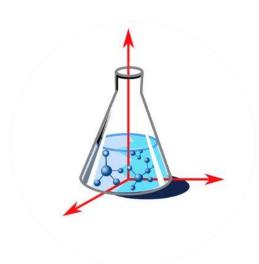
Hands on data: Chemometrics

Analysing Spectral Data, obtained by Hennie 27th October, Mercedes Bertotto







Workshop agenda: Chemometrics

- 1. Introduction to Chemometrics
- 2. Exploratory analysis and Outlier Detection
- 3. Pretreatments on raw spectra
- 4. Feature selection
- 5. Cross validation or Data Split
- 6. Discrimination (PLSDA)
- 7. Hands on Data (30 min)

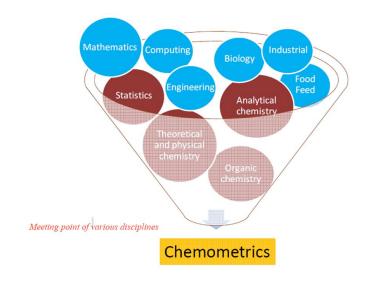


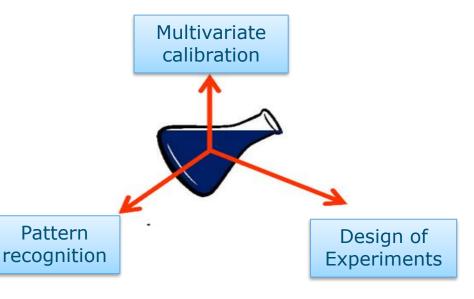
Part 1: Introduction



Chemometrics

"Chemometrics is the chemical discipline that uses mathematical, statistical, and other methods employing formal logic to design or select optimal measurement procedures and experiments, and to provide maximum relevant chemical information by analyzing chemical data". **D. L. Massart (1941-2005)**







Why Chemometrics? Why Linear Algebra?



- NIR spectra are of high dimension
- The data are highly correlated (collinearity problem) and obscured by the presence of overlapping absorbances, harmonics, and combination bands
- Spectra are often complicated by light scattering and other physical effects
- Multivariate methods (chemometrics) are required to address these issues
- "Linear algebra is the language of chemometrics. To understand most chemometric techniques, a basic understanding of linear algebra is required." (Wise and Gallagher, 1998)



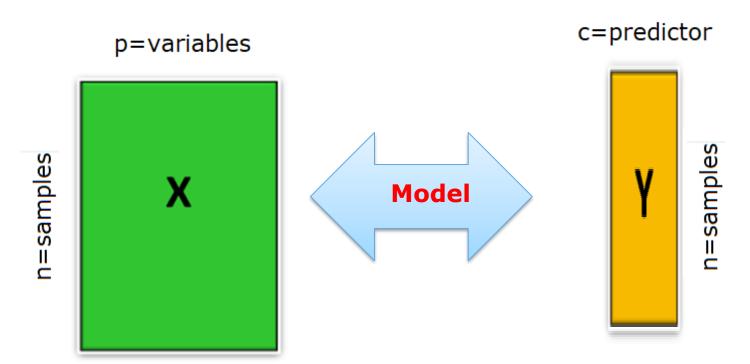
Statistics versus chemometrics

- Focus on distributions
- Inference based on hypothesis tests of parameters
- Density estimation
- Mandatory courses at every biological education

- Focus on individual samples
- Inferences based on future performance
- Clustering
- Voluntary course at only few institutions

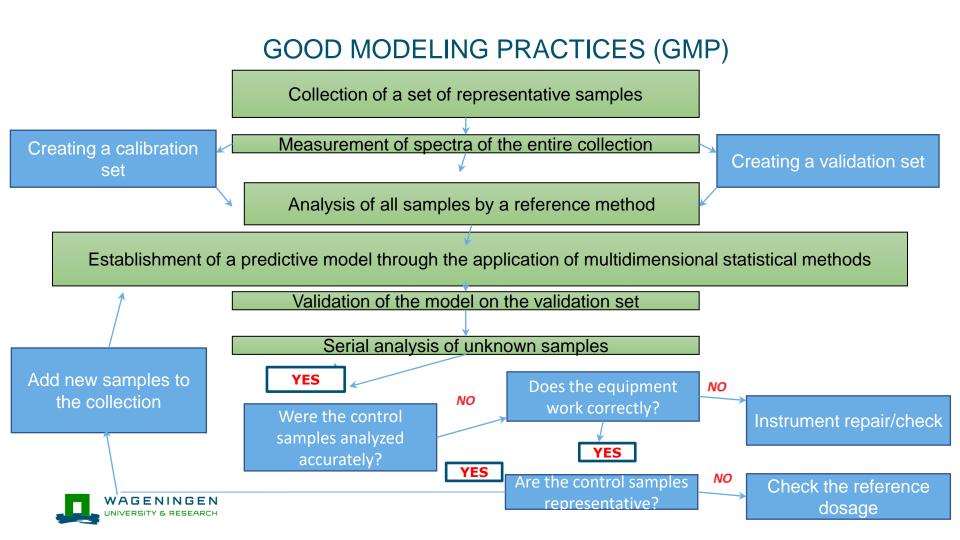


Multivariate analysis



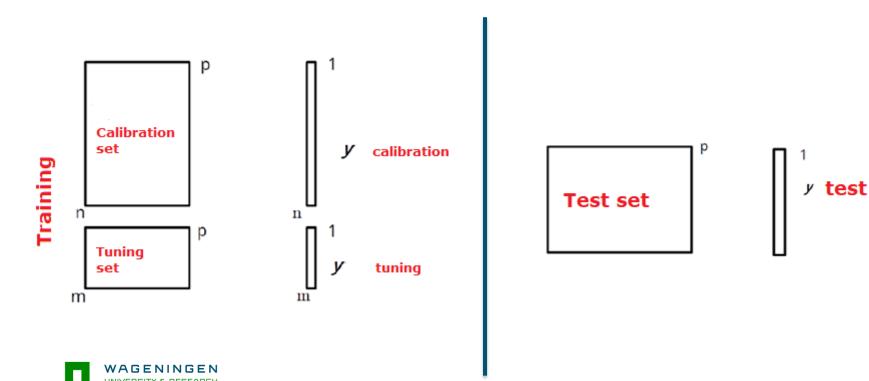
The predictor variables are partially selective of the chemical properties





GOOD MODELING PRACTICES (GMP)

Data Set Preparation



Part 2: Exploratory analysis and Outlier Detection

"Delve deep enough into anything, and you will find mathematics" Dean Schlicter



Reducing dimensionality

☐ Identifying and Removing Irrelevant Variables to:
☐ Enhance Computational Performance
☐ Improve Model Interpretability and Result Comprehension
☐ Avoid overfitting and collinearity

