Contents

About this manual ................................................................. 11

1 Quickstart ................................................................. 13
   1.1 Downloading and installing DOLFIN ................................. 13
   1.2 Solving Poisson’s equation with DOLFIN ............................. 14
      1.2.1 Setting up the variational formulation ....................... 15
      1.2.2 Writing the solver ............................................ 16
      1.2.3 Compiling the program ...................................... 22
      1.2.4 Running the program ........................................ 23
      1.2.5 Visualizing the solution .................................... 23

2 Linear algebra .............................................................. 25
   2.1 Matrices and vectors ............................................... 25
      2.1.1 Sparse matrices ............................................ 27
      2.1.2 Dense matrices ........................................... 28
2.1.3 The common interface ........................................ 28
2.2 Solving linear systems ........................................... 28
  2.2.1 Iterative methods ........................................... 28
  2.2.2 Direct methods ............................................... 30
2.3 Solving eigenvalue problems .................................... 31
2.4 Linear algebra backends ....................................... 32
  2.4.1 uBlas .......................................................... 32
  2.4.2 PETSc .......................................................... 32

3 The mesh .................................................................. 35
  3.1 Basic concepts .................................................... 35
    3.1.1 Mesh .......................................................... 35
    3.1.2 Mesh entities ............................................... 35
  3.2 Mesh iterators ................................................... 36
  3.3 Mesh functions .................................................. 37
  3.4 Mesh refinement ................................................. 37
  3.5 Working with meshes .......................................... 37
    3.5.1 Reading a mesh from file ................................ 37
    3.5.2 Extracting a boundary mesh ............................ 38
    3.5.3 Built-in meshes ........................................... 39
    3.5.4 Creating meshes ......................................... 39
4 Functions

4.1 Basic properties

4.1.1 Representation

4.1.2 Assignment

4.1.3 Components and subfunctions

4.1.4 Output

4.2 Discrete functions

4.3 User-defined functions

4.3.1 Cell-dependent functions

5 Ordinary differential equations

6 Partial differential equations

7 Nonlinear solver

7.1 Nonlinear functions

7.2 Newton solver

7.2.1 Linear solver

7.2.2 Application of Dirichlet boundary conditions

7.3 Incremental Newton solver

8 Input/output

8.1 Files and objects
8.2 File formats ............................................. 59
  8.2.1 DOLFIN XML .................................. 59
  8.2.2 VTK .............................................. 60
  8.2.3 OpenDX ......................................... 61
  8.2.4 GNU Octave ..................................... 61
  8.2.5 MATLAB ......................................... 62
8.3 Converting between file formats .......................... 62
8.4 A note on new file formats .............................. 63

9 The log system ........................................ 65
  9.1 Generating log messages ............................. 65
  9.2 Warnings and errors ................................. 66
  9.3 Debug messages and assertions ....................... 67
  9.4 Task notification ................................... 68
  9.5 Progress bars ...................................... 69
  9.6 Controlling the destination of output ............... 70

10 Parameters .......................................... 71
  10.1 Retrieving the value of a parameter ............... 71
  10.2 Modifying the value of a parameter ............... 72
  10.3 Adding a new parameter ........................... 73
  10.4 Saving parameters to file .......................... 74
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>Loading parameters from file</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td><strong>Reference cells</strong></td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.1</td>
<td>The reference interval</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.2</td>
<td>The reference triangle</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.3</td>
<td>The reference quadrilateral</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.4</td>
<td>The reference tetrahedron</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.5</td>
<td>The reference hexahedron</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td><strong>Numbering of mesh entities</strong></td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.1</td>
<td>Basic concepts</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.2</td>
<td>Numbering of vertices</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.3</td>
<td>Numbering of other mesh entities</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.3.1</td>
<td>Relative ordering</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.3.2</td>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.4</td>
<td>Numbering schemes for reference cells</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.4.1</td>
<td>Numbering for intervals</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.4.2</td>
<td>Numbering for triangular cells</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.4.3</td>
<td>Numbering for quadrilateral cells</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.4.4</td>
<td>Numbering for tetrahedral cells</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.4.5</td>
<td>Numbering for hexahedral cells</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About this manual

This manual is currently being written. As a consequence, some sections may be incomplete or inaccurate. In particular, only the C++ interface (not the Python interface) of DOLFIN is documented, and only to a certain extent. Care has been taken that the quickstart chapter is accurate, but other than that, inconsistencies and inaccuracies can be expected.

We apologize for any inconvenience, but take comfort in the fact that (i) with the release of DOLFIN 0.7.0, the interface is starting to mature and will undergo less dramatic changes in the future (which will actually make it possible to write documentation) and (ii) most of the code is pretty well documented through the demos. If you have some writing skills and are willing to contribute, please consider writing a section or two and submit to the mailing list!

Intended audience

This manual is written both for the beginning and the advanced user. There is also some useful information for developers. More advanced topics are treated at the end of the manual or in the appendix.
Typographic conventions

- Code is written in monospace (typewriter) like this.
- Commands that should be entered in a Unix shell are displayed as follows:

  # ./configure
  # make

  Commands are written in the dialect of the bash shell. For other shells, such as tcsh, appropriate translations may be needed.

Enumeration and list indices

Throughout this manual, elements $x_i$ of sets $\{x_i\}$ of size $n$ are enumerated from $i = 0$ to $i = n - 1$. Derivatives in $\mathbb{R}^n$ are enumerated similarly:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_0}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \ldots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{n-1}}.$$

Contact

Comments, corrections and contributions to this manual are most welcome and should be sent to

$$\texttt{dolfin-dev@fenics.org}$$
Chapter 1

Quickstart

This chapter demonstrates how to get started with DOLFIN, including downloading and installing the latest version of DOLFIN, and solving Poisson's equation. These topics are discussed in more detail elsewhere in this manual. In particular, see Appendix D for detailed installation instructions and Chapter 6 for a detailed discussion of how to solve partial differential equations with DOLFIN.

1.1 Downloading and installing DOLFIN

The latest version of DOLFIN can be found on the FEniCS web page:

http://www.fenics.org/

The following commands illustrate the installation process, assuming that you have downloaded release x.y.z of DOLFIN:

# tar zxvf dolfin-x.y.z.tar.gz
# cd dolfin-x.y.z
# ./configure  
# make  
# sudo make install

Since **DOLFIN** depends on a number of other packages, you may also need to download and install those packages before you can compile **DOLFIN**. (See Appendix D for detailed instructions.)

## 1.2 Solving Poisson’s equation with DOLFIN

Let’s say that we want to solve Poisson’s equation on the unit square $\Omega = (0, 1) \times (0, 1)$ with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions on the boundary $\Gamma_0 = \{(x, y) \in \partial \Omega : x = 0\}$, the Neumann boundary condition $\partial_n u = g$ with $g(x, y) = 25 \sin(5\pi y)$ on the boundary $\Gamma_1 = \{(x, y) \in \partial \Omega : x = 1\}$, homogeneous Neumann boundary conditions on the remaining part of the boundary and right-hand side given by $f(x, y) = 500 \exp(-(0.5-x)^2 + (y-0.5)^2)/0.02)$:

\[
\begin{align*}
-\Delta u(x, y) &= f(x, y), \quad x \in \Omega = (0, 1) \times (0, 1), \\
u(x, y) &= 0, \quad (x, y) \in \Gamma_0 = \{(x, y) \in \partial \Omega : x = 0\}, \quad (1.1) \\
\partial_n u(x, y) &= 1, \quad (x, y) \in \Gamma_1 = \{(x, y) \in \partial \Omega : x = 1\}, \quad (1.2) \\
\partial_n u(x, y) &= 0, \quad (x, y) \in \partial \Omega \setminus (\Gamma_0 \cup \Gamma_1). \quad (1.3)
\end{align*}
\]

To solve a partial differential equation with **DOLFIN**, it must first be rewritten in *variational form*. The (discrete) variational formulation of Poisson’s equation reads: Find $u_h \in V_h$ such that

\[
a(v, u_h) = L(v) \quad \forall v \in \hat{V}_h, \quad (1.5)
\]

with $(\hat{V}_h, V_h)$ a pair of suitable discrete function spaces (the test and trial spaces). The bilinear form $a : \hat{V}_h \times V_h \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is given by

\[
a(v, u_h) = \int_\Omega \nabla v \cdot \nabla u_h \, dx \quad (1.6)
\]
and the linear form $L : \hat{V}_h \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is given by

$$L(v) = \int_{\Omega} vf \, dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} vg \, ds,$$

(1.7)

where $g = \partial_n u$ is the Neumann boundary condition.

### 1.2.1 Setting up the variational formulation

The variational formulation (1.5) must be given to DOLFIN as a pair of bilinear and linear forms $(a, L)$ using the form compiler FFC. This is done by entering the definition of the forms in a text file with extension `.form`, e.g. `Poisson.form`, as follows:

```python
from dolfin import *

# Define finite element
element = FiniteElement("Lagrange", "triangle", 1)

# Define functions
v = TestFunction(element)
u = TrialFunction(element)
f = Function(element)
g = Function(element)

# Define bilinear form
a = dot(grad(v), grad(u))*dx

# Define linear form
L = v*f*dx + v*g*ds
```

The example is given here for piecewise linear finite elements in two dimensions, but other choices are available, including arbitrary order Lagrange elements in two and three dimensions.

To compile the pair of forms $(a, L)$, now call the form compiler on the command-line as follows:

```bash
# ffc -l dolfin Poisson.form
```

This generates the file `Poisson.h` which implements the forms in C++ for inclusion in your DOLFIN program.
1.2.2 Writing the solver

Having compiled the variational formulation (1.5) with FFC, it is now easy to implement a solver for Poisson’s equation. We first discuss the implementation line by line and then present the complete program. The source code for this example is available in the directory src/demo/pde/poisson/ of the DOLFIN source tree.

