

Treatment of missing values for multivariate statistical analysis of  
gel-based proteomics data

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1           **Treatment of missing values for multivariate statistical analysis of gel-based**  
2   **proteomics data**

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17

18   Abbreviations: PCA, principal component analysis; PLS-DA, partial least square  
19   discriminant analysis; BPCA, Bayesian principal component analysis; KNN, k-nearest  
20   neighbor; asinh, inverse hyperbolic sine; IS, internal standard;. VIP, variable importance  
21   plot; EM, expectation-maximization; MI, Multiple imputation

22

23   Key words: missing value, statistics, DIGE, post run staining, preprocessing

24 **Abstract**

25 The presence of missing values in gel-based proteomics data represents a real challenge if  
26 an objective statistical analysis is pursued. Different methods to handle missing values  
27 were evaluated and their influence is discussed on the selection of important proteins  
28 through multivariate techniques. The evaluated methods consisted of directly dealing  
29 with them during the multivariate analysis with the NIPALS algorithm or imputing them  
30 by using either k-nearest neighbor or Bayesian principal component analysis before  
31 carrying out the multivariate analysis. These techniques were applied to data obtained  
32 from gels stained with classical post running dyes and from DIGE gels. Before applying  
33 the multivariate techniques, the normality and homoscedasticity assumptions on which  
34 parametric tests are based on were tested in order to perform a sound statistical analysis.  
35 From the three tested methods to handle missing values in our datasets, BPCA imputation  
36 of missing values showed to be the most consistent method.

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47 **1. Introduction**

48 Two dimensional electrophoresis (2-DE) requires proper data analysis techniques  
49 to avoid misleading conclusions. The use of post run protein stains for quantitative  
50 analysis is currently being questioned due to its limited power in terms of dynamic range,  
51 sensitivity and variability [1]. The improved power of the DIGE approach arises from the  
52 use of an internal standard [2] which is used to calculate a standardized abundance of  
53 each spot and to match the spots across the gels. The classical post run dyes are however  
54 still useful as long as the technical variance is kept low and the number of replicates is  
55 high enough.

56 The use of appropriate statistical tools to interpret the data is a must, either with  
57 classical dyes or with DIGE. The simplest statistical analysis commonly involves  
58 pairwise comparison using parametric or non parametric tests while more complicated  
59 statistical analysis involves the use of multivariate statistics and multiple comparison tests  
60 [3-5]. Before applying a statistical test, its assumptions need to be fulfilled and some data  
61 pre-processing might be required depending on the experimental data. If a parametric test  
62 is used, for every protein, normality and homoscedasticity should be tested. For a small  
63 number of replicates (3-6 in most proteomics studies), the Shapiro-Wilk test is the most  
64 reliable test for non-normality [6].

65 It has been shown that low intensity spots exhibit a smaller variance between  
66 replicate gels as compared to high intensity spots [7]. As the data should be  
67 homoscedastic (show equal variances), some form of data transformation (log, asinh,  
68 square root) is required [8]. Another important issue is that samples should be  
69 independent to prevent false positives [9].

70 Proteomics data always contain missing values; being a spot detected in the  
71 reference or master gel but not in the sample gel. The main causes for the occurrence of  
72 missing values are (i) spots below a threshold or detection limit; (ii) mismatches caused  
73 by distortions in the protein pattern (iii) absent spots due to bad transfer from the first to  
74 the second dimension or (iv) truly absent spots from the samples. Two-dimensional data  
75 can have around 50% missing values [10-12]. However, there are no straightforward  
76 rules how to deal with missing values.

77 It has been demonstrated that the deletion of variables containing missing values  
78 assumes that the number of missing values is relatively small and completely at random  
79 [13]. But, in gel-based proteomics, the number of missing data is often considerable and  
80 not at random but for instance correlated to the staining procedure or the mean volume  
81 percent of the matched spots [7]. If variables with missing values, are just discarded or  
82 ignored a substantial bias can be introduced because information is simply lost. One other  
83 possibility is filling the missing values with zeroes or some lower threshold value. When  
84 a missing value is the result of a spot being below the detection limit, a threshold or zero  
85 value can be justifiable. However, whenever a value is missing due to mismatching, this  
86 would lead to wrong interpretation of the results [10, 13]. Several methods have been  
87 suggested to impute missing values such as: the row average method, *k*-nearest neighbor  
88 (KNN), singular value decomposition (SVD) impute algorithm [14-15], Bayesian  
89 Principal Component Analysis (BPCA) missing value estimation method [16] and the  
90 Maximum likelihood algorithm [12].

