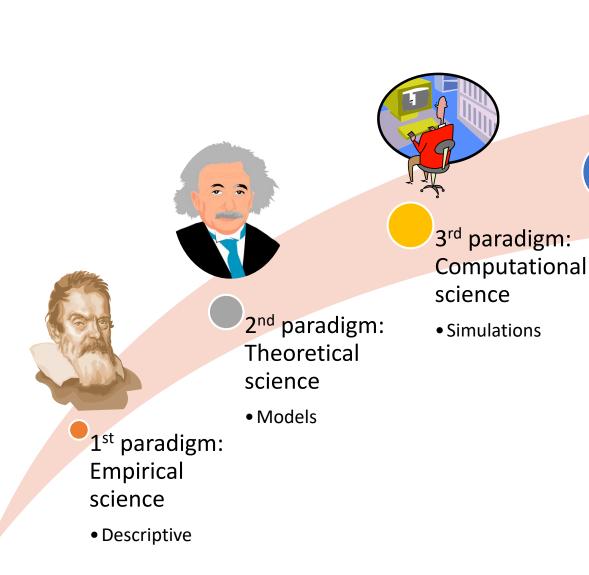
Introduction to Programming and Computing for Scientists

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Lecture 1

Evolution of science paradigms





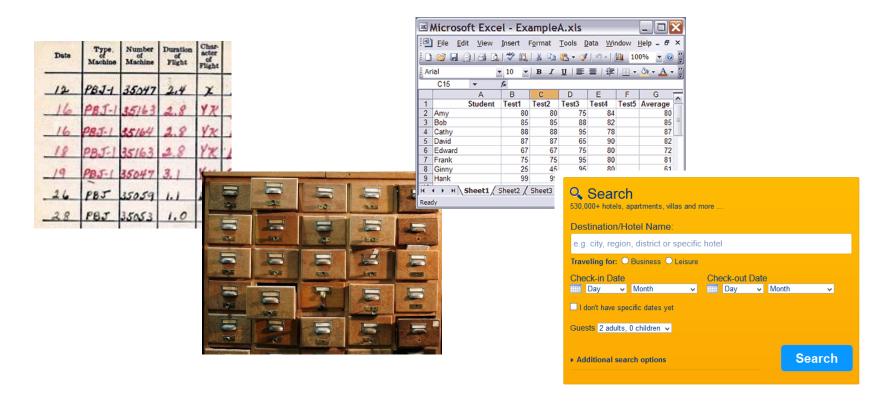
Data-intensive exploration (e-Science)

 Unifies the rest to explore large data

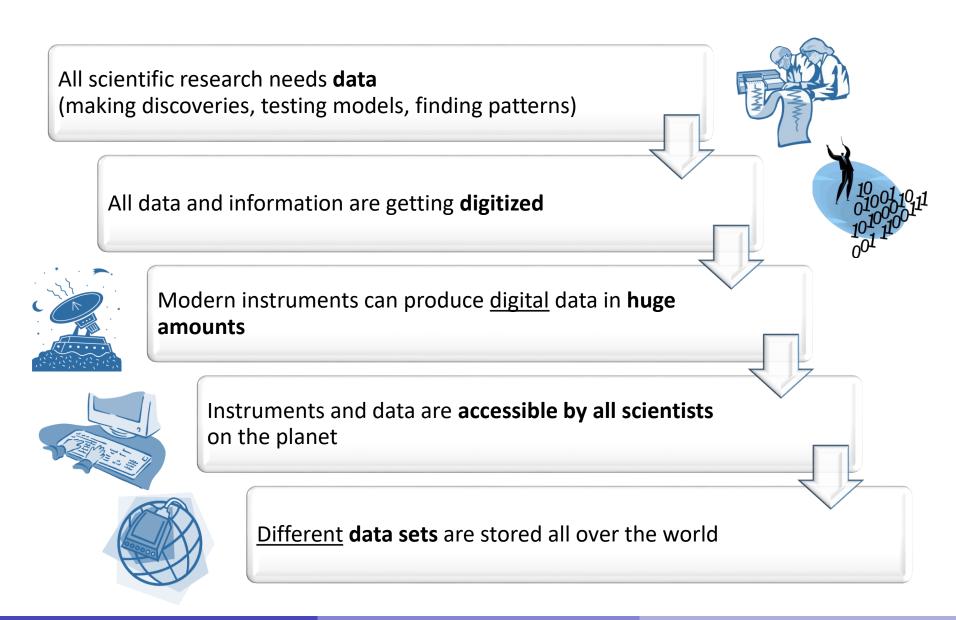
after Jim Gray

It all starts with data

- The ultimate goal of science is to understand natural phenomenae
 - Understanding leads to anticipation, reproduction, prevention, utilization etc
- Information is key to understanding
 - Data is information organised in a structured manner
 - There are very many ways of structuring information



