Near Infra-Red Spectroscopy Predicts Crude Protein in Hemp Grain

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Abstract

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**incomplete: may contain errors, run-ons, half-thoughts, etc.**

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Hemp (Cannabis sativa L.) is an annual crop with potential uses as a source of food or feed from grain, and bast fiber or hurd from the stalk. Hemp cultivars are commonly grown for one or both purposes and a cultivar may be referred to as a grain, fiber, or dual-purpose type. Because of protein’s nutritional importance, the protein content of a grain crop is an prime consideration for researchers, producers, and consumers. Whole hemp grain typically contains approximately 20-30% protein (Bárta et al., 2024; Callaway, 2004; Ely & Fike, 2022). Crude protein (CP) is often used as a proxy for the direct measurement of protein concentration and consists of the multiplication of nitrogen concentration by a conversion factor because measuring nitrogen concentration is relatively simple (Hayes, 2020).

Near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) technology is rapid, non-destructive, and cheap. It consists of the measurement of NIR radiation reflected and absorbed from a sample (the spectra) and the relation of the spectra to laboratory values for components such as moisture, protein, fat, or fiber (Roberts et al., 2004). NIRS technology has been used since the 1970’s to assess forage CP (Reeves, 2012; Williams, 1975). A NIRS calibration set often consists of samples from one species grown in many environments encompassing the range of expected values from the analyte or analytes (Chadalavada et al., 2022). Partial least squares regression (PLSR) is a typical method used in the agricultural and food sciences to relate spectra to analyte (Roberts et al., 2004). PLSR calculates components that maximize covariance between predictor and response variables. PLSR uses some number of components, often selected via cross-validation, in order to fit the regression model and is commonly used in spectroscopy because it tends to work well with highly-correlated, noisy spectral data (Wold et al., 2001).

A NIRS-scanned sample of undamaged grain may used for other purposes besides its scan or it may planted as a seed. In wheat and corn, grain protein content has been shown to be heritable (Geyer et al., 2022; Giancaspro et al., 2019). This suggests (at least potentially) that NIRS technology could serve as resource to rapidly identify high CP hemp germplasm, enabling the screening of more germplam as grain, before planting to the field, and thus enabling the more efficient development of high CP hemp grain cultivars.

For this study, a benchtop NIR spectrometer was used to develop a model to predict CP content based on a data set of hemp grain representing multiple years, locations, and cultivars from grain and dual-purpose hemp types using PLSR.

## 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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### 2.1 Hemp Grain Sample Background

Spectral data were obtained from whole (unground) hemp grain samples, harvested at maturity, collected from 2017 - 2021 from 18 cultivar trials in New York (NY) (NA samples). Grain samples were obtained by hand sampling or mechanical harvest and were cleaned of chaff and dried at 30 C for six days in a forced-air dryer. In total, 38 cultivars were represented in the data set. Cultivars were grain or dual-purpose types and included both commercially available and experimental material.

All cultivar trials were planted in randomized complete block design with each cultivar replicated four times. The 2017 data were comprised of samples from the same thirteen cultivars sampled from six NY locations. For those trials, grain was harvested from each plot individually and aggregated by cultivar within each trial. Four subsamples were drawn from each aggregated sample and scanned separately. These spectra were averaged at each 2 nm increment. All remaining samples from 2018-2021 were collected on a per-plot basis. All possible cultivars and possible locations were represented in 2017, but only a selected subset of cultivars and locations were represented in 2018-2021.

### 2.2 Spectral Data Collection and Preprocessing

A benchtop NIR spectrometer (FOSS/ NIR FOSS/ NIR Systems model 5000) was used to obtain the spectra (FOSS North America, Eden Prairie, MN, USA). Spectra were collected every 2 nm from 1100-2498 nm and the logarithm of reciprocal reflectance was recorded. A 1/4 rectangular sample cup (5.7 cm × 4.6 cm) was used.

WINISI software version 1.02A (Infrasoft International, Port Matilda, PA, USA) was used to average the spectra in 2017, as well as to select samples for laboratory assay. Samples were selected according to their spectral distance from their nearest neighbor within the calibration data set with a cutoff of a distance of 0.6 H, where H is approximately equal to the squared Mahalanobis distance divided by the number of principal components used in the calculation (Garrido-Varo et al., 2019). Prior to selection selection, spectra were preprocessed using SNV-detrend with settings 1,4,4,1 for the derivative, gap, smooth, and smooth 2 settings respectively.

### 2.3 Laboratory Validation

Laboratory assays were performed by Dairy One Forage Laboratory (Ithaca, NY). For those assays, 1mm ground samples were analyzed by combustion using a CN628 or CN928 Carbon/Nitrogen Determinator. Samples from 2017 were aggregated as described above, but the remaining samples were not aggregated.

