▶ Transformation from the surface integral into the volume integral used above is called the Gauss' Theorem

$$\oint_{S_m} \phi(\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{u}) dS = \int_V [\nabla \cdot (\phi \mathbf{u})] dV$$

- ▶ \mathbf{u} in the equation above represents the **convective velocity**: flux going in is negative ($\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} < 0$).
- ▶ \mathbf{u} is also a function of space and time.



The generic equations in the previous two slides are integral forms. We can also write them in differential forms.

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\phi \mathbf{u}) \quad (17)$$

where $\frac{d}{dt}$ is equivalent to $\frac{D}{Dt}$ (material differentiation).

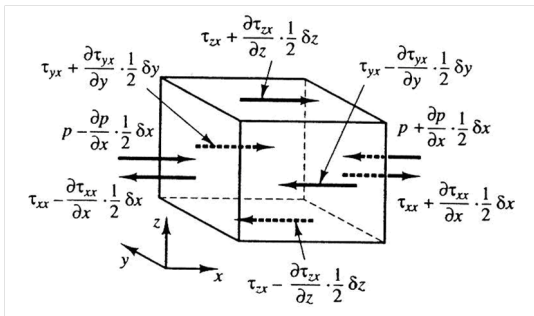
continuity	$\phi = \rho$	$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = \frac{\partial\rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u})$
x-momentum	$\phi = \rho u$	$\frac{d\rho u}{dt} = \frac{\partial\rho u}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho u \mathbf{u})$
y-momentum	$\phi = \rho v$	$\frac{d\rho v}{dt} = \frac{\partial\rho v}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho v \mathbf{u})$
z-momentum	$\phi = \rho w$	$\frac{d\rho w}{dt} = \frac{\partial\rho w}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho w \mathbf{u})$
concentration	$\phi = c$	$\frac{dc}{dt} = \frac{\partial c}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (c \mathbf{u})$

Momentum equations

- ▶ Newton's second law:

The rate of change of momentum is equal to the sum of forces

- ▶ Rate of changes of momentum in three directions: $\rho \frac{du}{dt}$, $\rho \frac{dv}{dt}$, and $\rho \frac{dw}{dt}$
- ▶ The forces could be:
 - surface forces: pressure force, viscous force, surface tension force, etc.
 - body forces: gravity force, centrifugal force, coriolis force, electromagnetic force.



Using Newton's second law, momentum equations becomes:

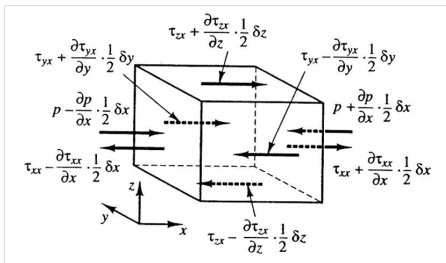
$$\rho \frac{du}{dt} = \frac{\partial(-p + \tau_{xx})}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yx}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zx}}{\partial z} + S_{Mx} \quad (18)$$

$$\rho \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{\partial \tau_{xy}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(-p + \tau_{yy})}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zy}}{\partial z} + S_{My} \quad (19)$$

$$\rho \frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yz}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial(-p + \tau_{zz})}{\partial z} + S_{Mz} \quad (20)$$

where S_{Mx} , S_{My} , and S_{Mz} are momentum sources terms, such as gravity.

Note the negative sign in front of the pressure gradient due to the definition of positive tensile pressure.



The equations can be written in tensor notations:

$$\rho \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbf{S}_M \quad (21)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is the so-called Cauchy stress tensor. $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is a rank two symmetric tensor given by its covariant components:

$$\sigma_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{zx} & \tau_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \quad (22)$$

where the σ are normal stresses and τ shear stresses.

This tensor τ is split up into two terms:

$$\sigma_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{zx} & \tau_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix} = - \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} + p & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} + p & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{zx} & \tau_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} + p \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= -pI + \mathbb{T} \quad (23)$$

where I is the 3×3 identity matrix and \mathbb{T} is the deviatoric stress tensor. Note that the pressure p is equal to minus the mean normal stress

- ▶ Our goal here is to get the governing equations for Newtonian fluid motions, i.e., Navier-Stokes equation.
- ▶ To do that, we need to define the shear stresses, such as τ_{ij} by introducing a suitable rheological model.
- ▶ The simplest model is the linear model for Newtonian fluid: $\tau \propto \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$, or more generally

$$\mathbb{T}_{ij} = \mu \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} + \delta_{ij} \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_k} \right) = \mu \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right) + \delta_{ij} \lambda \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_k} \quad (24)$$

That is, the deviatoric of the deformation rate tensor is identified to the deviatoric of the stress tensor, up to a factor μ .