91 Multivariate statistical packages such as Unscrambler (CAMO, Trondheim,  
92 Norway), Decyder EDA (GE Healthcare, Upsula, Sweden) and SIMCA-P (Unimetrics

93 AB, Sweden) can deal with missing values during multivariate analysis (PCA, PLS-DA)  
94 avoiding the need to impute them. They rely on the NIPALS algorithm to set the  
95 residuals for the missing values to zero during the calculations of the principal  
96 components or latent variables. This flexibility for the user to perform the analysis when  
97 missing data is present can represent a serious problem if the amount of missing data is  
98 substantial. Moreover, the amount of missing data that is considered to be substantial to  
99 distort the results is debatable.

100         Currently, the all against all matching approach introduced by some image  
101 analysis packages (e.g Progenesis Same Spots), theoretically generates complete datasets  
102 suitable for multivariate statistical analysis after proper data standardization. However,  
103 technical issues intrinsically associated with 2-DE and image analysis such as: gel  
104 distortions, missing spots due to bad transfer from first to second dimension, incorrect  
105 spot merging or splitting, are ignored introducing ‘misleading’ values that generate bias  
106 [17]. Considering all the possibilities available we believe it is crucial to be aware of the  
107 importance of how missing values are faced. Whatever approach is taken in the end, must  
108 consider the structure of the data and a compromise should be found between a sound  
109 statistical and biological interpretation of the data.

110         Multivariate statistics have a key role to play in ‘systems biology’ because much  
111 more information can be extracted than by a simple univariate test. Therefore there is an  
112 urgent need to handle missing values in an accurate way to draw realistic conclusions.  
113 When univariate statistical tests are performed (e.g t-test) it might be argued that missing  
114 values can be ignored analyzing only the available data. The reduced number of  
115 replicates due to missing values would result in a reduced power.. In both univariate or

116 multivariate statistical analysis, missing values represent a problem. The univariate  
117 statistical analysis in presence of missing data is out of the scope of this study. This study  
118 focuses on different techniques to handle missing values for multivariate statistical  
119 analysis and the subsequent possible impact on the interpretation of the results.

120

## 121 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 122 **2.1 Proteomics data**

123 This manuscript focuses on the statistical data analysis using proteomics datasets  
124 from pear and banana as case studies. Technical details for pear and banana proteomics  
125 can be found in respectively [3] and [18]. For this reason the experimental background of  
126 these datasets is only described in summary. The pear dataset contains data from six  
127 independent biological replicate samples for each of four treatments (different storage gas  
128 conditions). Proteins were visualized by silver staining [19]. Image analysis was  
129 performed with the Image Master 2-D Platinum software 6.0 (GE Healthcare). Spots  
130 were detected without spot editing and quantified as percentage volume.

131 The banana data set contains data from three replicate gels for each of four  
132 treatments (different sample dates; 2, 4, 8 and 14 days). Samples were labeled using the  
133 fluorescent Cyanine dyes developed for DIGE (GE Healthcare) according to the  
134 manufacturer's recommendations. In order to anticipate any dye specific effect, the  
135 samples were labeled at random with Cy3 and Cy5 and randomized over the gels. The  
136 internal standard was a mixture of all analyzed samples and was labeled with Cy2.  
137 Labeled proteins were visualized using a Typhoon™ imager (GE Healthcare) and the gels  
138 were analyzed using the Decyder EDA software.

139 The data pre-processing with DIGE occurs automatically in the DECYDER<sup>TM</sup>  
140 software: the data is normalized using a ratiometric approach and a log<sub>10</sub> transformation  
141 is used on the standard abundance to stabilize the variance.

142

## 143 **2.2 Handling of missing values**

144 For the datasets presented in this paper, three methods to handle missing values  
145 were tested which consisted of two imputation techniques preceding the multivariate  
146 analysis (KNN and BPCA) and simply dealing with the missing values during the  
147 multivariate analysis (referred to as ‘NIPALS’).