### 2.4 Model Development

Calibration and validations sets were created by dividing the laboratory CP values into tertiles according to their percent CP in order to ensure that the range of CP values was present in both calibration and testing sets. Within each tertile, 75% of the samples were randomly assigned to the calibration set and the remaining 25% were assigned to the testing set. For each calibration set, models were developed in the caret package using PLSR. In fitting the model, the number of components was optimized over a grid search from 1-20. Model performance was evaluated with 25 iterations of bootstrapping and minimized root mean squared error (RMSE) in selecting the number of components in the final model.

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Initially a number of common spectral preprocessing methods were tested by creating 100 calibration and testing sets, as described above. Spectral data from those data sets were transformed by each of the following methods: 1) first derivative, 2) Savitzky-Golay (SG) using the first derivative, third order polynomial, and a window of size 5, 3) gap-segment derivative using the first derivative, a gap of eleven, and a segment size of 5, 4) standard normal variate (SNV), 5) standard normal variate following Savitzky-Golay (SNV-SG) (same SG parameters as above), 6) SNV-detrend with second order polynomial, and 7) multiplicative scatter correction. For comparison, models were also developed using untransformed spectra.

For each of these preprocessing methods, models were fit and predictions were made on the corresponding validation set (since there were 8 preprocessing methods, 8 separate models were fit for each of the 100 sets. The relationship between the predicted and actual values of the test set were calculated via RMSE, coefficient of determination (R2), relative predicted deviation (RPD), and Ratio of Performance to InterQuartile distance (RPIQ), four common model assessment metrics. Larger R2, RPD and RPIQ values and smaller RMSE values are best. The answer to the question of exactly which values constitute a “good” model varies depending upon the reference consulted, but for simplicity’s sake we searched for a model with R2 > 0.80, an RPD greater than 2.5 and ideally greater than 3 (“good” to “excellent” quantitative prediction), and an RPIQ greater than 2.3 but ideally greater than 4.1. (Chadalavada et al., 2022; Luce et al., 2017; Rawal et al., 2024).

Analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed for each of these metrics in order to compare the preprocessing methods. For each ANOVA, each data set was considered as a subject and different variances were allowed for each preprocessing method. Once the most promising preprocessing method was identified, 1000 more data sets were created and analyzed via that method and performance on the testing sets was summarized with RMSE, R2, RPD, and RPIQ. The pattern of errors, expressed as the difference between the actual and predicted values for a given sample, was examined.

### 2.5 Additional software used

We used R version 4.3.3 (R Core Team, 2024) and the following R packages: caret v. 6.0.94 (Kuhn & Max, 2008), data.table v. 1.15.2 (Barrett et al., 2024), emmeans v. 1.10.0 (Lenth, 2024), nlme v. 3.1.163 (J. Pinheiro et al., 2023; J. C. Pinheiro & Bates, 2000), pls v. 2.8.3 (Liland et al., 2023), prospectr v. 0.2.7 (Stevens & Ramirez-Lopez, 2024), skimr v. 2.1.5 (Waring et al., 2022), tidymodels v. 1.1.1 (Kuhn & Wickham, 2020), tidyverse v. 2.0.0 (Wickham et al., 2019).

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## 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 3.1 Laboratory assay CP values

Laboratory assay percent CP values are summarized in the following table. These are similar to the range of CP values observed in the literature, indicating an reasonable basis for a chemometric model. The CP values are left-skewed and two thirds of the samples contained more than 25% CP.

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| Table 1: Summary of Laboratory Assayed CP Values (Percent Dry Matter)   | Mean | Sd | Minimum | First Quartile | Median | Third Quartile | Maximum | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | 26.1 | 2.5 | 20.8 | 23.9 | 26.4 | 28.2 | 30.8 | |

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### 3.2 Preprocessing methods comparison

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All preprocessing methods outperformed untransformed spectral data [Table 2](#tbl-preproc). Averaged together, all preprocessed spectra were superior to untransformed spectra, with lower RMSE, and higher R2, RPD and RPIQ values (significant at level <0.001). Preprocessing methods had -11.6 % lower RMSE, and had 3.1% higher R2, 6.3% higher RPD and7.4% higher RPIQ than unprocessed spectra. Preprocessed spectra also had lower standard errors than untransformed spectra.

The SNV-SG method had the lowest RMSE and the highest R2, RPD and RPIQ averaging over all iterations. SNV-SG RMSE averaged 1.4% lower, while R2, RPD, and RPIQ averaged 0.4%, 2.1%, and 2.4% higher respectively than the next best preprocessing method (SG in both cases), but the differences between the best and second best methods by metric were only statistically significant at <0.05 for RPD andRPIQ. There is a long history of using RPD to evaluate chemometric models although the statistic has been criticized as inadequately reflecting the distribution of skewed populations, a situation for which RPIQ was the more modern successor (Bellon-Maurel et al., 2010). Here the data were somewhat but not heavily skewed and RPD and RPIQ metrics were in agreement. The superiority of SNV-SG by these metrics made it the best choice for the final model.

