

A dynamic probabilistic principal components model for the analysis of longitudinal metabolomics data.

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Summary. In a longitudinal metabolomics study, multiple metabolites are measured from several observations at many time points. Interest lies in reducing the dimensionality of such data and in highlighting influential metabolites which change over time. A dynamic probabilistic principal components analysis (DPPCA) model is proposed to achieve dimension reduction while appropriately modelling the correlation due to repeated measurements. This is achieved by assuming an autoregressive model for some of the model parameters. Linear mixed models are subsequently used to identify influential metabolites which change over time. The proposed model is used to analyse data from a longitudinal metabolomics animal study.

1. Introduction

Metabolomics is the study of low molecular weight compounds known as metabolites found in biological samples; its application reveals information on metabolic pathways within an organism. The number of areas in which metabolomics is applied has recently enjoyed rapid growth and metabolomics is now employed in fields such as nutrition, toxicology and disease diagnosis. In a typical metabolomics study large data sets are generated using analytical technologies such as nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) (Reo, 2002) and mass spectrometry (MS) (Dettmer et al., 2007). With respect to NMR spectroscopy the resulting spectrum consists of a series of peaks where the height of a peak is related to the relative abundance of the associated metabolite. Studying such metabolomic profiles gives insight to the metabolic state of a system.

Metabolomic data sets are usually high-dimensional, in that the resulting spectra contain many peaks (i.e. variables), yet they are characterised by small sample sizes – hence classical statistical approaches cannot be easily applied. The data sets contain variables that are not independent in that metabolites can be represented by more than one peak and metabolites can be highly correlated (van den Berg et al., 2006). In addition to correlated variables, in longitudinal metabolomics data sets there is further correlation structure due to the repeated measurements of observations over time. Hence, appropriate statistical models are required in order to appropriately model the data and extract true, important information.

Within the metabolomics literature, principal components analysis (PCA) (Jolliffe, 2002) is often used for multivariate data exploration (Walsh et al., 2007; Smolinska et al., 2012;

Cassol et al., 2013; Carvalho et al., 2013; Bathen et al., 2013; Sachse et al., 2012). Methods that improve and extend the application of this common statistical technique will prove extremely useful to the metabolomics practitioner, and to scientists in other fields. The application of PCA to longitudinal studies is limited however by the fact that PCA does not take into account information about the experimental design i.e. if PCA is applied to all time points simultaneously, measurements taken repeatedly over time are assumed independent (Choi et al., 2006). In such a case, since PCA looks for directions in the data space with maximum variation, time related variation will act as a confounding factor obscuring potential differences due to treatment.

Several extensions to PCA have been developed to take into account the experimental design of a study and therefore can be used to analyse longitudinal metabolomics data more appropriately. These include weighted PCA (Jansen et al., 2004) which uses weights to account for variation due to repeated measurements and ASCA (Smilde et al., 2005) which combines analysis of variance and simultaneous components analysis methods to deal with complex multivariate datasets. Jansen et al. (2009) employ local PCA models at each time point, and then link these local models to each other. Dynamic PCA (Smilde et al., 2010) uses a back-shift matrix to analyse data from multiple time points simultaneously. The main limitation of these approaches is that they do not have an associated generative probabilistic model. Hence, it is difficult to assess the uncertainty in the fitted model estimates, and model extensions are not feasible.

Mixed effects models have also been employed to model longitudinal metabolomics data. Mei et al. (2009) employ a linear mixed-effects model (LMM) in the context of feature selection for longitudinal metabolomics data, but under the assumption that spectral peaks are independent variables. The high levels of correlation between spectral peaks (i.e. metabolites) is biologically important however, and such correlation structure should be explicitly modeled. In a similar vein, Berk et al. (2011) employ smoothing splines mixed-effects models to model longitudinal metabolomics data. While these models have a statistical modelling basis and therefore appropriately model the longitudinal aspect of the data, multiple testing issues (Dudoit et al., 2003) result as the chances of false positives increase with the dimensionality of the data. While this problem can be controlled (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995), dimension reducing features of methods such as PCA are attractive.

Probabilistic PCA (PPCA) is an approach to PCA based on a Gaussian latent variable model (Tipping and Bishop, 1999; Nyamundanda et al., 2010). PPCA retains the benefits of PCA, such as dimension reduction, while facilitating model extensions through its basis in a statistical model. Here an extension of PPCA called dynamic PPCA (DPPCA) is proposed which allows PPCA to appropriately model the time dependencies in longitudinal metabolomics data. This is achieved by assuming a stochastic volatility model for some of the PPCA parameters. The proposed DPPCA model is closely related to the dynamic factor analysis model (Aguilar and West, 2000) employed to model multivariate financial time series data.

Data generated in longitudinal metabolomics studies form the basis for the development of the proposed DPPCA model. Examples of such studies include, but are not limited to, postprandial human studies and long term drug treatment studies (Wopereis et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2011; Krug et al., 2012; Nicholson et al., 2012). Interest lies in reducing

the dimensionality of the data (for statistical and visualisation purposes) and subsequently highlighting influential metabolites which change over time, while appropriately modelling the longitudinal nature of the data. The proposed DPPCA model is employed to achieve dimension reduction and model the time dependencies; linear mixed models (LMM) are then employed to identify the metabolites which change over time. The utility of the DPPCA approach is demonstrated through the analysis of data from a longitudinal metabolomics animal study.

The remainder of the article is structured as follows. An overview of longitudinal metabolomics studies is presented in Section 2. The DPPCA model is introduced in Section 3 and the use of stochastic volatility models to account for the correlation due to repeated measurements is detailed. The DPPCA model is estimated within the Bayesian paradigm; accordingly Section 4 specifies the necessary prior distributions and describes the use of Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) techniques to fit the DPPCA model. Section 5 details the application of the DPPCA model to a longitudinal metabolomics data set. Discussion of the developed model and further avenues of research are deferred until the conclusion, in Section 6.

2. Longitudinal metabolomics studies

In recent years, a number of longitudinal metabolomics datasets have emerged in the literature (Wopereis et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2011; Krug et al., 2012). With regard to human applications, a number of studies employing metabolomics over time following acute challenges such as the oral glucose tolerance test have recently been published and shown to be extremely powerful in studying subtle changes. Applying metabolomics to longitudinal animal studies for determining long term drug toxicity and efficacy is also an important emergent area. In such applications a number of key study aims typically exist which, in general, can be described as follows:

- (i) data visualisation
- (ii) assessing the effect of time within each treatment group and
- (iii) identifying metabolites which change over time within each treatment group.