All data today are digitized for computer processing

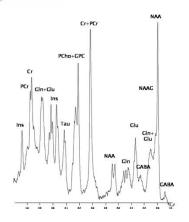


Scientific data: different scales

Small data

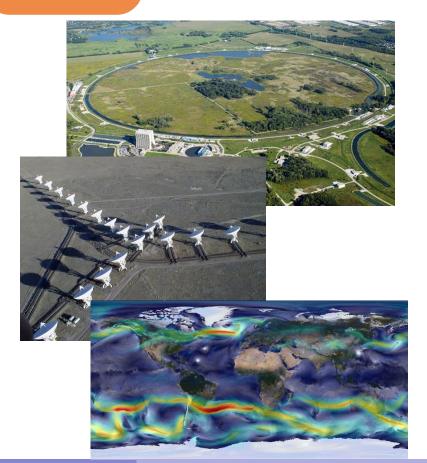
- Small devices
- Portable USB drives
- Personal computers



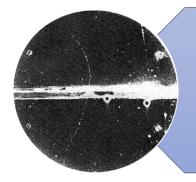


Large data

- Large devices
- Storage servers
- Supercomputers

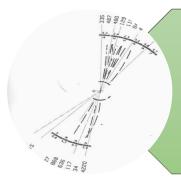


History: from small data to large data (particle physics case)



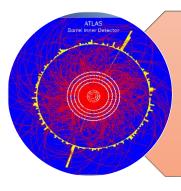
A discovery in 1930-ies

- **exclusive** measurements
- ~2 scientists in 1country
- pen-and-paper



A discovery in 1970-ies

- more **inclusive** measurements
- ~200 scientists in ~10 countries
- supercomputers



A discovery today

- mostly inclusive measurements
- ~2000 scientists in ~100 countries
- hundreds of <u>Linux</u> servers, supercomputers, Clouds etc

Most data come from measurements

- <u>Exclusive</u> measurement: focussed on one particular object, process or phenomenon, excluding all others
 - Example: measure all particles emitted at a particular angle
 - Simpler experimental setup
 - Little data, simple analysis
- Inclusive measurement: registers all the processes, objects etc.
 - Example: digital sky survey (could produce 1 Exabyte a day, 1 EB = 10⁹ GB)
 - More complex experimental setup
 - Lots of data, complicated analysis ("needle in a haystack" problem)
- Inclusive measurements can be "filtered" to exclude unwanted information
 - Threshold: minimal value of the measurement to be recorded
 - <u>Trigger</u>: a set of conditions that must be satisfied in order to record measurements
 - A trigger may consist of a number of thresholds on different observables, or other requirements (simultaneous occurrences, absence of other effects etc)

Raw data, derived data, metadata, data sets

- Raw data: data as acquired by an experimental device or method
 - Examples: filled questionnaires, unprocessed satellite images, electronic hits in a detector
 - Raw data often contain unnecessary or excessive information, have large volume, and are recorded in different method-specific ways
- <u>Derived data</u>: data derived from raw data by applying various algorithms: filtering, compression, enhancement etc
 - There can be a chain of derived data
 - Derived data usually contain less information, but can also contain additional information as a result of processing
- Metadata: data about data, such as time stamps, data ownership, quick summary etc
 - Metadata often are stored together with data
- Data set: a set of data characterised by common data taking conditions
 - Examples: same year, same object, same device settings etc
 - Data and data sets can be <u>mutable</u> (can be changed) or <u>immutable</u> (never change once recorded)

Where are the data?