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| Table 2: Evaluation of Preprocessing Methods by Metric ± Standard Error   | Preprocessing Method | RMSE |  | RPD | RPIQ | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | Standard Normal Variate following Savitzky-Golay | 1.02 ± 0.012 | 0.84 ± 0.004 | 2.49 ± 0.032 | 3.97 ± 0.076 | | Savitzky-Golay | 1.03 ± 0.012 | 0.83 ± 0.004 | 2.44 ± 0.029 | 3.88 ± 0.072 | | First Derivative | 1.07 ± 0.013 | 0.82 ± 0.004 | 2.36 ± 0.032 | 3.77 ± 0.075 | | Standard Normal Variate | 1.12 ± 0.016 | 0.80 ± 0.005 | 2.26 ± 0.036 | 3.61 ± 0.081 | | Gap-segment Derivative | 1.12 ± 0.018 | 0.81 ± 0.006 | 2.26 ± 0.040 | 3.60 ± 0.086 | | Standard Normal Variate-Detrend | 1.13 ± 0.015 | 0.80 ± 0.005 | 2.22 ± 0.035 | 3.55 ± 0.079 | | Multiplicative Scatter Correction | 1.17 ± 0.016 | 0.79 ± 0.006 | 2.17 ± 0.035 | 3.47 ± 0.080 | | Untransformed Spectra | 1.22 ± 0.044 | 0.79 ± 0.009 | 2.17 ± 0.052 | 3.42 ± 0.105 | |

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These results are not surprising. SNV and SNV-detrend both correct light scatter, which is often a function of differences in particle size and sample packing density, although SNV-detrend is often used for densely-packed, powdered samples (Barnes et al., 1989). SG is a smoothing filter that regresses on the signal over a series of windows, removing noise while preserving the signal’s shape and features (Li et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2005). Derivatives, here including SG, gap-segment, and first derivatives pretreatments may remove additive and multiplicative effects, but not necessarily light scatter; as well, derivatives may increase spectral noise (Rinnan et al., 2009). Here, hemp grain was neither powdered nor densely packed but samples were subject to light scatter and noise due to differences in particle size in the grain.

The preprocessing methods examined represent a portion of those available. As well, these methods tend to have a number of user-adjustable parameters whose various permutations were not tested. This subset of preprocessing methods and parameters nonetheless contained substantial variations in model quality, demonstrating the importance of selecting an appropriate preprocessing method.

### 3.3 Final model development and summary

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The model improved most rapidly as the number of components increased from 1 to 7, with the inclusion of each additional component being associated with a decrease in RMSE of 5-12% . From 8 to 12 components, model performance continued to improve, although gains were more modest (there was a decrease in RMSE of 0.7-3% with the inclusion of each additional component). With 13 or more components, performance gains were minimal and the relative ranks of the models tended to be stable [Figure 1](#fig-model-calibration).

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| Figure 1: Decreasing RMSE with increasing number of PCs |

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Final models performances on the test sets were similar, but not identical to, that obtained during the initial comparison of preprocessing methods. The final models’ mean RMSE was 1.03, R2 was 0.83, RPD was 2.44, and RPIQ was 3.89. Five percent of the models were excellent by both metrics, with RPD > 3 and RPIQ > 4.1, while an additional 11% of the models were “good” by both metrics (RPD range from 2.5 - 3.0, RPIQ range from 2.3 - 4.1). Forty-nine percent of the models had the ability to approximate quantitative prediction (RPD range from 2.0 - 2.5), and 9% of the models were able to distinguish between higher and lower CP values (RPD range from 1.5 - 2.0). Therefore, 74% of the models generated here had, at minimum, the ability to distinguish between high and low values with with two thirds of them having, at minimum, the ability to approximate quantitative prediction. Despite the generally good model performance, a subset of poor models can be seen. For example, [Figure 2](#fig-final-metric-boxplot) shows twenty-one models with R2 below 0.7.

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| Figure 2: Final model test set performance (1000 iterations) |

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Finally, the pattern of test set errors was examined on a per-sample basis [Figure 3](#fig-validation_set_performance) .