At the beginning of our C++ program, which we write in a text file named main.cpp, we must first include the header file dolfin.h, which gives our program access to the DOLFIN class library. In addition, we include the header file Poisson.h generated by the form compiler. Since all classes in the DOLFIN class library are defined within the namespace dolfin, we also specify that we want to work within this namespace:

```cpp
#include <dolfin.h>
#include "Poisson.h"

using namespace dolfin;
```

Since we are writing a C++ program, we need to create a main function. You are free to organize your program any way you like, but in this simple example we just write our program inside the main function:

```cpp
int main()
{
    // Write your program here
    return 0;
}
```

We now proceed to specify the right-hand side $f$ of (1.1). This is done by defining a new subclass of Function (which we here name Source) and overloading the eval() function to return the value $f(x, y) = 500 \exp(-(x-0.5)^2 + (y-0.5)^2)/0.02$:

```cpp
```
The function $g$ for the Neumann boundary condition is specified similarly:

```cpp
class Flux : public Function
{
public:

    Flux(Mesh& mesh) : Function(mesh) {}

    real eval(const real* x) const
    {
        if (x[0] > DOLFIN_EPS)
            return 25.0*sin(5.0*DOLFIN_PI*x[1]);
        else
            return 0.0;
    }
};
```

Note that we here extend $g$ to the entire boundary by setting $g = 0$ on
Ω \ Γ_1. It is also possible to define $g$ only on Γ_1 and specify an integral over the boundary subset Γ_1 in the form file.

To define the Dirichlet boundary condition, we define a **SubDomain** for the Dirichlet boundary:

```cpp
class DirichletBoundary : public SubDomain
{
  bool inside(const real* x, bool on_boundary) const
  {
    return x[0] < DOLFIN_EPS && on_boundary;
  }
};
```

Next, we need to create a mesh. **DOLFIN** relies on external programs for mesh generation, and imports meshes in **DOLFIN** XML format. Meshes in other formats can be converted to the **DOLFIN** XML format using the script *dolfin-convert*. However, for simple domains like the unit square or unit cube, **DOLFIN** provides a built-in mesh generator. To generate a uniform mesh of the unit square with mesh size 1/32 (with a total of $2 \cdot 32^2 = 2048$ triangles), we can just type

```cpp
UnitSquare mesh(32, 32);
```

We may now instantiate the right-hand side function $f$ and the Neumann boundary condition $g$ as follows:

```cpp
Source f(mesh);
Flux g(mesh);
```

Next, we define the Dirichlet boundary condition by specifying the value that the solution should take and the subset of the boundary where it should be applied:
Function u0(mesh, 0.0);
DirichletBoundary boundary;
DirichletBC bc(u0, mesh, boundary);

Note the difference in how Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions are applied. The Dirichlet condition is applied here strongly (but it can also be applied weakly) using the DirichletBC class, while the Neumann boundary condition is defined as part of the variational problem. (It is a natural boundary condition for this variational formulation of Poisson’s equation.)

Next, we initialize the pair of bilinear and linear forms that we have previously compiled with FFC and define a LinearPDE as the variational problem defined by the two forms and the Dirichlet boundary condition:

PoissonBilinearForm a;
PoissonLinearForm L(f, g);
LinearPDE pde(a, L, mesh, bc);

Note that the right-hand side \( f \) and the Neumann boundary condition \( g \) need to be given as arguments to the constructor of the linear form, since the linear form depends on these two functions.

We may now solve the PDE and obtain the solution as a Function:

Function u;
pde.solve(u);

To plot the solution, one may simply type

plot(u);

This requires the installation of PyDOLFIN and Viper. (A warning will be issued if plotting is not available.)
Finally, we export the solution $u$ to a file for visualization. Here, we choose to save the solution in VTK format for visualization in ParaView or MayaVi, which we do by specifying a file name with extension `.pvd`:

```cpp
File file("poisson.pvd");
file << u;
```

The complete program for Poisson’s equation now looks as follows:

```cpp
#include <dolfin.h>
#include "Poisson.h"

using namespace dolfin;

int main()
{
    // Source term
    class Source : public Function
    {
        public:

            Source(Mesh& mesh) : Function(mesh) {} 

            real eval(const real* x) const
            {
                real dx = x[0] - 0.5;
                real dy = x[1] - 0.5;
                return 500.0*exp(-(dx*dx + dy*dy)/0.02);
            }
    }

    // Neumann boundary condition
    class Flux : public Function
    {
        public:
```
Flux(Mesh& mesh) : Function(mesh) {}

real eval(const real* x) const
{
    if (x[0] > DOLFIN_EPS)
        return 25.0*sin(5.0*DOLFIN_PI*x[1]);
    else
        return 0.0;
}

// Sub domain for Dirichlet boundary condition
class DirichletBoundary : public SubDomain
{
    bool inside(const real* x, bool on_boundary) const
    {
        return x[0] < DOLFIN_EPS && on_boundary;
    }
};

// Create mesh
UnitSquare mesh(32, 32);

// Create functions
Source f(mesh);
Flux g(mesh);

// Create boundary condition
Function u0(mesh, 0.0);
DirichletBoundary boundary;
DirichletBC bc(u0, mesh, boundary);

// Define PDE
PoissonBilinearForm a;
PoissonLinearForm L(f, g);
LinearPDE pde(a, L, mesh, bc);

// Solve PDE
Function u;
pde.solve(u);

// Plot solution
plot(u);

// Save solution to file
File file("poisson.pvd");
file << u;
return 0;
}

1.2.3 Compiling the program

The easiest way to compile the program is to create a Makefile that tells the standard Unix command make how to build the program. The following example shows how to write a Makefile for the above example:

```makefile
CFLAGS = 'pkg-config --cflags dolfin'
LIBS = 'pkg-config --libs dolfin'
CXX = 'pkg-config --variable=compiler dolfin'

DEST = demo
OBJECTS = main.o

all: $(DEST)

install:

clean:
    -rm -f *.o core *.core $(OBJECTS) $(DEST)

$(DEST): $(OBJECTS)
    $(CXX) -o $@ $(OBJECTS) $(CFLAGS) $(LIBS)

.cpp.o:
    $(CXX) $(CFLAGS) -c $<
```
With the **Makefile** in place, we just need to type `make` to compile the program, generating the executable as the file `demo`. Note that this requires `pkg-config` to be able to find the file `dolfin.pc`. (That file is generated by the `configure` script, during the configuration of **DOLFIN**. If `pkg-config` fails to find it, you need to add the directory containing it to the environment variable `PKG_CONFIG_PATH`.)

### 1.2.4 Running the program

To run the program, simply type the name of the executable:

```
# ./demo
```

### 1.2.5 Visualizing the solution

The solution may be visualized either by the built-in `plot()` command or by calling an external application. The built-in plotting requires the installation of both PyDOLFIN and Viper. In this example, we chose to save the solution in VTK format, which can be imported into for example ParaView or MayaVi. The solution may also be visualized by running the script `plot.py` available in the Poisson demo directory:

```
python plot.py
```

This script also requires the installation of PyDOLFIN and Viper.
Figure 1.1: The solution of Poisson’s equation (1.1) visualized in MayaVi.
Chapter 2

Linear algebra

► Developer’s note: Since this chapter was written, the DOLFIN linear algebra interface has undergone some changes that are not documented here. As a result, some of the information in this chapter may be outdated, incomplete or simply wrong.

DOLFIN provides a high-performance linear algebra library, including matrices and vectors, a set of linear solvers, preconditioners, and an eigenvalue solver. The core part of the functionality is provided through wrappers that provide a common interface to the functionality of the linear algebra libraries uBlas [14] and PETSc [9].

2.1 Matrices and vectors

The two basic linear algebra data structures are the classes Matrix and Vector, representing a sparse $M \times N$ matrix and a vector of length $N$ respectively.

The following code demonstrates how to create a matrix and a vector:

```cpp
Matrix A(M, N);
```
Vector $x(N)$;

Alternatively, the matrix and the vector may be created by

Matrix $A$;
Vector $x$;

$A$.init($M$, $N$);
$x$.init($N$);

The following code demonstrates how to access the size and the elements of a matrix and a vector:

$A(5, 5) = 1.0$;
real $a = A(4, 3)$;

$x(3) = 2.0$;
real $b = x(5)$;

unsigned int $M = A$.size(0);
unsigned int $N = A$.size(1);

$N = x$.size();

In addition, **DOLFIN** provides optimized functions for setting the values of a set of entries in a matrix or vector:

real block[] = {2, 4, 6};
int rows[] = {0, 1, 2};
int cols[] = {0, 1, 2};

$A$.set(block, rows, cols, 3);
Alternatively, the set of values given by the array `block` can be added to the entries given by the arrays `rows` and `cols`:

```plaintext
real block[] = {2, 4, 6};
int rows[] = {0, 1, 2};
int cols[] = {0, 1, 2};
A.add(block, rows, cols, 3);
```

These functions are particularly useful for efficient assembly of a (sparse) matrix from a bilinear form.

### 2.1.1 Sparse matrices

The default DOLFIN class `Matrix` is a sparse matrix, which efficiently represents the discretization of a partial differential equation where most entries in the matrix are zero. Alternatively, the class `SparseMatrix` may be used which is identical with the class `Matrix`\(^1\).

If DOLFIN has been compiled with support for PETSc, then the sparse matrix is represented as a sparse PETSc matrix\(^2\). Alternatively, the class `PETScMatrix` may be used, together with the corresponding class `PETScVector`.

If DOLFIN has been compiled without support for PETSc, then the sparse matrix is represented as a uBlas sparse matrix. Alternatively, the class `uBlasSparseMatrix` may be used, together with the corresponding class `uBlasVector`.

\(^1\)The class `Matrix` is a `typedef` for the class `SparseMatrix`.

\(^2\)By default, the sparse matrix is represented as a PETSc `MATSEQAIJ` matrix, but other PETSc representations are also available.
2.1.2 Dense matrices

DOLFIN provides the class DenseMatrix for representation of dense matrices. A dense matrix representation is often preferable when computing with matrices of small to moderate size. In particular, accessing individual elements is more efficient with a dense matrix representation.

A DenseMatrix is represented as uBlas dense matrix and alternatively the class uBlasDenseMatrix may be used, together with the corresponding class uBlasVector.

2.1.3 The common interface

Although DOLFIN differentiates between sparse and dense data structures, the two classes GenericMatrix and GenericVector define a common interface to all matrices and vectors. Refer to the DOLFIN programmer’s reference for the exact specification of these interfaces.

2.2 Solving linear systems

DOLFIN provides a set of efficient solvers for linear systems of the form

$$Ax = b,$$

(2.1)

where $A$ is an $N \times N$ matrix and where $x$ and $b$ are vectors of length $N$. Both iterative (Krylov subspace) solvers and direct (LU) solvers are provided.

2.2.1 Iterative methods

A linear system may be solved by the GMRES Krylov method as follows:

```c
define Matrix A;
define Vector x, b;
```
Alternatively, the linear system may be solved by first creating an object of the class `KrylovSolver`, which is more efficient for repeated solution of linear systems and also allows the specification of both the Krylov method and the preconditioner:

```cpp
KrylovSolver solver(gmres, ilu);
solver.solve(A, x, b);
```

For uBlas matrices and vectors, the class `uBlasKrylovSolver` may be used and for PETSc matrices and vectors, the class `PETScKrylovSolver` may be used.

