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HDMF: Hierarchical Data Modeling Framework for Modern Science Data Standards

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Abstract

A ubiquitous problem in aggregating data across different experimental and observational data sources is a lack of software infrastructure that enables flexible and extensible standardization of data and metadata. To address this challenge, we developed HDMF, a hierarchical data modeling framework for modern science data standards. With HDMF, we separate the process of data standardization into three main components: (1) data modeling and specification, (2) data I/O and storage, and (3) data interaction and data APIs. To enable standards to support the complex requirements and varying use cases throughout the data life cycle, HDMF provides object mapping infrastructure to insulate and integrate these various components. This approach supports the flexible development of data standards and extensions, optimized storage backends, and data APIs, while allowing the other components of the data standards ecosystem to remain stable. To meet the demands of modern, large-scale science data, HDMF provides advanced data I/O functionality for iterative data write, lazy data load, and parallel I/O. It also supports optimization of data storage via support for chunking, compression, linking, and modular data storage. We demonstrate the application of HDMF in practice to design NWB 2.0 [13], a modern data standard for collaborative science across the neurophysiology community.

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Index Terms—

data standards; data modeling; data formats; HDF5; neurophysiology

I. Introduction

As technological advances continue to accelerate the volumes and variety of data being produced across scientific communities, data engineers and scientists must grapple with the arduous task of managing their data. A subtask to this broader challenge is the curation and organization of complex data. Within expansive scientific communities, this challenge is exacerbated by the idiosyncrasies of experimental design, leading to inconsistent and/or insufficient documentation, which in turn makes data difficult or impossible to interpret and share. A common solution to this problem is the adoption of a data *schema*, a formal description of the structure of data.

Proper data schemas ensure data completeness, allow for data to be archived, and facilitate tool development against a standard data structure. Despite the benefit to scientific communities, efforts to establish standards often fail. Diverse analysis tools and storage needs drive conflicting needs in data storage and API requirements, hindering the development and community-wide adoption of a common standard. Here, we present HDMF, a framework that addresses these problems by separating data standardization into three components: Data Specification, Data Storage, and Data Interaction. By creating interfaces between these components, we have created a modular system that allows users to easily modify these components without altering the others. We demonstrate the utility of HDMF by evaluating its use in the development of NWB, a data standard for storing and sharing neurophysiology data across the systems neuroscience community.

In this work, we first present an assessment of the state of the field (Sec. II) and common requirements for data standards (Sec. III). Motivated by these requirements, we then describe HDMF, a novel software architecture for hierarchical data standards that addresses key limitations of the current state of the art (Sec. IV). Finally, we assess this novel architecture and demonstrate its utility in building NWB 2.0, a community data standard for collaborative systems neuroscience (Sec. V).

II. Related Work**A. File Formats**

File formats used in the scientific community vary broadly, ranging from: 1) basic formats that explicitly specify how data is laid out and formatted in binary or text data files (e.g., CSV, flat binary, etc.), 2) text files based on language standards, e.g., the Extensible Markup Language (XML) [3], JavaScript Object Notation (JSON) [6], or YAML [2], to 3) self-describing array-based formats and libraries, e.g., HDF5 [19], NetCDF [10], or Zarr [21]. While basic, explicit formats are common, they often suffer from a lack of portability, scalability and rigor in specification, and as such are not compliant with FAIR [20] data principles. Text-based standards, e.g., JSON, (in combination with character-encoding

schema, e.g., ASCII or Unicode) are popular for standardizing documents for data exchange, particularly for relatively small, structured documents; however, they are impractical for storage and exchange of large, scientific data arrays. For storing large scientific data, self-describing, array-based formats, e.g., HDF5, have gained wide popularity in the scientific community.

B. Data Standards

Building on file formats, data standards specify the organization of data and metadata to enable standardized exchange, access, and use and to facilitate reuse, integration, and preservation of data assets. Tool-oriented data standards, e.g., VizSchema [16], *NIX* [17], XDMF [4], propose to bridge the gap between general-purpose, self-describing formats and the need for standardized tools via additional lightweight, low-level schema to further standardize the description of the low-level data organization to facilitate data exchange and tool development. However, such tool-oriented standards are still fairly low-level and often do not consider semantics of the data critical for applications.

Conversely, application-oriented data standards, such as NeXus [7], BRAINformat [11], or CXIDB [8] among many others, provide community-specific solutions that focus on the semantic organization of data for target applications. However, the approaches and tools developed do not generalize to other scientific communities.

III. Requirements

Data standards are central to all aspects of the data life-cycle, from data acquisition, pre-processing, and analysis to data publication, preservation, and reuse. A data standard must be flexible enough to accommodate the diversity of data types and metadata that arise throughout this cycle. Additionally, different use cases often emphasize different requirements. This leads to broad, and sometimes conflicting, requirements for data standards. Broadly speaking, requirements are driven by properties of and constraints on the data that need to be stored.

The 5 V's of Big Data—volume, velocity, variety, value, and veracity—emphasize properties of the data itself, leading to strict requirements with regard to performance and flexibility of data standards. A data standard should be flexible enough to allow for the diversity of data generated by the scientific community. At the same time, it must not hinder scientists from storing and accessing large volumes of data. Providing this functionality requires that APIs for data access, I/O, and specification be decoupled in such a way that these attributes of big data can be properly addressed. For example, a standard should not be tied to a storage format that gives poor I/O performance nor a format that hinders interactive exploration.

FAIR data principles—findable, accessible, interoperable, reusable—aim to assist humans and machines in the discovery, access, and integration of data [20]. In contrast to the 5 Vs, FAIR focuses on requirements for reusability of data. Achieving FAIRness goals requires that data and metadata be properly curated and documented, and that data and metadata be properly associated, both onerous tasks. To ensure that researchers adhere to

these principles, APIs for data access, I/O, and specification should simplify the process for including necessary documentation, have data documentation as a core capability, and facilitate machine and human readability.

IV. Software Architecture

The HDMF software architecture (see Fig. 1) consists of four main components:

- i. specification interfaces (blue) for creation and use of the data standard schema (orange),
- ii. data storage and I/O interfaces for read/write (green),
- iii. front-end data containers defining the user API (purple), and
- iv. a flexible object mapping API to insulate and integrate the different system components (red).

Through its modular architecture, HDMF supports:

- i. specification and sharing of data standards (Sec. IV-A),
- ii. advanced data storage, including multiple different storage backends (Sec. IV-B),
- iii. design of easy-to-use user APIs (Sec. IV-C),
- iv. flexible mapping between the specification, user APIs, and storage to insulate and integrate the various aspects of the system (Sec. IV-D), and
- v. advanced I/O features to optimize data storage and I/O (Sec. IV-E).

HDMF is implemented in Python 3 (with 2.7.x support) and can be easily installed via the popular PIP and Conda package managers. All sources and documentation for HDMF are available online via GitHub at <https://hdmf-dev.github.io/> using a BSD-style open source license.

A. Format Specification

A data standard describes the rules by which data is described and stored. In order to share, exchange, and understand scientific data, standards need to facilitate human and programmatic interpretation and formal verification. While use of text-based documents to describe standards is common, this approach is not scalable to increasingly complex data and impedes formal verification. To address this challenge, HDMF defines a formal language for specification of hierarchical data standards, i.e., a schema for defining hierarchical data schemas. This specification language enables the formal definition, programmatic interpretation, and verification of scientific data standards, as well as efficient sharing and versioning of standards documents.

1) Primitives: The HDMF specification language supports the following main primitives for defining data standards. A *Group* (similar to a folder) defines a collection of objects (subgroups, datasets, and links). A *Dataset* defines an n-dimensional array with associated data type and dimensions. An *Attribute* defines a small metadata dataset associated with a group or dataset. Attributes and datasets may store i) basic data types, e.g., strings (ASCII,

UTF-8) or numeric types (float, int, uint, bool, etc.), ii) flat compound data types similar to structs, iii) special types, e.g., ISO 8061 [5] datetime string, and iv) references to other objects.

2) Defining Reusable Data Types: To enable the modular specification and reuse of data standard components, HDMF supports the concept of data types. A group or dataset may be assigned a *data type* to support referencing and reuse of the types elsewhere in the specification. Types here are similar to the concept of a class in object-oriented programming. All components (groups, datasets, attributes, links) in a standard specification must have either a unique type or unique name within a type specification, ensuring a unique mapping between objects on disk to components of a standard specification. HDMF enables reuse of types through inheritance and composition via the keys: i) *data_type_inc* to include an existing type and ii) *data_type_def* to define a new type (Tab. I).

Using the HDMF specification language, a data standard schema typically defines a collection and organization of reusable types. This approach supports modular creation and extension of data standards through definition of new data types, while allowing new types to build on existing ones through inheritance and composition.

3) Data Referencing: In addition to the primitives described earlier, HDMF also supports the specification of *Links* to other types in the specification. *Object references* are similar to links but are stored as values of datasets or attributes (rather than objects inside groups). Using datasets of object references allows for efficient storage of large collections of references. Object references, like links, may point to datasets or groups with an assigned type. Finally, *region references* are similar to object references, but in contrast point to regions (i.e., select subsets) of datasets with an assigned type.