The DPPCA model proposed here helps address these specific aims. In the case of (i) the DPPCA model facilitates visualisation of the study participants in a reduced dimensional space, while appropriately modelling the time course nature of the data. The effect of time within each treatment group (aim (ii)) can be assessed by applying the DPPCA model to the data from each treatment group. An additional output of the DPPCA model is a list of the most influential metabolites within each group. To address aim (iii) univariate analyses with LMM are then carried out to identify those influential metabolites which change over time.

Metabolomics data from a longitudinal animal study motivate and illustrate the proposed DPPCA model. The study has been described in detail in Carmody and Brennan (2010). Briefly, an animal model of epilepsy was employed by repeated administration of pentylenetetrazole (PTZ) which leads to the development of generalised tonic-clonic seizures. Over the administration period (5 weeks) urine samples were collected from treated animals (PTZ treated) and control animals (saline treated animals). The aim of the study

was to determine metabolic changes that occur over time during PTZ treatment.

NMR spectra were acquired from the urine samples and the spectra were integrated into bin regions of 0.04 parts per million (ppm), excluding the water regions (4.0–6.0 ppm). For the purposes of this work, the final acquired data set consists of NMR spectra for $n = 15$ animals (8 treated and 7 control), each containing $p = 189$ spectral bin regions, from $M = 8$ time points. The $p = 189$ peaks in the spectra at different chemical shift values (measured in ppm) relate to specific metabolites; the height of a peak in any spectrum details the relative abundance of the associated metabolite in the animal's urine sample. Figure 1 illustrates a metabolomic spectrum resulting from the urine sample collected at a single time point from an animal in the study.

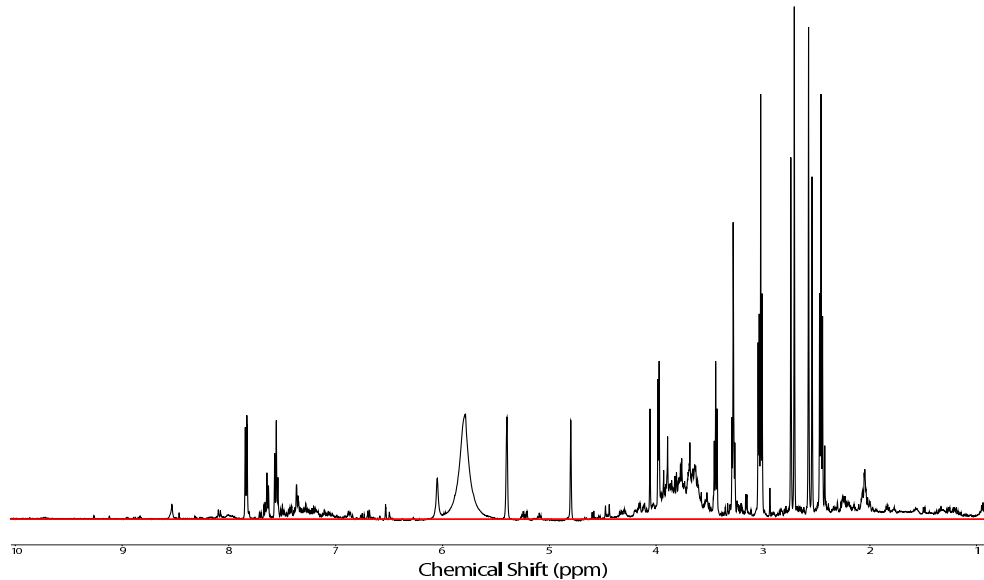


Fig. 1. A metabolomic profile resulting from the urine sample collected at a single time point from an animal in the longitudinal metabolomic study.

3. Dynamic Probabilistic Principal Components Analysis

Probabilistic principal components analysis (PPCA) is a latent factor model constrained such that the maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters span the principal subspace of conventional PCA. Given its underlying assumptions however, PPCA is only applicable to data from a cross sectional study. Here an extension of PPCA to a dynamic PPCA (DPPCA) model is developed; a brief introduction to PPCA, and its extension to the DPPCA model, are detailed in what follows.

144 3.1. Probabilistic Principal Components Analysis (PPCA)

PPCA is a generative statistical model which models a high-dimensional observed data point as a linear function of a corresponding low-dimensional latent variable plus isotropic (full-dimensional) noise. For each of n animals, let $\mathbf{x}_i^T = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})$ denote the set of p observed variables for animal i (eg. an NMR spectrum with p spectral bins). The PPCA model relates each $\mathbf{x}_i$ to a q -dimensional latent Gaussian variable $\mathbf{u}_i$ (typically $q \ll p$) through the linear model:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = W\mathbf{u}_i + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$$

145 where W is a $p \times q$ loadings matrix and the error term $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$ is assumed to have a multivariate Gaussian distribution, centred at zero with covariance $\sigma^2 I$, where I denotes the identity matrix. The error term models the part of the observed data which cannot be accounted for 146 by the q underlying latent variables, or principle components (PCs). Assuming a standard 147 multivariate normal (MVN) distribution for $\mathbf{u}_i$, each data point has a zero mean multivariate 148 normal distribution with covariance $WW^T + \sigma^2 I$. 149

Crucially, the likelihood of the PPCA model is maximized when the columns of W 150 span the principal subspace of conventional PCA (Tipping and Bishop, 1999). Thus the 151 maximum likelihood estimate of the loadings matrix in PPCA corresponds exactly to the 152 loadings matrix in conventional PCA. Hence the model output in PPCA is exactly that 153 obtained in conventional PCA, but with the additional advantages of uncertainty assessment 154 and potential model extensions. 155

157 3.2. Dynamic Probabilistic Principal Components Analysis (DPPCA)

The derivation of PCA from a probabilistic framework facilitates the development of dynamic 158 PPCA as a tool for modelling longitudinal multivariate data. Under the DPPCA 159 model, the set of p observed variables $\mathbf{x}_{im}$ for animal i at time point m ($m = 1, \dots, M$) is 160 modeled as: 161

$$\mathbf{x}_{im} = W_m \mathbf{u}_{im} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{im} \quad (1)$$

162 where W_m , the loadings, and $\mathbf{u}_{im}^T = (u_{i1m}, \dots, u_{iqm})$, the latent scores, vary with time. 163

Unlike the PPCA model which constrains the covariance of the multivariate Gaussian 164 distribution of the latent variables to be an identity matrix, the DPPCA model eases the 165 equal variance restriction such that 166

$$p(\mathbf{u}_{im}) = \text{MVN}_q(\mathbf{0}, H_m)$$

167 where $H_m = \text{diag}(h_{1m}, \dots, h_{qm})$. This assumption allows the variances of the underlying 168 latent variables to differ across the latent dimensions and to depend on time. 169

The error, $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{im}$, for animal i at time m is also assumed to have a multivariate Gaussian distribution:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{im}) = \text{MVN}_p(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_m^2 I).$$

170 Again, the variance parameter σ_m^2 varies with time. The errors, $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{im}$ and the latent variables 171 (or scores), $\mathbf{u}_{im}$ are assumed to be mutually independent for all $m = 1, \dots, M$. 172

While the variance parameter of the error terms σ_m^2 varies with time, it is constrained to be constant across all observed variables. This is in line with the assumptions of the underlying PPCA model; should the variances be unconstrained across variables a dynamic factor analytic model results (McNicholas and Murphy, 2008; Aguilar and West, 2000). Thus the DPPCA model can be viewed as a constrained dynamic factor model.

