1	Complete determination of plant tissues based only on auto-
2	fluorescence and the advanced image analysis – study of needles and
3	stamens
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27	Table of Content Abstract
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38	Finding the procedure for proper tissue determination is a challenging task in various
39	fields of biology and medicine, unfortunately often affected by subjectivity of the
40	histologist. We have introduced the method based on $\ell_0$ -norm constrained nonnegative
41	matrix factorization and compared it with several algorithms on controlled, simulated
42	set of images. The key advantage is the ability to extract much more components from
43	the starting set of images (often small number) in comparison to other methods,
44	providing more versatile set of parameters for tissue classification.
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#### 48 SUMMARY

49 Proper determination of tissues is one of the challenging problems is modern 50 medicine and histology. Currently, interpretation of the results mainly depends on the 51 experience of histologist, leading to high percentage of results misinterpretation. 52 Bearing in mind potential application, we proposed the set of procedures that allow us 53 to obtain precise, mathematically determined parameters for tissue discrimination. First, 54 the method was tested on simulated set of images and compared with several other 55 algorithms. As the set of experimentally obtained input data, auto-fluorescence images 56 of needle cross-sections (Picea omorika) and stamens of common centaury (Centaurium 57 erythraea), were used. Determination of cell types is based on inherent features of plant 58 cells – autofluorescence. As each cell type consists of various fluorescent components 59 in different quantities for each type of tissue, its integral emission spectrum can be used 60 as the fingerprint for identification. Cross-sections were imaged using 4 sets of filters 61 for detection of fluorescence (both excitation and emission). Such filter set is standard 62 equipment for most fluorescence microscopes. One additional image was transmission 63 image using the same optics. By applying  $\ell_0$ -norm constrained nonnegative matrix 64 factorisation in a space induced by explicit feature maps, it is possible to identify up to 65 11 tissues in needles and 5 in stamens (actual number of tissues). In comparison to other 66 image analysis methods, the greatest advantage is the fact that number of extracted 67 components significantly exceeds the number of initial images, while most other 68 techniques can extract only as much components as the number of initial images.

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#### 72 **1. INTRODUCTION**

The progress in development of fluorescence probes for various metabolic parameters of the cell (concentration of ions, pH, cell currents, free radicals, immunostaining etc.) has provided significantly better insight for understanding of processes in cells, but also emphasized the need for proper identification of cells and tissues.

78 In the past two decades, there is a noticeable increase of interest in analysis of 79 spectral data in the emerging new discipline in analytical chemistry – the 80 chemometrics. The main concept is the idea that each composite spectrum of the 81 specimen can be represented as the linear combination of pure components. Challenges 82 are, however, numerous. The first is the fact that in most cases analysis starts as blind 83 source separation problem (BSS). In such scenario spectra and abundances of the 84 components as well as their number are unknown. Separation of pure components 85 becomes even harder if the pure components are not statistically independent, but highly correlated . This is especially notable in fluorescence spectroscopy. The problem 86 87 becomes even more difficult if spatial distribution of the components is taken into 88 account. Thus the starting point is blind, and proper method should identify the exact 89 number of pure components, taking into account their interdependence and estimate 90 their spatial distribution.

Depending on the properties of input spectra various methods can be used for solution of the problem described above. Factor analysis, including related methods, is particularly suitable for fluorescence and FTIR spectra [1, 2]. Its drawback is the fact that if the number of components is n, the number of required spectra for the analysis is at least 2n+1. Blind source separation (BSS) methods such as independent component

analysis (ICA), sparse component analysis (SCA) and/or nonnegative matrix
factorisation (NMF) have found application in analysis of electron paramagnetic
resonance (EPR), nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), electroencephalography (EEG)
and spectroscopic modalities [3-5].

100 If the desired number of pure components is the same as the number of input 101 component mixtures (experimentally obtained spectra or images), some other 102 algorithms are suitable. Among them, the best known is independent component 103 analysis (ICA). ICA based methods are however incapable to solve underdetermined 104 BSS problems, often present in image analysis. Moreover, ICA algorithms assume 105 statistical independence between the components and that, due to sum-to-one 106 constraints as well as due to overlapping of the abundances, is violated in multispectral 107 and hyperspectral image analysis [6]. Furthermore, ICA does not utilize non-negativity 108 that should be considered in fluorescence spectroscopy because of its physical 109 background. SCA and sparseness constrained NMF algorithms can handle 110 underdetermined BSS problems but exhibit difficulties in discrimination between pure 111 components with similar spectral, concentrations or density profiles. Described 112 problems are partially addressed in algorithms popular in remote sensing and the 113 analysis of satellite images that are based on pure pixel assumption [7]. The 114 representatives of such methods are N-FINDR [8], simplex volume maximization 115 (SVMAX) [9] and vertex component analysis (VCA) [10]. However, all these 116 algorithms demand that number of components is less than or equal to number of 117 spectral bands and that is violated in fluorescence microscopy imaging of plant tissues.

