

STATISTICAL CLASSIFICATION OF BIOSIGNATURE INFORMATION: IMPROVING LIFE-DETECTION CONFIDENCE USING MACHINE LEARNING

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Introduction: Astrobiology, and the search for signs of past or present life in the universe, are a core priority for the upcoming decade of space exploration [1], especially the need to understand how multiple observations of a system (i.e., multiple potential biosignatures) can be used to increase confidence in life detection [2]. This is particularly true for agnostic biosignatures, or those not specific to a biochemical basis or mechanism [3], in contrast to otherwise highly specific biosignatures such as DNA, chlorophyll, ATP, etc. This project aims to use the extensive amounts of terrestrial data available from biogenic and abiogenic systems to create a binary classifier for life detection. The preliminary data set is limited to measurements that have been previously suggested as agnostic biosignatures, including elemental abundance and distribution, isotopic fractionation, VNIR reflectance spectra, and Raman spectra. This work aims to determine which combinations of features across these data types are most relevant to life detection through assessing feature importance in multiple machine learning algorithms. Our work will help establish which data types and features are most valuable for planning future life detection missions.

Materials and Methods: *Data selection:* Data types (elemental abundance, isotopic fractionation, reflectance spectra, and Raman spectra) were collected from various public databases, publications, and lab-recorded measurements to create a representative-systems dataset. The representative systems, such as basalt, bone, or biofilm, were chosen to be unambiguously classifiable as indicative or non-indicative of life -- edge cases such as prions, protobionts, and technological devices were not included. The indicative systems were further tagged as indicative alive (microbes, vegetation, etc.), indicative mixed (seawater, soil, etc.) and indicative not-alive (bone, coal, etc.) to track whether some could be more effectively classified than others. Examples of non-indicative systems were lunar rock, sand or basalt. Overall, 15 indicative and 8 non indicative representative systems were created from a total 77 indicative samples and 255 non indicative samples.

Data Collection: Elemental and isotopic fractionation data was collected for each representative system using various publications reporting results from X-ray diffraction and laser-induced breakdown spectroscopy techniques. Multiple measurements of the elemental

distribution and isotopic fraction were aggregated into one metric for each system through geometric and arithmetic means respectively. Databases such as ECOSTRESS [4], USGS [5], RELAB [6], and PDS-CRISM [7] were used for the reflectance spectroscopy data. Public sources such as the RRUFF [8] and others were used to collect Raman spectroscopy data for a majority of the systems. Lab recorded measurements of reflectance and Raman spectroscopy data of soil, ice, and seawater were used to complete the dataset.

Standardization: Measurements were standardized to a common limits of detection, range, etc. Elemental abundance measurements were set to an artificial limit of detection of 1.5×10^{-5} . Absent isotopic fractionation data for a specific isotope was replaced with the mean of all data for that isotope. Raman spectra with incident wavelengths of 532 and 514.5 nm and similar instrumentation were used. Finally, for reflectance spectroscopy, only 200-2100 nm data points were used after ordering the spectra from lowest to highest wavelength.

Feature Extraction: The elemental features used for all the representative systems include fractional content of C, O, K, N, H, P, Mg, S, Ca, Na, Cl, Mn, Al, Si, Fe, and Ti. The isotopic fractionation data features were Carbon-13, Oxygen-18 and deuterium deltas between the ratios of heavier and lighter isotopes. Numerical analysis using SciPy signal [9] was done to determine the number and position of peaks, troughs, peak widths, mean reflectance, and mean peak widths; these served as features for the reflectance spectroscopy data. Similarly, the Raman spectroscopy data features extracted were mean intensity value, number of peaks, number of troughs, broadest peak, and mean peak width. These features were used in the following algorithmic implementation.

Machine Learning Implementation: The data was trained and tested on k -nearest neighbors (KNN), logistic regression with L2 regularization (LR), Random Forest (RF), support vector machines (SVM), logistic regression, and Gaussian Naïve Bayes (GNB), and then with a voting classifier combining the output from all of the above. Additionally, Principal Component Analysis was used an unsupervised learning method to supplement findings from the supervised learning models. The classification performance was evaluated with 2,000 50% train-test splits with Monte Carlo simulations. The