The choice of developing the DPPCA model, rather than employing an alternative dynamic factor model to analyse the metabolomic data under study, deserves explanation. The manner in which time dependence is accounted for in the DPPCA model, and the constraints employed, are motivated by the explicit needs of the motivating metabolomics application. The metabolomics practitioners are interested in time evolving metabolites, hence the need for a different loadings matrix at each time point, leading to a highly parameterised model. Further, strongly motivated by the ubiquitous use, understanding and acceptance of PCA in the metabolomics field (Smolinska et al., 2012; Cassol et al., 2013; Carvalho et al., 2013; Bathen et al., 2013; Sachse et al., 2012), maintaining a link to PPCA was deemed to be highly desirable. As the link to PPCA occurs by constraining the error variances to be equal, this modelling decision satisfied the metabolomic scientists, and provided a more parsimonious model than a generic dynamic factor model. The appropriateness of the DPPCA model assumptions are assessed after model fitting in Section 5.4, using posterior predictive model checking.

3.3. Stochastic Volatility Models

Stochastic volatility models (Jacquier et al., 1994; Kim et al., 1998) are popular in econometrics and finance where they are typically employed to model the variance of returns over time, which are highly correlated. The DPPCA model accounts for the correlation due to repeated measurements through the use of stochastic volatility (SV) models. Specifically, the DPPCA model assumes that at time point m the variances $h_{1m}, \dots, h_{qm}$ of the latent variables and the error variances σ_m^2 follow a latent stochastic process. These assumptions allow the DPPCA model to account for any potential time dependence in longitudinal multivariate data.

Again, the motivation behind the incorporation of SV models in DPPCA requires explanation. While SV models typically model settings with many time points (Aguilar and West, 2000), they have been employed when modelling longitudinal multivariate data, where the number of time points is low. Ramoni et al. (2002), Fang-Xiang et al. (2005) and Wang et al. (2008), for example, employ SV models for modelling high dimensional time course data where the number of time points ranges from 8 to 18. Hence the SV model was deemed suitable to model the evolution of the latent variables over time. The appropriateness of the SV model assumptions is assessed after model fitting in Section 5.4.

3.3.1. A stochastic volatility model for the latent variables

An SV model on the latent variable u_{ijm} of animal i ($i = 1, \dots, n$) for principal component j ($j = 1, \dots, q$) at time point m ($m = 1, \dots, M$) can be expressed as:

$$u_{ijm} = \exp(\lambda_{jm}/2)\zeta_{ijm}$$

where $\lambda_{jm} = \log(h_{jm})$ is known as the log volatility and ζ_{ijm} , which has a standard univariate Gaussian distribution, denotes the error term of the SV model. Thus the conditional distribution of the latent variable is $u_{ijm} | \lambda_{jm} \sim N[0, \exp(\lambda_{jm})]$. The q -vector of log volatilities, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_m^T = (\lambda_{1m}, \dots, \lambda_{qm})$, is assumed to have a stationary first order vector autoregressive process VAR(1) centered around a mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}^T = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_q)$:

$$\boldsymbol{\lambda}_m = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \Phi(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{m-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) + \mathbf{R}_m$$

where Φ is a matrix of persistence parameters and $\mathbf{R}_m \sim \text{MVN}_q(\mathbf{0}, V)$ are independent innovations. The model restricts dependencies across the principal dimensions by constraining the matrix of persistence parameters Φ and the covariance of the innovations V to be diagonal i.e. $\Phi = \text{diag}(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_q)$ and $V = \text{diag}(v_1^2, \dots, v_q^2)$ respectively. The innovation variance v_j^2 is the uncertainty associated with predicting the current log volatility using the log volatility from the previous time point on component j . The persistence parameter Φ is the parameter of interest; it measures the strength of the relationship between time points. For stationarity, the persistence parameter ϕ_j is constrained to lie between -1 and 1 (Kim et al., 1998). The initial state, by stationarity, is drawn from the model $p(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_1) = \text{MVN}_q[\boldsymbol{\mu}, \text{diag}(\frac{v_1^2}{1-\phi_1^2}, \dots, \frac{v_q^2}{1-\phi_q^2})]$. The distribution of the log volatilities $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_m$ given the log volatilities of the previous time point $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{m-1}$ is given by $\text{MVN}_q[\boldsymbol{\mu} + \Phi(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{m-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}), V]$ for $m > 1$.

Constraining the covariance matrix V to be diagonal is a modelling decision motivated by the fact that the PPCA model does not facilitate dependence across the principal components and PPCA underpins the DPPCA model, as detailed in Section 3.2. Such a model was considered by Harvey et al. (1994), Kim et al. (1998) and Jacquier et al. (1995) among others; Aguilar and West (2000) allow correlation across dimensions, motivated by their financial application area.

3.3.2. A stochastic volatility model for the errors

Additionally, another SV model is adopted to model the potential time dependence in the errors of the DPPCA model. The p -vector of errors of observation i at time m can be expressed as $\epsilon_{im} = \exp[\eta_m/2]\boldsymbol{\xi}_{im}$ where $\eta_m = \log(\sigma_m^2)$ is the log volatility at time m and $\boldsymbol{\xi}_{im} \sim \text{MVN}_p(\mathbf{0}, I)$. The log volatilities η_m on the errors are assumed to have a stationary first order autoregressive process AR(1):

$$\eta_m = \nu + \phi(\eta_{m-1} - \nu) + r_m$$

where the center of the AR(1) model is ν and the persistence parameter ϕ is constrained such that $\phi \in [-1, 1]$. The innovations of the AR(1) model are assumed to be normally distributed, $r_m \sim N(0, v^2)$. It follows that the initial state of the SV model is $p(\eta_1) = N(\nu, \frac{v^2}{1-\phi^2})$ and that $p(\eta_m | \eta_{m-1}) = N[\nu + \phi(\eta_{m-1} - \nu), v^2]$ for $m > 1$. Note that, as stated in Section 3.2, to maintain the link to PPCA and for reasons of parsimony, each of the p dimensions in the error ϵ_{im} are constrained to follow the same AR(1) model.

