

# **Multivariate Statistical Methods for Big Data Analysis and Process Improvement**

Instructor: Dr. Brandon Corbett

Lecture 10 for ChE 765 | Sep 767, McMaster  
University

# Agenda:

## **Variable transformations:**

1. Multi-block methods
2. Other data pre-processing

# Multiblock methods

## The main concept

Divide your variables into blocks to get

- ▶ better model interpretation
- ▶ easier monitoring and improved fault detection

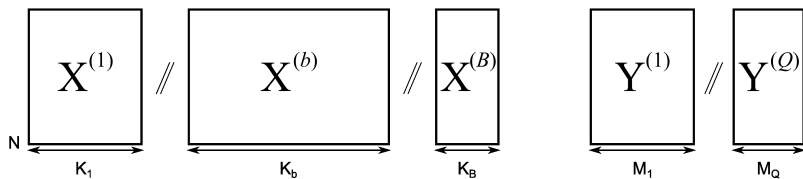
**Why do this?:** we'd like to understand the relationships between several groups of possibly related datasets

Sometimes called “data fusion”.

# References

- ▶ Original concept: Wold *et al.*, 1987 conference paper
- ▶ Improved fault detection: MacGregor *et al.*, AIChE Journal
- ▶ Equivalence of MBPCA and PBPLS to PCA and PLS (very important paper): Westerhuis, Kourti and MacGregor
- ▶ Process monitoring example with MB methods: Qin *et al.*
- ▶ Good overview of all multiblock methods: Smilde, Westerhuis and de Jong, 2003

# Notation



- ▶ Multiple  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$  blocks are available
- ▶ There is only one consistent dimension:  $N = \text{observations}$
- ▶ We will only consider the case of one  $\mathbf{Y}$  block ( $M_1 = M$ )
  - ▶  $\mathbf{Y}$  will contain the usual quality variables
- ▶ We can have in  $\mathbf{X}^{(b)}$  for example:
  - ▶ raw material properties (e.g. one block per material)
  - ▶ NIR or UV-VIS spectra from each observation
  - ▶ Unfolded batch data
  - ▶ Measurements from each unit operation

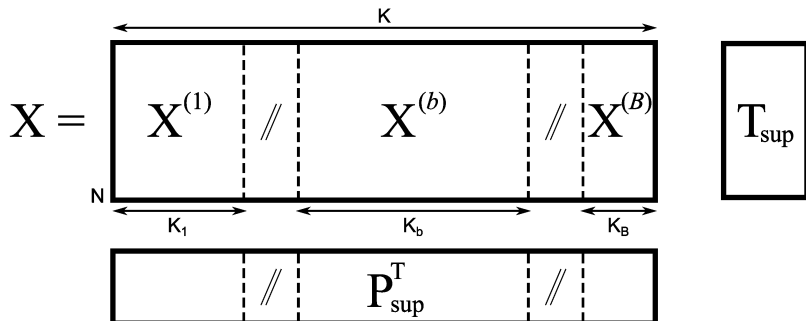
**Key point:** you can have duplicated variables between blocks

# Terminology and concepts

- ▶ Only have **X** blocks: multiblock PCA
- ▶ Add one or more **Y** blocks: then it becomes multiblock PLS
- ▶ Each block has: scores, loadings, SPE,  $T^2$ , weights, VIP,  $R^2$
- ▶ We also have a “super-level” or “super-model” that summarizes the blocks

## SUM-PCA approach

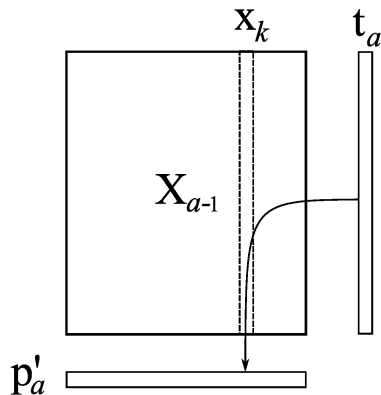
Crude approach: push all blocks together and build PCA model.



