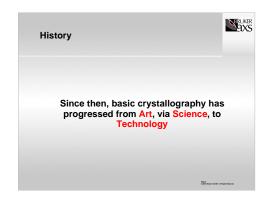


In this talk I will be jumping between IT background for crystallographers, and real crystallographic coding. I will show no direct crystallographic algorithms, but will focus on how they can be programmed in a future-directed way.



A long time ago, there was an instrument manufacturer which was basically a mechanics workshop. There was some firmware in the instruments, but all pplication software was written by the crystallographers that were using the equipment.

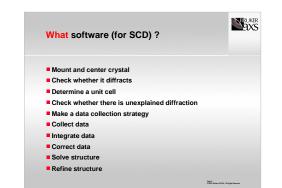


The instruments as shown in the previous slide were used when crystallography was mainly a goal. More and more crystallography is moving from goal towards a means, a method, to reach other goals like the explanation of a reaction mechanism for an enzyme. It is used as a technology.



More recently, the instruments have become a lot more complex, and a lot more accurate. The added complexity and accuracy requires a lot more instrument-specific programming. Also, because much of the application software is now no longer subject of the research being performed with the instrument, it is supplied by the manufacturer of the instrument.

1



More and more aspects of the software are integrated into the standard program tools, and more and more different crystallographic techniques progress from the research stage into something that can be routinely perfomed. Vertical as well as horizontally the software becomes more and more integrated.

Structure determination of twins and incommensurate structures is now commonplace, integration of quasicrystals not yet.



Roughly half of the development of a new instrument now is invested in software.



For this to work, the easiest would be if there would be no assumptions about the hardware in the application software.

This is impossible: the software that once was used to integrate point detector data in small molecule SCD could not have foreseen the changeover to area detectors.

Many vendors have made a change from one-axis goniostats to 4-axis goniostats with accompanying changes in the code

But: if the design of the software is well thought out, it is possible to minimize the problems keeping the software running



If the future would be known, we could perfectly plan the software such that it could accommodate "future" changes. But even if we can not foresee the future it will be possible to structure the software such that it will accommodate changes in instrument design and experiment design with minimal efforts.

It is that structure that I would like to focus on in this class.

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The lack of possibility to predict the future is a nice parallel between software design for crystallography and politics.

A recent paper in Scientific American that describes the importance of future developments in political decision making gave a nice alternative to predicting the future as the basis of a decision: predict a wide range of different futures, and make sure that the decision is performing well in as-wide a range of futures as possible.

This trick is valid as well for crystallographic software development.

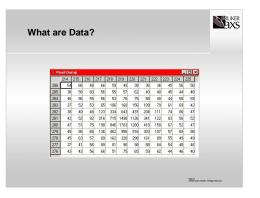
Application	E RUKER AXS
What determines our adaptability?	
ži	. All gas Reserved

So what does determine how adaptable we are towards future developments? To find out, we will have a look at some data from a diffraction machine.



This is a diffraction image from a CCD instrument.

Is this "data"?



This is a part of the previously shown diffraction image, representing the exact numbers underlying the image. It represents the area around a single reflection.

- •Can we integrate this reflection?
- •How would it look in a HKL file?
- •Which reflection is this?
- •Is this "data"?

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I indeed think that the answer to the question asked in the previous two images is "yes": the diffraction image **is** the data. But the next question is "is data all we need"?

What we are missing is HOW this data was obtained. The logbook of the experimenter.

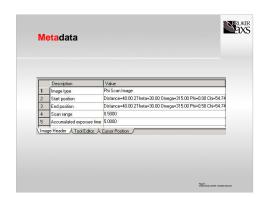
The Logbook	E RUKER EXS
A colorless crystal of 0.2x0.1x0.1 mm was mounted on a goniometer head and flash- to 120K. The X-ray source used is a rotatin generator with a 100 micron focus and focu optics focusing a beam of CuKα radiation of divergence of 5 mrad on the sample	<mark>g anode</mark> using
the cell was determined data collection strategy was	
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What I mean by the logbook is basically what all crystallographers write or at least used to write in an "experimental" section of a paper about how the structure determination was performed.

Given here are just a few examples.