### Krylov methods

**DOLFIN** provides the following set of Krylov methods:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cg</td>
<td>The conjugate gradient method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gmres</td>
<td>The GMRES method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bicgstab</td>
<td>The stabilized biconjugate gradient squared method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>default_method</td>
<td>Default choice of Krylov method</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Preconditioners

**DOLFIN** provides the following set of preconditioners:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>none</th>
<th>No preconditioning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>jacobi</td>
<td>Simple Jacobi preconditioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sor</td>
<td>SOR, successive over-relaxation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ilu</td>
<td>Incomplete LU factorization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>icc</td>
<td>Incomplete Cholesky factorization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amg</td>
<td>Algebraic multigrid (through Hypre when available)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>default_pc</td>
<td>Default choice of preconditioner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Matrix-free solvers

The **DOLFIN** Krylov solvers may be used without direct access to a matrix representation. All that is needed is to provide the size of the linear system, the right-hand side, and a method implementing the multiplication of the matrix with any given vector.

Such a “virtual matrix” may be defined by implementing the interface defined by either the class `uBlasKrylovMatrix` or `PETScKrylovMatrix`. The matrix may then be used together with either the class `uBlasKrylovSolver` or `PETScKrylovSolver`.

#### 2.2.2 Direct methods

A linear system may be solved by a direct LU factorization as follows:

```
Matrix A;
Vector x, b;

LU::solve(A, x, b);
```

Alternatively, the linear system may be solved by first creating an object of the class `LUSolver`, which may be more efficient for repeated solution of linear systems:
For uBlas matrices and vectors, the class `uBlasLU Solver` may be used and for PETSc matrices and vectors, the class `PETScLU Solver` may be used.

### 2.3 Solving eigenvalue problems

**DOLFIN** also provides a solver for eigenvalue problems. The solver is only available when **DOLFIN** has been compiled with support for PETSc and SLEPc [13].

For the basic eigenvalue problem

\[ Ax = \lambda x, \quad (2.2) \]

the following code demonstrates how to compute the first eigenpair:

```cpp
SLEPcEigenvalueSolver esolver;
esolver.solve(A);
real lr, lc;
PETScVector xr, xc;
esolver.getEigenpair(lr, lc, xr, xc, 0);
```

The real and complex components of the eigenvalue are returned in `lr` and `lc`, respectively, and the real and complex parts of the eigenvector are returned in `xr` and `xc`, respectively.

For the generalized eigenvalue problem

\[ Ax = \lambda Bx, \quad (2.3) \]

the following code demonstrates how to compute the third eigenpair:
PETScEigenvalueSolver esolver;
esolver.solve(A, B);

real lr, lc;
PETScVector xr, xc;
esolver.getEigenpair(lr, lc, xr, xc, 2);

## 2.4 Linear algebra backends

### 2.4.1 uBlas

uBlas is a C++ template library that provides BLAS level 1, 2 and 3 functionality (and more) for dense, packed and sparse matrices. The design and implementation unify mathematical notation via operator overloading and efficient code generation via expression templates.

**DOLFIN** wrappers for uBlas linear algebra is provided through the classes `uBlasSparseMatrix`, `uBlasDenseMatrix` and `uBlasVector`. These classes are implemented by subclassing the corresponding uBlas classes, which means that all standard uBlas operations are supported for these classes. For advanced usage not covered by the common **DOLFIN** interface specified by the classes `GenericMatrix` and `GenericVector`, refer directly to the documentation of uBlas.

### 2.4.2 PETSc

PETSc is a suite of data structures and routines for the scalable (parallel) solution of scientific applications modeled by partial differential equations. It employs the MPI standard for all message-passing communication.

**DOLFIN** wrappers for PETSc linear algebra is provided through the classes `PETScMatrix` and `PETScVector`. Direct access to the PETSc data structures
is available through the member functions `mat()` and `vec()`, which return the PETSc `Mat` and `Vec` pointers respectively. For advanced usage not covered by the common DOLFIN interface specified by the classes `GenericMatrix` and `GenericVector`, refer directly to the documentation of PETSc.
Chapter 3

The mesh

- **Developer’s note:** This chapter is just a quick write-up of the most basic functionality of the mesh library and will be expanded.

3.1 Basic concepts

3.1.1 Mesh

A mesh consists of mesh topology and mesh geometry. These concepts are implemented by the classes Mesh, MeshTopology and MeshGeometry.

3.1.2 Mesh entities

A mesh entity is a pair \((d, i)\), where \(d\) is the topological dimension of the mesh entity and \(i\) is a unique index of the mesh entity. Mesh entities are numbered within each topological dimension from 0 to \(n_d - 1\), where \(n_d\) is the number of mesh entities of topological dimension \(d\).

For convenience, mesh entities of topological dimension 0 are referred to as...
vertices, entities of dimension 1 edges, entities of dimension 2 faces, entities of codimension 1 facets and entities of codimension 0 cells. These concepts are summarized in Table 3.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Codimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vertex</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facet</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Named mesh entities.

These concepts are implemented by the classes MeshEntity, Vertex, Edge, Face, Facet, Cell.

### 3.2 Mesh iterators

Algorithms operating on a mesh can often be expressed in terms of iterators. The mesh library provides the general iterator MeshEntityIterator for iteration over mesh entities, as well as the specialized mesh iterators VertexIterator, EdgeIterator, FaceIterator, FacetIterator and CellIterator.

The following code illustrates how to iterate over all incident (connected) vertices of all vertices of all cells of a given mesh:

```cpp
for (CellIterator c(mesh); !c.end(); ++c)
    for (VertexIterator v0(*c); !v0.end(); ++v0)
        for (VertexIterator v1(*v0); !v1.end(); ++v1)
            cout << *v1 << endl;
```

This may alternatively be implemented using the general iterator MeshEntityIterator as follows:
unsigned int dim = mesh.topology().dim();
for (MeshEntityIterator c(mesh, dim); !c.end(); ++c)
    for (MeshEntityIterator v0(*c, 0); !v0.end(); ++v0)
        for (MeshEntityIterator v1(*v0, 0); !v1.end(); ++v1)
            cout << *v1 << endl;

3.3 Mesh functions

A MeshFunction represents a discrete function that takes a value on each mesh entity of a given topological dimension. A MeshFunction may for example be used to store a global numbering scheme for the entities of a (parallel) mesh, marking sub domains or boolean markers for mesh refinement.

3.4 Mesh refinement

A mesh may be refined uniformly as follows:

mesh.refine();

A mesh may also be refined locally by supplying a MeshFunction with boolean markers for the cells that should be refined.

3.5 Working with meshes

3.5.1 Reading a mesh from file

A mesh may be loaded from a file, either by specifying the file name to the constructor of the class Mesh:
Mesh mesh("mesh.xml");

or by creating a File object and streaming to a Mesh:

File file("mesh.xml");
Mesh mesh;
file >> mesh;

A mesh may be stored to file as follows:

File file("mesh.xml");
Mesh mesh;
file << mesh;

The DOLFIN mesh XML format has changed in DOLFIN version 0.6.3. Meshes in the old XML format may be converted to the new XML format using the script dolfin-convert included in the distribution of DOLFIN. For instructions, type dolfin-convert --help.

### 3.5.2 Extracting a boundary mesh

For any given mesh, a mesh of the boundary of the mesh (if any) may be created as follows:

BoundaryMesh boundary(mesh);

A BoundaryMesh is itself a Mesh of the same geometrical dimension and has the topological dimension of the mesh minus one.

The computation of a boundary mesh may also provide mappings from the vertices of the boundary mesh to the corresponding vertices in the original
mesh, and from the cells of the boundary mesh to the corresponding facets of the original mesh:

```cpp
MeshFunction<unsigned int> vertex_map,
MeshFunction<unsigned int> cell_map;
BoundaryMesh boundary(mesh, vertex_map, cell_map);
```

### 3.5.3 Built-in meshes

**DOLFIN** provides functionality for creating simple meshes, such as the mesh of the unit square and the unit cube. The following code demonstrates how to create a $16 \times 16$ triangular mesh of the unit square (consisting of $2 \times 16 \times 16 = 512$ triangles) and a $16 \times 16 \times 16$ tetrahedral mesh of the unit cube (consisting of $6 \times 16 \times 16 \times 16 = 24576$ tetrahedra):

```cpp
UnitInterval mesh1D(16);
UnitSquare mesh2D(16, 16);
UnitCube mesh3D(16, 16, 16);
```

▶ *Developer’s note:* We could easily add other built-in meshes, like the unit disc, the unit sphere, rectangles, blocks etc. Any contributions are welcome.

### 3.5.4 Creating meshes

Simplicial meshes (meshes consisting of intervals, triangles or tetrahedra) may be constructed explicitly by specifying the cells and vertices of the mesh. A specialized interface for creating simplicial meshes is provided by the class `MeshEditor`. The following code demonstrates how to create a very simple mesh consisting of two triangles covering the unit square:

```cpp
Mesh mesh;
MeshEditor editor(mesh, CellType::triangle, 2, 2);
```
editor.initVertices(4);
editor.initCells(2);
text
editor.addVertex(0, 0.0, 0.0);
text
editor.addVertex(1, 1.0, 0.0);
text
editor.addVertex(2, 1.0, 1.0);
text
editor.addVertex(3, 0.0, 1.0);
text
editor.addCell(0, 0, 1, 2);
editor.addCell(1, 0, 2, 3);
text
editor.close();

Note that the DOLFIN mesh library is not specialized to simplicial meshes, but supports general collections of mesh entities. However, tools like mesh refinement and mesh editors are currently only available for simplicial meshes.
Chapter 4

Functions

▸ Developer’s note: Since this chapter was written, the Function class has seen a number of improvements which are not covered here. Chapter needs to be updated.

The central concept of a function on a domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is modeled by the class Function, which is used in DOLFIN to represent coefficients or solutions of partial differential equations.

4.1 Basic properties

The following basic properties hold for all Functions:

• A Function can be scalar or vector-valued;
• A Function can be restricted (interpolated) to each local Cell of a Mesh;
• The underlying representation of a Function may vary.

Depending on the actual underlying representation of a Function, it may also be possible to evaluate a Function at any given Point.
4.1.1 Representation

Currently supported representations of Functions include discrete Functions, user-defined Functions and constant Functions. These are discussed in detail below.