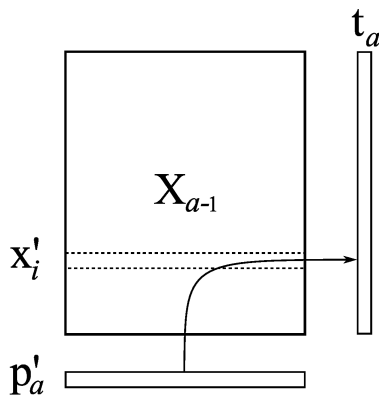
- ▶ Investigate loadings,  $R^2$ , etc separately for each block
- ▶ Block loadings,  $P^{(b)}$ , will not be orthogonal
- ▶ The super scores (the usual PCA scores) simply explain variation for entire  $\mathbf{X}$
- ▶ No guarantee that each block will contribute to superscores

## NIPALS review

Before we proceed, let's recap the NIPALS algorithm for PCA



Loadings are regression coefficients (slopes) when regressing columns in  $\mathbf{X}$  onto  $\mathbf{t}_a$



Scores are regression coefficients (slopes) when regressing rows in  $\mathbf{X}$  onto  $\mathbf{p}_a$



# Consensus PCA (CPCA)

# Consensus PCA steps

1. Let  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$  be any column from any block
2. Regress column from  $\mathbf{X}_a^{(b)}$  onto  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$  to obtain block loadings

$$\mathbf{p}_a^{(b)} = \mathbf{X}^{(b)T} \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)} / \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)T} \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$$

3. Normalize  $\mathbf{p}_a^{(b)}$  to unit length
4. Calculate block's score:  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(b)} = \mathbf{X}^{(b)} \mathbf{p}_a^{(b)} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{K_b}}$ 
  - weight  $\sqrt{K_b}$  prevents blocks with many terms (variables) in the above linear combination from creating large score values,  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(b)}$
5. Assemble block scores:  $\mathbf{T}_a^{[s]} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}_a^{(1)} & \dots & \mathbf{t}_a^{(b)} & \dots & \mathbf{t}_a^{(B)} \end{bmatrix}$

## Consensus PCA steps

6. Regress columns in  $\mathbf{T}_a^{[s]}$  onto the superscore,  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$  to calculate the super-level's loading:

$$\mathbf{p}_a^{[s]} = \mathbf{T}_a^{[s]T} \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)} / \left( \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)T} \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)} \right)$$

$(B \times N)(N \times 1)$

7. Normalize  $\mathbf{p}_a^{[s]}$  to unit length

8. Regress rows in  $\mathbf{T}_a^{[s]}$  onto  $\mathbf{p}_a^{[s]}$  to get the super-scores  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$ :

$$\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)} = \mathbf{T}_a^{[s]} \mathbf{p}_a^{[s]} / \left( \mathbf{p}_a^{[s]T} \mathbf{p}_a^{[s]} \right)$$

$(N \times B)(B \times 1)$

denominator is usually = 1.0

9. Not converged? return back to step 2.
10. Converged? deflate each block *with the superscore*

$$\mathbf{X}_a^{(b)} = \mathbf{X}_a^{(b)} - \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)} \mathbf{p}_a^{(b)T}$$

# Consensus PCA (CPCA)

- ▶  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)} \mathbf{p}_a^{(b)}$  = block prediction from the *superscore*,  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$ , not the block's score
- ▶  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$  was calculated from the assembled scores,  $\mathbf{T}_a^{[s]}$
- ▶  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$  is just a weighted sum of these block scores (step 8): called the *consensus score*
- ▶ **Each entry in the superloading shows how much of block  $b$  is used in the consensus score**
- ▶ If a block behaves differently from the others, then its entry in  $\mathbf{p}_a^{(s)}$  will be small
- ▶ Deflation by  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$  removes the superscore information, not the block-score information.
  - ▶ We get non-orthogonal block scores, but orthogonal superscores

# Computational simplification

Westerhuis, Kourti and MacGregor (1998) showed we don't need to calculate CPCA as just described.