One way to solve the problem: Transforming the initial set of variables into a lower-dimensional set while retaining most of the information



Objectives:

- Exploration/ Description/ Visualization
- Dimensionality Reduction
- Preparation and Cleaning (Outlier Identification, Noise)
- Discrimination of Individual Groups
- Determination of Relationships Among Individuals
- * Time evolution of scores is used to detect deviations in process monitoring
- **❖ Preliminary Stage for Further Chemometric Treatment**











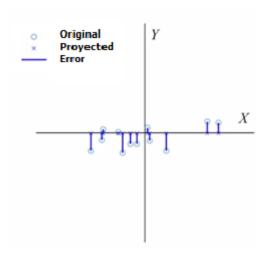


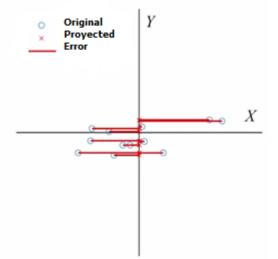


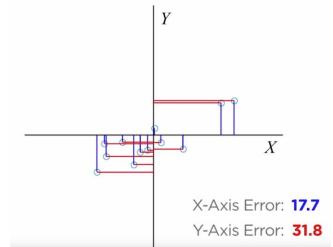




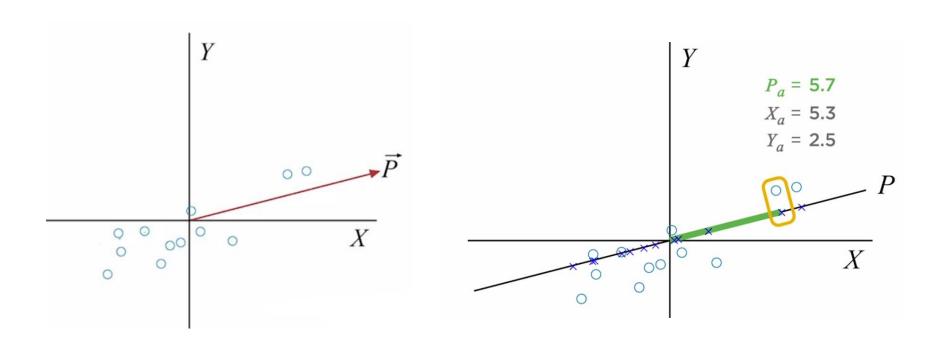




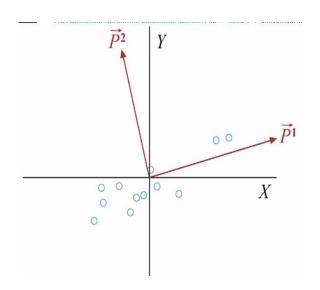


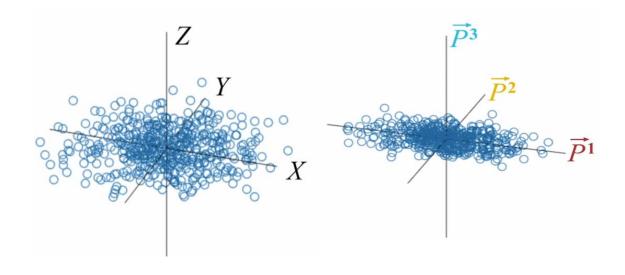














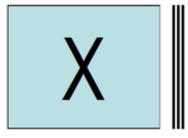
PCA: Matrix decomposition

 $(N \times P)$

$$X=T.P'+E$$

 $(N \times A)$

T: scores



A: Number of PCs

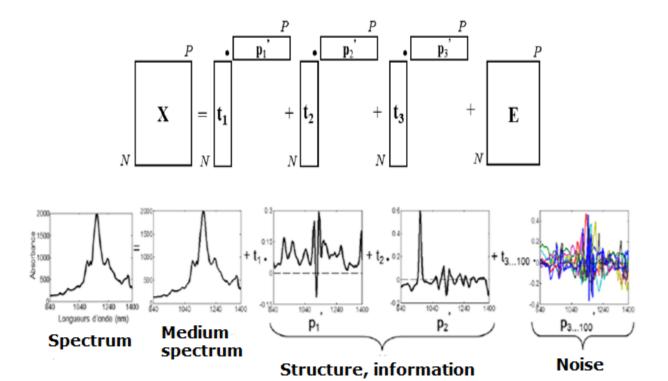
$$X = TP^{T} + E - t_{1}p_{1}^{T} + t_{2}p_{2}^{T} + \dots + E$$

 $(P \times A)$

loadings P'

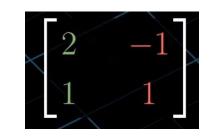


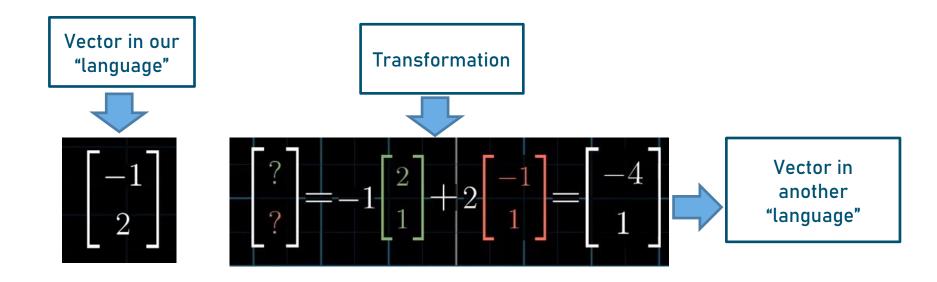
PCA: Matrix decomposition





Change of basis: Linear transformation







Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- An eigenvalue of a matrix is a scalar that represents how a particular transformation, described by that matrix, stretches or compresses a vector in space
- Eigenvalues quantify how much the direction of a vector changes when it is multiplied by a matrix
- if A is a square matrix, and λ is a scalar, then λ is an eigenvalue of A if there exists a non-zero vector v (called an eigenvector) such that the following equation holds:

$$A * v = \lambda * v$$

The value λ is the eigenvalue associated with the eigenvector v



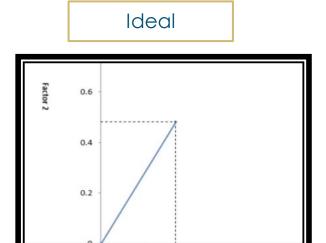
PCA explains the original variables through the strength of their relationship with the factors

| Eigenvalues | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 | Factor 5 | Factor 6 | Factor 7 | Factor 8 |
|-------------|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|
| | 4.349726834 | 1.92281186 | 1.290080831 | 1.149885024 | 1.129518656 | 1.014206025 | 0.977356029 | 0.9318098 |