Definition of viscosities:

- ▶ dynamic viscosity μ : relates stresses to linear deformations
- ▶ second viscosity λ : relate stresses to the volumetric deformation. It only has small effect in practice. For incompressible flows, since $\frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_k} = 0$, λ does not matter.

Plug the Newtonian fluid relationship back to the momentum equations, we can get the Navier-Stokes equations for compressible flows:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0 \quad (25)$$

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} \right) = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot (\mu (\nabla \mathbf{u} + (\nabla \mathbf{u})^T)) + \rho \mathbf{g} \quad (26)$$

Similarly, we can get the Navier-Stokes equations for incompressible flows:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad (27)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = -\nabla p + \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{g} \quad (28)$$

where $\nu = \mu/\rho$ is the kinematic viscosity. Note the definition of the pressure p here is a little different from the one for compressible flows, i.e., it has been divided by the density ρ .

General Transport Equation

- ▶ General transport equation serves as our model equation for discretisation.
- ▶ Model equation may be more complex or with some source/sink terms. This leads to other forms, but the basics are still the same
- ▶ The common factor for all equations under consideration is the same set of operators: temporal derivative, gradient, divergence, Laplacian, curl, as well as various source and sink terms

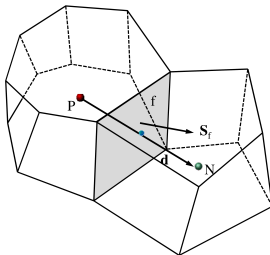
$$\underbrace{\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}}_{\text{temporal derivative}} + \underbrace{\nabla \cdot (\phi \mathbf{u})}_{\text{convection term}} - \underbrace{\nabla \cdot (\gamma \nabla \phi)}_{\text{diffusion term}} = \underbrace{S_\phi}_{\text{source term}}$$

Volume and Surface sources (sinks)

- ▶ Apart from convection and diffusion (above), we can have local sources and sinks of ϕ .
- ▶ Volume source: distributed through the volume
- ▶ Surface source: act on external surface S , e.g. heating. Typically modelled using gradient-based models

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \phi dV = \int_V q_v dV - \oint_S (\mathbf{n} \cdot \vec{q}_s) dS$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\phi \mathbf{u}) = q_v - \nabla \cdot \vec{q}_s$$

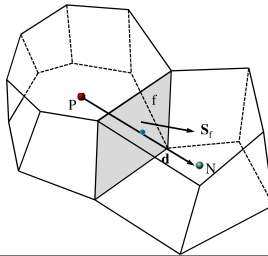


Modelling Diffusive Transport

- ▶ Gradient-based transport is a model for surface source/sink terms
- ▶ Consider a case where ϕ is a concentration of a scalar variable and a closed domain. Diffusion transport says that ϕ will be transported from regions of high concentration to regions of low concentration until the concentration is uniform everywhere.
- ▶ Taking into account that $\nabla\phi$ point up the concentration slope, and the transport will be in the opposite direction, we can define the following diffusion model

$$\vec{q}_s = -\gamma \nabla\phi$$

where γ is the diffusivity



Generic Transport

- ▶ Assembling the above yields the transport equation in the standard form

$$\underbrace{\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}}_{\text{temporal derivative}} + \underbrace{\nabla \cdot (\phi \mathbf{u})}_{\text{convection term}} - \underbrace{\nabla \cdot (\gamma \nabla \phi)}_{\text{diffusion term}} = \underbrace{S_\phi}_{\text{source term}}$$

- ▶ Temporal derivative represents inertia of the system
- ▶ Convection term represents the convective transport by the prescribed velocity field (coordinate transformation). The term has got **hyperbolic** nature: information comes from the vicinity, defined by the direction of the convection velocity
- ▶ Diffusion term represents gradient transport. This is an **elliptic** term: every point in the domain feels the influence of every other point instantaneously
- ▶ Sources and sinks account for non-transport effects: local volume production and destruction of ϕ

- ▶ Elliptic: solutions are smooth. For example, steady heat equation and Laplace's equation. The motion of a fluid at subsonic speeds can be approximated with elliptic PDEs.
- ▶ Parabolic: For example, unsteady heat equation.
- ▶ Hyperbolic: retain or develop discontinuities in the solution. An example is the wave equation. The motion of a fluid at supersonic speeds can be approximated with hyperbolic PDEs, such as shallow water equations.