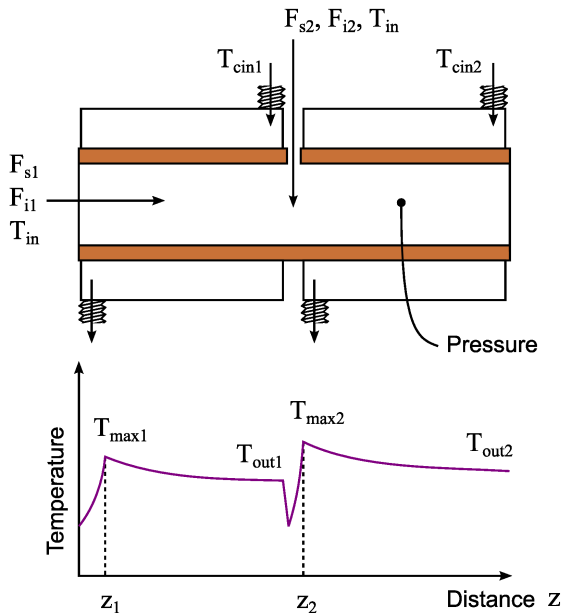
Much easier approach:

- ▶ Preprocess the data from each block as normal
- ▶ Post divide each block by  $\sqrt{K_b}$  and assemble:

$$\mathbf{X} = \left[ \frac{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}}{\sqrt{K_1}}, \frac{\mathbf{X}^{(2)}}{\sqrt{K_2}}, \dots, \frac{\mathbf{X}^{(B)}}{\sqrt{K_B}} \right]$$

- ▶ Same idea as block-scaling (covered earlier in the course)
- ▶ Calculate PCA in the usual way on  $\mathbf{X}$  to obtain:
  - ▶ scores will be identical to CPCA super scores,  $\mathbf{t}_1^{(s)}, \mathbf{t}_2^{(s)}, \dots, \mathbf{t}_A^{(s)}$
  - ▶ then follow steps 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 from above
  - ▶ results will be identical to the full approach

## In-class example



## In-class example

Load the LDPE data set and create a 2-block PCA model:

1. "Zone 1" block
  - ▶ Inlet temperature
  - ▶ Pressure
  - ▶ All other variables ending in "1"
2. "Zone 2" block
  - ▶ Inlet temperature
  - ▶ Pressure
  - ▶ All other variables ending in "2"

Build a multiblock CPCA model, using cross-validation to determine  $A$ :

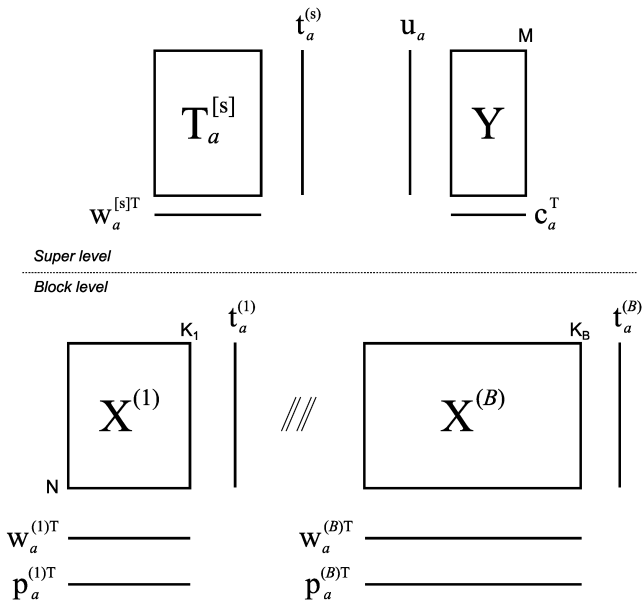
- ▶ examine scores for each block, and the superblock
- ▶ examine the loadings bi-plot for each block
- ▶ examine the SPE time-series for each block and the superblock

# What can go into each block?

- ▶ Raw material properties
  - ▶ have one block per raw material
- ▶ NIR or UV-VIS spectra ( $K^{(b)}$  will be large)
- ▶ Unfolded batch trajectories
- ▶ Features extracted from batch trajectories
- ▶ Data from sequential operations
  - ▶ data from each step/operation/phase in its own block
  - ▶ could be hard to ensure consistency from row to row
- ▶ Large PCA and PLS models. E.g. petroleum refinery
  - ▶ distillation column's data
  - ▶ fractionator's data
  - ▶ FCCU data
- ▶ Judges: one block per judge
  - ▶ each judge block contains the same columns (attributes)
- ▶ Lagged variables
  - ▶ e.g. a variable and all its lag per block
  - ▶ or, all variables at a particular lag in each block



