

# Why is the Peak Group Analysis so effective for IR spectra analysis?

Klaus Neymeyr<sup>a,b</sup>, Christoph Kubis<sup>a</sup>, Lukas Prestin<sup>a</sup>, Robert Franke<sup>c,d</sup>, Mathias Sawall<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Universität Rostock, Institut für Mathematik, Ulmenstraße 69, 18057 Rostock, Germany

<sup>b</sup>Leibniz-Institut für Katalyse, Albert-Einstein-Straße 29a, 18059 Rostock, Germany

<sup>c</sup>Evonik Oxeno GmbH & Co. KG, Paul-Baumann Straße 1, 45772 Marl, Germany

<sup>d</sup>Lehrstuhl für Theoretische Chemie, Ruhr-Universität Bochum, Germany

---

## Abstract

Peak Group Analysis (PGA), an MCR algorithm, has proven to be very successful in extracting pure component spectra and concentration profiles from IR and Raman spectral data when investigating carbonylation reactions with transition metal catalysts. In this field of study, mixture spectra typically exhibit high spectral selectivity, meaning certain peaks belong exclusively to a single chemical species. Under this condition, PGA can extract the associated pure component spectrum from the mixture spectra, and there is no factor ambiguity in these profiles. Here, we present a short mathematical proof of this remarkable PGA property.

*Key words:* Multivariate curve resolution, Peak group analysis, Nonnegative matrix factorization

---

## 1. Peak group analysis

Peak Group Analysis [25, 26] is a multivariate curve resolution technique used to recover pure component spectra from (time-)series of mixture spectra. Given a series of  $k$  mixture spectra, each with  $n$  channels, in the form of a  $k \times n$  matrix  $D$  for a chemical system with  $s$  chemical species, the goal is to find the pure spectra  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times s}$  and the associated concentration profiles  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times s}$  such that

$$D = CS^T + E \quad (1)$$

according to the Lambert-Beer law. The matrix elements of the error matrix  $E$  are close to zero and represent the impact of noise, instrumental distortions, small deviations from strict bilinearity, and other perturbations. Many multivariate curve resolution techniques have been developed to solve the (approximate) pure component factorization problem (1), see the references [3, 4, 17, 20, 21] and many others. A major problem for any MCR technique is the factor ambiguity, or the fact that the factorization problem often has multiple solutions. These solutions can be grouped into sets of pairs of feasible factors  $(C, S)$  for which Equation (1) is satisfied. See [2, 3, 10, 17, 28] for more information on the factor ambiguity, also known as rotational ambiguity. Factor ambiguity can be reduced when additional information about the chemical system is available. Such information includes selectivity constraints, local rank conditions, the partial knowledge of some pure component profiles, kinetic models, unimodality of certain concentration profiles, among other, see for example [5–7, 16, 24], as well as the references cited within them. These conditions and factorization constraints can reduce the factor ambiguity (rotational ambiguity) even up to unique profiles. A key work on data-based uniqueness is [23] with its analysis in the framework of the Area of Feasible Solutions (AFS). See also [1, 27] and their references for an overview on related work. The present work is related to all these analyses, but does not include an analysis of the impact of optimization constraints on the factor ambiguity. Instead, we assume a full spectral selectivity for each chemical species, which implies a strong local rank assumption. The core part of this work is a simple and short proof showing that full selectivity (as defined below) is sufficient for unique pure component factors.