- Scientific data are often stored as files
- A data set may consist of a large number of files
 - Such files would typically have similar names
 - File names often contain metadata, e.g. data14ver8nocalib.dat
- There are many different ways of writing data to a file
 - Alphanumeric text files: strings or arrays of data and keywords, readable by any document processing utility

Data (not

simulation)

year

- Binary files: packaged information to be read by a dedicated software
 - Examples: JPEG pictures, Excel spreadsheets, ROOT files
- Data can also be stored in <u>databases</u>
 - A database is a structured file (or set of files), interpreted by a specialized software
 - Data from a database are read <u>directly</u>, from files <u>sequentially</u>
 - Databases can establish <u>relations</u> between data objects
 - Databases are needed to enable quick access to large amounts of data
 - Typically, databases are hosted by specialised servers, and are accessed (queried) remotely, using special query languages
 - Files are easy to copy and transfer, databases are not

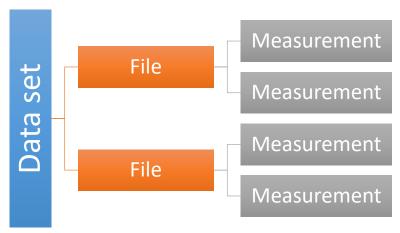
Software

version

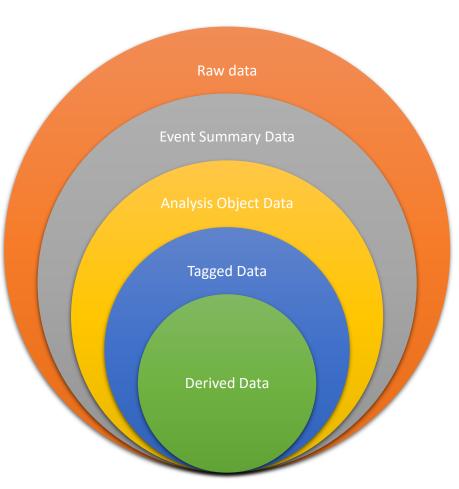
Non-

calibrated

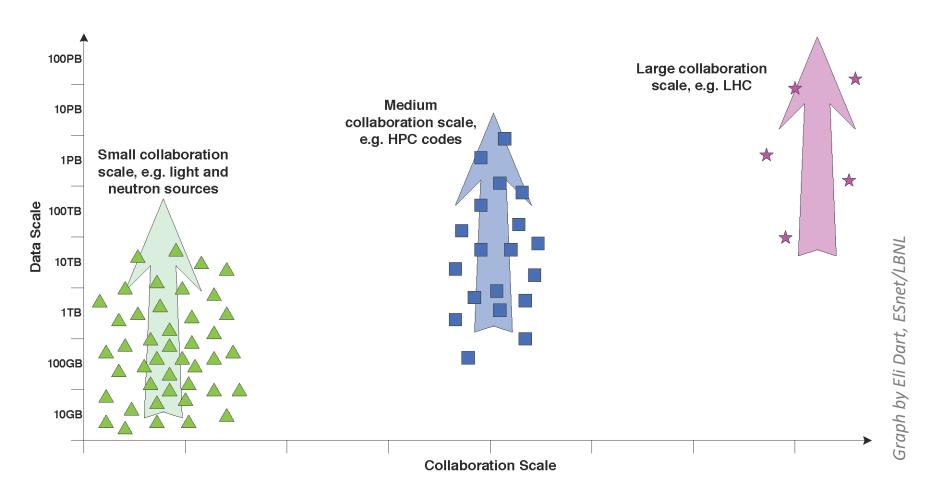
Example of data hierarchy: particle physics



- Different sciences use different data models
- Data are often recorded in structured files
- Each file contains many measurements
- Many files recorded in identical conditions constitute a data set
- Data sets are derived from each other: from raw data to analysis objects



Sizes of scientific data sets and scientists teams



- Larger is data set, more scientists work on collecting and analyzing it
 - Need to follow common rules, have common software etc
- Petabytes and Exabytes of data are a reality today

Data are stored all over the World

There is no one Big Storage

• Even Cloud storage is distributed

Preservation and access

• More copies – better preservation and easier access

Instruments are distributed around the World

• Sensors, CT scanners, telescopes, even accelerators

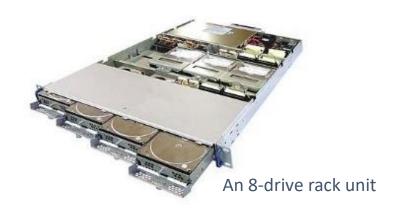
There are thousands of different scientific data storage servers

Scientists are many and everywhere

• A local copy must be available

What do storage servers look like

From Computer Desktop Encyclopedia 9 2004 The Computer Language Co. Inc.