- √ The factors are extracted from the data sequentially
- √ The factor that explains the highest % of variance is extracted first
- ✓Then, the factor that explains the second highest % of variance is extracted, and so on
- √ The factors are orthogonal to each other
- √ They have zero correlation between them, each representing something unique



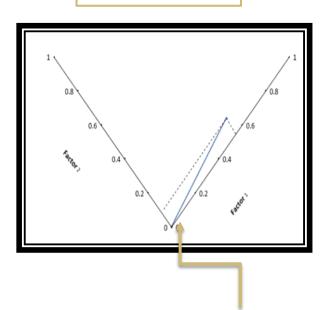
Factor rotation



0.2

0.6





The variables that are weakly related to the component are located near the center of the graph



-0.2

Factor 1

Loadings

Correlation coefficients

-1.0 : Perfect negative correlation

0.0: No correlation

1.0: Perfect positive correlation

In yellow: Loadings>0.5

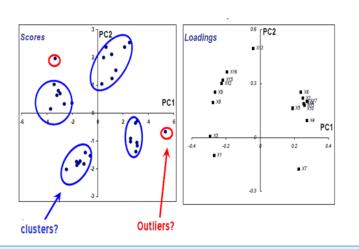
The variables that load strongly on the same factor may share something in common. For example, products C, D, J, and U load strongly on the first factor. In this example, they are antibiotics

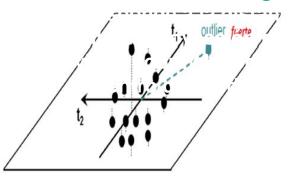


| | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 |
|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Product A | 0.338392 | 0.359125 | -0.35551 |
| Product B | -0.03337 | 0.359674 | -0.44017 |
| Product C | 0.709268 | 0.313117 | -0.10372 |
| Product D | 0.866839 | 0.026961 | -0.09743 |
| Product E | 0.037134 | -0.10703 | -0.40144 |
| Product F | 0.140315 | 0.202643 | -0.10759 |
| Product G | 0.118608 | 0.235802 | -0.35763 |
| Product H | 0.029118 | 0.683191 | 0.2143 |
| Product I | 0.027812 | 0.522297 | -0.23995 |
| Product J | 0.915644 | -0.03241 | -0.04724 |
| Product K | -0.01446 | 0.280687 | 0.000529 |
| Product L | 0.138604 | 0.709171 | -0.05589 |
| Product M | 0.017498 | 0.246222 | -0.16969 |
| Product N | 0.329753 | 0.132799 | -0.40502 |
| Product O | 0.136257 | 0.141867 | -0.5055 |
| Product P | 0.189386 | 0.041223 | -0.52597 |
| Product Q | 0.298836 | 0.418047 | -0.32678 |
| Product R | 0.112088 | 0.08413 | -0.55576 |
| Product S | 0.001687 | 0.16686 | -0.55969 |
| Product T | 0.024188 | 0.358303 | -0.17977 |
| Product U | 0.715734 | -0.03241 | -0.23856 |

Outlier detection

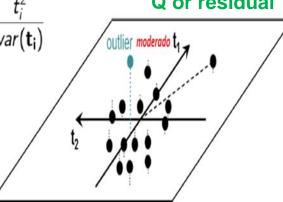
Hotelling or T2





$$T^2 = \sum_{i=1}^A \frac{t_i^2}{var(\mathbf{t_i})}$$

Q or residual



- •Null hypothesis (H_0) : the two samples are from populations with the same multivariate mean
- •<u>Alternate hypothesis</u> (H_1) : the two samples are from populations with different multivariate means"

https://www.statisticshowto.com/hotellings-t-squared/

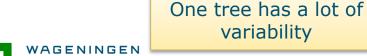


$$Q_i = e_i e_i^T = x_i (I - P_k P_k^T) x_i^T$$

Isolation Forest

- We pick a column at random, and we select an arbitrary threshold within its range
- We divide all the samples into two groups according to that threshold
- There is a higher chance that the outlier point would end up in the smaller group or alone
- This randomized splitting process is repeated recursively
- The more common the point is, the more splits it will take to be isolated

Isolation depth: Number of partitions that it takes to isolate a point



A final score is obtained by averaging results of many trees



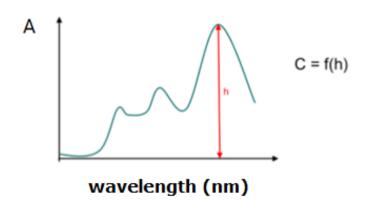
Part 3: Pretreatments on Raw Spectra



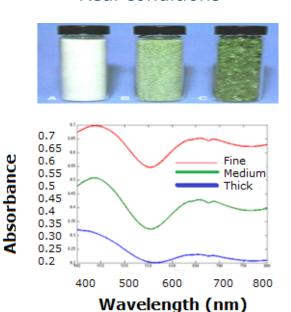
Near Infrared Spectroscopy

Ideal conditions

$$\mathcal{A}(\lambda) = arepsilon(\lambda) CL$$
 Lambert-Beer Law



Real conditions



Pretreatments eliminate spectral deformations to approach the pure contribution of the studied parameter

Multiplicative and additive effects

Real spectrum may be influenced by:

Photon diffusion



- 1) Enlarges the medium length of the optical path by factor **k**
- 2) Will cause a certain number of photons to escape from the captor, creating a leak term

Measurement noise

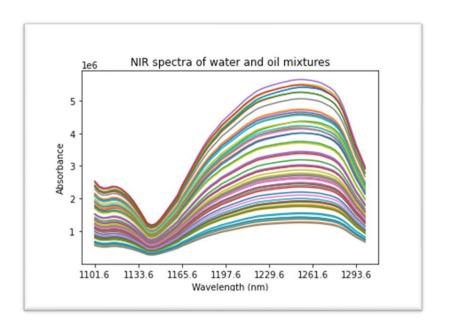


It is due to a set of random phenomena present throughout the measurement chain

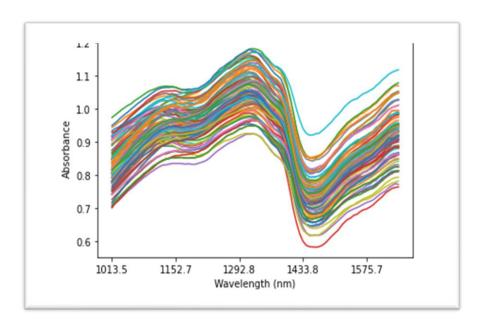
Addiive effect

$$\mathcal{A}(\lambda) = k\varepsilon(\lambda)LC + \mathcal{A}_f(\lambda) + \mathcal{A}_b(\lambda)$$

NIR spectra of water and oil mixtures showing a multiplicative effect. Source: WUR.