148

### 149 *k-Nearest neighbor (KNN)*

150 The KNN method assumes a relationship between spot volume patterns of groups  
151 of proteins. The KNN method selects spots showing spot volume patterns similar to the  
152 spot of interest for which to impute missing values [15]. A weighted average of values  
153 from the  $k$  most similar spots is used as an estimate for the missing value under concern.  
154 The contribution of each spot is weighted by its similarity determined as the Euclidean  
155 distance. The optimum number of  $k$ -neighbors has to be determined empirically. The  
156 KNN imputation procedure was implemented in Matlab (The MathWorks, Inc., Natick,  
157 MA, USA) by Jörsten et al. [20] and applied in this manuscript using  $k=20$ .

158

### 159 *Bayesian Principal Component Analysis (BPCA)*

160 In BPCA the missing values are estimated from the known spot volumes using  
161 principal component regression (PCR). The principal components are estimated



162 simultaneously with the regression coefficients of the PCR model using a variational  
163 Bayes algorithm. After convergence of the algorithm missing values are imputed. The  
164 BPCA imputation procedure was implemented in Matlab (The MathWorks, Inc., Natick,  
165 MA, USA) by Oba et al. [16]. BPCA consists of three processes as described above: (i)  
166 principal component regression, (ii) Bayesian estimation and (iii) Expectation-  
167 maximization (EM) like repetitive algorithm. For a detailed explanation refer to [16].

168

169 *Nonlinear Estimation by Iterative Partial Least Squares (NIPALS)*

170 Both Unscrambler and Decyder EDA softwares are able to perform multivariate  
171 analysis in the presence of missing data using the NIPALS algorithm. In every iteration,  
172 during calculation of the principal components or latent variables, the residuals for the  
173 missing elements in the least square function are set to zero or the missing values are  
174 replaced by their minimum distance projections onto the current estimate of the loading  
175 and score vector [21]. This method is generally used in chemometrics and proteomics  
176 [22] and is tolerant to small amounts of missing data (up to 5-20 %).

177

## 178 **2.3 Multivariate analysis**

179 *Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (unsupervised)*

180 PCA forms new variables (principal components) that are linear combinations of  
181 the original ones thus capturing the essential data patterns of the original data in a  
182 reduced form. PCA is useful to examine datasets with multicollinearity (e.g. proteins that  
183 act in concert with other proteins) and to get insight into certain patterns or trends [23-  
184 24]. The score plots obtained show the distribution of the objects (gels) and their

185 configuration allowing the identification of outliers through the Hotelling  $T^2$  ellipse. The  
186 Loading plots obtained show the relationship between the different variables and their  
187 distribution. The further a variable is from the origin, the more influential is the variable  
188 for explaining relationships in the dataset. The distances along the first components are  
189 more important because the first principal components explain more of the variation in  
190 the dataset.

191

### 192 *Partial least squares (PLS) discriminant analysis (DA) (supervised)*

193 PLS is a bilinear regression model to create prediction models of one or several  
194 responses from a set of factors [23]. PLS-DA will construct latent variables in such a way  
195 that a maximum separation is obtained among them. PLS-DA can be useful in addition to  
196 PCA to correlate variation in a dataset with class membership [24] and to select important  
197 variables involved in class distinction. As in PCA, score and loading plots are obtained  
198 and can be interpreted in the same way as in PCA. In addition, plots for variable  
199 importance (VIP), model coefficients, residuals, distances to model plots and validation  
200 plots are obtained [25].

201

### 202 *VIP Procedure*

203 The Variable Importance Plot (VIP) identifies those variables that are important  
204 for explaining the variance in the model response [24]. The VIP coefficient of a protein is  
205 calculated as a weighed sum of the squared correlations between the PLS-DA  
206 components and the original variable. The weights correspond to the percentage variation  
207 explained by the PLS-DA component in the model. The number of terms in the sum

208 depends on the number of PLS-DA components found to be significant in distinguishing  
209 the classes. Care must be taken when excluding variables from the model. If many  
210 important variables are excluded, important explanatory information may be lost as well  
211 [25]. For more details about PLS and the VIP procedure one is referred to Norden et al  
212 [26].

213

#### 214 **2.4 Performance of handling missing values**

215         The performance of handling missing values was tested on a subset of the DIGE  
216 dataset referred to as ‘complete DIGE’ dataset containing 542 proteins matched across all  
217 the gels without missing values. The experimental set-up is described in Figure 1A. From  
218 this ‘complete DIGE’ dataset thirty percent of the data was randomly removed. Using this  
219 dataset with artificially induced missing values, the various methods for handling missing  
220 values described above were tested. Since the underlying normality and equal variance  
221 assumptions are supposed to be met with DIGE data after Decyder analysis [8],  
222 transformation of the data was not required.