### 1.1. Industrial process driven application of PGA

Here, we assume spectra with relatively sharp and partially isolated peaks, some of which are caused by only a single chemical species. This situation is commonly encountered in the in situ FTIR spectral analysis of rhodium-, cobalt-, and iridium-based catalysts for the homogeneously catalyzed hydroformylation of olefines. Hydroformylation is a multi-step catalytic process. In general, carbonylation processes are large-scale industrial processes, so a detailed understanding of them is important. We found that PGA is very useful for analyzing FTIR spectroscopic data gained from such chemical reactions because it can often determine true pure component spectra without any factor ambiguity. Since our initial work with PGA [25], the method has been further developed through collaboration between research and industrial chemists and numerical mathematicians. One goal of PGA is to extract pure component

spectra of low-concentration, catalytically active species. The chemical background problem is the detailed analysis of the mechanistic and kinetic aspects of carbonylation reactions, particularly the hydroformylation process with transition metal complexes as catalysts [8, 11–14, 19, 30]. The questions concern the formation of the catalyst, the various intermediates involved in the catalytic cycle, the dormant states of the catalyst, and the decomposition of the catalyst. For these types of reaction, IR spectroscopy using a high-pressure transmission IR flow cell is a well-established and powerful technique [9]. The resulting IR spectra are characterized by many more-or-less well separated relatively sharp peaks.

## 1.2. Spectral selectivity

In situ FTIR spectroscopic data of transition metal carbonyl complexes acquired during carbonylation reactions typically shows partially isolated peaks that are caused by only a single chemical species. This situation is referred to as *spectral selectivity* in chemometrics. For more information on this concept, see the work of Kvalheim and Liang [15] and Tauler, Smilde and Kowalski [29]. Selectivity is a well-known, very strong criterion for recovering the chemically correct profiles.

Selectivity is often found in the concentration space, namely zero-concentration windows can be identified for certain chemical species. This allows the spectral data matrix to be subdivided into submatrices. Then MCR is applied to these submatrices. The reduced number of chemical species makes the subsystem problems easier to solve. Numerical rank calculations for submatrices of the full spectral data matrix support the process of finding selective regions and to estimate the number of chemical species contributing to these regions. The submatrix rank is called the *local rank*. In the best possible situation, if the local submatrix has a rank of 1 and there is local selectivity, then the ambiguity of the concentration or spectral profile of this species is reduced to uniqueness. This is called a unique resolution.

Here, the spectroscopic dataset comes from in situ FTIR spectroscopic measurements on the reactions introduced in Section 1.1. These data often exhibit the strongest form of spectral selectivity, namely that for each of the catalyst species (e.g., precursor, active catalyst complexes with different ligands, intermediates, dormant or partially decomposed species) at least one single-peak spectral window exists to which (approximately) only this chemical species contributes. We call this extreme form of selectivity a *full spectral selectivity*. Given this strong assumption, PGA can recover the pure component spectrum of this species across the full frequency range of the spectral measurements. This property is proven in this work.

## 2. PGA algorithm

Next, we briefly review the concept of PGA and its automated peak detection as presented in [26]. See Algorithm 1 for the basic workflow of PGA. The process begins with the rank- $s$  spectral data matrix  $D$ , its singular value decomposition  $D = U\Sigma V^T$  and the assumption that the dataset contains isolated peaks due to a relatively high degree of spectral selectivity. Step 1 involves PGA scanning the mixture spectra for peak positions automatically. The detection criteria are explained in detail in [26]. Step 2 is the most important step in the PGA algorithm. In this step, the Euclidean norm  $\|z\|_2$  of a vector  $z$  is minimized subject to a componentwise nonnegative linear combination  $Vz$  where  $V$  is the orthonormal matrix of right singular vectors of  $D$ . In typical SVD-based MCR techniques, these columns of  $V$  serve as the basis for representing the desired pure component spectra. PGA works under the additional constraint that  $(Vz)_\ell = 1$  for a peak channel index  $\ell$  of interest. A more detailed explanation is given in Section 3. The minimization of  $\|z\|_2$  (or equivalently of  $\|Vz\|_2 = \|z\|_2$  by orthonormality of  $V$ ) is the key to PGA. This minimization is related to the minimum-energy criterion for selecting solutions in [22], and the geometry of the PGA-optimization problem is similar to that of image restoration by convex projections in [32]. Thus, the given problem can be considered as a source energy minimization problem.