4) Namespaces: The concept of a namespace is used to collect all specifications corresponding to a data standard, to document high-level concepts, and to insulate standard specifications. Within a namespace, specified type names must be unique, while the same type name may be used in different namespaces. The namespace further documents metadata about a standard, e.g., the authors, description, and version. Using the concept of a namespace makes it easy to create new data standards, avoids collisions between standards and format extensions, and facilitates sharing, versioning, and dissemination of standards.

5) Specification API: HDMF provides a *specification API* for building and maintaining data type specifications. The specification API lets users progressively and programmatically build up data types and add them to namespaces. As these data types are definitions for groups and datasets, the specification API provides corresponding classes (i.e. GroupSpec and DatasetSpec) for building up these primitive objects into data type specifications. Additionally, the specification API provides AttributeSpec, LinkSpec, and RefSpec for specifying attributes, links, and references, respectively. After building up data type specifications and adding them to a namespace, users can serialize the namespace to YAML or JSON, which can be stored and used elsewhere.

6) Tools: To validate files against a data standard, HDMF provides a built-in validator. Further, HDMF provides dedicated tools to automatically generate reStructuredText documentation and figures from a format specification.

B. Storage and I/O

The role of data I/O is to translate data primitives to and from storage. In practice, requirements of the storage backend vary depending on the particular use case, e.g., data archiving and publication emphasize FAIR principles, whereas data pipelines place more stringent demands on performance. Recognizing that no single storage modality can meet all requirements optimally, HDMF provides an abstract I/O interface to support integration of new I/O backends. The HDMF I/O interface consists of two main components: 1) Builders to describe data primitives (Sec. IV-B1) and 2) the HDMF I/O interface for reading/writing builders from/to storage (Sec. IV-B2). Leveraging this general design, HDMF implements a reference storage backend based on HDF5 (Sec. IV-B3), while providing the flexibility to add additional backends (see Sec. V-B).

1) Builder: Builders define intermediary objects for I/O and represent the main data primitives. HDMF defines a corresponding builder class for each primitive from the specification language, i.e., GroupBuilder, DatasetBuilder, LinkBuilder, ReferenceBuilder, RegionBuilder, etc. Builders provide a format-independent description of data objects for storage.

2) HDMF I/O: HDMFIO provides a general, abstract interface for creating new I/O backends. The role of the backend I/O is then to translate (i.e., read/write) builders to and from storage. The interface that new I/O backends need to implement consists of five main functions: the `__init__(...)` function to initialize the storage backend, the `open()` and `close()` functions to open and close the file (or connection to the storage, e.g., a database), the `write_builder(builder)` function to translate a given builder to storage, and the `read_builder()` function to load data from storage.

3) HDF5 I/O: HDMF provides HDF5IO, a reference implementation of a storage backend based on HDF5. As a concrete implementation of the abstract HDMFIO class, HDF5IO depends only on the Builders. As such, HDF5IO is agnostic to the data format specification and front-end API and supports read/write of any data format specified via the HDMF specification language. HDF5 was chosen as the main storage backend for HDMF because it meets a broad range of the fundamental requirements of scientific data standards. In particular, HDF5 is self-describing, portable, extensible, optimized for storage and I/O of large scientific data, and is supported by many programming languages and analysis tools.

C. User APIs

The role of the user API is to enable users to efficiently interact with data in memory and to provide usable interfaces for building user applications. HDMF uses an object-oriented approach toward user interfaces in which each type in the format specification is represented by a corresponding frontend container class.

1) Containers: Containers are Python object representations of the data specified in a data type specification. Containers are endowed with an object ID and pointers to other containers to facilitate internal tracking of relationships, e.g. parent-child relationships. Apart from this, the base Container class provides no other functionality to the user to working with instances. Instead, it provides a base for users to add functionality associated with more specialized data types. The base Container class is generated from the metaclass ExtenderMeta, which provides decorators for designating routines to be used for programmatically defining behavior and functionality of Container subclasses.

2) Dynamic Containers: HDMF supports the dynamic generation of container classes to represent data types defined in a format specification. This functionality enables HDMF to read and write arbitrary data standards and extensions based on the format specification alone, i.e., without requiring users to write custom Container classes. Using dynamic containers allows users to easily prototype, evaluate, and share new data types and their definitions.

3) Data Validation: Ensuring compliance of data with the format specification is central to data standardization. This includes checking of data compliance at run-time during data generation as well as tools for post-hoc validation of files.

As a dynamically-typed language, Python does not enforce data types and only recently added support for type hints (which are also not enforced). To address this challenge, HDMF defines docval; a function decorator that allows documentation and type declaration for inputs and outputs of a function. Using docval, functions and methods can enforce variable types and generate standardized Sphinx-style docstrings for comprehensive API documentation.

HDMF also includes a user-friendly tool for post-hoc validation. Using the validator, a file can be checked for compliance to a given format specification to identify errors, such as missing objects or additional components in a file that are not governed by the given standard.

D. Object Mapping

The role of the object mapping (Fig 1, red) is to insulate and integrate the specification, storage, and user API components of HDMF. Using the format specification, the object mapping translates between front-end containers and data builders for I/O. Fig. 2 provides an overview of the main components of the object mapping API, consisting of the Object Mapper classes, the Type Map, and the Build Manager.

An *Object Mapper* maintains the mapping between frontend API container attributes and the data type specification components. Its role is to translate data containers using the format specification to builders for I/O and vice versa. For each type in the data standard, there exists a corresponding Container and ObjectMapper class. In many cases, the default ObjectMapper can be used, which implements a default mapping for: 1) objects in the specification to constructor arguments of the Container class and 2) Container attributes to specification objects. These mappings can be customized by creating a custom class that

inherits from the default `ObjectMapper`. To optimize storage and improve usability of the data API, the representation of data in memory as part of the container can differ from the organization of the data in a file. In this case, a direct mapping between Container attributes, Container constructor arguments, and specification data types may not be possible. To address this challenge, custom functions can be designated for setting Container constructor arguments or retrieving Container attributes.

The role of the *Type Map* then is to map between types in the format specification, Container classes, and Object Mapper classes. Using `TypeMap` instance methods, users specify which data type specification corresponds to a defined Container class and which Container class corresponds to a defined `ObjectMapper` class. By maintaining these mappings, a `Type Map` is then able to convert between all data types to and from their respective Container classes.

Finally, the *BuildManager* is responsible for memoizing Builders and Containers. To ensure a one-to-one correspondence between in-memory Container objects and stored data (as represented by Builder objects), the `BuildManager` maintains a map between Builder objects and Container objects, and only builds a Builder (from a Container) or constructs a Container (from a Builder) once, thereby maintaining data integrity.

E. Advanced Data I/O

Due to the large size of many experimental and observational datasets, efficient data read and write is essential. HDMF includes optional classes and functions that provide access to advanced I/O features for each storage backend. Our primary storage system, HDF5, supports several advanced I/O features:

1) Lazy Data Load: HDMF uses lazy data load, i.e., while HDMF constructs the full container hierarchy on read, the actual data from large arrays is loaded on request. This allows users to efficiently explore data files even if the data is too large to fit into main memory.

2) Data I/O Wrappers: Arrays, such as numpy ndarrays, can be wrapped using the HDMF `DataIO` class to define perdataset, backend-specific settings for write. To enable standard use of wrapped arrays, `DataIO` exposes the normal interface of the array. Using the concept of array wrappers allows HDMF to preserve the decoupling of the front-end API from the data storage backend, while providing users flexible control of advanced per-dataset storage optimization.

To optimize dataset I/O and storage when using HDF5 as the storage backend, HDMF provides the `H5DataIO` wrapper, which extends `DataIO`, and enables per-dataset chunking and I/O filters. Rather than storing an n-dimensional array as a contiguous block, chunking allows the user to split the data into sub-blocks (chunks) of a specified shape. By aligning chunks with typical read/write operations, chunking allows the user to accelerate I/O and optimize data storage. With chunking enabled, HDF5 also supports a range of I/O filters, e.g., gzip for compression. Chunking and I/O filters are applied transparently, i.e., to the user the data appears as a regular n-dimensional array independent of the storage options used.

3) Iterative Data Write: In practice, data is often not readily available in memory, e.g., data may be acquired continuously over time or may simply be too large to fit into main memory. To address this challenge, HDMF supports writing of dataset iteratively, one data chunk at a time. A data chunk, represented by the `DataChunk` class, consists of a block of data and a selection describing the location of data in the target dataset. The `AbstractDataChunkIterator` class then defines the interface for iterating over data chunks. Users may define their own data chunk iterator classes, enabling arbitrary division of arrays into chunks and ordering of chunks in the iteration. HDMF provides a `DataChunkIterator` class, which implements the common case of iterating over an arbitrary dimension of an n-dimensional array. `DataChunkIterator` also supports wrapping of arbitrary Python iterators and generators and allows buffering of values to collect data in larger chunks for I/O.