4.1.2 Assignment

One Function may be assigned to another Function:

```c
Function v;
Function u = v;
```

4.1.3 Components and subfunctions

If a Function is vector-valued, or in general nested (mixed), a new Function may be created to represent any given subsystem (component) of the original Function, as illustrated by the following example:

```c
Function u; // Function with two components
Function u0 = u[0]; // First subsystem (component) of u
Function u1 = u[1]; // First subsystem (component) of u
```

If a Function represents a nested function (one defined in terms of a mixed finite element, see below), then indexing has the effect of picking out subfunctions. With \( w \) a Function representing the solution \( w = (u, p) \) of a Stokes or Navier-Stokes system (with \( u \) the vector-valued velocity and \( p \) the scalar pressure), the following example illustrates how to pick subfunctions and components of \( w \):

```c
Function w; // Mixed Function (u, p)
u = w[0]; // First subfunction (velocity)
```
\[ v = \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i \phi_i, \quad (4.1) \]

where \( \{\phi_i\}_{i=1}^{N} \) is the global basis of the finite element space defined by the Mesh and the finite element, and the nodal values \( \{v_i\}_{i=1}^{N} \) are given by the values of a Vector.
4.3 User-defined functions

In the simplest case, a user-defined Function is just an expression in terms of the coordinates and is typically used for defining source terms and initial conditions. For example, a source term could be given by

\[ f = f(x, y, z) = xy \sin(z/\pi). \]  

(4.2)

A user-defined Function may be defined by creating a sub class of Function and overloading the eval() function. The following example illustrates how to create a Function representing the function in (4.2):

```cpp
class Source : public Function
{
public:

  Source(Mesh& mesh) : Function(mesh) {}

  real eval(const real* x) const
  {
    return x[0]*x[1]*sin(x[2] / DOLFIN_PI);
  }

};

Source f;
```

*Developer’s note:* Write about how to define vector-valued functions.

4.3.1 Cell-dependent functions

In some cases, it may be convenient to define a Function in terms of properties of the current Cell. One such example is a Function that at any given point takes the value of the mesh size at that point.
The following example illustrates how to create such as `Function` by overloading the `eval()` function:

```cpp
class MeshSize : public Function
{
public:
    MeshSize(Mesh& mesh) : Function(mesh) {}

    real eval(const real* x) const
    {
        return cell().diameter();
    }
};

MeshSize h;
```

Note that the current `Cell` is only available during assembly and has no meaning otherwise. For example, it is not possible to write the `Function h` to file.

- **Developer’s note:** Write about predefined special functions like `MeshSize` and `FacetNormal`. 
Chapter 5

Ordinary differential equations

- *Developer’s note:* This chapter needs to be written. In the meantime, look at the demos in `src/demo/ode/` and the base class `ODE`. 
Chapter 6

Partial differential equations

► Developer’s note: This chapter needs to be written. In the meantime, look at the demos in src/demo/pde/.
Chapter 7

Nonlinear solver

DOLFIN provides tools for solving nonlinear equations of the form

$$F(u) = 0,$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.1)

where $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$. To use the nonlinear solver, a nonlinear function must be defined. The nonlinear solver is then initialised with this function and a solution computed. The source code for examples of solving nonlinear problems can be found in src/demo/nls.

7.1 Nonlinear functions

To solve a nonlinear problem, the user must defined a class which represents the nonlinear function $F(u)$. The class should be derived from the DOLFIN class NonlinearFunction. It contains the necessary functions to form the function $F(u)$ and the Jacobian matrix $J = \partial F / \partial u$. The precise form of the user defined class will depend on the problem being solved. The structure of a user defined class MyNonlinearFunction is shown below.

```cpp
class MyNonlinearFunction : public NonlinearFunction
{
public:
```
// Constructor
MyNonlinearFunction() : NonlinearFunction() {}

// Compute F(u) and J
void form(GenericMatrix& A, GenericVector& b, const GenericVector& u)
{
    // Insert F(u) into the vector b and J into the matrix A
}

private:
// Functions and pointers to objects with which F(u) is defined
};

The above class computes the function $F(u)$ and its Jacobian $J$ concurrently. In the future, it will be possible to compute $F(u)$ and $J$ either concurrently or separately.

### 7.2 Newton solver

**DOLFIN** provides tools to solve nonlinear systems using Newton’s method and variants of it. The following code solves a nonlinear problem, defined by **MyNonlinearFunction** using Newton’s method.

```cpp
Vector u;
MyNonlinearFunction F;
NewtonSolver newton_solver;

class NewtonSolver
{
public:
    void solve(const MyNonlinearFunction& f, Vector& x, double tol, int max_it);
};

newton_solver.solve(F, x);
```

The maximum number of iterations before the Newton procedure is exited can be set through the **DOLFIN** parameter system, along with the relative and absolute tolerances the residual. This is illustrated below.
The Newton procedure is considered to have converged when the residual $r_n$ at iteration $n$ is less than the absolute tolerance or the relative residual $r_n/r_0$ is less than the relative tolerance. By default, the residual at iteration $n$ is given by

$$ r_n = \| F(u_n) \|. \quad (7.2) $$

Computation of the residual in this way can be set by

```cpp
NewtonSolver newton_solver;
newton_solver.set("Newton convergence criterion", "residual");
```

For some problems, it is more appropriate to consider changes in the solution $u$ in testing for convergence. At iteration $n$, the solution is updated via

$$ u_n = u_{n-1} + du_n \quad (7.3) $$

where $du_n$ is the increment. When using an incremental criterion for convergence, the ‘residual’ is defined as

$$ r_n = \| du_n \|. \quad (7.4) $$

Computation of the incremental residual can be set by

```cpp
NewtonSolver newton_solver;
newton_solver.set("Newton convergence criterion", "incremental");
```

### 7.2.1 Linear solver

The solution to the nonlinear problems is returned in the vector $x$. By default, the `NewtonSolver` uses a direct solver to solve systems of linear
equations. It is possible to set the type linear solver to be used when creating a NewtonSolver. For example,

```cpp
NewtonSolver newton_solver(gmres);
```

creates a solver which will use GMRES to solve linear systems. For iterative solvers, the preconditioner can also be selected,

```cpp
NewtonSolver newton_solver(gmres, ilu);
```

The above Newton solver will use GMRES in combination with incomplete LU factorisation.

### 7.2.2 Application of Dirichlet boundary conditions

The application of Dirichlet boundary conditions to finite element problems in the context of a Newton solver requires particular attention. The ‘residual’ $F(u)$ at nodes where Dirichlet boundary conditions are applied is the equal to difference between the imposed boundary condition value and the current solution $u$. The function

```cpp
DirichletBC bc;
bcs.apply(Matrix& A, Matrix& b, const Matrix& x, const Form& form);
```

applies Dirichlet boundary conditions correctly. For a nonlinear finite element problem, the below code assembles the function $F(u)$ and its Jacobian, and applied Dirichlet boundary conditions in the appropriate manner.

```cpp
class MyNonlinearFunction : public NonlinearFunction
{
public:
```
// Constructor
MyNonlinearFunction(...) : NonlinearFunction(...) {}

// Compute F(u) and J
void form(GenericMatrix& A, GenericVector& b, 
const GenericVector& u) 
{
    // Insert F(u) into the vector b and J into the matrix A
    Assembler assembler;
    assembler.assemble(A, a, mesh);
    assembler.assemble(b, L, mesh);
    bc.apply(A, b, x, a);
}

private:
    // Functions and pointers to objects with which F(u) is defined
};

7.3 Incremental Newton solver

Newton solvers are commonly used to solve nonlinear equations in a series of steps. This can be done by building a simple loop around a Newton solver, and is shown in the following code.

```cpp
Function u;
Vector x;
MyNonlinearProblem F(u, x); // Initialise u with the vector x
NewtsonSolver nonlinear_solver;

// Solve nonlinear problem in a series of steps
real dt = 1.0; real t = 0.0; real T = 3.0;
while( t < T )
{
    t += dt;
    nonlinear_solver.solve(F, x);
}
Typically, the boundary conditions and/or source terms will be dependent on $t$. 
Chapter 8

Input/output

DOLFIN relies on external programs for pre- and post-processing, which means that computational meshes must be imported from file (pre-processing) and computed solutions must be exported to file and then imported into another program for visualization (post-processing). To simplify this process, DOLFIN provides support for easy interaction with files and includes output formats for a number of visualization programs.

8.1 Files and objects

A file in DOLFIN is represented by the class File and reading/writing data is done using the standard C++ operators >> (read) and << (write).

Thus, if file is a File and object is an object of some class that can be written to file, then the object can be written to file as follows:

```
file << object;
```

Similarly, if object is an object of a class that can be read from file, then data can be read from file (overwriting any previous data held by the object)
as follows:

```c
file >> object;
```

The format (type) of a file is determined by its filename suffix, if not otherwise specified. Thus, the following code creates a `File` for reading/writing data in DOLFIN XML format:

```c
File file("data.xml");
```

A complete list of file formats and corresponding file name suffixes is given in Table 8.1.

Alternatively, the format of a file may be explicitly defined. One may thus create a file named `data.xml` for reading/writing data in GNU Octave format:

```c
File file("data.xml", File::octave);
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Format</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.xml/.xml.gz</td>
<td>File::xml</td>
<td>DOLFIN XML</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.pvd</td>
<td>File::vtk</td>
<td>VTK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.dx</td>
<td>File::opendx</td>
<td>OpenDX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.m</td>
<td>File::octave</td>
<td>GNU Octave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(.m)</td>
<td>File::matlab</td>
<td>MATLAB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.1: File formats and corresponding file name suffixes.

Although many of the classes in DOLFIN support file input/output, it is not supported by all classes and the support varies with the choice of file format. A summary of supported classes/formats is given in Table 8.2.

**Developer’s note:** Some of the file formats are partly broken after changing the linear algebra backend to PETSc. (Do grep FIXME in src/kernel/io/.)
### 8.2 File formats

In this section, we give some pointers to each of the file formats supported by DOLFIN. For detailed information, we refer to the respective user manual of each format/program.

► **Developer's note**: This section needs to be improved and expanded. Any contributions are welcome.

#### 8.2.1 DOLFIN XML

DOLFIN XML is the native format of DOLFIN. As the name says, data is stored in XML ASCII format. This has the advantage of being a robust and human-readable format, and if the files are compressed there is little overhead in terms of file size compared to a binary format.