In other words, the idea behind PGA is to reconstruct a peak at channel index  $\ell$  without “wasting” too much signal  $Vz$  in other regions of the spectrum. Mathematically, this is achieved by minimizing  $\|Vz\|_2$ . The smoothness of  $Vz$  is an additional possible soft constraint among others. Thus, PGA determines an associated potential pure component spectrum  $Vz$  for each detected peak with the channel index  $\ell$ . Since the number of peaks is typically much greater than the number of chemical species, some of the spectra appear multiple times in the list of found spectra. Step 3 involves clustering the spectra that were found multiple times using a correlation analysis. The resulting spectra can be columnwise inscribed the matrix  $S$ . In Step 4, the concentration matrix factor  $C$  can be calculated as  $C = D(S^T)^+$  using the pseudoinverse  $(S^T)^+$  of  $S^T$ .

The aim of this paper is to provide a mathematical justification that the pure component reconstruction can work by the norm minimization of  $z$  subject to  $Vz \geq 0$  and  $(Vz)_\ell = 1$ . What we additionally assume is a high degree of selectivity. In this proof, we can skip all other penalty terms in the minimization. Then a vector  $z$  solving the constrained

## Workflow: Peak Group Algorithm (PGA)

### Step 1. Peak Detection [26]

Input: Spectral data matrix  $D$ , weights for peak detection criteria, sensitivity level.

The algorithm scans the mixture spectra to identify peak locations. The scanning uses first derivatives of the mixture spectra along time/frequency axis, discrete derivatives of the right singular vectors, and variances of the spectra in frequency and time direction .

### Step 2. Constrained Optimization

For every detected peak with the channel index  $\ell$ , a potential pure component spectrum  $Vz$  is calculated by constrained optimization to determine the vector  $z$  that solves the minimization problem

$$\min_z \|Vz\|_2 + \sum_{i=1}^q \gamma_i g_i(z) \quad \text{subject to } (Vz)_\ell = 1$$

with weights  $\gamma_i \geq 0$  for the constraint functions  $g_i(z)$ , which are

- Nonnegativity constraint  $g_1(z) = \|Vz - \text{abs}(Vz)\|_2^2$  with the componentwise absolute value function  $\text{abs}$ .
- Smoothness penalties (discrete 2nd derivative of  $Vz$ ).
- Further penalties on a small distance to given spectra, a low correlation with other spectra etc.

### Step 3. Clustering

The resulting set of spectra can be redundant. A final correlation analysis groups similar spectra (duplicates) to produce the distinct chemical spectra list, which is written in the columns of the spectra matrix factor  $S$ .

### Step 4. Calculation of concentration profiles

The associated concentration matrix factor is calculated by  $C = D(S^T)^+$  using the pseudoinverse  $(S^T)^+$  of  $S^T$ .

Algorithm 1: The basic workflow of PGA as explained in Section 2.