4. Estimation of the DPPCA model

Under the DPPCA model, the full augmented data likelihood function based on the data $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ and the latent variables $U = (U_1, \dots, U_n)$, $\Lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_M)$ is:

$$p(X, U, \Lambda, \eta | W, \theta_1, \theta_2) = \left[\prod_{m=1}^M \prod_{i=1}^n p(\mathbf{x}_{im} | W_m, \mathbf{u}_{im}, \eta_m) p(\mathbf{u}_{im} | \lambda_m) \right] p(\eta | \theta_1) p(\Lambda | \theta_2)$$

where $\theta_1 = (\nu, \phi, v^2)$ and $\theta_2 = (\mu, \Phi, V)$ denote the SV model parameters on the errors and latent scores respectively. The PPCA model on each time point $p(\mathbf{x}_{im} | W_m, \mathbf{u}_{im}, \eta_m)$ is $\text{MVN}_p[W\mathbf{u}_{im}, \exp(\eta_m)I]$.

A Bayesian approach is taken when estimating the DPPCA model; this requires the specification of prior distributions for all the model parameters. The resulting posterior distribution is intricate and Markov chain Monte Carlo methods are necessary to produce realizations of the model parameters. Specifically, a Metropolis-within-Gibbs algorithm is required to sample from the full conditional distributions for all model parameters and latent variables.

4.1. Prior distributions

Prior distributions over the full set of the model parameters need to be specified. It is assumed that the prior distributions on the model parameters are independent. Under the PPCA part of the DPPCA model, the only parameters are the loadings matrices $W_1, \dots, W_M$. A q -dimensional multivariate normal prior distribution, centered at $\mathbf{0}$ with covariance Ω_m , is assumed for each row of the loadings matrix W_m at time m .

The remaining model parameters are all parameters of the SV part of the DPPCA model. Non-informative normal prior distributions are specified on the means of the SV models i.e. a $N(\mu_\nu, \sigma_\nu^2)$ distribution is specified for ν and a $N(\mu_\mu, \sigma_\mu^2)$ distribution is assumed on each of the univariate elements of μ , where the variance hyperparameter in each of these priors is large. A conjugate prior is assumed for the variances of the innovations in the SV models i.e. an inverse gamma $IG(\alpha/2, \beta/2)$ distribution is chosen for the prior distribution of v^2 and for each of the diagonal elements of V . For stationarity, the persistence parameters of the SV models are constrained to lie in $[-1, 1]$; accordingly the prior distributions on ϕ and on the diagonal elements of Φ are truncated normal distributions, $N_{[-1,1]}(\mu_\phi, \sigma_\phi^2)$.

As in any Bayesian setting, the choice of prior distribution can potentially influence parameter inference. Sensitivity analyses were conducted to assess the influence of different choices of priors on the resulting posterior distribution. Some sensitivity was observed in the case of the persistence parameters. Kim et al. (1998) employ a transformed beta prior for the persistence parameters, but sensitivity analyses here suggested that the posterior distribution strongly depended on the values of the hyperparameters used. In a similar setting to the DPPCA model, Aguilar and West (2000) employ a truncated (between ± 1) Gaussian prior for the persistence parameters; the posterior distributions were less sensitive to the parameter specification under this prior. Thus, a Gaussian prior, truncated (between ± 1), was employed here for the persistence parameters.

291 4.2. The Metropolis-within-Gibbs sampler

292 Given the specified prior distributions, the resulting posterior distribution is intricate and
 293 Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods are required to produce realizations of the
 294 model parameters. The full conditional distributions for the loadings matrices W_m , the
 295 latent scores U_m , the SV model means ν and μ , and the SV model innovation variances
 296 v^2 and V exist in standard form, and a straightforward Gibbs sampler can be employed to
 297 draw samples. However, the full conditional distributions for the persistence parameters ϕ
 298 and Φ and for the log volatilities Λ and η are not available in closed form; values from these
 299 distributions are therefore sampled using a Metropolis Hastings step. Hence a Metropolis-
 300 within-Gibbs algorithm (Gilks et al., 1996) is required to sample from the full conditional
 301 distributions for all model parameters and latent variables. Carlin and Louis (2000) detail
 302 the conditions necessary for the convergence of such a hybrid algorithm.

304 Detailed derivations of the full conditional distributions for the DPPCA model param-
 305 eters and latent variables are given in the Supplementary Material. For the Metropolis-
 306 Hastings steps to update the log volatilities, proposal distributions which are closely related
 307 to the shape and orientation of the target full conditional distributions provide an im-
 308 proved rate of convergence. To achieve this, second order Taylor expansions of the full
 309 conditional distributions for η and Λ are employed to guide the choice of an effective pro-
 310 posal distribution and its parameter values (Kim et al., 1998). A summary of one sweep of
 311 the Metropolis-within-Gibbs sampler for the DPPCA model is given in the Supplementary
 312 Material.

313 4.3. Model Identification

314 As with factor analytic models, the DPPCA model suffers from identification issues. Sub-
 315 jecting the loadings matrix and latent scores to an orthogonal rotation gives rise to the same
 316 distribution for the observed data. Thus it is not possible to identify the model parameters
 317 from the observed data unless restrictions are imposed.

319 Many attempts to deal with non-identifiability of the related factor analytic models are
 320 detailed in the literature. Most commonly, a unique model is defined by constraining the
 321 loadings matrix such that the first q rows are lower-triangular with positive diagonal ele-
 322 ments (Geweke and Zhou, 1996). However imposing this structure also imposes structure
 323 on the ordering of the variables (Aguilar and West, 2000). Within the context of the mo-
 324 tivating metabolomics application, such a structure cannot be imposed on the variables as
 325 the ordering of the spectral peaks within a metabolomics spectrum is important.

327 The approach taken here is to estimate a fully unconstrained loadings matrix using
 328 the Metropolis-within-Gibbs sampler detailed in the Supplementary Material. Procrustean
 329 techniques (Borg and Groenen, 2005) are then employed to post-process the sampled load-
 330 ings matrices to match them to the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of the loadings
 331 matrix resulting from fitting a PPCA model to data from the relevant time point. The
 332 MLE is used only as a template, to identify the model. The transformation required to
 333 match the loadings matrices is also applied to the latent scores. In practice, this has proved
 334 to be a fast and satisfactory approach to dealing with model non-identifiability.

