

# Integration of software tools for integrative modeling of biomolecular systems

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## ABSTRACT

Integrative modeling computes a model based on varied types of input information, be it from experiments or prior models. Often, a type of input information will be best handled by a specific modeling software package. In such a case, we desire to integrate our integrative modeling software package, *Integrative Modeling Platform* (IMP), with software specialized to the computational demands of the modeling problem at hand. After several attempts, however, we have concluded that even in collaboration with the software's developers, integration is either impractical or impossible. The reasons for the intractability of integration include software incompatibilities, differing modeling logic, the costs of collaboration, and academic incentives. In the integrative modeling software ecosystem, several large modeling packages exist with often redundant tools. We reason, therefore, that the other development groups have similarly concluded that the benefit of integration does not justify the cost. As a result, modelers are often restricted to the set of tools within a single software package. The inability to integrate tools from distinct software negatively impacts the quality of the models and the efficiency of the modeling. As the complexity of modeling problems grows, we seek to galvanize developers and modelers to consider the long-term benefit that software interoperability yields. In this article, we formulate a demonstrative set of software standards for implementing a model search using tools from independent software packages and discuss our efforts to integrate IMP and the crystallography suite *Phenix* within the Bayesian modeling framework.

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Introduction to integrative modeling

Integrative modeling combines information of different types into a model (Alber et al., 2007; Rout and Sali, 2019). When all available information is used, the accuracy, precision, and completeness of the model are maximized. An example of an integrative model is the double-helical structure of DNA, which could only be resolved through a joint consideration of a fiber X-ray diffraction pattern of the DNA, data about the composition and stoichiometry of the component nucleotides, and

theoretical information about physiochemical nucleotide complementarity (Watson and Crick, 1953). Modern integrative modeling of biomolecular structures similarly considers experimental data (e.g., an X-ray diffraction pattern, a cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) density map, and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra) and prior models (e.g., a molecular mechanics force field, a statistical potential, and previously determined structural models). As the complexity (e.g., size, resolution, heterogeneity, and dynamics) of biomolecular structural models grows, integration of diverse and often sparse experimental data will be critical for maximally exploiting experimental techniques and their complementarities (Fig. 1) (Sali, 2021).

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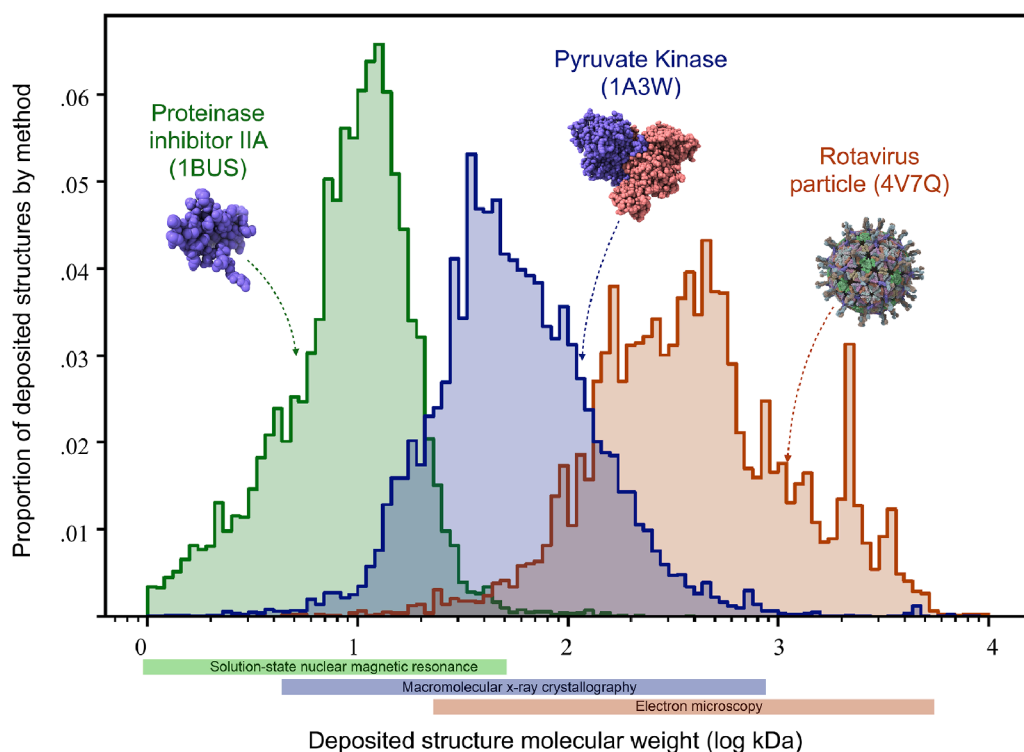
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**Fig. 1.** Coverage of molecular weight by structural technique. Shown is the histogram of the molecular weight of structures resolved by solution-state NMR spectroscopy, macromolecular X-ray crystallography, and electron microscopy (EM) deposited in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) (Berman et al., 2003). Each technique has a different coverage with respect to the molecular weight of the studied system. The variation illustrates one reason why it is desirable to integrate varied types of information as well as the software tools used to compute models from them.