118 Analysis of fluorescence images resembles in some manner to the paradigm for 119 analysis of emission fluorescence spectra. The main principle is to obtain the series of

emission spectra after irradiating the sample with different excitation wavelengths. As fluorophores [11] provide different quantum yields (and consequently emission intensities) when excited with determined wavelength, series of excitations will indicate their presence as the changes of integral spectrum (caused by changes in its relative contributions to integral spectrum). Fluorescence microscopes are usually equipped with several excitation/emission filter sets, providing in our case 4 fluorescent images and one transmission image.

To discriminate pure components with similar emission spectra we propose unsupervised (a.k.a. blind or automatic) decomposition of 5-channel image by means of  $\ell_0$ -constrained NMF algorithm in a space induced by explicit feature maps (EFM). The nonlinear EFM mapping increases number of spectral bands and makes spectral profiles of the pure components less correlated. That in combination of sparseness and nonnegativity constraints enables separation of large number of spectrally similar pure components from small number of available spectra.

134 Another feature of the cell that can be used as the parameter for tissue determination 135 is the shape of the cells. Images can be segmented according to textural features, using 136 variety of methods, and then apply described technique to distinguish various 137 biochemical changes (fluorescence properties) in tissues built from the same cells in 138 mean of shape. As the quantitative measure of cell shape, the 2-D generalization of 139 Higuchi's fractal dimension can be applied as recent novelty, but classical Haralick 140 texture features (that include entropy, standard deviation and about 20 other parameters) 141 can be applied as well [12]. Our tests were performed on whole, raw images. Applied  $\ell_0$ -constrained NMF algorithm was so effective, that there was no need for any pre-142 143 processing based on textural features extraction as the pre-processing step. Without the

144 example obtained from real and complex enough measurements this improvement145 remains presumable assumption.

146 The drawback of the  $\ell_0$ -constrained NMF algorithm is also characteristic for other data 147 driven algorithms mentioned before - reproducibility of the results is influenced by 148 matching between the model and true experimental image [7] and, in case of the NMF 149 algorithms, by non-convexity of the related factorization problem. The former case 150 relates to pixel-to-pixel variability of spectral signature and presence of sensor noise [7]. 151 Thus, if the algorithm is applied on several similar images the extracted components 152 among the samples are similar (especially several leading components) but not always 153 the same. This problem could be overcome by analysis of several images 154 simultaneously using simple augmentation of images and then simultaneous analysis of 155 all the images. These limits make more difficult further application of learning methods 156 that could additionally automate the process. Besides of that limitation, the 157 classification can be still done leaving only the final step of the interpretation of results 158 (which cluster represents which tissue) to the observer.

All the tissues (11, plus background in case of needle and 5 in case of stamen) were successfully determined, based solely on chemical properties of the cells (presence of fluorophores), without any pre-knowledge about the number of tissues, or its fluorescence properties. It is important to notice that the algorithm did not artificially made false positive identification of tissues that are not anatomically correct.

In order to additionally check this claim, we have tested the method on simulated set of images and compared proposed method with the several other popular methods including independent component analysis (ICA) and principal component analysis (PCA) (on image set with extended dimensionality). This problem can be present in

real, experimental data sets because the same material (the same spectral properties) can
be presented in various intensities, thus the suitable method must provide proper
determination of qualitative properties of the image elements.

171 With the introduction of even more complex samples,  $\ell_0$ -constrained NMF 172 algorithm can be applied following any of numerous pre-processing techniques that can 173 facilitate the analysis by selecting specified regions of interest that can be separately 174 analysed. With such freedom in choice of analytical techniques, possibilities are limited 175 by sample complexity and the ability of instruments to record larger set of input images. 176 Such devices, micro-spectrometers, are still mainly custom-made but the development 177 of experimental techniques is in constant progress.