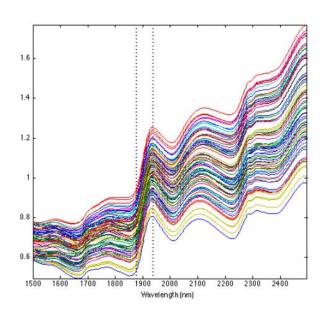


NIR spectra showing an additive effect. Source: WUR.



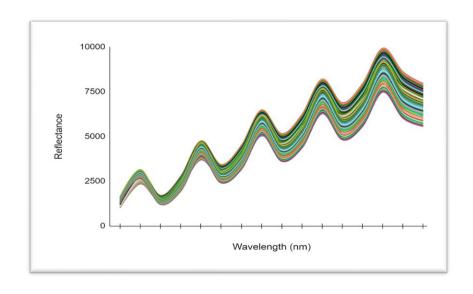


(Fictional) example of an additive effect of a rising baseline. Source: IRSTEA Montpellier



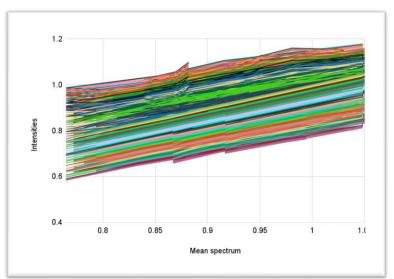
Handmade example of NIR spectra with combined effect (additive and multiplicative)

Source: WUR

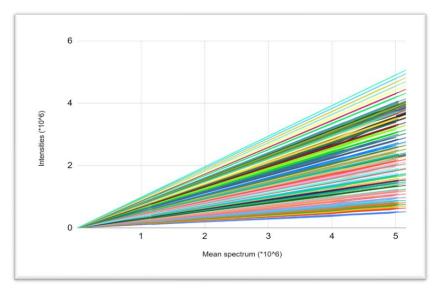




A millefeuille shape observed when plotting NIR spectra with additive effect versus the mean spectrum. Source: WUR.

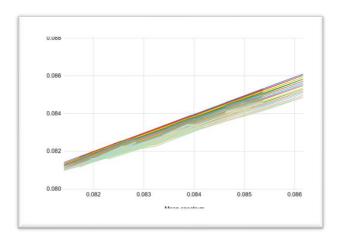


A cone shape observed when plotting spectra with multiplicative versus their mean spectrum. Source: from author

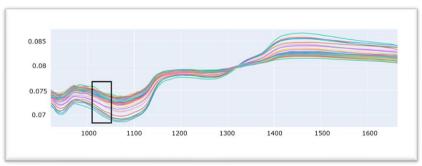




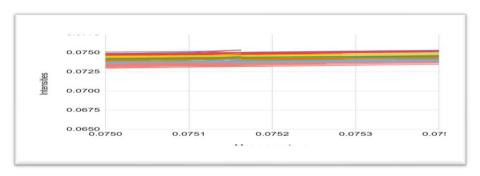
No clear cone neither millefeuille shape shown; difficult to tell if there is additive or multiplicative effect present in spectra. Source: WUR



Intensities from the black rectangle can be plotted versus their mean spectrum, to understand the type of effect present. Source: WUR

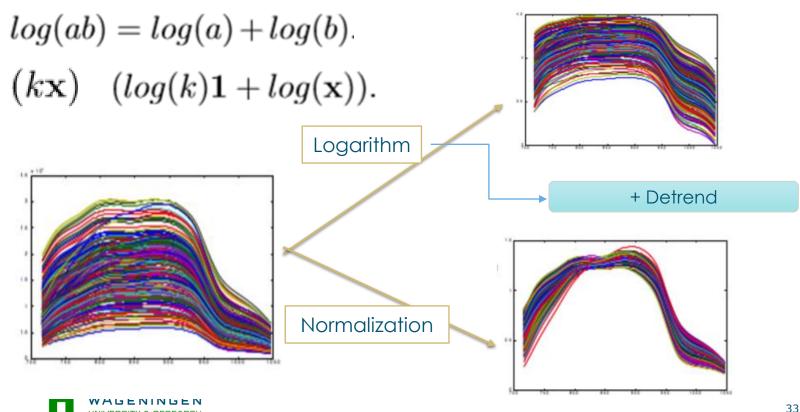


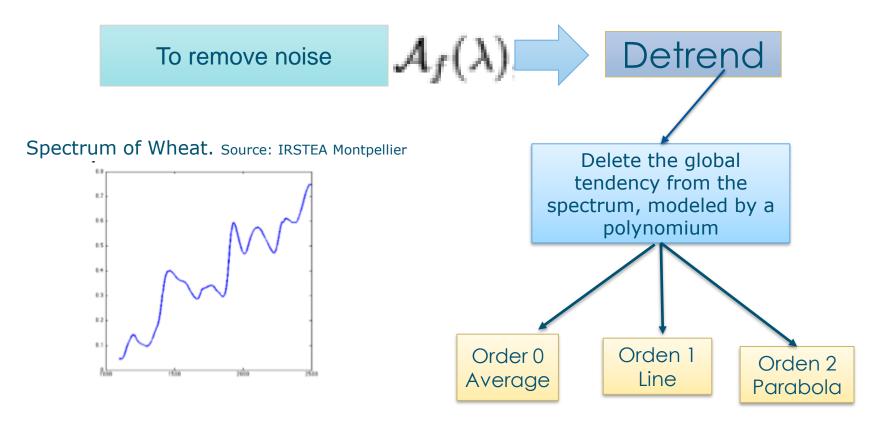
This shows an additive effect in that spectral range. Source: WUR.





How to reduce a multiplicative effect (k)?





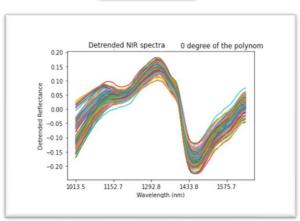
The residuals that remain after removing the line correspond to the absorbance peaks related to the chemical components of the sample

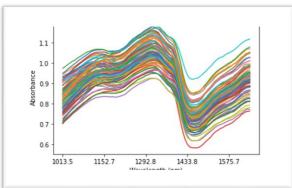


Detrend

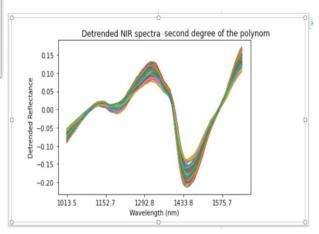
Raw spectra

Detrend order 0





Detrend order 2



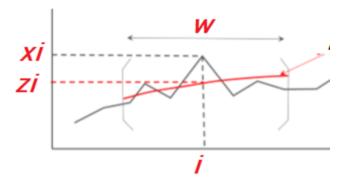


To remove noise

 $A_b(\lambda)$

polynomial of degree d

Savitsky Golay



w(odd)>d

At each point i in the spectrum, the raw value **xi** is replaced by **zi** from a polynomial fitted over a window around point **i**.



