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This book is a collection of documentation covering software used within the ABI. This includes software developed internally and also other commonly used applications. The version of the book has been customised for a tutorial presented at the EMBC 2013 meeting.

Contents:
CHAPTER 1

The Physiome Model Repository

The documentation found here is mainly aimed towards providing information to users of the Physiome Model Repository. This includes users interested in obtaining and running models from the repository, and those who wish to add models to the repository.

If you wish to deploy an instance of the repository software, PMR Software, please see the buildout repository on GitHub.

1.1 PMR - an introduction

The Physiome Model Repository (PMR (Physiome Model Repository)) site is a web accessible repository of models which includes the CellML and FieldML repositories. (Note: the PMR site is powered by software called the PMR Software. Usually the term PMR will be referring to the PMR site, but if clarification is needed, “PMR site” will be used. It is also sometimes referred to as a “PMR instance”, since it is possible to create other sites running the PMR Software, i.e. other instances.)

PMR relies on the distributed version control system Mercurial (Hg), which allows the repository to maintain a complete history of all changes made to every file contained within repository workspaces. In order to use the Physiome Model Repository, you will need to obtain a Mercurial client for your operating system, and become familiar with the basic functions of Mercurial. There are many excellent resources available on the internet, such as Mercurial, the definitive guide. Mercurial clients may be downloaded from the Mercurial website, which also provides documentation on Mercurial usage. A graphical alternative to a command-line client is available for Windows, called TortoiseHg. This provides a Windows explorer integrated system for working with Mercurial repositories.

1.2 Downloading and viewing models from the Physiome Model Repository

There are several ways of obtaining and using models from the Physiome Model Repository, and which you choose will depend on the way you intend to use the models. If you are simply interested in running a particular model and viewing the output, you can use links found on model exposure pages to get hold of the model files. There links available for a large number of models that will load the model directly into the OpenCell application, allowing you to explore simulation results with the help of a model diagram.

If you intend to use the model for further work, for example saving changes to the model or creating a new model based on an existing model or parts of an existing model, you should use Mercurial to obtain the files. In this way you also obtain the complete revision history of the files, and can add to this history as you make your own changes.
1.2.1 Searching the repository

The Physiome Model Repository has a basic search function that can be accessed by typing search terms into the box at the top right hand side of the page. You can use keywords such as cardiac or insulin, author names, or any other terms relevant to the models you want to find.

![Search box](image)

Figure 1.1: The index page of the model repository provides two methods for finding models. There is a box for entering search terms, or you can click on categories based on model keywords to see all models in those categories.

If your search is yielding too many results, you may either try to narrow it down by choosing more or different keywords (e.g., goldbeter 1991 instead of just goldbeter), or you can click the Advanced Search link just under the search box on the results page. This will take you to a search page where you can select specific item types (e.g., exposures or workspaces), statuses, and other specifics.

Once you have found the model you are interested in, there are several ways you can view or download it.

1.2.2 Viewing models via the repository web interface

The most common use of the Physiome Model Repository web interface is probably to view information about models found on exposure pages, and to then download the models from these pages for simulation in a CellML supporting application.
Figure 1.2: In this search I have chosen to only have published exposures in my results.
Below is an example of a CellML exposure page. It contains documentation about the model(s), a diagram of the what the model(s) represent, and a navigation pane that allows the user to select between available versions of the model. Many models only have one version, but in this case there are two variants.

If you click on one of the model variant navigation links, you will be taken to a sub-page of the exposure which will allow you to view the actual CellML model in a number of ways.

On this page there are a number of options under a Views available panel at the right hand side.

- **Documentation** - displays the model documentation, already visible in the main area of the exposure page.
- **Model Metadata** - displays information such as the citation information, model authorship details, and PMR keywords.
- **Model Curation** - displays the curation stars for the model, also visible at the top right of the page. Future additions to the curation system mean that there will be additional information to be displayed on this page.
- **Mathematics** - displays all the equations in the model in graphical form.
- **Generated code** - shows a page where you can view the model in a number of different languages; C, C_IDA, Fortran 77, MATLAB, and Python. You can copy the generated code directly from this page to paste into your code editor.
- **Cite this model** - this page provides generic information about how to cite models in the repository.
- **Source View** - provides a raw view of the CellML (XML) model code.
- **Simulate using OpenCell** - this link will download the model and open it with OpenCell if you have the software installed. If the model has a session file, this will include an interactive diagram which can be clicked on to display traces of the simulation results.

The OpenCell session that is loaded when clicking on the Simulate using OpenCell link looks something like this:

### 1.2.3 Downloading models via Mercurial

All data in PMR are stored in workspaces and each workspace is a Mercurial repository. The most comprehensive method of downloading content from PMR is to clone the workspace containing the desired data. In this manner you will have a local copy of the entire history of that data, including all provenance data, and the ability to step back through the history of the workspace to a state that may not be available via the download links in the exposure pages discussed above. If you would like to modify the contents of workspace, making use of Mercurial will ensure accurate provenance records are maintained as well as all the other benefits of using a version control system.

As software tools like OpenCOR and MAP evolve, they will be able to hide a lot of the Mercurial details and present the user with a user interface suitable for their specific application areas. Directly using Mercurial is, however, currently the most powerful way to leverage the full capabilities of PMR. Instructions for working with Mercurial can be found in the CellML repository tutorial.

**Todo**

Need to check this section on obtaining models via mercurial.

### 1.3 Working with PMR workspaces

**Section author: David Nickerson**

All models in the Physiome Model Repository exist in workspaces, which are Mercurial repositories that can be used to store any kind of file. Mercurial is a distributed version control system (DVCS).
1.3. Working with PMR workspaces
Figure 1.4: An example of a CellML exposure sub-page.
Figure 1.5: An OpenCell session. Objects such as membrane channels in the diagram can be clicked - this will toggle the graph traces displaying the values for those objects.

1.3. Working with PMR workspaces
In order to create your own workspaces, you will first need to create a repository account by registering at models.physiomeproject.org. Near the top right of the repository page there will be links labelled Log in and Register. Click on the register link, and follow the instructions.

Workspaces in the Physiome Model Repository are permanent once they are created. There is a teaching instance of the model repository which may be used for experimenting with PMR without worrying about creating permanent workspaces that might have errors in them. Users accounts from the main PMR instance will be copied to the teaching instance each time it is recreated, but users may register for an account just on the teaching instance if they prefer. Such accounts will need to be recreated each time the teaching instance is recreated.

Note: The teaching instance of the repository is a mirror of the main repository site found at http://models.physiomeproject.org/, running the latest development version of the PMR Software.

Any changes you make to the contents of the teaching instance are not permanent, and will be overwritten with the contents of the main repository whenever the teaching instance is upgraded to a new PMR Software release. For this reason, you can feel free to experiment and make mistakes when pushing to the teaching instance. Please subscribe to the cellml-discussion mailing list to receive notifications of when the teaching instance will be refreshed.

See the section Migrating content to the main repository for instructions on how to migrate any content from the teaching instance to the main (permanent) Physiome Model Repository.

1.3.1 Creating a new workspace

Once a user is logged into an instance of PMR, they will be presented with a My Workspaces link in the top toolbar, as shown below:

Currently Mercurial is the only available option for the storage method for a new workspace, but this may be expanded to include other storage methods in future. A workspace should be given a meaningful title and a brief description to help locate the workspace using the repository search. Both these fields can be edited later, so don’t worry if you don’t get it perfect the first time.

Clicking the Add button with then create the workspace, which will initially be empty, as shown below:

In the figure above, the URI of the newly created workspace has been highlighted. This is the URI that will be used when operating on the workspace using Mercurial.
1.3. Working with PMR workspaces
1.3.2 Working with collaborators

PMR makes use of Mercurial to manage individual workspaces. Mercurial is a Distributed Version Control System (DVCS), and as such encourages collaborative development of your model, dataset, results, etc. Using Mercurial, each member of the development team is able to have their own clone of the workspace which can be kept synchronized with the other members of the development team, while ensuring that each team member’s contributions are accurately recorded in the workspace history.

Once a PMR workspace has been published, any user of the repository is able to access and clone the workspace, including team members and the anonymous public. Only privileged PMR members are able to make changes to the workspace, including pushing changes into the Mercurial repository. Private PMR workspaces, however, can only be viewed by those PMR members that have been granted access.

PMR provides access controls to manage the ability of PMR members and anonymous users to interact with workspaces. The access control is managed via the Sharing tab for a given workspace, as shown below.

By default, you will initially see the list of repository administrators and curators will have some permissions to access your workspace. Most of these can be turned off if you choose, but is generally not recommended as they will need access in most cases if you need help with your workspace. Using the Sharing tab you are able to search for other PMR members, such as the names of people in your development team. These members would then appear in the list of members and you are able to set their access as required.

Using the Sharing controls there are currently four possible permissions that can be controlled. The Can add and Can edit permissions relate to the object that represents the workspace in the website database and are generally left in the default state. When selected for a given member, the Can view permission allows that member to view the workspace on the website, even if the workspace is private. Similarly, when the Can hg push permission is enabled the selected member is able to push into the workspace - this is the most important permission as enabling this allows members to add, modify, and delete the actual content of the workspace. One benefit of using Mercurial
means that even if one of the privileged members accidentally modifies the workspace in a detrimental manner, you are able to revert the workspace back to the previous state.

When working in a collaborative team you would generally enable the Can hg push and Can view permissions for all team members and only enable the Can add and Can edit permissions for the team members responsible for the workspace presentation in the PMR website.

### 1.3.3 Uploading files to your workspace

The basic process for adding content to a workspace consists of the following steps:

1. **Clone** the workspace to your local machine.
2. Add files to cloned workspace.
3. Commit the files using a Mercurial client.
4. **Push** the workspace back to the repository.

An example demonstrating these steps can be found in this tutorial step: *Populate with content*.

### 1.4 CellML Model Repository tutorial

*Section author: David Nickerson, Randall Britten, Dougal Cowan*

#### 1.4.1 About this tutorial

The CellML model repository is an instance of the Physiome Model Repository (PMR) customised for CellML models. PMR currently relies on the distributed version control system Mercurial (Hg), which allows the repository to maintain a complete history of all changes made to every file it contains. This tutorial demonstrates how to work with the repository using TortoiseHg, which provides a Windows explorer integrated system for working with Mercurial repositories.

**Brief mention of the equivalent command line versions of the TortoiseHg actions will also be mentioned, so that these ideas can also be used without a graphical client, and on Linux and similar systems. These will be denoted by boxes like this.**

This tutorial requires you to have:

- A Mercurial client such as TortoiseHg or Mercurial installed
- The OpenCell CellML modelling environment
- A text editor such as Notepad++ or gedit

#### 1.4.2 PMR concepts

PMR and the CellML model repository use a certain amount of jargon - some is specific to the repository software, and some is related to distributed version control systems (DVCSs). Below are basic explanations of some of these terms as they apply to the repository.

**Workspace** A container (much like a folder or directory on your computer) to hold the files that make up a model, as well as any other files such as documentation or metadata, etc. In practical terms, each workspace is a Mercurial repository.

**Exposure** An exposure is a publicly viewable presentation of a particular revision of a model. An exposure can present one or many files from your workspace, along with documentation and other information about your model.
The Mercurial DVCS has a range of terms that are useful to know, and definitions of these terms can be found in the Mercurial glossary: http://mercurial.selenic.com/wiki/Glossary.

1.4.3 Working with the repository web interface

This part of the tutorial will teach you how to find models in the Physiome Model Repository (http://models.physiomeproject.org), how to view a range of information about those models, and how to download models. The first page in the repository consists of basic navigation, a link to the main model listing, a search box at the top right, and a list of model category links as shown below.

Model listings

Clicking on the main model listing or any of the category listings will take you to a page displaying a list of exposed models in that category. Click on electrophysiology for example, and a list of over 100 exposed models in that category will be displayed, as shown here.

Clicking on an item in the list will take you to the exposure page for that model.

Searching the repository

You can search for the model that you wish to work on by entering a search term in the box at the top right of the page. Many of the models in the repository are named by the first author and publication date of the paper, so a good search query might be something like goldbeter 1991. A list of the results of your search will probably contain both workspaces and exposures - you will need to click on the workspace of the model you wish to work on. Workspaces can be identified because their links are pale blue and have no details line following the clickable link. In the following screenshot, the first two results are workspaces, and the remainder are exposures.

Click on an exposure result to view information about the model and to get links for downloading or simulating the model. Click on workspaces to see the contents of the model workspace and the revision history of the model.
Figure 1.7: A list of models in the electrophysiology category.

Figure 1.8: A search results listing on the Physiome Model Repository site.

1.4. CellML Model Repository tutorial
1.4.4 Working with the repository using Mercurial

This part of the tutorial will teach you how to clone a workspace from the model repository using a Mercurial client, create your own workspace, and then push the cloned workspace into your new workspace in the repository. We will be using a fork of an existing workspace, which provides you with a personal copy of a workspace that you can edit and push changes to.

Registering an account and logging in

First, navigate to the teaching instance of the Physiome Model Repository at http://teaching.physiomeproject.org/.

Note: The teaching instance of the repository is a mirror of the main repository site found at http://models.physiomeproject.org/, running the latest development version of the PMR Software.

Any changes you make to the contents of the teaching instance are not permanent, and will be overwritten with the contents of the main repository whenever the teaching instance is upgraded to a new PMR Software release. For this reason, you can feel free to experiment and make mistakes when pushing to the teaching instance. Please subscribe to the cellml-discussion mailing list to receive notifications of when the teaching instance will be refreshed.

See the section Migrating content to the main repository for instructions on how to migrate any content from the teaching instance to the main (permanent) Physiome Model Repository.

In order to make changes to models in the CellML repository, you must first register for an account. The Log in and Register links can be found near the top right corner of the page. Your account will have the appropriate access privileges so that you can push any changes you have made to a model back into the repository.

Click on the Register link near the top right, and fill in the registration form. Enter your username and desired password. After completing the email validation step, you can now log in to the repository.

Note: This username and password are also the credentials you use to interact with the repository via Mercurial.

Once logged in to the repository, you will notice that there is a new link in the navigation bar, My Workspaces. This is where all the workspaces you create later on will be listed. The Log in and Register links are also replaced by your username and a Log out link.

Mercurial username configuration

Important: Username setup for Mercurial

Since you are about to make changes, your name needs to be recorded as part of the workspace revision history. When commit your changes using Mercurial, it is initially “offline” and independent of the central PMR instance. This means that you have to set-up your username for the Mercurial client software, even though you have registered a username on the PMR site.

You only need to do this once.

Steps for TortoiseHg:

• Right click on any file or folder in Windows Explorer, and select TortoiseHg → Global Settings.

• Select Commit and then enter your name followed by your e-mail address in “angle brackets” (i.e. less-than “<” and greater-than “>”). Actually, you can enter anything you want here, but this is the accepted best practice. Note that this information becomes visible publicly if the PMR instance that you push your changes to is public.

Steps for command line:

• Edit the config text file:
  
  – For per repository settings, the file in the repository: <repo>\.hg\hgrc
– System-wide settings for Linux: %USERPROFILE%\.hgrc
– System-wide settings for Windows: %USERPROFILE%\mercurial.ini

• Add the following entry:

    [ui]
    username = Firstname Lastname <firstname.lastname@example.net>

### Forking an existing workspace

**Important:** It is essential to use a Mercurial client to obtain models from the repository for editing. The Mercurial client is not only able to keep track of all the changes you make (allowing you to back-track if you make any errors), but using a Mercurial client is the only way to add any changes you have made back into the repository.

For this tutorial we will fork an existing workspace. This creates new workspace owned by you, containing a copy of all the files in the workspace you forked including their complete history. This is equivalent to cloning the workspace, creating a new workspace for yourself, and then pushing the contents of the cloned workspace into your new workspace.

Forking a workspace can be done using the Physiome Model Repository web interface. The first step is to find the workspace you wish to fork. We will use the Beeler, Reuter 1977 workspace which can be found at: [http://teaching.physiomeproject.org/workspace/beeler_reuter_1977](http://teaching.physiomeproject.org/workspace/beeler_reuter_1977).

Now click on the fork option in the toolbar, as shown below.

![Forking an existing workspace](image)

You will be asked to confirm the fork action by clicking the Fork button. You will then be shown the page for your forked workspace.

**Cloning your forked workspace**

In order to make changes to your workspace, you have to clone it to your own computer. In order to do this, copy the URI for mercurial clone/pull/push as shown below:

In Windows explorer, find the folder where you want to create the clone of the workspace. Then right click to bring up the context menu, and select TortoiseHG → Clone as shown below:
Figure 1.9: Copying the URI for cloning your workspace.
Paste the copied URL into the Source: area and then click the Clone button. This will create a folder called beeler_reuter_1977_tut that contains all the files and history of your forked workspace. The folder will be created inside the folder in which you instigated the clone command.

**Command line equivalent**

```
hg clone [URI]
```

You will need to enter your username and password to clone the workspace, as the fork will be set to private when it is created.

The repository will be cloned within the current directory of your command line window.

**Making changes to workspace contents**

Your cloned workspace is now ready for you to edit the model file and make a commit each time you want to save the changes you have made. As an example, open the model file in your text editor and remove the paragraph which describes validation errors from the documentation section, as shown below:

Save the file. If you are using TortoiseHg, you will notice that the icon overlay has changed to a red exclamation mark. This indicates that the file now has uncommitted changes.

**Committing changes**

If you are using TortoiseHg, bring up the shell menu for the altered file and select TortoiseHg → Hg Commit. A window will appear showing details of the changes you are about to commit, and prompting for a commit message. Every time you commit changes, you should enter a useful commit message with information about what changes have been made. In this instance, something like “Removed the paragraph about validation errors from the documentation” is appropriate.

Click on the Commit button at the far left of the toolbar. The icon overlay for the file will now change to a green tick, indicating that changes to the file have been committed.

**Command line equivalent**

```
hg commit -m "Removed the paragraph about validation errors from the documentation"
```

**Pushing changes to the repository**

Your cloned workspace on your local machine now has a small history of changes which you wish to push into the repository.

Right click on your workspace folder in Windows explorer, and select TortoiseHg → Hg Synchronize from the shell menu. This will bring up a window from which you can manage changes to the workspace in the repository. Click on the Push button in the toolbar, and enter your username and password when prompted.

**Command line equivalent**
Now navigate to your workspace and click on the history toolbar button. This will show entries under the Most recent changes, complete with the commit messages you entered for each commit, as shown below:

![Shortlog](image)

### 1.4.5 Create an exposure

As explained earlier, an exposure aims to bring a particular revision to the attention of users who are browsing and searching the repository.

There are two ways of making an exposure - creating a new exposure from scratch, or “Rolling over” an exposure. Rolling over is used when a workspace already has an existing exposure, and the updates to the workspace have not fundamentally changed the structure of the workspace. This means that all the information used in making the previous exposure is still valid for making a new exposure of a more recent revision of the workspace. Strictly speaking, an exposure can be rolled over to an older revision as well, but this is not the usual usage.

As you are working in a forked repository, you will need to create a new exposure from scratch. To learn how to create exposures, please refer to [Creating CellML exposures](#).

### 1.4.6 Migrating content to the main repository

As noted above, the teaching instance used in this tutorial is not suitable for permanent storage of your work. One of the advantages of using a distributed version control system to manage PMR workspaces is that it is straightforward to move the entire workspace, including the full history and provenance record, from one location to another. Recent releases of PMR Software have also provided the feature to export exposures so that they can then be imported into another PMR Software instance.

If you would like to move your work from the teaching instance of the model repository into a new workspace on the main repository (or from any PMR Software instance to another one), you should follow these steps:

1. Ensure that you have pushed all your commits to the source instance;

2. Create the new workspace in the destination repository;
3. Navigate to the workspace created and choose the *synchronize* action from the workspace toolbar, as shown below.

4. Fill in the URI of your workspace on the source instance (e.g., http://models.physiomeproject.org/w/andre/cortassa-ECME-2006)

5. Click the *Synchronize* button.

In a similar manner, you are able to copy exposures you might have made on the teaching instance over to the main repository, or from the main to the teaching instance if you want to test things out. Follow these steps to migrate an exposure from one repository to another.

1. Navigate to the exposure you would like to migrate in the source repository.

2. Choose the *wizard* item from the toolbar as shown below.

3. In the destination repository, navigate to the desired revision of the (published) workspace and choose the *Create exposure* action as described in the directions for creating an exposure from scratch

4. Rather than building a new exposure, choose the *Exposure Import via URI* tab in the exposure creation wizard, as shown below.

5. Copy and paste the URI from the source exposure wizard, highlighted above, into the *Exposure Export URI* field in the exposure creation wizard shown above.
6. Click the Add button. This will take you back to the standard exposure build page, but now with all the fields pre-populated from the source exposure.

7. Navigate to the bottom of the page and click the Build button to actually build the exposure pages. You are free to reconfigure the exposure if desired, some help is available for this if needed.

1.5 Creating CellML exposures

Section author: Dougal Cowan

CellML models in the Physiome Model Repository are presented through exposures. An exposure is a view of a particular revision of a workspace, and is quite flexible in terms of what it can present. A workspace may contain one or more models, and any number of models may be presented in a single exposure. Exposures generally take the form of some documentation about the model(s), a range of ways of looking at the model(s) or their metadata, and links to download the model(s).

The example below shows the main exposure page for the Bondarenko et al. 2004 workspace. This workspace contains two models, which can be viewed via the Navigation pane on the right hand side of the page.

If you click on one of the model navigation links, it will take you to the page for that particular model. Exposures most often present a single model, although they can present any number of models, each with its own documentation and views.

Most of the CellML exposures in the repository are currently of this type, with a main documentation page containing navigation links to the model or models themselves.

The model pages have links that enable the user to do things like view the model equations, look at the citation information, or run the model as an interactive session using the OpenCell application. These links are found in the pane titled Views available on the right hand side of the page.

This tutorial contains instructions on how to create one of these standard CellML exposures, as well as information about how to create other alternative types of exposure.

1.5.1 Creating standard CellML exposures

Note: In order to create an exposure of a workspace, the workspace must be published. You will need to submit your workspace for publication and await review. It is not possible to create exposures in private workspaces.
Figure 1.10: Example of an exposure page
Figure 1.11: Example of a model exposure page
In this example I will use a fork of the Beeler Reuter 1977 workspace. Creating a fork of a workspace creates a clone of that workspace that you own, and can push changes to. You can fork any publicly available workspace in the Physiome Model Repository. For more information on this feature of PMR, refer to the information on features or collaboration, or see the relevant section of the tutorial.

At this point you will need to submit the workspace for publication, using the state: menu at the top right of the workspace view page.

Figure 1.12: The state menu is used to submit objects such as workspaces for publication. Submitted items will be reviewed by site administrators and then published.

You will need to wait for your workspace to be made public before you can carry on and create an exposure of your workspace.

Choose the revision to expose

As an exposure is created to present a particular revision of a workspace, the first thing to do is to navigate to that revision. To do this, first find the workspace - if this is your own workspace, you can click on the My Workspaces button in the navigation bar of the repository and find the workspace of interest in the listing displayed. After navigating to your workspace, click on the history button in the menu bar.

Figure 1.13: The revision history of a fork of the Beeler Reuter 1977 workspace

Now you can select the revision of the workspace you wish to expose by clicking on the manifest of that revision. Usually you will want to expose the latest revision, which appears at the top of the list.

After selecting the revision you wish to expose, click on the workspace actions menu at the far right end of the menu bar and select create exposure.
Figure 1.14: Selecting the manifest of the revision to expose

Building the exposure

Selecting the create exposure option in the menu bar will bring you to the first page of the exposure wizard. This web interface allows you to select the model files, documentation files, and settings that will be used to create the exposure.

The initial page of the exposure creation wizard allows you to select the main documentation file and the first model file. Select the HTML annotator option and the HTML documentation file for the workspace in the Exposure main view section. For the New Exposure File Entry section, choose the CellML file you wish to expose, and select CellML as the file type.

Figure 1.15: Selecting the main documentation and the first CellML model file

Note: Documentation should be written in HTML format. Some previous users of the CellML repository may be familiar with the tmpdoc style documentation, which has been deprecated. For an example of what a fairly standard HTML documentation file might look like, take a look at the documentation for the Beeler Reuter 1977 model.
Once you have selected the documentation and model files and their types, click on the Add button. This will take you to the next step of the wizard, where you can select various options for the model you have chosen to expose, and will allow you to add further model files to the exposure if desired.

The wizard shows a subgroup for each CellML file to be included in the exposure. For each CellML file, select the following options:

- **Documentation**
  - Documentation file - select the HTML file created to document the model
  - View generator - select HTML annotator option

- **Basic Model Curation**
  - Curation flags - CellML model repository curators may select flags according to the status of the model

- **License and Citation**
  - File/Citation format - select CellML RDF metadata to automatically generate a citation page using the model RDF
  - License - select Creative Commons Attributions 3.0 Unported

- **Source Viewer**
  - Language Type - select xml

- **OpenCell Session Link**
  - Session File - select the session.xml if it has been created

After selecting the subgroup options, you need to click the Update button to set the chosen options for the exposure builder. If you do not update the subgroup, the options you selected will be replaced by the default options when you click Build.

For exposures where you wish to expose multiple models, click on the Add file button at this stage to create another subgroup. You can then use this to set up all the same options listed above for the additional model file. Remember to click Update when you have completed selecting the options for each subgroup before adding another subgroup.

After setting all the options for the models you wish to expose, click on the Build button. The repository software will then create the exposure pages and display the main page of the exposure.

In order to make the exposure visible and searchable, you will need to publish it. You can choose to submit your exposure for review, or if you have sufficient privileges you can publish it directly.

### 1.5.2 Other types of exposure

Because the exposure builder uses HTML documentation, it is possible to create customized types of exposure that differ from the standard type shown above. For example, you might want to create an exposure that simply documents and provides links to models in a PMR workspace that are encoded in languages other than CellML. You can also use the HTML documentation to provide tutorials or other documents, with resources stored in the workspace and linked to from the HTML.

**Examples of other exposure types:**

- André’s Hodgkin & Huxley CellML tutorial
- Testing nested SED-ML proposals with CellML
- Aslanidi et al. cardiac models encoded in C

### 1.5.3 Making an exposure using “roll-over”

As explained earlier, an exposure aims to bring a particular revision to the attention of users who are browsing and searching the repository.
1.5. Creating CellML exposures

Figure 1.16: Selecting options for the model file subgroup

Figure 1.17: Publish your exposure to make it visible to others.
“Rolling over” an exposure is the method used when a workspace already has an existing exposure, and the updates to the workspace have not fundamentally changed the structure of the workspace. This means that all the information used in making the previous exposure is still valid for making a new exposure of a more recent revision of the workspace. Strictly speaking, an exposure can be rolled over to an older revision as well, but this is not the usual usage.

Note: A forked workspace contains all of the revision history of the workspace it was created from, but does not contain any of the exposures that existed for the original workspace. You will always need to create an exposure from scratch in newly forked repositories.

From the view page of your workspace, select “exposure rollover”.

The exposure rollover button takes you to a list of revisions of the workspace, with existing exposures on the right hand side, and revision ids on the left. Each revision id has a radio button, used to select the revision you wish to create a new rolled over exposure for. Each existing exposure also has a radio button, used to select the exposure you wish to base your new one on. The most common use case is to select the latest exposure and the latest revision, and then click the Migrate button at the bottom of the list.

The new exposure will be created and displayed. When a new exposure is created, it is initially put in the private state. This means that only the user who created it or other users with appropriate permissions can see it, and it will not appear in search results or model listings. In order to publish the exposure, you will need to select submit for publication from the state menu.

The state will change to “pending review”. The administrator or curators of the repository will then review and publish the exposure, as well as expiring the old exposure.

1.6 Creating FieldML exposures

Section author: Dougal Cowan
FieldML models in the Physiome Model Repository are presented through *exposures*. A FieldML exposure has some similarities to a CellML exposure - usually consisting of a main documentation page with some information about the model, accompanied by a range of different views of the model data and or metadata. FieldML exposures also allow the real-time three-dimensional display of model meshes within the browser through the use of the Zinc plugin.

The example screenshots below show the main documentation page view and the 3D visualization provided by the Zinc viewer.

![Figure 1.18: The main documentation view of a FieldML exposure](image)

### 1.6.1 Creating the exposure files

To create a FieldML exposure, the following files will need to be stored in a workspace in PMR:

- The FieldML model file(s)
- An RDF file containing metadata about the model, and specifying the JSON file to be used to specify the visualization.
- The JSON file that specifies the Zinc viewer visualization.
- Optionally, documentation (HTML) and images (PNG, JPG etc).

The following example RDF file comes from the Laminar Structure of the Heart workspace in the FieldML repository:

```xml
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<rdf:RDF
  xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
  xmlns:rdf="http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#"
  xmlns:dc="http://purl.org/dc/elements/1.1/"
  xmlns:dcterms="http://purl.org/dc/terms/"
  xmlns:vCard="http://www.w3.org/2001/vcard-rdf/3.0#"
```

### 1.6. Creating FieldML exposures

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Figure 1.19: The main Zinc viewer view of the same FieldML exposure
This file provides citation metadata and a reference to the resource that specifies the Zinc viewer JSON file which will be used to describe the 3D visualisation of the FieldML model. The file breaks down into three main sections:

- Lines 3-8, namespaces used.
- Lines 10-23, citation metadata.
- Lines 24-37, resource description. Used to specify the JSON file that specifies the visualisation.

Example of the JSON file from the same (Laminar Structure of the Heart) workspace:

```json
{
    "View": [
        {
            "camera": [9.70448, -288.334, -4.43035],
            "target": [9.70448, 6.40667, -4.43035],
            "up": [-1, 0, 0],
            "angle": 40
        }
    ],
    "Models": [
        {
            "files": [
                "heart.xml"
            ],
            "externalresources": [
                "heart_mesh.connectivity",
                "heart_mesh.node.coordinates"
            ],
            "graphics": [
```
Lines 2-8, sets up the camera or viewpoint for the initial Zinc viewer display.

Lines 12-18, specifies the FieldML model files

Lines 19-41, set up the actual visualisations of the mesh - in this case, two different surfaces and a set of lines.

Lines 42-46, specify global visualisation settings.

For more information on these settings, please see the cmgui documentation.

Note: The specifics of these RDF and JSON files are a work in progress, and may change with each new version of the Zinc viewer plugin or the PMR software.

1.6.2 Creating the exposure in the Physiome Model Repository

First you will need to create a workspace to put your model in, following the process outlined in the document on working with workspaces.

• Upload your FieldML model files and Zinc viewer specification files.

• Find revision of workspace you wish to expose and create exposure

Exposure wizard procedure

View generator as per CellML; select HTML annotator and HTML doc file

New exposure file entry: select .rdf file and select FieldML (JSON) type. Click Add.

Documentation file - same as above Curation flags - none (should be removed?) No other settings Click Update.
Click **Build**.
To see the 3D visualisation, you will need to have the **latest Zinc plugin** installed.

## 1.7 Embedded workspaces and their uses

**Section author: David Nickerson**

---

**Todo**
This section needs more work.

---

*Workspaces* in PMR are currently implemented as *Mercurial* repositories. One Mercurial feature that is quite useful in the context of the PMR is *nested repositories*. Using the more general PMR concepts, we term such nesting as *embedded workspaces*.

**Embedded workspaces:**

- are intended to manage the separation of modules which are integrated to create a model;
- facilitate the sharing and reuse of model components independently from the source model;
- enable the development of the modules to proceed independently, thus the version of the workspaces embedded is also tracked; and
- allow authors to make use of relative URIs when linking between data resources providing a file system agnostic method to describe complex module relationships in a portable manner.

Workspaces can be embedded at a specific revision or set to track the most recent revision of the source workspace. Changes made to the source workspace will not affect any embedding workspace until the author explicitly chooses to update the embedded workspace. This provides the author with the opportunity to review the changesets and make an informed decision regarding alterations to embedded revisions. Any alterations in the specific revision of an embedded workspace is data captured in a changeset in the embedding workspace – thus providing a clear provenance record of the entire dataset in the workspace.

### 1.7.1 Uses

### 1.7.2 Best practice

See also the recommendations from the Mercurial project.

## 1.8 CellML Curation in Legacy Repository Software

As PMR contains much of the data ported over from the legacy software products that powered the CellML Model Repository, the curation system from that system was ported to PMR verbatim. This document describing the curation aspect of the repository is derived from documentation on the CellML site.

### 1.8.1 CellML Model Curation: the Theory

The basic measure of curation in a CellML model is described by the curation level of the model document. We have defined four levels of curation:

- **Level 0**: not curated.
- **Level 1**: the CellML model is consistent with the mathematics in the original published paper.
• Level 2: the CellML models has been checked for (i) typographical errors, (ii) consistency of units, (iii) that all parameters and initial conditions are defined, (iv) that the model is not over-constrained, in the sense that it contains equations or initial values which are either redundant or inconsistent, and (v) that running the model in an appropriate simulation environment reproduces the results published in the original paper.

• Level 3: the model is checked for the extent to which it satisfies physical constraints such as conservation of mass, momentum, charge, etc. This level of curation needs to be conducted by specialised domain experts.

1.8.2 CellML Model Curation: the Practice

Our ultimate aim is to complete the curation of all the models in the repository, ideally to the level that they replicate the results in the published paper (level 2 curation status). However, we acknowledge that for some models this will not be possible. Missing parameters and equations are just one limitation; at this point it should also be emphasised that the process of curation is not just about “fixing the CellML model” so that it runs in currently available tools. Occasionally it is possible for a model to be expressed in valid CellML, but not yet able to be solved by CellML tools. An example is the seminal Saucerman et al. 2003 model, which contains ODEs as well as a set of non-linear algebraic equations which need to be solved simultaneously. The developers of the CellML editing and simulation environment OpenCell are currently working on addressing these requirements.

The following steps describe the process of curating a CellML model:

• Step 1: the model is run through OpenCell and COR. COR in particular is a useful validation tool. It renders the MathML in a human readable format making it much easier to identify any typographical errors in the model equations. COR also provides a comprehensive error messaging system which identifies typographical errors, missing equations and parameters, and any redundancy in the model such as duplicated variables or connections. Once these errors are fixed, and assuming the model is now complete, we compare the CellML model equations with those in the published paper, and if they match, the CellML model is awarded a single star - or level 1 curation status.

• Step 2: Assuming the model is able to run in OpenCell and COR, we then go onto compare the CellML model simulation output from COR and OpenCell with the published results. This is often a case of comparing the graphical outputs of the model with the figures in the published paper, and is currently a qualitative process. If the simulation results from the CellML model and the original model match, the CellML model is awarded a second star - or level 2 curation status.

• Step 3: if, at the end of this process, the CellML model is still missing parameters or equations, or we are unable to match the simulation results with the published paper, we seek help from the original model author. Where possible, we try to obtain the original model code, and this often plays an invaluable role in fixing the CellML model.

• Step 4: Sometimes we have been able to engage the original model author further, such that they take over the responsibility of curating the CellML model themselves. Such models include those published by Mike Cooling and Franc Sachse. In these instances the CellML model is awarded a third star - or level 3 curation status. While this is laudable, ideally we would like to take the curation process one step further, such that level 3 curation should be performed by a domain expert who is not the author of the original publication (i.e., peer review). This expert would then check the CellML model meets the appropriate constraints and expectations for a particular type of model.

A point to note is that levels 1 and 2 of the CellML model curation status may be mutually exclusive - in our experience, it is rare for a paper describing a model to contain no typographical errors or omissions. In this situation, Version 1 of a CellML model usually satisfies curation level 1 in that it reflects the model as it is described in the publication - errors included, while subsequent versions of the CellML model break the requirements for meeting level 1 curation in order to meet the standards of level 2. Taking this idea further, this means that a model with 2 yellow stars doesn’t necessarily meet the requirements of level 1 curation but it does meet the requirements of level 2. Hopefully this conflict will be resolved when we replace the current star system with a more meaningful set of curation annotations.