5. Results

As detailed in Section 2, three specific issues associated with the longitudinal metabolomics study need to be addressed: (i) data visualisation, (ii) assessing the effect of time within each treatment group and (iii) identifying the specific metabolites which change over time within each treatment group. The DPPCA model, in combination with linear mixed models, is fitted to the longitudinal metabolomics data set to address these issues. For reasons of visual clarity, only models with $q = 2$ were considered. For each set of results detailed below, the prior distributions employed for the DPPCA model parameters were specifically:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w}_{km} &\sim \text{MVN}_q(\mathbf{0}, I) \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, p \text{ and } m = 1, \dots, M. \\ \nu &\sim N(0, 10) \\ v^2 &\sim IG(6/2, 0.5/2) \\ \phi &\sim N_{[-1,1]}(0.75, 0.1) \end{aligned}$$

The priors on the univariate entries of the set of parameters $\theta_2 = (\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Phi, V)$ were the same as those for $\theta_1 = (\nu, \phi, v^2)$. The Metropolis-within-Gibbs sampler was run for 500,000 iterations, thinned every 500th iteration. The first 5,000 iterations were discarded as burn-in. The MCMC algorithm was initialized using estimates of the loading matrices from fitting a PPCA model to data from each time point independently; stochastic volatility model parameters were set equal to their prior means. Trace plots and autocorrelation function (ACF) plots for the MCMC samples of the parameters were used to assess convergence of the algorithm.

5.1. Data Visualisation: Exploring Metabolomic Trajectories

In longitudinal metabolomics studies, trajectories through the latent principal subspace can be used to gain visual insight to the response of animals during the study period. Examining the location, magnitude and direction of these metabolomic trajectories provides visual insight to the metabolomic changes over time.

Here metabolomic trajectories were estimated using the latent scores of animals resulting from collectively modelling data from both treatment groups using a DPPCA model. Such a model takes into account the covariation between the metabolites and any correlation across time; this facilitates visualisation of animals in a reduced dimensional space, while appropriately modelling the time course nature of the data. Trace plots for the estimated latent scores and loadings are given in the Supplementary Material.

The metabolomic trajectories of four randomly sampled animals are illustrated in Figure 2. Under the DPPCA model, each time point m has a different principal subspace, defined by the columns of the relevant loadings matrix W_m . Hence the latent scores of animals at different time points lie in different subspaces. To visualise the metabolomic trajectories the latent scores must therefore be unified. This is achieved by again drawing on Procrustean ideas, where the loadings matrix from the first time point is used as the reference matrix. The loadings matrix from each subsequent time point m is rotated to best match the loadings matrix from the first time point; the same rotation is then applied to the associated set of scores from time point m . This facilitates illustration of the movement of the latent scores over time within the same principal subspace. Figure 2 therefore provides

visual insight to the animals' metabolomic trajectories in the principal subspace from the first time point.

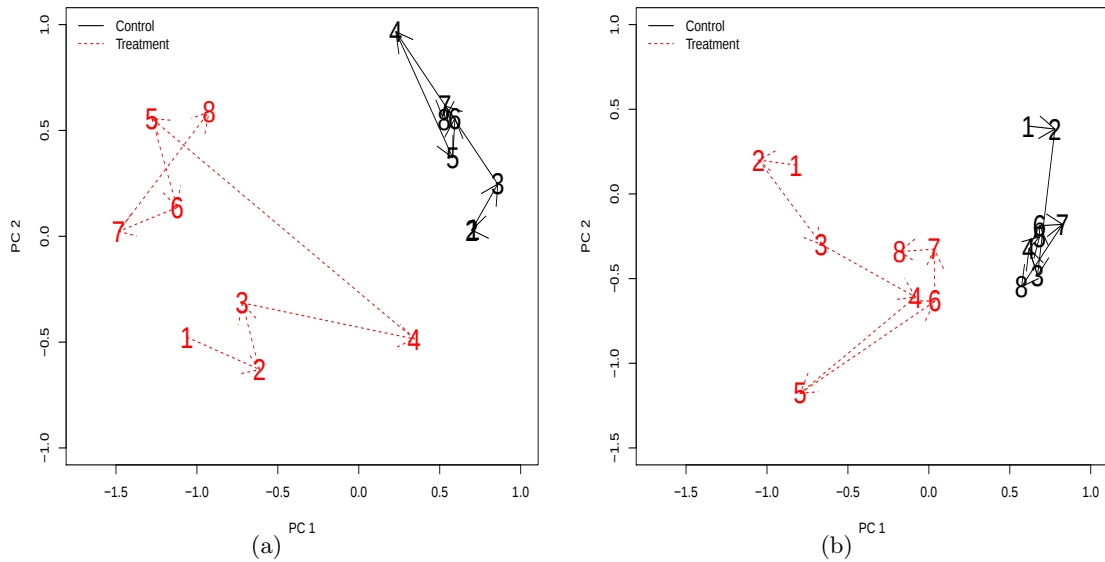


Fig. 2. Individual trajectories for four randomly sampled animals, in the principal subspace from the first time point. (a) An animal from the control group (black solid lines) and an animal from the treated group (red dashed lines) and (b) an animal from the control group (black solid lines) and an animal from the treated group (red dashed lines). The digits represent the time points of the study and arrows illustrate movement through time.

Figure 2 suggests the presence of a treatment effect through the visible separation of the locations of the treated and control animals in the principal subspace from the first time point. The difference in the biochemical composition of the urine due to treatment is highlighted by the different 'metabolic starting positions' of the trajectories for the randomly selected animals from the control group and those from the treatment groups. This is due to the fact that the urine samples analysed at time point 1 actually resulted from day 3 of the study, at which stage the treatment is apparently having an effect.

The trajectories also demonstrate that the magnitude of the metabolic changes in the biochemical composition of the urine samples is much greater in the treatment group than in the control group, over time. This is evidenced by the larger movements between time points by the treated animals. This shows that the variability in the urinary composition of the treated animals over time is greater than that in the control group. Thus, the metabolomic trajectories provide a visual insight to the metabolomic changes occurring over time.

5.2. Exploring the Effect of Time

The second aim of the longitudinal study was to ascertain if there is a time effect within each treatment group. In an effort to quantify the effect of time, the DPPCA model was fitted separately to each treatment group. If a time effect is established, the task will then be to identify metabolites whose concentration level is significantly changing over time.