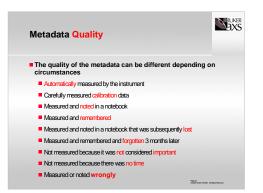
This information is essential: not just to be able to repeat the experiment (*i.e.* for scientific reasons), but plain and easy because without additional information we do not know what reflections are visible on each diffraction image, and structure determination is impossible. All of the additional surrounding information should be present in a logbook.

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In information technology, the name for the information surrounding the data, the information that describes **what** data we have is *metadata*.

Not only the logbook of the experimenter, but also the logbook of the instrument itself provides metadata. For a 2D diffraction image, this information is often stored in the *image header*.

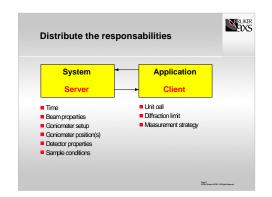


Metadata comes in different qualities. Some metadata is better than others. Lets go through a list of metadata from good through bad.

Even though the later items in this list may come across as humor please be assured that I mean this very seriously!

•Sometimes after performing experiments at a synchrotron people come back to the lab with a data set, but they do not remember the orientation of the phi axis of the goniostat.

•More involved: if the primary beam position is given somewhere in the metadata, this needs *metametadata* to be interpretable: x,y or y,x; mm or pixels, up/left or down/right as positive axes? And the values can be there from a previous determination three days ago...



Another way to classify the metadata is to see who should be responsible for its determination. A diffraction experiment can be separated into two parts. In fact this is how we have written software where these two parts are written as a client connecting to a server program.

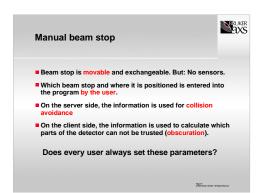
Responsabilities of the server include everything that is part of the instrument, and responsibility of the client is everything that is part of the experiment.

Not all is so clear:

•where is the crystal shape stored?

•The data-collection strategy depends on the hardware configuration.





The beamstop could be exchanged and moved by the user, but there was no sensor (except for a "beamstop present and in place").

The user is supposed to note the change of beamstop identity and/or position to the program, but this is often forgotten.

If it is, the metadata registered in the image header regarding the beam stop is incorrect, and the unexpected position of the beam stop can cause an annoying collision with the detector.



For a number of years I have been involved in the development of the KappaCCD, an instrument that automated most of the motions and measurements of the system. The metadata could therefore be quite trivially recorded.

But not all of the instrument was wired: the beamstop, indicated here, could be manipulated by the user.



An important conclusion can be drawn from this: The best logbook is one that has been kept by the instrument computer itself!

Metadata that has human involvement is by nature more unreliable than 100% instrument-determined metadata.

Of course, to have instrument-determined metadata one needs the instrument to measure as much as possible by itself. Many, but not all of the parameters stored as metadata are also suited for automation. As the MAR dtb system shows, a beam stop position can be motorized as well, and the size of the beam (the collimator is another thing that is not automated in a KappaCCD) can be determined by motorized slits.



OK. So, a necessary condition for making future-proof software is to keep appropriate meta-data, and to keep that meta-data at the appropriate location.

This, however, is not a guarantee for future success of our current software. We need to make sure that the software is written in a future-proof manner itself too.



Often, software written at a lab for internal usage contains, at least initially, a lot of hidden dependencies on the lab environment, like the location of other software package on the system. For futureproof software this is not a good idea.

Relying on a single hardware platform is also a bad idea. e.g. look at the history of DEC's VAX computers, and the history of bus architectures. Anything that was critically dependent on one of the dead technologies has died with it.

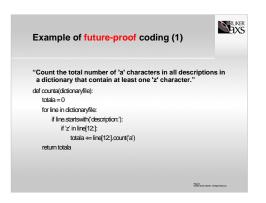
Optimize the time spent programming vs, the computer time saved: assembly language routines may be fast, but programmer time may be more expensive!

These parts of the design are everyones own responsibility. In the following part, we will discuss some examples of programming techniques.





Someone writing low-level code is likely to choose algorithms he knows, and spending large amounts of time optimizing the execution speed. Simply using another algorithm unknown to the user may gain an order of magnitude in speed.