### 1.2. Developing software modeling tools is challenging

Modeling is often only possible through computation using software tools. The development of software tools for modeling is challenging because it demands both domain knowledge and technical expertise. Domain knowledge encompasses both an understanding of the general concepts of the field and a thorough understanding of both the theory and practices of the leveraged experimental techniques. The technical prerequisites include the ability to formulate the theory into stable numerical algorithms and to develop software of sufficient quality. Moreover, software needs to incorporate new technical and scientific advancements. Fulfilling the above prerequisites is difficult when developing software for an individual experimental technique. The challenge is compounded in the development of integrative modeling software, where several sources of experimental information generally are combined. Nevertheless, there is a large number of independent and complex integrative modeling software packages (Adams et al., 2010; Das and Baker, 2008; Dimura et al., 2016; Dominguez et al., 2003; Hsieh et al., 2017; Hua et al., 2018; Hummer and Köfinger, 2015; Karakaş et al., 2012; Leaver-Fay et al., 2011; Russel et al., 2012; Schneidman-Duhovny et al., 2005; Schwieters et al., 2018; Serra et al., 2017; Trusart et al., 2015; van Zundert et al., 2016), as reviewed (Sali, 2021).

### 1.3. Collaborative development maximizes the efficiency and quality of modeling

Given the technical and scientific difficulty of developing software modeling tools, it is desirable to tackle integrative modeling as a collaborative development effort of multiple research groups and development teams. Such collaborative development has the benefits of better integration of domain expertise into modeling software. There are also benefits in the distribution of development costs over multiple research groups. For these reasons, collaborative software development maximizes both the efficiency of the software development and the quality of the resulting models.

### 1.4. Integration of software tools is an efficient approach to collaborative development

One way to achieve collaborative development is by developing software that is designed to solve a modeling problem through integration with one or more additional modeling tools. Such integration can occur between tools within or across integrative modeling software packages. The ability to combine the tools from existing software packages can extend the set of methods that can be implemented with these tools. It is often better to approach an integrative modeling problem by mixing and matching existing tools rather than by building new ones because the developer benefits from prior work. For example, Rosetta (Leaver-Fay et al., 2011) integrates high-level tools within Rosetta through RosettaScripts (Fleishman et al., 2011) and lower-level Rosetta functionality with tools outside of Rosetta through the C++/Python layers, as seen in *phenix.rosetta\_refine* (DiMaio et al., 2013).

### 1.5. Why is integration of software tools challenging?

There are numerous structural biology software packages, including tens of integrative modeling programs alone (Rout and Sali, 2019). While there is consensus that software interoperability is beneficial, little has been done to address the issue. It is often attractive to implement new tools within one's own software ecosystem, even if similar tools already exist elsewhere. It is not unusual to see, for example, unique implementations of vector classes within modeling packages. Possible reasons include the difficulty of coordinating a large number of contributors, lack of support and motivation for rigorous development and maintenance standards for academic software, and the incentive for individual programmers and research groups to publish new software.

### 1.6. Opportunity for standardization

As the complexity of integrative modeling problems grows, they will be increasingly difficult to solve by relying on tools from a single software package. Integration can be done on an *ad hoc* basis, where specific tools are combined when needed. Such an integration is not efficient,

however, as the pool of tools grows because any integration would incur additional development costs. An alternative is the adoption of software standards for tools developed by the integrative modeling community. Software standards offer guarantees on some aspect of the software's implementation or function. Well-defined standards would benefit the integrative modeling field by ensuring that software tools are of sufficient quality and generality to be interoperable with other software tools that adhere to the standards. If a standard is adopted by the community, an integrative modeler may be able to readily mix and match software that has been produced from multiple development groups. Similar to the PDB/mmCIF standards for archival, the nature and extent of the standards must be agreed upon by the integrative modeling development community.