223         The multivariate data analysis involved PLS-DA analysis to discriminate the  
224 individual gels according to similar protein expression profiles. Cross-validation was  
225 applied to test the performance of the models since the number of observations is too  
226 small to validate the models on an independent test set. The VIP procedure was used to  
227 identify the 50 most important proteins describing the difference in protein expression  
228 profiles. These selected proteins were compared between the different approaches of  
229 handling missing values using the ‘complete DIGE’ dataset as a reference. This  
230 procedure, starting from the induction of random missing values, was repeated 10 times

231 to evaluate its consistency. A method is considered to be ‘consistent’ if by repeating  
232 several times (10 in this particular case), the obtained proteins are the same as the ‘real  
233 ones’ (obtained when no missing values are present). PLS-DA and VIP analyses were  
234 performed using The Unscrambler Version 9.1 (CAMO A/S, Trondheim, Norway).

235

## 236 **2.5 Impact of missing values handling techniques on VIP selection using DIGE data**

237 To test the impact of different missing values handling techniques on the final  
238 VIP selection, the original incomplete DIGE data (covering 1462 proteins, containing  
239 missing values) was used. As the normality and equal variance assumptions were  
240 assumed to be met, transformation of the data was not required. Missing values were  
241 handled either during the multivariate analysis (NIPALS) or by imputing them on  
242 beforehand using either the KNN or BPCA method. PLS-DA and the VIP procedure were  
243 used to build models able to explain the variance in the dataset. The followed procedure  
244 is described in Figure 1B.

245

## 246 **2.6 Impact of missing values handling techniques on VIP selection using classical** 247 **dyes data**

248 Normality was checked with the Shapiro and Wilk test. To meet the equal  
249 variance assumption, different transformations were tested: no transformation, a  
250 logarithmic (log), inverse hyperbolic sine (asinh) and square root transformation.  
251 Handling missing values during the multivariate analysis (NIPALS) was compared to  
252 imputing them on beforehand using either the KNN or BPCA method. If for a particular  
253 protein in one of the treatments all replicates presented missing values but were clearly

254 present in the other treatments, they were treated as threshold values. Before performing  
255 PLS-DA and the VIP procedure to select the fifty most important proteins involved in  
256 class distinction, PCA outlier detection through the Hotelling  $T^2$  ellipse was performed.

257

### 258 **3. Results**

#### 259 **3.1. Matching of the data and estimation of missing values**

260 The percentage of missing values in either the DIGE or classical dyes datasets  
261 was 24 % and 29 % respectively (Table 1). Despite the use of an internal standard and the  
262 co-detection algorithm with the DIGE, the individual gels still need to be matched  
263 resulting in substantial amounts of missing values (Table 1A). The total number of spots  
264 fully matched across all samples of the DIGE dataset was 542.

265

#### 266 **3.2. Performance of handling missing values**

267 The ‘complete DIGE’ dataset (542 proteins) was used to evaluate the performance  
268 of different methods to handle missing values after random removal of 30% of the data  
269 (Figure 2). Based on the score plots, none of the methods clearly outperformed the others  
270 in terms of quality of the separation (Figure 3). The score plots are a useful visualization  
271 tool to inspect if the real variance from the ‘complete dataset’ is being masked or not by  
272 the tested methods to handle missing values in the derived datasets with artificially  
273 induced missing values. Particularly, since we have the ‘complete dataset’ a direct  
274 comparison can be made. However, looking at the proteins involved in the classification,  
275 quantitative differences are observed. Depending on how missing values were handled, in  
276 average only 34% to 63% of the selected proteins were identical to the fifty selected

277 proteins obtained from the 'complete DIGE' dataset (Figure 4a). The number of imputed  
278 missing values in these fifty selected proteins for all the methods tested did not differ  
279 extensively. In addition, the BPCA imputed data seems to be closer to the original data  
280 (Figure 4b) as compared to the KNN imputed data. The calculated correlation coefficients  
281 for the real data vs BPCA imputed data and real data vs KNN imputed data were 0.85 and  
282 0.65, respectively. These coefficients clearly show that BPCA provides more accurate  
283 estimates of the missing values than KNN. The selection of proteins for the KNN also  
284 varied extensively during the ten simulations ( $34\% \pm 17\%$ , Figure 4a). From these results,  
285 BPCA showed to be the most consistent method in terms of selecting those proteins that  
286 would have been selected if there were no missing values in the dataset.