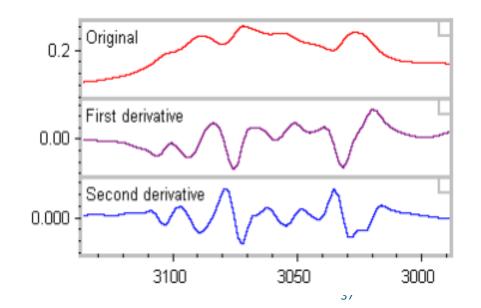
Derivatives

-They are also used to decrease the baseline. If the baselines are polynomials of degree K, then the derivatives of order k+1 will make them disappear

$$\mathcal{A}_f(\lambda) = a\lambda + b$$

$$\mathcal{A}(\lambda) = k\varepsilon(\lambda)LC + a\lambda + b$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{A}(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda^2} = k \frac{\partial^2 \varepsilon(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda^2} LC$$





Standard Normal Variate (SNV)

The SNV pre-processing of a spectrum X consists of removing the mean of X at each of its points, then dividing them by the standard deviation of X.

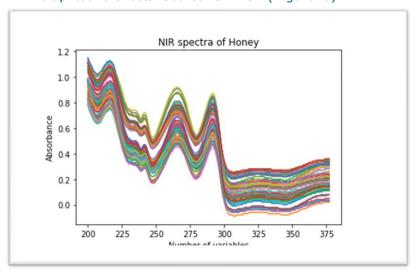
NIR spectra of honey, with both additive and multiplicative effects. Source: SENASA (Argentina)

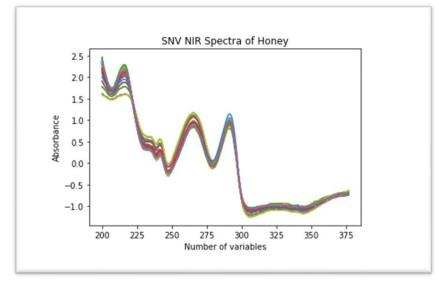
$$Xc = X - mean$$

 $XSNV = Xc / SD(Xc)$

SNV NIR spectra of honey. Additive and multiplicative effects are gone.

Source: SENASA (Argentina)





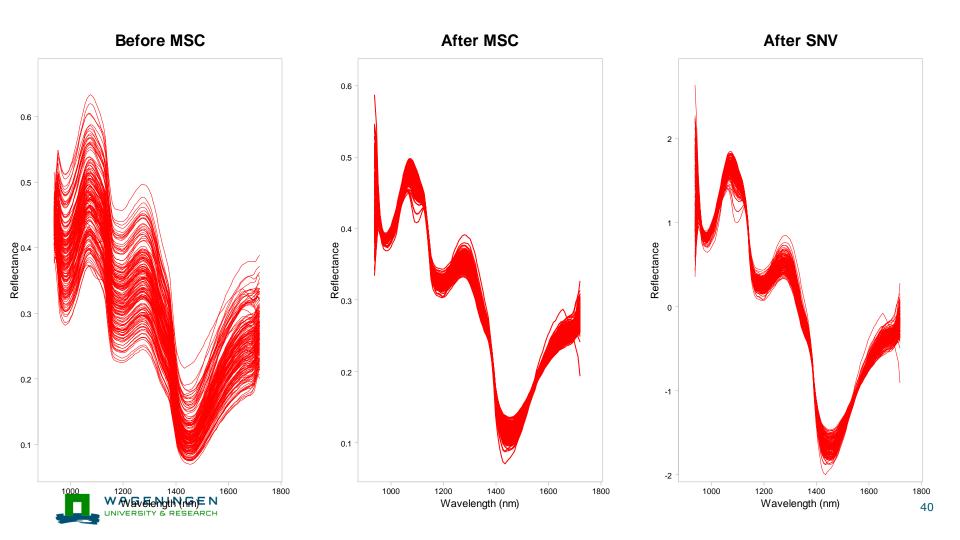


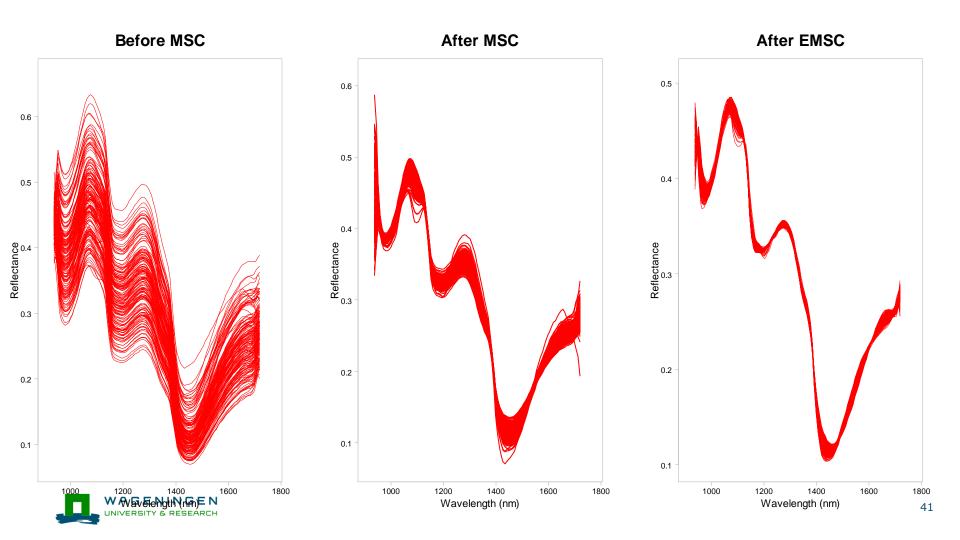
Multiplicative Scatter Correction (MSC)

- "Mathematically, if we call Xm the mean spectrum, the multiplicative scatter correction is done in two steps.
- 1. We first regress each spectrum Xi against the mean spectrum
 This is done by ordinary least squares: Xi≈ai+biXm.
- 1. We calculate the corrected spectrum msc=()/Ximsc=(Xi-ai)/bi"