DOLFIN automatically handles gzipped XML files, as illustrated by the following example which reads a Mesh from a compressed DOLFIN XML file and saves the mesh to an uncompressed DOLFIN XML file:

```cpp
Mesh mesh;
File in("mesh.xml.gz");
in >> mesh;
```
The same thing can of course be accomplished by

```bash
# gunzip -c mesh.xml.gz > mesh.xml
```

on the command-line.

### 8.2.2 VTK

Data saved in VTK format [10] can be visualized using various packages. The powerful and freely available ParaView [8] is recommended. Alternatively, VTK data can be visualized in MayaVi [3], which is recommended for quality vector PostScript output. Time-dependent data is handled automatically in the VTK format.

The below code illustrates how to export a function in VTK format:

```cpp
Function u;
File out("data.pvd");
out << u;
```

The sample code produces the file `data.pvd`, which can be read by ParaView. The file `data.pvd` contains a list of files which contain the results computed by DOLFIN. For the above example, these files would be named `dataXXX.vtu`, where XXX is a counter which is incremented each time the function is saved. If the function `u` was to be saved three times, the files...
would be produced. Individual snapshots can be visualized by opening the desired file with the extension `.vtu` using ParaView.

ParaView can produce on-screen animations. High quality animations in various formats can be produced using a combination of ParaView and MEncoder [4].

► *Developer’s note:* Add MEncoder example to create animation.

### 8.2.3 OpenDX

OpenDX [7] is a powerful free visualization tool based on IBM’s *Visualization Data Explorer*. To visualize data with OpenDX, a user needs to build a *visual program* that instructs OpenDX how to extract and visualize relevant parts of your data. DOLFIN provides a ready-made visual program suitable for visualization of DOLFIN data in OpenDX. The visual program can be found in the subdirectory *src/utils/opendx/* of the DOLFIN source tree (file `dolfin.net` and accompanying configuration `dolfin.cfg`).

### 8.2.4 GNU Octave

GNU Octave [5] is a free clone of MATLAB that can be used to visualize solutions computed in DOLFIN, using the commands `pdemesh`, `pdesurf` and `pdeplot`. These commands are normally not part of GNU Octave but are provided by DOLFIN in the subdirectory *src/utils/octave/* of the DOLFIN source tree. These commands require the external program `ivview` included in the open source distribution of Open Inventor [6]. (Debian users install the package `inventor-clients`.)
To visualize a solution computed with DOLFIN and exported in GNU Octave format, first load the solution into GNU Octave by just typing the name of the file without the .m suffix. If the solution has been saved to the file poisson.m, then just type

```
octave:1> poisson
```

The solution can now be visualized using the command

```
octave:2> pdesurf(points, cells, u)
```

or to visualize just the mesh, type

```
octave:3> pdesurf(points, edges, cells)
```

### 8.2.5 MATLAB

Since MATLAB [2] is not free, users are encouraged to use GNU Octave whenever possible. That said, data is visualized in much the same way in MATLAB as in GNU Octave, using the MATLAB commands `pdemesh`, `pdesurf` and `pdeplot`.

### 8.3 Converting between file formats

DOLFIN supplies a script for easy conversion between different file formats. The script is named `dolfin-convert` and can be found in the directory `src/utils/convert/` of the DOLFIN source tree. The only supported file formats are currently the Medit .mesh format, the Gmsh .msh version 2.0 format and the DOLFIN XML (.xml) mesh format.
To convert a mesh in Medit .mesh format generated by TetGen with the -g option, type

```
# dolfin-convert mesh.mesh mesh.xml
```

To convert a mesh in Gmsh .msh format type

```
# dolfin-convert mesh.msh mesh.xml
```

In generating a Gmsh mesh, make sure to define a physical surface/volume. It is also possible to convert a mesh from the old DOLFIN XML (.xml) mesh format to the current one by typing

```
# dolfin-convert -i xml-old old_mesh.xml new_mesh.xml
```

Example meshes can be found in the directory src/utils/convert/ of the DOLFIN source tree.

### 8.4 A note on new file formats

With some effort, DOLFIN can be expanded with new file formats. Any contributions are welcome. If you wish to contribute to DOLFIN, then adding a new file format (or improving upon an existing file format) is a good place to start. Take a look at one of the current formats in the subdirectory src/kernel/io/ of the DOLFIN source tree to get a feeling for how to design the file format, or ask at dolfin-dev@fenics.org for directions.

Also consider contributing to the dolfin-convert script by adding a conversion routine for your favorite format. The script is written in Python and should be easy to extend with new formats.
Chapter 9

The log system

DOLFIN provides a simple interface for uniform handling of log messages, including warnings and errors. All messages are collected to a single stream, which allows the destination and formatting of the output from an entire program, including the DOLFIN library, to be controlled by the user.

9.1 Generating log messages

Log messages can be generated using the function message() available in the dolfin namespace:

```cpp
void message(std::string format, ...);
```

which works similarly to the standard C library function printf. The following examples illustrate the usage of message():
As an alternative to message(), DOLFIN provides a C++ style interface to generating log messages. Thus, the above examples can also be implemented as follows:

```cpp
cout << "Solving linear system." << endl;
cout << "Size of vector: " << x.size() << "." << endl;
cout << "R = " << R << " (TOL = " << TOL << ")" << endl;
```

Note the use of dolfin::cout and dolfin::endl from the dolfin namespace, corresponding to the standard standard std::cout and std::endl in namespace std. If log messages are directed to standard output (see below), then dolfin::cout and std::cout may be mixed freely.

Most classes provided by DOLFIN can be used together with dolfin::cout and dolfin::endl to display short informative messages about objects:

```cpp
Matrix A(10, 10);
cout << A << endl;
```

To display detailed information for an object, use the member function disp():

```cpp
Matrix A(10, 10);
A.disp();
```

Use with caution for large objects. For a Matrix, calling disp() displays all matrix entries.

### 9.2 Warnings and errors

Warnings and error messages can be generated using the functions
Once an error is encountered, the program throws an exception.

### 9.3 Debug messages and assertions

The macro `dolfin_debug()` works similarly to `message()`:

```cpp
dolfin_debug(message);
```

but in addition to displaying the given message, information is printed about the location of the code that generated the debug message (file, function name and line number).

Note that in order to pass formatting strings and additional arguments with debug messages, the variations `dolfin_debug1()`, `dolfin_debug2()` and so on, depending on the number of arguments, must be used.

Assertions can often be a helpful programming tool. Use assertions whenever you assume something about about a variable in your code, such as assuming that given input to a function is valid. **DOLFIN** provides the macro `dolfin_assert()` for creating assertions:

```cpp
dolfin_assert(check);
```

This macro accepts a boolean expression and if the expression evaluates to false, an error message is displayed, including the file, function name and line number of the assertion, and a segmentation fault is raised (to enable easy attachment to a debugger). The following examples illustrate the use of `dolfin_assert()`:
dolfin_assert(i >= 0);
dolfin_assert(i < n);
dolfin_assert(cell.type() == Cell::triangle);
dolfin_assert(cell.type() == Cell::tetrahedron);

Note that assertions are only active when compiling DOLFIN and your program with DEBUG defined (configure option --enable-debug or compiler flag -DDEBUG). Otherwise, the macro dolfin_assert() expands to nothing, meaning that liberal use of assertions does not affect performance, since assertions are only present during development and debugging.

9.4 Task notification

The two functions dolfin.begin() and dolfin.end() available in the dolfin name space can be used to notify the DOLFIN log system about the beginning and end of a task:

```c
void begin();
void end();
```

Alternatively, a string message (or a formatting string with optional arguments) can be supplied:

```c
void begin(std::string format, ...);
void end();
```

These functions enable the DOLFIN log system to display messages, warnings and errors hierarchically, by automatically indenting the output produced between calls to begin() and end(). A program may contain an arbitrary number of nested tasks.
9.5 Progress bars

The DOLFIN log system provides the class `Progress` for simple creation of progress sessions. A progress session automatically displays the progress of a computation using a progress bar.

If the number of steps of a computation is known, a progress session should be defined in terms of the number of steps and updated in each step of the computation as illustrated by the following example:

```csharp
Progress p("Assembling", mesh.noCells());
for (CellIterator c(mesh); !c.end(); ++c)
{
    ...
    p++;
}
```

It is also possible to specify the step number explicitly by assigning an integer to the progress session:

```csharp
Progress p("Iterating over vector", x.size())
for (uint i = 0; i < x.size(); i++)
{
    ...
    p = i;
}
```

Alternatively, if the number of steps is unknown, the progress session needs to be updated with the current percentage of the progress:

```csharp
Progress p("Time-stepping");
while ( t < T )
{
    ...
}
```
\[ p = \frac{t}{T}; \]

The progress bar created by the progress session will only be updated if the progress has changed significantly since the last update (by default at least 10%). The amount of change needed for an update can be controlled using the parameter "progress step":

\[
\text{set("progress step", 0.01);}
\]

Note that several progress sessions may be created simultaneously, or nested within tasks.

### 9.6 Controlling the destination of output

By default, the DOLFIN log system directs messages to standard output (the terminal). Messages may also be turned off completely. To specify the destination, set the value of the parameter "output destination":

\[
\text{set("output destination", "terminal");}
\]
\[
\text{set("output destination", "silent");}
\]

One may also set the debug level for the DOLFIN log system so that only messages with a debug level higher than or equal to the current debug level are printed:

\[
\text{set("debug level", "1");}
\]
Chapter 10

Parameters

- **Developer’s note:** Since this chapter was written, the DOLFIN parameter system has been completely redesigned and now supports localization of parameters to objects or hierarchies of objects. Chapter needs to be updated.

**DOLFIN** keeps a global database of parameters that control the behavior of the various components of **DOLFIN**. Parameters are controlled using a uniform type-independent interface that allows retrieving the values of existing parameters, modifying existing parameters and adding new parameters to the database.

### 10.1 Retrieving the value of a parameter

To retrieve the value of a parameter, use the function `get()` available in the `dolfin` namespace:

```cpp
Parameter get(std::string key);
```

This function accepts as argument a string `key` and returns the value of the parameter matching the given key. An error message is printed through the
log system if there is no parameter with the given key in the database.