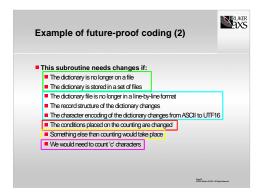
This is an example of a simple programming exercise that has been solved exactly as stated.

The subprogram is written in pseudo code, any resemblance to existing programming languages is purely coincidental.

The hidden assumption of the programmer is that none of the conditions set will ever change.

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A lot of imaginary future developments will require changes to this code.

In fact, the differenced can be grouped into five different groups:

•The location of the data

•The format of the data

•Data filtering

•Data analysis

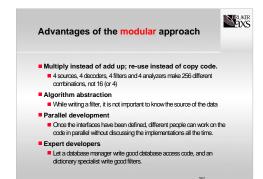
•Parameters of the analysis

Does this suggest how the initial code example can be improved?



Yes! The software should be split into independent components that work together to perform the given task. A change in the environment will then require only a change in one of the modules.

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Several advantages are gained by this modular approach.



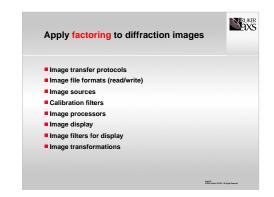
•Goniometer positions:get from and set to hardware, ask whether hardware can reach a position, convert between different types.

•Operations on the hardware: scans, setting generator or cryostat. These can be combined into an experiment through a common application programmers interface.

•Communication protocol at a low level: connection protocol to the hardware, high-level is command interpretation.

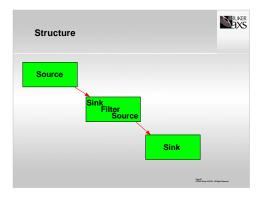
•Data file formats: Program interpretation of different reflection file formats or diffraction image formats such that they can be used interchangeably.

The actual implementation of each module is completely hidden behind a common interface. It is therefore possible to use external programs as well as internal implementations in a completely transparent fashion



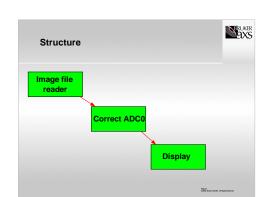
We will use diffraction images as a more involved example of how we can factor code into different modules that can be made responsible for their own part of the work and to see what kind of gain we will have when we do that.

Listed here are a number of different tasks that can be performed on diffraction images.

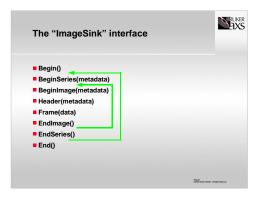


Now, instead of performing all operations that need to be performed on a diffraction image in a program in a simple succession of calls, we can see the program structured as modules that pass copies of the data and metadata around.

We can see three different kinds of modules on an abstract level: sources, filters and sinks. Since a filter can be seen as a both a sink and a source, the protocol that is used for communication of an image from one to the other module (indicated with the arrows) is always the same



Here is a simple example of such a train of three.



The communications protocol consists of a begin and an end message with zero or more series of zero or more diffraction images in between.

An *imagesink* is an object that can accept these messages (has these methods). An *imagesource* is an object that can emit these messages (call these methods).



Traditionally, application software always reads data from a diffraction image file. But if we have the flexibility in our software, we can think of several kinds of sources to be implemented. By the modularity magic, any program can use any source!

Many filters are traditionally implemented in a
monolithic way. Separating each filter operation into
its own module makes it possible to compose filters
easily in ways that were not imagined before.

One example here is the way a sensitivity correction is measured for a CCD detector. This is normally done with a flood-field image. Obviously, the calibration image should not be corrected for detector sensitivity, but it should be corrected for other effects like the dark current of the detector.

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Image sinks are normally the operations that an application is written for.

In the modular case the actual procedure will use object or module composition to build an application.

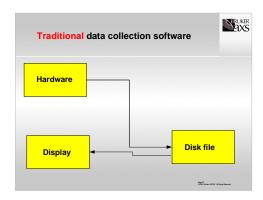
Note how easy it is now in theory to make a program that converts between any two different image file formats! One just needs to plug an image file reader source to an image file writer sink....

Different applications will use different compositions of sources and sinks. There is no forced code duplication anywhere.