# Multiblock PLS (MBPLS) concept



# MBPLS concept

We won't go through the detailed arrow pushing diagrams:

1. Start with an initial guess for  $\mathbf{u}_a$
2. Perform a CPCA cycle through all the  $\mathbf{X}^{(b)}$  blocks and this  $\mathbf{u}_a$
3. Assemble each block's scores,  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(b)}$ , into  $\mathbf{T}_a^{[s]} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}_a^{(1)} & \dots & \mathbf{t}_a^{(B)} \end{bmatrix}$
4. Do a single NIPALS cycle for PLS between  $\mathbf{T}_a^{[s]}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$  for
  - ▶ super scores,  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$
  - ▶ super weights,  $\mathbf{w}_a^{[s]}$ , a  $B \times 1$  vector
  - ▶  $\mathbf{Y}$ -space loadings:  $\mathbf{c}_a$ , a  $M \times 1$  vector
  - ▶  $\mathbf{Y}$ -space scores:  $\mathbf{u}_a$
5. Repeat from step 2 until convergence for the  $a^{\text{th}}$  component
6. Then deflate ... (next slide)

Once all components calculated, predict  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{t}_1^{(s)} \mathbf{c}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{t}_A^{(s)} \mathbf{c}_A$

# MBPLS deflation

*There are 2 choices to deflate each block:*

1. using the block's own score and loading

$$\mathbf{X}^{(b)} = \mathbf{X}^{(b)} - \mathbf{t}_a^{(b)} \mathbf{p}_a^{(b)T}$$

- ▶ induces orthogonal scores and loadings at the block level
- ▶ super scores,  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$ , will not be orthogonal

2. using the super score and the block's loading

$$\mathbf{X}^{(b)} = \mathbf{X}^{(b)} - \mathbf{t}_a^{(s)} \mathbf{p}_a^{(b)T}$$

- ▶ block level scores and loadings not orthogonal
- ▶ super scores are orthogonal

## Using the MBPLS model in the future

1. Center and scale new data,  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}^{(b)}$ , according to each block's preprocessing
2. Calculate block score =  $t_{a,\text{new}}^{(b)} = \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}^{(b)T} \mathbf{w}_a^{(b)} \cdot \frac{1}{K_b}$
3. Assemble the block score vector:  $\mathbf{t}_{a,\text{new}}^{[s]} = \left[ t_{a,\text{new}}^{(1)}, \dots, t_{a,\text{new}}^{(B)} \right]$
4. Calculate the super score:  $t_{a,\text{new}}^{(s)} = \mathbf{t}_{a,\text{new}}^{[s]T} \mathbf{w}_a^{[s]}$
5. Deflate each block:  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}^{(b)} = \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}^{(b)} - t_{a,\text{new}}^{(s)} \mathbf{p}_a^{(b)}$  using *superscore*
6. Repeat from step 2 for all components  $a = 1, 2, \dots, A$
7. Predict:  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{new}} = t_{1,\text{new}}^{(s)} \mathbf{c}_1 + \dots + t_{A,\text{new}}^{(s)} \mathbf{c}_A$

Also calculate SPE and  $T^2$  for each block, and for the super level

# Which deflation to use for MBPLS

## Method 1

- ▶ Removes all variation in  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(b)}$  from  $\mathbf{X}^{(b)}$
- ▶ Also,  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(b)} w_{a,b}^{[s]}$  is the portion from block  $b$  used to predict  $\mathbf{Y}$
- ▶ If  $w_{a,b}^{[s]} \approx 0$  (small super weight for block  $b$  for component  $a$ ), then  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(b)}$  has not predictive ability for  $\mathbf{Y}$
- ▶ Once removed (deflated), it cannot be used in subsequent components
- ▶ One advantage though: the block scores tend to be more directly related to  $\mathbf{Y}$

## Method 2

- ▶ Removes from  $\mathbf{X}^{(b)}$  the variation in  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$
- ▶ Variation in  $\mathbf{t}_a^{(s)}$  is used to explain  $\mathbf{Y}$

# Actual calculation for MBPLS

Westerhuis, Kourti and MacGregor (1998) showed we don't need to calculate MBPLS as just described.