### 1.7. Article overview

In this article, we develop a demonstrative software standard for integrating one or more independent tools in a model search. We begin by describing modeling as a 5-step search for a model that satisfies input information and distinguishing between informed and uninformed model searches. We then describe how the model search is achieved through basic function definitions. We illustrate the standards by integrating *Phenix* and *Integrative Modeling Platform* (IMP) for computing an atomic model from X-ray crystallography datasets and a molecular mechanics force field. Key to the integration is the factorization of the model posterior density into likelihoods and priors. We discuss our attempts to integrate IMP and *Phenix* tools as independent processes via file input/output and within a single process using the application programming interfaces (APIs). We conclude by discussing how software integration may increase the quality and potential complexity of the model as well as the efficiency of the modeling.

## 2. Approach

### 2.1. Modeling as a search

A model is a depiction of a system or process that we would like to inform from input information, consisting of experimental data and prior models (Rout and Sali, 2019). A model can then be used to rationalize input information and make testable predictions. Modeling is the search for a set of models consistent with the input information. Ideally, we aim to find all models that satisfy the input information, reflecting the uncertainty of the input information. It is convenient to divide the search into the following three steps: (i) defining the model representation that specifies all degrees of freedom whose values are determined by modeling, (ii) defining a scoring function for ranking alternative models for their agreement with the input information, and (iii) generating a sample of good-scoring models. As an aside, these models can be optionally filtered based on the input information and should also be validated before interpretation (Rout and Sali, 2019).

### 2.2. Multi-state model of Nup133 computed by a model search

For example, a model search is used to compute a multi-state model of the Nup133 nucleoporin from small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS), electron microscopy (EM) class averages, and cross-linking mass spectrometry (XL-MS) data (Kim et al., 2014). To reflect the structural heterogeneity of Nup133 in solution, the authors defined the model representation as an ensemble of fully atomic structures. The degrees of freedom, to be fit to the input information, include the number of models in the ensemble as well as the positions of atoms in each structure. Therefore, the objective of the model search is to find all Nup133 ensembles that satisfy the input information. A sample of Nup133 ensembles was generated via Molecular Dynamics simulations (MD) such that sufficient coverage of the energy landscape was achieved. The scoring function then evaluated the consistency of any model ensemble

with the SAXS profile, the EM class averages, and chemical cross-links by simulating data via physical principles and comparing it to the observed data. The model search framework is a general description of modeling that can describe most modeling protocols.

### 2.3. Informed vs uninformed search

Generally, integrative modeling software either explicitly or implicitly implements tools for each step of the model search. The model search can be categorized as either uninformed or informed, relative to some input information. In the uninformed search, candidate models are systematically generated to explore the search space without consideration for a specified subset of input information (Grosan and Abraham, 2011). For example, the minimal ensemble approach to computing protein structure ensembles based on SAXS data generates an ensemble of structures without consideration of the experimental data (Köfinger et al., 2019). In the informed search, a specified subset of input information is used to bias the generation of solutions (Grosan and Abraham, 2011). For example, partial derivatives based on the SAXS data could be used to guide sampling in the Nup133 model search.

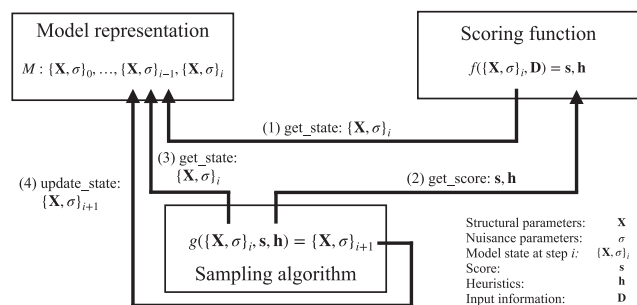
It is easier to isolate software tools in an uninformed search because outputs of relevant modeling steps can be combined as an additional post-processing step. However, due to a large model space generally required to be searched when solving integrative modeling problems, we are interested in the integration of software tools that enable an informed search, in addition to uninformed search. An informed search demands the passage of information between the tools that implement representation, scoring, and sampling during the modeling.

### 2.4. Demonstrative software standards (Fig. 2)

While tools within a given software package generally pass information to each other, they have not been designed to do so across different software packages. Interoperability may sometimes be achieved by engineering connections between a particular set of software tools in an *ad hoc* fashion. However, to maximize generalizability, it is better if information is communicated in well-defined channels governed by a software standard. Here, we develop basic standards to illustrate how information passing can be accomplished between independent modeling tools.