Ultimately, we would like to encourage the scientific modeling community - including model authors, journals and publishing houses - to publish their models in CellML code in the CellML model repository concurrent with the publication of the printed article. This will eliminate the need for code-to-text-to-code translations and thus avoid many of the errors which are introduced during the translation process.
1.8.3 CellML Model Simulation: the Theory and Practice

As part of the process of model curation, it is important to know what tools were used to simulate (run) the model and how well the model runs in a specific simulation environment. In this case, the theory and the practice are essentially the same thing, and carry out a series of simulation steps which then translate into a confidence level as part of a simulator’s metadata for each model. The four confidence levels are defined as:

- Level 0: not curated (no stars);
- Level 1: the model loads and runs in the specified simulation environment (1 star);
- Level 2: the model produces results that are qualitatively similar to those previously published for the model (2 stars);
- Level 3: the model has been quantitatively and rigorously verified as producing identical results to the original published model (3 stars).

**Note:** The teaching instance of the repository is a mirror of the main repository site found at [http://models.physiomeproject.org/](http://models.physiomeproject.org/), running the latest development version of the PMR Software. Any changes you make to the contents of the teaching instance are not permanent, and will be overwritten with the contents of the main repository whenever the teaching instance is upgraded to a new PMR Software release. For this reason, you can feel free to experiment and make mistakes when pushing to the teaching instance. Please subscribe to the cellml-discussion mailing list to receive notifications of when the teaching instance will be refreshed.

See the section *Migrating content to the main repository* for instructions on how to migrate any content from the teaching instance to the main (permanent) Physiome Model Repository.

1.9 Using SED-ML to specify simulations

*Section author: Dougal Cowan*

Hopefully PMR will support SED-ML simulations as part of the CellML views.

**Todo**

- Update all PMR documentation to reflect workspace ID changes and user workspace changes, if they go ahead.
- Get embedded workspaces doc written.
- Get some best practice docs written.
OpenCOR is an open source, cross-platform and CellML-based modelling environment. The following documentation refers to the 2013-06-22 version of OpenCOR, for which supported platforms can be found here. This version of OpenCOR can be downloaded from the tutorial download page.

OpenCOR provides two types of user interfaces:

## 2.1 Command Line Interface (CLI)

**Note:** The CLI version of OpenCOR currently offers a limited number of features. You might therefore want to use its Graphical User Interface (GUI) version instead.

### 2.1.1 Help

```bash
$ ./OpenCOR -h
Usage: OpenCOR [-a|--about] [-c|--command <plugin>::<command> <options>] [-h|--help] [-p|--plugins] [-v|--version] [<files>]
-a, --about    Display some information about OpenCOR
-c, --command  Send a command to one or all the plugins
-h, --help     Display this help information
-p, --plugins  Display the list of plugins
-v, --version  Display the version of OpenCOR
```

### 2.1.2 Version

```bash
$ ./OpenCOR -v
OpenCOR [2013-06-22] (32-bit)
```

### 2.1.3 About

```bash
$ ./OpenCOR -a
OpenCOR [2013-06-22] (32-bit)
GNU/Linux 3.5.0-34-generic
Copyright 2011-2013
```

OpenCOR is a cross-platform CellML-based modelling environment which can be used to organise, edit, simulate and analyse CellML files.
2.1.4 Plugins

$ ./OpenCOR -p
The following plugin is loaded:
- CellMLTools: a plugin to access various CellML-related tools.

2.1.5 Command

$ ./OpenCOR -c help
Commands supported by CellMLTools:
- Display the commands supported by CellMLTools:
  help
- Export <in_file> to <out_file> using <format> as the destination format:
  export <in_file> <out_file> <format>
  <format> can take one of the following values:
  cellml_1_0: to export a CellML 1.1 file to CellML 1.0
$ ./OpenCOR -c CellMLTools::export in.cellml out.cellml cellml_1_0

2.2 Graphical User Interface (GUI)

OpenCOR offers a consistent GUI across the different platforms it supports. The look and feel of the interface is determined by the plugins which are selected. The first time you run OpenCOR, it will look something like this:

There is a central area which is used to interact with files. By default, no file is opened, hence the OpenCOR logo is shown instead. To the sides, there are dockable windows which each provide additional features. Those windows can be dragged and dropped to the top or bottom of the central area:
Alternatively, they can be undocked:

Or even closed, either by directly closing the window itself or by unticking the corresponding menu item (under the `<code>View</code>` menu, or the `<code>Help</code>` menu for the Help window):
To unselect all the plugins will result in OpenCOR looking ‘empty’:
2.2.1 Menu

• File:
  – Exit ~ Alt+F4: exit OpenCOR.

• View:
  – Docked Widgets: show/hide all the recent/current docked widgets.
  – Status Bar: show/hide the status bar.
  – Full Screen ~ F11: switch to / back from full screen mode.

• Tools:
  – Language: select the language to be used by OpenCOR.
  – Plugins...: un/select plugins.
  – Reset All: reset all your settings.

• Help:
  – Home Page: open the OpenCOR home page.
  – About...: some general information about OpenCOR.

The GUI version of OpenCOR relies on a plugin approach:
2.3 CellML annotation view plugin

The CellMLAnnotationView plugin can be used to annotate CellML files. If you open a CellML file which does not contain any annotation, then it will look something like this:

All the CellML elements which can be annotated are listed to the left of the view. If you right click on any of them, you will get a popup menu which you can use to expand/collapse all the child nodes, as well as remove the metadata associated with the current CellML element or the whole CellML file:
2.3.1 Annotate a CellML element

Say that you want to annotate the sodium_channel component. First, you need to select it:
Next, you need to specify a BioModels.net qualifier. If you do not know which one to use, click on the button to get some information about the current BioModels.net qualifier:
From there, go through the list of BioModels.net qualifiers until you find the one you are happy with. Here, we will use `bio:isVersionOf`: 

2.3. CellML annotation view plugin
Now, we need to retrieve some possible ontological terms to describe our sodium_channel component. For this, we must enter a search term which in our case is going to be sodium. OpenCOR is then going to use the RESTful service from SemanticSBML to provide us with a list of, here, 25 possible ontological terms:
A quick look through the list tells us that we probably want to use the ChEBI term which identifier is 29101. If you want to know more about the ChEBI resource, you can click on its corresponding link:
Similarly, if you want to know more about the ChEBI identifier:
Now that you are happy with your choice of ontological term, you can associate it with the sodium_channel component by clicking on its corresponding button:
As you will have seen, the ontological term you have just added cannot be added anymore, but it can be removed by clicking on its corresponding button or by using the context menu (see above).

Now, say that you also want to add the next ontological term. You can obviously do so by clicking on the corresponding button, but you could also enter pubchem.substance/4541 (i.e. <resource>/id> in the term field. Indeed, OpenCOR will recognise this ‘term’ as being a valid ontological term and will offer you to add it directly:
From there, if you were to decide that the last ontological term is not suitable, then you can remove it by clicking on its corresponding button:

2.3. CellML annotation view plugin
2.3.2 Unrecognised annotations

Annotations consist of RDF triples which are made of a subject, a predicate and an object. OpenCOR recognises RDF triples which subject identifies a CellML element while it expects the predicate to be a BioModels.net qualifier and the object an ontological term.

Ontological terms used to be identified using MIRIAM URNs, but these have now been deprecated in favour of identifiers.org URIs. OpenCOR recognises both, but it will only serialise annotations using identifiers.org URIs.

Now, it may happen that a file contains annotations which do not fit OpenCOR’s current requirements. In this case, OpenCOR will display the annotations as a simple list of RDF triples:
If you ever come across a type of annotations which you think OpenCOR ought to recognise, but does not, then please do contact us.

### 2.4 CellML model repository plugin

The `CellMLModelRepository` plugin offers an interface to the CellML Model Repository. By default, it lists all the CellML models found in the repository:
The list can then be filtered. For example, if you enter Noble as a filter, you will get:
To click on any of the listed links will open the workspace for that model in your (default) web browser. For example, to click on the Noble, 1962 link will get you here. From there, you can get access to the latest exposure for that model which, in the present case, can be found here.

2.5 CellML tools plugin

The CellMLTools plugin consists of various CellML-related tools which can be accessed through the Tools menu.

2.5.1 CellML File Export To...

These tools can be used to export a CellML model to various formats:

- **CellML 1.0**: to flatten a CellML 1.1 model. This tool is adapted from Jonathan Cooper’s CellML 1.1 to 1.0 converter (and has the same limitations).

2.6 File browser plugin

The FileBrowser plugin offers a convenient way to access your physical files, remembering the folder or file which was selected when you last ran OpenCOR. By default, it will start with your home directory.
As you would expect, to double click on a folder will expand its contents, as can be seen by double clicking on the Windows directory:
On the other hand, to double click on a file will result in it being opened in OpenCOR. The rendering of the file will depend on the current view being selected. In the case of the *CellML annotation* view, it will look as follows:
Folders and files can also be dragged from the File Browser window and dropped onto the file organiser window.

2.6.1 Tool bar

- Go to the home folder
- Go to the parent folder
- Go to the previous folder or file
- Go to the next folder or file

2.7 File organiser plugin

The FileOrganiser plugin allows you to organise your files virtually, i.e. independently of where they are physically located. Your virtual environment is remembered from one session to another and is, by default, empty:
Now, say that you are working on a specific project. You might then want to create a (virtual) folder which contains (a reference to) all the files you need for your project. To go about this, you first need to click on the button in the toolbar (or use the context menu). This will add a folder to your virtual environment:
You can rename the folder as you wish and create other (sub-)folders, if needed:
2.7. File organiser plugin

You can move the (sub-)folders around by dragging and dropping them within your virtual environment, or delete an existing (sub-)folder by clicking on the button in the toolbar (or by using the context menu):
Next, you might want to open the file browser window, so you can start dragging and dropping files into your virtual environment (alternatively, you can use your system’s file manager):
As for folders, you can move and delete your (virtual) files:

2.7. File organiser plugin
2.7.1 Tool bar

Create a new folder

Delete the current folder(s) and/or link(s) to the current file(s)

2.8 Help plugin

The Help plugin provides some user documentation which looks as follows:
The documentation includes a menu which gets shown whenever you move your mouse pointer over the information icon (top right):

2.8. Help plugin
The Help plugin also displays special links which when clicked send a command to OpenCOR. For example, open the documentation for the Help plugin page in OpenCOR. Now, if you check the bold text below, you will see that its contents is slightly different, depending on whether you are reading this in OpenCOR or from here:

To open the About box, select the Help|About... menu...
2.8.1 Tool bar

Go to the home page
Go back
Go forward
Copy the selection to the clipboard
Reset the size of the help page contents
Zoom in the help page contents
Zoom out the help page contents
Print the help page contents

2.9 Single cell view plugin

The SingleCellView plugin can be used to run CellML models which consists of either a system of ordinary differential equations (ODEs) or differential algebraic equations (DAEs). The system may be non-linear.

2.9.1 Open a CellML file

Upon opening a CellML file, OpenCOR will check that it can be used for simulation. If it cannot, then a message will describe the issue:
Alternatively, if the CellML file is valid, then the view will look as follows:
The view consists of two main parts, the first of which allows you to customise the simulation, the solver and the model parameters. The second part is used to plot simulation data. In the parameters section, each model parameter has an icon associated with it to highlight its type:

- (Editable) constant
- Computed constant
- (Editable) state
- Rate
- Algebraic
2.9.2 Simulate an ODE model

To simulate a model, you need to provide some information about the simulation itself, i.e. its starting point, ending point and point interval. Then, you need to specify the solver that you want to use. The solvers available to you will depend on which solver plugins you selected, as well as on the type of your model (i.e. ODE or DAE). In the present case, we are dealing with an ODE model and all the solver plugins are selected, so OpenCOR offers CVODE, forward Euler, Heun, Midpoint, and second- and fourth-order Runge-Kutta as possible solvers for our model.

Each solver comes with its own set of properties which you can customise. For example, if we select Euler (forward) as our solver, then we can customise its Step property:
At this stage, we can run our model by pressing the F9 key or by clicking on the button. Then, or before, we can decide on a model parameter to be plotted against the variable of integration (which, here, is time since the simulation properties are expressed in milliseconds). All the model parameters are listed to the left of the view, grouped by components in which they were originally defined. To select a model parameter, click on its corresponding check box:
As can be seen, the simulation failed. Several model parameters, including the one we selected, have a nan value (i.e. not a number). In this case, it is because the solver was not properly set up. Its Step property is too big.

If we set it to 0.01 milliseconds, reset the model parameters (by clicking on the button), and restart the simulation, then we get the following trace:
The (roughly) same trace can also be obtained using CVODE as our solver:
However, the simulation is so quick to run that we do not get a chance to see the progress of the simulation.

Between the and buttons, there is a wheel which we can use to add a short delay between the output of two data points. Here, we set the delay to 13 ms. This allows us to rerun the simulation, after having reset the model parameters, and pause it at a point of interest:
Now, we can modify any of the model parameters identified by either the or icon, but let us just modify \( g_{Na\_max} \) (under the sodium_channel component) by setting its value to 0 milliS_per_cm2. Then, we resume the simulation and we can see the effect on the model:
If we want, we could export all the simulation data to a comma-separated values (CSV) file. To do so, we need to click on the button.

### 2.9.3 Simulate a DAE model

To simulate a DAE model is similar to simulating an ODE model, except that OpenCOR only offers one DAE solver (IDA) at this stage:
2.9.4 Simulate a CellML 1.1 model

So far, we have only simulated CellML 1.0 models, but we can also simulate CellML 1.1 models, i.e. models which import units and/or components from other models:
2.9.5 Simulate several models at the same time

Each simulation is run in its own thread which means that several simulations can be run at the same time. Simulations running in the ‘background’ display a small progress bar in the top tab bar while the ‘foreground’ simulation uses the main progress bar at the bottom of the view:
2.9.6 Plotting area

The plotting area offers several features which can be activated by:

- **Zooming in:**
  - holding the right mouse button down, and moving the mouse to the right/bottom to zoom in on the X/Y axis; or
  - moving the mouse wheel up.

- **Zooming out:**
  - holding the right mouse button down, and moving the mouse to the left/top to zoom out on the X/Y axis; or
  - moving the mouse wheel down.

- **Zooming into a region of interest:**
  - pressing Ctrl and holding the right mouse button down, and moving the mouse around.

- **Panning:**
  - holding the left mouse button down, and moving the mouse around (this obviously requires the plotting area to have been zoomed in in the first place).

- **Coordinates of any point:**
  - pressing Shift and holding the left mouse button down, and moving the mouse around.

- **Copying the contents of the plotting area to the clipboard:**
  - double-clicking the left mouse button.
2.9.7 Tool bar

- Run the simulation
- Pause the simulation
- Stop the simulation
- Reset all the model parameters
- Export the simulation data to CSV

2.10 Supported platforms

OpenCOR can be used on the following versions of Windows, Linux and OS X.

2.10.1 Windows

OpenCOR is supported on the 32-bit and 64-bit versions of Windows XP, Windows Vista, Windows 7 and Windows 8.

2.10.2 Linux

OpenCOR is supported on the 32-bit and 64-bit versions of Ubuntu 12.04 LTS (Precise Pangolin), 12.10 (Quantal Quetzal) and 13.04 (Raring Ringtail), but it might also work with earlier versions of Ubuntu, as well as some other Linux distributions, though additional system libraries might be needed for the latter.
2.10.3 OS X

OpenCOR is supported on OS X 10.8 (Mountain Lion).

2.11 Plugin approach

OpenCOR is a plugin-based application. This means that if no plugins are selected, then OpenCOR can do next to nothing.

As can be seen by opening the Plugins dialog box (by selecting the Tools | Plugins... menu) and by un-selecting Show only selectable plugins (if necessary), OpenCOR supports different types of plugins (Organisation, Editing, Simulation, Miscellaneous, API and Third-party; see below):

You can select which plugins you want to use. However, plugins which are needed by other plugins (e.g. the Core plugin is needed by the CellML model repository plugin) cannot be directly selected. Instead, they will be automatically selected if and only if they are needed by at least one other plugin.

Most of the selectable plugins come with some kind of a GUI:

- **Dockable window**: such a plugin (e.g. the CellML model repository and help plugins) can be docked around the central area, undocked or hidden, as illustrated here.
• **View window:** such a plugin (e.g. the *CellML annotation view* and *single cell view* plugins) is used to interact with a file, be it to edit it, simulate it or analyse it.

### 2.11.1 Organisation

Organisation plugins are used to search, open, organise, etc. your files:

• **CellMLModelRepository:** a plugin to access the CellML model repository.
• **FileBrowser:** a plugin to access your local files.
• **FileOrganiser:** a plugin to virtually organise your files.

### 2.11.2 Editing

Editing plugins are used to edit part or all of your files using one of several possible views:

• **CellMLAnnotationView:** a plugin to annotate CellML files.

There are also some non-selectable Editing plugins:

• **CoreEditing:** the core editing plugin.
• **CoreCellMLEditing:** the core CellML editing plugin.

### 2.11.3 Simulation

Simulation plugins are used to simulate your files:

• **CVODESolver:** a plugin which uses CVODE to solve ODEs.
• **ForwardEulerSolver:** a plugin which implements the Forward Euler method to solve ODEs.
• **FourthOrderRungeKuttaSolver:** a plugin which implements the fourth-order Runge-Kutta method to solve ODEs.
• **HeunSolver:** a plugin which implements the Heun method to solve ODEs.
• **MidpointSolver:** a plugin which implements the Midpoint method to solve ODEs.
• **IDASolver:** a plugin which uses IDA to solve DAEs.
• **KINSOLSolver:** a plugin which uses KINSOL to solve non-linear algebraic systems.
• **SecondOrderRungeKuttaSolver:** a plugin which implements the second-order Runge-Kutta method to solve ODEs.
• **SingleCellView:** a plugin to run single cell simulations.

There is also a non-selectable Simulation plugin:

• **CoreSolver:** the core solver plugin.

### 2.11.4 Miscellaneous

Miscellaneous plugins are used for various purposes:

• **Help:** a plugin to provide help.

There are also some non-selectable Miscellaneous plugins:

• **Core:** the core plugin.
• **Compiler:** a plugin to support code compilation.
• **CellMLSupport:** a plugin to support CellML.
• **CellMLTools**: a plugin to access various CellML-related tools.

### 2.11.5 API

(Non-selectable) API plugins are used to provide access to external APIs:

- **CellMLAPI**: a plugin to access the CellML API.

### 2.11.6 Third-party

(Non-selectable) third-party plugins are used to provide access to third-party libraries:

- **LLVM**: a plugin to access LLVM (as well as Clang).
- **SUNDIALS**: a plugin to access CVODE, IDA and KINSOL from the SUNDIALS library.
- **Qwt**: a plugin to access Qwt.
The MAP Client is a cross-platform framework for managing workflows. MAP Client is a plugin-based application that can be used to create workflows from a collection of workflow steps.

The MAP Client is an application written in Python and based on Qt the cross-platform application and UI framework. Further details are available in the documents listed below.

### 3.1 MAP Installation and Setup Guide

This document describes how to install and setup the MAP software for use on your machine. The MAP software is a Python application that uses the PySide Qt library bindings. The instructions in this document cover the installation and setup on a Windows based operating system. The instructions for GNU/Linux and OS X are similar and should be extrapolated from these instructions. There are some side notes for these other operating systems to help, but not full or dedicated instructions. If for any reason you get stuck and cannot complete the instructions please contact us.

#### 3.1.1 MAP

The MAP framework is written in Python and is designed to work with Python 2 and Python 3. The MAP application is tested against Python2.6, Python2.7 and Python3.3 and should work with any of these Python libraries. Currently the MAP framework is not packaged as an application, requiring the user to set up the environment prior to launching the `mapclient.py` executable Python script.

The MAP application consists of the framework and various tools, by itself it can do very little. It is the job of the plugins to provide functionality. The MAP application as referred to in this section of the instructions may be described as the barebones application for this reason.

To execute the barebones application we need to first install some dependencies:

1. **Python** (and make sure to add the Python and Python\Scripts folders to your system PATH).
2. **PySide** (PySide and PyQt4 are virtually interchangeable but currently this would require some textual changes)
3. **Python setup tools** and then using `easy_install.exe` to install:
   1. **Requests** Python library ([easy_install requests](https://pypi.python.org/pypi/requests))
   2. **OAuthlib** Python library ([not the OAuth Python library](https://pypi.python.org/pypi/oauthlib)) ([easy_install oauthlib]).

Also, if we wish to interact with the Physiome Model Repository (PMR) we need:

1. **Mercurial**

We can now install the barebones MAP client application. The barebones application can be launched via the command window with the following command in the extracted `mapclient/src` folder:
mapclient.py

which should result in an application window similar to that shown below.

Now that the barebones MAP application is installed and running we can move on to some useful plugins.

### 3.1.2 MAP Plugins

The installation of MAP plugins simply requires obtaining the plugins and then using the MAP plugin manager to let the MAP client know where to look for plugins. Furthermore, there is a github project which is used to provide a common collection of MAP plugins. For the purposes of this tutorial, the autosegmentationstep plugin will be used. You can download a copy of the plugin, extract it, and then follow the instructions for adding the folder in which you extracted the plugin to the MAP plugin manager.

### 3.1.3 Zinc and PyZinc

Zinc is an advanced field manipulation and visualisation library and PyZinc provides Python bindings to the Zinc library. Binaries are available for download for Linux, Windows, and OS X. The MAP client is able to make use of Zinc for advanced visualisation and image processing steps. To get PyZinc installed, follow these steps:

1. Install Zinc using either: the Windows installer (ensuring that you enable the option for the installer to add Zinc to the system PATH); or unzip the archive and manually copy library file to somewhere on your PATH (which could include the PyZinc installation folder).
2. Unzip the downloaded PyZinc archive.
3. In a command window, change into folder PyZinc extracted into.
4. Execute the following command: python setup.py install (this uses a similar mechanism as the easy_instal software above.

You can check that you have Zinc and PyZinc correctly installed and functional by running the volume_fitting.py application provided with the tutorial materials. If Zinc and PyZinc are working you should get an application window similar to that shown below with the interactive three-dimensional model viewer shown. Note you will need to restart the command window after installing PyZinc in order to refresh the system PATH.
Which Binary?

There are a number of binaries available for any given platform and you must match the package description with your system setup. The package description contains the package name, package version, package architecture, package operating system and in the case of PyZinc the package Python version. The package extension indicates the type of package and they come in two main flavours: installer/package manager; archive.

Additionally the version of the PyZinc binaries you download must match the version of the Zinc library binaries.

3.2 MAP Features Demonstration

Section author: Hugh Sorby

Note: MAP is currently under active development, and this document will be updated to reflect any changes to the software or new features that are added. You can follow the development of MAP at the launchpad project.

This document details the features of MAP, a cross-platform framework for managing workflows. MAP is a plugin-based application that can be used to create workflows from a collection of workflow steps.

In this demonstration is based on version 0.9.0 of MAP, available from the project downloads. Directions for installing MAP and getting the MAP plugins are available in the MAP Installation and Setup Guide.

In this demonstration we will cover the features of MAP. We will start with a quick tour and then create a new workflow that will help us segment a region of interest from a stack of images.

3.2.1 Quick Tour

When you first load MAP, it will look something like this:

In the main window we can see three distinct areas that make up the workflow management side of the software. These three areas are the menu bar (at the top), the step box (on the left) that contains the steps that you can use to create your workflow and the workflow canvas (on the right) an area for constructing a workflow.
In the Step box we will only see two steps, this is because we have only loaded the default Steps and not loaded any of the external plugins that MAP can use.

**Menu Bar**

The Menu bar provides a selection of drop down menus for accessing the applications functions. The File menu provides access to opening, importing, closing workspaces as well as quitting the application. The Edit menu provides access to the undo/redo functionality. The Tools menu provides access to the Plugin Manager tool, Physiome Model Repository (PMR) tool and the Annotation tool. The Help menu provides access to the about box which contains information on contributors and the license that the MAP application is released under.

**Step Box**

The Step box provides a selection of steps that are available to construct a workflow from. The first time we start the program only the default plugins are available. To add more steps we can use the Plugin Manager tool. To use a step in our workflow we drag the desired step from the step box onto the workflow canvas.

**Workflow canvas**

The workflow canvas is where we construct our workflow. We do this by adding the steps to the workflow canvas from the step box that make up our workflow. We then make connections between the workflow steps to define the complete workflow.

When a step is added to the workflow the icon which is visible in the Step box is augmented with visualisations of the Steps ports and the steps configured status. The annotation of the steps ports will show when the mouse is hovered over a port. The image below shows the Image Source step with the annotation for the port displayed.

### 3.2.2 Tools

MAP currently has three tools that may be used to aide the management of the workflow. They are the Plugin Manager tool, the Physiome Model Repository (PMR) tool and the Annotation tool. For a description of each tool see the relevant sections.
Plugin Manager Tool

The plugin tool is a simple tool that enables the user to add or remove additional plugin directories. MAP comes with some default plugins which the user can decide to load or not. External directories are added with the add directory button. Directories are removed by selecting the required directory in the Plugin directories list and clicking the remove directory button.

Whilst additions to the plugin path will be visible immediately in the Step box deletions will not be apparent until the next time the MAP Client is started. This behaviour is a side-effect of the Python programming language.

Physiome Model Repository (PMR) Tool

The PMR tool uses webservices and OAuth to communicate between itself (the consumer) and the PMR website (the server). Using this tool we can search for and find suitable resources on PMR.

The PMR website uses OAuth to authenticate a consumer and determine consumer access privileges. Here we will discuss the parts of OAuth that are relevant to getting you (the user) able to access resources on PMR.

In OAuth we have three players the server, the consumer and the user. The server is providing a service that the consumer wishes to use. It is up to the user to allow the consumer access to the servers resources and set the level of access to the resource. For the the consumer to access privileged information of the user stored on the server the user must register the consumer with the server, this is done by the user giving the consumer a temporary access token. This temporary access token is then used by the consumer to finalise the transaction and acquire a permanent access token. The user can deny the consumer access at anytime by logging into the server and revoking the permanent access token.

If you want the PMR tool to have access to privileged information (your non-public workspaces stored on PMR) you will need to register the PMR tool with the PMR website. We do this by clicking on the register link as shown in the figure below. This does two things: it shows the Application Authorisation dialog; opens a webbrowser at the PMR website. [If you are not logged on at the PMR website you will need to do so now to continue, instructions on obtaining a PMR account are available here]. On the PMR website you are asked to either accept or deny access to the PMR tool. If you allow access then the website will display a temporary access token that you will need to copy and paste into the Application Authorisation dialog so that the PMR tool can get the permanent access token.

Annotation Tool

The Annotation tool is a very simple tool to help a user annotate the Workflow itself and the Step data directories that are linked to PMR. At this stage there is a limited vocabulary that the Annotation tool knows about, but this is intended to be extended in coming releases. The vocabulary that the annotation is aware of is available in the three combo-boxes near the top of the dialog.

The main part of the Annotation tool shows the current annotation from the current target.

In the above image we can see the list of annotations that have been added to the current target. This is a simplified view of the annotation with the prefix of the terms removed for clarity.
3.3 MAP Tutorial - Create Workflow

Section author: Hugh Sorby

Note: MAP is currently under active development, and this document will be updated to reflect any changes to the software or new features that are added. You can follow the development of MAP at the launchpad project.

This document details takes the reader through the process of creating a workflow from existing MAP plugins. Having a read through the MAP Features Demonstration is a good way to become familiar with the features of the MAP application.

3.3.1 Getting Started

To get started with MAP we need to create a new workflow. To do this we use File → New → Workflow menu option (Ctrl-N shortcut). This option will present the user with a directory selection dialog. Use the dialog to select a directory where the workflow can be saved. Once we have chosen a directory the step box and workflow canvas will become enabled.

To create a meaningful workflow we will need to use some external plugins. To load these plugins we will use the Plugin Manager tool. The Plugin Manager tool can be found under the Tools menu. Use the Plugin Manager to add the directory location of the MAP Plugins. After confirming the changes to the Plugin Manager you should see a few new additions to the Step box.
3.3.2 Creating the Workflow

To create a workflow we use Drag ‘n’ Drop to drag steps from the Step box and drop the step onto the workflow canvas. When steps are first dropped onto the canvas they show a red cog icon to indicate that the step is not configured. At a minimum a step requires an identifier to be set before it can be used.

Drag the steps Image Source, Data Store and Automatic Segmenter onto the workflow canvas. All the steps will show a red cog, except the ‘Automatic Segmenter’, step this indicates that the step needs to be configured. To configure a step we can either right click on the step to bring up a context menu from which the configure action can be chosen or simply click the red cog directly. See the relevant section for the configuration of a particular step.

Note: When configuring a step you are asked to set an identifier. The identifier you set must unique within the workflow and it must not start with a ‘.’.

Configuring the Image Source Step

The Image Source step requires a location. This location contains the images to import. The location may be a directory on the local hard disk or a workspace on PMR. Here we will show how to configure the Image Source step with images that have been stored in a workspace on PMR.

First each step requires a unique id. The id is used to create a file containing the step configuration information. This id for the Image Source step is used to create a directory under the workflow project directory. In the identifier edit box enter a directory name. Once a valid identifier is entered the red highlight around the edit box will be turned off.

Next change to the PMR tab and we will see an ellipses button for bringing up the PMR tool dialog. You need to register the PMR tool to access certain webservices the details on how to do this are available here. The remainder of this tutorial will assume you have setup access to PMR properly. In the search box of the PMR dialog we need to enter the search term ‘blood-vessels’. The result of the search should look like the image below.

Select this entry in the search listing and click ‘Ok’. The selected PMR workspace will be downloaded in the background. When the download is finished the red cog icon will disappear. If the download is not successful a dialog will appear to inform you of the error.

MAP is not setup to work with streamed resources so we must download the workspace from PMR.
Configuring the Point Cloud Step

Configuring the Point Cloud step is trivial at this time. This is because the step only requires an identifier to be set. The identifier will be used to create a directory where the received point cloud will be serialized.

3.3.3 Executing the Workflow

At this point you should have a workflow area looking like this:

Once the All the steps in the workflow are configured (no more red cog icons) we can make connections between the steps. To make a connection between two steps the first step must provide what the second step uses. When trying to connect two steps that cannot be connected you will see a no entry icon over the connection for a short period of time and then the connection will be removed. The following image shows an incorrect connection trying to be made.

If the mouse is hovered over a port you will see a description of what the port provides or uses. To make a connection click on a port and drag the mouse to the port to be connected.

To execute the workflow we need to connect up the steps in the correct manner and save the workflow. The workflow should be connected up as can be seen in the following image.

Once the workflow has been saved the execute button in the lower left corner should become enabled. Clicking the execute button will, naturally enough, execute the workflow step by step.

Note: We can make connections between steps at anytime not just when all steps have been properly configured.
Automatic Segmenter Step

The ‘Automatic Segmenter’ actually allows us to interact with executing workflow. With this step we can move the image plane up and down and change the visibility of the graphical items in the scene. The image plane is moved through the use of the slider on the left hand side. The visibility of the graphical items is controlled by checking or unchecking the relevant check boxes.

3.4 MAP Plugins

The Plugin lies at the heart of the MAP framework. The key idea behind the plugins is to make them as simple as possible to implement. The interface is defined in documentation and the plugin developer is expected to adhere to it. The framework leaves the responsibility of conforming to the plugin interface up to the plugin developer. The plugin framework is based on Marty Alchin’s [1] article on a plugin framework for Django. The plugin framework is very lightweight and requires no external libraries and can be made to work with Python 2 and Python 3 simultaneously.

3.4.1 Workflow Step

The Workflow Step is the basic item that a plugin developers need to place their software within. A workflow step can be of any size and complexity. Although it must adhere to the plugin design to work properly with the application. Every step that wishes to act like a Workflow Step must derive itself from the Workflow step mountpoint. The Workflow step mountpoint is the interface between the application and the plugin. The Workflow step mountpoint can be imported like so:

```python
from mountpoints.workflowstep import WorkflowStepMountPoint
```

A skeleton step is provided as a starting point for the developer to create their own workflow steps. The skeleton step is actually a valid step in its own right and it will show up in the Step box if enabled. However the skeleton step has no use other than as an item to drag around on the workflow area. The skeleton step is discussed below, first however the plugin interface is discussed.

Plugin Interface

The plugin interface is the layer between the application and the developers plugin. The plugin interface is not defined by contract as we so often see in Java. But rather the plugin interface is defined by documentation. This puts the burden of the specification on the documentation and the conformity of the specification on the developer.
The underlying theory is that the developer is able to follow the specification without the application having to do rigorous checks to make sure this is the case. The phrase ‘If it walks like a duck’ is often used.

In this section the specification of the Workflow step plugin interface is given. It is then up to the developer to make sure their plugin behaves like one.

The details of the plugin interface are provided in the documentation of the source code in the relevant source file and additionally here for easy reference. The documentation provided with the source code is very direct with little explanation the following documentation provides a bit more explanation and discussion on the various aspects of the plugin interface. The documentation provided here should be considered the slave documentation and the documentation provided with the source code as the master documentation.

There are essentially, what may be considered, three different levels of the plugin design.

1. The Musts
2. The Shoulds
3. The Coulds

Creating a workflow step that satisfies the musts will create an actual workflow step that can be added to the workflow area and interacted with. But it won’t be very useful. Satisfying the shoulds will usually be sufficient for the very simplest of steps. Simple steps are for instance ones that provide images, or location information for data. Doing some of the coulds will create a much more interesting step.

The requirements for creating a step have been kept as simple as possible, this is to allow the developer a quick route into the development of the step content.

The following three sections discuss these three levels in more detail.

**A Step Must**

- The plugin must be derived from the WorkflowStepMountPoint class defined in the package mountpoints.workflowstep
- Accept a single parameter in it’s __init__ method.
- Define a name for itself, this must be passed into the initialisation of the base class.
- Define the methods

```python
def configure(self):
    pass

def getIdentifier(self):
    pass

def setIdentifier(self, identifier):
    pass

def serialize(self, location):
    pass

def deserialize(self, location):
    pass
```

**A Step Should**

- Implement the configure method to configure the step. This is typically in the form of a dialog. When implementing this function the class method self._configureObserver() should be called to inform the application that the step configuration has finished.
- Implement the getIdentifier/setIdentifier methods to return the identifier of the step.
• Implement the serialize/deserialize methods. The steps should serialize and deserialize from a file on disk located at the given location.
• Define a class attribute _icon. That is of the type QtGui.QImage.
• Information about what the step uses and/or what it provides. This is achieved through defining ports on the step.

A Step Could

• Implement the method ‘portOutput(self)’ if it was providing some information to another step.
• Implement the method ‘execute(self, dataIn)’ if it uses some information from another step. If a step implements the ‘execute(self, dataIn)’ method then it must call ‘_doneExecution()’ when the step is finished.
• Define a category using the ‘_category’ attribute. This attribute will add the step to the named category in the step box, or it will create the named category if it is not present.

3.4.2 Ports

A port is a device to specify what a workflow step provides or uses. A port is described using Resource Description Framework (RDF) triples. The port description is used to determine whether or not two ports may be connected together. One port can either use or provide one thing. A single port must not both provide a thing and use a thing. Ports are ordered by entry position.

Ports are added by using the ‘addPort(self, triple)’ method from the base class.

3.4.3 Skeleton Step

The skeleton step satisfies the musts of the plugin interface. It is a minimal step and it is set out as follows.

A Python package with the step name is created, in this case ‘skeletonstep’, in the module file we add the code that needs to be read when the plugins are loaded.

The module file performs four functions. It contains the version information and the authors name of the module. For instance the skeleton step has a version of ‘0.1.0’ and authors name of ‘Xxxx Yyyyy’. It adds the current directory into the Python path, this is done so that the steps python files know where they are in relation to the python path. It also (optionally) prints out a message showing that the plugin has been loaded successfully. But the most important function it performs is to call the python file that contains the class that derives from the workflow step mountpoint.

The ‘SkeletonStep’ class in the skeletonstep.step package is a very simple class. It derives from the ‘WorkflowStepMountPoint’, calls the base class with the name of the step, accepts a single parameter in it’s init method and defines the five required functions to satisfy the plugin interface.

When enabled the skeleton step will be a fully functioning step in the MAP Client.