5.2.1. Exploring the Effect of Time in the Treatment Group

The DPPCA model was fitted to the metabolomic spectra from the animals in the treatment group. The persistence parameters in the SV models are the parameters of interest as they quantify the strength of the relationship between the time points. Figure 3(a) illustrates the posterior distribution of the persistence parameter (ϕ) of the SV model on the errors. The relevant trace and ACF plots are given in Figure 3(b) and Figure 3(c) respectively. The posterior mean of ϕ was large and positive ($\hat{\phi} = 0.69$) and significant (95% quantile based credible interval (CI) (0.15, 0.97)). The persistence parameters of the SV model on the latent variables for PC 1 and PC 2 were also estimated to be large and significant at $\hat{\phi}_1 = 0.64$ (0.07, 0.97) and $\hat{\phi}_2 = 0.66$ (0.08, 0.97), respectively. The posterior means suggest that a positive time dependency exists among the spectra from the treatment group.

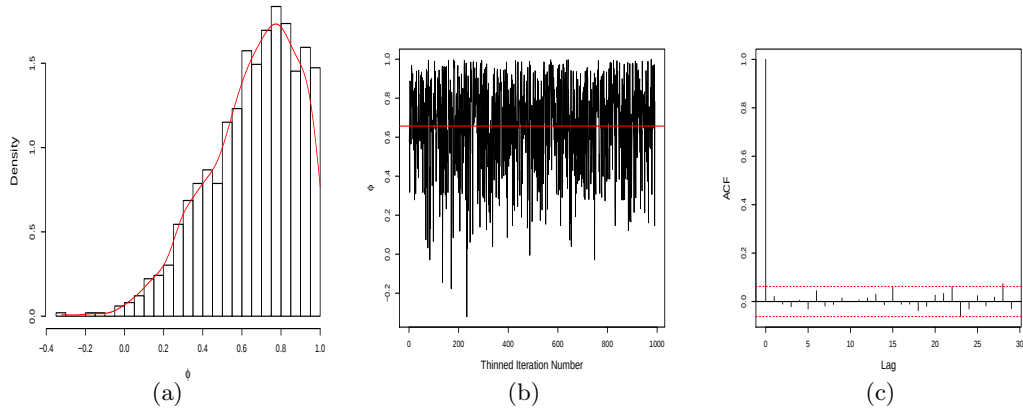


Fig. 3. The persistence parameter, ϕ , of the SV model on the error variances in the treatment group: (a) plot of the posterior density, (b) trace plot and (c) ACF plot. The horizontal line in (b) illustrates the posterior mean of ϕ .

Given that a time effect has been established, the third aim of the study was to identify the specific metabolites which change over time within the treatment group. This is achieved by first using the DPPCA model to expose those metabolites which influence the data structure at each time point. Under the DPPCA model, this translates to identifying a subset of metabolites whose posterior mean loadings are largest (in terms of magnitude) at each time point. Standard linear mixed models are then fitted to these ‘influential metabolites’ to identify those which change over time. This approach yields a panel of metabolites which evolve over time, while appropriately accounting for the covariation in the high-dimensional data, and the time related dependencies.

Table 1. Posterior means of the persistence parameters and the corresponding 95% CIs for the control group.

SV model	Estimate	(95% CI)
Errors (ϕ)	0.66	(0.09,0.98)
PC 1 (ϕ_1)	0.65	(0.10,0.98)
PC 2 (ϕ_2)	0.66	(0.07,0.97)

After fitting the DPPCA model to the spectra from animals in the treatment group, several spectral regions (corresponding to metabolites) were identified as influencing the underlying structure of the data. At each time point, the absolute values of the posterior mean loadings on PC1 were ranked in descending order. The top five influential spectral bins at each time point were determined and are shown in Figure 4. None of the 95% CIs associated with these spectral bins included zero. The set of the top five spectral bins across all $M = 8$ time points consists of only eight unique spectral bins (2.46ppm, 2.54ppm, 2.58ppm, 2.66ppm, 2.7ppm, 2.74ppm, 3.02ppm and 3.26ppm).

Bayesian linear mixed models were fitted to the data associated with the eight unique influential spectral bins to determine which, if any, have concentrations which evolve over time. A random intercept model with cubic time effect was the most complex model considered; no interaction terms were considered. A backwards selection type approach was taken to model selection for each spectral bin considered. Of the eight spectral bins considered, six were deemed to have significantly fluctuating concentration levels over time. Figure 5 illustrates the predicted average intensity levels for each of the six spectral bins.

The metabolites identified to be evolving over time include the metabolite 2-oxoglutarate, represented by the spectral bins 2.46ppm and 3.02ppm. The concentration level of 2-oxoglutarate decreases initially during the study and increases at later time points, as illustrated by the similar behaviour of the predicted intensities of 2.46ppm and 3.02ppm in Figure 5. The model also predicts a linear decreasing metabolic time profile for spectral bin 2.7ppm. Spectral bin 2.54ppm has a positive quadratic time effect in the treated animals i.e. the concentration level decreases and then increases over time. Spectral bins 2.58ppm and 3.26ppm have a positive linear time trend. Individual animal and predicted profiles for three of the six evolving spectral bins are given in the Supplementary Material.

5.2.2. Exploring the Effect of Time in the Control Group

To establish the presence or absence of a time effect in the control group of animals, and to subsequently highlight those metabolites which evolve over time, the same approach as that taken in Section 5.2.1 was followed. That is, the DPPCA model was fitted to the spectra of animals in the control group only; Table 1 details the posterior means of the persistence parameters of the SV model on the errors and on the latent variables, with their corresponding 95% CIs. Table 1 shows that the persistence parameters of the SV models are large and significant, suggesting that there is a relationship across time.

Given that a time effect has been established in the control group, interest then lies in highlighting those metabolites which evolve over time. The posterior mean PC1 loadings of