To facilitate the integration of two modeling tools, they should share the minimal amount of information necessary. It is also desirable that the tools be limited in scope to maximize modularity. For example, modularity is achieved if a tool implements a specific modeling step (*i.e.*, representation, scoring, sampling, and optionally filtering plus validation). Tools with a well-defined purpose that hide their implementation details help manage the technical complexity of an integrative modeling problem. In the example of the Nup133 model search, a distinct software tool can be used to implement the multi-state model representation, the MD sampler, the SAXS scoring function, the XL-MS scoring function, and the EM scoring function. The tools must be able to communicate with one another, but at the same time, they should be encapsulated from each other's details.

To design message passing, we first define the function of a model representation, scoring function, and sampling algorithm based on an informed search. The model representation manages the model state (the current value of the model parameters), which we partition between structural,  $\mathbf{X}$ , and nuisance parameters,  $\sigma$ . The model representation manages the model state at step  $i$  of the model search,  $\{\mathbf{X}, \sigma\}_i$ , as well as previously visited states,  $\{\mathbf{X}, \sigma\}_0, \dots, \{\mathbf{X}, \sigma\}_{i-1}$ . The scoring function computes the scores,  $\mathbf{s}$ , an assessment of the compatibility of  $\{\mathbf{X}, \sigma\}_i$  with input information,  $\mathbf{D}$ . The scoring function also returns heuristics,  $\mathbf{h}$ , as a function of  $\mathbf{D}$ , which help inform the search process (*e.g.*, gradients for finding local minima in the search space),  $f(\{\mathbf{X}, \sigma\}_i, \mathbf{D}) = \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{h}$ . A sampling tool updates the model state based on  $\{\mathbf{X}, \sigma\}_i$ ,  $\mathbf{s}$ , and  $\mathbf{h}$ ,



**Fig. 2.** Information channels for proposed software standard based on a model search. A model search may be implemented through the communication of software tools implementing each modeling step (representation, scoring, and sampling). A box represents the tool implementing the step and an arrow represents the passage of information.

$$g(\{X, \sigma\}_i, s, h) = \{X, \sigma\}_{i+1}.$$

Based on the above definitions, a minimal informed search is implemented by the following 4 functions that facilitate communication between the model representation, the scoring function, and the sampling algorithm tools (Fig. 2). First, the scoring function must be able to access the current model state from the model representation (*get\_state*). Second, the sampling algorithm must be able to access the current model state from the model representation (*get\_state*). Third, the sampling algorithm must be able to access the score and heuristic information from the scoring function (*get\_score*). Finally, the sampling algorithm must be able to update the current model state (*update\_state*).

Our demonstrative standard is sufficiently general to enable the mixing and matching of modeling tools. For example, when computing a model of Nup133, an integrative modeler wishes to score their model against multiple sources of input information (SAXS, XL-MS, and EM) that are not easily handled by a single modeling tool. 3 distinct scoring tools may be drawn from different modeling packages specialized to the computational demands unique to each experimental datatype. Optimally, these scoring function tools operate independently on each information source to manage the complexity of the tool's implementation. If all tools provide a uniform interface for returning the scores and computed heuristics (*get\_score*), they may be used interchangeably while remaining isolated from one another.

## 2.5. Illustrative modeling problem

We demonstrate the software standard by integrating IMP and *Phenix* to solve a specific problem in X-ray crystallography. Namely, we are interested in computing a model of a set of atomic protein structures (multi-state model), based on multiple diffraction datasets collected at different temperatures and physical principles. Such a multi-state model can be useful for mapping the dynamics and allostery of proteins (Fraser et al., 2011; Keedy et al., 2015). Next, we describe the modeling steps.

### 2.5.1. Input information

We are interested in informing our model by both structure factors from the X-ray crystallography experiments in addition to an empirical molecular mechanics force field. Satisfaction of the X-ray crystallography data restrains the overall model geometry while an empirical potential energy function restrains the stereochemistry and nonbonded interactions of local sets of atoms. Utilization of experimental X-ray diffraction datasets in conjunction with a force field has been applied previously in computing X-ray models (Brünger et al., 1988; Burnley et al., 2011).

### 2.5.2. Representation

The multi-state model,  $M$ , is defined by Cartesian atomic coordinates for each of a small number of discrete structural states of a protein; the

model also includes the relative weight of each state.