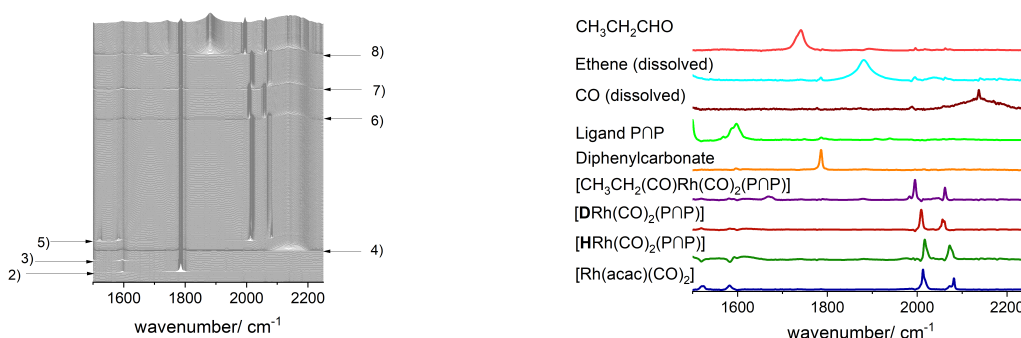


Figure 1: In situ FTIR data set from a sequential dosage experiment under hydroformylation conditions based on the  $\text{Rh}(\text{acac})(\text{CO})_2/(\text{PNP})$  catalyst system with  $\text{PNP} = \text{BiPhePhos}$ . Left: time resolved spectral series from a stepwise dosage of chemical components/complexes in the in situ transmission FTIR reactor system. The numbers refer to the dosage steps when reactants were introduced into the reactor system or the gas composition was altered. Number 1, which relates to the solvent, does not appear due to background subtraction. 1) Solvent (Cyclohexane), 2) IR-standard (Diphenylcarbonate), 3) Ligand (BiPhePhos), 4) Gas 1 ( $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2$ ), 5) Rh-precursor ( $\text{Rh}(\text{acac})(\text{CO})_2$ ), 6) Gas 2 ( $\text{CO}/\text{D}_2$ ), 7) Gas 1 $\rightarrow$ 3 ( $\text{CO}/\text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}$ ), 8) Gas 4 (Ethene). Right: PGA can extract nine pure component spectra comprising organometallic complexes, organic components and dissolved gases. The respective pure component spectra are given in an arbitrary order.

minimization problem can be proved to result in a pure component spectrum  $Vz$ . The mathematical formulation of the minimization problem is

$$\min_z \|z\|_2 \text{ subject to } Vz \geq 0 \text{ and } (Vz)_\ell = 1.$$

Figure 1 serves to illustrate PGA. We consider an FTIR dataset from a sequential dosage experiment for the identification of involved species of a rhodium-based hydroformylation reaction system [18]. PGA can extract nine pure component spectra. The numbers 2–8 refer to the dosage steps when reactants were introduced into the reactor system or the gas composition was altered. Some of the extracted component spectra contain slight spectral artifacts such as shoulder contributions and small negative signals. The causes can be multifold: collinearities in the temporal evolution and strong spectral overlapping of multiple components, perturbation effects and background subtraction issues.

### 3. PGA for data with full spectral selectivity

#### 3.1. Case of ideal, non-perturbed data

The starting point is the spectral data matrix  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ . We ignore noise or other perturbations in the following analysis. However, the numerical PGA algorithm can handle noise and other perturbations, see Section 3.2. The spectral data matrix is assumed component-wise nonnegative, i.e.  $D \geq 0$ , and that its rank number equals the number of chemical species  $s$ . The singular value decomposition of  $D$  is

$$D = U\Sigma V^T$$

with rectangular orthonormal matrices  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times s}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times s}$ . All singular values  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_s$  are strictly positive resulting in the regular diagonal matrix  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}$  of singular values. The left and right singular vectors form the bases for the pure component factors  $C$  and  $S^T$ . In an ideal, noise-free situation, the pure component matrix factors are representable as  $C = U\Sigma T^{-1}$  and  $S^T = TV^T$ , with an unknown  $s \times s$  regular matrix  $T$ . The desired pure component factorization then reads

$$D = CS^T$$

with  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times s}$  and  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times s}$ . The true concentration profiles and pure component spectra are the columns of these matrices.

The key steps of a PGA application to this ideal, non-perturbed data matrix  $D$  are as follows:

1. Find all peaks in the series of spectra that is stored in the rows of  $D$ .

For the found peaks  $i = 1, \dots, \#\text{MaxNumberOfPeaks}$  let the set

$$\mathcal{I} = \{\ell_i : \ell_i \text{ is the channel index of the maximum for the } i\text{th peak}\} \subset \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

collect the frequency channel indexes at the peak maxima.

