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21

Data analysis and signal processing in chromatography

ATTILA FELINGER



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Data Analysis and Signal Processing in Chromatography

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Preface

Nowadays substantial time of the analytical chemists is spent in front of their computer comprehending the data their instruments produced. A continuously broadening spectrum of mathematical and statistical methods is applied for data evaluation in analytical chemistry.

Numerical analysis of chromatograms is in the focal point of this volume, but most of the chemometric methods described here are not specific to chromatography and related separation techniques.

I have been guided by the goal of giving explanation of those problems that are cardinal in the numerical treatment of chromatograms. Thus, most emphasis is given to peak shape analysis, signal enhancement, and resolution enhancement to strengthen both quantitative and qualitative analyses.

This book was typeset by the author with the public-domain $\mathbb{E}T_E X 2_{\mathcal{E}}$ typesetting package. Most figures were produced by the also public-domain *gnuplot* package. I appreciate that the developers of $T_E X$ and $\mathbb{E}T_E X 2_{\mathcal{E}}$ packages made these outstanding pieces of software publicly accessible. It was a delight for me that the anonymous $T_E X$ community out there offered solutions to all the problems I struggled with when "setting the type."

I thank FRANCESCO DONDI for his encouragement to launch the project of writing this book; we started to establish the outline of this volume together, and he always followed the development of this work.

I am greatly indebted to GEORGES GUIOCHON for his valuable comments and help; I appreciate that during my stayings in his laboratory at the University of Tennessee, I could spend countless hours in the fabulous Hodges Library collecting material for this book.

My endeavor to write a book on the signal processing techniques applied in chromatography started as a two-year project—four years ago. On one hand, my pace let me include some very fresh developments published in this field, therefore the reader may even benefit from this. On the other hand, I couldn't agree more with the following lines of A. A. Milne: The fact is this is more difficult than I thought, I ought— (Very good indeed) I ought To begin again But it is easier To stop. (The House at Pooh Corner)

Veszprém, March, 1998

Attila Felinger

Introduction

If we believe that The Purpose of Computing is Insight, Not Numbers, then it follows that the man who is to get the insight must understand the computing. ...It is sometimes suggested that the motto be revised to, The Purpose of Computing Numbers is Not Yet in Sight. (R. W. Hamming, Numerical Methods for Scientists and Engineers, Dover, 1973)

Signal processing and data analysis are of increasing importance in analytical chemistry. During the past decades, chemometric techniques encountered an enormous development. The computer-connected modern analytical instruments available nowadays offer an enormous, easy-access possibility to enhance the information available from the zillions of recorded data.

Although commercial software packages offer a variety of data manipulation algorithms, users often regard these software packages as black boxes. Because vendors do not feel like supplying detailed information on how the software packages do whatever they do, the analyst has to trust that the manipulated data are reliable. Therefore, it is essential that one realize how information beyond conventional results can be deduced from chromatograms and other instrumental signals.

The goal of this work is to summarize what types of data and signal analysis techniques can be applied to chromatograms, and related instrumental signals. In this respect, not the full spectrum of chemometrics is discussed in detail here, while some other techniques that do not really fit into the definition of chemometrics¹, but are important in chromatographic data analysis are also addressed.

¹ Note that there exist several definitions for chemometrics. At birth, the following definition was given by Wold "The art of extracting chemically relevant information from data produced in chemical experiments is given the name of *chemometrics*" [1].

According to Massart [2], chemometrics is the chemical discipline that uses mathematical, statistical and other methods employing formal logic *(i)* to design or select optimal measurement procedures and experiments, and *(ii)* to provide maximum rel-

The different topics of data analysis and signal processing are discussed in this book according to the following structure.

In Chapter 2, some preliminary mathematics, necessary to conceive the fundamentals of data analysis, is summarized.

The physical-chemical background of the chromatographic process is explained in Chapter 3, by means of different models of chromatography. It is important to understand what the most common peak shapes and the reasons of peak asymmetry are in order to exploit information by peak shape analysis.

Chapter 4 discusses how the analog signal supplied by the detector can be translated into a digital signal that can be stored and processed by a computer.

Besides the physical models of chromatography, a multitude of empirical peak shape models are available; those models, peak shape analysis, and the characterization of peak asymmetry are the subject of Chapter 5.