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- 180 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS
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# 182 Fluorescence microscopy

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Fresh needles of *P. omorika* were collected, tight cross-sections were made by a razor blade, put on microscopic glass, and examined using Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 microscope, equipped with AxioCamMR3 camera (8 bit per channel) (Zeiss, Göttingen, Germany).

188 Stamens of common centaury (*Centaurium erythraea* Rafn) were removed from the 189 flowers and imaged without any particular preparation. The same optics was used for all 190 recorded images with total magnification of 50 x. The exposition time was set to 191 provide the optimal dynamic range. The applied excitation/emission filter sets for

192 fluorescence images were: 358/461 nm (DAPI), 492/518 nm (FAM), 488/510 nm (38 193 GFP) and 558/580 nm (DsRED). Additional transmission image was obtained by 194 illuminating the sample with white light. No additional staining was performed; the 195 imaging was based only on autofluorescence. 196 197 198 199 200 **IMAGE ANALYSIS** 201 202 Sparse nonnegative matrix factorization in explicit feature maps induced space 203 204 Unsupervised (a.k.a blind) approaches to multichannel image decomposition are 205 commonly based on the linear mixture model (LMM) of multichannel image [13, 14]: 206 207 X=AS (1)where  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbf{R}_{0^+}^{N \times T}$  represents multi-spectral fluorescent image consisting of N spectral 208 bands and  $T=P\times Q$  pixels,  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}_{0^+}^{N \times M}$  represents mixing matrix or matrix of spectral 209 responses and  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbf{R}_{0^+}^{M \times T}$  represents matrix of spatial distributions of the M pure 210 211 components present in the image scene. Each row of X and S is a 1D image 212 representation obtained from corresponding spectral image by some  $2D \rightarrow 1D$  mapping called vectorization. Blind decomposition of pure components  $\{\mathbf{s}_m \in R^{1 \times T}\}_{m=1}^{M}$  using 213 214 multichannel image matrix X only is also known as blind source separation (BSS)

215 problem [15]. Since we are concerned with an unsupervised image decomposition 216 problem X, A and S are assumed to be nonnegative according to physical properties of 217 fluorescence. In the case in which the number of pure components M is greater than 218 number of fluorescent images N related BSS problem (1) is underdetermined. In 219 addition it is ill-posed because matrix factorization suffers from indeterminacies:  $X=AS=ADD^{-1}S$  for any square invertible matrix **D**. Hence, it has an infinite number of 220 221 solutions. Meaningful solutions are characterized by the permutation and scaling 222 indeterminacies in which case D=PA, where P represents permutation and A represents 223 diagonal scaling matrix. Constraints are necessary to be imposed on A and S to obtain 224 solution of (1) unique up to permutation and scaling indeterminacies only. For 225 underdetermined BSS (uBSS) problems, of interest herein, the necessary constraint (in 226 addition to nonnegativity) is sparseness of the pure components. In particular, when 227 spatial resolution of the microscope is high enough, it is grounded to assume that at each 228 pixel is present one pure component only. That is reflected to hard sparseness constraint 229 expressed in term of  $\ell_0$ -norm as  $\ell_0=1$ , whereas the  $\ell_0$  quasi-norm counts number of non-zero coefficients of pure components  $\{s_m\}_{m=1}^M$ . Thus, nonnegativity and sparseness 230 constraints can be combined to yield sparseness constrained NMF algorithm (sNMF). In 231 particular,  $\ell_0$ -constrained NMF (NMF L0) can be used to estimate pure 232 components  $\{\mathbf{s}_m\}_{m=1}^{M}$  [16]. In examined samples however, one pixel corresponds to one 233 234 type of the calls, but not necessarily one type of fluorophore, as the cells are highly 235 complex. However, the differences are sufficient enough to fulfil the presumption.