A disk storage rack fragment

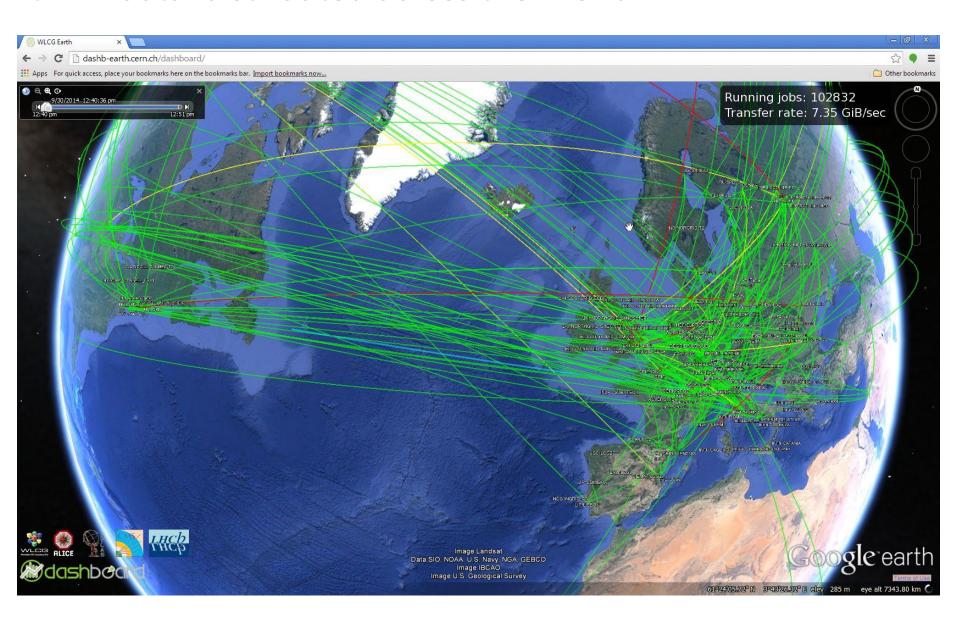


Tape robot at Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory (USA)

How to find my data?

- Step #1: Ask your supervisor!
- Hint: Master-copies are usually preserved and <u>catalogued</u> by the scientists who collect the data
 - There's no catalogue of catalogues though (Google is still your friend)
- Small data sets are simply copied to office computers and USB memory sticks
 - Memory sticks capacity increases, but data volumes increase, too
 - Office computers become more powerful and can process more data
- Large data sets can be too large for your office computer!
 - <u>Petabytes</u> (1 PB = 1 million GB) are stored in specialized storage centers of research labs
 - Approach #1: get login/password for the computer that has access to the data set
 - Usually, a large High Performance Computer in a research lab
 - Approach #2: send your analysis program to a distributed computing system (Grid), which will find the best place for it to work
 - This is not available yet to all sciences, but is used in particle physics

CERN data: distributed across the World

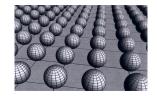


Data can also be computer-generated

- Some data are difficult to measure experimentally
 - Inaccessible location
 - Lack of adequate experimental tools
 - Very rare or hypothetical processes
 - Ethical issues
- If a scientific model exists for a process, such data can be computer-generated – <u>simulated</u>
 - Nuclear explosions
 - Effects of drugs
 - Planet formation
 - Aerodynamic characteristics
 - Quantum effects
 - Weather forecasts
 - Etc etc etc...
- Simulation of probabilistic processes (common in e.g. subatomic physics) relies on random number generators – hence called <u>Monte Carlo</u>









Why do we need simulation in physics?

- To design new experiments and plan for new searches
 - Any new theory can be coded and plugged into a simulation program
- To identify unexpected experimental signals
 - When simulation prediction does not correspond to experimental data, it <u>might</u> mean that we see an unexplained phenomenon (or there is a bug in the program)
- To correct for experiment imperfections
 - Our devices are never 100% efficient, and sometimes produce fake signals