The value of the parameter is automatically cast to the correct type when assigning the value of \texttt{get()} to a variable, as illustrated by the following examples:

```cpp
real TOL = get("tolerance");
int num_samples = get("number of samples");
bool solve_dual = get("solve dual problem");
std::string filename = get("file name");
```

Note that there is a small cost associated with accessing the value of a parameter, so if the value of a parameter is to be used multiple times, then it should be retrieved once and stored in a local variable as illustrated by the following example:

```cpp
int num_samples = get("number of samples");
for (int i = 0; i < num_samples; i++)
{
    ...
}
```

### 10.2 Modifying the value of a parameter

To modify the value of a parameter, use the function \texttt{set()} available in the \texttt{dolfin} namespace:

```cpp
void set(std::string key, Parameter value);
```

This function accepts as arguments a string \texttt{key} together with the corresponding value. The value type should match the type of parameter that is
being modified. An error message is printed through the log system if there is no parameter with the given key in the database.

The following examples illustrate the use of `set()`:

```cpp
set("tolerance", 0.01);
set("number of samples", 10);
set("solve dual problem", true);
set("file name", "solution.xml");
```

Note that changing the values of parameters using `set()` does not change the values of already retrieved parameters; it only changes the values of parameters in the database. Thus, the value of a parameter must be changed before using a component that is controlled by the parameter in question.

### 10.3 Adding a new parameter

To add a parameter to the database, use the function `add()` available in the `dolfin` namespace:

```cpp
void add(std::string key, Parameter value);
```

This function accepts two arguments: a unique key identifying the new parameter and the value of the new parameter.

The following examples illustrate the use of `add()`:

```cpp
add("tolerance", 0.01);
add("number of samples", 10);
add("solve dual problem", true);
add("file name", "solution.xml");
```
10.4 Saving parameters to file

The following code illustrates how to save the current database of parameters to a file in DOLFIN XML format:

```cpp
File file("parameters.xml");
file << ParameterSystem::parameters;
```

When running a simulation in DOLFIN, saving the parameter database to a file is an easy way to document the set of parameters used in the simulation.

10.5 Loading parameters from file

The following code illustrates how to load a set of parameters into the current database of parameters from a file in DOLFIN XML format:

```cpp
File file("parameters.xml");
file >> ParameterSystem::parameters;
```

The following example illustrates how to specify a list of parameters in the DOLFIN XML format:

```xml
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8"?>
<dolfin xmlns:dolfin="http://www.fenics.org/dolfin/">
  <parameters>
    <parameter name="tolerance" type="real" value="0.01"/>
    <parameter name="number of samples" type="int" value="10"/>
    <parameter name="solve dual problem" type="bool" value="false"/>
    <parameter name="file name" type="string" value="solution.xml"/>
  </parameters>
</dolfin>
```
Bibliography

Appendix A

Reference cells

The definition of reference cells used in DOLFIN follows the UFC specification. [15]

The following five reference cells are covered by the UFC specification: the reference interval, the reference triangle, the reference quadrilateral, the reference tetrahedron and the reference hexahedron.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference cell</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>#Vertices</th>
<th>#Facets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The reference interval</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reference triangle</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reference quadrilateral</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reference tetrahedron</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reference hexahedron</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.1: Reference cells covered by the UFC specification.

The UFC specification assumes that each cell in a finite element mesh is always isomorphic to one of the reference cells.
A.1 The reference interval

The reference interval is shown in Figure A.1 and is defined by its two vertices with coordinates as specified in Table A.2.

![Figure A.1: The reference interval.](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vertex</th>
<th>Coordinate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0$</td>
<td>$x = 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1$</td>
<td>$x = 1$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.2: Vertex coordinates of the reference interval.
A.2 The reference triangle

The reference triangle is shown in Figure A.2 and is defined by its three vertices with coordinates as specified in Table A.3.

![Reference Triangle Diagram]

Figure A.2: The reference triangle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vertex</th>
<th>Coordinate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0$</td>
<td>$x = (0, 0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1$</td>
<td>$x = (1, 0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2$</td>
<td>$x = (0, 1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.3: Vertex coordinates of the reference triangle.
A.3 The reference quadrilateral

The reference quadrilateral is shown in Figure A.3 and is defined by its four vertices with coordinates as specified in Table A.4.

Figure A.3: The reference quadrilateral.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vertex</th>
<th>Coordinate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0$</td>
<td>$x = (0, 0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1$</td>
<td>$x = (1, 0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2$</td>
<td>$x = (1, 1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_3$</td>
<td>$x = (0, 1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.4: Vertex coordinates of the reference quadrilateral.
### A.4 The reference tetrahedron

The reference tetrahedron is shown in Figure A.4 and is defined by its four vertices with coordinates as specified in Table A.5.

![Reference Tetrahedron](image)

Figure A.4: The reference tetrahedron.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vertex</th>
<th>Coordinate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0$</td>
<td>$x = (0, 0, 0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1$</td>
<td>$x = (1, 0, 0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2$</td>
<td>$x = (0, 1, 0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_3$</td>
<td>$x = (0, 0, 1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.5: Vertex coordinates of the reference tetrahedron.
A.5 The reference hexahedron

The reference hexahedron is shown in Figure A.5 and is defined by its eight vertices with coordinates as specified in Table A.6.

![Figure A.5: The reference hexahedron.](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vertex</th>
<th>Coordinate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0$</td>
<td>$x = (0,0,0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1$</td>
<td>$x = (1,0,0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2$</td>
<td>$x = (1,1,0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_3$</td>
<td>$x = (0,1,0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_4$</td>
<td>$x = (0,0,1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_5$</td>
<td>$x = (1,0,1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_6$</td>
<td>$x = (1,1,1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_7$</td>
<td>$x = (0,1,1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.6: Vertex coordinates of the reference hexahedron.
Appendix B

Numbering of mesh entities

The numbering of mesh entities used in DOLFIN follows the UFC specification [15] for each mesh that has been ordered.\footnote{To order a mesh, call the \texttt{order()} function: \texttt{mesh.order()}.}

The UFC specification dictates a certain numbering of the vertices, edges etc. of the cells of a finite element mesh. First, an \textit{ad hoc} numbering is picked for the vertices of each cell. Then, the remaining entities are ordered based on a simple rule, as described in detail below.

B.1 Basic concepts

The topological entities of a cell (or mesh) are referred to as \textit{mesh entities}. A mesh entity can be identified by a pair \((d, i)\), where \(d\) is the topological dimension of the mesh entity and \(i\) is a unique index of the mesh entity. Mesh entities are numbered within each topological dimension from 0 to \(n_d - 1\), where \(n_d\) is the number of mesh entities of topological dimension \(d\).

For convenience, mesh entities of topological dimension 0 are referred to as \textit{vertices}, entities of dimension 1 as \textit{edges}, entities of dimension 2 as \textit{faces}, entities of \textit{codimension} 1 as \textit{facets} and entities of codimension 0 as \textit{cells}. 
These concepts are summarized in Table B.1.

Thus, the vertices of a tetrahedron are identified as $v_0 = (0, 0)$, $v_1 = (0, 1)$ and $v_2 = (0, 2)$, the edges are $e_0 = (1, 0)$, $e_1 = (1, 1)$, $e_2 = (1, 2)$, $e_3 = (1, 3)$, $e_4 = (1, 4)$ and $e_5 = (1, 5)$, the faces (facets) are $f_0 = (2, 0)$, $f_1 = (2, 1)$, $f_2 = (2, 2)$ and $f_3 = (2, 3)$, and the cell itself is $c_0 = (3, 0)$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Codimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vertex</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facet</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B.1: Named mesh entities.

### B.2 Numbering of vertices

For simplicial cells (intervals, triangles and tetrahedra) of a finite element mesh, the vertices are numbered locally based on the corresponding global vertex numbers. In particular, a tuple of increasing local vertex numbers corresponds to a tuple of increasing global vertex numbers. This is illustrated in Figure B.1 for a mesh consisting of two triangles.

For non-simplicial cells (quadrilaterals and hexahedra), the numbering is arbitrary, as long as each cell is isomorphic to the corresponding reference cell by matching each vertex with the corresponding vertex in the reference cell. This is illustrated in Figure B.2 for a mesh consisting of two quadrilaterals.
Figure B.1: The vertices of a simplicial mesh are numbered locally based on the corresponding global vertex numbers.

Figure B.2: The local numbering of vertices of a non-simplicial mesh is arbitrary, as long as each cell is isomorphic to the reference cell by matching each vertex to the corresponding vertex of the reference cell.
B.3 Numbering of other mesh entities

When the vertices have been numbered, the remaining mesh entities are numbered within each topological dimension based on a *lexicographical ordering* of the corresponding ordered tuples of *non-incident vertices*.

As an illustration, consider the numbering of edges (the mesh entities of topological dimension one) on the reference triangle in Figure B.3. To number the edges of the reference triangle, we identify for each edge the corresponding non-incident vertices. For each edge, there is only one such vertex (the vertex opposite to the edge). We thus identify the three edges in the reference triangle with the tuples $(v_0)$, $(v_1)$ and $(v_2)$. The first of these is edge $e_0$ between vertices $v_1$ and $v_2$ opposite to vertex $v_0$, the second is edge $e_1$ between vertices $v_0$ and $v_2$ opposite to vertex $v_1$, and the third is edge $e_2$ between vertices $v_0$ and $v_1$ opposite to vertex $v_2$.

Similarly, we identify the six edges of the reference tetrahedron with the corresponding non-incident tuples $(v_0, v_1)$, $(v_0, v_2)$, $(v_0, v_3)$, $(v_1, v_2)$, $(v_1, v_3)$ and $(v_2, v_3)$. The first of these is edge $e_0$ between vertices $v_2$ and $v_3$ opposite to vertices $v_0$ and $v_1$ as shown in Figure B.4.

![Figure B.3: Mesh entities are ordered based on a lexicographical ordering of the corresponding ordered tuples of non-incident vertices. The first edge $e_0$ is non-incident to vertex $v_0$.](image-url)
Figure B.4: Mesh entities are ordered based on a lexicographical ordering of the corresponding ordered tuples of non-incident vertices. The first edge $e_0$ is non-incident to vertices $v_0$ and $v_1$.

### B.3.1 Relative ordering

The relative ordering of mesh entities with respect to other incident mesh entities follows by sorting the entities by their (global) indices. Thus, the pair of vertices incident to the first edge $e_0$ of a triangular cell is $(v_1, v_2)$, not $(v_2, v_1)$. Similarly, the first face $f_0$ of a tetrahedral cell is incident to vertices $(v_1, v_2, v_3)$.

For simplicial cells, the relative ordering in combination with the convention of numbering the vertices locally based on global vertex indices means that two incident cells will always agree on the orientation of incident subsimplices. Thus, two incident triangles will agree on the orientation of the common edge and two incident tetrahedra will agree on the orientation of the common edge(s) and the orientation of the common face (if any). This is illustrated in Figure B.5 for two incident triangles sharing a common edge.
Figure B.5: Two incident triangles will always agree on the orientation of the common edge.