4) Parallel I/O: The ability to access (read/write) data in parallel is paramount to enable science to efficiently utilize modern high-performance and cloud-based parallel compute resources and enable analysis of the ever-growing data volumes. HDMF supports the use of the Message Passing Interface (MPI) standard for parallel I/O via HDF5. In practice, experimental and observational data consists of a complex collection of small metadata (i.e., few MB to GB), with the bulk of the data volume appearing in a few large data arrays (e.g., raw recordings). In practice, parallel write is most appropriate for populating the largest arrays, while creation of the metadata structure is usually simpler and more efficient in serial. With HDMF, therefore, the initial structure of the file is created on a single node, and bulk arrays are subsequently populated in parallel. This use pattern has the advantage that it allows the user to maintain their workflow for creating files while providing explicit, fine-grained control over the parallel write for optimization. Similarly, on read, the object hierarchy is constructed on all ranks, while the actual data is loaded lazily in parallel on request.

5) Append: As scientific data is being processed and analyzed, a common need is to append (i.e., add new components) to a file. HDMF automatically records for all builders and containers whether they have been written or modified. On write, this allows the I/O backend to skip builders that have already been written previously and append only new builders.

6) Modular Data Storage: Separating data into different files according to a researcher's needs is essential for efficient exploratory analysis of scientific data, as well as productionlevel processing of data. To facilitate this, HDMF allows users to reference objects stored in different files. By default, backend sources are automatically detected and corresponding external links are formed across files. For cases where this default functionality is not sufficient, the `H5DataIO` wrapper allows users to explicitly link to objects.

V. Evaluation

We demonstrate the application of HDMF in practice to design the NWB 2.0 [13] neurophysiology data standard. Developed as part of the US NIH BRAIN Initiative, the NWB data standard supports a broad range of neurophysiology data modalities, including

extracellular and intracellular electrophysiology, optical physiology, behavior, stimulus, and experiment data and metadata. HDMF has been used to both design NWB 2.0 as well as to implement PyNWB, the Python reference API for NWB. Following the same basic steps as in the previous section, we first discuss the use of HDMF to specify the NWB data standard (Sec. V-A). Next, we demonstrate the use of the HDMF I/O layer to integrate Zarr as an alternate storage backend and show its application to store NWB files from a broad range of neurophysiology applications (Sec. V-B). We then discuss how HDMF facilitates the design of advanced user APIs (here, PyNWB; Sec. V-C). Finally, we demonstrate how HDMF facilitates the creation and use of format extensions (Sec. V-D) and show the application of the advanced data I/O features of HDMF to optimize storage and I/O of neurophysiology data (Sec. V-E).

A. Format Specification

Neurophysiology data consists of a wide range of data types, including recordings of electrical activity from brain areas over time, microscopy images of fluorescent activity from a brain areas over time, external stimuli, and behavioral measurements under different experimental conditions. A common theme among these various types of recordings is that they represent time series recordings in combination with complex metadata to describe experiments, data acquisition hardware, and annotations of features (e.g., regions of interest in an image) and events (e.g., neural spikes, experimental epochs, etc.). Because HDMF supports the reuse of data types through inheritance and composition, NWB defines a base `TimeSeries` data type consisting of a dataset of timestamps in seconds (or starting time and sampling rate for regularly sampled data), a dataset of measured traces, the unit of measurement, and a name and description of the data. `TimeSeries` then serves as the base type for more specialized time series types that extend or refine `TimeSeries`, such as `ElectricalSeries` for voltage data over time, `ImageSeries` for image data over time, `SpatialSeries` for positional data over time, among others. By supporting reusable and extensible data types, HDMF allows the NWB standard and its extensions to be described succinctly and modularly. In addition, NWB specifies generic types for column-based tables, ragged arrays, and several other specialized metadata types. On top of these modular types, NWB defines a hierarchical structure for organizing these types within a file. In total, the NWB standard defines 68 different types, which describe the vast majority of data and metadata used in neurophysiology experiments (see [13]).

NWB uses links to specify associations between data types. For example, the `DecompositionSeries` type, which represents the results of a spectral analysis of a time series, contains a link to the source time series of the analysis. A link can also point to a data type stored in an external file, which is often used for separating the results of different analyses from the raw data while maintaining the relationships between the results and the source data. As such, HDMF links facilitate documenting relationships and provenance while avoiding data duplication.

To model relationships between data and metadata and to annotate subsets of data, NWB uses object references. For example, neurophysiology experiments often consist of time series where only data at selected epochs of time are important for analysis, e.g.

the electrical activity of a neuron during a one second period immediately following presentation of stimuli. These epochs are stored as a dataset of object references to time series and indices into the time series data. HDMF object references provide an efficient way to specify the large datasets of metadata that are often required to understand neurophysiology data.

Because HDMF supports storage of format specifications as YAML/JSON text files, the NWB schema is version controlled and hosted publicly on GitHub [14]. Sphinx-based documentation for the standard is then automatically generated from the schema using HDMF documentation tools, and is version controlled and integrated with continuous documentation web services with minimal customization required. These features make updating the NWB schema and its documentation to a new version simple and transparent, while maintaining a detailed history of previous versions.

B. Data Storage

In practice, different storage formats are optimal for different applications, uses, and compute environments. As such, it is critical that users can use data standards across storage modalities. Using the HDMF abstract storage API, we demonstrate the integration of Zarr's DirectoryStore with HDMF by defining the ZarrIO class (see Appendix F). The goal of this evaluation is to demonstrate feasibility and practical use of multiple storage backends via HDMF. However, it is beyond the scope of this manuscript to evaluate and compare HDF5 and Zarr.

To integrate Zarr with HDMF and PyNWB, we only had to define new classes defining the backend, i.e., no modifications to the frontend container classes or the format specification were needed. As this example demonstrates, using the HDMF abstract storage API facilitates the integration of new storage backends and allows us to make new storage options broadly accessible to any application format built using HDMF.

Table II illustrates the use of the Zarr backend in practice. We converted four NWB files from the Allen Institute for Brain Science and one from the BouchardLab at LBNL from HDF5 to Zarr. We chose these datasets as they are very complex and allow us to cover a wide range of data sizes and NWB use cases, i.e., extracellular electrophysiology (D1, D4), intracellular electrophysiology (D2), as well as optical physiology and behavior (D3) (see also Appendix G).

As an example, Fig. 3a shows the conversion of dataset D2 from HDF5 to Zarr. Fig. 3b then shows a simple analysis to compare the same recording from the HDF5 and Zarr file, illustrating that both indeed store the same data (Fig. 3c). Importantly, as the front-end API is decoupled from the storage backend, we can use the same code to access and analyze the data, independent of whether it is stored via Zarr or HDF5.

C. Data API

Building on top of HDMF, the PyNWB Python package is used for reading and writing NWB files. PyNWB primarily consists of a set of HDMF Container classes and ObjectMappers to represent and map NWB types. PyNWB provides a modified base

Container class, NWBContainer, upon which the rest of the API is built. NWBContainer uses HDMFs ExtenderMeta metaclass decorators for defining functions that autogenerate setter and getter methods from parameterized macros, creating uniform functionality across the API and simplifying integration of new types. To ensure compliance of constructor arguments with the schema, PyNWB uses docval. Three main classes that exercise additional functionality of HDMF are NWBFile, TimeSeries, and DynamicTable.

1) NWBFile: The NWBFile data type is the top-level type in the NWB standard, which defines the hierarchical organization of all data types in a file. These data types, in the form of Containers, are added to the NWBFile object through automatically generated instance methods. These methods are generated using the parameterized macros provided by the base NWBContainer class.

Another notable feature of the NWBFile Container is the copy method, which allows users to create a shallow copy of an NWBFile Container. Leveraging the modular storage capabilities of HDMF, this copy method allows users to easily create an interface file, which does not store any large data itself, but contains external links to all objects in the original file. This is useful for storing the results of exploratory data analysis separate from the raw data.

2) TimeSeries: The TimeSeries Container represents the base TimeSeries type of the NWB data standard, which allows us to define a consistent base interface to all time series data in NWB. Neurophysiology experiments often use the same time axis for all time series data. To facilitate reuse of the same timestamps across different time series data, the timestamps of a TimeSeries Container can be defined as another TimeSeries object. To resolve this sharing, a custom ObjectMapper is used to override the base behavior for retrieving the timestamps from a given TimeSeries Container. This is done using decorators provided by ObjectMapper class in HDMF.

3) DynamicTable: The DynamicTable data type is a group that represents tabular data, where each column is stored as a dataset. Using different types of datasets (i.e. unique data types), a DynamicTable can store one-to-one and one-to-many relationships. The details for populating and working with these different types of datasets are all managed by custom add and retrieval instance methods of the DynamicTable Container class, thereby shielding the user from details of the format specification.

As the DynamicTable data type does not predefine specific columns, users can extend DynamicTable to provide a stable specification for certain types of tabular data. To simplify development of corresponding DynamicTable Container subclasses, the DynamicTable Container uses directives of the ExtenderMeta metaclass in HDMF to automatically define structure of the Container class.

D. Extensions

Scientific data standards, by necessity, evolve slower than scientific experiments, but rather emerge from common needs across experiments. As a result, there is often a gap between common practices supported by scientific standards and the data needs of bleeding-edge

science experiments. To address this challenge, HDMF enables users to extend data standards, enabling the integration of new data types while facilitating use (and reuse) of best practice and existing standard components.