Easier approach:

- ▶ Preprocess the data from each block as normal
- ▶ Post divide each block by  $\sqrt{K_b}$  and assemble:

$$\mathbf{X} = \left[ \frac{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}}{\sqrt{K_1}}, \frac{\mathbf{X}^{(2)}}{\sqrt{K_2}}, \dots, \frac{\mathbf{X}^{(B)}}{\sqrt{K_B}} \right]$$

- ▶ Calculate PLS in the usual way on  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$  to obtain:
  - ▶ scores are identical to MBPLS super scores,  $\mathbf{t}_1^{(s)}, \mathbf{t}_2^{(s)}, \dots, \mathbf{t}_A^{(s)}$
  - ▶ back-calculate the block weights, loadings and scores
  - ▶ then calculate the block SPE and  $T^2$
  - ▶ also calculate the super weights
  - ▶ results will be identical to the full approach

# Is all this complexity worth it?

Given the above derivations (especially if this is the first time seeing it), one can rightly ask whether this is worth it.

- ▶ Consensus PCA can be calculated from ordinary PCA
- ▶ Multiblock PLS can be calculated from ordinary PLS
- ▶ This implies the predictive performance will be identical

## **Advantages are:**

- ▶ better interpretation
- ▶ separate monitoring and fault detection for each block, since
  - ▶ each block has its own SPE,  $T^2$ , weights, loadings, VIP,  $R^2$
  - ▶ super level: has SPE,  $T^2$ , weights, VIP,  $R^2$

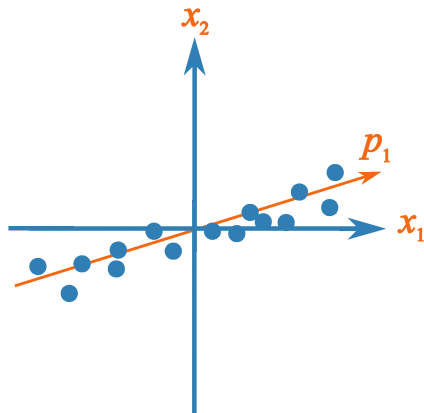
# Centering

- ▶ Removes arbitrary offset from each column
- ▶ Not centering: sometimes results in extra component
- ▶ If centering: sometimes get a better fit
- ▶ Centering: can have a major impact on model's interpretation
- ▶ May be done around a “natural” reference: e.g. setpoint, instead of the mean
- ▶ For robustness: center about the median instead

More details from this very insightful paper: [Bro and Smilde](#):  
“Centering and scaling in component analysis”



# Scaling

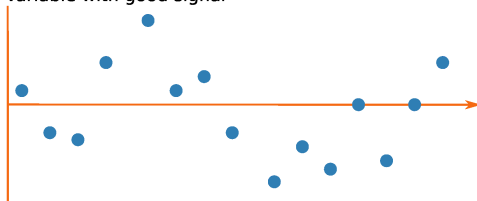


- ▶ If no prior knowledge: scale each column to unit variance
- ▶ Need to emphasize/deemphasize a variable?
  - ▶ First scale all columns to unit variance
  - ▶ Then upscale/downscale the column(s) as appropriate

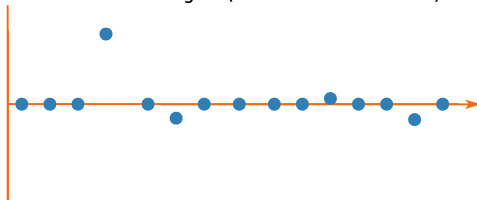
# Scaling

Be careful of inflating noise in variables with little signal

Variable with good signal



Variable with little signal (low standard deviation)

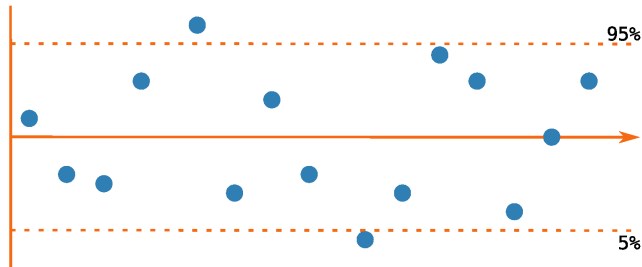


- ▶ Use robust scaling instead (scale by MAD)
- ▶ Heuristic: don't scale  $x_k$  if  $\text{stdev}(x_k) < 4 \times \text{its measurement noise}$

$$\text{median absolute deviation}_k = 1.4826 \cdot \text{median} \{ |x_k - \text{median} \{x_k\}| \}$$