Problem type	Equation type	Prototype equation	Conditions	Solution domain	Solution smoothness
Equilibrium problem	Elliptic	$\nabla \cdot \nabla \phi = 0$	B.C.	Closed domain	Smooth
Marching problem with dissipation	Parabolic	$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \nu \nabla \cdot \nabla \phi$	I.C. and B.C.	Open domain	Smooth
Marching problem without dissipation	Hyperbolic	$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \nabla \cdot \nabla \phi$	I.C. and B.C.	Open domain	May be discontinuous

- ▶ More generally, a second-order PDE (in 2D):

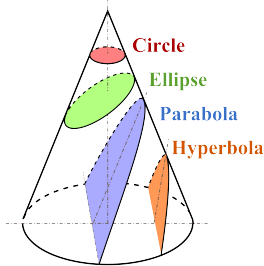
$$a \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + b \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} + c \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + d \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + e \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + f \phi + g = 0 \quad (29)$$

- ▶ Classification depends on the roots of the characteristics equation, i.e. depending on the discriminant $b^2 - 4ac$:
 - $b^2 - 4ac < 0$: elliptic
 - $b^2 - 4ac = 0$: parabolic
 - $b^2 - 4ac > 0$: hyperbolic
- ▶ if a , b and c depends on x and y , then the equations are termed quasilinear. The equation might exhibit different types depending on the location (mixed type).

- ▶ The origin of the terms “elliptic”, “parabolic”, and “hyperbolic” is an analogy to the case of conic sections
- ▶ The general equation for a conic section from geometry

$$ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f = 0 \quad (30)$$

- ▶ Classification depends on the roots of the characteristics equation, i.e. depending on the discriminant $b^2 - 4ac$:
 - $b^2 - 4ac < 0$: the conic is an ellipse
 - $b^2 - 4ac = 0$: the conic is a parabola
 - $b^2 - 4ac > 0$: the conic is a hyperbola



Source: wikipedia.org

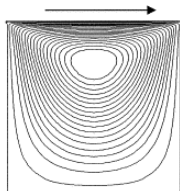
Elliptic equations

- ▶ Many times, they are for equilibrium problems at steady state (no $\partial/\partial t$ term)
- ▶ Examples: steady potential flow, steady state temperature distribution.
- ▶ In fluid mechanics, a special case which demonstrates the elliptic equations is the potential flow equation. Define the velocity potential ϕ as $\mathbf{u} = \nabla\phi$. Since for incompressible flow, we have $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$, plugging in the definition, we have

$$\nabla^2\phi = 0 \quad (31)$$

which is also called the Laplace's equation.

- ▶ Only B.C. is needed. It is a boundary value problem.
- ▶ Important characteristics: disturbance travels in all direction and at infinite speed; as a result, solutions are smooth.

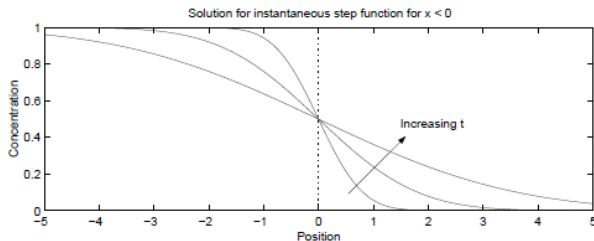


Parabolic equations

- ▶ Unsteady problems with dissipation (or diffusion).
- ▶ Examples: unsteady potential flow, unsteady temperature distribution.
- ▶ Model equation:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \nu \nabla^2 \phi \quad (32)$$

- ▶ Both B.C. and I.C. are needed. It is a initial-boundary-value problem.
- ▶ Important characteristics: disturbance only affects the solution at a later time; dissipation (diffusion) smooth out the solution.