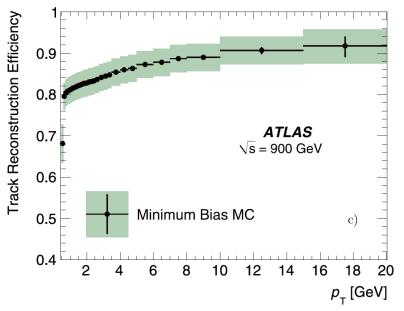
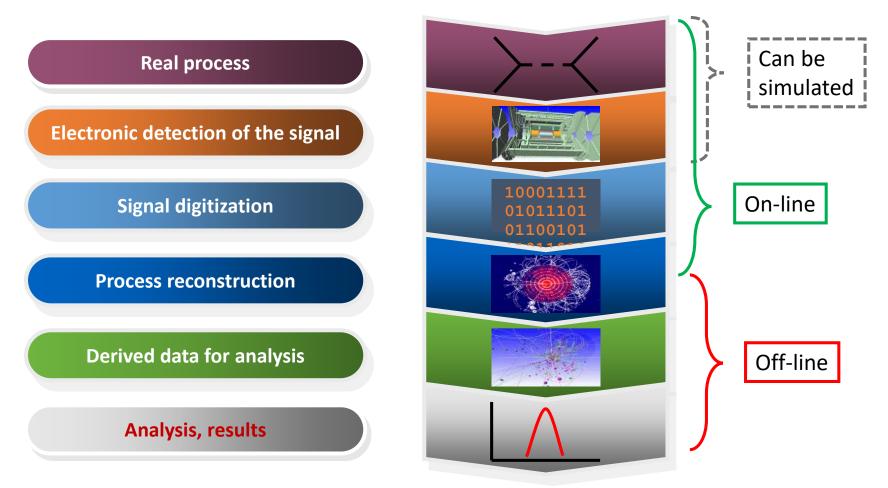


Figure from Phys. Lett. B 688 (2010) 21–42

Data acquisition and processing: particle physics case



- Every such step requires computing
 - Even the tiniest detectors are driven by programmable microchips
- Software is a scientific tool

On-line vs off-line

- Refers to the time and manner in which data are being processed
 - On-line: data are processed real-time while being taken, usually at a specialized computer embedded within the experimental device
 - Off-line: data are processed after the experiment finishes, normally by other computers elsewhere
- On-line processing has to be fast, so not very complex
 - Produces raw data and some derived data (using triggers and fast filters)
- Off-line processing can be as complex as necessary
 - Produces derived data and simulation
- Terminology actually comes from computer science, where it describes different algorithms

Special data need special software

- Many scientific data sets are small enough to be processed by generic software tools, for example:
 - Spreadsheets: good for social sciences and simple processing
 - MATLAB, Origin etc: offer specialized <u>languages</u> for complex processing and modelling, as well as advanced visualization
- There are reasons why not everybody uses such commercial tools:
 - Data volumes: when data are very big and/or very complex, commercial tools are not suitable (too generic, or too rigid, or too expensive)
 - Data formats: <u>custom-built</u> instruments produce data in customized formats
 - Particle physics detectors, telescopes, satellites etc
 - Customized formats often appear due to the necessity to compress raw data
 - Simulation: advanced complex models are beyond the scope of commercial tools
- What do we do when MATLAB doesn't help? We develop our own software!

What kind of software do scientists develop?

- Some examples:
 - Device programming
 - "firmware" that makes custom-made experimental devices working, executed on-line
 - On-line pattern recognition
 - fast software that can be used for triggering or raw data filtering
 - Device calibration, alignment etc
 - higher-level software needed to correct for technical imperfections, can be executed on-line or off-line at a generic computer
 - Raw data pre-processing, production of derived data
 - more complex software, takes large computing resources and longer time; executed both on-line and off-line

What kind of software do scientists develop?

- More examples:
 - Device performance simulation, process modelling
 - complex and demanding software implementing various interaction models and simulation of physics processes; executed off-line
 - Data analysis
 - algorithms for statistical analysis, pattern recognition, data mining etc etc; off-line
 - System software
 - tools and services to support data storage, management and processing across different computers
 - Data presentation and publication
 - software for visualisation of results, preparation of plots, typesetting nowadays mostly professional tools are used

Software is a tool that you can make yourself

- In many scientific disciplines, experimental devices and tools are manufactured on industrial scale
 - Even unique accelerators and telescopes are made from industry-produced components and assembled by professional engineers
 - In areas like particle physics or radioastronomy, students rarely have a chance to make an own scientific tool – unless it is a prototype of some new technology
- Inclusive measurements produce data that <u>can not be used</u> without heavy computer processing and comparison with models (simulation)
- Software is a scientific tool, as important as any other instrument
- There are infinite possibilities to improve software or develop a better one
 - Inadequate software means that it may take months or even years to analyze data, and the results may not be accurate enough...
 - ...or even wrong, if there are bugs
- Many research projects require development of <u>new</u> analysis or modelling algorithms – you will have to <u>make your tool yourself</u>

Specifics of scientific software

- While other scientific instruments are made mostly by professionals, scientific software is made mostly by amateurs
 - Algorithms require knowledge of the research object, which professional software engineers don't have
 - Still, some scientists are good programmers

Good programmers know what to write.