3.4.4 References


3.5 MAP Tutorial - Create Plugin

Section author: Hugh Sorby

Note: MAP is currently under active development, and this document will be updated to reflect any changes to the software or new features that are added. You can follow the development of MAP at the launchpad project.
This document details takes the reader through the process of creating a new plugin for the MAP Client. The MAP Plugins document defines the plugin interface that the new plugin must adhere to.

### 3.5.1 A Simple Source Step Example

We need to create a source step for supplying Zinc model files.

First copy the skeletonstep directory to another directory. To make this step our own we first change the skeletonstep name to zincmodelsourcstep. The places we have to change are:

1. The topmost directory
2. The inner directory, this directory is used to namespace our new step.
3. In __init__.py file in the topmost directory, we also need to uncomment the lines:
   ```python
   from zincmodelsourcstep import step
   print("Plugin '{0}' version {1} by {2} loaded".format(tail, __version__, __author__))
   ```
4. In __init__.py file in the inner directory. We have to change the name of the class to ‘ZincModelSourceStep’ and change the name of the step to ‘Zinc Model Source’.

Now we need to be able to configure the step. To do this we can use qt-designer to create a ‘configuredialog.ui’ file that we can convert into Python code using ‘pyside-uic’.
Developing the Virtual Physiological Human

This tutorial will demonstrate tools, techniques and best practices that aid scientists in the development and application of computational models and simulation experiments in their work toward the creation of a virtual physiological human. The Physiome Model Repository (PMR) provides a framework for the storage, curation and exchange of data. By using standards suitable to their data, scientists maximise their ability to reuse existing knowledge and enable others to make use of their achievements in novel work. Annotations ensure scientists are able to find existing data and are also able to correctly interpret and apply their own data. These tutorials are designed to help demonstrate and promote practices which will aid attendees in their own work. Attendees are encouraged to raise issues specifically related to their needs with the tutors.

Documentation for the software used in this tutorial is available online, including the most recent version of this tutorial itself. This tutorial guides the participant through three common computational modelling scenarios faced by scientists working toward the virtual physiological human. We use these scenarios to achieve scientific outputs using the covered tools and demonstrating practices we believe will help ensure reproducible and reusable science. Each of the scenarios listed below should be worked through in order and in each scenario we provide examples using either OpenCOR or the MAP workflow tool.

When interacting directly with Mercurial, this tutorial demonstrates how to work with the Physiome Model Repository using TortoiseHg, which provides a Windows explorer integrated system for working with Mercurial repositories.

Brief mention of the equivalent command line versions of the TortoiseHg actions will also be mentioned, so that these ideas can also be used without a graphical client, and on Linux or OS X and similar systems. These will be denoted by boxes like this.

This tutorial requires you to have:

- A Mercurial client such as TortoiseHg or Mercurial installed;
- The OpenCOR CellML modelling environment and/or the MAP workflow tool installed; and
- A text editor such as Notepad++ or gedit.

### 4.1 Creating a new piece of work

In the Physiome Model Repository (PMR), a complete piece of work is stored in a workspace. Each workspace is a Mercurial repository, which allows PMR to maintain a complete history of all changes made to every file it contains. In this tutorial, we take you through the creation of a new piece of work which will be stored in a PMR workspace:

#### 4.1.1 Working with the repository using Mercurial

This part of the tutorial will teach you how to create a workspace in the repository, clone the workspace from the model repository using a Mercurial client, add content to the workspace, and then push the cloned workspace to
Registering an account and logging in

First, navigate to the teaching instance of the Physiome Model Repository at http://teaching.physiomeproject.org/.

**Note:** The teaching instance of the repository is a mirror of the main repository site found at http://models.physiomeproject.org/, running the latest development version of the PMR Software.

Any changes you make to the contents of the teaching instance are not permanent, and will be overwritten with the contents of the main repository whenever the teaching instance is upgraded to a new PMR Software release. For this reason, you can feel free to experiment and make mistakes when pushing to the teaching instance. Please subscribe to the cellml-discussion mailing list to receive notifications of when the teaching instance will be refreshed.

See the section *Migrating content to the main repository* for instructions on how to migrate any content from the teaching instance to the main (permanent) Physiome Model Repository.

In order to make changes to models in the repository, you must first register for an account. If you already have an account on the main repository site, your account will also be on the teaching instance. Otherwise, you need to register for an account on the teaching repository. You can register by navigating to the Log in link at the top right of the menu bar and then looking for the New user section of the log in page.

**Note:** Your username and password are also the credentials you use to interact with the repository via Mercurial.

Once logged in to the repository, you will notice that there are a couple of new links in the navigation bar (*My Workspaces* and *Documentation*). The *My Workspaces* link is where all the workspaces you create later on will be listed. The Log in link is also replaced by your username and a Log out link (which you can access by clicking on your username).

**Mercurial username configuration**

**Important:** Username setup for Mercurial

Since you are about to make changes, your name needs to be recorded as part of the workspace revision history. When you commit your changes using Mercurial, it is initially “offline” and independent of the central PMR Software instance. This means that you have to set-up your username for the Mercurial client software, even though you have registered a username on the PMR Software site.

You only need to do this once. The MAP PMR tool will help complete these details for you automatically, but it is a good idea to ensure sensible default values are configured, just in case.

**Steps for TortoiseHg:**

- Right click on any file or folder in Windows Explorer, and select TortoiseHg → Global Settings.
- Select Commit and then enter your name followed by your e-mail address in “angle brackets” (i.e. less-than “<” and greater-than “>”). Actually, you can enter anything you want here, but this is the accepted best practice as your e-mail address provides a globally unique identifier. Note that this information becomes visible publicly if the PMR Software instance that you push your changes to is public.

**Steps for command line:**

- Edit the config text file:
  - For per repository settings, the file in the repository: `<repo>\hg\hgrc`
  - System-wide settings for Linux / OS X: `~/.hgrc`
  - System-wide settings for Windows: `%USERPROFILE%\mercurial.ini`
• Add the following entry:

```ui
username = Firstname Lastname <firstname.lastname@example.net>
```

4.1.2 A new CellML-based piece of work

In this section we are going to create a new workspace into which we will add a CellML model, annotate the model using OpenCOR, and simulate the model to check that it produces the expected results. We will be using the seminal Noble (1962) cardiac cellular electrophysiology model as the demonstration model for this part of the tutorial.

Create a new workspace

You can find instructions for creating a new workspace on the teaching instance repository in the PMR workspaces documentation. Following those instructions, create a workspace similar to that shown below:

![Creating a new workspace](image)

Figure 4.1: Creating a new workspace to begin a scientific study based on the Noble 1962 cardiac cellular electrophysiology model.

Once you have created the workspace, you will be taken to the workspace listing page. Take particular note of the URI for mercurial clone/pull/push, as highlighted by the arrow below.

In order to make changes to your workspace, you have to clone it to your own computer. In order to do this, copy the URI for mercurial clone/pull/push as shown above. In Windows explorer, find the folder where you want to create the clone of the workspace. Then right click to bring up the context menu, and select TortoiseHG → Clone as shown below:

Paste the copied URL into the Source: area and then click the Clone button. This will create a folder named after the workspace identifier (a hexadecimal number) that will be empty. The folder will be created inside the folder in which you instigated the clone command.

**Command line equivalent**

```
hg clone [URI]
```

The repository will be cloned within the current directory of your command line window.

You will need to enter your username and password to clone the workspace, as the workspace will be set to private when it is created.
Figure 4.2: A view of the newly created and empty workspace. The URI to be used for Mercurial actions is highlighted by the arrow. Note: the workspace URI is unique to every workspace, so yours will be different to the one shown above.
We have prepared a copy of the Noble (1962) model encoded in CellML ready for your use. You can download the model n62.cellml and save it into your cloned workspace folder created above. To verify that the model works, you can load it into the OpenCOR single cell view and simulate the model for 5000 ms. You can plot the variable V in the membrane component and you should see results as shown below:

Figure 4.3: The arrows highlight the Ending point which should be set to 5000 ms and the variable V to be plotted.

As long as your results look similar to the above, everything is working as expected. Now is a good time to add the CellML model to the workspace record. The first step is to choose the TortoiseHG → Add Files... option from the context menu for your workspace folder (1).

This will bring up the hg add dialog box, showing the files which can be added (in this case only the n62.cellml file is available and it is selected by default). Clicking the Add button (2) will inform Mercurial that you want to add the selected file to the workspace.

In Windows Explorer, you will see the file icon for the n62.cellml model now overlaid with the Mercurial + icon (3) to indicate that you have added the file but not yet committed it to the workspace.

You can now commit the added file to the workspace by choosing Hg Commit... from the context menu in your workspace folder (4).

This will bring up the commit dialog, which lets you explore and select all the possible changes in this workspace that you can commit. In this case, there is just the addition of the n62.cellml file to be committed. Before committing, a useful log message should be entered - this will help you keep track of the changes you make to the workspace and possibly the reasons for why a given set of changes were made (for example, due to feedback from reviewers). After entering the log message, click the Commit button to commit the changes (5). The dialog will stay visible in case you have further changes to commit, but in this case you can just close the dialog.

Once you have successfully committed the change, you will see that the icon for the n62.cellml file has now changed to a green tick (6) to indicate that the file is up-to-date with no modifications.

Command line equivalent

```
hg add n62.cellml
hg commit -m "Adding an initial copy of the Noble (1962) cardiac cellular electrophysiology model"
```
Chapter 4. Developing the Virtual Physiological Human
4.1. Creating a new piece of work

4. Creating a new piece of work

5. Committing the changes

6. Checking the files in the Downloads folder
While we have the model open in OpenCOR, we should have a go at annotating some of the variables in the model. Full instructions for this can be found in the OpenCOR CellML annotation view. First, we will follow the example given in those instructions for annotating the sodium_channel component.

The first step is to switch to the Editing mode (1) and select the sodium_channel component for annotation (2). We will be using the bio:isVersionOf as the qualifier for this annotation (3) and searching for terms related to sodium (4).

We can then add desirable terms from the search results by choosing the + button beside the term to add to the annotations for the sodium_channel component (5).

Have a play annotating other variables and components in the model. When done annotating, make sure to save the model (File → Save). With the CellML model updated, now is a good time to commit the changes to the
workspace.

As above, choose `Hg Commit...` from the context menu in your workspace folder to bring up the Mercurial commit dialog. This time you will see that there is one file modified that can be committed, `n62.cellml` (1). As we mentioned previously, it is important to enter a good log message to keep a record of the changes you make (2), and the changes made to the currently selected file are shown to help remind you as to your changes (3). In this case, OpenCOR has made many changes to the whitespace in the file, as well as adding the RDF annotations at the bottom of the file.

![Screenshot of the commit dialog](image)

**Command line equivalent**

```
hg diff
hg commit -m "Using OpenCOR to add some annotations to my copy of the Noble 1962 model."
```

**Push back to the repository**

Having added content and performed some modifications, it is time to push the changes back to the model repository, achieved in TortoiseHG with the synchronization action. First, select `TortoiseHG → Synchronize` from the context menu for your workspace folder.

This will bring up the `TortoiseHG Sync` dialog. In this dialog, you will see that by default you will be synchronizing with the workspace on the teaching repository from which you originally created this clone. This is usually what you want to do, but it is possible to synchronize with other Mercurial repositories. In this case, we want to push the changes we have made to the model repository, so choose the corresponding action from the toolbar (highlighted below).

Once you choose the push action, you will be asked to confirm that you want to push to your remote repository and then asked for your username and password (these are the credentials you created when registering for an account in the model repository). You will then see a listing of the transaction as your changes are pushed to the repository and a message stating the push has completed.

**Command line equivalent**

```
hg push
```

If you now return to browsing your workspace in your web browser, and refresh the page, you will see that your workspace now has some content - `n62.cellml` - and if you view the workspace history you will see the log messages that you entered when committing your changes above.

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Now might be a good time to think about *sharing your workspace* with your neighbors. You might also want to have a look at creating an *exposure* for your workspace. To learn how to create exposures, please refer to *Creating CellML exposures*.

### 4.1.3 A new image segmentation study

In this part of the tutorial, we use the *MAP client* software to create a new workflow which will take a set of images, from the model repository, and apply an automated image segmentation algorithm to them which will produce a data point cloud.

Before beginning this tutorial, you need to have the MAP client installed on your machine. Please follow the *MAP Installation and Setup Guide*.

The remainder of this tutorial can be found in the MAP documentation, *MAP Tutorial - Create Workflow*.

### 4.1.4 Best practice tips

Todo

Complete this section

- Creating a new piece of work from scratch -> encouraging best practices!
  - create workspace, commit often, useful log messages
  - provenance data (making sure user name/ID is set correctly)
  - share directly with collaborators
  - annotation?
  - creating exposures? link through to PMR documentation...

### 4.2 Reproducing published data

In the Physiome Model Repository (PMR), a complete piece of work is stored in a *workspace*. Each workspace is a *Mercurial* repository, which allows PMR to maintain a complete history of all changes made to every file it contains. In this tutorial, we take you through the process of reproducing an existing piece of “published” work - commonly, the first stage in establishing a new project which builds on previous discoveries.

#### 4.2.1 Reproducing model behavior in OpenCOR

In this tutorial, we will be demonstrating how to reproduce the results from a CellML model as they were originally published. Because the Physiome Model Repository makes use of *Mercurial*, even if a *workspace* has continued being developed after a particular revision is published, we are able to step back through the workspace history to reproduce those original published results.

Following on from the previous tutorial, we make use of the Noble (1962) cardiac cellular electrophysiology model. In this tutorial, we will use the version of this model published in the CellML model repository and available here: http://models.cellml.org/e/174. If you navigate from that *exposure* to the *workspace* you can check the history as shown below.

As you can see highlighted in the *Exposure* column of the history above, there are two exposures for this workspace. For the purposes of this tutorial, we will assume that the earlier exposure corresponds to a study that has been published in a scientific journal. The later exposure is the result of further work on this model following the publication of the journal article. The later exposure illustrates the difference between these two versions of the model. In this tutorial, we aim to reproduce the results as shown in the published journal article - corresponding to the earlier exposure.
Important: It is essential to use a Mercurial client to obtain models from the repository for editing. The Mercurial client is not only able to keep track of all the changes you make (allowing you to back-track if you make any errors), but using a Mercurial client is the only way to add any changes you have made back into the repository.

Cloning an existing workspace

The first step is to clone the workspace containing the model we want to work with. The steps to clone a workspace were demonstrated in the previous tutorial. In summary:

1. Copy the source URI for Mercurial clone/push/pull (i.e., http://models.cellml.org/w/andre/embc13-n62);
2. Clone the repository (TortoiseHG → Clone or hg clone [uri]) to a folder on your machine.

Check the model

Now that we have the model, we want to ensure that we are able to produce the current results that it should produce. Load the n62.cellml file in the newly cloned folder into OpenCOR and run a simulation for 5000 ms and plot the membrane potential, V. This should result in a similar graph to that shown in the upper figure of the exposure page, reproduced here for convenience.

Notice that in the 5000 ms simulation there are five action potentials.

Revert to an earlier version of the model

Now that we are happy the current version of the model reproduces the results that it should, we want to go back to the version of the model that was published in a journal article. This is commonly required because the new work you might want to do with the model will be based on the published model, not its latest version which may have deviated from the validated model which was published.

Using Mercurial, there are several methods by which you can jump around the history of a workspace. The particular method that works best depends a lot on what you want to do with the workspace once you change back to a revision that is not the most recent. Searching the internet for information on the Mercurial (hg) commands: revert, update, and branch; is probably a good place to start working out which is best for your situation. In this case, we have a fairly simple requirement to go back to the revision prior to the current one so that we can
reproduce some simulation results. If we were actually going to do further development in this workspace, we
would need a more elaborate solution than that described below.

Here, we need to update our local clone of the workspace to a state matching the published journal article. In
order to do this, we need to find the appropriate revision identifier to use with our Mercurial client. We can find
the revision identifier by navigating to the workspace history tab in the model and choosing the [files] link for the
revision corresponding to the earlier exposure, shown below.

From the files page, you will see the required revision identifier as highlighted in the image below.

You should copy this identifier to the clipboard ready for use in the next step. In your local clone of the workspace,
select TortoiseHG → Update... from the context menu. This will bring up the Update dialog.

In this dialog, you should paste the revision identifier copied above into the Update to: field (1) and then click the
Update button (2).

4.2. Reproducing published data
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Command line equivalent

hg update -r 9cad4365b0b8

You will now see in your local clone that the files have reverted back to that previous version. Loading this version of n62.cellml into OpenCOR and simulating for 5000 ms should result in the figure matching that presented in the earlier exposure page and reproduced here for convenience.

Note in particular that there should now be the same six action potentials that were present in the published version of the model.

4.2.2 Recreating a published image segmentation study

In the previous MAP tutorial you created a new workflow for segmenting a set of images. In this scenario, we imagine that someone has previously published a similar study also using the MAP client and PMR. You can see an exposure for such an example here: http://teaching.physiomeproject.org/e/190/. In this tutorial, we use the MAP client to reproduce this study.

Import workflow

To recreate this published workflow, we need to import it into the MAP client. To do this, in the MAP client select File → Import. This first step is to provide a folder in which to store the workflow on your local machine. You should create a new folder for this workflow. You will then be presented with the MAP PMR tool, you will need to make sure you have registered the MAP client with PMR. In the PMR tool you are able to search for the workflow you would like to import from the repository. In this case, search for the term autosegmenter (1). You will see there is only one result (2) which you should select and the click the OK button.

This will import the workflow from the repository to your local folder and you should then see the workflow as shown in the exposure page referenced above. If you have the MAP client and plugins all working correctly, clicking Execute should result in an interactive view of the segmented data, as also shown on the exposure page referenced above.

Note: When saving changes in the MAP client currently, they are automatically saved to the workspace and pushed to the repository. In this example you will not have permission to push into the repository. This is a known limitation in the MAP client at present.
4.2.3 Best practice tips

Some tips for best practice:

- It is essential to use a Mercurial client to obtain models from the repository for editing. The Mercurial client is not only able to keep track of all the changes you make (allowing you to back-track if you make any errors), but using a Mercurial client is the only way to add any changes you have made back into the repository. Some tools, like MAP, will hide the Mercurial details from the user.

- By making your work publicly available in standard formats you significantly enhance the ability of other scientists to make use of your work. Similarly, when embarking on a new study it is worth checking the various repositories for existing work that you might be able to build on - such work should normally be discovered during a literature search.

4.3 Find an existing piece of work and extend it

In the preceeding tutorials, you have learnt how to create a new piece of work from scratch using the Physiome Model Repository and how to reproduce a “published” result. In this tutorial, we will demonstrate how to take an existing piece of work, stored in a public workspace, and develop it further to address a new goal.

4.3.1 Extending an existing CellML model

In this part of the tutorial, we will once again be making use of the Noble (1962) cardiac cellular electrophysiology model. We will be taking the model and making changes to alter its behaviour. For this, we will be using the version of the model published in the teaching instance of the repository: http://teaching.physiomeproject.org/e/183, but the process described below will also work in the main repository site.

Forking an existing workspace

Important: It is essential to use a Mercurial client to obtain models from the repository for editing. The
Mercurial client is not only able to keep track of all the changes you make (allowing you to back-track if you make any errors), but using a Mercurial client is the only way to add any changes you have made back into the repository.

For this tutorial, we will fork an existing workspace. This creates a new workspace owned by you, containing a copy of all the files in the workspace you forked including their complete history. This is equivalent to cloning the workspace, creating a new workspace for yourself, and then pushing the contents of the cloned workspace into your new workspace.

Forking a workspace can be done using the Physiome Model Repository web interface. The first step is to find the workspace you wish to fork. We will use the EMBC 2013 Tutorial - Noble 1962 workspace from the exposure referenced above, which can be found at: http://teaching.physiomeproject.org/workspace/182.

Now click on the fork option in the toolbar, as shown below (1).

You will be asked to confirm the fork action by clicking the Fork button (2). You will then be shown the page for your forked workspace.

Cloning your forked workspace

In order to make changes to your workspace, you have to clone it to your own computer. To do this, follow the procedure as described in the earlier tutorial.

Quieting the self excitation

The version of the Noble 1962 model you have just forked and cloned is a model of a Purkinje fibre cell. These cells are capable of acting as pacemaker cells, although usually entrained by the sinoatrial node of the heart. The Noble model reproduces this behavior but is also able to simulate a non-pacing version of the cell model. This is accomplished by decreasing the potassium current which gives rise to the gradual depolarization of the member potential seen the figures from OpenCOR for the model in the previous tutorials. Once the cell is in a quiescent state, we are able to then apply an electrical stimulus to impose our own pacing regime.

If you load the n62.cellml file from the workspace you have just cloned into OpenCOR, set the duration of the simulation to 5000 ms, and plot the membrane potential $V$, you will be able to see the effect of altering the value of the variable $g_{K_{add}}$ in the parameters component. As you increase this value you should see the resting potential decrease and the abolition of the self-exciting mechanism. A value of 0.001 mS_per_mmsq keeps the resting potential in the physiological range and makes the cell quiescent.

The version of OpenCOR we are using in this tutorial will not save the modified parameter value, so you will need to open the n62.cellml file in a text editor and make the change manually. In your text editor search for the $g_{K_{add}}$ variable in the parameters component, as shown below.

Set the initial_value attribute to the value you determined most suitable in OpenCOR. Reload the model into OpenCOR to confirm that the results are as expected, hopefully something similar to those shown below.

Now would be a good time to commit your changes to your clone of the workspace.
Adding an electrical stimulation protocol

Now that we have a quiescent version of the Noble (1962) model, we are able to consider adding our own electrical stimulation protocol. If you open your current version of the n62.cellml document in your text editor again, you will see a component with the name stimulus_protocol as shown below.

As you can see in this snippet of the XML source, there is a stimulus current variable, IStim, which is given a value of 0.0 uA_per_mm2. In this extension to the model we will replace this simple assignment of no stimulus current with a definition of a periodic applied stimulus. The code example below shows one way to encode such a periodic stimulus current in CellML.

```xml
<component cmeta:id="stimulus_protocol" name="stimulus_protocol">
  <variable name="IStim" public_interface="out" units="uA_per_mmsq"/>
  <variable name="time" public_interface="in" units="ms"/>
  <variable name="stimPeriod" initial_value="750" units="ms"/>
  <variable name="stimDuration" initial_value="1" units="ms"/>
  <variable name="stimCurrent" initial_value="400" units="uA_permmc"/>
  <variable name="Am" initial_value="200" units="per_mm"/>
  <math xmlns="http://www.w3.org/1998/Math/MathML">
    <apply id="stimulus_calculation"><eq /></apply>
    <ci>IStim</ci>
    <piecewise><piece>
      <apply><divide/>
      <ci>stimCurrent</ci>
      <ci>Am</ci>
      </apply>
      <apply><lt/>
      <apply><rem/>
      <ci>time</ci>
      <ci>stimPeriod</ci>
      </apply>
      <ci>stimDuration</ci>
      </apply>
    </piece>
    <otherwise><cn cellml:units="uA_per_mmsq">0.0</cn></otherwise>
  </piecewise>
</component>
```

4.3. Find an existing piece of work and extend it
In the above example, we have introduced some new variable to control the frequency, duration, and magnitude of the applied stimulus current. If you replace the `stimulus_protocol` component in the `n62.cellml` model with the one above, you are able to load the new version of the model into OpenCOR and have a play with those variables to ensure they are behaving as expected. Note: you may need to set the Maximum step for CVODE to 0.1 or change to the Forward Euler integrator in OpenCOR to ensure that your specified stimulus is correctly detected by the numerical integration scheme.

Now would be a good time to commit your changes to your clone of the workspace and push them back to the model repository. You might also want to think about sharing your workspace with your neighbors or to have a look at creating an exposure for your workspace. To learn how to create exposures, please refer to Creating CellML exposures.

### 4.3.2 Wrapping your favorite tool as a MAP client plugin

The MAP framework is a very general purpose workflow-based tool. By taking advantage of the collaborative development and sharing features of the Physiome Model Repository, you have seen in the previous MAP tutorial how it is possible to share your work in a manner that makes it easy for other scientists to utilise and extend.

With the plugin approach used by the MAP client software, it is possible to wrap you favorite software tools to make them available as steps in a MAP workflow. For example, the previous tutorials have made use of the Zinc visualisation and field manipulation library.

The process of developing a MAP plugin is beyond the scope of this tutorial. If you are interested, there is the beginnings of some documentation for this process which will be developing in the near future. There is also a skeleton plugin that comes the MAP client software (in the plugins folder) which serves as the starting point for developing any new plugin and the github project which will contain a collection of MAP plugins. If you are interested in developing a plugin or would like help wrapping your favorite tool as a workflow step, please don’t hesitate to contact the MAP team (or talk to Hugh today!).

### 4.3.3 Best practice tips

Todo

Complete this section

Creating a new piece of work from scratch -> encouraging best practices!

- create workspace, commit often, useful log messages
- provenance data (making sure user name/ID is set correctly)
- share directly with collaborators
- annotation?
- creating exposures? link through to PMR documentation...?
Related Software Project at the Auckland Bioengineering Institute

Contents:

5.1 Cmgui user documentation

This documentation provides an overview of the functionality of the cmgui application, as well as some information about the architecture of the software, and some of the concepts behind the visualizations. This documentation is current for cmgui version 2.9.0.

5.1.1 Migration documentation for users of previous versions

Some of the changes in recent versions of cmgui will cause some old commands to break - changes may need to be made to some old command files. Below are links to documents detailing these changes.

Changes in recent versions

Migrating to Cmgui 2.8

Scenes and graphics filters  The biggest change in cmgui 2.8 is that graphics are now associated with regions and not stored in a separate ‘scene graph’. The Scene Editor displays the region tree, and each region has a graphical ‘rendition’ consisting of a list of graphics (lines, surfaces, node_points etc.) which visualize the fields of that region. This change should not affect most users, because previous versions of cmgui made the scene graph mirror the flat list of regions and groups used in most models and the commands to set up these graphics should work as before.

However, if your command file created new scenes (or modified certain attributes of scene ‘default’), or your model consisted of more than just a simple list of regions and groups (i.e. regions within regions within the root region) you will need to make some changes.

Rendition or ‘graphical element’  Since graphics now belong to a region, the commands to create them now take the region path instead of the name of the ‘graphical element’ (now termed ‘rendition’) on a particular scene:

gfx modify g_element REGION_PATH ...

Argument scene NAME is now redundant and ignored. Since the automatic name for the ‘g_element’ was the region or group name, most previous commands work as before.
Scenes
Scenes remain as the objects determining which graphics are displayed in a window or exported by various commands. However they are considerably simplified in that their main attributes are (1) the top region they show graphics for and (2) A graphics ‘filter’ object which controls which graphics from the region tree are visible (see later).

The command for creating or modifying a scene is as follows:

Usage : gfx define scene ??
        SCENE_NAME
        <add_light LIGHT_NAME|none|none>
        <region PATH_TO_REGION[/]>
        <remove_light LIGHT_NAME|none|none>
        <filter GRAPHICS_FILTER_NAME|none|none>

(gfx modify scene is the same as gfx define scene. Note future plans are to remove lights from scenes and list them as special graphics as part of a rendition.)

The gfx create scene command has been removed because invariably the command file must be manually updated to replace it, and it is now no longer necessary to create ‘child’ scenes to make hierarchical graphics. Cmgui developers are happy to help with migration.

Graphics filters
Graphics filters are new objects which control which graphics are shown in a scene. Each filter has a criterion for matching attributes of a graphic or region/rendition, and if the result is true the graphic is shown. The initial graphics types include:

- matching visibility flags
- matching graphic name
- matching (within) region path
- logical operator OR
- logical operator AND

Furthermore, all criteria can be inverted to create logical not:

Usage : gfx define graphics_filter ??
        GRAPHICS_FILTER_NAME
        * Filter to set up what will be and what will not be
          included in a scene. The optional inverse_match flag
          will invert the filter’s match criterion. The behaviour
          is to show matching graphic with the matching criteria.
          * <match_graphic_name> filters graphic with the matching
            name. <match_visibility_flags> filters graphic with
            the setting on the visibility flag. <match_region_path>
            filters graphic in the specified region or its subregion.
            * <operator_or> filters the scene using the logical operation
              ‘or’ on a collective of filters. <operator_and> filters
              the scene using the logical operation ‘and’ on a collective
              of filters. Filters created earlier can be added or
              removed from the <operator_or> and <operator_and> filter.

The default filter matches the familiar visibility flags of the region/rendition and each graphic:

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gfx define graphics_filter default normal_match match_visibility_flags;

The following makes a filter that shows all graphics satisfying the above default OR if graphics is named “bob”:

gfx define graphics_filter bob normal_match match_graphic_name "bob";
gfx define graphics_filter default_or_bob normal_match operator_or add_filters default bob;
gfx define scene default filter default_or_bob;

Note it is easy for us to add new filter types as needed by users.

Drawing static graphics  Cmgui now associates all graphics with a region rather than a separate ‘scene graph’,
so all previous commands to create and draw ‘static’ graphics on a scene are removed or changed. The equivalent
functionality is achieved by adding a ‘point’ graphic to a region rendition in the scene editor, which can show any
glyph with controllable scale, offset, material and optional label. The commands for reproducing the graphics can
be obtained using gfx list g_element REGION_PATH commands.

• gfx create axes now just writes a migration note as it is redundant. Several axes objects are predefined
in the glyph list to be used with point graphics. See comment on gfx draw below.

• gfx create annotation has been removed. You must now define a string field in the respective re-
gion with the required text (gfx define field ![REGION_PATH/]NAME string constant
"Your text here") and use it as a label, probably with glyph none, on a point graphic.

• gfx create colour_bar works as before but the colour bar is now put in the list of glyphs able to be
shown with any point graphic.

• gfx create lines/surfaces/node_points ... have been removed altogether. You must now use
gfx modify g_element REGION_PATH lines/surfaces/node_points ....

• ‘gfx draw’ now creates a point graphic in the root region rendition with the glyph matching the graphics
name specified. If you had previously created axes with the default name “axes” it finds the glyph however
the scaling, offset and material are lost: edit these in the scene editor. The scene is ignored by this command
so you will need to make changes if you were drawing to multiple scenes, particularly an overlay scene (see
migration notes for overlay graphics below).

• ‘gfx erase’ has been removed.

Overlay graphics and coordinate systems  Previous versions of cmgui required an ‘overlay scene’ attribute to
be set for each graphics window. Any graphics drawn in the selected overlay scene were drawn in a window-
relative coordinate system on that window.

This has been replaced by a far simpler and more powerful mechanism. Each graphic in the scene editor has a
‘graphics coordinate system’ which can be:

• LOCAL = subject to the graphical transformations of the renditions in the region tree relative to world (the
default).

• WORLD = in the world coordinate system of the top region of the scene

• NORMALISED_WINDOW_FILL = ranges from ![−1,+1] across all dimension of window so distorting if
window is non-square. This was the mode used by the overlay scene.

• NORMALISED_WINDOW_FIT_LEFT/RIGHT/BOTTOM/TOP = ranges from ![−1,+1] in the largest
square fitting in the window, aligned to the specified side. Non-distorting so preferable to NOR-
MALISED_WINDOW_FILL.

• WINDOW_PIXEL_BOTTOM_LEFT/TOP_LEFT = In screen pixels from (0,0) at the specified origin of
the window, with +x to the right, +y up. TOP_LEFT has negative y coordinates on screen.

Choosing any window-relative coordinate system causes the graphic to be drawn as an overlay, i.e. on top of all
non-overlay graphics, on rendering windows. Window-relative graphics cannot be exported to VRML and other
formats without a viewport.
Future plans are to allow layers to be specified independently from the graphics coordinate system, with layers ‘background’, ‘default’ and ‘overlay’ predefined and the ability to add more layers and control whether the depth buffer is cleared between layers.

Removal of ‘general settings’ for graphics  In previous versions of cmgui, the graphical rendition of a region (g_element commands) had a set of ‘general settings’ controlling the ‘discretisation’ (number of line segments used to approximate curved element boundaries), and also a default coordinate field to apply to graphics which do not have the coordinate field specified.

For cmgui 2.8 all these general settings have been removed and must be specified for each graphic in the rendition. This has the benefit of allowing different graphics to use different discretisations, which are now set via ‘tessellation’ objects (see later).

To minimize migration issues, all previous gfx modify g_element REGION_PATH general ... options are read and become defaults for subsequent g_element commands to add graphics. If the general ‘element_discretization’ attribute is set then on creating new graphics requiring a tessellation it finds or creates one giving the same effect as the discretization; it will have an automatically generated name such as ‘temp2’. Changing these general options now has no effect on graphics that have already been created. The only non-deprecated g_element general command option is to clear all graphics from the rendition.

Note that region renditions still have transformation attributes which give the 4x4 transformation from local to parent coordinate systems.

Tessellation  Tessellation objects have been introduced to replace the general ‘element_discretization’ attribute and solve several problems:

- they allow any number of graphics – and not just from the same region – to share tessellation settings, allowing graphics quality across complicated model visualisations to be changed from a few controls.
- they allow tessellation quality to automatically switch from minimum for linear basis functions to fine for non-linear bases and coordinate systems. (Note: bilinear and trilinear Lagrange are considered linear even though they have a few quadratic or cubic product terms.)
- we anticipate adding more options in future e.g. adaptive curvature-dependent triangulation, but graphics will still only require one object to be chosen.

However, tessellation objects do not solve one problem, that choosing a very large number causes Cmgui to lock up while all affected graphics are regenerated: take care when setting large values!

Note that elements_points and streamlines do not have a tessellation object set by default. Instead they have a separate fixed ‘discretization’ setting which defaults to “1*1*1” (i.e. 1 point or streamline per element), but you may add a tessellation which then acts as a multiplier on the discretization. The optional native_discretization field also acts as a multiplier.

Commands for defining tessellations are:

Usage : gfx define tessellation ??

TESSELLATION_NAME
  * Defines tessellation objects which control how finite elements are subdivided into graphics. The minimum_divisions option gives the minimum number of linear segments approximating geometry in each xi dimension of the element. If the coordinate field of a graphic uses non-linear basis functions the minimum_divisions is multiplied by the refinement_factors to give the refined number of segments. Both minimum_divisions and refinement_factors use the last supplied number for all higher dimensions, so "4" = "4*4" and so on.

<minimum_divisions "####..."["1"]{>=0}>
<refinement_factors "####..."["1"]{>=0}>

You can also list all available tessellations with:
gfx list tessellation

The default tessellation exists from start-up, but can be edited:

gfx define tessellation default minimum_divisions "1" refinement_factors "4";

A tessellation editor dialog can be opened by clicking on the “Edit...” button beside the tessellation chooser in the scene editor.

Migrating to Cmgui 2.9

In the 2.9.0 release, significant changes have been made to the way ‘groups’ are handled. We have also removed the automatic creation of default lines on reading a model.

While we’ve taken every effort to minimise the impact of the changes, usually by making commands do the nearest equivalent behaviour, some breaks are unavoidable. So if your command files are not working as before, please try to see why in the following explanation, but if that doesn’t help, see the Cmgui development team. As always, if you find what looks like a bug in the software, please report it on our tracker.

Removal of ‘group regions’

Background  A Cmgui model is made up of a tree of objects called regions, each of which owns a set of nodes, elements, data points (an extra set of nodes) and fields defined on them, plus 0 or more child regions. Regions are like the folders in a file system; fields (and other ‘intra region’ objects such as sets of nodes and meshes) are like files in the folder. The root region is denoted by ‘/’, and region names in a path are separated by ‘/’.

A ‘group’ is a subset of the nodes, elements and data points owned by a region. Prior to this release, each group was created as a pseudo region, what we called a ‘group region’. This meant they looked like a region except they contained a subset of the objects of the parent/master region, and listed all fields of the master region (but could only address those defined over its subset). This also meant every group could individually have graphics associated with it. For users, the downsides of group regions were that they hid away the definitions of their subgroups so it was not possible to intersect or union them in field expressions, it was not possible to make invisible subgroups (they all had a graphical rendition), and it was impossible to make hierarchical groups and groups containing whole regions. For developers they have been a maintenance hazard and a feature we did not wish to expose to our API.