2. For each  $\ell \in \mathcal{I}$  find a nonnegative linear combination  $Vx \geq 0$  so that  $Vx$  reproduces the peak in a way that  $(Vx)_\ell = 1$  (peak height normalized to 1) and where  $x$  is of smallest Euclidean length. Orthogonality of  $V$  implies that  $\|x\|_2 = \|Vx\|_2$  so that also the spectrum  $Vx$  has a smallest sum of squares; compare this with the similar optimization in [31]. Hence, the vector  $x$  of smallest Euclidean norm is the solution to the minimization problem

$$x = \arg \min_z \{\|z\|_2 : Vz \geq 0, (Vz)_\ell = 1\}. \quad (2)$$

(In words, this equation says that  $x$  is just the vector  $z$  of smallest Euclidean length so that the nonnegative linear combination  $Vz$  reproduces the peak  $(Vz)_\ell = 1$ . This is expressed by the argument operator,  $\arg$ , which makes  $x$  equal to the minimizer  $z$ .)

The following theorem analyzes the peak construction principle underlying Eq. (2) under the assumption of full spectral selectivity. The key point is that for a given channel index  $\ell$  a linear combination of the right singular vectors is sought, which does not “waste” components of  $z$  to form linear combinations  $Vz$  in a way that the local peak is reconstructed (i.e.  $(Vz)_\ell = 1$ ). The “minimum source energy” concept aims to prevent other chemical species to contribute to the linear combination  $Vz$ . This condition can be fulfilled by a smallest Euclidean norm of the vector  $z$  of mixing coefficients. In this way, the theorem proves that full spectral selectivity is sufficient for  $Vx$ ,  $x$  by Eq. (2), to be a true pure component spectrum.

**Theorem 3.1.** *For the given spectral data matrix  $D$  and for the set  $\mathcal{I}$  of peak positions let full spectral selectivity be fulfilled. This means that for each chemical species  $p = 1, \dots, s$ , there is a frequency channel  $\ell_p$  with*

$$\begin{aligned} S(\ell_p, p) &> 0 && \text{nonzero absorption by the species } p \text{ at channel } \ell_p, \\ S(\ell_p, j) &= 0 \quad \forall j \neq p && \text{no interfering absorption by other species.} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

(In words, the pure component spectrum  $S(:, p)$  of the  $p$ th chemical species has at least one frequency channel  $\ell_p$  where only this species has nonzero absorption among all species.)

Then, from given  $D$ , all pure component spectra  $S(:, p)$ ,  $p = 1, \dots, s$ , can be recovered (up to multiplicative constants). The concentration factor is also uniquely determined (columnwise up to multiplicative constants).

*Proof.* If the peak position  $\ell_p$  satisfies (3) for the chemical species  $p$  and if  $Vx$  according to (2) fulfills  $(Vx)_{\ell_p} = 1$ , then it holds that

$$\begin{aligned} Vx &= V \arg \min_z \{\|Vz\|_2 : Vz \geq 0, (Vz)_{\ell_p} = 1\} && \text{by (2) with } \|z\|_2 = \|Vz\|_2 \\ &= D^T U \Sigma^{-1} \arg \min_z \{\|D^T U \Sigma^{-1} z\|_2 : D^T U \Sigma^{-1} z \geq 0, (D^T U \Sigma^{-1} z)_{\ell_p} = 1\} && \text{by } V = D^T U \Sigma^{-1} \\ &= D^T \arg \min_y \{\|D^T y\|_2 : D^T y \geq 0, (D^T y)_{\ell_p} = 1\} && \text{by setting } y = U \Sigma^{-1} z \\ &= S C^T \arg \min_y \{\|S C^T y\|_2 : S C^T y \geq 0, (S C^T y)_{\ell_p} = 1\} && \text{by } D^T = S C^T \\ &= S \arg \min_w \{\|S w\|_2 : S w \geq 0, (S w)_{\ell_p} = 1\} && \text{by setting } w = C^T y \\ &= S \arg \min_w \left\{ \left\| \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq p}}^s w_i S(:, i) + w_p S(:, p) \right\|_2 : S w \geq 0, (S w)_{\ell_p} = 1 \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Assuming  $w_m < 0$  for an  $m \in \{1, \dots, s\}$ , then  $S(\ell_m, m) > 0$  by (3) implies that  $w_m S(\ell_m, m) < 0$ . Hence with  $S(\ell_m, j) = 0$  for all  $j \neq m$  it holds that  $(S w)_{\ell_m} < 0$ . Such a vector  $w$  is not feasible for the minimization because it breaks the constraint  $S w \geq 0$ . Hence  $w_m \geq 0$  for all  $m$ . Then all summands in the norm  $\|\sum_{i \neq p} w_i S(:, i) + w_p S(:, p)\|_2$  are nonnegative and the minimum with respect to  $w$  can only be attained if  $w_i = 0$  for all  $i \neq p$ , but for  $w_p$  the normalization constraint holds. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} Vx &= S \arg \min_w \{\|w_p S(:, p)\|_2 : S w \geq 0, (S w)_{\ell_p} = 1\} \\ &= S(:, p) / S(\ell_p, p), \end{aligned}$$