### 2.5.3. Bayesian scoring function

In general, Bayes' theorem states that the posterior model density,  $p(M|D, I)$ , (the conditional probability density of model,  $M$ , given experimental measurements,  $D$ , and prior models,  $I$ ) is proportional to the product of the likelihood,  $p(D|M, I)$ , (the probability of  $D$  given  $M$  and  $I$ ) and prior,  $p(M|I)$ , (the probability of  $M$  given  $I$ ):

$$p(M|D, I) \propto p(D|M, I) \times p(M|I)$$

For our multi-temperature model where we have multiple diffraction datasets,  $D_i$ , we assume that the total likelihood is the product of independent likelihoods for each diffraction dataset. The posterior model density is:

$$p(M|D, I) \propto \prod p(D_i|M, I) \times p(M|I)$$

where  $p(D_i|M, I)$  is the likelihood for the diffraction data from the  $i^{\text{th}}$  experiment. In Bayesian modeling, the model is not a single model instance, rather the model is the posterior density over the entire space spanned by the degrees of freedom of the model representation. The uncertainty of the model is the posterior model density spread. Bayesian modeling is conducive for integrative modeling because likelihoods and priors can be combined from diverse experimental datasets and prior models. As is often the case with probabilistic modeling, the score,  $s$ , is the negative logarithm of the model posterior density:

$$s = -\log p(M|D, I)$$

$$s = -\log p(M|I) - \log \prod p(D_i|M, I)$$

$$s = -\log p(M|I) - \sum \log p(D_i|M, I)$$

Though the prior and likelihoods can be weighed as pure probabilities, it is often useful to weigh the likelihood and priors so that the gradients have comparable magnitudes (Brünger et al., 1988). The weights,  $w_1, w_2$ , may be optimized to a target function (e.g., as in *Phenix.refine*) or empirically chosen:

$$s = -w_1 \log p(M|I) - w_2 \sum \log p(D_i|M, I)$$

### 2.5.4. Sampling

A sample can be generated from the model posterior via MD simulation where atomic positions are updated based on a force computed from the potential energy surface. The stochastic Monte Carlo method, where parameter moves are accepted and rejected based on relative energy levels, is also useful for generating molecular ensembles. Furthermore, enhanced sampling variations of the Monte Carlo method that leverage derivatives (e.g. Hamiltonian Monte Carlo) are useful for improving sample convergence from complex posterior model densities.

To implement the representation, scoring, and sampling outlined above, we integrated software tools from the *Phenix* software suite and IMP modeling package as dictated by our demonstrative standard.

## 2.6. Phenix

*Phenix* (Python-based Hierarchical Environment for Integrated Xtallography) provides a suite of programs for manipulating experimental data, computing models, and validating structures from cryo-EM and X-ray/neutron/electron crystallography data. *Phenix* includes tools for the entire data processing and model generation workflow, including computing data quality indicators (*phenix.xtriage*), maximum likelihood estimation of phases from molecular replacement via a homologous structure (*phenix.phaser* (McCoy et al., 2007)), phase optimization (*phenix.density\_modification* (Terwilliger et al., 2020)), model building (*phenix.autobuild* (Terwilliger et al., 2008)), refinement of the model to better fit both experimental and empirical restraints (*phenix.refine*



(Afonine et al., 2012)), and finally model validation (access to Mol-Probity webserver (Williams et al., 2018)). Despite a large number of algorithms in *Phenix*, there would be great benefit from integration with IMP, for example by providing access to flexible model representations, scoring of non-crystallographic information, and enhanced sampling techniques.

## 2.7. IMP

*Integrative Modeling Platform* (IMP) is open-source software that contains a large number of libraries and programs for computing integrative models of biomolecular systems (integrativemodeling.org) (Russel et al., 2012). IMP supports a diverse set of model representations that can be flexibly coarse-grained to suit the problem. Restraints can be formulated to score models against various experimental data (e.g., chemical cross-links identified by mass spectrometry, EM density maps, and SAXS profiles) as well as prior models (e.g., excluded volume, comparative models, molecular mechanics force fields, and statistical potentials). Models can be sampled or enumerated through numerical integration techniques, variations of the Monte Carlo method, as well as Molecular and Brownian Dynamics simulations. IMP's relative strengths include a large variety of model representations, scoring functions based on different data, and sampling schemes, all of which can be mixed and matched to facilitate integrative structure modeling. Another distinction is an increasingly Bayesian perspective on uncertainties in input information, model representations, and scoring functions. In contrast, IMP does not include tools for X-ray crystallography. However, *Phenix* is a premier program for this task.

## 2.8. Integration of *Phenix* and IMP (Fig. 3)

As IMP and *Phenix* use independent modeling frameworks, we were required to implement the standard's functions by using and modifying software tools from both packages. Engineering the interfaces, therefore, required familiarity with the usage and implementation of IMP and *Phenix*. For example, IMP and *Phenix* employ unique model hierarchies to represent atomic structures. Yet for the model search, there must be a shared definition of the model representation. Efficiently managing and interconverting between the model hierarchies proved challenging. The challenges of handling specific modeling packages further motivates the need for general standards to facilitate software interoperability without additional development effort.