The Change  From Cmgui 2.9, groups are implemented as fields. A group field returns 1 at any location in the domain (at nodes, in elements etc.) which is in the group, 0 elsewhere. From the API you can add the whole region to a group, but this is not available through gfx commands. Group fields can have subregion groups in child regions, so a group tree can contain an arbitrary subset of a region tree. The group field can have zero or more ‘subobject group fields’ representing subsets of specific object types that are present in the group, each of which give the value 1 on the respective object type in the group, 0 otherwise. For example, if you read cube example a2 and write “gfx list fields” you will now see 5 new fields:

cube : group = generic group object
cube.cmiss_mesh_1d : sub_group_object = subset of "cmiss_mesh_1d" in group cube
cube.cmiss_mesh_2d : sub_group_object = subset of "cmiss_mesh_2d" in group cube
cube.cmiss_mesh_3d : sub_group_object = subset of "cmiss_mesh_3d" in group cube
cube.cmiss_nodes : sub_group_object = subset of "cmiss_nodes" in group cube

Note:  In several new commands, “cmiss_nodes” is the name you use to reference the set of nodes in the region, “cmiss_data” references the set of data points, and “cmiss_mesh_Nd” references the 1, 2 and 3-D meshes owned by that region. In future we anticipate allowing any number of meshes to be created with their own names.

Since Cmgui 2.8, when you select objects in the graphics window, you are making a group which is automatically given the name “cmiss_selection”, and any selected objects are added to subobject groups coordinated under it. For example, selecting a face element of the cube creates:
There is now only one type of group; the previous group regions and the selection have been merged into the same class.

**Prefer Regions to Groups** Shortly we will explain several of the workarounds that make most existing command files work as before, most of the time. But first we wish to recommend using regions instead of groups whenever possible, and if you can do this your command files will likely work just as before. Needlessly using a group means all your objects are listed twice, once for the region and once for the group, which consumes more memory. To migrate to regions, just change lines in EX files from:

```
Group name: NAME
```

to (and the leading "/" is required):

```
Region: /NAME
```

(The Region can have a full path e.g. /bob/fred; the group is just a name which is within the namespace of the surrounding region. At the start of parsing EX files, the file’s root region “/” is active.)

Another approach is to specify the region on the read command “gfx read node/element/data region PATH”, but bear in mind this will continue to create groups at the named path. This effectively maps the file’s root region to the named region.

**Warning:** Be aware that there are still cases where you can’t use regions, so continued use of groups will be necessary:

1. Whenever several element groups share common nodes. Elements can only reference nodes from the same region.
2. Certain features such as the compose/find_mesh_location fields that do not work inter-region.

We certainly wish to remedy these in time. We need to hear user input about what functionality they need to work between regions.

**Possible breaks with the removal of group regions** 1. Groups no longer have a rendition

Each region has a ‘rendition’ which is the set of graphics for visualising its fields. When groups were presented as regions, they too had their own rendition. We now interpret existing commands in the form:

```
gfx modify g_element [REGION_PATH]/GROUP_NAME ...
```

as:

```
gfx modify g_element [REGION_PATH]/ ... subgroup GROUP_NAME
```

Hence the graphics now belong to the parent region. All graphics now have an optional subgroup field and when supplied only shows primitives for which the field is non-zero. Hence the new group fields are all usable, but so is any other scalar field expressions (e.g. less_than(mag(coordinates), 100.0)). When you re-list graphics with “gfx list g_element” you will see the new form. Note: this also replaces the “visibility_field” option on node_points and data_points so you will need to rename this.

The “gfx modify g_element [REGION_PATH]/GROUP_NAME” command clears only graphics using the group of the GROUP_NAME as the subgroup field. Beware that clearing the graphics of the parent region will also clear those referencing any subgroup.

2. Groups no longer have a rendition, hence have no individual ‘default’ arguments

Cmgui 2.8 (the last public release) deprecated all arguments to the “general” command for modifying graphics except for the clear command.

```
gfx modify g_element PATH general clear default_coordinate NAME element_discretization “##...” ...
```
To keep old command files working, the options specified in the g_element command are stored and used as defaults when new graphics are created. With the removal of group regions, these no longer have independent defaults from each other and from the parent region. Continuing to rely on these defaults can produce spurious results; Cmgui now warns whenever these defaults change.

Conclusion: always prefer to specify coordinate field, tessellation object etc. for each individual graphic. Never use the general defaults: remove them from your command files.

3. Groups no longer have a rendition, hence no transformation

Each region rendition has a transformation attribute which transforms all graphics relative to the parent region rendition, but groups no longer have either. There is no workaround here except to use a child region instead. Please talk to Cmgui developers if you have particular needs here.

4. Can’t have a group and field of same name

Groups are now fields, and no two fields can have the same name. You will have to change the name of one of them.

Workaround for particular commands  A number of commands inconsistently use the keyword region or group followed by a region path. Many of these commands have been migrated to identity if the path is to a group and work with it as before, however, we haven’t fixed the inconsistent keywords.

1. gfx create|modify dgroup|ngroup|egroup

These all create or modify the new group fields but should otherwise work as before. Foregroup these now have an option to manage_subobjects which means when you add an element to the group, all faces, lines and nodes are added to the related group. This is the default so as to reproduce previous behaviour, but can also be turned off by specifying <no_manage_subobjects> (as managing subobjects is expensive and may be unnecessary).

2. gfx define field integration|xi_texture_coordinates

Added option to specify mesh as cmiss_mesh_1d, cmiss_mesh_2d or cmiss_mesh_3d, or group_name.cmiss_mesh_Nd for a subset of the mesh. Removed region option since node must be from current region.

3. gfx define field nodal_lookup|quaternion_SLERP

Removed region option since node must be from current region. Added option to specify nodeset cmiss_nodes|cmiss_data, so a node or data point can be used.

4. gfx list data|elements|faces|lines|nodes

Added conditional FIELD_NAME option. Use a group field as the conditional to list only objects in the group (previously used region path).

5. gfx list dgroup|egroup|ngroup

Removed. Use gfx list data|elements|faces|lines|nodes conditional GROUP_NAME instead. See point 4.

6. gfx list g_element

A new feature! Omit the region to list commands for all region renditions with new default recursive option. Default is now to list commands rather than the wordy description.

7. gfx list group

A new command: lists the groups in a region.

No default line graphics  Prior to this release, when you read in a model into cmgui, line graphics for all 1-D elements in any region under the root region were automatically added. However, lines were not added to regions created empty which included the root region itself. Particularly with the removal of ‘group regions’, there is no way that this behaviour can be sensibly maintained. The automatic lines feature was about as annoying to some users as it was beneficial to others.

5.1. Cmgui user documentation
Hence, we have removed this ‘feature’. Now, in order to see any model you read in, you must open the scene editor and manually add any graphics. After you have created graphics you may need to click ‘View All’ in the graphics window to ensure they are in view.

Some users’ command files will have been written assuming lines are automatically present; these now need to be modified to explicitly add lines, e.g. using the ‘gfx modify g_element PATH_TO_REGION lines coordinate NAME ...’. You can do this interactively by adding the lines in the scene editor and using this command to list all commands to reproduce the graphics for all regions:

```
gfx list g_element
```

Another partial workaround is to add lines to the root region after your model has been read:

```
gfx modify g_element "/" lines coordinate coordinates;
```

(or whatever your coordinate field is called.)

**Note:** Alternative approaches to creating a default view of a model have been investigated but they are complex, hence they haven’t been tried. However, we’d appreciate feedback and ideas from users in this area.

### Simplified creation of nodal derivatives

The specification of nodal derivatives and versions with commands:

```
gfx modify nodes|data ...
```

have been changed to match the derivative names and limitations of the external API, since this code has been changed to test the external API internally. Users needing the removed functionality (different derivatives and versions per component) should talk to the Cmgui developers.

### 5.1.2 Getting started with CMGUI

This section will introduce you to the capabilities of CMGUI, as well as how to install and begin using the software.

**Where to go for help**

There is a [large collection of examples](https://tracker.physiomeproject.org) which can be used to learn about the capabilities and operation of CMGUI. Issues with the software can be reported and discussed on the tracker, which is found at [https://tracker.physiomeproject.org](https://tracker.physiomeproject.org).

**What is CMGUI and what can it do?**

CMGUI is an advanced 3D visualization open source software package with modelling capabilities. It originated as part of CMISS, a collection of software for “Continuum Mechanics, Image processing, Signal processing and System identification”. CMISS includes cm, a closed-source application for finite element method computation and related computation. Historically CMGUI has been mostly used in conjunction with cm. OpenCMISS-Iron (www.opencmiss.org) is an open source project, currently under development, aiming to replace the closed source CMISS-cm.

A [gallery](https://open-cmissofficial.github.io/CMGUI-Gallery) demonstrating some of the uses of CMGUI is available.

Some of the main areas of functionality of CMGUI are as follows:

- 3D visualization of finite element and boundary element meshes
- Mesh creation
- Mathematical field visualization and manipulation
CMGUI is mainly controlled from its built in “command line” interpreter. Usually script files are read or commands are typed in the CMGUI command window to read in your mesh, create a 3D visualisation and manipulate it. Many tasks can also be accomplished by using the mouse to select options from various menus and dialogs. CMGUI has a large amount of functionality but it can be difficult for a new user to figure out what command to use to accomplish exactly what they want to do. Fortunately there are a large number of examples demonstrating the use of various different commands.

CMGUI is also used as part of the Zinc extension to Mozilla Firefox. The Zinc extension allows users to view Zinc applications and visualizations in Firefox. A Zinc application uses CMGUI for visualization while providing a nice customized user interface for a specific task. For example Zinc applications have been written to do the following:

- Interactively explore Colon endoscopy
- Explore the Physiome eye model
- Create data points to give a digital description of a geometry based on medical images.

Note that Zinc is compiled as a separate application from CMGUI. You do NOT have to install CMGUI to use Zinc. For more information on Zinc see http://www.cmiss.org/CMGUI/zinc.

Installation

CMGUI is currently available for download for a wide variety of platforms. You can download the appropriate executable for your operating system from the release centre.

CMGUI is quite a large application so the executable has been archived (tared) and compressed (zipped) to make it faster to download. Once you have downloaded the executable all you need to do is untar and unzip it and it is ready to run. On Linux you can untar and unzip the tar.gz file with the command:

```bash
tar -xf filename.tar.gz.
```

On Windows you will need 7Zip or something similar to unzip the file. You should now be able to run CMGUI by either clicking on the executable or by changing into the directory it is located in and then typing `./` followed by the name of the executable at the command prompt, eg. `./CMGUI-wx`. This will bring up the CMGUI command window interface.

For convenience it is a good idea to place the directory containing CMGUI into your PATH environmental variable. That way you will be able to run CMGUI without having to be in the directory that contains the executable. To do this on a Linux system you can specify your PATH variable in your `.profile` file. On Windows you can edit your PATH variable by right clicking on my computer and then selecting: properties, advanced, environment variables. Ask your local system administrator if you do not know how to edit the PATH variable for your operating system.

5.1.3 Introduction to CMGUI

CMGUI: The Windows

In order to become acquainted with the features of CMGUI, it is useful to run through some of the simple example files provided. CMGUI is a command line driven program, and all of its features are available via a command line interface - however, it also provides a more accessible GUI interface allowing many (but not all!) of these commands to be executed via a more familiar graphical interface. The interface is broken up into a number of windows that allow access to the different functions of the program. The first example will familiarise you with the most commonly used windows.

The CMGUI examples with thumbnails can be obtained from the CMISS website at http://cmiss.bioeng.auckland.ac.nz/development/examples/a/index_thumbs.html - These examples normally consist of a comfile and some other data files for creating a mesh.
Example a1 - Graphical Element Groups - Viewing a Cube

Load CMGUI to begin the first example. The first window that will present itself when loading CMGUI is the command window. This window has a selection of menus and three functional areas; a history area which shows commands that have been executed, a command line where commands may be entered directly, and an output area that shows the text output of any commands, including error and help messages.

In the file menu, select Open then Com file, then locate the example-a1.com file. This is a text file containing all the commands used in this example, as well as useful comments on what the various commands are doing. You will see the comfile window appear, displaying the file you have just loaded. All the lines that begin with a # character are explanatory comments, the rest are commands. The comfile window has three buttons at the bottom - the All button executes the entire comfile, while the Selected button will execute only selected portions. Close closes the comfile. Individual commands from the comfile can be executed by double clicking on them - notice that clicking to select a command in the comfile window makes that command appear in the command line panel in the command window, and clicking again then executes it. It is important to note that the order the commands are executed in can be important, especially in later examples, so click on the commands in the order they appear in the example comfile.

Double-click the first two commands in the comfile - a new window will appear, displaying a wireframe representation of a cube. This is the graphics window. You can rotate, zoom and translate the view of the cube in this window by holding down the left, right and middle mouse buttons respectively while moving the mouse in the display area. Have a go at moving the cube around, and click the perspective button on and off to see the difference it makes to the display. To reset the view, click the View All button.

Once you have run through all of the commands in this example (either by double-clicking them or by using the All button in the comfile window) you should have a blue, somewhat shiny cube, a set of blue axes, and red numbers at each corner of the cube. These are the numbers of the nodes, the points that make up the 3D model. Another window will also have appeared, called the Node Viewer. This window allows you to manipulate the data that define the nodes - in this case the corners of the cube. In the cube example, each node has a number and coordinates. You can click on each of these buttons (at this stage a small GUI bug means you need to manually resize the window after clicking) to show editable boxes containing the actual data contained in the nodes. This window therefore allows direct access to the node data for editing. If you edit coordinate data and click the Apply button, you will see changes in the shape of the cube in the graphics window.

Other Interface Windows: Editors

That is the end of the example file commands, but there are other windows you can now use to manipulate the cube shown in the graphics window. Go into the Graphics menu in the Command Window, and select Material editor. This brings up a window that allows you to create and edit materials, which define the appearance of objects in the graphics window. You can manipulate the colour, specularity (shininess), emitted light (glow), and alpha (transparency) of a material using this window. Your edited material is used to create the sphere in the preview panel at the bottom of the window - you may need to resize the window in order to get a good sized preview panel. Click on some of the already defined materials in the list at the top to see how they affect the preview sphere, then play around with the sliders to alter the material.

Click on the material bluey - this is the material used to show the faces of the cube in this first example, as defined in the comfile. Use the colour and property sliders to make it quite different; perhaps red and highly transparent, then click Apply to change the cube in the graphics window to your new material.

Now close the material editor and go to the Graphics menu, selecting Scene editor. The scene editor allows you to manipulate which objects appear in the graphics window, and how they are rendered. It also allows you to create new objects, as well as change their order in the scene, which is particularly important when rendering transparent objects. As a quick example of what can be done with this editor, select the lines setting in the settings list (shown selected below), and un-tick the check box. The white lines along the edges of the cube will disappear in the...
Figure 5.1: The CMGUI main window
Figure 5.2: The CMGUI graphics window
Figure 5.3: The CMGUI graphical material editor window
graphics window. Similarly, you can choose whether to show the cubes surfaces or the node numbers using the appropriate check boxes. You will notice that as you select settings (such as surfaces) in the settings list, their properties will appear in the settings editor below. Using this editor you can change a large number of the display properties of objects in the scene. There are many more important functions to this editor window which will be explained in more depth later.

Figure 5.4: The CMGUI scene editor window

5.1.4 CMGUI Architecture

Regions and Fields

The basic structural unit in CMGUI is called a region - region is a container for the objects representing a model. Regions own a set of fields and may contain child regions, thereby allowing a hierarchical model structure. For
example, you may have a “body” region that contains “heart”, “lung”, and “stomach” regions.

When you start CMGUI, a root region exists; this is an empty space into which other regions are loaded. When you load in exnode and exelem files, a new region will be created in the root region named for the group declared in the files. For example, if you were to load in heart.exnode and heart.exelem files which declare a group “heart” (via the line Group name: heart), a new region called “heart” would be created containing all the nodes, elements and fields defined in these files.

Each region contains a set of fields from which a model is built up. A field is a function that returns values over a domain; for example, the “potential” field could provide a value for the electrical potential of each point in the heart domain, which could be a finite element mesh. The geometry of the heart is itself defined by the coordinate field (this field is often called “coordinates” in our models). Finite element fields in CMGUI are generally defined by storing discrete parameters at nodes (eg the coordinates of the node, the electrical potential at each node) and interpolated across the \( \xi \) space spanned by elements to give the continuous field.

Other examples of fields include fibre orientation in the heart, temperature, pressure, material properties, strain and so on. In CMGUI you can also define fields that are computed from other fields. For example, you might define a field called “scaled_coordinates” by scaling coordinates \( x, y, \) and \( z \) to \( x, y, \) and \( 10z \), perhaps to exaggerate the height of topological features. You might also compute strain from deformed and undeformed coordinates, fibre axis from fibre Euler angles, and so on.

Other Data in CMGUI

The structure of the CMGUI command data (that is, the complete set of data used by CMGUI) is divided into a number of containers and categories. Besides the regions which contain fields, there are also the following lists and managers, which contain other data used to create visualizations:

- Scene manager - scenes contain definitions of how to display visualizations. The region created when you load exnode and exelem data (such as the heart region described above) is used to automatically create a graphical representation in scene “default” when loaded. Scenes contains either (1) graphical renditions of regions (2) graphics objects (3) child scenes.

- Graphical material manager - contains a list of graphical materials that can be applied to graphical representations or objects.

- Texture manager - contains a list of textures that can be used in material definitions or volume renderings, etc. Textures are 2D or 3D images.

- Spectrum manager - contains a list of spectra that can be used in material definitions. These control how the graphical material is changed when graphics are coloured by a data field.

- Graphics object list - contains simple graphics objects which are not tied to a model representation, but can be drawn in a scene. These can animate with time.

- Glyph list - contains glyphs that can be used to represent data points in the graphics window - such things as spheres, cubes, arrows, axes, points or lines. Objects from the graphics objects list may be added to the glyph list, in order to create customized glyphs.

CMGUI is not like most common software packages that can save a single file containing all of your work. In CMGUI, the data being worked on is often loaded in as a number separate files, and the editing of the visual representation of this data often does not change it; it only alters how it is represented in the 3D window. Currently, it is not possible to save your work in a single file that can be loaded in order to recreate all your work on the representation. For example; if you load in a model, change the viewpoint, alter the materials used to render it, and add glyphs to important data points, there is no way to simply “save” all of these changes in one file.

It is possible to save most of your work in CMGUI, using the menu item write all files. Go to the file menu, select write and then all files. You will be prompted to give names for a com file, exdata file, exnode file, and an exelem file. CMGUI will then prompt you for the name of a zip file to save all these separate files in. In this way it is possible to take a fairly complete “snapshot” of your work in CMGUI. This feature is undergoing improvement to make it more comprehensive.
5.1.5 CMGUI Command Window

This is the first window that appears when CMGUI is loaded. It consists of standard menus at the top, and three panels below. From top to bottom these are the history, command line, and output panels. The history panel is where all commands that have been executed are displayed. The second, single-line panel is the command line where commands may be entered directly. The lowermost panel is the output panel; this displays the text output of commands, error messages, as well as help information.

The history and output areas have scrollbars that allow you to view all of the contents of these panels. In the case of the history panel, this enables you to scroll back and click on commands - clicking on a command in the history panel will enter that command into the command line. This command can then be edited and executed. In the case of lengthy commands, this can save a lot of typing. Double-clicking on a command in the history window will execute it immediately.

The output panel is where any text output from commands or error messages appears. If something is not working in CMGUI, this panel is the first place to look for a reason. This panel also displays the help information when you execute a command with the ? or ?? argument.

Useful commands

To “save” a set of material settings:

gfx list material commands

Copy the resulting text and save it as a text file. You can use this to save any parts of the visualisation you have created - simply type:

gfx list ?

To get a list of the objects that can be listed with this command.

5.1.6 Visualizing element fields using contours (isosurfaces and isolines)

Contours are graphical representations used to visualize 3D or 2D objects that connect every point where the value of a certain field is the same. This idea is analogous to the contour lines on a map, where a line connects every point of a certain height. In 3D this means that a surface connects every point of a certain value. An example of this is in example a7 where an iso-surface is used to show the surface where every point is at 100 degrees Celsius. For a simpler example, example a2 shows the creation of an iso-surface at x=0.5 within the simple cube mesh.

Note: prior to Cmgui v3.0, contours were called isosurfaces.

Apart from the coordinate field, contours require the selection of the ‘iso-scalar field’ for which you want to visualise contours of constant value, and the iso-values you wish to see. Iso-values can be specied either by a space-separated list of explicit values, or as a sequence consisting of a number of values and the first and last value, with sampling evenly spaced between them.

As with surfaces, the detail level of iso-surfaces is determined by the selected tessellation setting in settings editor area of the scene editor (Figure 2). Iso-surfaces are drawn to connect points on the edges of the sub-element divisions where the iso-scalar matches the chosen value. With an tessellation setting of 1, an iso-surface will only connect points on the line edges of the element.
Figure 5.5: **Figure 2: How tessellation affects iso-surface detail:** The *tessellation* setting of the iso-surface sets the number of divisions in each xi direction within each element. Here, an iso-surface is used to connect every point within the element cube where “temperature” is 20. The “temperature” field is shown on the surface of the element cube using a spectrum in panel A. In B, the iso-surface is shown in wireframe (green) and a single face of the cube is divided up according to the *tessellation* setting. You can see that the iso-surface links the discretization divisions at points where the iso-scalar is at the chosen value. These intersections are indicated by yellow circles. Panel C shows how different *tessellation* settings affect this iso-surface; settings of 2, 3, 4, and 8 minimum divisions are shown.
5.1.7 CMGUI Fields

Fields in CMGUI: finite element models

CMGUI models are organized into regions, which may contain child regions, so that models can be organized into hierarchies. The representation of the model within each region is given by fields. Much of the power of CMGUI is in its generalized representation and manipulation of fields. Mathematically, a field is a function returning values at locations within its domain. Most commonly the values are real numbers, though they may be scalars or multi-component (vectors, tensors etc.).

Consider an object such as a solid cube over which a value like the temperature varies. We would represent this in CMGUI as a field “temperature” which is a function of location in the cube. A cube is a very simple geometry and it is easy to come up with a simple method to specify any location within it; for example the global x, y, z. But real geometries are seldom simple so we follow the finite element method and divide them up into simple shapes such as cubes, wedges, tetrahedra, etc. for 3D geometries; squares, triangles etc. for 2D geometries; lines for 1D geometries, and other shapes in other dimensions.

These finite elements have a local coordinate system of limited span, which is called an element chart. In cmmiss we commonly use the greek character xi (ξ) with subscript to denote each independent coordinate within an element, hence we will commonly refer to the chart of a given element as its ξ space. A 3-D cube element in CMISS/CMGUI has a range of 0 to 1 in each ξ direction, as shown in figure 1A.

![Coordinates and ξ space of a 3D element](image)

Figure 5.6: Figure 1: Coordinates and ξ space of a 3D element. A) This shows the unit cube ξ space, where each dimension of the element ranges from 0-1. It is easy to imagine that the coordinates of this cube could also be 0-1 in the x, y, and z axes. B) The cube element in this picture has been distorted, such that its coordinates are no longer 0-1 in the x, y, and z axes. Despite this, the element’s ξ values are still 0-1 in each ξ direction. This cube has a “temperature” field that is rendered as a rainbow spectrum.

We must define a coordinate field over the domain in order to give it its true position in 3-dimensional space. This applies even to the simple cube model: it can be treated as a unit cube in ξ space, but the coordinate field allows its real position to be transformed such that it is not aligned with the global coordinate system, and in fact can be generally distorted as shown in the figure 1B, above. About the only thing special about a coordinate field is that - provided it is of the same dimension as the element ξ space - it is usually bijective with it - this means if you have one you can find the other, eventually. (I say usually because the relation cannot generally be enforced: it is possible for coordinates of parts of the mesh to penetrate other parts of the mesh, including within a single element where the jacobian is zero or negative.)

A set of finite elements which make up a domain is called a mesh.
In CMGUI data structures we usually also define the faces of elements as separate elements of lower dimension, and share faces between adjacent elements. The faces of 3D “top-level” elements are called face elements, the faces of 2D elements are called line elements. The top-level elements, whether 3D or 2D (or nD) have unique integer element identifiers in their region. Face and line elements also have unique identifiers within their own type; in other words you can have element 1, face 1 and line 1 and they are not the same element.

The zero dimensional counterpart to elements and faces are called nodes. There is one set of nodes per region, again with their own unique integer identifiers. Nodes can be considered as a set of points at which fields are defined. When we define field functions over elements (finite element fields) we most commonly store explicit values and derivatives of the field at nodes and interpolate them across the element. To define such fields each element maintains a list of the nodes which contribute to fields in that element, called the local node list. The number and arrangement of nodes depends very much on the basis function used to compute the field value. Linear Lagrange and simplex basis functions are a simple, common case where nodes contain values of the field at the corners of elements, and these are linearly interpolated in the $\xi$ space between. Figure 2 shows the arrangements of faces, lines and nodes (for linear basis) for 3D and 2D elements.

Figure 5.7: Figure 2: How nodes, lines and faces make up a mesh The simple cube mesh again; nodes (yellow), elements (red), faces (green), and lines (blue) are numbered. A single cube element requires 8 nodes, 12 lines, and 6 faces.

Getting back to the original statement of what a field is, we can generally state that a domain is a set of 0..N-dimensional manifolds, i.e. there can be any number of manifolds of any dimension. In CMGUI finite element meshes, nodes supply the point manifolds and elements supply all the higher dimensional manifolds. There is no requirement for the domain to be connected. CMGUI fields are not limited to returning real numbers; there are
fields that can return integers, strings, element-ξ locations and other values.

**Computed fields**

We have now introduced the main building blocks of finite element fields which are just one type of field representation in CMGUI. In CMGUI we offer a large number of other field types which do not work directly with finite element meshes, but may be based on finite element fields. Most of these are mathematical operators which act on one or more source fields to produce a new field result.

A simple example is the add field which adds two other fields together to return a new field. The add field has two source fields as arguments. If you made field C which added finite element field A to finite element field B, the resulting field is defined over the intersection of the domains of field A and field B.

**Other types of field**

- **Arithmetic and transcendental functions**: Add, subtract, multiply, divide, sum_components, log, power, square root, exp.
- **Trigonometric functions**: sin, cos, tan, asin, acos, atan, atan2.
- **Derivative functions**: Derivative, divergence, gradient, curl.
- **Vector functions**: Dot_product.
- **Matrix functions**: Matrix_multiply, matrix_invert, transpose, projection, eigenvalues, eigenvectors, quaternion_to_matrix, matrix_to_quaternion.
- **Logical functions**: Less_than, greater_than.
- **Conditional functions**: If.
- **Constant fields**: Constant fields have a value which is independent of location within the domain. You may also have a constant field that is constant (non-varying) across chosen dimension/s but varies across other dimension/s.
• **Composite field:** Makes a new field built from other fields and field components in any order.

• **Image-based fields:** These can be used for texture-mapping and image processing. Image processing fields using ITK filters.

• **Many more.**

These types of fields can be created via `gfx define field` commands or through the API. Fields are a modular part of the CMGUI application. If a new function is required, it can be added as a field. To get a list of the computed fields available in CMGUI, enter `gfx define field ??` in the command line.

**Fields and visualization**

When creating visualizations, you need to choose which field controls which part of a graphics object. Coordinates in one, two or three dimensions can be used to create spatial representations. Texture coordinate fields can be used to position textures. Orientation or data fields can be used to position glyphs or colour objects such as surfaces. CMGUI allows an enormous amount of flexibility in how fields can be visualized. Further information on visualizations is available in other documents such as those detailing graphics, glyphs, or surfaces.

**5.1.8 Visualizing fields at points using glyphs**

Glyphs are graphical objects that are used to represent information at points within a model. These glyphs can be coloured, scaled, and oriented according to the values of chosen fields. Glyphs might be used for something as simple as showing node locations (Figure 1), or something more complex such as showing the strain at points within a deformed mesh. cmgui has a range of glyphs available, for representing different types of point data. This document will explain how to position, scale and orient glyphs in a variety of ways.

![Figure 1: Different glyphs placed at the nodes of a cube mesh.](image)

Figure 5.9: Figure 1: Different glyphs placed at the nodes of a cube mesh.
Adding glyphs to a mesh

Glyphs are added and edited from within the scene editor. When you select a region in the scene editor, you can create a new graphic for placing glyphs at your points of interest. Glyphs can be added at point, node points, data points, or element points. Element points are points through the interior of an element at a controllable layout and density.

Unscaled glyphs

The simplest use of a glyph is to visually mark a point, with no direction or scale information. Unscaled glyphs are simply glyphs for which you have not selected an orientation/scale field. This means that they simply appear at the points you specify, at the default orientation, and with the specified the base size. The default base size is 1*1*1. If you want to run through this example, load up example a1 in cmgui and run the entire com file.

Open the scene editor and make sure cube is selected in the scene object list. You will notice that there are three items in the graphics list: lines, node_points, and surfaces. Select the node_points graphics item. You will see in the settings below that these node_points already have glyphs associated with them - in the Glyph drop-down menu, the glyphs currently used to display the nodes are point glyphs. These are the default glyph, and are by default a single white pixel. Figure 2 shows the scene editor window, with the three areas labelled.

Use the drop-down menu to select another type of glyph for the node points: select sphere. In the graphics window, large orange spheres will appear at the corners (node points) of the cube. As the cube in this example is 1*1*1 and the default size of the glyphs is also 1*1*1, the glyphs will be far too large to be useful. For unscaled glyphs, you control the size by entering your desired size in the Base glyph size text-box, which will currently contain 1*1*1 (x*y*z dimensions). Change this to 0.1*0.1*0.1. If you enter a single value in the base glyph size box, it will use this value for all three dimensions. After changing the glyphs to these dimensions, you will notice that the spheres have shrunk to a more practical size (Figure 3). For unscaled glyphs, the final size is determined entirely by the Base glyph size.

Final glyph size = b1*b2*b3

This is the most basic use of glyphs - to indicate points such as nodes. Other uses of glyphs allow you to represent data in addition to simple location by using the size, shape, and colour of glyphs.

Scalar glyphs

Scalar glyphs can be used to represent the value of a scalar field at selected points. They have a single component orientation/scale field, which we will call S. For this case the value of S is used for all three directions of glyph scaling. The size of each glyph dimension (x, y, and z) is determined by the base size (which we will call b) plus the scale factor (which we will call c) multiplied by the orientation/scale field.

Any scale factors that are given a zero value do not add anything to the base size - in this way it is possible to scale glyphs in one, two, or three dimensions simply by using a zero value for the dimensions along which you do not wish them to scale. For example, for glyphs that only scale in the z direction, c1, c2, and c3 could be 0, 0, and 0.1 respectively. It can also be useful to set the base size to zero in order that the final glyph size is exactly proportional to the orientation/scale field.

Vector glyphs

Glyphs used to represent a single vector most often use a three component orientation/scale field, but it is possible to use a two component field for two-dimensional vectors. The alignment of the glyph is determined by the alignment of the vector defined by the field; the glyph’s first direction aligns to the vector, and its second and third directions are arbitrarily aligned orthogonal to this.

The glyph scaling is proportional to the magnitude of the vector, which we will call M. All three directions of the glyph are scaled by this value.

Final glyph size = (b1+c1M)*(b2+c2M)*(b3+c3M)
Figure 5.10: **Figure 2: The scene editor.**
Figure 5.11: Figure 3: Changing the glyph and its base size.
In most cases, $b_1$ (base size one) is set to zero so that the final length of the glyphs is directly proportional to $M$; that is, their size in direction one is entirely determined by the scaling factor $c_1$ multiplied by the magnitude $M$. Likewise, $c_2$ and $c_3$ can be set to zero so that the width and height of the glyphs are constant; in this case $b_2$ and $b_3$ would be set to the desired constant sizes in these directions.

**Two vector glyphs**

These are rarely used. They have either four (2D vectors) or six (3D vectors) component orientation/scale fields. Vector 1 is defined by the first 2 or 3 components, and vector 2 by the second 2 or 3 components. The glyphs will orient their first direction along vector 1, and their second direction along vector 2. The glyph’s direction 3 is equal to the cross product of vectors 1 and 2.

The glyph scaling is proportional to the magnitude of vector 1 ($M_1$) in direction 1, the magnitude of vector 2 ($M_2$) in direction 2, and the cross product of vectors 1 and 2 in direction 3. For two 2D vectors, cmgui assumes a $z$ value of 0 in order to obtain the cross product.

$$M_1 = \text{magnitude of vector 1} \quad M_2 = \text{magnitude of vector 2} \quad M_3 = \text{magnitude of cross product of vectors 1 and 2}$$

Final glyph size = $(b_1+c_1M_1)*(b_2+c_2M_2)*(b_3+c_3M_3)$

**Three vector glyphs**

Three vector glyphs use a nine component orientation/scale field: vector 1 is defined by components 1,2,3, vector 2 by components 4,5,6, and vector 3 by components 7,8,9. The glyph is oriented in directions 1, 2, and 3 by the directions of vectors 1, 2, and 3 respectively. The scaling along the three directions is determined by the magnitude of the three vectors.

Final glyph size = $(b_1+c_1M_1)*(b_2+c_2M_2)*(b_3+c_3M_3)$

**Using the fibre field**

A special case of three vector glyphs is when you choose a fibre field for the scale/orientation field. This option automatically creates a three vector “fibre axes” field from it together with the coordinate field used by that graphic. This is equivalent to defining a field using the command `gfx define field NAME fibre_axes`
Variable scale glyphs

Variable scale glyphs use an extra “signed scale” field to give a signed magnitude; this not only multiplies the magnitude of the orientation_scale field (so it is doubly-scaled) but its magnitude provides its “sense”. A good example of this would be extension (positive) versus compression (negative) for strain. Negative values of the variable scale field reverse glyphs about their origin along their orientation. The glyph ‘Repeat mode’ allows glyphs to be mirrored which is useful with line, cone and arrow glyphs to help visualise principal stain and stress fields.

Figure 5.13: Figure 5: Mirror glyphs and glyph reversal using the variable scale field. A) Mirror-cone glyphs being used in the large strain example, with the magnitude and sign of strain indicated by the length and direction of the glyphs respectively. B) How glyphs are represented with differently signed variable scale fields. Un-mirrored glyphs are not as useful for representing this information.

Variable scale glyphs need both:

• direction: orientation_scale field
• magnitude: variable_scale field

The variable scale field is an extra scaling factor in addition to the magnitude of the vector. For the final glyph size equation I will call the variable scale field “lambda” - this is because the variable scale field is often the eigenvalue of an eigenvector calculated from deformations. Run through the large_strain example (a/large_strain) to see this in action.

Final glyph size = (b1+c1M*lambda1)*(b2+c2M*lambda2)*(b3+c3M*lambda3)

It is most common to use a variable scale field with single vector glyphs, such as in the large strain example.

Additional tricks with glyphs

Adjusting the glyph offset

All glyphs have a default origin; this is the point which is positioned at the chosen point within the graphical representation. This can be edited by entering values in the offset value box in the settings editor. This appears next to the glyph drop-down menu.

By default, glyphs have a 0,0,0 coordinate point (origin) that is logically positioned according to the purpose of the glyph. For directional glyphs, the “long axis” is always the x axis. Spheres, cubes and cylinders have their origin positioned in the spatial centre of a bounding unit cube. Directional glyphs such as arrows have their origin at the base of the arrow, and axis glyphs have their origin at the intersection of the axes.

Using the offset value box, you can adjust the position of your selected glyph.
Using custom glyphs

It is possible in cmgui to create your own glyphs from obj model files. An example of this in action is the biplane example, where a model of a biplane is used to create a custom glyph.

5.1.9 Graphics in CMGUI

General description of graphics

graphics are the building blocks used to create any visualization displayed in the CMGUI graphics window. They are created, edited, re-ordered and deleted from within the scene editor, or via the command line. Most graphics have the following settings in common:

• Name: This allows you to set the name of the graphic.
• Coordinate System: This setting can be used to render the graphic according to a range of different coordinate systems. This is useful for creating “static” overlays of data on visualizations.
• Coordinate field: This setting has a drop-down menu showing a list of fields that can be selected as the coordinate field for the selected graphic.
• Tessellation: Tessellation settings are used to set the level of detail of an object. This replaces the discretization settings from old versions of cmgui.