MATLAB implementation of the NMF\_L0 algorithm is available at [17]. Nevertheless,NMF as well as other BSS algorithms experience difficulties to separate pure

components with (very) similar spectral profiles [13, 7]. In such a case it is possible to
perform pixel-wise nonlinear mapping of the multichannel image X [13]:

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$$\mathbf{x}_{t} \in R_{0+}^{N \times 1} \mapsto \phi(\mathbf{x}_{t}) \in R_{0+}^{\overline{N} \times 1} \quad \forall t = 1, ..., T$$
(2)

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243 whereas  $\overline{N} > N$  and perform sNMF in mapped space according to LMM:

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$$\phi(\mathbf{X}) = \overline{\mathbf{A}}\overline{\mathbf{S}}$$
(3)

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The linear mixture model (3) is constrained by nonnegativity:  $\overline{A} \ge 0$ ,  $\overline{S} \ge 0$  and 247 sparseness  $\|\overline{\mathbf{S}}\|_{0}$  that stands for number of nonzero coefficients of  $\overline{\mathbf{S}}$ . Very often sum-to-248 one constraint  $\{\|\overline{\mathbf{s}}_{t}\|_{1} = 1\}_{t=1}^{T}$  is used in hyperspectral image analysis [7]. However, as 249 250 pointed out in Section III-B in [7], due to pixe-to-pixel spectral signature variability (the 251 same material can at different locations have different spectra) and due to presence of 252 artefacts sum-to-one constraint is often violated in practice. However, sparseness and 253 nonnegativity constraints are more natural and often yield better unmixing results, see 254 Section VI in [7]. That is why NMF L0 method has been applied to (3). 255 Even though nonlinear mapping can have various forms we have applied 256 approximate explicit feature map (EFM) obtained by factorization of Gaussian kernel

called *kernel trick* [18] has been used:  $\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{y}) \rangle$  and  $\langle \phi(\mathbf{x}), \phi(\mathbf{y}) \rangle$  stands

 $\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \exp\left(-\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|^2/\sigma^2\right)$  where  $\sigma^2$  denotes kernel bandwidth. To this end, the so

259 for inner product of nonlinear mappings. By using multi-index notation obtained EFM

is expressed as:

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$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2}{\sigma^2}} \left\{ \frac{1}{\sigma^r} \sqrt{\frac{2^r}{\alpha!}} \mathbf{x}^{\alpha} \right\}_{|\boldsymbol{\alpha}|=r,r=0}^{\infty}$$
(4)

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where  $\boldsymbol{a} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}^{N}$ ,  $|\boldsymbol{a}| = \alpha_{1} + ... + \alpha_{N}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{a} ! = \alpha_{1} !... \alpha_{N} !$  and  $\mathbf{x}^{\alpha} = x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} ... x_{N}^{\alpha_{N}}$ . Approximate EFM of order *d* is obtained for  $0 \le r \le d < \infty$ . In the experiments conducted herein *d*=2. Thus, *N*=5 channels image has been mapped onto  $\overline{N} = {\binom{N+d}{N}} = 21$  channels image. Before mapping original image has been scaled such that  $\{0 \le x_{nt} \le 1\}_{n,t=1}^{N,T}$  and variance of the kernel has been set to  $\sigma^{2}=1$ .

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## 271 Simulated images

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273 In order to check the reliability of proposed procedure in controlled conditions, 274 the set of simulated images was analysed. Biological-like structure and the gradient 275 image were drawn in Adobe Photoshop and the logic (true-false) maps were made for 276 each type of the tissues. Resolution of images was 512 x 512 pixels in 4 separated 277 channels. For more realistic appearance, the gradient image that simulates variations of 278 quantum yields of fluorophores was multiplied element wise with simulated images. 279 Values for all simulated tissues in various channels were simulated to resemble real 280 excitation spectra.