The model search can be implemented in two ways: in separate runtime environments *via* data integration or in the same runtime environment *via* library integration, as follows.

### 2.8.1. Data integration

Our first attempt to integrate *Phenix* and IMP was by exchanging data between independent executions of custom scoring evaluation programs written separately from the *Phenix* (Computational Crystallography Toolbox (CCTBX)) and IMP tools, respectively. The stochastic sampling algorithm proposes a move and saves the atomic coordinates to a disk file in the PDB format, which is then read separately by the two evaluation programs. The *Phenix* program computes the likelihood while the IMP program computes the prior independently. The posterior is the product of these two terms. The advantage of this strategy is that the runtime environments are completely separated. However, the design presents a challenge because the model state must be saved from the IMP address space to disk and then be read by the scoring programs for each sampling step. As the structure factor calculations using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) are extremely fast, the additional computational overhead presents a significant challenge to generating and scoring a sufficiently large sample. *Phenix* can compute 6224 structure factors for a ubiquitin molecule in ~0.015s on a single computational core. *Phenix* can read and write a PDB file in ~0.08s, while IMP is even slower. As millions of samples may be necessary to sufficiently sample the Bayesian

posterior model density, this additional overhead makes the data integration expensive. For the informed search to be computationally feasible, the likelihood and prior evaluations must occur in the same runtime environment, which is achieved *via* library integration.

### 2.8.2. Library integration

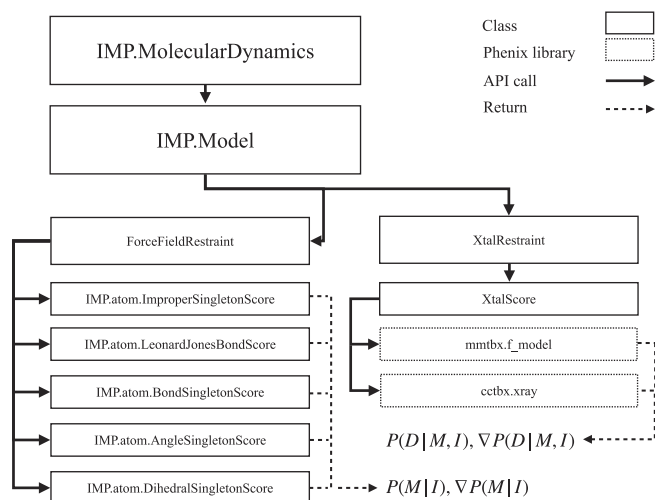
We also engineered evaluation of both the likelihood and prior with *Phenix* and IMP, respectively, within the same runtime environment. A single evaluation function accepts a model and computes both the likelihood and prior using *Phenix* and IMP library calls, respectively. To integrate the scoring functionalities of *Phenix* and IMP, we developed methods for translating between the IMP and CCTBX hierarchical representations. As a result, the IMP sampling algorithm can make proposals based on IMP's implementation of the model representation that is automatically reflected in the CCTBX representation and can be used natively with CCTBX libraries. Although the release of both IMP and *Phenix*'s underlying libraries in conda-forge enables a consistent Python environment, we opted to build our integration in C++ for its performance advantages, followed by wrapping in Python for usability. We handled the technical integration of IMP and *Phenix* shared dynamic (.so) libraries along with their dependencies through a custom compilation of IMP facilitated by CMake.

The sampler is implemented by the IMP.MolecularDynamics class. The model representation is implemented by the IMP.Model class. Two scoring tools are used: ForceFieldRestraint for computing the prior based on an empirical force field and XtalRestraint for computing the likelihood based on the observed diffraction data. IMP.MolecularDynamics calls the model representation to evaluate both restraints. Each restraint then calls the respective functions to compute the scores and gradients. For ForceFieldRestraint, calls are made to the IMP.atom library to return individual stereochemical and nonbonded scores which are combined in the total prior and gradients. For XtalRestraint, calls are made to the *Phenix* mmtbx and cctbx libraries to compute the likelihood and gradients. IMP.MolecularDynamics updates the model parameters based on Newton's second law of motion where the force is derived from the weighted sum of the gradients of the likelihood and prior. The modularity of the design enables the substitution of alternative model representation and sampling tools (e.g., IMP.MonteCarlo). The isolation of *Phenix* and IMP scoring evaluations demonstrates how software integration is facilitated by the factorization of the Bayesian posterior model density into a likelihood and a prior.