Note: The only graphics which do not have a tessellation setting are node points, data points, and point.

• Select mode: This drop-down menu allows you to select different selection behaviours for the graphic:
  – select_on - The default setting; graphics are able to be selected and selected items are highlighted by rendering in the default_selected material.
  – no_select - No selection or highlighting of the graphic.
  – draw_selected - only selected items are drawn.
  – draw_unselected - only unselected items are drawn.
• Material: This drop-down menu allows you to select which material should be used to render the graphic. Materials are defined and edited in the material editor window.
• Data: This setting has a drop-down menu, allowing you to select which field will be mapped on to the graphic. This enables you to colour the graphic according to the values of some field, for example. The check box also activates the spectrum drop-down menu.
• Spectrum: This drop-down menu is used to select which spectrum is to be used to colour the graphical element according to the field selected in the data setting. Spectra are edited in the spectrum-editor-window.

• Selected material: This drop-down menu allows you to set which material will be used to render parts of the graphic which are selected.

The eight types of graphics

• node_points

Node points are used to visualize nodes. You can use glyphs to represent node points. There are a range of built-in glyphs in CMGUI, and it is possible to create custom glyphs as well. Node points graphics have the following settings in addition to the common ones listed above:

– Glyph: this drop-down menu allows you to choose the glyph that will be rendered at the node points.

– Offset: this box allows you to offset the origin of the glyph in order to alter its placement with respect to the node point.

– Base glyph size: This box allows you to enter a size (x,y,z) for the glyph in the same scale as the coordinate system for the region.

– Orientation/Scale: This check box enables a drop-down menu that allows selection of the field that the glyphs will be oriented and scaled according to.

– Scale factors: This box allows you to enter how each dimension scales according to the orientation/scale field value.

– Variable scale: This check box enables a drop-down menu that allows selection of the field that acts as the variable scale field. For more information on this and other of the node points options, see the document on working with glyphs.

– Label: use this drop-down menu allows you to add field-value labels to the glyphs.

• data_points

Data points are used to visualize data points. Like node points, they can be represented using glyphs. They have the same settings as node points.

• lines

Lines are used to visualize 1D elements, or the edges of 2D or 3D elements. They are simple, unshaded lines that have a fixed, specified width. They have the following specific settings:

– Exterior: This check box will automatically only render lines on exterior surfaces of a mesh.

– Face: This check box enables a drop-down menu that allows you to choose which faces are drawn according to xi values. You can select xi=0 or 1 for each of the three xi-axes.

– Width: this allows you to specify the width of the lines in pixels. This is a constant width that does not scale according to the zoom level.

• cylinders

Cylinders are used to visualize the same things as lines. They are shaded cylinders of a specified radius. They have the following specific settings:

– Exterior: This check box will automatically only render lines on exterior surfaces of a mesh.

– Face: This check box enables a drop-down menu that allows you to choose which faces are drawn according to xi values. You can select xi=0 or 1 for each of the three xi-axes.

– Constant radius: This allows you to set the radius of the cylinders, in the units of the coordinate system.

– Scalar radius: This check box will activate a drop-down menu allowing you to select which field will be used to scale the radius of the cylinders. It will also activate a text box in which you can enter the scale factor, or how the scale field will scale the radius.

– Circle discretization: This sets the number of sides used to render the cylinders in the 3D window.
Texture coordinates: This drop-down menu allows you to select which field will be used to position any textures applied by the material setting.

• **surfaces**

Surfaces are used to visualize 2D elements or the faces of 3D elements. They are shaded surfaces of zero thickness that are automatically shaped according to the nodes defining the element they represent. Their level of detail is specified per surface by choosing a *tessellation* object. They have the following specific settings:

– Exterior: This check box will automatically only render surfaces on exterior surfaces of a mesh.

– Face: This check box enables a drop-down menu that allows you to choose which faces are drawn according to xi values. You can select xi=0 or 1 for each of the three xi-axes.

– Render type: This drop down menu allows you to select shaded (default) or wireframe rendering of surfaces. Wireframe rendering renders the surfaces as grids of shaded lines, with the grid detail determined by the *tessellation* setting.

– Texture coordinates: This drop-down menu allows you to select which field will be used to position any textures applied by the material setting.

• **iso_surfaces**

Iso-surfaces are used to represent a surface that connects all points that share some common value. For example, in example a7 an iso-surface is used to represent a surface at which every point has a temperature of 100 degrees C. They have the following specific settings:

– Use element type: This drop down menu allows you to select which type of element will have surfaces rendered on it. Type *use_elements* is the default. The types *use_faces* and *use_lines* will render element points only on those components of elements. If faces or lines are chosen, the following options are activated:

  * Exterior: This check box will automatically only render iso-surfaces on exterior surfaces of a mesh.

  * Face: This check box enables a drop-down menu that allows you to choose on which faces iso-surfaces are drawn, according to xi values. You can select xi=0 or 1 for each of the three xi-axes.

It is worth noting that if you select *use_surfaces* then the equivalent of iso-surfaces becomes iso-lines. If you select *use_lines* then you will not get any visual representation.

– Iso-scalar: This drop down menu allows you to select the field that the iso-surface will be rendered according to the values of.

– Iso-values: This settings box contains the following settings:

  * List: This radio button activates a text box that allows you to enter a value at which to draw the iso-surface.

  * Sequence: This radio button activates three text boxes that allow you to enter a sequence of evenly spaced values to draw iso-surfaces at. The *Number* box allows you to enter the number of iso-surfaces you want. The *First* and *Last* boxes allow you to enter the starting and ending values of the iso-surfaces. The sequence will automatically space the number of surfaces between these two values.

– Render type: This drop down menu allows you to select shaded (default) or wireframe rendering of surfaces. Wireframe rendering renders the surfaces as grids of shaded lines, with the grid detail determined by the chosen *tessellation* object.

– Texture coordinates: This drop-down menu allows you to select which field will be used to position any textures applied by the material setting.

• **element_points**

Element points are used to visualize the discretized points within an element. Elements may be 1, 2 or 3 dimensional, in which case the element points are spaced along the line, across the surface, or throughout the volume according to the chosen *tessellation* object. They have the following specific settings:
– Use element type: This drop down menu allows you to select which type of element will have element points rendered on/in it. Type use_elements is the default, and renders element points throughout 3D elements. The types use_faces and use_lines will render element points only on those components of elements. If faces or lines are chosen, the following options are activated:

  * Exterior: This check box will automatically only render element points on exterior surfaces of a mesh.
  * Face: This check box enables a drop-down menu that allows you to choose on which faces element points are drawn according to xi values. You can select xi=0 or 1 for each of the three xi-axes.

– Xi discretization mode: this drop down menu allows you to select the method by which element points are distributed across the element.

• streamlines

Streamlines are a special graphic for visualizing vector fields - for example, a fluid flow solution. They can be used to visualize 3, 6 or 9 component vector fields within a 3 dimensional element. In example ao, streamlines are used to show the fibre and sheet directions in the heart. Streamlines will align along their length according to the first vector of a vector field, and across their “width” (eg the width of the ribbon or rectangle streamline types) to the second vector. For single vector (3 component) vector fields, the width of the streamlines will align to the curl of the vector.

Note that streamlines can be quite expensive to compute; changes to streamline settings in the scene editor can take several seconds to appear in the 3D window, especially for complex scenes.

Streamlines have the following specific settings:

– Streamline type: This drop-down box allows you to select the shape of the streamlines; that is, the shape outline that is extruded along the length of the streamline. Line and Cylinder can be used to visualize streamlines without showing orientation (curl). Ellipse, rectangle and ribbon types will enable visualization of the direction of the vector orthogonal to the streamline direction.

– Length: Enter a value into this box to set the length of the streamline/s.

– Width: Enter a value into this box to set the width of the streamline/s.

– Stream vector: This drop-down box allows you to select the vector that is being visualized by the streamlines.

– Seed element: This setting has a check box which when ticked allows you to specify a single element to seed a streamline from.

– Xi discretization mode: This drop-down box allows you to set the point in xi-space from which streamlines are seeded. The setting of exact_xi for example will always seed the streamline at the exact centre of the element’s xi-space.

– Reverse: Checking this box reverses the streamline.

– Seed element: Checking this box allows you to select the single element number from which the streamline will be seeded.

– Xi: Entering three comma-separated values (between 0 and 1) allows you to set the xi location within elements from which streamlines will be seeded.

• point

Point graphics are used to add a single glyph to the scene. This is the graphical setting that is used to replace the old axis creation, for example.

5.1.10 CMGUI Graphics Window

The graphics window is where all visualizations set up in the scene editor window are displayed. It also has tools which allow some interactive manipulation of the data being visualized. The window consists of a control panel on the left hand side, and the display area on the left. At the top of the control panel area are a selection of general
controls under the “Options” label: view all, save as, and perspective. The view all button will zoom out the viewing area so that all the graphics are visible. The save as option provides the ability to save the viewing area as a raster graphic, such as a png or jpg file. The perspective check box switches convergence on or off in the 3D display.

Immediately underneath the options section are controls for selecting how the 3D display is configured. The Layout drop down list contains a list of display layouts, such as orthogonal or pseudo-3D views. If an applicable layout is selected, the up and front controls will become available in order to change the viewpoint. Many of these layouts contain multiple scene viewers, which may be useful in specific situations. The default layout simple consists of a single 3D scene viewer.

Below the layout section is a button labelled “Time Editor”. This opens the timeline controls (much like the controls in a media player) that allow you to play animations if they have been set up.

Below this are the 5 “Tools” buttons. These offer different ways of interacting with the 3D display.

The graphics window tools

- **Transformation mode**

  This is the default mode, and is used for simple viewing of the graphical representations you are working on. In this mode the objects in the 3D window can be rotated, translated and zoomed using the mouse. Holding the left mouse button within the 3D view and moving it around will rotate, or tumble the view. Holding down the right mouse button and moving the mouse up and down will zoom the view in and out, and holding the middle button will allow you to translate the view around along two axes. It is useful to spend some time getting used to the way these manipulations work.

  In CMGUI, the rotate function works slightly differently from how similar view manipulations work in most software. This may not be immediately obvious, as the function does not “feel” particularly different in use; nevertheless there are some useful features of CMGUI’s particular technique for rotating the view.

  Essentially, where you initially click in the view is the “handle” that you then move around by moving the mouse. In CMGUI this handle is different to most applications, in that it is like “grabbing” a point on a sphere that bounds the object in the 3D window. This allows manipulations using the rotate function that are not possible in most 3D views, such as rotating the object around an arbitrary axis, or rotating it in a circular fashion around the centre of the view. These abilities can be useful when looking at data that has aligned features.

  The four other tools available are used for the selection and limited editing of the type of item they refer to. Selected items are able to be targeted by commands input to the command line, or edited from within the graphics window.

  When any of the following four tools is selected, holding down the Ctrl key will temporarily switch you back into transformation mode in order to manipulate the view.

- **Node Tool**

  The node tool allows the selection and editing of individual nodes from within the graphics window. Selected nodes will turn red by default - the selected colour of a node is editable via the scene editor window. There are a range of other options to allow the editing, (moving nodes within the scene viewer) deletion, or creation of nodes. It is also possible to create 1D, 2D or even 3D (lines, surfaces and volumes) elements using the node tool; this functionality is somewhat experimental and is of limited use in most cases.

  NOTE: It is somewhat easier to edit nodes (or indeed any of the other editable items) when they are represented by an easily clickable glyph such as a sphere or cube, rather than a point.

- **Data Tool**

  The data tool allows you to select data points and edit them in the same ways that nodes are editable, with the exception of element creation/destruction which is only available in the node tool.

- **Element Tool**

  The element tool allows you to select and destroy elements. You can also set up filters that allow only the selection of line, face or volume elements. It is worth noting that volume elements have no indication of
their selection unless they contain element points, which will turn red when the volume element they exist in is selected.

- **Element Point Tool**

  The element point tool allows the selection of element points within the scene viewer/s.

All of the tools that allow selection are useful for creating groups via the command line. You can add selected items to a group using the commands

### 5.1.11 Visualizing element fields using lines and cylinders

Lines and cylinders are graphical representations which can be used to visualize 1-D elements in CMGUI - including line elements at the edges of 2-D faces or 3-D elements. From Cmgui v3.0, cylinders are just a variant of lines specified by changing the Line shape to ‘circle extrusion’ combined with line scaling options; in previous versions of Cmgui, cylinders were a separate graphics type.

In general, lines are used to visualize the basic shape of a mesh. Note in very old versions of Cmgui lines were automatically created when region ‘groups’ were read from file, but this is no longer the case: all graphics must be intentionally created by the user (see the scene editor).

If you wish to create lines in the graphics window, you first need to read a model containing line elements. As an example go to the file menu in CMGUI and select Read, then Node file. Read in `cube.exnode` from the example a2 directory. Then using the Read and Elements file menu options, read in `cube.exelem` from the same directory. Select the Graphics Scene Editor menu item and select the region you wish to create graphics for from the list at the left; in the example it is the root region “/”. Click on add and select lines. A default coordinate field will automatically be chosen, which is the minimum needed for lines graphics. If you now create a graphics window (using the Graphics menu item 3-D window) you will see this cube rendered in 1 pixel thick lines using the default (white) material.

![Figure 5.15: The lines graphics created for a cube mesh. This mesh was created by reading the cube.exnode and cube.exelem files from example a2. Note that the example a2 com file creates cylinders to visualize the cube mesh.](image)

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Settings for lines

The *tessellation* option in the scene editor controls the number of line segments used along the line element to approximate a curve or control visualisation of the data field along it. With ‘circle extrusion’ line shape (cylinders) the Circle Divisions option on the tessellation controls the number of line segments around the cylinder with higher numbers better approximating a circle. (Prior to Cmgui v3.0 Cylinder graphics had a *Circle discretization* value for this purpose.) (Figure 2).

Lines have relatively few settings for altering their appearance (Figure 2). The following settings are available for lines:

- **Coordinate field**: When you check this box, you are able to select the coordinate field that the lines are drawn according to. This is used any time the coordinate field used for the lines needs to differ from the default coordinate field used for the whole graphical element (in the general settings).

- **Exterior**: When this check box is selected, the lines will only be drawn on the exterior faces of a 3D mesh, or the outside edges of a 2D mesh. This can be useful with large, complex meshes.

- **Face**: Checking this box allows you to select which face of 3D elements is visualized by lines. Faces are selected according to one of the 3 xi directions of the element, and it’s value (either 0 or 1).

- **Select mode**: This drop-down menu allows you to select different selection behaviours for the lines.
  - *select_on* - The default setting; line elements are able to be selected and selected elements are highlighted by rendering in the selected material.
  - *no_select* - No selection or highlighting of line elements.
  - *draw_selected* - only selected lines are drawn.
  - *draw_unselected* - only unselected lines are drawn.

- **Material**: This drop-down menu allows you to select which material the lines will be rendered as. Materials are defined in the *material editor window*. Note: the material for lines is unshaded. This means that lines only use the *diffuse* colour for the selected material to draw the lines.

- **Line width**: You can enter a value in this box to set the thickness of the lines in pixels. This width is independent of zoom, and remains constant through any transformation. Setting this value to 0 results in lines of 1 pixel wide (the default).

- **Data**: This setting allows you to choose a field which is used to colour the lines according to a spectrum. Use the *Spectrum* drop-down menu to choose from one of the spectra defined in the spectrum editor window.

- **Selected material**: Use this drop-down menu to select which material will be used to render selected lines.

In addition to these settings there is a command line setting that can be very useful when using line based visualizations: `gfx modify window 1 set perturb_lines`. This command helps to prevent the “dotted lines” effect that occurs when lines and surfaces interfere.

**Note**: if no lines appear, you may not have added faces (and lines) to the mesh - try the `gfx define faces` command.

Settings for cylinders

Since Cmgui v3.0 cylinders are just lines using additional ‘line shape’ options shared with streamlines graphics, currently restricted to ‘line’ or ‘circle extrusion’ with equal scaling in all lateral directions. Note when choosing a line shape other than the default ‘line’, the resulting graphics scale with the model as you zoom in, whereas ‘line’ shape gives constant thickness in screen space.

Options controlling the visualisation with ‘circle extrusion’ line shape:

- **Line base size**: This is the base diameter of the cylinders in units of the current graphics coordinate system; scaling by field with scale factors is added to this value. It currently has 2 values which are constrained to be equal, anticipating future use. Beware that prior to Cmgui v3.0 the equivalent option was the ‘Constant radius’.

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Figure 5.16: Figure 2: The scene editor settings available for a lines graphical setting.
• **Line scale field**: This drop-down menu allows you to select a scalar field to scale the diameter of the cylinders across the model according to this field. A good example of this is shown in example a4. Beware that prior to Cmgui v3.0 the equivalent option was the ‘scalar radius’ field.

• **Line scale factors** This box allows you to enter two values as factors for the scaling the ‘line scale field’ lateral to the line, but note that they are currently restricted to being equal-valued. (In future, different scaling in each lateral direction is anticipated, for use with multi-component ‘line scale fields’). **Important**: use a value of “2*2” if the line scale field is a radius.

### 5.1.12 CMGUI Material Editor Window

The material editor window is where you define materials to be applied to graphical elements or objects in the graphics window. Along the top of the material editor window are three buttons; create, delete and rename. You can create a new material, delete or rename an existing material using these buttons. Below these buttons is the list of currently defined materials. These will contain the default materials, as well as any defined in any comfile that has been run.

Below the material list is a panel containing four colour editors. These control the ambient, diffuse, emitted and specular colours.

- Ambient - The ambient colour is the “unlit” colour, or the colour of parts of the object that are in shadow.
- Diffuse - This is the overall colour of the material, the colour that the lit parts of the object will appear.
- Emitted - The emitted colour is the “glow” of a material; this colour will appear in both the lit and unlit parts of the material.
- Specular - This is the colour of the shine that appears on the material. This shine appears as a glossy highlight.

Each colour can be edited using three sliders or textboxes, and you can choose from three colours spaces for editing the colour. The default is RGB, but the HSV and CMY colour spaces are also available from a drop-down menu at the top of each colour editor. Each colour editor has a preview panel showing a flat sample of the colour that is being edited.

Below the colour editors is the surface editor. This panel allows you to set the alpha, shininess, and texture properties of the surface of the material being edited. The alpha value sets the transparency of the material. The shininess sets the “tightness” or size of the specular highlights of a material; generally the higher the shininess, the smaller and harder-edged the highlights. Higher shininess makes a material look glossier. The surface editor also allows you to assign a texture to the material surface - this option is unavailable unless you have created at least one texture by using the `gfx create texture` command to read in some bitmapped graphics. There are two other check box options available in the surface editor: “per pixel shading” which greatly increases the quality of the lighting of the material, and bump mapping which allows you to use a texture file to create surface details. These options are only available on hardware that supports advanced forms of shading.

Below the surface editor is a panel that shows a preview of the currently edited material applied to a sphere. You may need to resize the material editor window in order to see a usefully large preview panel. Clicking in the preview panel will cycle the background from the RGB colours through black, white and back to RGB.

At the bottom of the window are four buttons: OK, apply, revert and cancel. The OK button leaves the editor and applies the changes made. The apply button immediately applies current changes to the materials, allowing you to see how they look if they are used in any objects shown in the graphics window. The revert button will undo any changes made to the currently edited material, and the cancel button exits the material editor window without applying changes.

### 5.1.13 CMGUI Scene Editor Window

The scene editor is used to control how visualizations appear in the graphics window. From this window you can:

- Toggle visibility for any part of the region tree.
- Toggle visibility of any individual graphics setting for a region.
Figure 5.17: Figure 1: The CMGUI Material Editor
• Add, remove, and edit graphics.
• Alter the order in which graphics are drawn.

The window itself is broken into four main areas; region tree, transformation controls, graphics list, and settings editor (Figure 1).

**Figure 5.18: Figure 1: The scene editor.**

**Region tree**

At the left hand side of the Scene Editor window is the region tree, where all regions are listed. Each region has a visibility toggle, controlled by clicking on the box alongside its name. All ticked regions will be visible in the graphics window, provided that they have some visible graphics. Regions may contain sub-regions, allowing powerful control over visibility of the parts of a complex model.

Alongside the region tree are the transformation settings, graphics list, and settings editor. These are used to control and edit the visualisations of the currently selected region in the region tree.

**Note:** Previous versions of cmgui also had a “General Settings” section in this window, which was used to set
the level of detail (discretization) of objects. This system has been replaced by the new tessellation object. You are now able to use different levels of detail for different graphics, allowing you to choose the most appropriate for each. This also allows you to change the detail levels of a number of graphics by simply altering a single tessellation object that has been applied to them all. The tessellation is set for each graphical setting using the settings editor.

**Graphics list**

Below the transformation and general settings buttons is the *graphics list*. This is where the visual representations of the currently selected region are listed. This panel allows creation, deletion, visibility switching (on or off) and re-ordering of these visual representations.

**Settings editor**

Below the *graphics list* is the *settings editor* where each graphical setting can be edited. When a graphical setting is selected from the list, all of its editable properties appear in this area. The range of editable properties will vary depending on the type of *graphics* currently selected.

### 5.1.14 CMGUI Spectrum Editor Window

The spectrum editor window is where you define spectra to be applied to graphical elements or objects in the graphics window. Spectra are used to visualize continuous data ranges within models using colour ranges, and can be applied to the *graphics* that have been used to create your visualization. The window is divided into three basic areas: the spectrum list, the preview panel, and the settings editor (Figure 1).

It is useful to step through example a7 to get a feel for the use of spectra in cmgui. This example uses a mesh containing a number of fields that can be usefully visualized using spectra.

**Spectrum List**

The spectrum list shows all the currently defined spectra; it will always contain the *default* spectrum if no others have been defined. Three buttons at the top of the window allow you to *create*, *delete*, or *rename* spectra. Just below the list of spectra are some controls that allow you to set some of the general properties of the selected spectrum. The *autorange* button automatically sets the minimum and maximum values of the selected spectrum, according to the smallest and largest values it has been applied to in the *scene editor*. For example, if the default spectrum has been used to colour a temperature field in the default scene, and that field has values ranging from 0 to 100 degrees Celsius, pressing the *autorange* button will set the minimum and maximum values (in the Spectrum range settings - see below) of the selected spectrum to 0 and 100 respectively. If the selected spectrum has been used to colour objects according to more than one field, the *autorange* function will choose the smallest and largest values across all of these fields. The *from scene* drop-down menu allows you to select the scene from which the spectrum will be auto-ranged.

The *overlay* or *overwrite* options allow you to choose whether a spectrum will completely over-ride any other material settings (*overwrite*), therefore completely colouring the object as the spectrum appears in the preview panel - or whether the spectrum combines with the other material settings of the object so that the final colour is a combination of the spectrum and other material settings (*overlay*).

**Preview Panel**

This panel shows a horizontal bar, coloured using the selected spectrum. The bar also shows the range that the spectrum is currently set to, using a series of numbered labels. Clicking in the preview panel changes the number of these labels from 4 to 10 to 2, then cycles through these values. Currently the preview panel can not display multi-component spectra.
Figure 5.19: Figure 1: The spectrum editor.
Settings Editor

The settings editor is where each spectrum is set up. It contains a number of controls.

- **Spectrum component list**: The top of this list has four buttons; *Add*, *Delete*, *Up*, and *Down*. Below these buttons is a list of the components that make up the selected spectrum. Spectra in cmgui can be made up of multiple components; these can be added, deleted or re-ordered using this list. Using these “sub-spectra” you are able to create spectra that have different colour ranges for different parts of the data range they cover, or spectra that have different colour ranges for different dimensions.

- **Data component**: This text box allows you to enter which data component of a multi-component field the spectrum will colour according to.

- **Spectrum range**: This set of controls is used to set up the range of values the spectrum covers. The *Min.* and *Max.* text boxes allow you to enter values for the minimum and maximum values of the spectrum. There are also four check boxes that allow you to change the behaviour of a spectrum at its start and end points.

- **Colour**: This drop-down menu provides a selection of pre-set colour settings that can be applied to the currently selected spectrum component. Although many of the colour ranges are fairly self-explanatory, a number of them have special features which are useful for creating specialized spectra. The *contour bands* and *step* colour settings have further settings associated with them.
  - Rainbow: This is a standard rainbow colour range.
  - Red: This is a red to black colour range. It is applied as a single “channel” of red to the spectrum; this can be used to add to other spectrum components to make multi-component spectra.
  - Green: This is a single channel green to black colour range.
  - Blue: This is a single channel blue to black colour range.
  - White to blue: This is a white to blue colour range.
  - White to red: This is a white to red colour range.
  - Monochrome: This is a black to white colour range.
  - Alpha: This is a single channel transparent to opaque spectrum.
  - Contour bands: This colour option creates a series of evenly spaced black bands that can be further edited to get the correct number, width and spacing desired.
  - Step: This is a colour range which has a sharp transition from saturated red to saturated green.

- **Type**: This drop down menu allows you to choose between linear and log scale spectra. The *Reverse* check box allows you to swap the direction of the spectrum. If a log scale is selected as the type, the *Exaggeration* settings become available.
  - Exaggeration: This text box allows you to specify how strongly the spectrum is exaggerated.
  - Left/Right: These radio buttons allow you to choose the direction of the exaggeration.

- **Normalised colour range**: These two text boxes allow you to specify the portion of the colour range that is displayed across the chosen range of values for the spectrum component. The default values of 0 and 1 display the entire colour range, and other values allow you to choose where in the colour range the spectrum component begins and ends. For example, 0.5 and 1 would display only the upper half of the colour range; 0 and 0.5 would display only the lower half; 0.25 and 0.75 would display the middle section of the colour range.

- **Number of bands**: This text box is enabled when the *contour bands* colour type is chosen. Enter a value to specify the number of contour bands.

- **Step value**: This text box is enabled when the *step* colour type is chosen. Enter a value somewhere between the values specified in *Spectrum range* to specify where the step occurs in the spectrum.
5.1.15 Visualizing element fields using surfaces

Surfaces are graphical representations that can be used to represent two or three dimensional elements in CMGUI. Surfaces can be used to represent the faces of a 3D element or mesh, for example.

Surfaces and are created as graphics in the scene editor. To create a very simple surface graphic, go to the File menu, select Read, then Node file. Read in cube.exnode from the example a2 directory. Then using the Read and Elements file menu options, read in cube.exelem from the same directory. If you now create a graphics window, you will see a simple cube rendered in the default lines graphic. Open the scene editor window by selecting it from the Graphics menu. Select the cube scene object, then in the graphics panel select surfaces in the drop-down menu. Click the Add button to the right of this menu. A new graphical setting will appear in the list, below the lines graphical setting. In the 3D window, your cube will now be rendered with white shaded surfaces.

The tessellation setting of the surface graphical setting determines the detail level of surfaces. Each face in a surface graphical setting is divided into a number of squares (each made up of two triangles) determined by the tessellation. The discretization can be independently set for each of the three coordinate dimensions, allowing you to set different detail levels for different parts of surface.

5.1.16 Creating an AVI from a series of images - Windows

This tutorial will describe a method of compiling a series of images saved from CMGUI into an AVI format movie file on the Windows operating system. There are other methods, but the one described here can be achieved easily using free software, and produces excellent, highly customizable results.

An AVI file is a Windows format - however, it can be played on most computers including those running Mac OS X or Linux. It can also be uploaded to online video sites such as YouTube.

Software used

The following pieces of software are used in this tutorial - click on the name of the software to navigate to a download page for each item:

- VirtualDub - This is an open source AVI editing/capturing application. For the purposes of this tutorial, it allows you to load in a series of image files as movie frames, and save the resulting movie as an AVI.
- FFDShow - This is a Video for Windows and Directshow codec for decoding and encoding a large number of video and audio formats. With this installed you can save AVI files from VirtualDub using a large range of codecs.
- WinFF - This is a free windows front-end to ffmpeg (. This tool allows easy conversion of videos from one format to another.
- CamStudio - This is a free open source tool for recording screen activity. This represents an alternative method for capturing quick movies of CMGUI.

Installation of VirtualDub and FFDShow is a requirement for following this tutorial. You will need administrator rights on your computer to install FFDShow; VirtualDub is simply unzipped into a directory and run directly. Camstudio is only required if you wish to experiment with recording the CMGUI graphics window directly.

Compiling a series of images into a movie

When making a movie from a sequence of images, it is important to make sure that the images you created in CMGUI are saved at a usable resolution. It is always best to use familiar resolutions like 800x600, 1024x768, or 1920x1080. Many video formats require specific resolutions to work properly; codecs often are restricted to multiples of 2, 4, or 8 for both the height and width in pixels.

Creating a movie from a series of images using VirtualDub is very simple:

- Load VirtualDub. The first time you do this you may be presented with a window where certain options may be set. You can safely dismiss this window and load VirtualDub.
Figure 5.20: **Figure 1: Adding surfaces to a mesh** Using the example a2 cube, adding a surface graphical setting creates a basic surface in the default material (white).
• Go to the File menu and select Open video file... (Ctrl-O)

• Locate and load the first image in your sequence of images.

VirtualDub will automatically load the entire numbered sequence of images in as movie frames, in the correct order. This works whether you have a 00001-99999 or a 1-99999 style numbering scheme. You will now see two “screens” side by side, each displaying the first image in your sequence. This is the first frame of your movie, which can now be played within VirtualDub. The two screens display the input and the output. The input screen shows the movie you loaded, in this case the series of frames from the images. The output screen shows the original movie with any filters (such as resizing, contrast adjustments, sharpening etc) that you have applied to it.

Figure 5.21: Figure 1: The main VirtualDub window This window displays the play controls (which also include marking tools for editing the video), the input and output panels, and the menus.

The next step is to set up the compression and codec settings of the movie you are going to save.

• Go to the Video menu and select Compression... (Ctrl-P)

• Select the ffdshow Video Codec from the list of codecs.

• Notice the Format restrictions box on the right hand side - this will inform you of any requirements your selected codec has for input. For the ffdshow codec, your video resolution must be a multiple of 2 in both
Figure 5.22: **Figure 3: Selecting a codec** The codecs listed may differ from those shown here. Select *ffdshow Video Codec*. 
width and height.

• Click on the Configure button. This will bring up a window with a range of settings for how the codec will be used to compress your movie.

Figure 5.23: **Figure 4: The codec configuration window** This window displays the controls for how the codec will compress your movie. The ffdshow codec actually enables you to encode your movie in any of a large number of different codecs; the codec is chosen from the codec selection drop-down menu.

From this settings window you can set up which codec you wish to use to compress your movie, and how much compression you wish to apply. Different codecs have different pros and cons; these days it is often best to stick to the more modern codecs, as a majority of computers on all platforms should be able to play them. Good codecs to choose are MPEG-2, MPEG4, and H.264. MPEG-2 is an older codec that offers good backwards compatibility, but encodes lower quality videos with larger file sizes. MPEG4 and its successor H.264 generally offer substantially better quality and/or smaller file sizes. The following steps will produce an AVI using the MPEG4 codec, which is widely supported. If you wish to use another codec, the steps are essentially the same.

• Select the MPEG-4 codec from the codec selection drop-down menu.
• Make sure the Mode setting is one pass - average bitrate.
• Set the Bitrate (kbps) text box to 1000.
• Click Apply and then OK. Click OK in the codec selection window.
• In the main VirtualDub window, go to the File menu and select Save as AVI. Enter a name for your movie and click Save.
Figure 5.24: Figure 5: Progress window
A status window will appear, with some information about the progress of the AVI creation.

Once the encoding is finished, find your file and double click on it to play it. Check the file size, and the quality of the movie. If the file is too big, change the codec settings to use a lower bitrate and save it again. If the movie is poor quality, set the bitrate higher and try again. 1000 kbps gives a good quality 640x480 movie in MPEG-4 encoding, with file sizes of about 7 megabytes per minute. With H264 encoding, bitrates as low as 300kbps can give remarkably good results at 640x480 depending on the content of the movie.

Creating a movie from images using FFMPEG

An alternative to using VirtualDub is to use the command line tool FFMPEG. This is a powerful, open source tool that can perform a large number of video-related tasks. Documentation for FFMPEG can be found on the project website.

An example command line for creating a movie from image files using FFMPEG is:

`ffmpeg -f image2 -i image%d.jpg output.mpg`

For more information, please refer to the documentation linked to above.

Converting your movie to other formats

Sometimes you will want to have your movie in a format other than AVI, or you may wish to further tune the compression and quality of your movie. For example, using the H.264 codec with an AVI creates a non-standard file; it is usually better to encode an mp4 file using H.264.

Converting to mp4 using Handbrake

Handbrake is an open source video converter that is very fast and effective for converting videos to MP4 format. The application is quite easy to use, and has a number of built-in presets for converting video for certain purposes such as uploading to youtube, or playing on mobile devices.

Convert your movie to another format using WinFF

WinFF is a useful tool for optimizing the file size or quality of your movies, as well as for converting from AVI to other file formats such as mp4 or mov. When converting using WinFF, it is useful to have an uncompressed movie file to work with. To create an uncompressed AVI from VirtualDub, select the Uncompressed RGB/YCbCr codec when creating the AVI file as detailed above.

The following steps detail how to encode an H.264 codec mp4 file from an AVI:

- Load WinFF.
- Click on the Options button (far right) to show the advanced options.
- Click on the Add button, and select the movie file you wish to convert.
- Select MP4 from the Convert to... drop-down menu.
- Select H.264 in MP4(4:3) from the preset drop-down menu, to the left of the Convert to... drop-down menu. The 4:3 refers to the aspect ratio of your video; standard sizes such as 320x240, 640x480 or 1024x768 have this aspect ratio. If your movie has a different aspect ratio, enter it into the Aspect Ratio text box, or enter the resolution of your movie directly into the Video Size text boxes.
- Enter a value such as 500 or 1000 into the Video Bitrate text box.
- Click on the Convert button.

By default, WinFF will create the converted movie file in your My Documents folder. You may choose a different destination folder for the converted movie by entering a different path in the Output Folder text box.
5.1.17 The cmgui EX format guide: exnode and exelem files

Contents

• The cmgui EX format guide: exnode and exelem files
  – Overview
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  – Defining nodes and node fields
  – Defining elements and element fields
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Overview

Spatially-varying “finite element” field definitions are commonly imported into cmgui in two parts:

1. “.exnode” files containing definitions of nodes which are points identified by a unique integer identifier, and for which field parameters are listed.

2. “.exelem” files containing definitions of elements which are n-dimensional coordinate spaces, and the functions giving field values over them, usually by interpolating node field parameters.

This division is arbitrary since they share a common format able to define both nodes and elements, and the fields defined over them. The extensions “.exnode” and “.exelem” are merely conventions for the above uses. Any filename extension is acceptable, and full file names with extensions should always be specified in your scripts and command files.

Nodes with literal field values stored for them do not just support element interpolation, but are widely used to represent any point data, and there need not be any associated elements. You will occasionally see files with the “.exdata” extension which are identical to “.exnode” files but read in with a different command (“gfx read data . . . ”) so that the objects and associated fields are put in a different set of node objects referred to within cmgui as data rather than nodes, and which are unable to be interpolated in element fields. Note the current limitation of cmgui that each region consists of one list of node objects, one list of elements, and one list of data points.

General Syntax

Cmgui EX files are human-readable text files which are usually created by export from cm or OpenCMISS. They can also be created by scripts or by hand. Due to their complexity, particularly in defining element interpolation, editing an existing file is usually the easiest way to create new data files by hand.

The format has been around for many years and has several exacting rules which can catch the unwary:

1. Main blocks of the file begin with tokens such as “Group name”, “Shape”, “#Fields”, “Node”, “Element” which must be written in full with exact capitalization. Within these blocks are further tokens indicating sub-blocks of data to be read, each with their own rigid rules.

2. The characters used to separate tokens, identifiers, parameters and other data are quite inconsistent and could be white space, commas, colons, full stops (periods), equal signs and so on. In each case the precise character must be used. Whitespace separators generally includes any number of spaces, tabs, end of line and line feed characters. Non-whitespace separator characters can generally be surrounded by whitespace.