To demonstrate the creation and use of format extensions in practice, we show the extension of the NWB data standard for electrocorticography (ECoG) data. ECoG uses electrodes placed directly on the exposed surface of the brain to record electrical activity from the cerebral cortex (Fig. 4 left). To enable localization of electrodes on the brain surface, we create a format extension to store a triangle mesh describing the cortical surface of the brain (Fig. 4 right). Similar to how one would typically write data to disk, we use the HDMF specification API to specify all data objects (groups, datasets, and attributes) and data types for our extensions (Fig. 5). We then specify a new namespace and export our extensions. The result is a collection of YAML files that describe our extensions (see Appendix A).

Using the HDMF `load_namespace` method to load our extension and `get_class` method to automatically create a Python class to represent our new Surface data type, we can then immediately write and read data using our extension (Fig. 6). The ability to read/write extension data purely based on the specification supports fast prototyping, evaluation, sharing, and persistence of extensions and data. To enable users to define custom functionality for extensions, e.g., to facilitate specialized queries and visualizations, HDMF supports the creation of custom container classes.

E. Data I/O

Next, we discuss the impact of HDMF's advanced data I/O features for lazy data load, compression, iterative write, parallel I/O, append, and modular storage in practice.

1) Lazy Data Load: Lazy data load enables us to efficiently read large data files, while avoiding loading the whole file into main memory. To demonstrate the impact of lazy data load, we evaluate the performance and memory usage for reading the NWB files from Table II. Here, file read includes opening the HDF5 file and subsequent lazy read to construct all builders and containers. We performed the tests on a 2017 MacBook Pro using the profiling scripts shown in Appendix C. We repeated the file read 100 times for each file and report the mean times: D1) 0.16s, D2) 0.92s, D3) 0.31s, and D4) 0.22s. For memory usage, we observe that instantiating the *NWBHDF5IO* object requires $\approx 0.3MB$ for all files. The actual read then requires: D1) 4.1MB, D2) 11.9MB, D3) 4.7MB, and D4) 3.5MB. We observe that data read requires only a few MB and less than one second in all cases. Here, read performance and memory usage depend mainly on the number of objects in the file, rather than file size. In fact, D2 as the smallest file overall but with the most objects, requires the most time and memory on initial read.

2) Chunking: Chunking (and I/O filters, e.g., compression) allow us to optimize data layout for storage, read, and write. To illustrate the impact of chunking on read performance, we use as an example a dataset from file D4, which stores the frequency decomposition of an ECoG recording. The dataset consists of 916,385 timesteps for 128 electrodes and 54 frequency bands. We store the data as a single binary block as well as using $(32 \times 128 \times 54)$ chunks. We evaluate performance for reading random blocks in time consisting of 512

consecutive time steps. We observe a mean read time of $0.179s$ without chunking and $0.012s$ with chunking, i.e., a $\approx 15\times$ speed-up (see Appendix D). Design of optimal data layouts is a research area in itself and we refer the interested reader to the literature for details [1], [9], [12], [15], [18].

3) Compression: NWB uses GZIP for compression. GZIP is available with all HDF5 deployments, ensuring that files are readable across compute systems. As shown in Table II, using GZIP we see compression ratios of $1.32\times$, $3.43\times$, $2.23\times$, and $1.18\times$ for the four NWB files, respectively. Compression and chunking are applied transparently by HDF5 on a per-chunk basis. This ensures that we only need to de/compress chunks that we actually need and it allows users to interact with files the same way, independent of the storage optimizations used.

4) Iterative Data Write: Iterative data write allows us to optimize memory usage and I/O for large data, e.g., to avoid loading all data at once into memory during data import (Fig. 7a) and support streaming write during acquisition (Fig. 7b). By combining the iterative write approach with chunking and compression, we can further optimize both storage and I/O of sparse data and data with missing data blocks (Fig. 7c).

A common example in neurophysiology experiments is intervals of invalid observations, e.g., due to changes in the experiment. Using iterative data write allows us to write only blocks of valid observations to a file, and in turn reduce the cost for I/O. To illustrate this process, we implemented a Python iterator that yields a set of random values for valid timesteps and None for invalid times. For write, we then wrap the iterator using HDMFs `DataChunkIterator`, which in turn collects the data into data chunks for iterative write, while automatically omitting write of invalid chunks (see Appendix E). When using chunking in HDF5, chunks are allocated in the file when written to. Hence, chunks of the array that contain only invalid observations are never allocated. In our example, the full array has a size of $2569.42MB$ while only $1233.51MB$ of the total data are valid. The resulting NWB file in turn has a size of just $1239.07MB$. In addition, iterative write can help to greatly reduce memory cost, since we only need to hold the chunks relevant for the current write in memory, rather than the full array. In our example, memory usage during write was only $6.6MB$.

5) Append: The process for appending to a file in HDMF consists of: 1) reading the file in append mode, 2) adding new containers to the file, and finally 3) writing the file as usual. Using this simple process allows us to easily add, e.g., results from data processing pipelines, to an existing data file. See Appendix B for a code example.

6) Modular Data Storage: HDMF's support for modular storage, enables us to easily separate data from different acquisition, processing, and analysis stages across individual files. This approach is useful in practice to facilitate data management, avoid repeated file updates, and manage file sizes. At the same time, links are resolved transparently, enabling convenient access to all relevant data via a single file.

VI. Conclusion

Creating data standards is as much a social challenge as it is a technical challenge. With stakeholders ranging from application scientists to data managers, analysts, software developers, administrators, and the broader public, it is critical that we enable stakeholders to focus on the data challenges that matter most to them while limiting conflict and facilitating collaboration. HDMF addresses this challenge by clearly defining and insulating data specification, storage, and interaction as the core technical components of the data standardization process. At the same time, HDMF supports the integration of these core components via its sophisticated data mapping capabilities. HDMF facilitates, in this way, the creation, expansion, and technical evolution of data standards while simultaneously shielding and enabling collaboration between stakeholders. The successful use of HDMF in developing NWB 2.0, a standard for diverse neurophysiology data, suggests that it may be suitable for addressing analogous problems in other experimental and observational sciences.

In the future, we plan to enhance the specification language and API of HDMF to support complex data constraints to define dimensions scales, dependencies between datasets (e.g., alignment of shape), and mutually exclusive groups of attributes and datasets. We also plan to further expand the integration of HDMF with common Python analysis tools.

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APPENDIX A

ECOG Extension Example

Sources for the ECoG extension used in the paper are available at: https://github.com/bendichter/nwbext_ecog

```

1 namespaces:
2 - author: Ben Dichter
3   contact: ben.dichter@gmail.com
4   doc: ecog extensions
5   name: ecog
6   schema:
7     - namespace: core
8       neurodata_types:
9         - NWBDataInterface
10        - Subject
11     - source: ecog.extensions.yaml
12   version: 1.2.1

```

(a) ecog.namespace.yaml file with the namespace specification.

```

1 groups:
2 - neurodata_type_def: ECoGSubject
3   neurodata_type_inc: Subject
4   name: subject
5   doc: extension of subject that holds cortical surface
6     data
7   groups:
8     - neurodata_type_def: CorticalSurfaces
9       neurodata_type_inc: NWBDataInterface
10      name: cortical_surfaces
11      doc: triverts for cortical surfaces
12      attributes:
13        - name: help
14          dtype: text
15          doc: help
16          value: This holds the vertices and faces for the
17            cortical surface meshes
18      groups:
19        - neurodata_type_def: Surface
20          neurodata_type_inc: NWBDataInterface
21          doc: brain cortical surface
22          attributes:
23            - name: help
24              dtype: text
25              doc: help
26              value: This holds Surface objects
27          datasets:
28            - name: faces
29              dtype: uint32
30              doc: faces for surface, indexes vertices
31              shape:
32                - null
33                - 3
34              dims:
35                - face_number
36                - vertex_index
37            - name: vertices
38              dtype: float
39              doc: vertices for surface, points in 3D space
40              shape:
41                - null
42                - 3
43              dims:
44                - vertex_number
45                - xyz
46              quantity: +
47              quantity: '?'
48          - neurodata_type_inc: Images
49            name: images
50            doc: images of subject's brain
51            quantity: '?'

```

(b) ecog.extensions.yaml file with the type specifications.

Fig. A.1:
Source YAML files with the complete specification for the ECoG extension used in Sec. V-D.