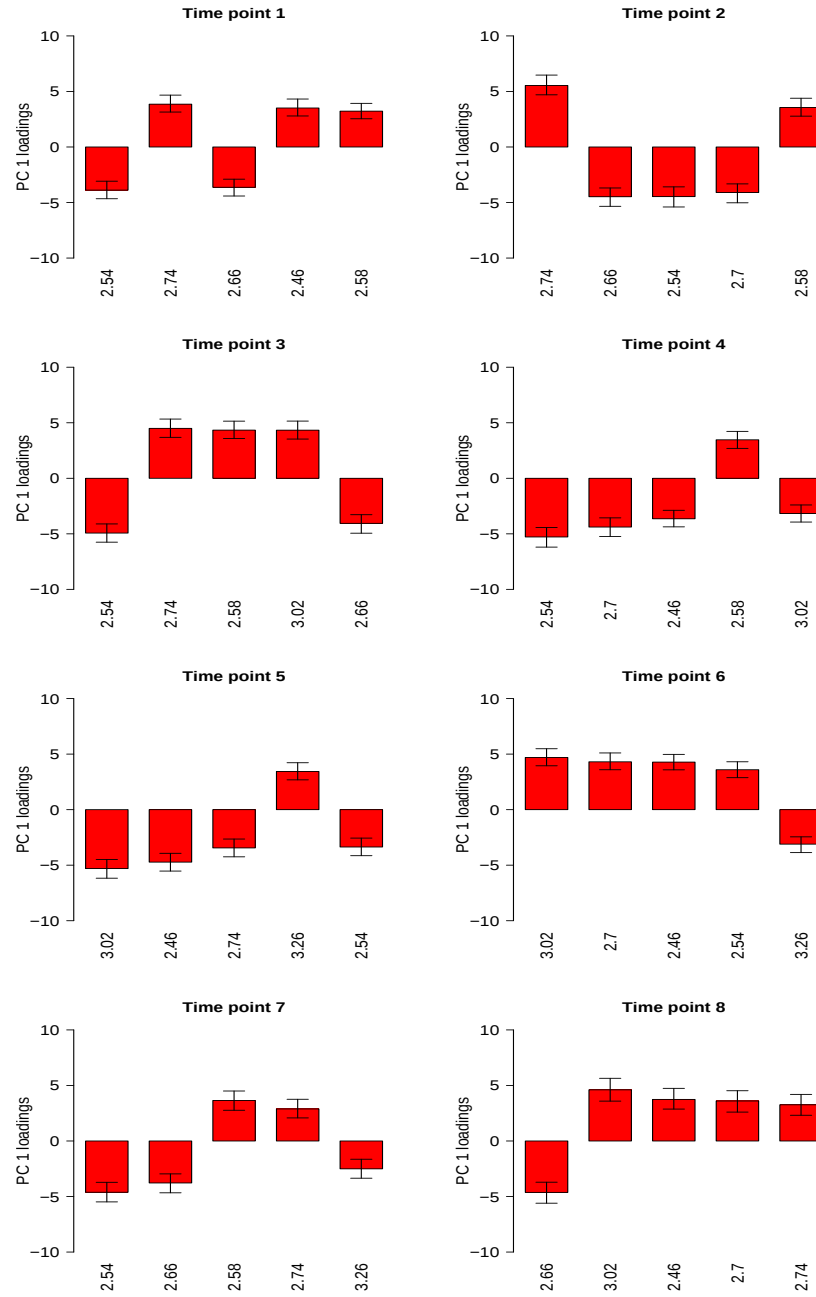


Fig. 4. Barplots of the posterior mean loadings for the top five influential spectral bins, which correspond to metabolites, in the treatment group. The error bars are the corresponding 95% quantile based credible intervals.

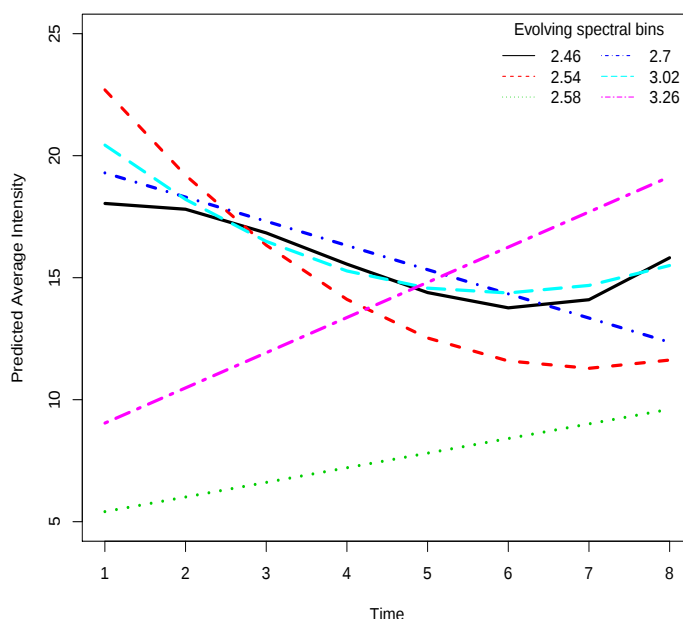


Fig. 5. The LMM predicted average intensities of the six influential spectral bins which evolve over time in the treatment group.

the DPPCA model were ranked to select the top five influential spectral bins at each time point; again, none of the associated 95% CIs included zero. From this list of spectral bins, those which evolve over time in the control group were identified. Seven unique influential spectral bins were ranked in the top five over the eight time points; Bayesian LMM models were fitted to the profiles for each of these and all seven were identified as evolving over time. Figure 6 illustrates the predicted average intensity levels over the eight time points, under the selected LMM for each of the seven evolving spectral bins.

The metabolite 2-oxoglutarate (with corresponding spectral bins 2.46ppm and 3.02ppm) was predicted by the Bayesian LMM to have a negative quadratic time effect in the control group i.e. its concentration increases and then decreases over time (see Figure 6). Spectral bins 2.54ppm and 3.42ppm have positive quadratic time effects. The remaining evolving spectral bins (2.58ppm, 2.7ppm and 3.26ppm) have cubic time effects. Individual animal and predicted profiles for three of the seven evolving spectral bins are given in the Supplementary Material.

5.3. Comparing evolving metabolites in the two treatment groups

As the aim of the longitudinal metabolomics study was to determine metabolic changes that occur over time during PTZ treatment, of interest are the similarities and differences between the set of evolving metabolites in the treatment group and the set in the control group.

A total of six spectral bins were highlighted as evolving in the treatment group and seven in the control group. There is considerable overlap between the two sets of evolving

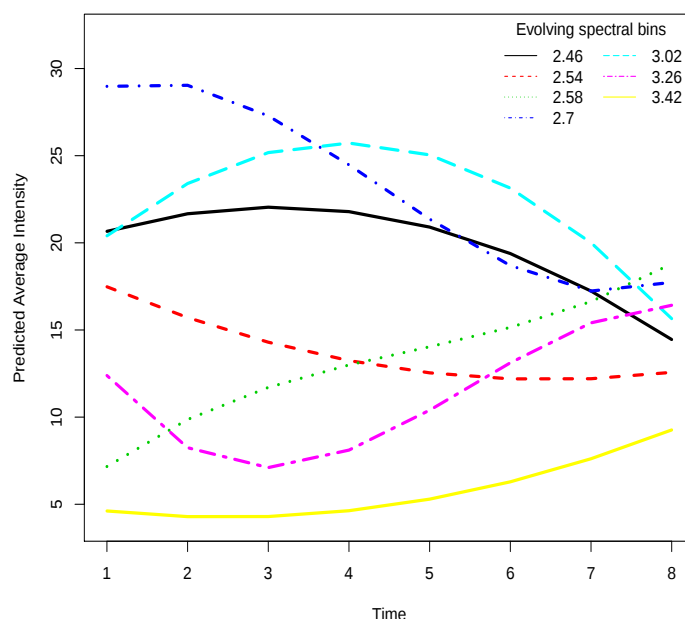


Fig. 6. The LMM predicted average intensities of the seven influential spectral bins which evolve over time in the control group.

bins, with 3.42ppm evolving in the control group only. While some of the common spectral bins had the same evolution pattern, some differed. In particular, the spectral bins 2.46ppm and 3.02ppm relating to the 2-oxoglutarate metabolite were predicted to have opposite quadratic effects in the treatment group and in the control group. Figure 7, which shows the predicted average intensities for these two spectral bins only in both treatment groups, clearly illustrates this phenomenon. The biological basis of the diverse response of this metabolite will be investigated in future metabolomic experiments.