where in the last step the minimizer is  $w = e_p / S(\ell_p, p)$ . Therein,  $e_p$  is the standard basis vector ( $p$ th column of the identity matrix).

The resulting equation  $Vx = S(:, p) / S(\ell_p, p)$  says the desired spectrum  $S(:, p)$  of the  $p$ th chemical species equals  $Vx$  times the (nonzero) scaling constant  $S(\ell_p, p)$ . The concentration factor is given by  $C = D(S^T)^+$  with the pseudoinverse of the found factor  $S^T$ .  $\square$

The proof shows that under the assumption of full spectral selectivity, the true factors  $C$  and  $S^T$  can be recovered (up to the trivial and principally unavoidable scaling ambiguity).

### 3.2. PGA analysis of experimental data

Experimental spectral data can only approximately fulfill the full spectral selectivity assumption made by Thm. 3.1. A major perturbation is often instrumental noise, which is well-known to increase the number of nonzero singular values. For a low noise level, the dominant nonzero singular values belonging to the essential chemical information are well separated from the other singular values close to zero. In the numerical PGA algorithm, see [26], the truncated SVD implements a noise filtering step by ignoring the near-zero singular values. Furthermore, baseline residuals can violate the assumption (3) due to an imperfect baseline correction step. These and other data perturbations must be successfully addressed. The numerical PGA algorithm [26] uses penalized nonlinear optimization to construct local peak approximations with respect to the basis of the right singular vectors belonging to the dominant singular values. This stabilizes the computation and steers the numerical calculations in the desired direction, yielding results similar to those attainable with ideal, non-perturbed data. Here, we do not explain all the approaches to make the numerical PGA algorithm to work in a stable way. Instead, we refer to the references [25, 26] for details on the constrained minimization problem and its numerical solution. The scope of this paper is restricted to providing a mathematical analysis demonstrating that the idealized limit case of full selectivity is sufficient for constructing the pure components without any factor ambiguity.

## 4. Conclusion

Selectivity is a well-known and very useful criterion in MCR analyses, in order to extract pure component spectra or concentration profiles of pure components of one or more of the chemical species in a chemical reaction. Full spectral selectivity is an extreme and idealized case that helps to understand the effectiveness of PGA in MCR analyses of in situ IR and Raman spectroscopic data collected during homogeneously catalyzed carbonylation reactions. A program implementation of PGA for the analysis of experimental data is available in our FACPACK software, which is freely available from our website:

<https://www.math.uni-rostock.de/facpack>

Our current focus in the PGA development is on the fast online/real-time data analysis of the spectral data stream produced in chemical laboratories and industrial processes.

## Acknowledgement

Funding by the DFG Research Training Group 2943 "SPECTRE" (project number 507189291) is gratefully acknowledged.