Great ones know what to rewrite (and reuse).

Eric S. Raymond

- Scientific software is often rather simplistic, poorly documented, and is not easy to install outside the computer where it was developed
- On the bright side, scientific software is usually freely available to be used, modified and customized

We will start with software useful for students

- Admittedly biased towards tools used in particle physics
 - Basic principles are the same everywhere
- Most typical programming tasks of a student:
 - Modelling and simulation needs no data even
 - Data analysis and presentation of results

Example of simulation software born in Lund: Pythia

- Pythia was known as the Oracle of Delfi, possessed immense predictive powers (until year 393)
- In 21st century, Pythia is arguably the most successful particle physics Monte Carlo generator



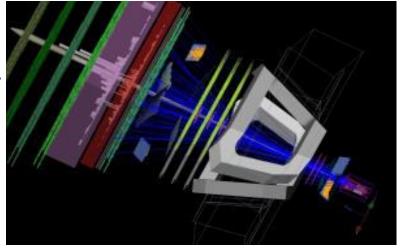
- Pythia highlights:
 - Software to simulate particle collisions (particularly in accelerators)
 - Can simulate hard processes: Standard Model and beyond, resonance decays etc
 - Showers: initial- and final-state radiation, transverse momentum ordered
 - Underlying event: multiple interactions, colour-connected beam remnants
 - Hadronisation: Lund model, particle decays, Bose-Einstein effects
 - Various auxiliary utilities

Simplest code using Pythia 8 (C++)

```
// File: main01.cc. The charged multiplicity distribution at the LHC.
#include "Pythia.h"
using namespace Pythia8;
int main() {
  // Generator. Process selection. LHC initialization. Histogram.
  Pythia pythia;
  pythia.readString("HardQCD:all = on");
  pythia.readString("PhaseSpace:pTHatMin = 20.");
  pythia.init( 2212, 2212, 14000.);
  Hist mult("charged multiplicity", 100, -0.5, 799.5);
  // Begin event loop. Generate event. Skip if error. List first one.
  for (int iEvent = 0; iEvent < 100; ++iEvent) {
    if (!pythia.next()) continue;
    if (iEvent < 1) {pythia.info.list(); pythia.event.list();}</pre>
    // Find number of all final charged particles and fill histogram.
    int nCharged = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < pythia.event.size(); ++i)</pre>
      if (pythia.event[i].isFinal() && pythia.event[i].isCharged())
        ++nCharged;
    mult.fill( nCharged );
  // End of event loop. Statistics. Histogram. Done.
  pythia.statistics();
  cout << mult;</pre>
  return 0;
```

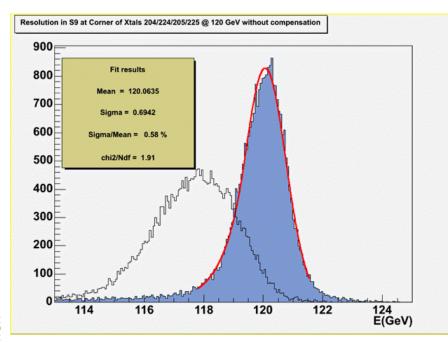
Example of simulation software: GEANT

- Our experimental devices are never perfect!
- But we know how they work
 - In particle physics, we know how particles interact with materials
 - This is also relevant for radiation therapy
- Every detector (and even a human body) can be simulated by software
 - Making use of knowledge of particle interactions with matter
 - Needs precise knowledge of detector geometry, magnetic field, gas status etc
 - Although largely deterministic, has some probabilistic effects as well



- Most complete detector simulation software: GEANT (version 4 is the latest)
 - Pythia (or other good Monte Carlo) and GEANT are absolutely necessary to calculate corrections for detector inefficiencies

Final analysis: ROOT



- ROOT is a C++ based tool and framework (program and library) for data analysis
 - C++ as script language with interpreter
 - Graphical interface for interactive visualization
 - Input/Output and analysis of large amounts of data
 - Histogramming, plotting, fitting
 - Physics and mathematics
 - Object organisation
 - Parallel analysis via network