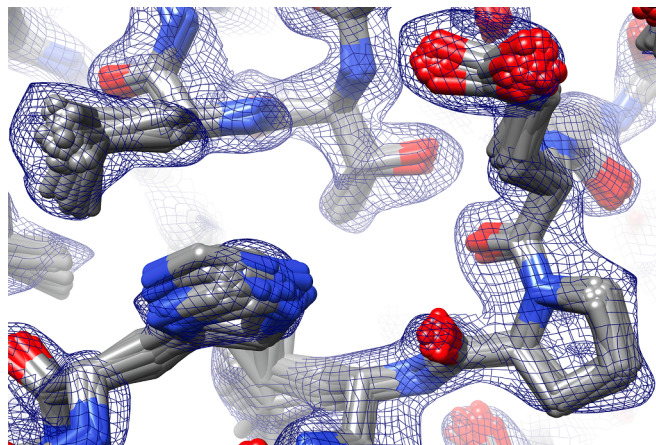
## 2.9. Conclusions

We were successful in incorporating IMP and *Phenix* functions, data structures, and numerical calculators in a model search. Rather than integrating IMP and *Phenix* tools in an *ad hoc* fashion, we organized them as proposed by our standard where the scoring function, sampling, and model representation tools communicate through defined channels. Importantly, the crystallographic likelihood and derivative calculators were completely independent of the molecular mechanics force field prior and derivative calculators. Using the model search implemented through the integration of IMP and *Phenix*, we generated a sample of the model posterior density from the structure of SARS-Cov main protease (PDB ID: 2H2Z) (Fig. 4). Structures contained within the sample are drawn from the potential energy landscape formulated from the satisfaction of empirical stereochemical and non-bonded relationships as well as the observed X-ray data.

As introduced above, the first major advantage of integration is that little crystallography-specific source code must be implemented in IMP. By leveraging the crystallographic functionality of *Phenix*, we do not have to implement a large number of crystallographic data structures and subroutines in IMP. CCTBX and IMP consist of 6210 (955,323 lines of code) and 3450 unique source files (327,966 lines of code), respectively, supported by multiple groups around the world. Implementation of new source code has historically been the *de facto* approach to



**Fig. 3.** Workflow for the integration of *Phenix* and IMP. The multi-state model representation is defined in IMP (IMP.Model). The sampler is also defined in IMP (IMP.MolecularDynamics). We implemented 2 scoring function tools, to evaluate the prior and likelihood respectively. The distinction between the likelihood and prior provides an opportunity for distributing an evaluation of the scoring function across both *Phenix* and IMP, taking advantage of the comparative strengths of each software package. The prior scoring function, ForceFieldRestraint, uses the IMP.atom library to evaluate stereochemical and non-bonded scores based on the CHARMM22 empirical force field. The likelihood scoring function, XtalRestraint, uses *Phenix*'s maximum likelihood target function for a given set of experimentally observed structure factors. Evaluation of the crystallography likelihood includes several computationally demanding tasks such as the inference of nuisance parameters and determination of the solvent region in the unit cell. Both the prior and likelihood scoring function tools are implemented with an identical interface to return the respective score and gradients, ensuring uniform interoperability with IMP.Model and IMP.MolecularDynamics.



**Fig. 4.** Sample of the position and orientation of Histidine 246, Proline 241, Glutamic Acid 240, and Leucine 202 from SARS-CoV main protease posterior model density evaluated through integration of IMP and *Phenix*. The sample of 100 structures was generated via MD sampling of the model posterior density. The posterior is the product of the molecular mechanics prior and the X-ray likelihood, computed by IMP and *Phenix* respectively. The sample is overlaid by the all features (2Fo-Fc) map from the deposited structure.

accommodating new data types in IMP. This integration saves significant development time and also prevents inflation of either codebase. We also benefit from the significant amount of previous *Phenix* development and will continue to benefit from future development. IMP also benefits from the *Phenix* authors' expertise in computational

crystallography, which includes significant runtime optimizations (e.g., testing whether FFT or direct summation is faster for a given crystal system).

Secondly, the implemented standard is sufficiently general to enable substitution of other model representation, sampling algorithm, or scoring function tools. For example, the modularity is well suited for introducing additional scoring functions as they simply need to parse the model representation and return the computed score plus heuristics. Using the Bayesian framework, new tools can be easily introduced for computing likelihoods from new forms of experimental data, for example NMR restraints, or prior information, for example statistical potentials from the PDB.