## References

- [1] H. Abdollahi, S. K. Karimvand, and S. Vali Zade. Chapter 7 – uniqueness in resolving multivariate chemical data. In J.B. Ghasemi, editor, *Machine Learning and Pattern Recognition Methods in Chemistry from Multivariate and Data Driven Modeling*, pages 137–171. Elsevier, 2023.
- [2] H. Abdollahi and R. Tauler. Uniqueness and rotation ambiguities in multivariate curve resolution methods. *Chemom. Intell. Lab. Syst.*, 108(2):100–111, 2011.
- [3] O.S. Borgen and B.R. Kowalski. An extension of the multivariate component-resolution method to three components. *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 174:1–26, 1985.
- [4] S.D. Brown, R. Tauler, and B. Walczak. *Comprehensive Chemometrics: Chemical and Biochemical Data Analysis, Vol. 1-4*. Elsevier Science, 2009.
- [5] A. de Juan, J. Jaumot, and R. Tauler. Multivariate Curve Resolution (MCR). Solving the mixture analysis problem. *Anal. Methods*, 6:4964–4976, 2014.
- [6] A. de Juan, M. Maeder, M. Martínez, and R. Tauler. Combining hard and soft-modelling to solve kinetic problems. *Chemom. Intell. Lab. Syst.*, 54:123–141, 2000.
- [7] A. de Juan, Y. Vander Heyden, R. Tauler, and D. L. Massart. Assessment of new constraints applied to the alternating least squares method. *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 346(3):307–318, 1997.
- [8] R. Franke, D. Selent, and A. Börner. Applied hydroformylation. *Chem. Rev.*, 112:5675–5732, 2012.
- [9] M. Garland. Combining operando spectroscopy with experimental design, signal processing and advanced chemometrics. State of the art and a glimpse of the future. *Catal. Today*, 155:266–270, 2010.
- [10] A. Golshan, H. Abdollahi, S. Beyramysoltan, M. Maeder, K. Neymeyr, R. Rajkó, M. Sawall, and R. Tauler. A review of recent methods for the determination of ranges of feasible solutions resulting from soft modelling analyses of multivariate data. *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 911:1–13, 2016.
- [11] C. Kubis, M. König, B.N. Leidecker, D. Selent, H. Schröder, M. Sawall, W. Baumann, A. Spannenberg, A. Brächer, K. Neymeyr, R. Franke, and A. Börner. Interplay between catalyst complexes and dormant states: In situ spectroscopic investigations on a catalyst system for alkene hydroformylation. *ACS Catal.*, 13(8):5245–5263, 2023.
- [12] C. Kubis, R. Ludwig, M. Sawall, K. Neymeyr, A. Börner, K.-D. Wiese, D. Hess, R. Franke, and D. Selent. A comparative in situ HP-FTIR spectroscopic study of bi- and monodentate phosphite-modified hydroformylation. *ChemCatChem*, 2:287–295, 2010.