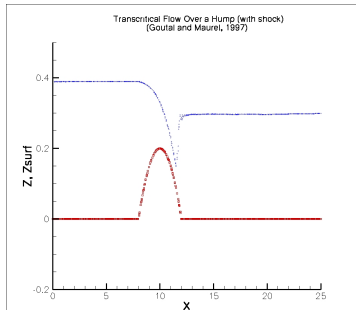


Hyperbolic equations

- ▶ Hyperbolic equations are for unsteady problem with negligible dissipation (diffusion)
- ▶ Examples: shallow water equation; wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \nabla^2 \phi \quad (33)$$

- ▶ Both B.C. and I.C. are needed. It is an initial-boundary-value problem.
- ▶ Important characteristics: could have discontinuity in the solution (shocks and bores); disturbance travels at wave speed c .



Role of boundary conditions

- ▶ The role of boundary conditions is to nail down the solutions. Without them, the possible solutions will be infinity.
- ▶ Position of boundaries and specified condition requires engineering judgement. Badly placed boundaries will compromise the solution or cause “numerical problems”. Example: locating an outlet boundary across a recirculation zone.
- ▶ Choices need to be based on physical understanding of the system

Numerical boundary conditions

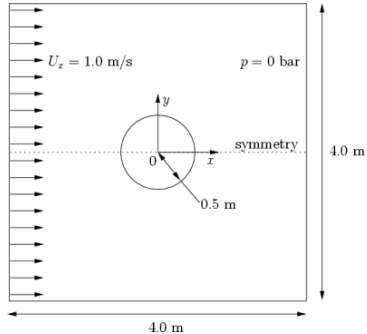
- ▶ Dirichlet condition: fixed boundary value of ϕ
- ▶ Neumann: zero gradient or no flux condition: $\mathbf{n} \cdot \vec{q}_s = 0$
- ▶ Fixed gradient or fixed flux condition: $\mathbf{n} \cdot \vec{q}_s = q_b$. Generalisation of the Neumann condition, where

$$\vec{q}_s = -\gamma \nabla \phi$$

- ▶ Mixed condition: Linear combination of the value and gradient condition

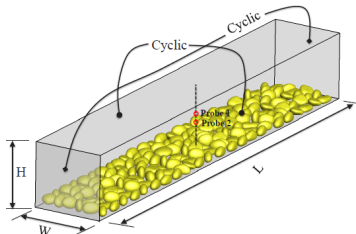
Numerical boundary conditions

- ▶ Symmetry plane: $\mathbf{n} \cdot \nabla \phi = 0$



Numerical boundary conditions

- ▶ Cyclic (periodic) conditions $\phi_1 = \phi_2$. In cases of repeating geometry or fully developed conditions, the size of domain can be reduced by modelling only a representative segment of the geometry.
- ▶ In order to account for periodicity, a “self-coupled” condition can be set up on the boundary.
- ▶ In special cases, a jump condition can be specified for variables that do not exhibit cyclic behaviour. Example: pressure in fully developed channel flow
- ▶ Be careful with the size of the domain: e.g., in LES, the size will limit the size of eddies.



Physical boundary conditions:

- ▶ For a passive transport of a scalar variable, physical meaning of the boundary condition is trivial.
- ▶ In case of coupled equation sets or a clear physical meaning, it is useful to associate physically meaningful names to the sets of boundary conditions for individual equations. Examples:
 - stationary wall: no slip condition for velocity $\mathbf{u} = 0$
 - moving wall: *movingWallVelocity*
 - Turbulent inlet: *turbulentInlet*
 - Slip: zeroGradient if ϕ is a scalar. If it is a vector, normal component is fixedValue zero, tangential components are zeroGradient

What happens when the B.C.s are not properly specified (Fletcher, 1991):

- ▶ Under-specification of B.C.s normally leads to failure to obtain a unique solution
- ▶ Over-specification of B.C.s gives rise to flow solutions with severe and unphysical 'boundary layers' close to the boundary where it is specified.

Specifying initial conditions

- ▶ **Initial conditions** specify the variation of each solution variable in space at the beginning.
- ▶ In some cases, this may be irrelevant: for example, steady-state
- ▶ but in other simulations it is essential.

In this chapter, we **briefly** reviewed the following:

- ▶ Tensor notations and calculations
- ▶ Governing equations (PDEs)
 - Conservation laws: mass, momentum, concentration, etc.
 - Classification of PDEs
- ▶ Boundary conditions and initial conditions

Questions?