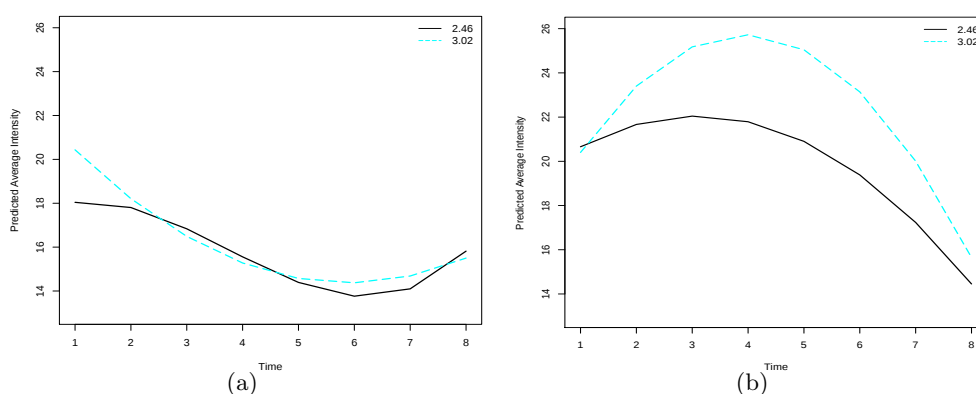


Fig. 7. The LMM predicted average intensities of the two spectral bins 2.46ppm and 3.02ppm which relate to the metabolite 2-oxoglutarate in (a) the treatment group and (b) the control group.

5.4. Assessing model fit

As with any applied statistical analysis, the modelling assumptions employed need to be assessed to ensure valid inference. In the case of the DPPCA model, the modelling assumptions are the multivariate Gaussian distribution for the latent variables and the error terms, and the stochastic volatility model assumed to control the evolution of the latent variables over time. Posterior predictive model checking (Gelman et al., 2003) was employed to assess these modelling assumptions. Replicated data were simulated from the posterior predictive distribution and compared to the observed data from each treatment group. Given the multivariate nature of the data, the replicated and observed data were compared by examining the mean absolute deviations (MADs) between the covariance matrix of the observed data and the covariance matrix of the replicated data at each time point (Ansari et al. (2002)). The resulting MADs suggested that the DPPCA model fits well since the vast majority of the deviations were close to zero. A histogram of the MADs is available in the Supplementary Material. There were some large MADs (6% of MADs were > 1 for the treatment group data and 4% for the control group data) but given the large number of covariance parameters being compared, this was not viewed as sufficient evidence of invalid assumptions and poor model fit. The few large MADs may arise due to the fact that the number of latent dimensions was fixed at 2 (for visual substantive reasons), and that some parameters were constrained (for reasons of parsimony). Fitting a higher dimensional and less parsimonious model to the time course metabolomic data is an area of further research.

6. Discussion

analysing longitudinal data from metabolomics studies is problematic due to the dimensionality of the data, the correlated metabolites and correlation structure due to repeated measurements over time. Many currently existing approaches to analysing such data sets either have the limitation of confounding treatment variation with variability due to the longitudinal nature of the data or they ignore the fact that metabolites do not work independently of each other. Here the DPPCA methodology has been proposed which combines probabilistic PCA and stochastic volatility models to disentangle the two types of variation in the data, while also accounting for its high-dimensionality.

The DPPCA model successfully addressed the aims of the metabolomic study i.e. visualising the metabolomic trajectories through time, quantifying the effect of time, and highlighting metabolites which evolve over time. Importantly, the DPPCA model highlighted the contrasting behaviour of the 2-oxoglutarate metabolite between the two treatment groups under study. Future work will examine further this contrasting behaviour.

Many areas of further research naturally arise from the DPPCA model. From a practical viewpoint, fitting the DPPCA model is computationally expensive, mostly due to the costly sampling of the log volatilities. Several approaches to sampling log volatilities for SV models are suggested and reviewed by Jacquier et al. (1994); Kim et al. (1998) and Platanioti et al. (2005). Further work in this area would expedite the convergence of the MCMC chain. Also, while data from 16 time points were collected, only 8 time points were analysed here, due to missing data. Imputation of such data would potentially be feasible within the model fitting algorithm.

Motivated by the real application area, only principal subspaces of dimension 2 were considered here; clearly the choice of dimensionality can be viewed as a model selection issue and any of the myriad of approaches to model selection in the Bayesian paradigm by evaluating the marginal likelihood could be employed; Friel and Wyse (2012) provide a review of such approaches. However, it is anticipated that such approaches would be computationally expensive in the setting of the DPPCA model. Minka (2000) proposes a computationally efficient approach to selecting the optimal dimensionality in PCA, which might also provide a possible solution to the model selection problem here.

In terms of the DPPCA model itself, the manner in which the dynamics are modelled in the DPPCA model raises further research questions. Alternative approaches to modelling the time dynamics should be examined, for example (as suggested by a referee) using state-space models for the loadings matrix. Further, research into a random effects PPCA model to model such longitudinal metabolomics data is underway (Nyamundanda et al., 2013). The DPPCA approach proposed here can be thought of as an approach to identifying the subset of influential variables, which are then analysed via LMMs to highlight those which are time evolving. Hence, the issue of multiple testing is reduced but not eradicated under the DPPCA model; this could be addressed by employing a hierarchical modelling framework (Gelman et al., 2003). Further, the proposed DPPCA approach to highlighting time evolving metabolites requires a two step process: fitting a DPPCA model, followed by fitting LMMs. A more elegant approach would combine the ideas underlying both models into a single model. Clearly the development of the DPPCA model gives rise to many and varied areas of future work.

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