287

### 288 **3.3 Impact of missing values handling techniques on VIP selection using DIGE data**

289 Depending on how missing values were handled different selections of 50  
290 proteins were obtained for the original incomplete DIGE data (covering 1462 proteins,  
291 containing 24 % missing values). Between KNN and BPCA 30 out of the 50 selected  
292 proteins were the same. When the missing data was handled during the multivariate  
293 analysis (NIPALS), only one out of the fifty proteins was the same when compared to the  
294 BPCA method which in the previous section was shown to perform best (Figure 5a).

295 Most of the proteins selected based on the BPCA imputed data contained no  
296 missing values while the proteins selected when missing values were handled during the  
297 multivariate analysis (NIPALS) contained large numbers of missing values (Figure 5b).  
298 The score plots and explained variances do not differ significantly for the BPCA and  
299 KNN methods (Figure 6b and c). But when missing data was handled during the

300 multivariate analysis (NIPALS), the variance within each group seems to be artificially  
301 reduced (Figure 6a) which was not observed with the ‘complete DIGE’ dataset (Figure  
302 3). By handling missing data during the multivariate analysis or prior application of  
303 BPCA and KNN, PLS-DA was able to explain 83%, 86% and 84% of the total variance  
304 when only the 50 most important proteins were kept although the final selection of these  
305 proteins clearly differed (Figure 5a).

306

### 307 **3.4 Impact of missing values handling techniques on VIP selection using classical** 308 **dyes data**

309         According to the Shapiro and Wilk test, approximately 5% of the spots failed  
310 normality. Applying different transformations did not reduce this percentage but mainly  
311 stabilized the variances (data not shown). The log transformation improved  
312 homoscedasticity since the standard deviation was no longer correlated with the mean  
313 percentage spot volume. Thus, the log transformation was applied for further processing.  
314 In average the fifty selected proteins obtained by handling the missing values during the  
315 multivariate analysis (NIPALS) contained in average 8 missing values out of 24 values  
316 while after prior application of BPCA and KNN the fifty selected proteins contained only  
317 6 missing values (Figure 7b). In addition, the score plots obtained after the treatment of  
318 missing values and the final selection of the 50 most important proteins according to the  
319 VIP procedure and amount of explained variance are shown in Figure 8.

320

321

322

#### 323 **4. Discussion**

324 Missing values are often present in classical stained and DIGE gels and must be  
325 treated appropriately. In general, less intense spots are more susceptible to be missing;  
326 nonetheless, these proteins might represent an important class responsible for regulation  
327 and signaling [10, 12]. The introduction of more and more sensitive mass spectrometric  
328 techniques, allow the identification of this low abundant class of proteins. In addition,  
329 currently many diagnostic studies rely on data mining techniques to assign samples to a  
330 certain group, thus the low abundant fraction proteins is essential [17]. Discarding such  
331 proteins, otherwise, would result in enormous loss of valuable biological information.  
332 The BPCA method showed to be the most consistent in terms of selecting most of the  
333 proteins that would have been selected if there were no missing values in the data while  
334 KNN tended to distort the structure of the original data (Figure 4b). This was confirmed  
335 with the calculated correlations coefficients.

336 When evaluating the three methods to handle missing values on the original DIGE  
337 dataset (1462 variables, 24% missing values), the fifty most important proteins selected  
338 with PLS-DA by handling the missing values during multivariate analysis was  
339 completely different from the results obtained after imputation by BPCA or KNN (Figure  
340 5a). An explanation for this is that missing values for proteomics data are not just the  
341 result of completely random events. This can be clearly seen in Figure 2 in which the  
342 distribution of missing values is plotted for the artificial dataset based on the ‘complete  
343 DIGE’ dataset and for the original incomplete DIGE dataset. By just discarding the  
344 missing dimensions, Eisen et al. [27] found cluster of genes with many missing values  
345 when carrying out a cluster analysis on gene expression profiles. This finding was caused