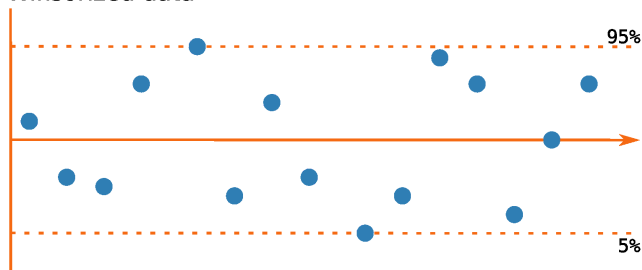
# Dealing with outliers: winsorizing

Raw data



Replace outliers beyond a chosen  $\alpha$  level at their respective bounds

Winsorized data

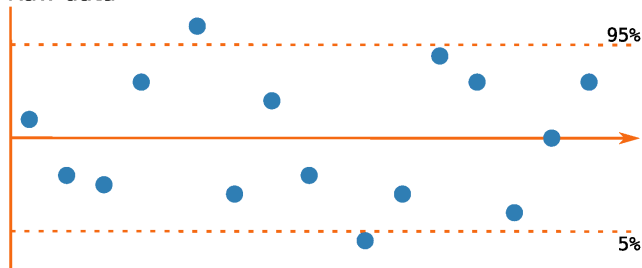


e.g.  $\alpha = 5\%$  shown here

Can break multivariate relationships between variables

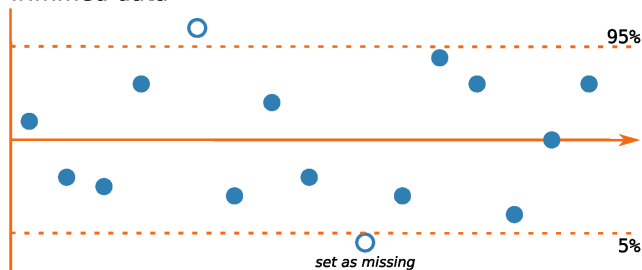
# Dealing with outliers: trimming

Raw data



Convert outliers beyond a chosen  $\alpha$  level to missing values

Trimmed data



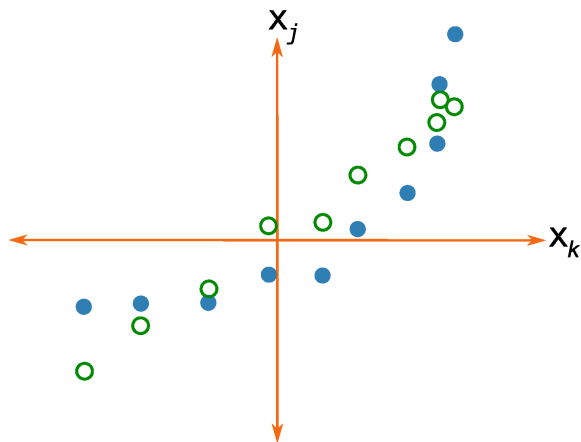
e.g.  $\alpha = 5\%$  shown here

Better (more honest) alternative to winsorizing

# Univariate transformations

Univariate transformation's often motivated by first principle's knowledge:

- Original data, then centered and scaled
- Transformed data, then centered and scaled



Examples:

- ▶ Use  $\log(T)$  instead of temperature,  $T$
- ▶ Use  $1/P$  instead of pressure,  $P$
- ▶  $\sqrt{F}$  instead of flow,  $F$  (as shown in figure)

# Univariate transformations

- ▶ Pre-bias data to avoid negative and zero values
- ▶ e.g. if  $T$  is measured in Celcius and could be negative, use  $\log(T + c)$
- ▶ where  $c$  is large enough to avoid negative logs
  
- ▶ Can be used on **X and Y** variables
  - ▶ e.g. use  $\log(y)$  to get better predictions: software takes care of transforming and un-transforming

# Expanding the **X**-matrix with calculated variables

Add extra columns to **X**:

- ▶ Heat balance:
  - ▶ add column for sum of all heat inputs
  - ▶ add column for sum of heat outputs
  - ▶ add column for sum of heat created/lost by reaction
- ▶ As above, but for mass balance
  - ▶ See “Data reconciliation” (Tong and Crowe's work)
- ▶ Key performance indicators for your particular industry
- ▶ Add dimensionless numbers:
  - ▶ Reynolds number =  $\frac{\rho v D}{\mu}$
  - ▶ Power number =  $\frac{P}{\rho n^3 d^5}$

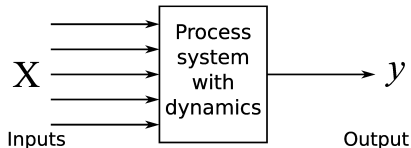
Soft-sensor applications:

- ▶ Add columns from first-principles equations, e.g. Antoine equation:  $\log(\text{RVP}) = \log P - B \left[ \frac{1}{C} - \frac{1}{T + C} \right]$

# Handling process dynamics with lagging

Time series modelling is a well-studied topic\*

- ▶ Inputs:  $\mathbf{x}(t)$
- ▶ Outputs:  $\mathbf{y}(t)$



- ▶ Time series models can be built to predict  $\mathbf{y}_t$  when given:
  - ▶  $\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t-2}, \dots$
  - ▶  $\mathbf{y}_{t-1}, \mathbf{y}_{t-2}, \dots$
- ▶ These models are then used for:
  - ▶ forecasting: to make decisions
  - ▶ control: e.g. feedback control
  - ▶ process monitoring
- ▶ Can we include these ideas in PCA/PLS?

\* Standard reference: Box and Jenkins; book by Chatfield is very good



## Time series example

- ▶ First order system's transfer function:  $\frac{y(s)}{x(s)} = \frac{K}{\tau s + 1}$
- ▶ Time domain:  $\tau \frac{dy}{dt} + y(t) = Kx(t)$
- ▶ Take samples  $\Delta t$  time units apart:

$$y_t = \delta y_{t-1} + K(1 - \delta)x_t \quad \text{where} \quad \delta = e^{-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau}}$$

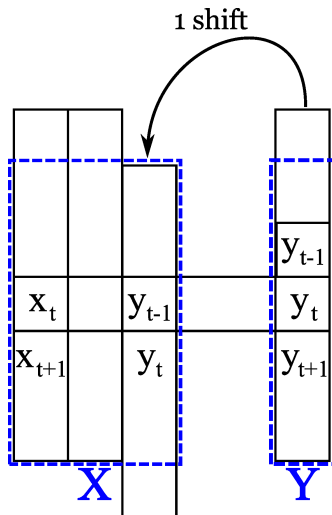
General form:

$$y_t = a_1 y_{t-1} + a_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + a_m y_{t-m} + b_0 x_t + b_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + b_n x_{t-n}$$

- ▶ function of past y's:  $y_{t-1}, y_{t-2}, \dots$
- ▶ function of current and past x's:  $x_t, x_{t-1}, \dots$

# Time series example: lagging Y's

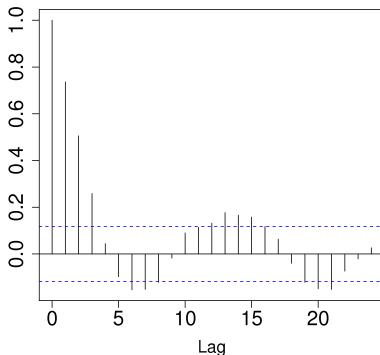
- ▶ How to approximate this with a latent variable model?
- ▶ Copy and shift columns to get consistency within a row
- ▶ So add columns to  $\mathbf{X}$  to get the time-history of  $y$
- ▶  $y(t) = a_1 y(t-1) + b_0 x_t + \dots$



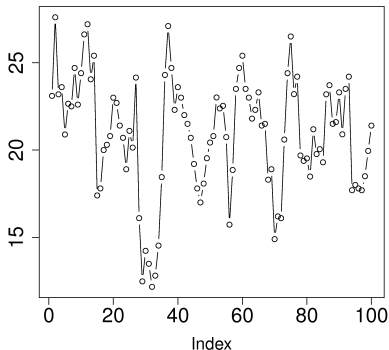
## Time series example: lagging Y's

- ▶ Lagging adds strong correlations among columns in **X**
- ▶ That's OK: PLS can handle it.
- ▶ What if we don't know how many lags to add?
- ▶ One approach: use the autocorrelation function: `acf(y)`