In Chapter 6, the origin and characteristics of the baseline noise, as well as different definitions for signal-to-noise ratio are discussed.

Chapter 7 enlists the methods of signal enhancement: filtering in time and in Fourier domains are both very significant. Different techniques are compared for filtering high- and low-frequency noise.

Detection of chromatographic peaks, *i.e.* the location of peaks; determination of the precise starting point and end point of each peak must be emphasized especially in the case of tailing peaks. This is the topic of Chapter 8.

The simple methods of peak area determination are based on graphical means. The discussion of the different graphical and numerical integration strategies gives hints on using the integrator software. The precision and accuracy of quantitative analysis is also addressed in Chapter 9.

The recognition of overlapping peaks, the limit resolutions (shoulder and detectability limits) are important in order to identify fused peaks. Resolution techniques as curve fitting or deconvolution of band broadening effects are described in Chapter 10. Those methods can simply be used to isolate the contribution of different phenomena to peak broadening and distortion. Deconvolution of overlapping peaks are more advanced numerical techniques to quantify overlapping peaks. Fourier domain deconvolution, constrained iterative relaxation, curve fitting, Kalman filtering and other methods are explained.

Multivariate techniques of signal processing have been rapidly developing since the availability of diode array detectors and other hyphenated techniques. Software packages using them can be found in many commercial instruments. Multivariate techniques are rather useful in detecting peak homogeneity or minor impurities. In Chapter 11, factor analysis and other multivariate methods are addressed.

Chapter 12 reveals some numerical tricks for those who are interested in numerical errantry with Fourier transforms. Transform techniques other than

evant chemical information by analyzing chemical data.

The International Chemometrics Society offers the following definition: "Chemometrics is the science of relating measurements made on a chemical system or process to the state of the system via application of mathematical or statistical methods." Fourier are also discussed in that chapter.

The application of information theory and the concept of entropy are the subject of Chapter 13.

Quality issues are addressed in Chapter 14, with the description of the errors of analysis. Validation of the chromatographic instrument and method is also summarized.

The last part of the book is devoted to multicomponent chromatograms. By the help of the statistical theory of peak overlap, the probability of having singlets, doublets, etc. can be judged, which is very important during method development. On the other hand, from a single chromatogram, we can estimate the number of detectable components. These novel techniques are the subject of Chapter 15.

Further methods for the analysis of multicomponent chromatograms—by Fourier analysis—are described in Chapter 16. Utilizing the power spectrum of multicomponent chromatograms—besides the number of components—the peak shape parameters, and also the retention pattern can be determined. This latter is very useful in determining the amount of order and disorder in the sample.

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Mathematical background

There is a famous formula—perhaps the most compact and famous of all formulas—developed by Euler from a discovery of De Moivre: $e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$It appeals equally to the mystic, the scientist, the philosopher, the mathematician. (Edward Kasner and James Newman, *Mathematics and the Imagination*, 1940)

In this chapter, the fundamental mathematics of signal and data analysis is considered. It is beyond the scope of this volume to give an extensive explanation of the complete mathematical background of signal and data analysis. Detailed description of the mathematical treatment can be found in mathematical and statistical textbooks¹. Only a summary of the necessary mathematical principles is addressed here.

Most analytical signals are of transient type, or they can simply be transformed into a transient signal by integration or differentiation. Therefore, various aspects of probability theory are widely applied to describe peak shapes, statistical moments are used to characterize peak asymmetry. Accordingly, the properties of random variables and random signals, as well as the fundamentals of Fourier analysis are the subject of this chapter.

2.1 Random variables

The value of a random variable cannot be predicted, only a probability of the event can be given that the random variable takes a value. To characterize a random variable, first we have to know what values the random variable can take. Furthermore, we have to know how often a given value is taken by the

¹See, for instance, references [1–5] for excellent introduction into probability theory. Detailed explanation of the Fourier methods can be found in [6–9]. Random processes and stochastic methods are addressed, for example, in [10–13].

random variable. Distribution functions describe what the probability of a given value is.

P(X = a) denotes the probability that the random variable X takes the numerical value a. The probability *distribution function* of X describes the following probability

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) \tag{2.1}$$

F(x) is also known as cumulative distribution function. In order to completely describe a random variable, we have to know its probability distribution function.