B.3.2 Limitations

The UFC specification is only concerned with the ordering of mesh entities with respect to entities of larger topological dimension. In other words, the UFC specification is only concerned with the ordering of incidence relations of the class $d - d'$ where $d > d'$. For example, the UFC specification is not concerned with the ordering of incidence relations of the class $0 - 1$, that is, the ordering of edges incident to vertices.
B.4 Numbering schemes for reference cells

The numbering scheme is demonstrated below for cells isomorphic to each of the five reference cells.

B.4.1 Numbering for intervals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Incident vertices</th>
<th>Non-incident vertices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0 = (0,0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1 = (0,1)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_0 = (1,0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B.2: Numbering of mesh entities on intervals.

B.4.2 Numbering for triangular cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Incident vertices</th>
<th>Non-incident vertices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0 = (0,0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1 = (0,1)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2 = (0,2)$</td>
<td>$(v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_0 = (1,0)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_1 = (1,1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_2 = (1,2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_0 = (2,0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2)$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B.3: Numbering of mesh entities on triangular cells.
### B.4.3 Numbering for quadrilateral cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Incident vertices</th>
<th>Non-incident vertices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0 = (0, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1 = (0, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2 = (0, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_3 = (0, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_0 = (1, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_1 = (1, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_2 = (1, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_3 = (1, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_0 = (2, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B.4: Numbering of mesh entities on quadrilateral cells.
B.4.4 Numbering for tetrahedral cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Incident vertices</th>
<th>Non-incident vertices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0 = (0, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1 = (0, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2 = (0, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_3 = (0, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_0 = (1, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_1 = (1, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_2 = (1, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_3 = (1, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_4 = (1, 4)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_5 = (1, 5)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_0 = (2, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_1 = (2, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_2 = (2, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_3 = (2, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_0 = (3, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B.5: Numbering of mesh entities on tetrahedral cells.
### B.4.5 Numbering for hexahedral cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Incident vertices</th>
<th>Non-incident vertices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0 = (0, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1 = (0, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2 = (0, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_3 = (0, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_4 = (0, 4)$</td>
<td>$(v_4)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_5 = (0, 5)$</td>
<td>$(v_5)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_6 = (0, 6)$</td>
<td>$(v_6)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_7 = (0, 7)$</td>
<td>$(v_7)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_0 = (1, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_6, v_7)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_1 = (1, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_5, v_6)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_2 = (1, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_4, v_7)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_5, v_6)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_3 = (1, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_4, v_5)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_4 = (1, 4)$</td>
<td>$(v_3, v_7)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_5 = (1, 5)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_6)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_6 = (1, 6)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_7 = (1, 7)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_5)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_8 = (1, 8)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_9 = (1, 9)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_{10} = (1, 10)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e_{11} = (1, 11)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_0 = (2, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_1 = (2, 1)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_3, v_4, v_7)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_4, v_5)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_2 = (2, 2)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2, v_5, v_6)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_3, v_4, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_3 = (2, 3)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_3, v_4, v_7)$</td>
<td>$(v_1, v_2, v_5, v_6)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_4 = (2, 4)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_4, v_5)$</td>
<td>$(v_2, v_3, v_4, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_5 = (2, 5)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$</td>
<td>$(v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_0 = (3, 0)$</td>
<td>$(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7)$</td>
<td>\emptyset</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B.6: Numbering of mesh entities on hexahedral cells.
Appendix C

Design

This chapter discusses details of the design of DOLFIN and is intended mainly for developers of DOLFIN.

C.1 Linear algebra

The linear algebra library provides a uniform interface to uBlas and PETSc linear algebra through a set of wrappers for basic data structures (matrices and vectors) and solvers, such as Krylov subspace solvers with preconditioners.

For both sets of wrappers, a common interface is defined by the classes GenericMatrix and GenericVector. DOLFIN provides a number of algorithms, most notably the assembly algorithms, that work only through the common interface, which means that these algorithms work for any given representation that implements the interface specified by GenericMatrix or GenericVector. A class diagram for the DOLFIN linear algebra implementation is given in Figure C.1.
Figure C.1: Class diagram of the linear algebra classes in DOLFIN.
Appendix D

Installation

The source code of DOLFIN is portable and should compile on any Unix system, although it is developed mainly under GNU/Linux (in particular Debian GNU/Linux). DOLFIN can be compiled under Windows through Cygwin [1]. Questions, bug reports and patches concerning the installation should be directed to the DOLFIN mailing list at the address

dolfin-dev@fenics.org

DOLFIN must currently be compiled directly from source, but an effort is underway to provide precompiled Debian packages of DOLFIN and other FEniCS components.

D.1 Installing from source

D.1.1 Dependencies and requirements

DOLFIN depends on a number of libraries that need to be installed on your system. These libraries include Boost, Libxml2 and optionally PETSc and
UMFPACK. If you wish to use the Python interface **PyDOLFIN**, the libraries SWIG and NumPy are required. In addition to these libraries, you need to install **FIAT** and **FFC** if you want to define your own variational forms.

**Installing Boost**

Boost is a collection of C++ source libraries. Boost can be obtained from

http://www.boost.org/

Packages are available for most Linux distributions. For Ubuntu/Debian users, the package to install is `boost-dev`.

**Installing Libxml2**

Libxml2 is a library used by **DOLFIN** to parse XML data files. Libxml2 can be obtained from

http://xmlsoft.org/

Packages are available for most Linux distributions. For Ubuntu/Debian users, the package to install is `libxml2-dev`.

**Installing NumPy**

NumPy is required for generating the Python interface **PyDOLFIN**. It can be obtained from

http://numpy.scipy.org/

Packages are available for most Linux distributions. For Ubuntu/Debian users, the packages `python-numpy python-numpy-ext` should be installed.
Installing SWIG

SWIG is also required for generating the Python interface PyDOLFIN. It can be obtained from

http://www.swig.org/

Packages are available for most Linux distributions. For Ubuntu/Debian users, the package swig should be installed.

Installing UMFPACK

UMFPACK is part of the SuiteSparse collection and is a library for the direct solution of linear systems. It is highly recommended if PETSc is not installed. If PETSc is not installed, UMFPACK is the default direct linear solver. The SuiteSparse collection can be downloaded from

http://www.cise.ufl.edu/research/sparse/SuiteSparse/

UMFPACK is available as a package for many Linux distributions. For Ubuntu/Debian users, the packages libumfpack4 and libumfpack4-dev should be installed. For other distributions, the package may be called libufsparse.

Installing PETSc

Optionally, DOLFIN may be compiled with support for PETSc. To compile DOLFIN with PETSc, add the flag --enable-petsc during the initial configuration of DOLFIN.

PETSc is a library for the solution of linear and nonlinear systems, functioning as the backend for the DOLFIN linear algebra classes. DOLFIN depends on PETSc version 2.3.1, which can be obtained from
Follow the installation instructions on the PETSc web page. Normally, you should only have to perform the following simple steps in the PETSc source directory:

```bash
# export PETSC_DIR='pwd'
# ./config/configure.py --with-clanguage=cxx --with-shared=1
# make all
```

Add `--download-hypre=yes` to configure.py if you want to install Hypre which provides a collection of preconditioners, including algebraic multigrid (AMG), and `--download-umfpack=yes` to configure.py if you want to install UMFPACK which provided as fast direct linear solver. Both packages are highly recommended.

DOLFIN assumes that `PETSC_DIR` is `/usr/local/lib/petsc/` but this can be controlled using the flag `--with-petsc-dir=<path>` when configuring DOLFIN (see below).

### Installing FFC

DOLFIN uses the FEniCS Form Compiler **FFC** to process variational forms. **FFC** can be obtained from

```bash
http://www.fenics.org/
```

Follow the installation instructions given in the **FFC** manual. **FFC** follows the standard for Python packages, which means that normally you should only have to perform the following simple step in the **FFC** source directory:

```bash
# python setup.py install
```
Note that **FFC** depends on **FIAT**, which in turn depends on the Python packages NumPy [12] (Debian package `python-numpy`) and LinearAlgebra (Debian package `python-numpy-ext`). Refer to the **FFC** manual for further details.

### D.1.2 Downloading the source code

The latest release of **DOLFIN** can be obtained as a tar.gz archive in the download section at

```
http://www.fenics.org/
```

Download the latest release of **DOLFIN**, for example `dolfin-x.y.z.tar.gz`, and unpack using the command

```
# tar zxfv dolfin-x.y.z.tar.gz
```

This creates a directory `dolfin-x.y.z` containing the **DOLFIN** source code.

If you want the very latest version of **DOLFIN**, it can be accessed directly from the development repository through **hg** (Mercurial):

```
# hg clone http://www.fenics.org/hg/dolfin
```

This version may contain features not yet present in the latest release, but may also be less stable and even not work at all.

### D.1.3 Compiling the source code

**DOLFIN** is built using the standard GNU Autotools (Automake, Autoconf) and libtool, which means that the installation procedure is simple:
# ./configure
# make

followed by an optional

# make install

to install **DOLFIN** on your system.

The configure script will check for a number of libraries and try to figure out how compile **DOLFIN** against these libraries. The configure script accepts a collection of optional arguments that can be used to control the compilation process. A few of these are listed below. Use the command

# ./configure --help

for a complete list of arguments.

- Use the option **--prefix=<path>** to specify an alternative directory for installation of **DOLFIN**. The default directory is `/usr/local/`, which means that header files will be installed under `/usr/local/include/` and libraries will be installed under `/usr/local/lib/`. This option can be useful if you don’t have root access but want to install **DOLFIN** locally on a user account as follows:

  # mkdir ~/local
  # ./configure --prefix=~/local
  # make
  # make install

- Use the option **--enable-debug** to compile **DOLFIN** with debugging symbols and assertions.
• Use the option `--enable-optimization` to compile an optimized version of DOLFIN without debugging symbols and assertions.

• Use the option `--disable-curses` to compile DOLFIN without the curses interface (a text-mode graphical user interface).

• Use the option `--enable-petsc` to compile DOLFIN with support for PETSc.

• Use the option `--disable-pydolfin` to compile without support for PyDOLFIN.

• Use the option `--disable-mpi` to compile DOLFIN without support for MPI (Message Passing Interface), assuming PETSc has been compiled without support for MPI.

• Use the option `--with-petsc-dir=<path>` to specify the location of the PETSc directory. By default, DOLFIN assumes that PETSc has been installed in `/usr/local/lib/petsc/`.