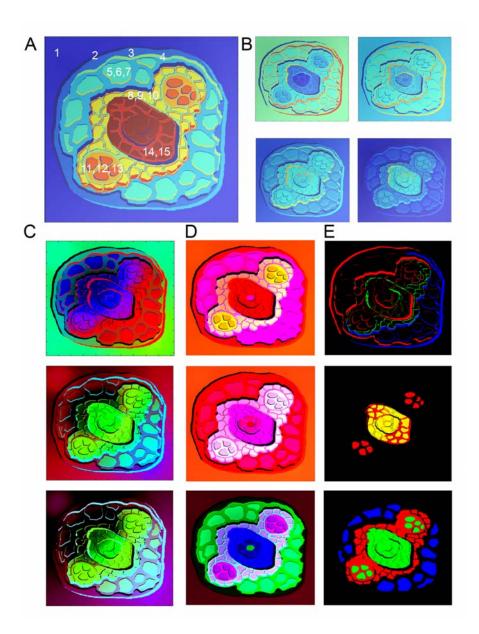
281 This test is important because it proves whether the algorithm is capable to 282 properly interpret and recognize the tissues built from the same fluorescence material. 283 The calculations were done using Matworks Matlab R2014a, and Matlab based software 284 FastICA. Spectral parameters used for simulation, starting images and the results of the 285 analyses are listed in supplementary material. 286 287 288 289 Image preparation for figures 290 291 For colour rendering of initial fluorescence images, self developed Java based 292 program BioCIE was applied [19]. It converts numerical value of wavelength (nm) to 293 red, green and blue channel intensities and creates the RGB image. Conversion is done 294 according to CIE convention. Advantage in comparison to standard method that 295 considers grayscale images as channels is the ability to use any number of input images. 296 Extracted pure components were considered as channels in RGB images, offering the 297 possibility to accurately render the contributions of best suitable components as tissue 298 properties. 299 300 301 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION 302 303 The test image comprises of 15 various tissues resembling the biological structures. 304 Major difficulty for tested algorithm was the presence of gradient which can occur in 305 biological structures where the same building material can be present in various 306 quantities in different areas of image. In the case of low dimensionality image set, it 307 emerges to be difficult for all the algorithms to distinguish whether the structure is 308 qualitatively the same or not. The results are presented in Figure 1.

The first class of algorithms based on factor analysis exhibited very low performances. The obtained results are almost the copies of initial images. Neither gradient nor the fine structure of the simulated tissues were recognized.

The ICA provided generally speaking good results, but the closer examination show that some of the structures that are different were recognized as one structure (Figure 1A, central region, numbers 14 and 15). The gradient was well recognized on some parts of the image, but emerged in false positive discrimination on the other sectors. According to this, we conclude that ICA algorithm was partially applicable.

The method we proposed in the paper provided the best result in this comparison, achieving to observe fine differences on simulated membranes successfully avoiding the gradient trap. Not perfect, with small misinterpretation in of the most similar tissues, but the most reliable. It should be kept in mind that the problem was underdetermined, and that the simulation was more difficult for solving (very strong gradient, very similar simulated spectra and number of tissues higher than expected in real experiments).

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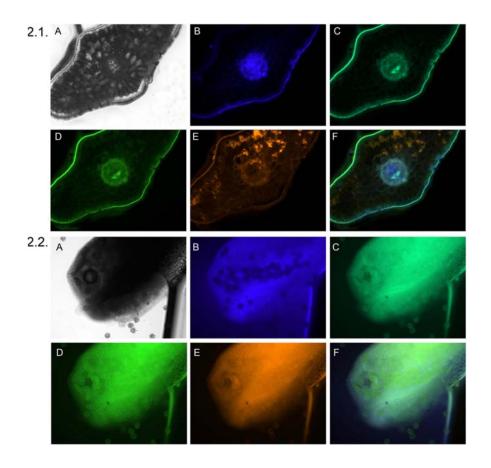
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**Figure 1.** A – test image with results that are expected. B – 4 images that were used as the entry set of images. C – Results obtained using factor analysis, without rotation of factor scores, using orthogonal varimax method and oblique promax method (dimensionality extended by addition). D – results of ICA analysis, 4 components mixed as RGB channels (3 combinations). E – results obtained using the procedure described in our paper. Numbers on image A were used arbitrary to mark the simulated tissues and facilitate the discussion of results.

The results could be discussed from the spectroscopic point of view as well. The ICA algorithm performed well if we speak about the images. But, as the number of extracted components is only 4, while 15 tissues exist, the observed components are misinterpreting the real spectra that correspond to specific tissues. Proposed method has the additional advantage from this point of view as it extracts the number of components much closer to the actual number of components.

After the methods proved their reliability on test set of images, the analysis wasperformed on real experimental data.

Transparency and fluorescence images (4) of leaf cross-sections and stamens were used as the input set of data for the further analysis are presented in the Figure 2. Brightness and contrast were set for best appearance in figure, while the raw images were used for further analysis.