- [13] C. Kubis, M. Sawall, A. Block, K. Neymeyr, R. Ludwig, A. Börner, and D. Selent. An operando FTIR spectroscopic and kinetic study of carbon monoxide pressure influence on rhodium-catalyzed olefin hydroformylation. *Chem.-Eur. J.*, 20(37):11921–11931, 2014.
- [14] C. Kubis, D. Selent, M. Sawall, R. Ludwig, K. Neymeyr, W. Baumann, R. Franke, and A. Börner. Exploring between the extremes: Conversion dependent kinetics of phosphite-modified hydroformylation catalysis. *Chem. Eur. J.*, 18(28):8780–8794, 2012.
- [15] O. M. Kvalheim and Y.-Z. Liang. Heuristic evolving latent projections: resolving two-way multicomponent data. 1. Selectivity, latent-projective graph, datascope, local rank, and unique resolution. *Anal. Chem.*, 64(8):936–946, 1992.
- [16] M.A. Lakeh and H. Abdollahi. Known-value constraint in multivariate curve resolution. *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 1030:42–51, 2018.
- [17] W.H. Lawton and E.A. Sylvestre. Self modelling curve resolution. *Technometrics*, 13:617–633, 1971.
- [18] B.N. Leidecker, D. Peña Fuentes, M. König, J. Liu, W. Baumann, M. Sawall, K. Neymeyr, H. Jiao, R. Franke, A. Börner, and C. Kubis. In situ spectroscopic investigations on BiPhePhos modified rhodium complexes in alkene hydroformylation. *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 14(14):3966–3983, 2024.
- [19] B.N. Leidecker, D. Peña-Fuentes, C. Wei, M. Sawall, K. Neymeyr, R. Franke, A. Börner, and C. Kubis. In situ FTIR spectroscopic investigations on rhodium carbonyl complexes in the absence of phosphorus ligands under hydroformylation conditions. *New J. Chem.*, 48(43):18365–18375, 2024.
- [20] M. Maeder and Y.M. Neuhold. *Practical data analysis in chemistry*. Elsevier, Amsterdam, 2007.
- [21] E. Malinowski. *Factor analysis in chemistry*. Wiley, New York, 2002.
- [22] L.C. Potter and K.S. Arun. Energy concentration in band-limited extrapolation. *IEEE Transactions on Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing*, 37(7):1027–1041, 1989.
- [23] R. Rajkó, H. Abdollahi, S. Beyramysoltan, and N. Omidikia. Definition and detection of data-based uniqueness in evaluating bilinear (two-way) chemical measurements. *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 855:21 – 33, 2015.
- [24] M. Sawall, A. Börner, C. Kubis, D. Selent, R. Ludwig, and K. Neymeyr. Model-free multivariate curve resolution combined with model-based kinetics: Algorithm and applications. *J. Chemom.*, 26:538–548, 2012.
- [25] M. Sawall, C. Kubis, E. Barsch, D. Selent, A. Börner, and K. Neymeyr. Peak group analysis for the extraction of pure component spectra. *J. Iran. Chem. Soc.*, 13(2):191–205, 2016.
- [26] M. Sawall, C. Kubis, B. N. Leidecker, L. Prestin, T. Andersons, M. Beese, J. Hellwig, R. Franke, A. Börner, and K. Neymeyr. An automated Peak Group Analysis for vibrational spectra analysis. *Chemom. Intell. Lab. Syst.*, 254:105234, 2024.
- [27] M. Sawall, C. Kubis, H. Schröder, D. Meinhardt, D. Selent, R. Franke, A. Brächer, A. Börner, and K. Neymeyr. Multivariate curve resolutions methods and the design of experiments. *J. Chemom.*, 34(2):e3159, 2020.
- [28] M. Sawall, H. Schröder, D. Meinhardt, and K. Neymeyr. On the ambiguity underlying multivariate curve resolution methods. In S. Brown, R. Tauler, and B. Walczak, editors, *In Comprehensive Chemometrics: Chemical and Biochemical Data Analysis*, pages 199–231. Elsevier, 2020.
- [29] R. Tauler, A. Smilde, and B. Kowalski. Selectivity, local rank, three-way data analysis and ambiguity in multivariate curve resolution. *J. Chemom.*, 9(1):31–58, 1995.
- [30] C. Wei, B.N. Leidecker, D. Peña-Fuentes, H. Schröder, M. Sawall, K. Neymeyr, E.V. Kondratenko, A. Börner, R. Franke, and C. Kubis. Impact of the P-ligand concentration on the formation of hydroformylation catalysts: An in situ FTIR spectroscopic study. *Chem. Ing. Tech.*, 96(12):1657–1667, 2024.
- [31] E. Widjaja, C. Li, and M. Garland. Algebraic system identification for a homogeneous catalyzed reaction: Application to the Rhodium-catalyzed hydroformylation of alkenes using in situ FTIR spectroscopy. *J. Catal.*, 223:278–289, 2004.
- [32] D. C. Youla and H. Webb. Image Restoration by the Method of Convex Projections: Part 1 Theory. *IEEE Transactions on Medical Imaging*, 1(2):81–94, 1982.