D.1.4 Compiling the demo programs

After compiling the DOLFIN library according to the instructions above, you may want to try one of the demo programs in the subdirectory `src/demo/` of the DOLFIN source tree. Just enter the directory containing the demo program you want to compile and type `make`. You may also compile all demo programs at once using the command

```
# make demo
```

D.1.5 Compiling a program against DOLFIN

Whether you are writing your own Makefiles or using an automated build system such as GNU Autotools or BuildSystem, it is straightforward to compile a program against DOLFIN. The necessary include and library paths
can be obtained through the script `dolfin-config` which is automatically generated during the compilation of DOLFIN and installed in the `bin` subdirectory of the `<path>` specified with `--prefix`. Assuming this directory is in your executable path (environment variable `PATH`), the include path for building DOLFIN can be obtained from the command

```
dolfin-config --cflags
```

and the path to DOLFIN libraries can be obtained from the command

```
dolfin-config --libs
```

If `dolfin-config` is not in your executable path, you need to provide the full path to `dolfin-config`.

Examples of how to write a proper Makefile are provided with each of the example programs in the subdirectory `src/demo/` in the DOLFIN source tree.

### D.2 Debian package

In preparation.

### D.3 Installing from source under Windows

DOLFIN can be used under Windows using Cygwin, which provides a Linux-like environment. The installation process is the same as under GNU/Linux. To use DOLFIN under Cygwin, the Cygwin development tools must be installed. Instructions for installing PETSc under Cygwin can be found on the PETSc web page. Installation of FFC and FIAT is the same as under GNU/Linux. The Python package NumPy is not available as a Cygwin
package and must be installed manually. To compile DOLFIN, the Cygwin package libxml2-devel must be installed. For PyDOLFIN the package swig must be installed. NumPy is not available as a package for Cygwin, therefore it must be installed manually if you wish to use PyDOLFIN. The compilation procedure is then the same as under GNU/Linux. If MPI has not been installed:

```
# ./configure --disable-mpi
# make
```

followed by an optional

```
# make install
```

will compile DOLFIN on your system.
Appendix E

Contributing code

If you have created a new module, fixed a bug somewhere, or have made a small change which you want to contribute to DOLFIN, then the best way to do so is to send us your contribution in the form of a patch. A patch is a file which describes how to transform a file or directory structure into another. The patch is built by comparing a version which both parties have against the modified version which only you have. Patches can be created with Mercurial or diff.

E.1 Creating bundles/patches

E.1.1 Creating a Mercurial (hg) bundle

Creating bundles is the preferred way of submitting patches. It has several advantages over plain diffs. If you are a frequent contributor, consider publishing your source tree so that the FFC maintainers (and other users) may pull your changes directly from your tree.

A bundle contains your contribution to DOLFIN in the form of a binary patch file generated by Mercurial [11], the revision control system used by DOLFIN. Follow the procedure described below to create your bundle.
1. Clone the DOLFIN repository:

```bash
# hg clone http://www.fenics.org/hg/dolfin
```

2. If your contribution consists of new files, add them to the correct location in the DOLFIN directory tree. Enter the DOLFIN directory and add these files to the local repository by typing:

```bash
# hg add <files>
```

where `<files>` is the list of new files. You do not have to take any action for previously existing files which have been modified. Do not add temporary or binary files.

3. Enter the DOLFIN directory and commit your contribution:

```bash
# hg commit -m "<description>"
```

where `<description>` is a short description of what your patch accomplishes.

4. Create the bundle:

```bash
# hg bundle dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.hg
    http://www.fenics.org/hg/dolfin
```

written as one line, where `<identifier>` is a keyword that can be used to identify the bundle as coming from you (your username, last name, first name, a nickname etc) and `<date>` is today’s date in the format `yyyy-mm-dd`. The bundle now exists as `dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.hg`.

When you add your contribution at point 2, make sure that only the files that you want to share are present by typing:

```bash
# hg status
```
This will produce a list of files. Those marked with a question mark are not tracked by Mercurial. You can track them by using the add command as shown above. Once you have added these files, their status changes form ? to A.

### E.1.2 Creating a standard (diff) patch file

The tool used to create a patch is called `diff` and the tool used to apply the patch is called `patch`.

Here’s an example of how it works. Start from the latest release of DOLFIN, which we here assume is release x.y.z. You then have a directory structure under `dolfin-x.y.z` where you have made modifications to some files which you think could be useful to other users.

1. Clean up your modified directory structure to remove temporary and binary files which will be rebuilt anyway:

   ```
   # make clean
   ```

2. From the parent directory, rename the DOLFIN directory to something else:

   ```
   # mv dolfin-x.y.z dolfin-x.y.z-mod
   ```

3. Unpack the version of DOLFIN that you started from:

   ```
   # tar zxfv dolfin-x.y.z.tar.gz
   ```

4. You should now have two DOLFIN directory structures in your current directory:

   ```
   # ls
dolfin-x.y.z
dolfin-x.y.z-mod
   ```
5. Now use the `diff` tool to create the patch:

```bash
# diff -u --new-file --recursive dolfin-x.y.z
   dolfin-x.y.z-mod > dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.patch
```

written as one line, where `<identifier>` is a keyword that can be used to identify the patch as coming from you (your username, last name, first name, a nickname etc) and `<date>` is today’s date in the format `yyyy-mm-dd`.

6. The patch now exists as `dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.patch` and can be distributed to other people who already have `dolfin-x.y.z` to easily create your modified version. If the patch is large, compressing it with for example `gzip` is advisable:

```bash
# gzip dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.patch
```

### E.2 Sending bundles/patches

Patch and bundle files should be sent to the **DOLFIN** mailing list at the address

```
dolfin-dev@fenics.org
```

Include a short description of what your patch/bundle accomplishes. Small patches/bundles have a better chance of being accepted, so if you are making a major contribution, please consider breaking your changes up into several small self-contained patches/bundles if possible.
E.3 Applying changes

E.3.1 Applying a Mercurial bundle

You have received a patch in the form of a Mercurial bundle. The following procedure shows how to apply the patch to your version of DOLFIN.

1. Before applying the patch, you can check its content by entering the DOLFIN directory and typing:

```
# hg incoming -p
bundle://<path>/dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.hg
```

written as one line, where <path> is the path to the bundle. <path> can be omitted if the bundle is in the DOLFIN directory. The option -p can be omitted if you are only interested in a short summary of the changesets found in the bundle.

2. To apply the patch to your version of DOLFIN type:

```
# hg unbundle <path>/dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.hg
```

followed by:

```
# hg update
```

E.3.2 Applying a standard patch file

Let’s say that a patch has been built relative to DOLFIN release x.y.z. The following description then shows how to apply the patch to a clean version of release x.y.z.

1. Unpack the version of DOLFIN which the patch is built relative to:
2. Check that you have the patch `dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.patch` and the `DOLFIN` directory structure in the current directory:

```bash
# ls
dolfin-x.y.z
dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.patch
```

Unpack the patch file using `gunzip` if necessary.

3. Enter the `DOLFIN` directory structure:

```bash
# cd dolfin-x.y.z
```

4. Apply the patch:

```bash
# patch -p1 < ../dolfin-<identifier>-<date>.patch
```

The option `-p1` strips the leading directory from the filename references in the patch, to match the fact that we are applying the patch from inside the directory. Another useful option to `patch` is `--dry-run` which can be used to test the patch without actually applying it.

5. The modified version now exists as `dolfin-x.y.z`.

### E.4 License agreement

By contributing a patch to `DOLFIN`, you agree to license your contributed code under the GNU Lesser General Public License (a condition also built into the LGPL license of the code you have modified). Before creating the patch, please update the author and date information of the file(s) you have modified according to the following example:
As a rule of thumb, the original author of a file holds the copyright.
Appendix F

Contributors

- Developer’s note: List all contributors here.
Appendix G

License

DOLFIN is licensed under the GNU Lesser General Public License (LGPL) version 2.1, included verbatim below.

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Version 2.1, February 1999

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Public License. It also provides other free software developers Less
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are the reason we use the ordinary General Public License for many
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That’s all there is to it!
Index

File, 57
GMRES, 28
GenericMatrix, 28
GenericVector, 28
KrylovSolver, 28
LUSolver, 30
LU, 30
Matrix, 25
Progress, 69
Vector, 25
add(), 73
cout, 65
dolfin_assert(), 67
dolfin_begin(), 68
dolfin_debug(), 67
dolfin_end(), 68
dendl, 65
error(), 66
get(), 71
message(), 65
set(), 72
warning(), 66

algebraic multigrid, 29
AMG, 29
assertions, 67
BiCGStab, 29
Boost, 96
bundle, 105, 108, 109
compiling, 99, 101
conjugate gradient method, 29
contact, 12
contributing, 105
Cygwin, 102

Debian package, 102
debugging, 67
demo programs, 101
dense matrix, 28
dependencies, 95
diff, 107
direct methods, 30
downloading, 13, 99
eigenvalue problems, 31
eigenvalue solver, 31
enumeration, 12
errors, 66

FFC, 98
ffc, 15
FIAT, 99
file formats, 59
Function, 41
functions, 41

GMRES method, 28
GNU Lesser General Public License, 115

hexahedron, 82
hg, 105, 109
I/O, 57
ILU, 29
incomplete LU factorization, 29
indices, 12
input/output, 57
installation, 13, 95
interval, 78
iterative methods, 28
Jacobi, 29
Krylov subspace methods, 28
LGPL, 115
Libxml2, 96
license, 110, 115
linear algebra backends, 32
linear systems, 28
log system, 65
LU factorization, 30
matrix-free solvers, 30
MayaVi, 43
Mercurial, 105, 109
mesh entity, 83
Newton’s method, 52
NewtonSolver, 52
nonlinear solver, 51
NonlinearFunction, 51
numbering, 83
NumPy, 96
object, 57
output destination, 70
parameters, 71
ParaView, 43
partial differential equations, 49
patch, 107–109
PETSc, 32, 97
Poisson’s equation, 14
post-processing, 57
pre-processing, 57
preconditioners, 29
progress bar, 69
quadrilateral, 80
quickstart, 13
reference cells, 77
SLEPc, 31
SOR, 29
source code, 99
sparse matrix, 27
successive over-relaxation, 29
SWIG, 97
tasks, 68
tetrahedron, 81
topological dimension, 83
triangle, 79
typographic conventions, 12
uBlas, 32
UMFPACK, 97
user-defined functions, 44
vertex numbering, 84
virtual matrix, 30
warnings, 66
XML, 59, 74