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| Figure 3: Test set prediction errors on a per-sample basis. Actual sample value set to 0, and samples ranked from least to greatest actual % CP value |

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To assess the patterns of errors within the models, a linear model was fit considering the mean estimated error for each sample considering all models where that sample was in the test set when compared to the sample’s actual value. The models overestimated %CP by approximately 0.5 % in the lowest tertile and underestimated %CP by -0.01 % and -0.41 % in the middle and highest tertile, respectively

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This study is limited in that it represents the creation of one model based upon spectra collected from one machine. NIRS calibrations can be unique to a particular machine, even if the machines compared are of the same model (Reeves, 2012). As well, the calibration and validation sets are relatively small.

This research showed the promise of the use of NIRS in order to make predictions concerning %CP in hemp grain using PLS. Promising preprocessing methods were identified and a model was validated. Further research could refine a CP model by including more samples, identifying promising spectral regions, or by examining other predictive methods.

## 4 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

## 5 SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

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| Table 3: Tally of hemp cultivars and locations. Private cultivars are labeled “cultivar1”, “cultivar2”, etc.   | cultivar2 | chazy | freeville | geneva | ithaca | willsboro | Total | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | altair |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | anka |  | 1 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 11 | | bialobrzeskie |  | 1 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 9 | | canda |  | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | 3 | | cfx-1 |  | 1 | 2 | 5 |  | 8 | | cfx-2 |  | 1 | 2 | 4 |  | 7 | | crs-1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 5 |  | 9 | | cultivar1 |  | 1 |  |  |  | 1 | | cultivar2 |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | cultivar3 |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | cultivar4 |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | earlina 8 |  |  | 1 |  |  | 1 | | experimental1 |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | experimental2 |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | felina 32 |  | 1 | 2 | 3 |  | 6 | | futura 75 |  | 1 | 3 | 4 |  | 8 | | grandi |  | 3 | 3 | 4 |  | 10 | | h-51 |  |  | 1 | 2 |  | 3 | | han-fn-h |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | han-nw |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 | | helena |  | 1 |  |  |  | 1 | | henola |  |  |  | 2 |  | 2 | | hlesia |  |  |  | 3 |  | 3 | | hliana |  |  | 1 | 1 |  | 2 | | joey |  | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | 3 | | katani |  | 2 | 3 | 4 |  | 9 | | nebraska (feral) | 1 |  |  | 1 |  | 2 | | pewter river |  | 1 |  |  |  | 1 | | picolo |  | 1 | 2 | 5 |  | 8 | | portugal |  |  | 1 |  |  | 1 | | rocky hemp |  |  | 1 |  |  | 1 | | sterling gold |  |  | 1 |  |  | 1 | | swift | 1 | 1 |  | 1 |  | 3 | | tygra |  | 1 | 3 | 4 |  | 8 | | uso-31 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 4 |  | 9 | | wojko |  | 1 | 3 | 4 |  | 8 | | x-59 |  | 2 |  | 1 |  | 3 | | Total | 5 | 24 | 41 | 76 | 3 | 149 | |

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## 6 OPTIONAL SECTIONS

## 7 REFERENCES

## 8 FIGURES AND TABLES

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| Figure 4: Timeline of recent earthquakes on La Palma |

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Based on data up to and including 1971, eruptions on La Palma happen every 79.8 years on average.

Studies of the magma systems feeding the volcano, such as (**marrero2019?**), have proposed that there are two main magma reservoirs feeding the Cumbre Vieja volcano; one in the mantle (30-40km depth) which charges and in turn feeds a shallower crustal reservoir (10-20km depth).

Eight eruptions have been recorded since the late 1400s ([Figure 4](#fig-timeline)).

Data and methods are discussed in [Section 9](#sec-data-methods).

Let denote the number of eruptions in a year. Then, can be modeled by a Poisson distribution

where is the rate of eruptions per year. Using [Equation 1](#eq-poisson), the probability of an eruption in the next years can be calculated.

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| Table 4: Recent historic eruptions on La Palma   | Name | Year | | --- | --- | | Current | 2021 | | Teneguía | 1971 | | Nambroque | 1949 | | El Charco | 1712 | | Volcán San Antonio | 1677 | | Volcán San Martin | 1646 | | Tajuya near El Paso | 1585 | | Montaña Quemada | 1492 | |

[Table 4](#tbl-history) summarises the eruptions recorded since the colonization of the islands by Europeans in the late 1400s.

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| Figure 5: Map of La Palma |

La Palma is one of the west most islands in the Volcanic Archipelago of the Canary Islands ([Figure 5](#fig-map)).

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| Figure 6: Locations of earthquakes on La Palma since 2017 |

Source: [Explore Earthquakes](https://rvcrawford.github.io/glowing-system/notebooks/explore-earthquakes-preview.html#cell-fig-spatial-plot)

[Figure 6](#fig-spatial-plot) shows the location of recent Earthquakes on La Palma.

## 9 Data & Methods

## 10 Conclusion

## References

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