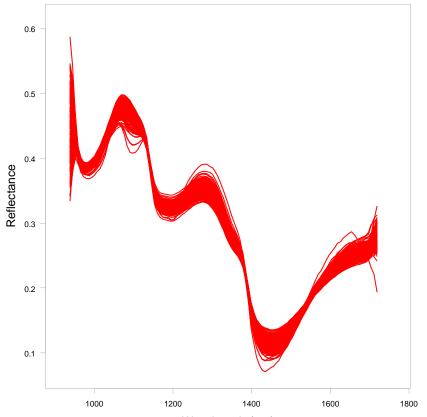
Source:https://nirpyresearch.com/two-scatter-correction-techniques-nir-spectroscopy-python/



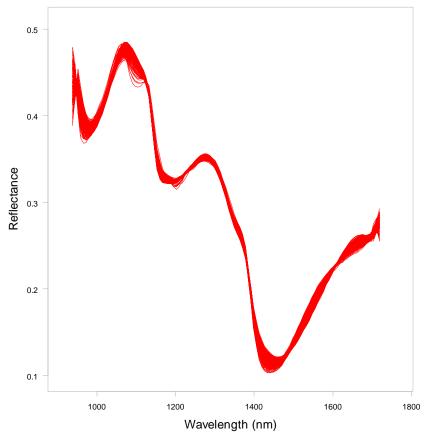




After MSC

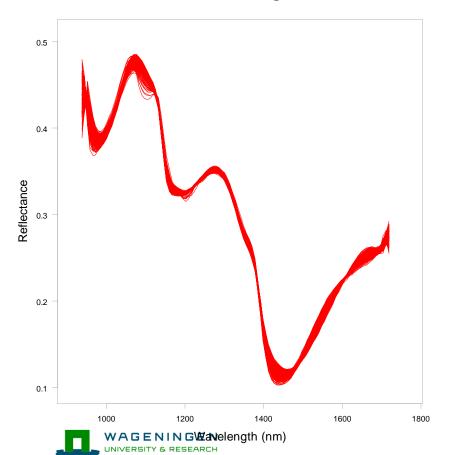


After EMSC, degree=6

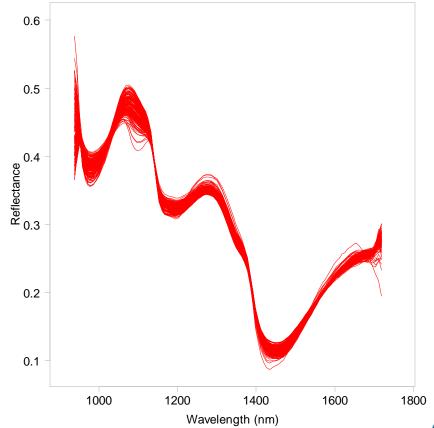


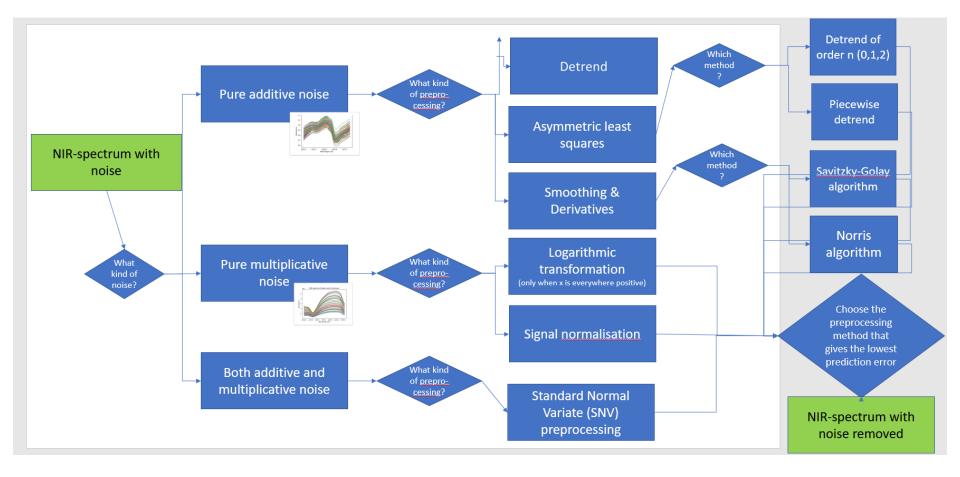


After EMSC, degree=6



After EMSC, degree=2







Part 4: Feature selection methods

"Aristotle: Nature operates in the shortest way possible"



Feature selection



Increasing the number of variables:

Introduces unnecessary NOISE for discrimination, especially if they are strongly correlated

Carries a risk of OVERFITTING the models

Using a simple model with few variables has a better chance of being generalized to a new sample than a model with hundreds of variables, which may fit the training set perfectly well but has limited generalization power

3 Approaches:

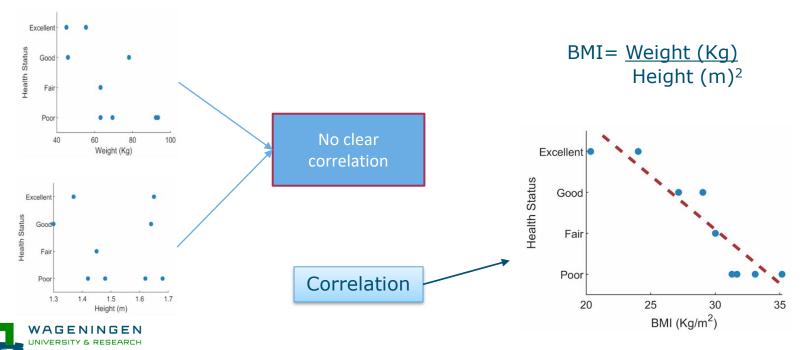
- 1. Variable Transformation and/or Selection
- 2. Discretization
- 3. Group Summary

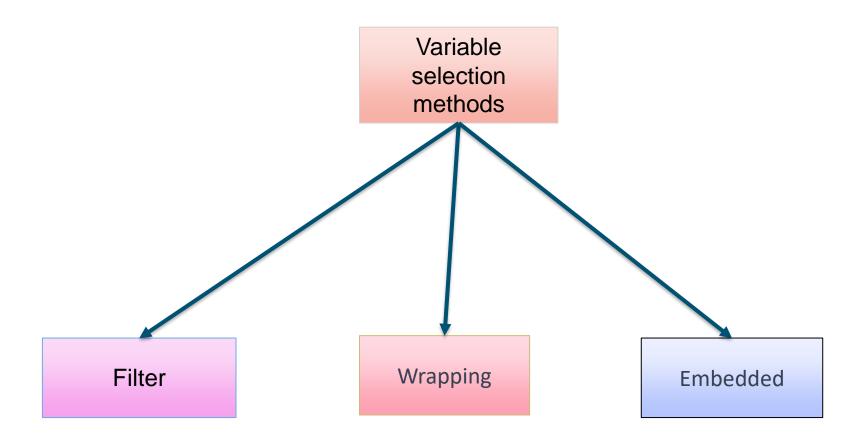


Variable transformation

This involves applying an equation to existing variables to create a new feature

Example: Is it possible to accurately classify the health status of each individual from the original variables of age, height, weight and location?