The probability that $a \le X \le b$ is calculated by

$$P(a \le X \le b) = F(b) - F(a)$$
 (2.2)

Since probabilities are nonnegative numbers, if a < b the following inequality will hold

$$F(a) \le F(b) \tag{2.3}$$

Accordingly, the distribution function of a random variable is a nondecreasing function. Furthermore, the following limits can be established for a distribution function

$$0 \le F(x) \le 1 \tag{2.4}$$

being $F(-\infty) = 0$ and $F(\infty) = 1$.

If the random variable can only take a finite number of numerical values, it is a *discrete random variable*, otherwise it is a *continuous random variable*. A discrete random variable is for instance the number of detectable peaks in a multicomponent separation. The area of a given peak in repeated analyses is a continuous random variable.

2.1.1 Discrete variables

Let us assume that a discrete random variable *X* can take the $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ values with the probability of $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$, *i.e.*

$$P(X = x_i) = p_i$$
 $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ (2.5)

The distribution function of a discrete variable is defined as

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{x_i \le x} p_i$$
(2.6)

From the above equation follows that the total probability for all the n discrete values is unity

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1$$
 (2.7)

The distribution function of a discrete random variable is a step function. It is constant for any interval not containing an x_i , and the height of the step at x_i is p_i . Figure 2.1 shows the distribution function and the frequency function of a discrete variable.



FIGURE 2.1 Distribution function (upper) and frequency function (lower) of a discrete variable.

2.1.2 Continuous variables

A random variable is continuous if the probability distribution can be described by a function f(x) which is everywhere continuous. The probability of the event that the random variable takes a value within the infinitesimal narrow interval (x, x + dx) is f(x) dx. f(x) is the *frequency function*, or *probability density function* of the random variable.

The probability that the random variable *X* takes a value between $a \le X \le b$ is

$$P(a \le X \le b) = F(b) - F(a) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$
 (2.8)

From the above equation it follows that

$$F(b) = \int_{-\infty}^{b} f(x) \,\mathrm{d}x \tag{2.9}$$

From which by differentiation we get

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}F(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} = f(x) \tag{2.10}$$



FIGURE 2.2 Distribution function (upper) and frequency function (lower) of the normal distribution.

The probability density function is the derivative of the cumulative distribution function. The probability $P(-\infty < X < \infty)$, on the other hand, can be calculated as

$$P(-\infty < X < \infty) = F(\infty) - F(-\infty) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 1$$
(2.11)

Normal distribution

The normal distribution plays a central role in probability theory. Its probability density function is the Gaussian curve, which is the cardinal peak shape model in chromatography. For these reasons we shall demonstrate the properties of the continuous random variables by the example of the normal distribution.

The distribution function of a normal random variable is

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf} \frac{x - m}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}$$
(2.12)

By differentiating Equation 2.12, the probability density function is obtained

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-m)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
(2.13)

2.1.3 Expectations

The *mathematical expectation*, or mean value of the random variable *X* is denoted by $E\{X\}$. For a discrete random variable *X*, which can take the values $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ with the probability of $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$, it is calculated as

$$E\{X\} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_n p_n$$
 (2.14)

For a continuous random variable, the expectation is defined by the integral

$$E\{X\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) \,\mathrm{d}x \tag{2.15}$$

where f(x) is the probability density function of the random variable *X*.

For the expected value of the normal distribution, Equation 2.15 yields $E{X} = m$.

If X is a random variable, g(X) is a random variable, too. The expectation of g(X) is defined by the following equations for discrete and continuous random variables, respectively

$$E\{g(X)\} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i g(x_i)$$
 (2.16)

$$E\{g(X)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x) \,\mathrm{d}x \qquad (2.17)$$

A special expectation is the *variance*, for the calculation of which $g(X) = (X - E\{X\})^2$ is used in Equation 2.17

$$D^{2}(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E\{X\})^{2} f(x) dx$$
 (2.18)

The variance can also be expressed as

$$D^{2}(X) = E\{X^{2}\} - (E\{X\})^{2}$$
(2.19)

The variance is often denoted by σ^2 . The square root of the variance is $D\{X\}$, or σ , which is known as *standard deviation*.

When a random variable X is the linear combination of several random variables

$$X = a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + \dots + a_n X_n \tag{2.20}$$