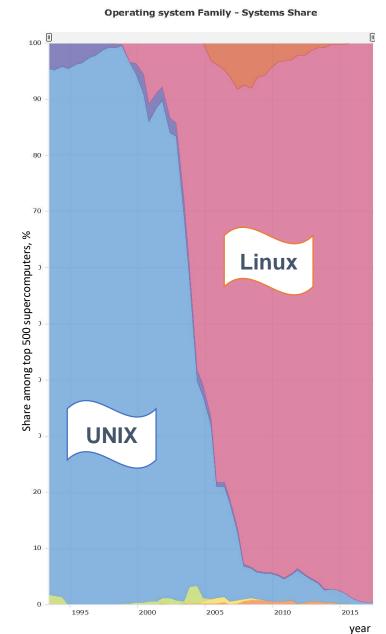
Big data need big computers

- Even the most advanced desktop workstation will take years to process Petabytes of data
 - And will require a dedicated network connection to transfer all that
- Similarly, simulation of a statistically significant sample on a workstation will take years
- But we need our Nobel prize tomorrow!
 - It took ~2 weeks of massive data processing to find a hint of the Higgs boson
 the fastest discovery of this kind
- Solution: use supercomputers or large computer clusters, with large attached storage and very fast network
 - 10 Gbps now, 1 Tbps in the near future
- There is a catch: big computers need special <u>operating systems</u>

Operating systems (OS)

- An operating system is software that makes computers work, orchestrating different components

 hardware and software
- Microsoft Windows, Mac OS X or Android OSs were designed for personal computers
- On servers, computer clusters and supercomputers, <u>Linux</u> is by far dominant
 - Comes in many flavors distributions
 - Often RedHat Linux or its derivatives
 - Most Linux distributions are actually <u>free</u> and their code is open for everybody to tweak



How do Linux clusters look like

A very old traditional Linux cluster





The newest Aurora Linux cluster in Lund

We use Linux!

- Linux is a <u>UNIX-like</u> OS designed to be flexible and portable to about any hardware
 - <u>UNIX</u> was designed as an OS for multiuser environments (as opposed to personal computing), capable of handling many simultaneous tasks
- Linux is not really meant for desktop PCs, but it gives the user real control of the system
 - It is also more difficult to infect by viruses, since every Linux machine is different
 - It still has vulnerabilities, but they are quickly rectified by the worldwide community of volunteer developers
- Linux comes in many distributions: *RedHat, Debian, SuSE,* their derivatives, etc.
 - Differ in software packaging, organization of directories, policies etc
 - Software that works on one Linux system <u>may not work</u> on another
- Scientific Linux is a derivative of RedHat; the future of Scientific Linux is bleak, and it
 will probably give way to another RedHat derivative, <u>CentOS</u>
- For personal use, Ubuntu (a derivative of Debian) is the best, as it was designed to be user-friendly
 - Many Smart Home appliances, SmartTVs, WiFi routers etc are powered by Linux
 - Android is also Linux, but stripped of many characteristic components
 - iOS, like Linux, is based on a UNIX kernel

Some peculiarities of working with Linux

Command-line interface (CLI)

- Most stages of scientific computing do not require graphical interfaces
 - Many scientific softwares do not even have graphical interfaces
- Scientific software tools have many options and parameters that are difficult to accommodate in graphical tools
 - CLIs support basic programming, scripting
- When connecting to a remote computer, graphics slows down the work and can even be a security threat when intercepted
- For these reasons, we communicate with computers by typing instructions

echo \$[2+2] 4

Non-interactive and <u>batch</u> processing

- Analysis of large data sets, or a complex simulation, can take hours and even days
- You may need to execute several analyses or simulations at the same time
- On Linux, such tasks can be executed in a non-interactive mode, in "background"
- For batches of many such tasks, special softwares exist to take care of processing
 - Called "batch systems", many different kinds exist

Short summary

- Experimental sciences work with increasingly large data sets, and theoretical sciences use increasingly complex models
- The largest experimental data sets are produced by complex and unique instruments, and require unique software
- To analyze such data, or to simulate various phenomena on a large scale, massive computing power is needed
- Linux clusters are the main working horse of scientific computing
- Knowledge of Linux and programming is essential for many scientists

Home assignment (see Live@Lund page for MNXB01):

Please fill the short programming background questionnaire by tomorrow