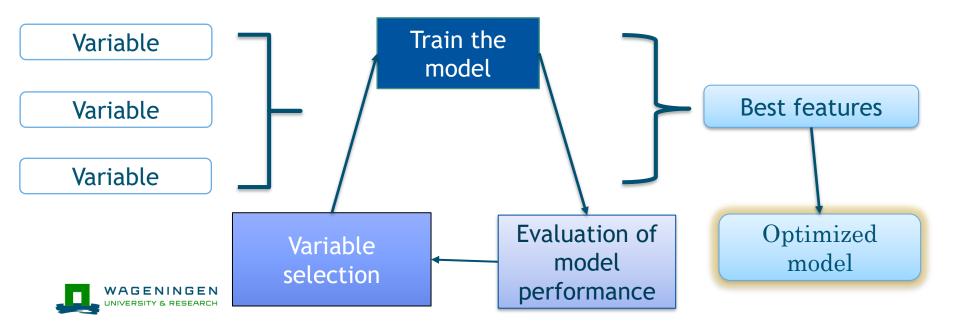






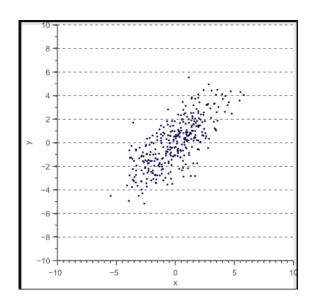
Wrapping methods

These variable selection methods depend on model performance. It is an iterative process of back and forth, where the chosen features are evaluated in relation to the final model performance in sequential stages.



Covariance

- ☐ Indicates the degree of joint variation between two random variables with respect to their means
- ☐ It can be used to understand the direction of the relationship between two variables
- ☐ The correlation coefficient is equal to the covariance divided by the product of the standard deviations of the variables

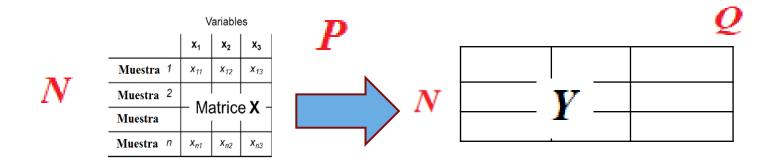


$$Cov(X,Y) = \frac{\sum_{1}^{n}(x_{i} - \bar{x})(y_{i} - \bar{y})}{n}$$



Wrapping method: Covariance selection (CovSel)

In each iteration, one variable **X** is selected on a criterion of the maximization of the covariances with **Y**



Once the variable with the highest covariance is isolated and selected, all other predictive factors and responses are orthogonalized with respect to it, and the process is repeated until the fixed number of variables has been selected



Covariance selection (CovSel)

The selected variables from X should have:

- □ Good predictive power for Y
- □ The highest possible variability

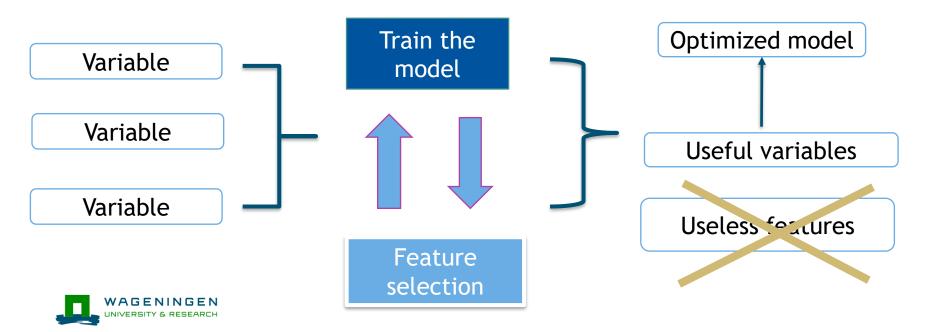
CovSel can be applied to the problem of discrimination considering indicator variables as responses



Embedded methods

They automatically perform feature selection as part of the model training

The result is a trained model that highlights the useful features and disregards the rest

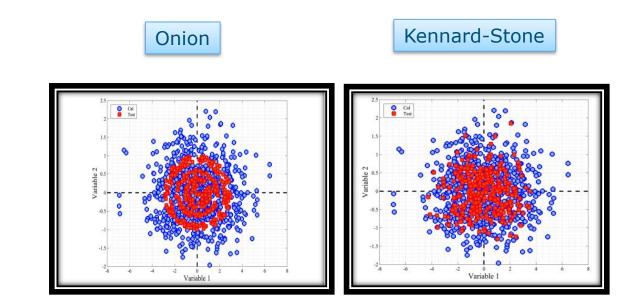


Part 5: Cross validation and Data Split



Some methods for the selection of Representative Learning and Test Sets

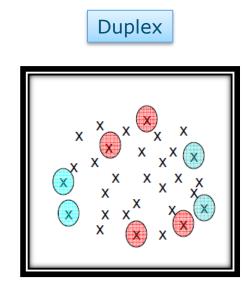
- Randomly
- Kernnand Stone
- Onion
- Duplex
- Reducennsamples

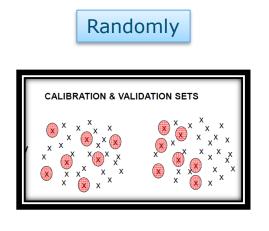




Some methods for the selection of Representative Learning and Test Sets

- Randomly
- Kernnand Stone
- Onion
- Duplex
- Reducennsamples





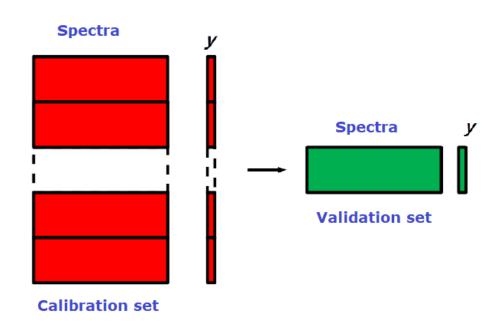


Cross validation

Leave One Out: Over-estimates the predictive capacity of the model



Use only when data set has few samples





Part 6: Discrimination (PLSDA)



Principles and Objectives of Discrimination

- We have a data matrix (nxp) where n samples
 were measured for p quantitative variables, and a vector Y
 of size n measured on the same samples
- This vector represents the membership of each sample to each class K
- Each class contains at least one sample, and each sample belongs to a single class



Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis

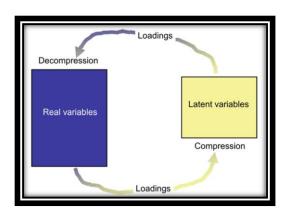
- Objective: To achieve a linear transformation that maps the data into a lowerdimensional space with the least possible error
- Supervised version of PCA
- In PCA, the transformation preserves (in its first principal component) the maximum possible variation in the original data
- In PLS-DA, the transformation preserves (in its first principal component) the maximum possible covariance between the original data and their labeling

Both can be described as iterative processes in which the error term is used to define the next principal component



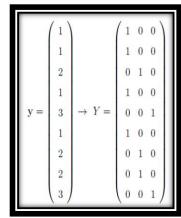
Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis

- It consists of a classical PLS regression where the response variable is a category expressing the membership of samples in classes
- The relevant sources of data variability are modeled by the Latent Variables (LVs) which are linear combinations of the original variables



A fictitious matrix (Y) that records membership with 1s and 0s is combined with a spectral set (X), and PLS is implemented in the normal manner





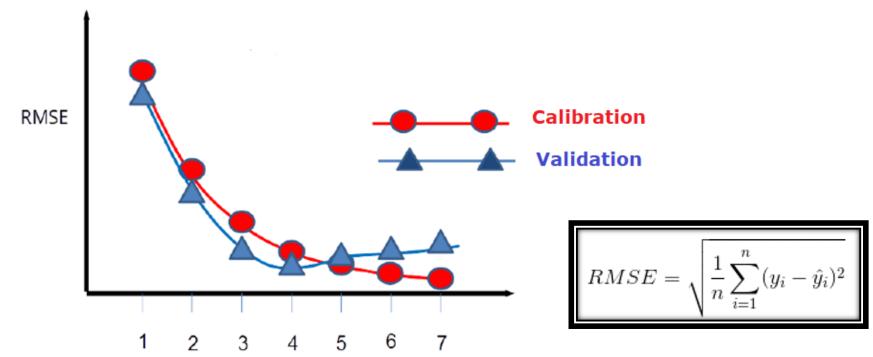


Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis

- PLS-DA provides estimated values for each sample and for each class.
- These values will not be exactly 1 or 0; however, if the calculated y is closer to 0, then the sample likely does not belong to that class, while a value closer to 1 would indicate the opposite
- To make a class assignment, a **threshold** can be defined for each class
- Thresholds can be calculated on the basis of the Bayes theorem



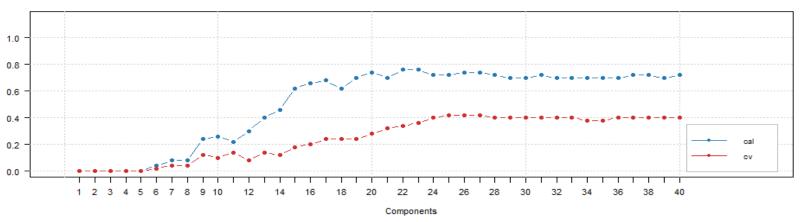
Study of Error as a Function of Dimensionality



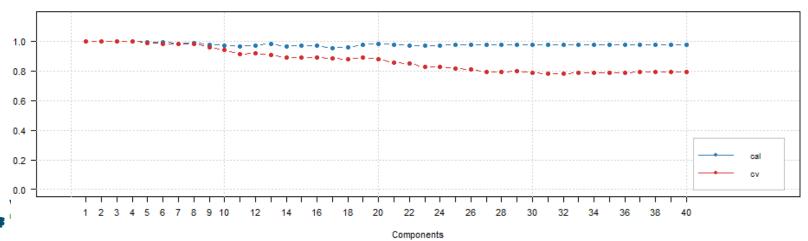
Number of Latent Variables in the PLS model

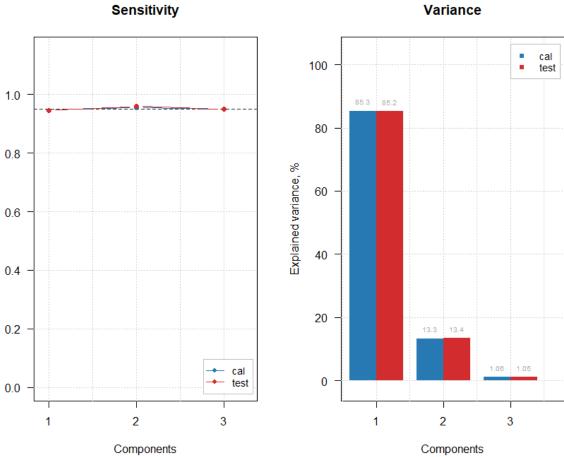














Part 7: Hands on data



Hands on data: R code

https://github.com/MMBDD/Serbia

| Name | Functionality | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| OutlierDetection.R: NEEDED | Removes outliers Averages Spectra from the same Sepal into only One Spectrum per Sepal | | | | | | |
| GlobalModel.R: NEEDED | Creates PLSDA Classification models with different number of important variables as input for PLSDA | | | | | | |
| PLSDA.R: OPTIONAL | Creates PLSDA Classification models with optimized parameters using Rchemo | | | | | | |
| PLSDAmdatools.R: OPTIONAL | Creates PLSDA and SIMCA Classification models using mdatools | | | | | | |
| MSC.R: OPTIONAL | Pretreats raw data and plots the results | | | | | | |



Description of initial datasets

| Cultivar name/ number of | Pixels per sepal | Sepals per tomato | Tomatoes per image | Images | Spectra in the initial dataset | Spectra in the averaged dataset | Variables |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|--------|---|--|-----------|
| Provine | Between 119 and 90 | 5 or 6 | 16 | 2 | 16156 | 159 | 112 |
| Brioso | Between 45 and 53 | 5 or 6 | 32 | 1 | 6497 | 164 | 112 |
| Cappricia | Between 81 and 124 | 5 or 6 | 16 | 2 | 12816 | 165 | 112 |



Number of spectra in each class (Healthy: Class 1; Diseased: Class 2) when dataset was split according to different labelling scenarios (Label 1: 0/123; Label 2: 01/23 and Label 3: 0.5/123).

| Cultivar | n | Label 1 | | Label 2 | | Label 3 | |
|-----------|-----|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|----------|
| | | Healthy | Diseased | Healthy | Diseased | Healthy | Diseased |
| Cappricia | 163 | 139 | 24 | 85 | 78 | 117 | 46 |
| Brioso | 153 | 145 | 8 | 78 | 75 | 126 | 27 |
| Provine | 152 | 137 | 15 | 72 | 80 | 129 | 23 |



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Thank you for your attention

Please, open your R studio!

Any questions or comments?