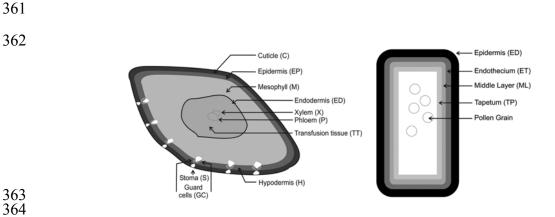


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Figure 2. 2.1. – Cross-sections of Serbian spruce (*Picea omorika*) leafs. A –
transmission image, B-E – fluorescence images obtained by application of DAPI, FAM,
GFP and DsRED filter respectively. F – composite image made using fluorescence
images according to CIE convention. 2.2. – images of common centaury (*Centaurium erythraea* Rafn) stamen captured using the same filter sets

Some of the tissues can be identified from the raw images, among them the layer of cuticle, mesophyll cells, stomas and central vascular bundle. The resin artefact is visible on red fluorescence image (Figure 2.1. E). However, the boundaries between the tissues remain uncertain, and delicate structures of tissue organization are lacking. Schematic view of leaf structure is presented in Figure 3.

359 In case of stamens, it is even more difficult to clearly determine which tissue types



360 are present. Only the pollen grains are easily distinguishable.

Figure 3. A – Schematic representation of *Picea omorika* leaf cross-section structure.
Cuticle (C), epidermis (EP), mesophyll (M), endodermis (ED), xylem (X), phloem (P),
transfusion tissue (TT), hypodermis (H), stoma cells (S), guard cells (GC). B –
Schematic representation of common centaury (*Centaurium erythraea* Rafn) stamen
structure: epidermis (ED), endothelium (ET), middle layer (ML), tapetum (TP) and
pollen grains.

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372 After dimensionality extension and the application of  $\ell_0$ -norm constrained NMF, 21 373 images were extracted. Three of them represented the background only (with artefacts 374 originating from particles and surrounding water), while the rest of images were used 375 for further analysis. Closer look to extracted images reveals presence of previously 376 hardly detectable structures such as individual components of central vascular bundle, 377 namely, xylem, phloem and transfusion tissue bordered by endodermis (Figure 4a). 378 Furthermore, stoma guard cells can be clearly distinguished from the surrounding 379 hypodermis tissue.

Histology of stamen is much simpler, and the images revealed: connective, recognized to be made from the similar material as epidermis of the anther, deeper layer that consists of endothelium, middle layer and tapetum, and the pollen grains, with even internal structures that can be observed on some grains.

Visually richer results can be easily obtained if the images of pure components were combined into a composite RBG image, where each channel represents one extracted image. Suitable combinations of images reveal all the tissues existed (Figure 4). Even more important, the same histological structure can be described by (different) multiple combinations of extracted images. This leads to a multidimensional space for accurate tissue segmentation, so that each tissue can be determined by several parameters in the linear combination of extracted images.

391 This step in the analytical procedure could sounds controversial as we pick only 392 some combinations of pure components that support the classification of the tissues. In 393 practice, such paradigm is very common, especially in diagnostics when one or few 394 parameters define such important classes as health or illness. Reason for this also lies in 395 the fluorescence properties of the cells. Most of the cells share various common 396 fluorophores. Generally speaking, when we apply most of spectroscopic techniques on 397 biological samples we observe complex mixtures of signals shared among all the cells 398 various in origin.

Each plant cell consists of complex polymers based on sugars followed by proteins and nucleic acids that have auto fluorescence. Large differences could appear if some type of cells contains special pigments. With such complex spectra it is impossible to obtain compounds which are pure in chemical meaning (one pure compound – one chemical compound), but instead proper analytical method will emphasise important

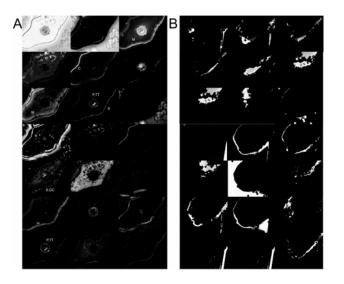
404 differences between very similar types of spectra. At this point the algorithms show its

405 full potential, as method should be sensitive enough to capture the smallest differences,

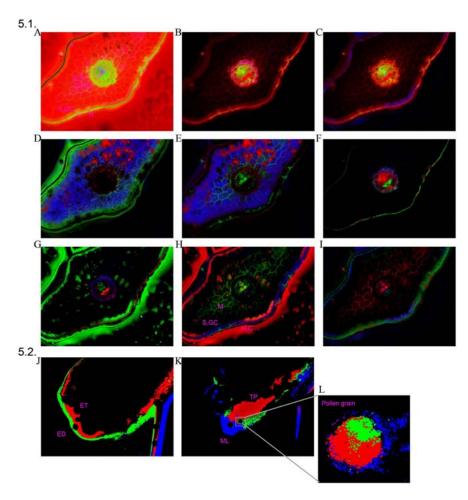
406 and yet robust enough not to produce the artefacts.