APPENDIX B

Appending To an existing file

```

1 from pynwb import NWBHDF5IO
2 from pynwb.behavior import SpatialSeries
3 from pynwb.behavior import Position
4
5 from datetime import datetime
6 from dateutil.tz import tzlocal
7 from pynwb import NWBFile
8 import numpy as np
9
10 #####
11 # Setup: Create an example NWB file
12 #####
13 start_time = datetime(2017, 4, 3, 11, tzinfo=tzlocal())
14 create_date = datetime(2017, 4, 15, 12, tzinfo=tzlocal())
15
16 nwbfile = NWBFile(session_description='test file',
17                   identifier='NWB123',
18                   session_start_time=start_time,
19                   file_create_date=create_date)
20 position = Position()
21 nwbfile.create_processing_module(name='behavior',
22                                 description='preprocessed behavioral data')
23 nwbfile.processing['behavior'].add(position)
24 with NWBHDF5IO('example_file_path.nwb', 'w') as io:
25     io.write(nwbfile)

```

```

1 from pynwb import NWBHDF5IO
2 from pynwb.behavior import SpatialSeries
3
4 #####
5 # Append a SpatialSeries to the file
6 #####
7 # Open the NWB file in append mode
8 io = NWBHDF5IO('example_file_path.nwb', mode='a')
9 # Read the NWB file
10 nwbfile = io.read()
11 # Access data as usual
12 behavior = nwbfile.processing['behavior']
13 position = behavior.data_interfaces['Position']
14 # Add data to the file as usual
15 data = list(range(300, 400, 10))
16 timestamps = list(range(10))
17 test_spatial_series = SpatialSeries('test_seria',
18                                     data,
19                                     reference_frame='starting_gate',
20                                     timestamps=timestamps)
21 position.add_spatial_series(test_spatial_series)
22 # Write the file as usual to append the new data
23 io.write(nwbfile)
24 io.close()

```

Fig. B.1: Example illustrating the creation of an example NWB file (top) and process for appending a new SpatialSeries container to an existing file using HDMF (bottom).

APPENDIX C

Profiling Lazy Data Load

All tests for lazy data load were performed on a MacBook Pro with macOS 10.14.3, a 4-core, 3.1 GHz Intel Core i7 processor, a 1TB SSD harddrive, and 16GB of main memory.

A. Profiling Memory Usage for Lazy Data Load

```

1 from pynwb import NWBHDF5IO, load_namespaces
2 from memory_profiler import profile
3 load_namespaces("AIBS_ophys_behavior_namespace.yaml")
4 import sys
5
6 infile = sys.argv[1]
7
8 @profile
9 def read_nwb(fn):
10     h5r = NWBHDF5IO(fn, 'r')
11     _ = h5r.read()
12
13 print("Profiling %s" % infile)
14 read_nwb(infile)

```

(a) Script used to evaluate memory usage for lazy data read.

```

1 #!/usr/bin/env bash
2 python -m memory_profiler memprofile_lazy_open.py ecephys_session_785402239.nwb
3 python -m memory_profiler memprofile_lazy_open.py H19.28.012.11.05-2.nwb
4 python -m memory_profiler memprofile_lazy_open.py
5   behavior_ophys_session_783928214.nwb
6 python -m memory_profiler memprofile_lazy_open.py R70_B9.nwb

```

(b) Script used to run memory profiling.

Profile D1: ecephys_session_785402239.nwb			
Line#	Mem usage	Increment	Line Contents
8	84.7 MiB	84.7 MiB	@profile
9			def read_nwb(infile):
10	85.1 MiB	0.3 MiB	h5r = NWBHDF5IO(fn, 'r')
11	89.2 MiB	4.1 MiB	_ = h5r.read()

Profile D2: H19.28.012.11.05-2.nwb			
Line#	Mem usage	Increment	Line Contents
8	84.2 MiB	84.2 MiB	@profile
9			def read_nwb(infile):
10	84.5 MiB	0.3 MiB	h5r = NWBHDF5IO(fn, 'r')
11	96.5 MiB	11.9 MiB	_ = h5r.read()

Profile D3: behavior_ophys_session_783928214.nwb			
Line#	Mem usage	Increment	Line Contents
8	84.4 MiB	84.4 MiB	@profile
9			def read_nwb(infile):
10	84.8 MiB	0.3 MiB	h5r = NWBHDF5IO(fn, 'r')
11	89.4 MiB	4.7 MiB	_ = h5r.read()

Profile D4: R70_B9.nwb			
Line#	Mem usage	Increment	Line Contents
8	84.4 MiB	84.4 MiB	@profile
9			def read_nwb(infile):
10	84.8 MiB	0.4 MiB	h5r = NWBHDF5IO(fn, 'r')
11	88.2 MiB	3.4 MiB	_ = h5r.read()

(c) Memory profiling results for the four files list in Tab II.

Fig. C.1:

Evaluating the memory usage for lazy data load for the files listed in Tab. II.

B. Profiling Time for Lazy Data Load

```

1 import timeit
2 import numpy as np
3
4 def time_dataset(infile, repeat=100):
5     # code snippet to be executed only once
6     mysetup = """
7 from pynwb import NWBHDF5IO, load_namespaces
8 load_namespaces("AIBS_ophys_behavior_namespace.yaml")
9
10 def read_nwb():
11     h5r = NWBHDF5IO('%s', 'r')
12     f = h5r.read()
13 """ % infile
14
15     # code snippet whose execution time is to be measured
16     mycode = "read_nwb()"
17
18     # timeit statement
19     repeats = timeit.repeat(setup = mysetup,
20                             stmt = mycode,
21                             repeat=repeat,
22                             number = 1)
23
24     # print stats
25     print(infile)
26     print("Min: %s seconds" % np.min(repeats))
27     print("Mean: %s seconds" % np.mean(repeats))
28     print("Std: %s seconds" % np.std(repeats))
29     print("Max: %s seconds" % np.max(repeats))
30     print("")
31
32 repeat = 100
33 test_files = ['ecephys_session_785402239.nwb',
34              'H19.28.012.11.05-2.nwb',
35              'behavior_ophys_session_783928214.nwb',
36              'R70_B9.nwb']
37 for tf in test_files:
38     time_dataset(tf, repeat)

```

(a) Script used to evaluate lazy data read performance.

Profile D1: ecephys_session_785402239.nwb

Min: 0.15611473898752593 seconds
 Mean: 0.16406609811092493 seconds
 Std: 0.005397679173686011 seconds
 Max: 0.20559409901034087 seconds

Profile D2: H19.28.012.11.05-2.nwb

Min: 0.8805205250100698 seconds
 Mean: 0.9208410138092585 seconds
 Std: 0.02828484200246134 seconds
 Max: 1.0624379950168077 seconds

Profile D3: behavior_ophys_session_783928214.nwb

Min: 0.29385584298870526 seconds
 Mean: 0.3193827117001638 seconds
 Std: 0.01966348677270168 seconds
 Max: 0.40456622300553136 seconds

Profile D4: R70_B9.nwb

Min: 0.1986688420001883 seconds
 Mean: 0.21583941377990412 seconds
 Std: 0.01037254439266336 seconds
 Max: 0.2417856660031248 seconds

(b) Timing results for the four files list in Tab II.

Fig. C.2:
Evaluating read time for lazy data load for the files listed in Tab. II.

APPENDIX D

Profiling Chunking Performance

```

1 from pyhdf import NWBHDFSIO, NWBFile, TimeSeries
2 from hdf5.backends.hdf5.h5_utils import H5DataIO
3 from hdf5.data_utils import DataChunkIterator
4 import timeit
5 from numpy.random import randint
6 import numpy as np
7 import os
8
9
10 def create_test_file(innwb, outname, **kwargs):
11     # Create a single file to test a particular chunking
12     # Create our NWB file
13     nwbfile = NWBFile(innwb.session_description,
14                     innwb.identifier,
15                     innwb.session_start_time)
16     # Get the polytrode data
17     ecog = innwb.get_processing_module('Wvlnt_4to1200_54band_CAR0').get('ECOG')
18     # Wrap our data array to define I/O. Use iterative convert to save memory
19     ecog_data = H5DataIO(data=DataChunkIterator(ecog.data,
20                                             maxshape=ecog.data.shape,
21                                             dtype=ecog.data.dtype,
22                                             buffer_size=10000),
23                       **kwargs)
24     # Create our time series
25     test_ts = TimeSeries(name='testseries',
26                       data=ecog_data,
27                       unit=ecog.unit,
28                       rate=ecog.rate,
29                       starting_time=ecog.starting_time)
30     nwbfile.add_acquisition(test_ts)
31     # Write the data to file
32     h5w = NWBHDFSIO(outname, 'w')
33     h5w.write(nwbfile)
34     h5w.close()
35
36
37 def create_test_files():
38     """Create a battery of test files"""
39     # Read the input file
40     h5r = NWBHDFSIO('R70_B9.nwb', 'r')
41     innwb = h5r.read()
42     # Define I/O example
43     io_options = {
44         'R70_B9_chunks=(32,128,54).nwb': ('chunks': (32,128,54)),
45         'R70_B9_chunks=False.nwb': ('chunks': None),
46     }
47     # Generate the various test files if necessary
48     for k, v in io_options.items():
49         if not os.path.exists(k):
50             create_test_file(innwb, k, **v)
51     # Close our input file and return
52     h5r.close()
53     return io_options
54
55
56 def time_chunk_read(selections, timeseries, repeat):
57     """Read a set of chunks"""
58
59     mysetup = """
60 from numpy.random import randint
61 def read_chunk(timeseries, select):
62     _ = timeseries.data[select]
63 index = randint(0, len(selections), 1)[0]
64 select = selections[index]
65 """
66     mycode = """read_chunk(timeseries, select)"""
67
68     # timeit statement
69     repeats = timeit.repeat(setup = mysetup,
70                           stmt = mycode,
71                           repeat=repeat,
72                           number = 1,
73                           globals={'selections': selections, 'timeseries':
74                                   timeseries})
75     print("Min: %s seconds" % np.min(repeats))
76     print("Mean: %s seconds" % np.mean(repeats))
77     print("Std: %s seconds" % np.std(repeats))
78     print("Max: %s seconds" % np.max(repeats))
79
80
81 if __name__ == "__main__":
82     # Create the test files if necessary
83     io_options = create_test_files()
84     # Time reading a time slices
85     main_shape = (916385, 128, 54)
86     select_shape = (512, main_shape[1], main_shape[2])
87     repeats = 1000
88     start_index = randint(0, main_shape[0]-select_shape[0], repeats)
89     stop_index = start_index + select_shape[0]
90     decomp_chunks = [np.s_[start_index[i]: stop_index[i], :, :]]
91                     for i in range(repeats)]
92     for k, v in io_options.items():
93         print("Evaluating: Time slice read %s for %s" % (str(select_shape), k))
94         h5r = NWBHDFSIO(k, 'r')
95         f = h5r.read()
96         ts = f.get_acquisition('testseries')
97         time_chunk_read(decomp_chunks, ts, repeats)
98         h5r.close()