3. All array indices start at 1, but scale factor index 0 has the special meaning of using unit scale factor value, 1.0.

4. Node and element identifiers must be positive integers.
Fortunately, cmgui import commands ("gfx read node/element/data") report the line number in the file at which the first errant text is located (do not confuse this with line element numbers). Unfortunately the actual problem may be earlier: if the previous block was incomplete then the first text of the next block, however correct, will be complained about as not matching the tokens and data expected for the previous block.

Regions

The EX format defines fields, nodes, elements and groups (sets of nodes and elements) within regions. These objects belong to their respective region and are independent of similarly identified objects in other regions.

Cmgui version 2.6 (released: May 2009) introduces a “Region” keyword which specifies the path to the region which any following fields and objects are defined within until the next Region keyword or end of file. The format is as follows:

Region: /PATH_TO_REGION

Examples:

! The root region for this file:
Region: /

! Region "joe" within region "bob":
Region: /bob/joe

The region path must always be written as an absolute path from the root region of the file, i.e. as a series of zero or more region names starting with and separated by forward slash “/” characters. Region names must start with an alphanumeric character and contain only alphanumeric characters, underscores ‘_’ and spaces; spaces are not permitted at the start or end of the name. Colons ‘:’ and dots/periods ‘.’ are permitted but discouraged.

Versions of cmgui prior to 2.6 implicitly read data into the root region, and will report an error for the unrecognised “Region” keyword. The first non-comment keyword in post Cmgui 2.6 EX files should be a Region keyword; to maintain compatibility with older files it may alternatively begin with a Group declaration.

With EX files you are free to put many regions (and groups) in the same file, or to keep each region (or group) in separate files. The choice is up to the user, although it is more flexible to use separate files, since commands for reading EX files into cmgui (e.g. gfx read nodes/elements/data) permit the file’s root region to be mapped to any region. For maximum flexibility and to avoid potential merge conflicts, it is recommended that you keep your model data out of the Cmgui root region.

Cmgui example a/region_io gives several example EX files defining fields in regions and sub-groups.

Groups

The Group keyword indicates that all following nodes and elements until the next Group or Region keyword are “tagged” as belonging to a group (set) of the specified name:

Group name: GROUP_NAME

There can be any number of groups in a single region, each potentially sharing some or all of the same nodes and elements from the region they belong to. Groups are entirely contained within their particular region; groups with the same name in different regions are completely independent.

Groups have the same name restrictions as regions. They are not written as a path - just a single name within the enclosing region.

Older versions of Cmgui required nodes, elements and fields to always be defined within a group (within the implied root region), hence the Group keyword was always the first keyword in the file. Since Cmgui 2.6 this is no longer a limitation.

In older EX files it was common to have fields defined after/within a group declaration. However the grouping only ever applies to nodes and element - fields always belong to the region. It is more common to define the fields with nodes and elements under the region with no group, and list only node and element identifiers with no fields under the groups.
Field declaration headers

Whether the EX file is listing nodes or elements, there is broad similarity in the way in which they and their field data is listed. It consists of a header declaring the number and details of fields being defined for the respective object type, followed by the definitions of the objects themselves. An example header:

```
#Fields=1
1) coordinates, coordinate, rectangular cartesian, real, #Components=3

... field data specific to nodes or elements ...
```

The above header declares a field with the name “coordinates”. The field is tagged as usage type “coordinate” - this is a hint which tells cmgui that this field is appropriate for use as a coordinate field. Other values for this hint are “anatomical” for special fibre fields, and “field” for all other fields. By default, cmgui will use the first coordinate field in alphabetical name order for the coordinates of graphics. The coordinates declared in this header are embedded in a rectangular Cartesian coordinate system with 3 real-valued components. The rectangular Cartesian coordinate system is assumed if none is specified. The value type real is frequently omitted as it is the default; other types such as integer, string and element_xi are only usable in node fields and integer for grid-based element fields. More complex declarations are given throughout this document. Note that if there is no header or the header has “#Fields=0”, then nodes and elements can be defined or listed for adding to a group without defining fields.

Following each line declaring the main details of a field are the details on each field component including the name and the parameter values to be supplied with each node, or the basis functions and parameter mappings to be supplied with each element. These are described later.

There can be only one field of a given name in a region, but it can be defined on nodes, elements and data in that region provided the field is consistently declared in the header, including same value type, numbers of components and component names.

Note that the #Fields keyword in element field headers are additionally preceded by the following keywords and sub-blocks which are described in later examples:

```
#Scale factor sets=
...
#Nodes=
```

Comments

Since Cmgui version 2.6 EX files containing comments are now able to be read. Comment lines begin with ! (exclamation mark character) and may only be placed in parts of the file where a Region, Group, Shape, Node, Element, Values or #Field header keyword is permitted. Putting comments anywhere else will result in obscure errors or undefined behaviour!

Comments are useful for adding source details or copyright/license information to your files, or to document parts of the file. Cmgui ignores the comment lines: they will not be rewritten when exporting an EX file.

Some example comments preceding other keywords:

```
! Copyright (C) 2009 The Author
Region: /heart

! This following node is the apex of the heart:
! It has 10 versions of all nodal parameters
Node: 13
```

Note that errors are reported if you attempt to read EX files with comments into versions of Cmgui prior to 2.6.
Defining nodes and node fields

Example: specifying 3-D coordinates of nodes

Following is an example reading 8 nodes numbered from 1 to 8, with a field “coordinates” giving positions at the corners of a unit cube, adapted from cmgui example a/a2:

Region: /cube
Shape. Dimension=0
#Fields=1
1) coordinates, coordinate, rectangular cartesian, #Components=3
   x. Value index=1, #Derivatives=0
   y. Value index=2, #Derivatives=0
   z. Value index=3, #Derivatives=0
Node: 1
   0.0 0.0 0.0
Node: 2
   1.0 0.0 0.0
Node: 3
   0.0 1.0 0.0
Node: 4
   1.0 1.0 0.0
Node: 5
   0.0 0.0 1.0
Node: 6
   1.0 0.0 1.0
Node: 7
   0.0 1.0 1.0
Node: 8
   1.0 1.0 1.0

Notes:

• The first line indicates that the following objects will be put in a group called “cube”. Ex files must begin with a group declaration.

• The second line says that zero dimensional nodes are to be read until a different shape is specified. You will seldom see this line in any .exnode file because 0-D nodes are the default shape at the start of file read and when any new group is started.

• The next five lines up to the first Node is a node field header which declares finite element fields and indicates what field parameters will be read in with any nodes defined after the header. The first line of the header indicates only one field follows.

• The first line following the #Fields declares a 3-component coordinate-type field called “coordinates” whose values are to be interpreted in a rectangular Cartesian coordinate system. This field defaults to having real values.

• Following the declaration of the field are the details of the components including their names and the parameter values held for each, with the minimum being the value of the field at that node. The above node field component definitions indicate that there are no derivative parameters. The “Value index” is redundant since the index of where values for components “x”, “y” and “z” of the “coordinates” field are held in each node’s parameter vector is calculated assuming they are in order (the correct index is written for interest).

• Finally each of the nodes are listed followed by the number of parameters required from the node field header.

Example: multiple node fields and derivative parameters

A slightly more complex example adds a second field “temperature”:
Region: /heated_bar
#Fields=2
1) coordinates, coordinate, rectangular cartesian, #Components=2
   x. Value index=1, #Derivatives=0
   y. Value index=2, #Derivatives=0
2) temperature, field, rectangular cartesian, #Components=1
   1. Value index=3, #Derivatives=1 (d/ds1)
Node: 1
  0.0 0.0
  37.0 0.0
Node: 2
  1.0 0.0
  55.0 0.0
Node: 3
  2.0 0.0
  80.2 0.0

Notes:

- The coordinates field is now 2-dimensional. Beware it isn’t possible to have a two-component and three-component field of the same name in the same region.
- The temperature field is of CM type field which merely means it has no special meaning (as opposed to the coordinate CM field type hint for the “coordinates”). Although it is not entirely relevant, the coordinate system must still be specified since cmgui performs appropriate transformations whenever it is used as a coordinate field.
- The scalar (single component) temperature field has two parameters for each node, the first being the exact temperature at the node, the second being a nodal derivative. The optional text “(d/ds1)” labels the derivative parameter as the derivative of the temperature with respect to a physical distance in space. It isn’t until the definition of element interpolation that its contribution to the element field is known.

Example: node derivatives and versions in the prolate heart

The following snippet from example a/a3 shows the nodal parameters held at the apex of the prolate heart model:

#Fields=2
1) coordinates, coordinate, prolate spheroidal, focus=0.3525E+02, #Components=3
   lambda. Value index=1, #Derivatives=3 (d/ds1, d/ds2, d2/ds1ds2)
   mu. Value index=5, #Derivatives=0
   theta. Value index=6, #Derivatives=0, #Versions=10
2) fibres, anatomical, fibre, #Components=3
   fibre angle. Value index=16, #Derivatives=1 (d/ds1)
   imbrication angle. Value index=18, #Derivatives=0
   sheet angle. Value index=19, #Derivatives=3 (d/ds1, d/ds2, d2/ds1ds2)
Node: 13
  0.984480E+00 0.000000E+00 0.000000E+00 0.000000E+00
  0.000000E+00
  0.253073E+00 0.593412E+00 0.933751E+00 0.127409E+01 0.188932E+01 0.250455E+01 0.373500E+01 0.496546E+01 0.558069E+01
  -0.138131E+01 -0.117909E+01
  0.000000E+00
  -0.827443E+00 -0.108884E+00 -0.245620E+00 -0.153172E-01

Notes:

- This example uses a prolate spheroidal coordinate system for the coordinate field. This is inherently heart-like in shape allowing fewer parameters to describe the heart, and requires a focus parameter to set is scale and form.
- The “theta” component of the prolate coordinates has 10 versions meaning there are 10 versions of each value and derivative specified. In this case there are no derivatives so only 10 values are read in. 10 versions are used to supply the angles at which each line element heads away from the apex of the heart which is on the axis of the prolate spheroidal coordinate system.
• Node field parameters are always listed in component order, and for each component in the order:

value then derivatives for version 1
value then derivatives for version 2
etc.

• The second field “fibres” declares a field of CM type anatomical with a fibre coordinate system. In elements these fields are interpreted as Euler angles for rotating an ortho-normal coordinate frame initially oriented with element “xi” axes and used to define axes of material anisotropy, such as muscle fibres in tissue.

Example: embedded locations in a mesh

Following is the file “cube_element_xi.exdata” taken from cmgui example a/ar (exnode formats), which defines a node field containing embedded locations within elements:

Group name: xi_points
#Fields=1
  1) element_xi, field, element_xi, #Components=1
      1. Value index=1, #Derivatives=0
        Node: 1  E 1 3 0.25 0.25 0.75
        Node: 2  E 1 3 0.25 0.5 0.75
        Node: 3  E 1 3 0.25 0.75
        Node: 4  E 1 3 1 0.25 0.75
        Node: 5  E 1 3 1 1 1
        Node: 6  E 1 3 0 0 0
        Node: 7  F 3 2 0.3 0.6
        Node: 8  L 1 1 0.4

Notes:
  • The field named “element_xi” uses the special value type confusingly also called element_xi indicating it returns a reference to an element and a location within its coordinate “xi” space. Only 1 component and no derivatives or versions are permitted with this value type.
  • Element xi values are written as:

[region path] [element/face/line] number dimension xi-coordinates

Where the region path is optional and element/face/line can be abbreviated to as little as one character, case insensitive. Hence node 1 lists the location in three-dimensional element number 1 where xi=(0.25,0.25,0.75); node 6 lists a location in two-dimensional face element number 3 with face xi=(0.3,0.6).

• Node fields storing embedded locations permit fields in the host element at those locations to be evaluated for the nodes using the special embedded computed field type, for example: “gfx define field embedded_coordinates embedded element_xi element_xi field element_coordinates”.

Special field types

The example a/ar (exnode formats) and a/aq (exelem formats) lists several other special field types including constant (one value for all the nodes it is defined on) and indexed (value indexed by the value of a second integer “index field”), but their use is discouraged and they may be deprecated in time. If such functionality is required,
prefer computed fields created with “gfx define field” commands or request indexed functionality on the cmgui tracker.

**Defining elements and element fields**

**Cmgui elements, shapes, faces and identifiers**

Elements are objects comprising an n-dimensional (with n>0) coordinate space serving as a material coordinate system charting part or all of a body of interest. The set of elements covering the whole model is referred to as a mesh. We often use the Greek character “xi” to denote the coordinate within each element.

Each element has a shape which describes the form and limits of this coordinate space. Shapes are declared in the EX format are follows:

**Shape. Dimension=n SHAPE-DESCRIPTION**

Up to three dimensions, the most important shape descriptions are:

- **Shape. Dimension=0** nodes (no shape)
- **Shape. Dimension=1** line shape, xi covering [0,1]
- **Shape. Dimension=2** square on [0,1]; xi1+xi2<1
- **Shape. Dimension=3** cube on [0,1]; xi1+xi2+xi3<1
- **Shape. Dimension=4** tetrahedron on [0,1]; xi1+xi2+xi3<1

Pairs of dimensions can also be linked into polygon shapes; see example a/element_types.

The shape description works by describing the span of the space along each xi direction for its dimension. The simplest cases are the line shapes: “line*line” indicates the outer or tensor product of three line shapes, thus describing a cube. If the shape description is omitted then line shape is assumed for all dimensions. Simplex shapes, used for triangles and tetrahedra, cannot be simply described by an outer product and must be tied to another dimension; in the EX format the tied dimension is written in brackets after the first simplex coordinate, and for 3 or higher dimensional simplices all linked dimensions must be listed as shown for the tetrahedron shape.

The cmgui shape description is extensible to 4 dimensions or higher, for example the following denotes a 4-dimensional shape with a simplex across dimensions 1 and 2, and an unrelated simplex on dimensions 3 and 4:

**Shape. Dimension=4 simplex(2)*simplex*simplex(4)*simplex**

Beware that while cmgui can in principle read such high-dimensional elements from exelem files, this has not been tested and few graphics primitives and other features of cmgui will be able to work with such elements.

Elements of a given shape have a set number of faces of dimension one less than their own. A cube element has 6 square faces at xi1=0, xi1=1, xi2=0, xi2=1, xi3=0, xi3=1. Each square element itself has 4 faces, each of line shape. The faces of elements are themselves elements, but they are identified differently from the real “top-level” elements.

The cmgui EX format uses a peculiar naming scheme for elements, consisting of 3 integers: the element number, the face number and the line number, only one of which should ever be non-zero. All elements over which fields are defined or which are not themselves the faces of a higher dimensional element use the first identifier, the element number. All 2-D faces of 3-D elements use the face number and all 1-D faces of 2-D elements (including faces of faces of 3-D elements) use the line number. The naming scheme for faces of 4 or higher dimensional elements is not yet defined. The element identifier “0 0 0” may be used to indicate a NULL face.

**Element nodes, scale factors and parameter mappings**

Cmgui elements store an array of nodes from which field parameters are extracted for interpolation by basis functions. This local node array can be as long as needed. It may contain repeated references to the same nodes,
however it is usually preferable not to do this.

Cmgui elements can also have an array of real-valued scale factors for each basis function (see below).

These two arrays are combined in mapping global node parameters to an array of element field parameters ready
to be multiplied by the basis function values to give the value of a field at any “xi” location in the element.

Mappings generally work by taking the field component parameter at index i from the node at local index j and
multiplying it by the scale factor at index k for the basis function in-use for that field component. It is also possible
to use a unit scale factor by referring to the scale factor at index 0, and to not supply a scale factor set if only unit
scale factors are in use.

Global-to-local parameter mappings are at the heart of the complexity in cmgui element field definitions and are
described in detail with the examples.

Cmgui element basis functions

Basis functions are defined in cmgui ex format in a very similar manner to element shapes, by outer (tensor)
product of the following functions along each xi axis:

- constant
- linear Lagrange
- quadratic Lagrange
- cubic Lagrange
- cubic Hermite
- Lagrange at xi=0, Hermite at xi=1
- Hermite at xi=0, Lagrange at xi=1
- linear simplex (see below)
- quadratic simplex (see below)
- piecewise linear around a polygon shape

It is not too difficult to extend these functions to higher order and to add other families of interpolation or other ba-
sis functions including the serendipity family, Bezier, Fourier etc. We are open to requests for new basis functions
on the cmgui tracker.

Lagrange, Hermite, Bezier and many other 1-D basis functions are able to be combined in multiple dimensions by
the outer product. This is not the case for simplex, polygon and serendipity families of basis functions which, like
element shapes, require linked xi dimensions to be specified.

Some example element bases:

- trilinear interpolation (8 nodes)
- bicubic Hermite (4 nodes x 4 params)
- linear triangle (3 nodes)
- quadratic tetrahedron (10 nodes)
- cubic Hermite * linear triangle (6 nodes, 2 parameters per node)
- constant in xi1 and xi2, linearly varying in x:3

Most element bases have one basis functions per node which multiplies a single parameter obtained from that
node. For instance, a linear Lagrange basis expects 2 nodes each with 1 parameter per field component. A bilinear
Lagrange basis interpolates a single parameter from 4 nodes at the corners of a unit square. A 3-D linear-quadratic-
cubic Lagrange element basis expects 2*3*4 nodes along the respective xi directions, with 1 basis function and
one parameter for each node. A linear triangle has 3 nodes with 1 parameter each; a quadratic triangle has 6 nodes
with 1 parameter.

1-D Hermite bases provide 2 basis functions per node, expected to multiple two parameters: (1) the value of the
field at the node, and (2) the derivative of that field value with respect to the xi coordinate. If this derivative is
common across an element boundary then the field is C=1 continuous there. Outer products of 1-D Hermite basis
functions double the number of parameters per node for each Hermite term. A bicubic Hermite basis expect 4
nodes with 4 basis functions per node, multiplying 4 nodal parameters: (1) value of the field, (2) the derivative
of the field with respect to the first xi direction, (3) the derivative with respect to the second xi direction and
(4) the double derivative of the field with respect to both directions referred to as the cross derivative. Tri-cubic
Hermite bases have 8 basis functions per node, one multiplying the value, 3 for first derivatives, 3 for second (cross) derivatives and a final function multiplying a triple cross derivative parameter.

The ex format requires nodes contributing parameters for multiplication by a basis to be in a very particular order: changing fastest in xi1, then xi2, then xi3, and so on. Note this is not necessarily the order nodes are stored in the element node array, just the order in which those nodes are referenced in the parameter map. In most example files the order of the nodes in the element node list will also follow this pattern.

Cmgui example a/element_types provides a large number of sample elements using complex combinations of basis functions on supported 3-D element shapes.

Example: tri-linear interpolation on a cube

Following is an example of a coordinate field defined over a unit cube, adapted from example a/a2, with faces and scale factors removed to cut the example down to minimum size, and assuming the cube node file from earlier has already been loaded:

Region: /cube
Shape. Dimension=3 line*line*line
#Scale factor sets=0
#Nodes=8
#Fields=1

1) coordinates, coordinate, rectangular cartesian, #Components=3
   #Nodes= 8
   1. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   2. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   3. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   4. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   5. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   6. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   7. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   8. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0

   #Nodes= 8
   1. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   2. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   3. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   4. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
Notes:

- “Shape. Dimension=3 line*line*line” declares that following this point three dimensional cube-shaped elements are being defined. “line*line*line” could have been omitted as line shapes are the default.

- “#Scale factor sets=0” indicates no scale factors are to be read in with the elements that follow. Scale factors are usually only needed for Hermite basis functions when nodal derivative parameters are maintained with respect to a physical distance and the scale factors convert the derivative to be with respect to the element xi coordinate. Avoid scale factors when not needed.

- The 4th line “#Nodes=8” says that 8 nodes will be listed with all elements defined under this header.

- Under the declaration of the “coordinates” field (which is identical to its declaration for the nodes) are the details on how the field is evaluated for each field component. Each field component is always described separately: each may use different basis functions and parameter mappings. In this example the components “x”, “y” and “z” all use the same tri-linear basis functions and use an identical parameter mapping except that parameters are automatically taken from the corresponding field component at the node.

- “no modify” in the element field component definition is an instruction to do no extra value manipulations as part of the interpolation. Other modify instructions resolve the ambiguity about which direction one interpolates angles in polar coordinates. The possible options are “increasing in xi1”, “decreasing in xi1”,

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“non-increasing in xi1”, “non-decreasing in xi1” or “closest in xi1”. For use, see the prolate heart example later.

- “standard node based” indicates that each element field parameter is obtained by multiplying one parameter extracted from a node by one scale factor. An alternative called “general node based” evaluates each element field parameter as the dot product of multiple node field parameters and scale factors; it is currently unimplemented for I/O but is designed to handle the problems like meshing the apex of the heart with Hermite basis functions without requiring multiple versions. A final option “grid based” is described in a later example.

- Following the above text are several lines describing in detail how all the element field parameters are evaluated prior to multiplication by the basis functions. Being a tri-linear Lagrange basis, 8 nodes must be accounted for:

```
#Nodes= 8
```

Following are 8 sets of three lines each indicating the index of the node in the element’s node array from which parameters are extracted (in this case the uncomplicated sequence 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8), the number of values to be extracted (1), the index of the each parameter value in the list of parameters for that field component at that node and the index of the scale factor multiplying it from the scale factor array for that basis, or zero to indicate a unit scale factor:

```
1. #Values=1
   Value indices: 1
   Scale factor indices: 0
```

As mentioned earlier, the nodes listed in the mapping section must always follow a set order, increasing in xi1 fastest, then xi2, then xi3, etc. to match the order of the basis functions procedurally generated from the basis description.

- At the end of the example is the definition of element “0 0 1” which lists the nodes 1 to 8.

**Defining faces and lines**

The above example is not ready to be fully visualised in cmgui because it contains no definitions of element faces and lines. Cmgui requires these to be formally defined because it visualises element surfaces by evaluating fields on face elements, and element edges via line elements. The command “gfx define faces ...” can create the faces and lines after loading such a file. Alternatively they can be defined and referenced within the ex file as in the following:

```
Region: /cube
Shape. Dimension=1
Element: 0 0 1
Element: 0 0 2
Element: 0 0 3
Element: 0 0 4
Element: 0 0 5
Element: 0 0 6
Element: 0 0 7
Element: 0 0 8
Element: 0 0 9
Element: 0 0 10
Element: 0 0 11
Element: 0 0 12
Shape. Dimension=2
Element: 0 1 0
   Faces:
     0 0 3
     0 0 7
     0 0 2
     0 0 10
Element: 0 2 0
   Faces:
```

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Likewise scale factors can be read in as listed in the cube.exelem file from cmgui example a/a2, however with Lagrange basis functions the scale factors are all unit valued, so this is rather needless.

Example: collapsed square element

The following tricky example collapses a square element to a triangle by using the third local node twice:

Region: /collapse
Shape. Dimension=0
#Fields=1
1) coordinates, coordinate, rectangular cartesian, #Components=2
 x. Value index=1, #Derivatives=0
 y. Value index=2, #Derivatives=0
Node: 1
 0.0 0.0
Node: 2
 1.0 0.0
Node: 3
 0.5 1.0
Shape. Dimension=1 line
Element: 0 0 1
Element: 0 0 2
Element: 0 0 3
Shape. Dimension=2 line*line
#Scale factor sets=0
#Nodes=3
#Fields=1
1) coordinates, coordinate, rectangular cartesian, #Components=2
   x. 1.Lagrange*l.Lagrange, no modify, standard node based.
   #Nodes= 4
   1. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   2. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   3. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   3. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
y. 1.Lagrange*l.Lagrange, no modify, standard node based.
   #Nodes= 4
   1. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   2. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   3. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
   3. #Values=1
      Value indices: 1
      Scale factor indices: 0
Element: 1 0 0
Faces:
0 0 1
0 0 2
0 0 3
0 0 0
Nodes:
   1  2  3
Notes:
  • Element 1 0 0 has a node array with only 3 nodes in it, but the third and fourth parameter mappings both refer to the node at index 3 in the element node list.
  • Note that face on the collapsed side of the element is undefined, as indicated by special face identifier 0 0 0.
  • It is also possible to obtain an equivalent result by physically storing 4 nodes in the element but repeating node 3 in that array.

Simplex elements: triangles and tetrahedra

The cmgui example a/testing/simplex defines two fields on a triangle element, one using a 6-node quadratic simplex, the other a 3-node linear simplex basis. The element in that example stores 6 nodes in its node array, only 3 of which are used for the linear basis, but all 6 contribute parameters to the quadratic interpolation.

Example a/element_types has both linear and quadratic tetrahedra.
Example: multiple fields, bases and scale factor sets in the prolate heart

At the more complex end of the scale is this excerpt from the prolate heart model from cmgui example a/a3. It defines two element fields using different basis functions for each field component. It was exported from cm which always uses a full complement of scale factors i.e. one per basis function.

Shape. Dimension=3  
#Scale factor sets= 4  
c.Hermite*c.Hermite*l.Lagrange, #Scale factors=32  
l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange, #Scale factors=8  
l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange*c.Hermite, #Scale factors=16  
l.Lagrange*c.Hermite*c.Hermite, #Scale factors=32  
#Nodes= 8  
#Fields=2

1) coordinates, coordinate, prolate spheroidal, focus= 0.3525E+02, #Components=3  
#Nodes= 8

1. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 1 2 3 4  
2. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 5 6 7 8  
3. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 9 10 11 12  
4. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 13 14 15 16  
5. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 17 18 19 20  
6. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 21 22 23 24  
7. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 25 26 27 28  
8. #Values=4  
Value indices: 1 2 3 4  
Scale factor indices: 29 30 31 32  

mu. l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange, no modify, standard node based.  
#Nodes= 8

1. #Values=1  
Value indices: 1  
Scale factor indices: 33  
2. #Values=1  
Value indices: 1  
Scale factor indices: 34  
3. #Values=1  
Value indices: 1  
Scale factor indices: 35  
4. #Values=1  
Value indices: 1  
Scale factor indices: 36  
5. #Values=1  
Value indices: 1  
Scale factor indices: 37  
6. #Values=1  
Value indices: 1  
Scale factor indices: 38  
7. #Values=1  
Value indices: 1

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Scale factor indices: 39
8. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
Scale factor indices: 40
theta. 1.Lagrange*1.Lagrange*1.Lagrange, decreasing in xi1, standard node based.
#Nodes= 8
1. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 33
2. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 34
3. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 35
4. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 36
5. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 37
6. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 38
7. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 39
8. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 40
2) fibres, anatomical, fibre, #Components=3
  #Nodes= 8
  1. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 41 42
  2. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 43 44
  3. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 45 46
  4. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 47 48
  5. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 49 50
  6. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 51 52
  7. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 53 54
  8. #Values=2
     Value indices: 1 2
     Scale factor indices: 55 56
#Nodes= 8
1. #Values=1
   Value indices: 1
   Scale factor indices: 33
2. #Values=1
Value indices: 1
Scale factor indices: 34
3. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 35
4. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 36
5. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 37
6. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 38
7. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 39
8. #Values=1
  Value indices: 1
  Scale factor indices: 40

#Nodes= 8
1. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 57 58 59 60
2. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 61 62 63 64
3. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 65 66 67 68
4. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 69 70 71 72
5. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 73 74 75 76
6. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 77 78 79 80
7. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 81 82 83 84
8. #Values=4
  Value indices: 1 2 3 4
  Scale factor indices: 85 86 87 88

Element: 1 0 0
Faces:
0 1 0
0 2 0
0 3 0
0 4 0
0 5 0
0 6 0

Nodes:
19 82 14 83 5 52 1 53

Scale factors:
0.1000000000000000E+01 0.2531332864778986E+02 0.3202170161207646E+02 0.8105758567679540E+03 0.1000000000000000E+01 0.2540127674788437E+02 0.3851739595424932E+02 0.9783913422424932E+03 0.1000000000000000E+01 0.2665607536220107E+02 0.2913687357203342E+02 0.7766746977550476E+03 0.1000000000000000E+01 0.2797776438705370E+02 0.3675988075068424E+02 0.1028459282538425E+04 0.1000000000000000E+01 0.3107367883817446E+02 0.3665266951220884E+02 0.1288478970118849E+04 0.1000000000000000E+01 0.3612724280632425E+02 0.3339690140109599E+02 0.1206530336193149E+02 0.1000000000000000E+00

5.1. Cmgui user documentation
0.381087069422361E+02 0.137963309501423E+04
0.1000000000000000E+01 0.1000000000000000E+00
0.1000000000000000E+00 0.1000000000000000E+00
0.1000000000000000E+00 0.1000000000000000E+00
0.1000000000000000E+00 0.7673250860396258E+00
0.1000000000000000E+00 0.136808433227828E+00
0.1000000000000000E+00 0.4344183441691171E+00
0.1000000000000000E+00 0.3851739595427941E+00
0.1000000000000000E+00 0.3339669014010959E+00

Notes:
- It can be seen that for each Hermite term in the basis function there are twice as many parameter values for
  each node.
- The “Value indices” are indices into the array of parameters held for the field component at the node, starting
  at 1 for the value. It is not possible to refer to parameters by names such as “value”, “d/ds1” or by version
  number.
- The “decreasing in xi1” option specified for the theta component of the coordinates field specifies that as xi
  increases, the angle of theta decreases. This needs to be stated since it is equally possible to interpolate this
  angle in the opposite direction around the circle.
- All scale factors are listed in a single block; in this case there are 32+8+16+32=88 scale factors, listed in
  the order of the scale factor set declaration at the top of the file excerpt. Scale factor indices are absolute
  locations in this array, but they are considered invalid if referring to parts of the array not containing scale
  factors for the basis used in the field component.
- Note how all the scale factors for the tri-linear Lagrange basis are equal to 1.0.

Example: per-element constant and grid-based element fields

Cmgui and its EX files also support storage of regular grids of real or integer values across elements. The grid is
assumed regular across N divisions on lines, N*M divisions on squares and N*M*P divisions on cubes.

Per-element constants are a special case using constant bases together with 0 grid divisions. These have only been
supported since Cmgui 2.7 (April 2010). See this extract from cmgui example a/element_constants:

1) temperature, field, rectangular cartesian, #Components=1
   value. constant*constant*constant, no modify, grid based.
   #xi1=0, #xi2=0, #xi3=0
Element: 1 0 0
Values :
 48.0

Linear Lagrange interpolation is used when there are 1 or more element divisions. Following is an excerpt from
cmgui example a/aq “element formats”:

Group name: block
Shape. Dimension=3
#Scale factor sets=0
#Nodes=0
#Fields=2
1) material_type, field, integer, #Components=1
   number. l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange, no modify, grid based.
   #xi1=2, #xi2=3, #xi3=2
2) potential, field, real, #Components=1
   value. l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange*l.Lagrange, no modify, grid based.
#xi1=2, #xi2=3, #xi3=2
Element: 1 0 0

Values:
1 1 3
1 1 3
1 2 3
1 2 2
1 1 3
1 2 3
2 2 2
1 3 3
1 3 3
2 2 3
2 2 2
13.5 12.2 10.1
14.5 12.2 10.1
15.5 12.2 10.1
16.5 12.2 10.1
12.0 11.0 10.0
13.0 11.0 10.0
14.0 11.0 10.0
15.0 11.0 10.0
10.5 10.7 9.9
11.5 10.7 9.9
12.5 10.7 9.9
13.5 10.7 9.9

Notes:

• "#xi1=2, #xi2=3, #xi3=2" actually refers to the number of divisions between grid points, so 3*4*3=36 values are read in, and represent values at the corners of the grid “cells”. If there are 2 divisions along an xi direction, values are held for xi=0.0, xi=0.5 and xi=1.0. Under each element, values are listed in order of location changing fastest along xi1, then along xi2, then along xi3.

• Only constant (for number-in-xi = 0) or linear Lagrange bases are supported. The basis is irrelevant for integer-valued grids which choose the “nearest value”, so halfway between integer value 1 and 3 the field value jumps directly from 1 to 3.

• Grid point values along boundaries of adjacent elements must be repeated in each element.

Further information

Further information about cmgui and its data formats can be found on the following web-site:
http://www.cmiss.org/cmgui

We also invite questions, bug reports and feature requests under the tracker at:
https://tracker.physiomeproject.org

Note: be sure to search and post under the “cmgui” project!

There are a number of examples which you can use to familiarise yourself with the functions and capabilities of cmgui.

Todo

Add some useful command examples to command window doc - eg. “saving” graphics
5.2 OpenCMISS user documentation

5.2.1 OpenCMISS concepts

OpenCMISS has the following top level objects.

- Basis Functions
- Coordinate Systems
- Regions
- Problems
- Computational environments
- Base system (Diagnostics, I/O etc.)

![OpenCMISS top-level structure](image)

Figure 5.25: OpenCMISS top-level structure

5.2.2 Coordinate Systems

Coordinate system is a system for assigning an n-tuple of numbers or scalars to each point in an n-dimensional space. It anchors the regions within the real world. Coordinate system can have different types such as:

- Rectangular cartesian
- Cylindrical polar
- Spherical polar
- Prolate spheroidal
- Oblate spheroidal
There is a global (world) coordinate system aligned with 3D rectangular cartesian space.

Coordinate system has the following attributes:

- User number
- Finished tag
- Type
- Number of dimensions
- Focus (for prolate-spheriodal system only)
- Origins
- Orientation

### 5.2.3 Basis Functions

Basis functions are the key item to specify the field approximation/interpolation and the linking of nodes and elements to form a mesh. Currently, it has two types: Lagrange-Hermite tensor product and Simplex. Lagrange-Hermite tensor product can be further divided into linear to cubic lagrange, cubic and quadratic hermite. It can be arbitrarily collapsed (two or more nodes in the same location) in any one direction or in any two directions to give a degenerate basis. Simplex basic functions could contain line, triangular and tetrahedral elements. It could be linear, quadratic or cubic. Arbitrary Gaussian quadrature can integrate from 1st to 5th order (3rd order for lines at the moment). Can only have the same order in each direction at the moment. Specifying a basis function automatically generates all necessary line and face basis functions as sub-bases of the basis function.

Basis function has the following attributes:

- User number
- Global number
- Family number
- Finished tag
- Type
- Is Hermite
- Number of XI
- Number of XI coordinates
- ...

### 5.2.4 Regions

Regions are one of the primary objects in openCMISS. Regions are hierarchical in nature in that a region can have one parent region and a number of daughter sub-regions. Daughter regions are related in space to parent regions by an origin and an orientation of the regions coordinate system. Daughter regions may only have the same or fewer dimensions as the parent region. There is a global (world) region (number 0) that has the global (world) coordinate system.

Region has the following attributes:

- User number
- Finished tag
- Label
- Number of sub(daughter) regions
Nodes

There are three places storing nodal information. Nodes associated with region defines the nodes identification and the nodes geometric (initial) position.

Node has the following attributes:

- User number
- Global number
- Label
- Initial Position

Meshes

Meshes are topological constructs within a region which fields use to define themselves. Meshes are made up of a number of mesh components. All mesh components in a mesh must “conform”, that is have the same number of elements, Xi directions etc.

Mesh has the following attributes:

- User number
- Global number
- Finished tag
- Region pointer
- Number of dimensions
- Number of components
- Embedded flag
- Embedding mesh pointer
- Embedded meshes pointers
- Number of elements
- Number of faces
- Number of lines
- Mesh topology pointers
- Decomposition pointers
**Mesh Topology**

Mesh components (Topology) are made up from nodes, elements and basis functions. A new mesh component is required for each different form of interpolation e.g., one mesh component is bilinear Lagrange and another is biquadratic Lagrange. meshTopology_definition.JPG

Mesh topology has the following attributes:

- Mesh component number
- Mesh pointer
- Nodes pointers
- Element pointers
- DOFs pointers

meshTopology_structure.JPG

**Decompositions**

Mesh decomposition (partitioning) is used to split a computationally expensive mesh into smaller subdomains (parts) for parallel computing.

Decomposition has the following attributes:

- User number
- Global number
- Finished tag
- Mesh pointer
- Mesh component number
- Decomposition type
- Number of domains
- Number of edge cut
- Element domain numbers
- Decomposition topology pointer
- Domains pointers (list of domain which has the same size as the number of components in the mesh)

meshDecomposition_structure.JPG

**Domain**

Each domain stores domain information for relevant mesh component.