More complex sampling and scoring procedures may also be employed. The optimal strategy for sampling a model is often unknown prior to modeling. Methods often rely on iterations of sampling procedures that may vary the sampling parameters (e.g., temperature in simulated annealing) or the scoring functions (e.g., optimization based on satisfaction of one source of input information over the other). Based on our framework, the model representation and scoring functions, are encapsulated from the details of the sampling procedure. New sampling procedures can easily be substituted so long as they can access the model representation to update the parameter state and accept scores and heuristics from the scoring function.

### 3. Discussion

Next, we discuss the implications of software integration for the field of integrative modeling. In integrative modeling, the goal is to build increasingly complex models based on increasingly varied sets of data (Sali, 2021). Key to any modeling is input information, which determines the type of model that can be computed; the choice of model representation is also informed by the questions asked of a model. In addition to the model representation, a general description of modeling requires a Bayesian posterior model density that specifies the probability density of a model, given the input information, and a scheme for sampling this posterior density. Using Bayes' theorem, the posterior can be factorized into likelihoods, which depend on data, and priors, which depend on prior models. The evaluation of a posterior based on independent likelihoods and priors is simple in concept, but may be technically challenging; in other words, writing the code that implements the component likelihoods and priors may require a significant amount of effort and expertise that is difficult to duplicate by non-experts and wasteful to duplicate by experts. Thus, software integration can be seen as the major method for maximizing the quality and efficiency of modeling based on varied data and prior models. If the experts encoded their expertise in software tools that can be easily mixed and matched, integrative modelers would in turn be able to rigorously combine likelihoods and priors for all the available input information to solve their integrative modeling problems efficiently. To illustrate this point in more detail, we discuss three specific examples of the posterior model density factorization next.

The first example is that used above (Section 2.5), corresponding to computing an atomic multi-state model based on X-ray crystallography data and physical principles. The posterior model density is factorized into a likelihood based on X-ray diffraction patterns and a prior based on a molecular mechanics force field. Consequently, input information is conveniently isolated in the software (IMP for prior models and *Phenix* for diffraction patterns) that is best suited to evaluate a model based on it. The separation of software manages the technical complexity of the prior and likelihood scoring.

The second example is computing a coarse-grained structural model of the hetero-heptameric Nup84 complex based on a negative-stain electron microscopy map and residue-specific cross-links as well as prior models of the subunits (Shi et al., 2014). The posterior model density is factorized into a likelihood based on the map, a likelihood based on the cross-links, a prior based on prior subunit models, and a

prior based on excluded volume. Although all the terms were evaluated in IMP in this case, it is conceivable that a more accurate encoding of a subset of input information is or will be available in another software package. In such a case, software integration would facilitate computing a higher quality model more efficiently.

The third example is computing a multi-scale model of glucose-stimulated secretion in human pancreatic beta-cells, based on 8 prior models of different aspects of the system (Raveh et al., 2021). These prior models are a coarse-grained spatiotemporal simulation of insulin vesicle trafficking, docking, and exocytosis; a molecular network model of glucose-stimulated insulin secretion signaling; a network model of insulin metabolism; a structural model of glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor activation; a linear model of a pancreatic cell population; and ordinary differential equations for systemic postprandial insulin response. When dealing with a complex multi-scale model, it is often not reasonable to assume independence of the input information. In this case, the prior models must be coupled by additional terms in the scoring function. The prior models and the couplers are the priors in a posterior model density for a model of the entire system. Bayesian metamodeling estimates the posterior density via backpropagation. Thus, Bayesian metamodeling decomposes the problem of modeling a large, complex system into smaller, more tractable modeling problems. It is likely that more sophisticated and physically realistic coupling of prior models would be facilitated by software integration, where each type of prior model is evaluated in a separate specialized software tool developed by experts in the domain of that model.

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, software interoperability would greatly benefit the field of integrative modeling as the integration of software specialized for handling specific types of information supports more efficient building of higher quality and more complex models. We proposed a demonstrative standard that facilitates simple software integration by representing modeling as a model search with defined information passing. We then implemented the above standards to integrate *Phenix* and IMP. Finally, we discussed the ability of the Bayesian formulation to facilitate collaborative integrative modeling by mixing and matching priors and likelihoods. Ultimately, we suggest that the software development community in the field of integrative modeling consider the definition and adoption of *de facto* protocol standards for improving the interoperability of their software.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Matthew Hancock:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Thomas-Otávio Peulen:** Conceptualization, Writing – original draft. **Ben Webb:** Software. **Billy Poon:** Software. **James S Fraser:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Resources. **Paul Adams:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Resources. **Andrej Sali:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Resources, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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