Keeping that in mind, combining multiple pure components to composite images
becomes more intuitive, as this procedure allows construction of long true-false string
that can describe and classify even the tissues that share almost entirely correlated
spectra.

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415 Figure 4. Pure components separated by NMF\_L0 algorithm on dimensionality
416 expanded multichannel image of needle (A), and the pure components of stamen (B).
417 Abbreviations were used to emphasize some of the extracted structures. Check Figure 3
418 for more details.



421 Figure 5. 5.1. A – Composite RBG images obtained by combining some of the 422 extracted components from Figure 4, as channels. Each combination (A-I) uncovers cell 423 describes it 2 for types and (check Figure abbreviations). 424 А C+H+ED+TT+X+P+S+GC, B = C+E+H+M+ED+X+S, = C = C+E+H+M+ED+TT+X+P+S+GC, D = C+H+M+GC, E = C+M+X+S+GC, 425 426  $\mathbf{F} = C + ED + P + TT + S$ ,  $\mathbf{G} = C + H + ED + X + P$ ,  $\mathbf{H} = C + E + H + M + TT + X + S + GC$ , 427 I = C+E+H+M+TT+X+P+S+GC. 5.2. – J = ED+ET, K - ML+TP, L - pollen grain. 428 Examples from the Figure 5 are just a small fraction of many combinations with a

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429 strong biological meaning chosen because of visual effect. However, these 9 images 430 presented on figure 5a reveal all 11 types of cells in needle with very high level of 431 confidence based on anatomical meaning of extracted structures. Resin canals and some

432 artefact elements are presented in background. Histology of stamen is less complex, 433 well presented on set of reconstructed composite images in figure 5b. On some grains, 434 even internal structures can be observed, Figure 51, blue - exine and intrine, red -435 middle part of the pollen grain and green shows two structures, generative nucleus 436 (larger) and pollen tube nucleus (smaller). The reason why the complete determination 437 of tissues in stamen was more difficult even the number if tissues was smaller, is the 438 fact that the fluorescence properties among various tissues are less expressed, as the 439 tissues in stamen do not have so different biological roles, as in needles.

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## 442 **4. CONCLUSION**

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444 Described procedures of image analysis offer numerous possibilities for 445 improvement of virtually all imaging procedures that capture the same object using 446 different instrumental settings. Besides the fluorescence microscopy, it is applicable in 447 light microscopy, MRI (if different sequences were applied) or satellite images for 448 environmental sciences. As the development of methods is in constant progress and 449 more spectroscopic techniques become coupled with the microscopy, it is expected that 450 the demand for procedures for analysis of multidimensional images will be in constant 451 growth.

452  $\ell_0$ -norm constrained nonnegative matrix factorization in space induced by explicit 453 feature map was proven to be the method of choice for BSS based analysis of images 454 with good (high) spatial resolution and highly correlated spectra of the pure 455 components. From only 5 starting images, algorithm needed to be able to find the exact

456 number of components that exceeds the number of input images by factor of more than 457 2. Next, it needed to distinguish among the pure components that are not independent 458 but highly correlated, sharing the same spectral form, as majority of fluorophores are 459 present in each pixel on image, only in different ratios. It means that often only the 460 contribution of individual fluorophores affects the final result as the pixel brightness 461 intensity. And finally, task should be proven for tissue discrimination in anatomically 462 right manner.

463 We also suggested that  $\ell_0$ -norm constrained nonnegative matrix factorization in 464 mapped space can be applied as one module in whole analytical procedure that can be 465 applied not only on raw images, but instead on images with selected ROI. Such 466 approach could include image segmentation, clustering based techniques, textural 467 parameters, filters or fractal based techniques. Future work will be focused on 468 application of described procedure on various image sets originating from different 469 instruments. Special attention will be given to micro-spectroscopy, including 470 fluorescence and Raman micro-spectroscopy.

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473 List of abbreviations: cuticle (C), epidermis (EP), mesophyll (M), endodermis (ED),
474 xylem (X), phloem (P), transfusion tissue (TT), hypodermis (H), stoma cells (S), guard
475 cells (GC), epidermis of stamen (ED), endothelium (ET), middle layer (ML), tapetum
476 (TP) and pollen grains.

477

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481

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