```

Fig. D.1:
Code used to test chunking performance

**Evaluating: Time slice read (512, 128, 54) for
R70_B9_chunks=(32,128,54).nwb**

Min: 0.003641556017100811 seconds
Mean: 0.012455755540286191 seconds
Std: 0.006699374489408962 seconds
Max: 0.142697595001664 seconds

**Evaluating: Time slice read (512, 128, 54) for
R70_B9_chunks=False.nwb**

Min: 0.08462936701835133 seconds
Mean: 0.1785103283036442 seconds
Std: 0.062357915124483104 seconds
Max: 0.7758364329929464 seconds

Fig. D.2:
Timing results for reading blocks in time with and without chunking.

APPENDIX E

Iterative Data Write

```

1 from hdf5.data_utils import DataChunkIterator
2 from datetime import datetime
3 from dateutil.tz import tzlocal
4 from pynwb import NWBFile, TimeSeries, NWBHDF5IO
5 import numpy as np
6 import numpy.random as random
7 from memory_profiler import profile
8 import os
9
10
11 @profile
12 def write_nwb(filename, nwbfile, data):
13     # Use data chunk iterator as data
14     ts = TimeSeries(name='ts',
15                    data=data,
16                    unit='volts',
17                    rate=1.0,
18                    starting_time=0.0)
19     nwbfile.add_acquisition(ts)
20     with NWBHDF5IO(filename, 'w') as io:
21         io.write(nwbfile)
22
23
24 # track the number of values added
25 num_dim1 = 0
26 num_dim2 = 128
27 # includes chunks that have zeros but not chunks that are all zeros/not yielded
28 num_occupied = 0
29
30
31 def iter_data(chunk_length=400, max_num_blocks=20, max_data_block_size=400000):
32     """Generate chunks of random values in range [0,1] or chunks
33     of zeros/None (no data)"""
34     global num_dim1, num_dim2, num_occupied
35     data_shape = (chunk_length, num_dim2)
36     num_blocks = 0
37     num_data_in_block = 0
38     # False means data are missing/zeros and to yield None. Will start as True
39     is_gen_data = False
40
41     while num_blocks < max_num_blocks:
42         if num_data_in_block == 0:
43             end_block_ind = round(random.random() * max_data_block_size) + 1
44             is_gen_data = not is_gen_data
45
46         if num_data_in_block + chunk_length > end_block_ind:
47             num_data_in_chunk = end_block_ind - num_data_in_block
48             part1_shape = (num_data_in_chunk, num_dim2)
49             part2_shape = (chunk_length - num_data_in_chunk, num_dim2)
50             if is_gen_data:
51                 # add data until next_data_end and pad the rest with zeros
52                 val = np.concatenate((random.random(part1_shape).astype('float32')
53                                     ), np.zeros(part2_shape))
54             else:
55                 # add zeros until next_data_end and then add data
56                 val = np.concatenate((np.zeros(part1_shape),
57                                     random.random(part2_shape).astype('float32')))
58                 num_occupied += data_shape[0] * data_shape[1]
59             num_blocks += 1 # reset counters
60             num_data_in_block = 0
61         else:
62             if is_gen_data:
63                 val = random.random(data_shape).astype('float32')
64                 num_occupied += data_shape[0] * data_shape[1]
65             else:
66                 val = None
67             num_data_in_block += chunk_length
68
69         num_dim1 += chunk_length
70         yield val
71     return
72
73
74 if __name__ == '__main__':
75     random.seed(0)
76     filename = 'sparse_iterwrite_example.nwb'
77     data = DataChunkIterator(data=iter_data())
78
79     start_time = datetime(2019, 8, 7, 11, tzinfo=tzlocal())
80     nwbfile = NWBFile('description', 'NWB123', start_time)
81     write_nwb(filename, nwbfile, data)
82
83     expected_size = num_dim1 * num_dim2 * np.dtype(data.dtype).itemsize
84     occupied_size = num_occupied * np.dtype(data.dtype).itemsize
85     file_size = os.stat(filename).st_size
86
87     with NWBHDF5IO(filename, 'r') as io:
88         read_nwbfile = io.read()
89         data = read_nwbfile.acquisition['ts'].data[()]
90         read_size = np.prod(data.shape).astype(np.dtype('uint32')) * \
91                 np.dtype(data.dtype).itemsize
92
93     print("(1) Sparse Matrix Size:")
94     print("  Expected Size : %.2f MB" % (expected_size / 1e6))
95     print("  Occupied Size : %.2f MB" % (occupied_size / 1e6))
96     print("(2) NWB HDF5 file:")
97     print("  File Size      : %.2f MB" % (file_size / 1e6))
98     print("  Reduction      : %.5f" % (expected_size / file_size))
99     print("(3) On read from file:")
100    print("  Read Size     : %.2f MB" % (read_size / 1e6))

```

Fig. E.1:
Code used to test iterative data write performance

Line#	Mem Incr	Line Contents
11	80.8 MiB	@profile
12		def write_nwb(filename, nwbfile, data):
13		# Use data chunk iterator as data
14	0.0 MiB	ts = TimeSeries(name='ts',
15	0.0 MiB	data=data,
16	0.0 MiB	unit='volts',
17	0.0 MiB	rate=1.0,
18	0.0 MiB	starting_time=0.0)
19	0.0 MiB	nwbfile.add_acquisition(ts)
20	0.9 MiB	with NWBHDF5IO(filename, 'w') as io:
21	6.6 MiB	io.write(nwbfile)

Fig. E.2:
Memory profiling results for iterative data write

1) Sparse Matrix Size:	
Expected Size :	2569.42 MB
Occupied Size :	1233.51 MB
2) NWB HDF5 file:	
File Size :	1239.07 MB
Reduction :	2.07X
3) On read from file:	
Read Size :	2569.42 MB

Fig. E.3:
File size comparison for writing of sparse data

APPENDIX F

ZarrIO Implementation Details

Similar to HDF5, Zarr allows us to directly map groups, datasets, and attributes from a format specification to corresponding storage types. Specifically, groups are mapped to folders on the filesystem, datasets are mapped to folders storing a flat binary file for each array chunk, and attributes are stored as JSON files. The latter requires that we take particular care when creating attributes to ensure the data is JSON serializable.

As Zarr does not natively support links and references, we define the `ZarrReference` class to store the path of the source file and referenced object. On write, we then determine the required paths for each reference and serialize the `ZarrReference` objects via JSON. To identify and resolve reference on read, we define the reserved attribute `zarr_type`.

To support per-dataset I/O options (e.g. for chunking), we define ZarrDataIO. Like H5DataIO for HDF5, ZarrDataIO implements the HDMF DataIO class to wrap arrays for write to define I/O parameters.

Finally, NWBZarrIO extends our generic ZarrIO backend to setup the build manager and namespace for NWB.

APPENDIX G

Resources

All software and the majority of the data files used in the manuscript are available online. Here we summarize these resources.

A. Software

All software described in the manuscript is available online:

- **HDMF**: <https://hdmf-dev.github.io/>
- **PyNWB**: <https://github.com/NeurodataWithoutBorders/pynwb>
- **ZarrIO**: The Zarr I/O backend for HDMF and PyNWB are available online as part of the following pull requests:
 - *HDMF*: <https://github.com/hdmf-dev/hdmf/pull/98>
 - *PyNWB*: <https://github.com/NeurodataWithoutBorders/pynwb/pull/1018>

B. Data

Datasets D1, D2, and D3 (see Tab. II) are available online from the Allen Institute for Brain Science at: <http://download.alleninstitute.org/informatics-archive/prerelease/>. Here we used the following files from this collection:

- **(D1): ecephys_session_785402239.nwb** is a passive viewing extracellular electrophysiology dataset,
- **(D2): H19.28.012.11.05–2.nwb** is an intracellular in-vitro electrophysiology dataset,
- **(D3) behavior_ophys_session_783928214.nwb** is a visual behavior calcium imaging dataset.