The domain object contains the following attributes:

- Decomposition pointer
- Mesh pointer
- Mesh component number
- Region pointer
- Number of dimensions
- Node domain (The domain number that the np’th global node is in for the domain decomposition. Note: the domain numbers start at 0 and go up to the NUMBER_OF_DOMAINS-1)
- Domain mappings (for each mapped object e.g. nodes, elements, etc)
• Domain topology pointer(elements, nodes, DOFs)

**Domain Mappings**

Stores information for each mapped object e.g. nodes, elements, etc.

The domain mapping contains the following attributes:

- Number of local
- Total number of local
- Numbers of domain local
- Number of global
- Number of domains
- Number of internal
- Internal list
- Number of boundary
- Boundary list
- Number of ghost
- Ghost list
- Local to global map
- Global to local map
- Number of adjacent domains
- Pointer to list of adjacent domains by domain number
- List of adjacent domains

**Fields**

Fields are the central object for storing information and framing the problem. Fields have a number of field variables i.e., u, du/dn, du/dt, d2u/dt2. Each field variable has a number of components. A field is defined on a decomposed mesh. Each field variable component is defined on a decomposed mesh component.

Field can contains the following attributes:

- User number
- Global number
- Finished tag
- Region pointer
- Type(Geometric, Fibre, General, Material, Source)
- Dependent type(Independent, Dependent)
- Dimension
- Decomposition pointer
- Number of variables
- Variables
• Scalings sets
• Mappings(DOF->Field parameters)
• Parameter sets(distributed vectors)
• Geometric field pointer
• Geometric field parameters
• Create values cache

Field variable

Field variable stores variables for the field such as dependent variables. For example, in the Laplace’s equation(FEM), it stores two variables: u and du/dn. Each field variable has a number of components.

Field variable has the following attributes:
• Variable number
• Variable type
• Field pointer
• Region pointer
• Max number of interpolation parameters
• Number of DOFs
• Total number of DOFs
• Global DOF List
• Domain mapping pointer
• Number of components
• Components

Field Variable Component

Field Variable Component has the following attributes:
• Component number
• Variable pointer
• Field pointer
• Interpolation type
• Mesh component number
• Scaling index
• Domain pointer
• Max number of interpolation parameters
• Mappings(Field paramters->DOF)
Parameter set

Parameter set stores values for each field variable component.

Parameter set has the following Attributes:

- Set index
- Set type
- Parameters pointer

Equation Sets

Equations sets are aimed to have multiple classes, e.g. Elasticity, Fluid mechanics, Electromagnetics, General field problems, Fitting, Optimisation. Different equations are within each class, e.g. Bidomain, Navier-stokes etc. Each equation can use different solution techniques, e.g. FEM, BEM, FD, GFEM. The equation set is associated with a region and is built using the fields defined on the region.

The numerical methods are used which will result in a discretised matrix-vector form of the governing equations. openCMISS is designed to generate equations sets with a number of “equations” matrices.

e.g., damped mass spring system \( Mu + Cu + Ku = f \) will be represented as:

Equations Set has the following attributes:

- User number
- Global number
- Finished tag
- Region pointer
- Class identifier
- Type identifier
- Sub type identifier
- Linearity type(?)
- Time dependence type(?)
- Solution method
- Geometry (fibre?) field pointer
- Materials field pointer
- Source field pointer
- Dependent field pointer
- Analytic info pointer (Analytic info stored in dependent field currently)
- Fixed conditions
- Equations pointer
Equations

Equation holds the matrices and mapping information.

The Field variable to matrix mappings maps each field variable onto the equations matrices or RHS vector.

e.g. Laplace(FEM): 2 variables, 1 component

e.g. Laplace(BEM): 2 variables, 1 component

e.g. Heat equation(explicit time/FEM space): 2 variables, 1 component

TODO matrix distribution

Equations has the following attributes:

- Equation set pointer
- Finished tag
- Output type
- Sparsity type
- Interpolation pointer
- Linear equation data pointer
- Nonlinear equation data pointer
- Time(non-static) data pointer
- Equations mapping pointer
- Equations Matrices

5.2.5 Problems

A problem has a number of solutions (each with their solver) inside a problem control loop. Problem is associated with region via solution which maps to equations sets and hence links to region. Multiple problems can be in the same region, or multiple regions can work to solve one problem.

Problem has the following attributes:

- User number
- Global number
- Finished tag
- Class
- Type
- Subtype
- Control pointer
- Number of solutions
- Solutions pointer

problem_structure.JPG
Solutions

Solution has the following attributes:

• Solution number
• Finished tag
• Linear solution data pointer
• Nonlinear solution data pointer
• Time (non-static) solution data pointer
• Equations set to add (the next equations set to add)
• Index of added equations set (the last successfully added equations set)
• Solution mapping (which contains equations sets)
• Solver pointer

Solvers

Solver has the following attributes:

• Solution pointer
• Finished tag
• Solve type
• Output type
• Sparsity type
• Linear solver pointer
• Non-linear solver pointer
• Time integration solver pointer
• Eigenproblem solver pointer
• Solver matrices

Control

Control has the following attributes:

• Problem pointer
• Finished tag
• Control type

5.2.6 Getting started with OpenCMISS

Tutorial one.
5.2.7 Using OpenCMISS from Python

Section author: Adam Reeve

In this tutorial we will walk through how to solve Laplace’s equation on a 2D geometry using the Python bindings to OpenCMISS.

Getting Started

The Python code given here follows the Python Laplace example found in the OpenCMISS examples repository. You can run the code interactively by entering it directly into the Python interpreter, which can be started by running python. Alternatively you can enter the code into a text file with a .py extension and run it using the python command, eg:

```
python LaplaceExample.py
```

In order to use OpenCMISS we have to first import the CMISS module from the opencmiss package:

```
from opencmiss import CMISS
```

Assuming OpenCMISS has been correctly built with the Python bindings by following the instructions in the programmer documentation, we can now access all the OpenCMISS functions, classes and constants under the CMISS namespace.

Create a Coordinate System

First we construct a coordinate system that will be used to describe the geometry in our problem. The 2D geometry will exist in a 3D space, so we need a 3D coordinate system.

When creating an object in OpenCMISS there are at least three steps. First we initialise the object:

```
coordinateSystem = CMISS.CoordinateSystem()
```

This creates a thin wrapper that just points to the actual coordinate system used internally by OpenCMISS, and initially the pointer is null. Trying to use the coordinate system now would raise an exception. To actually construct a coordinate system we call the CreateStart method and pass it a user number. The user number must be unique between objects of the same type and can be used to identify the coordinate system later. Most OpenCMISS classes require a user number when creating them, and many also require additional parameters to the CreateStart method:

```
coordinateSystemUserNumber = 1
coordinateSystem.CreateStart(coordinateSystemUserNumber)
```

We can now optionally set any properties on the object. We will set the dimension so that the coordinate system is 3D:

```
coordinateSystem.dimension = 3
```

And finally, we finish creating the coordinate system:

```
coordinateSystem.CreateFinish()
```

Create a Region

Next we create a region that our fields will be defined on and tell it to use the 3D coordinate system we created previously. The CreateStart method for a region requires another region as a parameter. We use the world region that is created by default so that our region is a subregion of the world region. We can also give the region a label:
Create a Basis

The finite element description of our fields requires a basis function to interpolate field values over elements, so we create a 2D basis with linear Lagrange interpolation in both xi directions:

```python
basisUserNumber = 1
basis = CMISS.Basis()
basis.CreateStart(basisUserNumber)
basis.type = CMISS.BasisTypes.LAGRANGE_HERMITE_TP
basis.numberOfXi = 2
basis.interpolationXi = [CMISS.BasisInterpolationSpecifications.LINEAR_LAGRANGE, CMISS.BasisInterpolationSpecifications.LINEAR_LAGRANGE]
basis.quadratureNumberOfGaussXi = [2, 2]
basis.CreateFinish()
```

When we set the basis type we select a value from the BasisTypes enum. To get a list of possible basis types and interpolation types you can use the help function in the python interpreter:

```python
help(CMISS.BasisTypes)
help(CMISS.BasisInterpolationSpecifications)
```

Similarly, you can see what methods and properties are available for the various CMISS classes and get help information for these:

```python
help(CMISS.Basis)
help(CMISS.Basis.CreateStart)
help(CMISS.Basis.interpolationXi)
```

Create a Decomposed Mesh

In order to define a simple 2D geometry for our problem we can use one of OpenCMISS’s inbuilt generated meshes. We will create a 2D, rectangular mesh with 10 elements in both the x and y directions and tell it to use the basis we created previously:

```python
generatedMeshUserNumber = 1
numberGlobalXElements = 10
numberGlobalYElements = 10
width = 1.0
length = 1.0
generatedMesh = CMISS.GeneratedMesh()
generatedMesh.CreateStart(generatedMeshUserNumber, region)
generatedMesh.type = CMISS.GeneratedMeshTypes.REGULAR
generatedMesh.basis = [basis]
generatedMesh.extent = [width, length, 0.0]
generatedMesh.numberOfElements = [numberGlobalXElements, numberGlobalYElements]
```

When setting the basis property, we assign a list of bases as we might want to construct a mesh with multiple components using different interpolation schemes.
The generated mesh is not itself a mesh, but is used to create a mesh. We construct the mesh when we call the `CreateFinish` method of the generated mesh and pass in the mesh to generate:

```python
meshUserNumber = 1
mesh = CMISS.Mesh()
generatedMesh.CreateFinish(meshUserNumber, mesh)
```

Here we have initialised a mesh but not called `CreateStart` or `CreateFinish`, instead the mesh creation is done when finishing the creation of the generated mesh.

Because OpenCMISS can solve problems on multiple computational nodes, it must work with a decomposed mesh. We now decompose our mesh by getting the number of computational nodes and creating a decomposition with that number of domains:

```python
decompositionUserNumber = 1
decomposition = CMISS.Decomposition()
decomposition.CreateStart(decompositionUserNumber, mesh)
decomposition.type = CMISS.DecompositionTypes.CALCULATED
decomposition.numberOfDomains = CMISS.ComputationalNumberOfNodesGet()
decomposition.CreateFinish()
```

Note that even when we have just one computational node, OpenCMISS still needs to work with a decomposed mesh, which will have one domain.

### Defining Geometry

Now that we have a decomposed mesh, we can begin defining the fields we need on it. First we will create a geometric field to define our problem geometry:

```python
geometricFieldUserNumber = 1
geometricField = CMISS.Field()
geometricField.CreateStart(geometricFieldUserNumber, region)
geometricField.meshDecomposition = decomposition
geometricField.ComponentMeshComponentSet(CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U, 1, 1)
geometricField.ComponentMeshComponentSet(CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U, 2, 1)
geometricField.ComponentMeshComponentSet(CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U, 3, 1)
geometricField.CreateFinish()
```

The call to the `ComponentMeshComponentSet` method is not actually required here as all field components will default to use the first mesh component, but if we have defined a mesh that has multiple components (that use different interpolation schemes) then different field components can use different mesh components. For example, in a finite elasticity problem we could define our geometry using quadratic Lagrange interpolation, and the hydrostatic pressure using linear Lagrange interpolation.

We have created a field but all the field component values are currently set to zero. We can define the geometry using the generated mesh we created earlier:

```python
generatedMesh.GeometricParametersCalculate(geometricField)
```

### Setting up Equations

Now we have a geometric field we can construct an equations set. This defines the set of equations that we wish to solve in our problem on this region. The specific equation set we are solving is defined by the fourth, fifth and sixth parameters to the `CreateStart` method. These are the equations set class, type and subtype respectively. In this example we are solving the standard Laplace equation which is a member of the classical field equations set class and the Laplace equation type. When we create an equations set we also have to create an equations set field, however, this is only used to identify multiple equations sets of the same type on a region so we will not use it:
equationsSetUserNumber = 1
equationsSetFieldUserNumber = 2
equationsSetField = CMISS.Field()
equationsSet = CMISS.EquationsSet()
equationsSet.CreateStart(equationsSetUserNumber, region, geometricField,
  CMISS.EquationsSetClasses.CLASSICAL_FIELD,
  CMISS.EquationsSetTypes.LAPLACE_EQUATION,
  CMISS.EquationsSetSubtypes.STANDARD_LAPLACE,
  equationsSetFieldUserNumber, equationsSetField)
equationsSet.CreateFinish()

Now we use our equations set to create a dependent field. This stores the solution to our equations:

dependentFieldUserNumber = 3
dependentField = CMISS.Field()
equationsSet.DependentCreateStart(dependentFieldUserNumber, dependentField)
equationsSet.DependentCreateFinish()

We haven’t used the Field.CreateStart method to construct the dependent field but have had it automatically constructed by the equations set.

We can initialise our solution with a value we think will be close to the final solution. A field in OpenCMISS can contain multiple field variables, and each field variable can have multiple components. For the standard Laplace equation, the dependent field only has a U variable which has one component. Field variables can also have different field parameter sets, for example we can store values at a previous time step in dynamic problems. In this example we are only interested in the VALUES parameter set:

componentNumber = 1
initialValue = 0.5
dependentField.ComponentValuesInitialiseDP({
  CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U, 
  CMISS.FieldParameterSetTypes.VALUES, 
  componentNumber, initialValue})

Once the equations set is defined, we create the equations that use our fields to construct equations matrices and vectors. We will use sparse matrices to store the equations and enable matrix output when assembling the equations:

equations = CMISS.Equations()
equationsSet.EquationsCreateStart(equations)
equations.sparsityType = CMISS.EquationsSparsityTypes.SPARSE
equations.outputType = CMISS.EquationsOutputTypes.MATRIX
equationsSet.EquationsCreateFinish()

**Defining the Problem**

Now that we have defined all the equations we will need we can create our problem to solve. We create a standard Laplace problem, which is a member of the classical field problem class and Laplace equation problem type:

problemUserNumber = 1
problem = CMISS.Problem()
problem.CreateStart(problemUserNumber)
problem.SpecificationSet(CMISS.ProblemClasses.CLASSICAL_FIELD,
  CMISS.ProblemTypes.LAPLACE_EQUATION,
  CMISS.ProblemSubTypes.STANDARD_LAPLACE)
problem.CreateFinish()

The problem type defines a control loop structure that is used when solving the problem. We may have multiple control loops with nested sub loops, and control loops can have different types, for example load incremented loops or time loops for dynamic problems. In this example a simple, single iteration loop is created without any sub loops. If we wanted to access the control loop and modify it we would use the problem.ControlLoopGet method before finishing the creation of the control loops, but we will just leave it with the default configuration:
Configuring Solvers

After defining the problem structure we can create the solvers that will be run to actually solve our problem. The problem type defines the solvers to be set up so we call `problem.SolversCreateStart` to create the solvers and then we can access the solvers to modify their properties:

```python
solver = CMISS.Solver()
problem.SolversCreateStart()
problem.SolverGet([CMISS.ControlLoopIdentifiers.NODE], 1, solver)
solver.outputType = CMISS.SolverOutputTypes.SOLVER
solver.linearType = CMISS.LinearSolverTypes.ITERATIVE
solver.linearIterativeAbsoluteTolerance = 1.0e-10
solver.linearIterativeRelativeTolerance = 1.0e-10
problem.SolversCreateFinish()
```

Note that we initialised a solver but didn’t create it directly by calling its `CreateStart` method, it was created with the call to `SolversCreateStart` and then we obtain it with the call to `SolverGet`. If we look at the help for the `SolverGet` method we see it takes three parameters:

- `controlLoopIdentifiers` A list of integers used to identify the control loop to get a solver for. This always starts with the root control loop, given by `CMISS.ControlLoopIdentifiers.NODE`. In this example we only have the one control loop and no sub loops.
- `solverIndex` The index of the solver to get, as a control loop may have multiple solvers. In this case there is only one solver in our root control loop.
- `solver` An initialised solver object that hasn’t been created yet, and on return it will be the solver that we asked for.

Once we’ve obtained the solver we then set various properties before finishing the creation of all the problem solvers.

After defining our solver we can create the equations for the solver to solve by adding our equations sets to the solver equations. In this example we have just one equations set to add but for coupled problems we may have multiple equations sets in the solver equations. We also tell OpenCMISS to use sparse matrices to store our solver equations:

```python
solverEquations = CMISS.SolverEquations()
problem.SolverEquationsCreateStart()
solver.SolverEquationsGet(solverEquations)
solverEquations.sparsityType = CMISS.SolverEquationsSparsityTypes.SPARSE
equationsSetIndex = solverEquations.EquationsSetAdd(equationsSet)
problem.SolverEquationsCreateFinish()
```

Setting Boundary Conditions

The final step in configuring the problem is to define the boundary conditions to be satisfied. We will set the dependent field value at the first node to be zero, and at the last node to be 1.0. These nodes will correspond to opposite corners in our geometry. Because OpenCMISS can solve our problem on multiple computational nodes where each computational node does not necessarily know about all nodes in our mesh, we must first check that the node we are setting the boundary condition at is in our computational node domain:

```python
nodes = CMISS.Nodes()
region.NodesGet(notes)
firstNodeNumber = 1
lastNodeNumber = nodes.numberOfNodes
firstNodeDomain = decomposition.NodeDomainGet(firstNodeNumber, 1)
lastNodeDomain = decomposition.NodeDomainGet(lastNodeNumber, 1)
```
computationalNodeNumber = CMISS.ComputationalNodeNumberGet()

boundaryConditions = CMISS.BoundaryConditions()
solverEquations.BoundaryConditionsCreateStart(boundaryConditions)

if firstNodeDomain == computationalNodeNumber:
    boundaryConditions.SetNode(
        dependentField, CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U,
        1, 1, firstNodeNumber, 1,
        CMISS.BoundaryConditionsTypes.FIXED, 0.0)

if lastNodeDomain == computationalNodeNumber:
    boundaryConditions.SetNode(
        dependentField, CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U,
        1, 1, lastNodeNumber, 1,
        CMISS.BoundaryConditionsTypes.FIXED, 1.0)
solverEquations.BoundaryConditionsCreateFinish()

When setting a boundary condition at a node we can use either the AddNode method or the SetNode method. Using AddNode will add the value we provide to the current field value and set this as the boundary condition value, but here we want to directly specify the value so we use the SetNode method.

The arguments to the SetNode method are the field, field variable type, node version number, node user number, node derivative number, field component number, boundary condition type and boundary condition value. The version and derivative numbers are one as we aren’t using versions and we are setting field values rather than derivative values. We can also only set derivative boundary conditions when using a Hermite basis type. There are a wide number of boundary condition types that can be set but many are only available for certain equation set types and in this example we simply want to fix the field value.

When solverEquations.BoundaryConditionsCreateFinish() is called OpenCMISS will construct the solver matrices and vectors.

**Solving**

After our problem solver equations have been fully defined we are now ready to solve our problem. When we call the Solve method of the problem it will loop over the control loops and control loop solvers to solve our problem:

```
problem.Solve()
```

**Exporting the Solution**

Once the problem has been solved, the dependent field contains the solution to our problem. We can then export the dependent and geometric fields to a FieldML file so that we can visualise the solution using cmgui. We will export the geometric and dependent field values to a LaplaceExample.xml file. Separate plain text data files will also be created:

```
baseName = "laplace"
dataFormat = "PLAIN_TEXT"
fml = CMISS.FieldMLIO()
fml.OutputCreate(mesh, ",", baseName, dataFormat)
fml.OutputAddFieldNoType(
    baseName + ".geometric", dataFormat, geometricField,
    CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U, CMISS.FieldParameterSetTypes.VALUES)
fml.OutputAddFieldNoType(
    baseName + ".phi", dataFormat, dependentField,
    CMISS.FieldVariableTypes.U, CMISS.FieldParameterSetTypes.VALUES)
fml.OutputWrite("LaplaceExample.xml")
fml.Finalise()
```
5.2.8 Using CellML in OpenCMISS

The aim of this tutorial is to give the user a bit of help in using CellML models in OpenCMISS. OpenCMISS(cellml) is the code that provides the mapping from OpenCMISS(cm) (Fortran) to the CellML API (C++). The API exposed by the OpenCMISS(cellml) library is then wrapped by the OpenCMISS(cm) API, with documentation available in the OpenCMISS programmer documentation. The programmer documentation provides the reference documentation for the OpenCMISS(cm) routines which are described in this tutorial. The monodomain example from the OpenCMISS examples repository provides a good demonstration of OpenCMISS+CellML in practice, while the CellML examples are used to perform functional testing of the OpenCMISS(cellml) library.

Overview

OpenCMISS encapsulates all interaction with CellML models within a *CellML environment*. A CellML environment is specific to a region, but each region may contain zero or more CellML environments. Having created a CellML environment you are then able to import CellML models into the environment. Each CellML environment may import an arbitrary number of CellML models. [TODO: what is a use-case for multiple CellML environments in a region?]

Variables in CellML models imported into a CellML environment are then able to be flagged as *known* or *wanted* as desired by the user. Flagged variables are made available by the CellML environment for mapping to OpenCMISS fields, either for obtaining values from the CellML model (wanted) or setting values in the CellML model (known).

In order for the CellML environment to manage the computation of a CellML model, each environment requires the user to provide several fields suitable for such usage. These are the *models*, *state*, *intermediate*, and *parameters* fields. Typically the user will pass in empty fields and allow the CellML environment to create the fields appropriately.

With all desired fields set-up appropriately, the user then just needs to add their CellML environment(s) to the corresponding solver as part of their control loop set-up when defining the actual problem to solve.

The CellML environment

The OpenCMISS type for the CellML environment is CMISSCellMLType. As with most OpenCMISS types, a user-number is provided to uniquely identify this CellML environment to the user. The basic creation block is given below.

```fortran
! declare the user number for the CellML environment we want to create INTEGER(CMISSIntg), PARAMETER :: CellMLUserNumber=10 ! and the actual handle for the CellML environment TYPE(CMISSCellMLType) :: CellML

! We first initialise the CellML environment CALL CMISSCellML_Initialise(CellML,Err)
! and then we are able to trigger the start of creation CALL CMISSCellML_CreateStart(CellMLUserNumber,Region,CellML,Err)

! import models ! flag variables

! terminate the creation process CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFinish(CellML,Err)
```

It is important to note that all required models must be imported and all desired variables flagged before terminating the CellML environment creation process. This is because the create finish method will proceed to make use of OpenCMISS(cellml) to instantiate each of the imported CellML models into executable code, and the generation of that executable code requires all knowledge of the flagged variables.

Models are imported into the CellML environment with the code shown below.
INTEGER (CMISSIntg) :: modelIndex

! Import the specified model into the CellML environment
CALL CMISSCellML_ModelImport(CellML,"model.xml",modelIndex,Err)

In this example, the CellML model model.xml is imported into the CellML environment and on successful return the variable modelIndex will be set to the index for this specific model in the CellML environment. The CellML model to import is specified by URL, and can be either absolute (e.g., http://example.com/coolest/model/ever.xml) or relative (e.g., coolest/model/ever.xml). If a relative URL is specified, it will be resolved relative to the current working directory (CWD) of the executed application. (It is anticipated that application developers would use their own logic to provide absolute URLs to define CellML models in OpenCMISS.)

Flagging variables

As mentioned above, all variables of interest in the imported CellML models must be flagged prior to terminating the CellML environment creation process. Variables in CellML models can be flagged as either known or wanted. Flagging variables in a model will inform OpenCMISS(cellml) that the given variable(s) need to be available for use by OpenCMISS(cm), and hence the executable code generated when the models are instantiated is required to provide this access. The process for flagging variables is shown below.

! Flag a variable as known
CALL CMISSCellML_VariableSetAsKnown(CellML,modelIndex,"fast_sodium_current/g_Na ",Err)

! Flag a variable as wanted
CALL CMISSCellML_VariableSetAsWanted(CellML,modelIndex,"membrane/i_K1",Err)

Details on how to identify specific variables in a CellML model are given below. The modelIndex should be the index of the desired model in the CellML environment, as returned by the model import described above.

Flagging a variable as known indicates that the OpenCMISS user wants to control the value of the specified variable, thus taking ownership of the variable from the CellML model. Currently, only CONSTANT variables in CellML models can be flagged as known (see the Variable Evaluation Types in the CellML API documentation). This is typically used when parameters in the CellML model are to have their values defined by OpenCMISS fields.

Flagging a variable as wanted indicates that the OpenCMISS user wants to obtain the value of the specified variable from the CellML model. Currently, CONSTANT, PSEUDOSTATE_VARIABLE, and ALGEBRAIC variables in CellML models can be flagged as wanted (see the Variable Evaluation Types in the CellML API documentation). In order to be able to save the state of CellML models during integration steps, all state variables in models are automatically flagged as wanted. Depending on how the CellML model is being applied in the OpenCMISS simulation, variables that are considered CONSTANT by the CellML API will actually be the variables of interest to the OpenCMISS user - commonly the case for mechanical constitutive relationships where the wanted strain energy components are algebraically related to the known strain components.

Identifying CellML variables

When identifying variables from CellML models in OpenCMISS, the convention is to address them with a string consisting of the variable’s name and the name of the parent component. Given the following (invalid!) CellML model,

```xml
<model>
  <import href="http://models.cellml.org/bob/model.xml">
    <component name="imported_component" component_ref="source_component"/>
  </import>
  <component name="membrane">
    <variable name="i_K1"/>
    <variable name="i_stimulus"/>
    <variable name="T"/>
  </component>
</model>
```

The process for identifying variables in the model is as follows:

1. Identify the component names and variable names from the CellML model.
2. Address the variables with the string consisting of the variable’s name and the name of the parent component.
<component name="temperature">
  <variable name="temperature" units="K" initial_value="310.0" public_interface="out"/>
</component>

<connection>
  <map_components component_1="membrane" component_2="temperature"/>
  <map_variables variable_1="T" variable_2="temperature"/>
</connection>
</model>

the i_K1 variable in the membrane component is identified with the string membrane/i_K1. Similarly, membrane/i_stimulus identifies the stimulus current, membrane/T identifies the temperature variable in the membrane component, and temperature/temperature identifies the temperature variable in the temperature component. Due to the connection between the temperature variables in the membrane and temperature components, membrane/T and temperature/temperature can be treated interchangeably. (Internally, OpenCMISS(cellml) will always resolve variable references to the source variable and hence membrane/T will resolve to temperature/temperature.) Given the rules for naming CellML components and variables, these identifier strings are guaranteed to be unique for a specified model.

Using this method to identify variables in CellML models, it is not possible to address variables which are not described in the top-level model being imported into the OpenCMISS CellML environment. For example, the above CellML model imports the component source_component from the model http://models.cellml.org/bob/model.xml but the variables in that component are not available to the OpenCMISS user unless they are connected to variables in the model (i.e., there are connections that map the component imported_component to the component membrane or temperature in the above model).

Mapping between variables and fields

TODO: This section needs some checking and filling out!

CellML model variables which have been flagged (see above) are able to be mapped to components of OpenCMISS fields. CellML variables which are mapped from OpenCMISS field components will have their value updated from the field at each DOF prior to evaluation of the CellML model. OpenCMISS field components which are mapped from CellML variables will trigger evaluation of the CellML model(s) associated with the requested DOF.

The basic mapping process is as follows.

! Start the creation of CellML <--> OpenCMISS field maps
CALL CMISSCellML_FieldMapsCreateStart(CellML,Err)

! and set up the field variable component --> CellML model variable mappings.

! Map the first component of the dependent field to the membrane potential in the CellML model
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFieldToCellMLMap(CellML,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U_VARIABLE_TYPE,1,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, & modelIndex,"membrane/Vm",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)

! and the reverse mapping
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateCellMLToFieldMap(CellML,modelIndex,"membrane/Vm",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U_VARIABLE_TYPE,1,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)

! Finish the creation of CellML <--> OpenCMISS field maps
CALL CMISSCellML_FieldMapsCreateFinish(CellML,Err)

For a mechanical constitutive application, the mapping may look more like

!Start the creation of CellML <--> OpenCMISS field maps
CALL CMISSCellML_FieldMapsCreateStart(CellML,Err)

!Now we can set up the field variable component --> CellML model variable mappings.

!Map the strain components from OpenCMISS fields to the CellML model
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFieldToCellMLMap(CellML,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U1_VARIABLE_TYPE,1,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, & MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/E11",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)

CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFieldToCellMLMap(CellML,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U1_VARIABLE_TYPE,2,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
& MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/E12",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFieldToCellMLMap(CellML,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U1_VARIABLE_TYPE,3,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
& MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/E13",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFieldToCellMLMap(CellML,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U1_VARIABLE_TYPE,4,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
& MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/E22",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFieldToCellMLMap(CellML,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U1_VARIABLE_TYPE,5,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
& MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/E23",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateFieldToCellMLMap(CellML,DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U1_VARIABLE_TYPE,6,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
& MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/E33",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)

! Map the material parameters - if any
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateCellMLToFieldMap(CellML,MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/Tdev11",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U2_VARIABLE_TYPE,1,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateCellMLToFieldMap(CellML,MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/Tdev12",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U2_VARIABLE_TYPE,2,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateCellMLToFieldMap(CellML,MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/Tdev13",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U2_VARIABLE_TYPE,3,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateCellMLToFieldMap(CellML,MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/Tdev22",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U2_VARIABLE_TYPE,4,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateCellMLToFieldMap(CellML,MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/Tdev23",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U2_VARIABLE_TYPE,5,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)
CALL CMISSCellML_CreateCellMLToFieldMap(CellML,MooneyRivlinModelIndex,"equations/Tdev33",CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE, &
DependentField,CMISS_FIELD_U2_VARIABLE_TYPE,6,CMISS_FIELD_VALUES_SET_TYPE,Err)

! Finish the creation of CellML <-> OpenCMISS field maps
CALL CMISSCellML_FieldMapsCreateFinish(CellML,Err)

CellML fields

The required fields and what you might want to do with them...

Evaluating CellML fields

Do we want to describe how simple algebraic-type evaluation can be done independently of the whole solver/problem/equation set thingy? is that even possible?

Adding CellML models to your Problem set-up

Really need a better title! Explain how CellML environments get added into control loops, etc. so that they get computed along with the rest of the model when performing a simulation.

Miscellaneous utilities

Collect all the other bits and pieces here? these are typically the OpenCMISS(cellml) functions that are used internally by OpenCMISS(cm) but maybe should be (and are?) exposed via the OpenCMISS(cm) API?

5.2.9 OpenCMISS tutorial videos

Videos of OpenCMISS tutorials.

MPI tutorial 31 January 2012 Chris Bradley
CUDA tutorial 1 17 February 2012 Chris Bradley
CUDA tutorial 2 24 February 2012 Chris Bradley
OpenMP tutorial 16 March 2012 Chris Bradley
5.2.10 Tutorial: Version Control With Git

Section author: Adam Reeve

Getting Started

If Git isn’t installed already, it can be installed from the git-core package if you’re using Linux or by downloading msysGit for Windows.

The first thing that must be done before using Git is to tell it your name and email address. These will be associated with any commits you make:

```
git config --global user.name "Adam Reeve"
git config --global user.email "aree035@aucklanduni.ac.nz"
```

If you are using a graphical Git client such as Tortoise Git on Windows or gitg on Linux there will be an option to edit these settings.

Creating a Repository

You can initialise a new Git repository in an existing directory with:

```
git init
```

Or to create a new directory:

```
git init my_project
```

Cloning an Existing Repository

You can clone an existing repository from a local path or from a URL. To clone the repository for this tutorial, run:

```
git clone https://github.com/adamreeve/git_tutorial.git
```

This will create a git_tutorial directory in your current directory, so change into that directory now:

```
cd git_tutorial
```

Have a look at the project history on the master branch with:

```
git log
```

Also try out some of the options to the log command:

```
git log --patch
git log --stat
git log --oneline --graph --all
```

The last example uses the “--all” option to show history in all branches.
Making and Committing Changes

Run `git status` and you should get a message that there are no changes to be staged and no staged changes to be committed.

Now make a change to the `hello.py` file and run `git status` again. You should see that you still have no changes staged to commit but you have an unstaged change.

Run `git diff` go see what changes you have made. Now add your change to the staging area:

```
$ git add hello.py
```

And run `git status` again. You will see that there are no unstaged changes but one file has changes that are staged.

Now run `git diff` and there should be no changes. This is because `git diff` compares your working directory with the staging area by default. To see what changes are in the staging area and would be committed, run:

```
$ git diff --cached
```

If you’ve decided that you no longer want to commit a change that you’ve added to the staging area, you’ll need to unstage that file by running:

```
$ git reset HEAD hello.py
```

**Note:** `git` tells you how to stage and unstage changes in the output of the `git status` command.

If you then decide that your change is rubbish and you want to remove it completely, you can checkout a clean version of the changed file:

```
$ git checkout -- hello.py
```

The “--" before the file path isn’t required but is recommended as it means that any further command options are file paths, which prevents confusion when you have a file named the same as a branch (as `git checkout` is also used for checking out a branch, as you’ll see later).

Now make another change and add it to the staging area, then commit it:

```
$ git commit -m "My awesome change"
```

You can either specify a commit message on the command line with the “-m” option or if you leave that option off, `git` will open a text editor to allow you to enter a message. By default this is vim, but you might want to change it to something else. For example, if you’re on Linux:

```
$ git config --global core.editor "gedit"
```

Or if you’re on Windows and have TortoiseGit installed, you can use:

```
$ git config --global core.editor "notepad2"
```

Now make another change to the file and then add this change to the staging area, then run:

```
$ git commit --amend
```

The amend option lets you update the previous commit. It will also open the editor to let you update the commit message if required. This is useful if you realise you’ve made a small mistake in the previous commit and haven’t yet pushed it to a public repository.

**Note:** The commit hash changes after you amend it. This is now a different commit to the one before, so the hash has changed.

Now we’ll try using `git`’s graphical interface for making a commit. Make a change to `hello.py` then run:

```
$ git gui
```

Stage the change you made then make another commit.
Branches

It’s always a good idea to create a new branch for any new feature you’re working on in a project:

git branch new_feature

This will create a new branch that points to the commit you have currently checked out. You can also specify which commit the new branch should point to. For example, to create a new branch that points to the same commit as the master branch:

git branch another_feature master

To delete a branch:

git branch -d another_feature

This will give an error if the branch hasn’t been merged into another branch.

Now checkout the branch you created. If there are any differences between your previous head commit and the branch you are checking out, your working directory will be updated:

git checkout new_feature

You can create a new branch and check it out in one go by using the “-b” option to the checkout command:

git checkout -b my_feature

Now make some changes and commit them on your new branch. You can see a list of branches and the branch you’re on at any time by running:

git branch

Have a look at the history of your branch and the position of other branches by running gitk.

Merging and Resolving Conflicts

Now we will practice merging one branch into another branch. We will create a new local branch that matches the “merge_into” branch from the origin repository, and merge in the “merge_from” branch. First create the local branch you will work on:

git checkout -b merge_into origin/merge_into

Now run:

gitk --all

This will show a tree with commits from all branches. Note where the heads of the merge_from, origin/merge_from and origin/merge_into branches are.

Now merge the origin/merge_from branch:

git merge origin/merge_from

And look at the result of your merge:

gitk --all

Now we will try another merge, but this time there will be a conflict:

git checkout -b merge_conflict origin/merge_conflict

gitk --all

git merge origin/conflicting
Read the output of the merge command to note that there is a conflict in the `hello.py` file. Also run `git status`. When you have conflicts in multiple files you can keep track of which conflicts have been resolved with the status command. Open that file in your editor and resolve the conflict. Then mark the conflict as resolved by adding the file:

```bash
git add hello.py
```

And now you have to manually make a merge commit:

```bash
git commit -m "Merge conflicting branch"
```

### Remotes and Remote Branches

As you originally cloned this repository, you have one remote repository set up already called “origin”. To list the remote repositories you’ve added with their urls:

```bash
git remote -v
```

Branches on a remote repository can be checked out or referred to in other commands by prefixing them with the remote name. For example, to show the head commit of the master branch on the origin repository:

```bash
git show origin/master
```

To see all branches including those on remote repositories, you can use:

```bash
git branch -a
```

### Staging Parts of Files

Most Git graphical interfaces allow you to stage only some changes in a file. From the Git command line you can do this with the “–patch” or “-p” option to the add command. Change a line at the top of `hello.py` and then make another change at the bottom. Now run:

```bash
git add -p hello.py
```

Say yes to adding the first change but no to the second change, then run `git status`, `git diff`, and then `git diff --cached`.