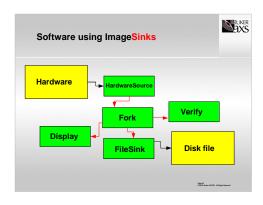
For house-keeping, we can make some special sources and sinks that make the composition of these objects even more flexible.

Protocol logging and verification sinks make it possible to make debugging the communication between sources and sinks a breeze.

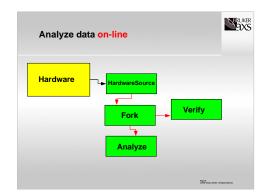


What do we gain by the source/sink approach?

This is a simple diagram that shows how traditional data collection software works. There are two separate program threads: one is connecting to the hardware and is writing all the measured data and metadata to a disk file, and a second one is reading the disk file to display it on the fly.

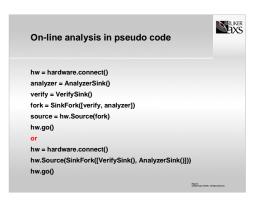


The same software written with the image sink paradigm could look like this. Red arrows are the image sink protocol. Fork is a house-keeping module, Verify is a debugging module.



However, thanks to the imagesink protocol, it is now also possible to compose a completely different application that analyses data on-line without ever storing the information on disc.

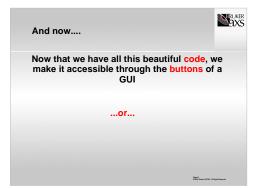
Gluing the objects together in an object-oriented programming language is as simple as drawing the arrows in a powerpoint slide!



This is the diagram of the previous slide written in pseudo-code, both in a a way that each of the objects stays available to the program, and in a more compact way that hides more of the internal structure of the sinks.



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Typical examples of GUI's: word processor or spreadsheet.

Windows itself, with 500-page books with "Everything you ever wanted to know", and magazines full of "tips and tricks for using Windows" is a good example of why it is not advisable to use a GUI for every operation.

Scripting is good!

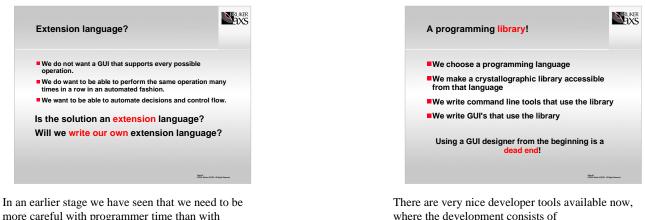


If scripting does the work, the demand for a GUI becomes minimal. One will still need to look at the data, but that is not really a GUI.

The real power of a GUI program is unleashed when all operations of the program can be performed in any order, depending on what the user wants to do next.

Use intelligent defaults: Make sure that if the program has a good idea on what the user would want to do, that the default parameters are properly filled in!

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more careful with programmer time than with execution time.

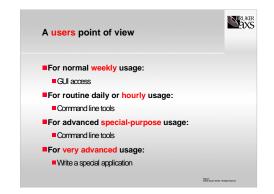
Making an extension language has been very popular for a while (e.g. in the Enraf-Nonius CAD4 software) but it is not very efficient, and it is very difficult to write a good and complete extension language.

where the development co	nsi
 Designing a GUI 	

•Adding subprograms under the buttons

Programs written in such a way are terminally attached to the GUI: it will never be possible to run the programs from a script, and extremely difficult to change the GUI toolkit at a later stage.

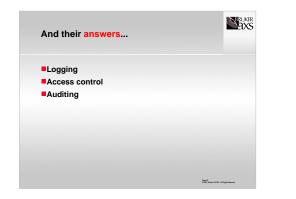
If a GUI developer is used, it should be made as a very thin layer over the top of existing code.



Special applications can be used for routine operations as well if required.

Special applications could be either command line, or, if really needed, a GUI.

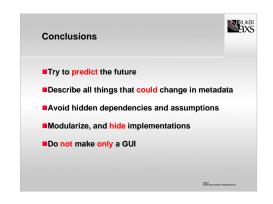






In its formality CFR21/11 adds annoyance to the process.

Pharmaceutical companies are bound to CFR21/11, especially in their process control, and a little less in their R&D.



Hidden assumptions are the goal of a programming exercise in the workshop.