Dataset **D4** refers to **R70_B9.nwb** from the Neural Systems and Data Science Lab (NSDS) led by Kristofer Bouchard at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory <https://bouchardlab.lbl.gov/>. D4 is not available publicly yet.

In the case of (D2) as available online, compression is used for several datasets to reduce size. To gather data sizes without compression we used the h5repack tool available with the HDF5 library to remove compression from all datasets via `h5repack -f NONE`. To illustrate the potential impact of compression on file size we then used the h5repack to apply GZIP

compression to all datasets via `h5repack -f GZIP=4`. This approach allows us to assess the expected impact of compression on file size. Using `h5repack` provides us with a convenient tool to test compression settings for existing HDF5 files. In practice, when generating new data files, users will typically use `HDMF` directly to specify I/O filters on a per-dataset basis, which has the advantage that it allows us to optimize storage layout independently for each dataset.

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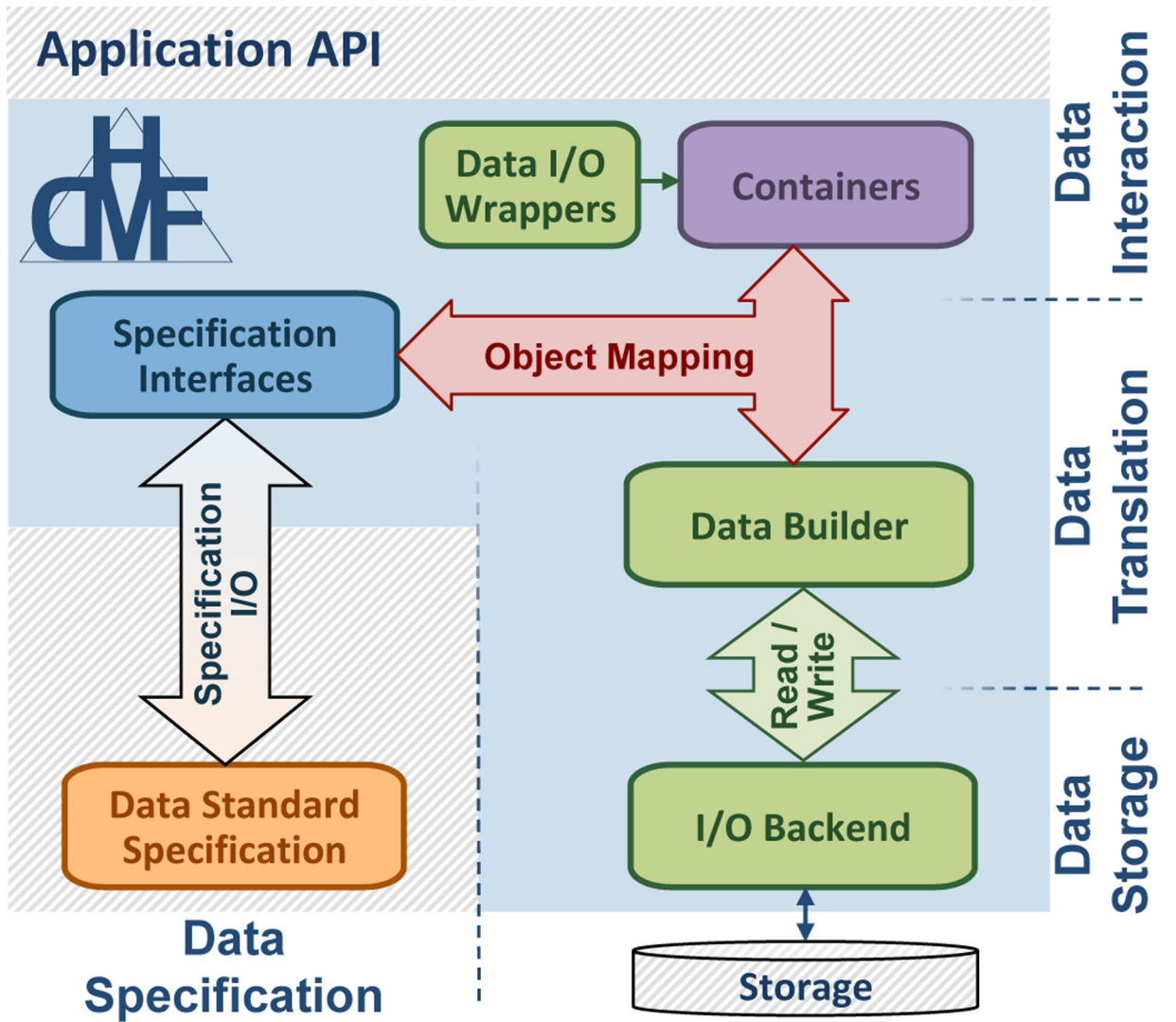
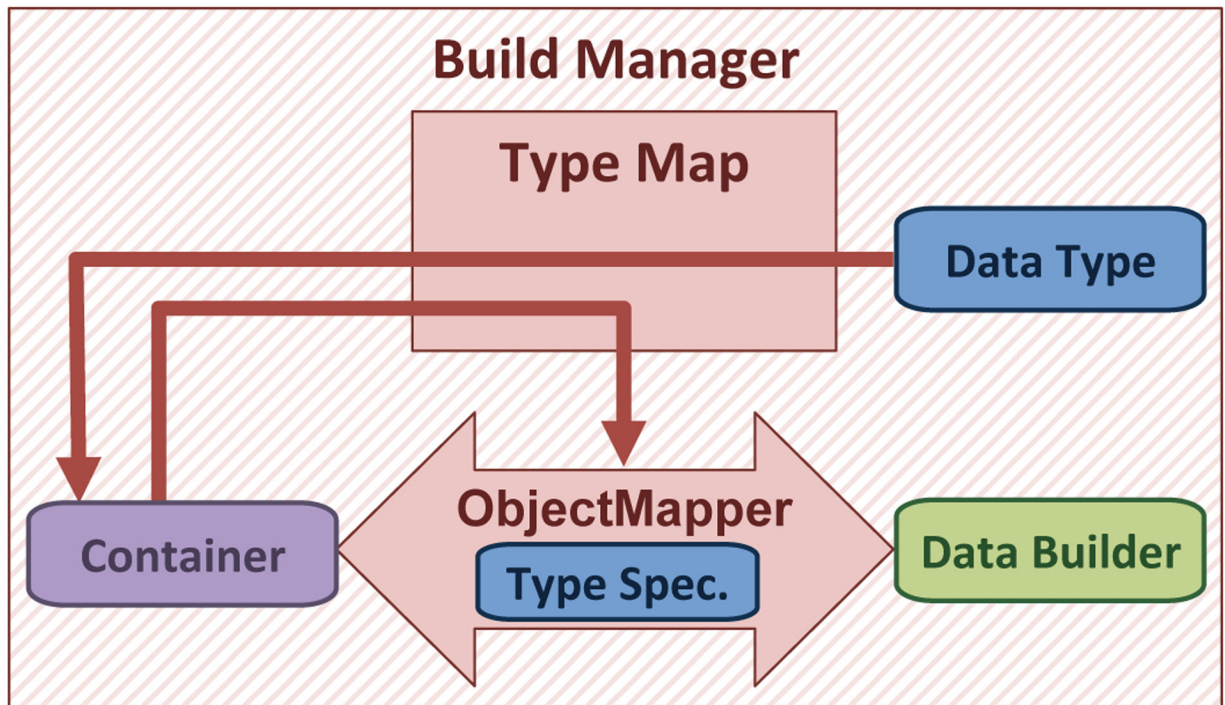


Fig. 1: Software architecture of HDMF (blue box). HDMF is designed to facilitate the creation of formal data standards (orange), advanced application APIs (top), and flexible integration with modern data storage (bottom right).