**Autocorrelation function**



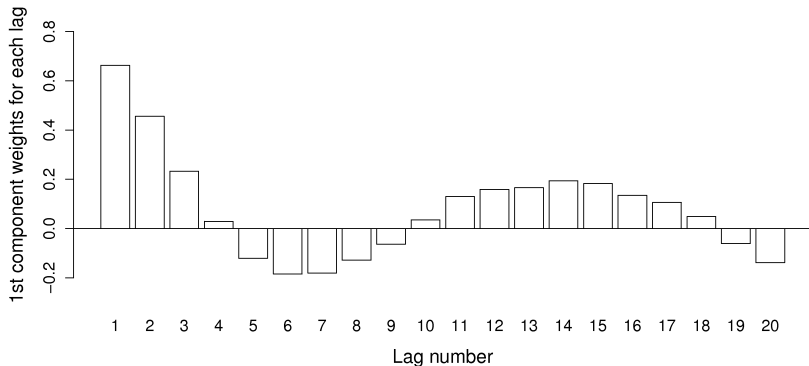
**Sample of the raw data**



# Time series example: lagging Y's

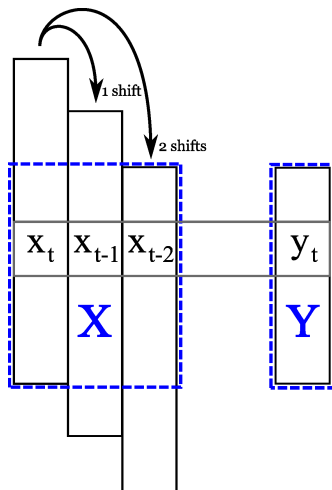
Other approaches:

- ▶ look at the PLS coefficients and jack-knifed reliability intervals
- ▶ look at the **X**-space weights:  $\mathbf{w}^*$

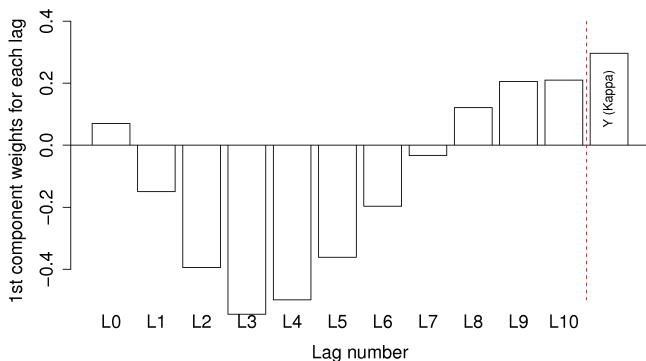


## Time series example: lagging X's

- ▶ Previous history in **X** variables might be useful
- ▶ Especially in processes with long mixing times/residence times
- ▶  $y_t = b_0x_t + b_1x_{t-1} + b_2x_{t-2} + \dots$
- ▶ Unsure how many? Add lags then check coefficient and/or **w \* c** plots
- ▶ Use lags which are large



# Lagging



- ▶ Sometimes we find counter-intuitive lags
- ▶ Sometimes the lags are all small and “smeared” over many columns
  - ▶ Then use an average over all important lags instead
  - ▶ Better still: block-scale all lags to have equivalent influence of 1 variable

## Dealing with nuisance variation

Sometimes we have dominant variation that we are not interested in: e.g. **throughput**

This can dominate a component, and cause false alarms for monitoring. Can't remove throughput variable, because it helps the model. Options?

1. If it is just in one score, e.g.  $t_2$ , just skip it in  $T^2$  calculation
2. Regress out the throughput effect:
  - ▶ Regress the throughput variable on all other  $X$ -variables
  - ▶ Take residuals (which are mostly orthogonal now to throughput)
  - ▶ Use these residuals as your  $X$
  - ▶ Model is hard to interpret though; good for predictions
3. Preprocessing option: divide some  $X$ -variables by throughput to normalize out throughput effect; still keep the single throughput variable.