### Stashing Changes

Git’s stash command is useful for storing changes you have made that you want to save but don’t want to commit yet. For example, you can stash changes and then switch to another branch and do some work, making commits, then go to another branch and recover your stashed changes.

Run `git status`. You should have a change added to the staging area and another unstaged change from the last section. Otherwise make a change to `hello.py`. Now stash those changes:

```bash
git stash
```

And look at what this has done:

```bash
git status
git stash list
git stash show -p stash@{0}
```

Your working directory and index should now be clean, but your change is safely stored away in the list of stashes. Now pop your stashed change off the top of the stash list:
Your changes are now back in your working directory, and have been removed from the stash list. Stash your change again to get a clean working directory:

```
$ git stash
```

Note that you can use `git stash apply` to apply a stashed change without removing it from the stash list, and that you can also apply a stashed change on a different branch to the one it was made on.

**Rewriting History**

Git has powerful tools for allowing you to rearrange history so that you can clean up work to make the history more clear. The most useful one to know is `git rebase --interactive`. Rebasing means to move a series of commits onto a new base commit. You can also use the rebase command and keep the base the same, but still edit and rearrange commits.

Checkout a new branch that points to the same commit as `origin/rebase_me`:

```
$ git checkout -b rebasing origin/rebase_me
```

We will rebase these commits onto the latest master branch. First have a look at what we will rebasing by running `gitk --all` and looking at the `origin/rebase_me` branch, or `git log -p origin/master..rebasing`.

Now start the interactive rebase:

```
$ git rebase --interactive origin/master
```

Reorder the commits so that the “Update docstring” commit is first and the “Fix typo” commit is squashed into the “More excitement” commit. Because you have squashed a commit, you will get the opportunity to change the message of the commit that was squashed into. Think about whether you should update the original commit message to account for the change that was squashed.

Run `gitk` to see what you’ve done.

Note that you can still access any rebased commits by their hash, and you can find the commits that you have recently checked out with the `git reflog` command. This means that if you have committed something it’s very hard to permanently lose that work.

**More on Remotes**

Create an account on GitHub if you don’t have one already, then fork this repository. Now make some changes to this repository (if you can, make the tutorial better!) and push them to a branch on your remote repository. To push you’ll first have to create an alias for your remote repository:

```
$ git remote add github https://<your_username>@github.com/<your_username>/git_tutorial.git
```

Where “<your_username>” has been replaced with your GitHub username. Now to push your changes to your remote repository:

```
$ git push github <name_of_branch>
```

Now on the web page for your fork of the git_tutorial repository, click on the pull request button and follow the steps to create a new pull request.

- genindex
- search

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5.2.11 Laplace examples

42 master
For testing

Analytic Laplace
For testing

Laplace ellipsoid
For testing

Laplace Python
For testing

Laplace
For testing

Laplace C
For testing

Number Laplace
For testing

Parallel Laplace
For testing
Clone  Clone is a Mercurial term that means to make a complete copy of a Mercurial repository. This is done in order to have a local copy of a repository to work in.

Embedded workspace, Embedded workspaces  A Mercurial concept that allows workspaces to be nested within other workspaces.

Exposure, Exposures  A publicly available page that provides access to and information about a specific revision of a workspace. Exposures are used to publish the contents of workspaces at points in time where the model(s) contained are considered to be useful.

Exposures are created by the PMR software, and offer views appropriate to the type of model being exposed. CellML files for example are presented with options such as code generation and mathematics display, whereas FieldML models might offer a 3D view of the mesh.

Fork  A copy of the workspace which includes all the original version history, but is owned by the user who created the fork.

Mercurial  Mercurial is a distributed version control system, used by the Physiome Model Repository software to maintain a history of changes to files in workspaces. See a tour of the Mercurial basics for some good introductory material.

Pull, Pulling  The term used with distributed version control systems for the action of pulling changes from one clone of the repository into another. With PMR, this usually implies pulling from a workspace in the model repository into a clone of the workspace on your local machine.

Push, Pushing  The term used with distributed version control systems for the action of pushing changes from one clone of the repository into another. With PMR, this usually implies pushing from a workspace clone on your local machine back to the workspace in the model repository, but could be into any other clone of the workspace. See a tour of the Mercurial basics for some good introductory material.

Python  Python is a programming language that lets you work more quickly and integrate your systems more effectively. See http://python.org for all the details.

Synchronize  Used to pull the contents or changes from other Mercurial repositories into a workspace via a URI.

Workspace, Workspaces  A Mercurial repository hosted on the Physiome Model Repository. This is essentially a folder or directory in which files are stored, with the added feature of being version controlled by the distributed version control system called Mercurial.
Tutorial to do list

7.1 General

Todo

• Add many more references (.. _like-this:) to docs for cross-referencing.
• make sure all references to the staging instance are updated to teching.physiomeproject.org

7.2 Within sections

Todo

• Add many more references (.. _like-this:) to docs for cross-referencing.
• make sure all references to the staging instance are updated to teching.physiomeproject.org

(Original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/ABIBook-TODO.rst, line 10.)

Todo

Add some useful command examples to command window doc - eg. “saving” graphics

(Original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/Cmgui/index.rst, line 34.)

Todo

Need to check this section on obtaining models via mercurial.

(Original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/PMR/PMR-downloading-viewing.rst, line 76.)

Todo

This section needs more work.

(Original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/PMR/PMR-embeddedworkspaces.rst, line 9.)

Todo

• Update all PMR documentation to reflect workspace ID changes and user workspace changes, if they go ahead.
• Get embedded workspaces doc written.
• Get some best practice docs written.

(The original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/PMR/index.rst, line 29.)

**Todo**
Complete this section

(The original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/tutorials/embc13/scenario1/bestpractice.rst, line 6.)

**Todo**
This section.

(The original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/tutorials/embc13/scenario2/bestpractice.rst, line 6.)

**Todo**
Complete this section

(The original entry is located in /var/build/user_builds/abibook2/checkouts/latest/tutorials/embc13/scenario3/bestpractice.rst, line 6.)
8.1 ABI research case studies

Examples of research at the ABI - goals, tools and techniques used, outcomes.
To serve as examples of how to use the available tools, as well as promotional material.
If you would like your research to appear in this section, please let me know, or fork this documentation on GitHub!

8.2 About the ABI

History, research groups, opportunities etc etc.
Contents:

8.2.1 ABI Resources

Documentation covering what resources are available for Msc and PhD students to carry out their research.

Computer hardware and software

- Details of computers available to students.
- Operating system options
- List of software packages available for installation
- License issues
- Information about help, IT staff etc.
8.2.2 ABI Research Groups

8.3 CAP user documentation

8.4 CM user documentation

8.5 CellML API user documentation

8.6 Exporting ip files for CM from cmgui

You can export files in the ip format used by CM using the `gfx export` command, for example:

```
gfx export cm field coordinates ipcoor FILENAME.ipcoor ipbase FILENAME.ipbase ipmap FILENAME.ipmap ipnode FILENAME.ipnode ipelem FILENAME.ipelem region "/
```

8.7 Testing MathJax LaTeX support

Just a test. Also, a cheeky little test of PEP 3118: New memoryview implementation and buffer protocol documentation.

8.7.1 First test

\[
\begin{align*}
(a+b)^2 &= a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \\
(a-b)^2 &= a^2 - 2ab + b^2
\end{align*}
\]

Some text

\[
z \left(1 + \sqrt{\omega_{i+1} + \zeta - \frac{x+1}{\Theta+1}y+1}\right) = 1
\]

More intervening text

\[
\frac{d}{dx} \left( \int_0^x f(u) \, du \right) = f(x).
\]

Does this get stripped?

Probably.

8.8 MAP Client

The MAP Client is a cross-platform framework for managing workflows. MAP Client is a plugin-based application that can be used to create workflows from a collection of workflow steps. The MAP Client is an application written in Python and based on Qt the cross-platform application and UI framework. Further details are available in the documents listed below.
8.8.1 MAP Installation and Setup Guide

This document describes how to install and setup the MAP software for use on your machine. The MAP software is a Python application that uses the PySide Qt library bindings. The instructions in this document cover the installation and setup on a Windows based operating system. The instructions for GNU/Linux and OS X are similar and should be extrapolated from these instructions. There are some side notes for these other operating systems to help, but not full or dedicated instructions. If for any reason you get stuck and cannot complete the instructions please contact us.

MAP

The MAP framework is written in Python and is designed to work with Python 2 and Python 3. The MAP application is tested against Python2.6, Python2.7 and Python3.3 and should work with any of these Python libraries. Currently the MAP framework is not packaged as an application, requiring the user to set up the environment prior to launching the mapclient.py executable Python script.

The MAP application consists of the framework and various tools, by itself it can do very little. It is the job of the plugins to provide functionality. The MAP application as referred to in this section of the instructions may be described as the barebones application for this reason.

To execute the barebones application we need to first install some dependencies:

1. Python (and make sure to add the Python and Python\Scripts folders to your system PATH).
2. PySide (PySide and PyQt4 are virtually interchangeable but currently this would require some textual changes)
3. Python setup tools and then using easy_install.exe to install:
   1. Requests Python library (easy_install requests)
   2. OAuthlib Python library (not the OAuth Python library) (easy_install oauthlib).

Also, if we wish to interact with the Physiome Model Repository (PMR) we need:

1. Mercurial

We can now install the barebones MAP client application. The barebones application can be launched via the command window with the following command in the extracted mapclient/src folder:

mapclient.py

which should result in an application window similar to that shown below.
Now that the barebones MAP application is installed and running we can move on to some useful plugins.

**MAP Plugins**

The installation of MAP plugins simply requires obtaining the plugins and then using the *MAP plugin manager* to let the MAP client know where to look for plugins. Furthermore, there is a *github project* which is used to provide a common collection of MAP plugins. For the purposes of this tutorial, the *autosegmentationstep* plugin will be used. You can download a copy of the plugin, extract it, and then follow the instructions for adding the folder in which you extracted the plugin to the *MAP plugin manager*.

**Zinc and PyZinc**

*Zinc* is an advanced field manipulation and visualisation library and *PyZinc* provides *Python* bindings to the Zinc library. Binaries are available for download for Linux, Windows, and OS X. The MAP client is able to make use of Zinc for advanced visualisation and image processing steps. To get PyZinc installed, follow these steps:

1. Install Zinc using either: the Windows installer (ensuring that you enable the option for the installer to add Zinc to the system PATH); or unzip the archive and manually copy library file to somewhere on your PATH (which could include the PyZinc installation folder).
2. Unzip the downloaded PyZinc archive.
3. In a command window, change into folder PyZinc extracted into.
4. Execute the following command: `python setup.py install` (this uses a similar mechanism as the `easy_install` software above).

You can check that you have Zinc and PyZinc correctly installed and functional by running the `volume_fitting.py` application provided with the tutorial materials. If Zinc and PyZinc are working you should get an application window similar to that shown below with the interactive three-dimensional model viewer shown. *Note* you will need to restart the command window after installing PyZinc in order to refresh the system PATH.
Which Binary?

There are a number of binaries available for any given platform and you must match the package description with your system setup. The package description contains the package name, package version, package architecture, package operating system and in the case of PyZinc the package Python version. The package extension indicates the type of package and they come in two main flavours: installer/package manager; archive.

Additionally the version of the PyZinc binaries you download must match the version of the Zinc library binaries.

8.8.2 MAP Features Demonstration

Section author: Hugh Sorby

Note: MAP is currently under active development, and this document will be updated to reflect any changes to the software or new features that are added. You can follow the development of MAP at the launchpad project.

This document details the features of MAP, a cross-platform framework for managing workflows. MAP is a plugin-based application that can be used to create workflows from a collection of workflow steps.

In this demonstration is based on version 0.9.0 of MAP, available from the project downloads. Directions for installing MAP and getting the MAP plugins are available in the MAP Installation and Setup Guide.

In this demonstration we will cover the features of MAP. We will start with a quick tour and then create a new workflow that will help us segment a region of interest from a stack of images.

Quick Tour

When you first load MAP, it will look something like this:

In the main window we can see three distinct areas that make up the workflow management side of the software. These three areas are the menu bar (at the top), the step box (on the left) that contains the steps that you can use to create your workflow and the workflow canvas (on the right) an area for constructing a workflow.

In the Step box we will only see two steps, this is because we have only loaded the default Steps and not loaded any of the external plugins that MAP can use.
Menu Bar

The Menu bar provides a selection of drop down menus for accessing the applications functions. The File menu provides access to opening, importing, closing workspaces as well as quitting the application. The Edit menu provides access to the undo/redo functionality. The Tools menu provides access to the Plugin Manager tool, Physiome Model Repository (PMR) tool and the Annotation tool. The Help menu provides access to the about box which contains information on contributors and the license that the MAP application is released under.

Step Box

The Step box provides a selection of steps that are available to construct a workflow from. The first time we start the program only the default plugins are available. To add more steps we can use the Plugin Manager tool. To use a step in our workflow we drag the desired step from the step box onto the workflow canvas.

Workflow canvas

The workflow canvas is where we construct our workflow. We do this by adding the steps to the workflow canvas from the step box that make up our workflow. We then make connections between the workflow steps to define the complete workflow.

When a step is added to the workflow the icon which is visible in the Step box is augmented with visualisations of the Steps ports and the steps configured status. The annotation of the steps ports will show when the mouse is hovered over a port. The image below shows the Image Source step with the annotation for the port displayed.

Tools

MAP currently has three tools that may be used to aide the management of the workflow. They are the Plugin Manager tool, the Physiome Model Repository (PMR) tool and the Annotation tool. For a description of each tool see the relevant sections.

Plugin Manager Tool

The plugin tool is a simple tool that enables the user to add or remove additional plugin directories. MAP comes with some default plugins which the user can decide to load or not. External directories are added with the add directory button. Directories are removed by selecting the required directory in the Plugin directories list and clicking the remove directory button.

Whilst additions to the plugin path will be visible immediately in the Step box deletions will not be apparent until the next time the MAP Client is started. This behaviour is a side-effect of the Python programming language.

Physiome Model Repository (PMR) Tool

The PMR tool uses webservices and OAuth to communicate between itself (the consumer) and the PMR website (the server). Using this tool we can search for and find suitable resources on PMR.

The PMR website uses OAuth to authenticate a consumer and determine consumer access privileges. Here we will discuss the parts of OAuth that are relevant to getting you (the user) able to access resources on PMR.

In OAuth we have three players the server, the consumer and the user. The server is providing a service that the consumer wishes to use. It is up to the user to allow the consumer access to the servers resources and set the level
of access to the resource. For the consumer to access privileged information of the user stored on the server, the user must register the consumer with the server, this is done by the user giving the consumer a temporary access token. This temporary access token is then used by the consumer to finalise the transaction and acquire a permanent access token. The user can deny the consumer access at anytime by logging into the server and revoking the permanent access token.

If you want the PMR tool to have access to privileged information (your non-public workspaces stored on PMR) you will need to register the PMR tool with the PMR website. We do this by clicking on the register link as shown in the figure below. This does two things: it shows the Application Authorisation dialog; opens a webbrowser at the PMR website. [If you are not logged on at the PMR website you will need to do so now to continue, instructions on obtaining a PMR account are available here]. On the PMR website you are asked to either accept or deny access to the PMR tool. If you allow access then the website will display a temporary access token that you will need to copy and paste into the Application Authorisation dialog so that the PMR tool can get the permanent access token.

Annotation Tool

The Annotation tool is a very simple tool to help a user annotate the Workflow itself and the Step data directories that are linked to PMR. At this stage there is a limited vocabulary that the Annotation tool knows about, but this is intended to be extended in coming releases. The vocabulary that the annotation is aware of is available in the three combo-boxes near the top of the dialog.

The main part of the Annotation tool shows the current annotation from the current target.

In the above image we can see the list of annotations that have been added to the current target. This is a simplified view of the annotation with the prefix of the terms removed for clarity.
**8.8.3 MAP Tutorial - Create Workflow**

Section author: Hugh Sorby

Note: MAP is currently under active development, and this document will be updated to reflect any changes to the software or new features that are added. You can follow the development of MAP at the launchpad project.

This document details takes the reader through the process of creating a workflow from existing MAP plugins. Having a read through the MAP Features Demonstration is a good way to become familiar with the features of the MAP application.

**Getting Started**

To get started with MAP we need to create a new workflow. To do this we use File → New → Workflow menu option (Ctrl-N shortcut). This option will present the user with a directory selection dialog. Use the dialog to select a directory where the workflow can be saved. Once we have chosen a directory the step box and workflow canvas will become enabled.

To create a meaningful workflow we will need to use some external plugins. To load these plugins we will use the Plugin Manager tool. The Plugin Manager tool can be found under the Tools menu. Use the Plugin Manager to add the directory location of the MAP Plugins. After confirming the changes to the Plugin Manager you should see a few new additions to the Step box.

**Creating the Workflow**

To create a workflow we use Drag ‘n’ Drop to drag steps from the Step box and drop the step onto the workflow canvas. When steps are first dropped onto the canvas they show a red cog icon to indicate that the step is not configured. At a minimum a step requires an identifier to be set before it can be used.

Drag the steps Image Source, Data Store and Automatic Segmenter onto the workflow canvas. All the steps will show a red cog, except the ‘Automatic Segmenter’, step this indicates that the step needs to be configured. To configure a step we can either right click on the step to bring up a context menu from which the configure action can be chosen or simply click the red cog directly. See the relevant section for the configuration of a particular step.

Note: When configuring a step you are asked to set an identifier. The identifier you set must unique within the workflow and it must not start with a ‘.’.

**Configuring the Image Source Step**

The Image Source step requires a location. This location contains the images to import. The location may be a directory on the local hard disk or a workspace on PMR. Here we will show how to configure the Image Source step with images that have been stored in a workspace on PMR.
First each step requires a unique id. The id is used to create a file containing the step configuration information. This id for the Image Source step is used to create a directory under the workflow project directory. In the identifier edit box enter a directory name. Once a valid identifier is entered the red highlight around the edit box will be turned off.

Next change to the PMR tab and we will see an ellipses button for bringing up the PMR tool dialog. You need to register the PMR tool to access certain webservice. The details on how to do this are available here. The remainder of this tutorial will assume you have setup access to PMR properly. In the search box of the PMR dialog we need to enter the search term ‘blood-vessels’. The result of the search should look like the image below.

Select this entry in the search listing and click ‘Ok’. The selected PMR workspace will be downloaded in the background. When the download is finished the red cog icon will disappear. If the download is not successful a dialog will appear to inform you of the error.

MAP is not setup to work with streamed resources so we must download the workspace from PMR.

**Configuring the Point Cloud Step**

Configuring the Point Cloud step is trivial at this time. This is because the step only requires an identifier to be set. The identifier will be used to create a directory where the received point cloud will be serialized.

**Executing the Workflow**

At this point you should have a workflow area looking like this:

Once the All the steps in the workflow are configured (no more red cog icons) we can make connections between the steps. To make a connection between two steps the first step must provide what the second step uses. When trying to connect two steps that cannot be connected you will see a no entry icon over the connection for a short period of time and then the connection will be removed. The following image shows an incorrect connection trying to be made.

If the mouse is hovered over a port you will see a description of what the port provides or uses. To make a connection click on a port and drag the mouse to the port to be connected.

To execute the workflow we need to connect up the steps in the correct manner and save the workflow. The workflow should be connected up as can be seen in the following image.

Once the workflow has been saved the execute button in the lower left corner should become enabled. Clicking the execute button will, naturally enough, execute the workflow step by step.

*Note:* We can make connections between steps at anytime not just when all steps have been properly configured.
Automatic Segmenter Step

The ‘Automatic Segmenter’ actually allows us to interact with executing workflow. With this step we can move the image plane up and down and change the visibility of the graphical items in the scene. The image plane is moved through the use of the slider on the left hand side. The visibility of the graphical items is controlled by checking or unchecking the relevant check boxes.

8.8.4 MAP Plugins

The Plugin lies at the heart of the MAP framework. The key idea behind the plugins is to make them as simple as possible to implement. The interface is defined in documentation and the plugin developer is expected to adhere to it. The framework leaves the responsibility of conforming to the plugin interface up to the plugin developer. The plugin framework is based on Marty Alchin’s [1] article on a plugin framework for Django. The plugin framework is very lightweight and requires no external libraries and can be made to work with Python 2 and Python 3 simultaneously.

Workflow Step

The Workflow Step is the basic item that a plugin developers need to place their software within. A workflow step can be of any size and complexity. Although it must adhere to the plugin design to work properly with the application. Every step that wishes to act like a Workflow Step must derive itself from the Workflow step mountpoint. The Workflow step mountpoint is the interface between the application and the plugin. The Workflow step mountpoint can be imported like so:

```python
from mountpoints.workflowstep import WorkflowStepMountPoint
```

A skeleton step is provided as a starting point for the developer to create their own workflow steps. The skeleton step is actually a valid step in its own right and it will show up in the Step box if enabled. However the skeleton step has no use other than as an item to drag around on the workflow area. The skeleton step is discussed below, first however the plugin interface is discussed.

Plugin Interface

The plugin interface is the layer between the application and the developers plugin. The plugin interface is not defined by contract as we so often see in Java. But rather the plugin interface is defined by documentation. This puts the burden of the specification on the documentation and the conformity of the specification on the developer. The underlying theory is that the developer is able to follow the specification without the application having to do rigourous checks to make sure this is the case. The phrase ‘If it walks like a duck’ is often used.

In this section the specification of the Workflow step plugin interface is given. It is then upto the developer to make sure their plugin behaves like one.

The details of the plugin interface are provided in the documentation of the source code in the relevant source file and additionally here for easy reference. The documentation provided with the source code is very direct with little explanation the following documentation provides a bit more explanation and discussion on the various aspects of the plugin interface. The documentation provided here should be considered the slave documentation and the documentation provided with the source code as the master documentation.

There are essentially, what may be considered, three different levels of the plugin design.

1. The Musts
2. The Shoulds
3. The Coulds

Creating a workflow step that satisfies the musts will create an actual workflow step that can be added to the workflow area and interacted with. But it won’t be very useful. Satisfying the shoulds will usually be sufficient
for the very simplest of steps. Simple steps are for instance ones that provide images, or location information for data. Doing some of the coulds will create a much more interesting step.

The requirements for creating a step have been kept as simple as possible, this is to allow the developer a quick route into the development of the step content.

The following three sections discuss these three levels in more detail.

**A Step Must**

- The plugin must be derived from the `WorkflowStepMountPoint` class defined in the package `mountpoints.workflowstep`
- Accept a single parameter in its `__init__` method.
- Define a name for itself, this must be passed into the initialisation of the base class.
- Define the methods
  ```python
def configure(self):
    pass

def getIdentifier(self):
    pass

def setIdentifier(self, identifier):
    pass

def serialize(self, location):
    pass

def deserialize(self, location):
    pass
  ```

**A Step Should**

- Implement the `configure` method to configure the step. This is typically in the form of a dialog. When implementing this function the class method `self._configureObserver()` should be called to inform the application that the step configuration has finished.
- Implement the `getIdentifier/setIdentifier` methods to return the identifier of the step.
- Implement the `serialize/deserialize` methods. The steps should serialize and deserialize from a file on disk located at the given location.
- Define a class attribute `_icon`. That is of the type `QtGui.QImage`.
- Information about what the step uses and/or what it provides. This is achieved through defining ports on the step.

**A Step Could**

- Implement the method ‘`portOutput(self)`’ if it was providing some information to another step.
- Implement the method ‘`execute(self, dataIn)`’ if it uses some information from another step. If a step implements the ‘`execute(self, dataIn)`’ method then it must call ‘`_doneExecution()`’ when the step is finished.
- Define a category using the ‘`_category`’ attribute. This attribute will add the step to the named category in the step box, or it will create the named category if it is not present.
Ports

A port is a device to specify what a workflow step provides or uses. A port is described using Resource Description Framework (RDF) triples. The port description is used to determine whether or not two ports may be connected together. One port can either use or provide one thing. A single port must not both provide a thing and use a thing. Ports are ordered by entry position.

Ports are added by using the `addPort(self, triple)` method from the base class.

Skeleton Step

The skeleton step satisfies the musts of the plugin interface. It is a minimal step and it is set out as follows.

A Python package with the step name is created, in this case ‘skeletonstep’, in the module file we add the code that needs to be read when the plugins are loaded.

The module file performs four functions. It contains the version information and the authors name of the module. For instance the skeleton step has a version of ‘0.1.0’ and authors name of ‘Xxxx Yyyyy’. It adds the current directory into the Python path, this is done so that the steps python files know where they are in relation to the python path. It also (optionally) prints out a message showing that the plugin has been loaded successfully. But the most important function it performs is to call the python file that contains the class that derives from the workflow step mountpoint.

The ‘SkeletonStep’ class in the skeletonstep.step package is a very simple class. It derives from the ‘WorkflowStepMountPoint’, calls the base class with the name of the step, accepts a single parameter in it’s init method and defines the five required functions to satisfy the plugin interface.

When enabled the skeleton step will be a fully functioning step in the MAP Client.

References


8.8.5 MAP Tutorial - Create Plugin

Section author: Hugh Sorby

Note: MAP is currently under active development, and this document will be updated to reflect any changes to the software or new features that are added. You can follow the development of MAP at the launchpad project.

This document details takes the reader through the process of creating a new plugin for the MAP Client. The MAP Plugins document defines the plugin interface that the new plugin must adhere to.

A Simple Source Step Example

We need to create a source step for supplying Zinc model files.

First copy the skeletonstep directory to another directory. To make this step our own we first change the skeletonstep name to zincmodelsourcstep. The places we have to change are:

1. The topmost directory
2. The inner directory, this directory is used to namespace our new step.
3. In `__init__.py` file in the topmost directory, we also need to uncomment the lines:

   ```python
   from zincmodelsourcstep import step
   print("Plugin ‘{0}’ version {1} by {2} loaded".format(tail, __version__, __author__))
   ```

4. In `__init__.py` file in the inner directory. We have to change the name of the class to ‘ZincModelSourceStep’ and change the name of the step to ‘Zinc Model Source’.
Now we need to be able to configure the step. To do this we can use qt-designer to create a ‘configuredialog.ui’ file that we can convert into Python code using ‘pyside-uic’.

8.9 MAP Installation and Setup Guide

This document describes how to install and setup the MAP software for use on your machine. The MAP software is a Python application that uses the PySide Qt library bindings. The instructions in this document cover the installation and setup on a Windows based operating system. The instructions for GNU/Linux and OS X are similar and should be extrapolated from these instructions. There are some side notes for these other operating systems to help, but not full or dedicated instructions. If for any reason you get stuck and cannot complete the instructions please contact us.

8.9.1 MAP

The MAP framework is written in Python and is designed to work with Python 2 and Python 3. The MAP application is tested against Python2.6, Python2.7 and Python3.3 and should work with any of these Python libraries. Currently the MAP framework is not packaged as an application, requiring the user to set up the environment prior to launching the mapclient.py executable Python script.

The MAP application consists of the framework and various tools, by itself it can do very little. It is the job of the plugins to provide functionality. The MAP application as referred to in this section of the instructions may be described as the barebones application for this reason.

To execute the barebones application we need to first install some dependencies:

1. Python (and make sure to add the Python and Python\Scripts folders to your system PATH).
2. PySide (PySide and PyQt4 are virtually interchangeable but currently this would require some textual changes)
3. Python setup tools and then using easy_install.exe to install:
   1. Requests Python library (easy_install requests)
   2. OAuthlib Python library (not the OAuth Python library) (easy_install oauthlib).

Also, if we wish to interact with the Physiome Model Repository (PMR) we need:

1. Mercurial

We can now install the barebones MAP client application. The barebones application can be launched via the command window with the following command in the extracted mapclient/src folder:

mapclient.py

which should result in an application window similar to that shown below.

Now that the barebones MAP application is installed and running we can move on to some useful plugins.

8.9.2 MAP Plugins

The installation of MAP plugins simply requires obtaining the plugins and then using the MAP plugin manager to let the MAP client know where to look for plugins. Furthermore, there is a github project which is used to provide a common collection of MAP plugins. For the purposes of this tutorial, the autosegmentationstep plugin will be used. You can download a copy of the plugin, extract it, and then follow the instructions for adding the folder in which you extracted the plugin to the MAP plugin manager.
8.9.3 Zinc and PyZinc

Zinc is an advanced field manipulation and visualisation library and PyZinc provides Python bindings to the Zinc library. Binaries are available for download for Linux, Windows, and OS X. The MAP client is able to make use of Zinc for advanced visualisation and image processing steps. To get PyZinc installed, follow these steps:

1. Install Zinc using either: the Windows installer (ensuring that you enable the option for the installer to add Zinc to the system PATH); or unzip the archive and manually copy library file to somewhere on your PATH (which could include the PyZinc installation folder).

2. Unzip the downloaded PyZinc archive.

3. In a command window, change into folder PyZinc extracted into.

4. Execute the following command: python setup.py install (this uses a similar mechanism as the easy_install software above).

You can check that you have Zinc and PyZinc correctly installed and functional by running the volume_fitting.py application provided with the tutorial materials. If Zinc and PyZinc are working you should get an application window similar to that shown below with the interactive three-dimensional model viewer shown. Note you will need to restart the command window after installing PyZinc in order to refresh the system PATH.

Which Binary?

There are a number of binaries available for any given platform and you must match the package description with your system setup. The package description contains the package name, package version, package architecture, package operating system and in the case of PyZinc the package Python version. The package extension indicates the type of package and they come in two main flavours: installer/package manager; archive.

Additionally the version of the PyZinc binaries you download must match the version of the Zinc library binaries.

8.10 PMR best practice - embedded workspaces

8.11 CellML Curation in Legacy Repository Software

As PMR contains much of the data ported over from the legacy software products that powered the CellML Model Repository, the curation system from that system was ported to PMR verbatim. This document describing the curation aspect of the repository is derived from documentation on the CellML site.
8.11.1 CellML Model Curation: the Theory

The basic measure of curation in a CellML model is described by the curation level of the model document. We have defined four levels of curation:

• Level 0: not curated.

• Level 1: the CellML model is consistent with the mathematics in the original published paper.

• Level 2: the CellML models has been checked for (i) typographical errors, (ii) consistency of units, (iii) that all parameters and initial conditions are defined, (iv) that the model is not over-constrained, in the sense that it contains equations or initial values which are either redundant or inconsistent, and (v) that running the model in an appropriate simulation environment reproduces the results published in the original paper.

• Level 3: the model is checked for the extent to which it satisfies physical constraints such as conservation of mass, momentum, charge, etc. This level of curation needs to be conducted by specialised domain experts.

8.11.2 CellML Model Curation: the Practice

Our ultimate aim is to complete the curation of all the models in the repository, ideally to the level that they replicate the results in the published paper (level 2 curation status). However, we acknowledge that for some models this will not be possible. Missing parameters and equations are just one limitation; at this point it should also be emphasised that the process of curation is not just about “fixing the CellML model” so that it runs in currently available tools. Occasionally it is possible for a model to be expressed in valid CellML, but not yet able to be solved by CellML tools. An example is the seminal Saucerman et al. 2003 model, which contains ODEs as well as a set of non-linear algebraic equations which need to be solved simultaneously. The developers of the CellML editing and simulation environment OpenCell are currently working on addressing these requirements.

The following steps describe the process of curating a CellML model:

• **Step 1**: the model is run through OpenCell and COR. COR in particular is a useful validation tool. It renders the MathML in a human readable format making it much easier to identify any typographical errors in the model equations. COR also provides a comprehensive error messaging system which identifies typographical errors, missing equations and parameters, and any redundancy in the model such as duplicated
variables or connections. Once these errors are fixed, and assuming the model is now complete, we compare the CellML model equations with those in the published paper, and if they match, the CellML model is awarded a single star - or level 1 curation status.

- **Step 2:** Assuming the model is able to run in OpenCell and COR, we then go onto compare the CellML model simulation output from COR and OpenCell with the published results. This is often a case of comparing the graphical outputs of the model with the figures in the published paper, and is currently a qualitative process. If the simulation results from the CellML model and the original model match, the CellML model is awarded a second star - or level 2 curation status.

- **Step 3:** if, at the end of this process, the CellML model is still missing parameters or equations, or we are unable to match the simulation results with the published paper, we seek help from the original model author. Where possible, we try to obtain the original model code, and this often plays an invaluable role in fixing the CellML model.

- **Step 4:** Sometimes we have been able to engage the original model author further, such that they take over the responsibility of curating the CellML model themselves. Such models include those published by Mike Cooling and Franc Sachse. In these instances the CellML model is awarded a third star - or level 3 curation status. While this is laudable, ideally we would like to take the curation process one step further, such that level 3 curation should be performed by a domain expert who is not the author of the original publication (i.e., peer review). This expert would then check the CellML model meets the appropriate constraints and expectations for a particular type of model.

A point to note is that levels 1 and 2 of the CellML model curation status may be mutually exclusive - in our experience, it is rare for a paper describing a model to contain no typographical errors or omissions. In this situation, Version 1 of a CellML model usually satisfies curation level 1 in that it reflects the model as it is described in the publication - errors included, while subsequent versions of the CellML model break the requirements for meeting level 1 curation in order to meet the standards of level 2. Taking this idea further, this means that a model with 2 yellow stars doesn’t necessarily meet the requirements of level 1 curation but it does meet the requirements of level 2. Hopefully this conflict will be resolved when we replace the current star system with a more meaningful set of curation annotations.

Ultimately, we would like to encourage the scientific modeling community - including model authors, journals and publishing houses - to publish their models in CellML code in the CellML model repository concurrent with the publication of the printed article. This will eliminate the need for code-to-text-to-code translations and thus avoid many of the errors which are introduced during the translation process.

### 8.11.3 CellML Model Simulation: the Theory and Practice

As part of the process of model curation, it is important to know what tools were used to simulate (run) the model and how well the model runs in a specific simulation environment. In this case, the theory and the practice are essentially the same thing, and carry out a series of simulation steps which then translate into a confidence level as part of a simulator’s metadata for each model. The four confidence levels are defined as:

- **Level 0:** not curated (no stars);
- **Level 1:** the model loads and runs in the specified simulation environment (1 star);
- **Level 2:** the model produces results that are qualitatively similar to those previously published for the model (2 stars);
- **Level 3:** the model has been quantitatively and rigorously verified as producing identical results to the original published model (3 stars).

### 8.12 Physiome Model Repository web interface reference

*Section author: Dougal Cowan*

This document describes the various components of the PMR web interface, which provides access to most of the functions of the PMR software via a web browser.
8.12.1 Physiome Project, CellML, and FieldML views

The Physiome Model Repository can be accessed via three different URLs, each of which gives a specific view of the repository:

- **http://models.physiomeproject.org** - presents an index page that lists the CellML model categories, as well as a link to a list of FieldML models.
- **http://models.cellml.org** - presents an index page that only lists the CellML model categories. The page logo is the CellML logo instead of the Physiome logo.
- **http://models.fieldml.org** - presents an index page that lists FieldML models.

Each URL also provides a contextual search. Searching on the FieldML or CellML URLs will only yield FieldML or CellML results respectively, whereas all model types are included in search results using the Physiome Project URL.

8.12.2 Guest view

Browsing the PMR without logging in means you will be restricted to viewing published workspaces only. Browsing the repository in this way is only useful for searching, viewing, and downloading published models.

The main navigation bar will only show the *Models Home* and *Exposures* buttons.

The search box at the top right hand side of the page can be used to find published workspaces or exposures using words such as Author name, physiological or biological terms, or other specific words of interest.

8.12.3 Registered view

Logging in to the repository will provide you with a range of additional functions in the PMR web interface.

An additional option appears in the navigation bar when you are logged in to the repository site, called *My Workspaces*. Clicking on this will show you a page that lists all of the workspaces you have created on the repository. The page also contains a link to your *workspace container*, where you can create new workspaces and manage existing ones.
Figure 8.1: The home page of the PMR when not logged in

Figure 8.2: The home page of the PMR when logged in as a standard user

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