**Fig. 2:**

Overview of the HDMF object mapping API. Object Mappers map between containers and builders while the Type Map maintains the mapping between data types and containers and containers and object mappers. Finally, the Build Manager manages the mapping process to construct containers and builders and memoizes builders and containers.

```

1 from pynwb import NWBHDF5IO, NWBZarrIO
2 # Read the NWB file from HDF5
3 h5r = NWBHDF5IO('H19.28.012.11.05-2.nwb', 'r')
4 f = h5r.read()
5 # Write the NWB using Zarr
6 zw = NWBZarrIO('H19.28.012.11.05-2.zarr', 'w',
7               manager=h5r.manager)
8 zw.write(f)
9 # Close the files
10 zw.close()
11 h5r.close()

```

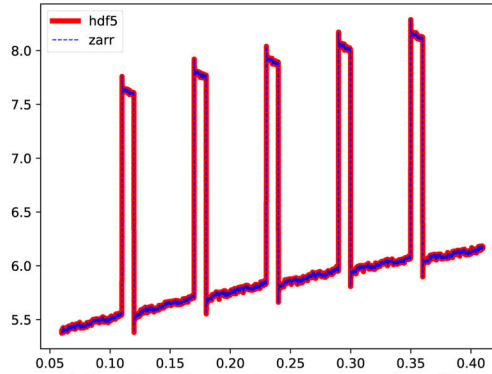
(a) Converting the NWB file from HDF5 to Zarr. NWBZarrIO extends ZarrIO to define common NWB settings to simplify the use of Zarr with NWB.

```

1 from pynwb import NWBHDF5IO, NWBZarrIO
2 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
3 import numpy as np
4
5 # Plot acquisition index_000 from an \nwb{} file
6 def plot_acquisition(nwb_file, fmt, **plotargs):
7     dat = nwb_file.get_acquisition('index_000')
8     start = dat.starting_time
9     time = np.arange(dat.num_samples) / dat.rate + start
10    values = dat.data
11    plt.plot(time, values, fmt, **plotargs)
12    return (dat.starting_time_unit, dat.unit)
13
14 # Open the HDF5 file
15 h5r = NWBHDF5IO('H19.28.012.11.05-2.nwb', 'r')
16 hf = h5r.read() # NWBFile object read from HDF5
17 # Open the Zarr file
18 zr = NWBZarrIO('H19.28.012.11.05-2.zarr', 'r')
19 zf = zr.read() # NWBFile object read from Zarr
20 # Create the same plot for both NWBFile's
21 xunit, yunit = plot_acquisition(nwb_file=hf, fmt='r',
22                               linewidth=4, label='hdf5')
23 xunit, yunit = plot_acquisition(nwb_file=zf, fmt='b--',
24                               linewidth=0.8, label='zarr')
25 plt.legend()
26 plt.show()

```

(b) Plot the same data from the NWB file stored in HDF5 and Zarr.



(c) Resulting visualization from the code in 3b.

Fig. 3:

Example showing: (a) convert of dataset D2 (Tab. II) from HDF5 to Zarr and (b,c) use of the two files for analysis.

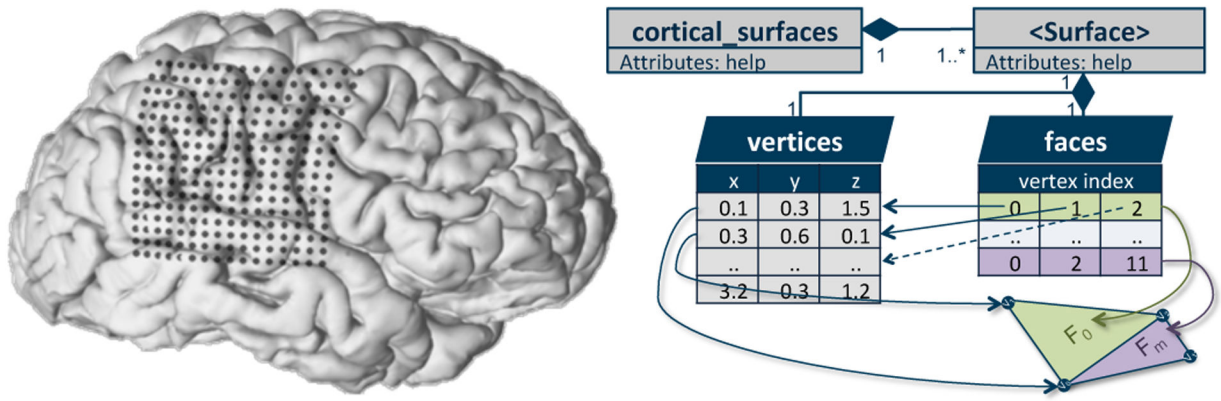


Fig. 4: Left: Visualization of the cortical surface of the brain showing the location of the electrodes of the ECoG recording device. Right: Format extension for storing a triangle mesh of the cortical surface.

```
1 from pynwb.spec import NWBDatasetSpec,
   NWBNamespaceBuilder, NWBGroupSpec, NWBAttributeSpec
2 # Create the data specification
3 surface = NWBGroupSpec(
4     neurodata_type_def='Surface',
5     neurodata_type_inc='NWBDataInterface',
6     quantity='+',
7     doc='brain cortical surface')
8 surface.add_dataset(doc=..., name='faces',
9     shape=(None, 3), dtype='uint', dims=...)
10 surface.add_dataset(doc=..., name='vertices',
11     shape=(None, 3), dtype='float', dims=...)
12 surface.add_attribute(...)
13 # Create the namespace specification
14 ns_builder = NWBNamespaceBuilder(doc=..., name='ecog',
15     version='1.0', author='Ben Dichter', ...)
16 ns_builder.add_spec('ecog.extensions.yaml', surface)
17 # Export/save the extension YAML files
18 ns_builder.export('ecog.namespace.yaml')
```

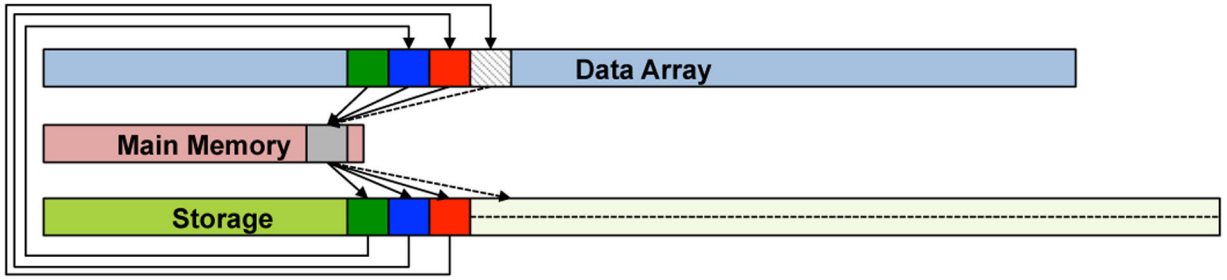
Fig. 5:

Example illustrating the creation of an extension for storing a mesh describing the cortical surface of the brain.

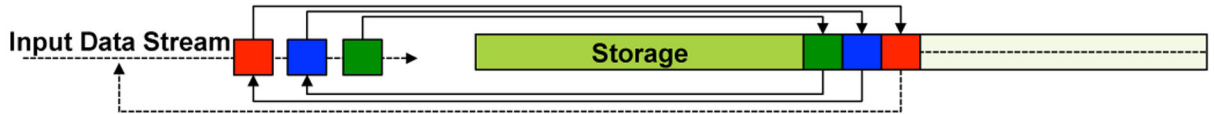
```
1 from pynwb import load_namespaces, get_class,
2     NWBHDF5IO, NWBFile ...
3 nwbfile = NWBFile(...) # Create file as usual
4 load_namespaces('ecog.namespace.yaml') # Load extension
5 Surface = get_class('Surface', 'ecog') # Get extension
6     class
7 surf = Surface(faces=... , vertices=..., # Populate data
8     name='Surface_1'...)
9 nwbfile.add_acquisition(surf) # Add to file
10 with NWBHDF5IO('surface_example.nwb', 'w') as io:
11     io.write(nwbfile) # Write to disk

1 from pynwb import load_namespaces, NWBHDF5IO
2 # Read ECoG extension data
3 load_namespaces('ecog.namespace.yaml' ) #
4 io = NWBHDF5IO('surface_example.nwb', 'r')
5 nwbfile = io.read()
6 nwbfile.get_acquisition('Surface 1').vertices
```

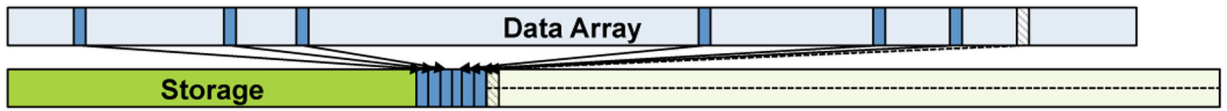
Fig. 6:
Write (top) and read (bottom) ECoG extension data.



(a) Converting large data arrays.



(b) Streaming/iterative data write.



(c) Writing sparse data arrays.

Fig. 7:
Example applications of iterative data write.

TABLE I:

Defining and reusing types in a format specification.

data_type_inc	data_type_def	Description
not set	not set	Define a dataset/group without a type (the name must be fixed)
not set	set	Define a new type
set	not set	Include an existing type (i.e., composition)
set	set	Define a new type that inherits components of an existing type

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TABLE II:

Overview of four NWB neurophysiology data files (top rows) stored in i) HDF5 without compression and with gzip compression enabled for all datasets, ii) Zarr, and iii) Zarr-C with automatic chunking enabled for all datasets.

		(D1) Allen EPhys	(D2) Allen ICEphys	(D3) Allen OPhys	(D4) NSDS EPhys
Content	#Groups	30	142	41	33
	#Datasets	49	604	83	69
	#Attributes	251	1565	408	283
	#Links	8	127	12	6
HDF5	#Files	1	1	1	1
	Size	705MB	168MB	1,569MB	57,934MB
	Size (gzip=4)	533MB	49MB	704MB	49,057MB
Zarr	#Folders	79	731	124	102
	#Files	198	2045	320	263
	Size	696MB	165MB	1565MB	57,925MB
Zarr-C	#Folders	79	731	124	102
	#Files	622	2383	1153	12,799
	Size	709MB	167MB	1584MB	59,579MB