346 by ignoring the missing values which is similar to assume that the expression levels are  
347 the same within an experimental group. Statistically spoken, it means that the distance  
348 between vectors with missing values tends to be smaller than the distance without  
349 missing values. When there are too many missing values present during multivariate  
350 analysis the score estimation error increases as the loading vector approaches the missing  
351 variable axis. Since influential variables will have large weights in the loading vector, the  
352 score estimation error will increase as well. The presence of missing data in the  
353 multivariate analysis thus caused a bias towards the selection of proteins containing 60%  
354 missing values (Figure 5b). It has been shown that NIPALS tends to cause loss of  
355 robustness as the amount of missing values increases to 20% [22] compared to other  
356 algorithms such as BPCA [16] or Multiple imputation (MI) [28]. It is worth to mention  
357 here that not only the total amount of missing data in the dataset (24%) is important but  
358 how it is distributed among the different proteins. For instance, in the 'incomplete DIGE'  
359 dataset, 27% of the total number of proteins containing missing values showed to have  
360 missing values equal or higher than 50%

361 From the original datasets false positives or negatives cannot be recognized, but  
362 imputation of missing values by BPCA is more appropriate than just handling them  
363 during the multivariate analysis. In contrast to the BPCA method that includes maximum  
364 likelihood estimation, the other two methods do not take into account the uncertainty  
365 associated with the prediction of the missing values. In addition the maximum likelihood  
366 algorithm does not assume the existence of missing values completely at random across  
367 all the observations but only at random within one or more subgroups (e.g., missing more  
368 among low abundant proteins than high abundant proteins, but within this low abundant

369 category they are missing at random) which is an advantage. However, the total  
370 uncertainty associated with the prediction is not included and some other features such as  
371 the dependency of missing values on the characteristics (e.g. abundance, hydrophobicity,  
372 etc) of the proteins might be disregarded.

373 For the classical dyes dataset, the normality and equal variance assumptions were  
374 tested before performing the statistical analysis. The use of different transformations to  
375 stabilize the variance has been described before for proteomics data [5, 7, 11, 29]. For the  
376 classical dyes dataset it was shown that applying a log transformation is only needed to  
377 stabilize the variance but not to turn the data normal as 95 % of the data was already  
378 normally distributed regardless the transformation applied. For the different ways to  
379 handle missing data in the classical dyes dataset, 60% homology in terms of the same  
380 selected 50 most important proteins remains (Figure 7a). It has been shown in a previous  
381 study with gene expression data by Bras and Menezes [30] that PLS based imputation  
382 methods performed better when the correlation structure of the data is weak (e.g non time  
383 series experiments), as this experiment. However, with all the datasets tested (time series,  
384 non-time series and mixed experiments) BPCA in most of the cases outperformed the  
385 PLS based estimation methods. The fact that the three of them yielded more or less the  
386 same results is encouraging in terms of robustness for a biological interpretation of the  
387 data, given that a choice has to be taken. Some examples of how the imputation methods  
388 are affecting the inclusion of particular proteins in the final VIP selection for the ‘pear  
389 dataset’ are given in Figure 9. All these proteins were visually inspected and confirmed as  
390 real spots. The figure shows both the imputed and original non-missing observations. In  
391 case of BPCA and KNN imputed data the VIP selection is based on the combination of

392 the original non-missing observations with the respective imputed values. In case of the  
393 NIPALS data set, the VIP selection is based on the original non-missing observations  
394 only. A typical protein included in all final VIP selections after each of the three methods  
395 used to deal with missing data (Figure 9A) showed imputed values similar to the original  
396 non-missing spot volumes, suggesting accurate imputations. The protein selected by the  
397 three methods showed to be involved in a physiological disorder in pears which confirms  
398 what was found in our previous study [3]. Whenever a protein was not selected after one  
399 missing values handling method but was selected by the remaining two missing values  
400 handling methods (Figure 9B-D) this was due to the fact that the imputed values were  
401 clearly different from each other and the original non-missing values. However, one  
402 needs to be careful in interpreting data of individual proteins (an implicit univariate  
403 approach) as the selected proteins were identified within their original multivariate  
404 context.

405         One possible argument, for the disagreement in performance of the NIPALS  
406 algorithm between this dataset and the ‘incomplete DIGE dataset’ might be related to the  
407 total percentage of individual proteins containing huge amounts of missing data. Even  
408 when this classical dyes dataset presents a higher total amount of missing values (29%)  
409 than the ‘incomplete DIGE’ dataset (24%), the classical dyes dataset only presented 13%  
410 of the total proteins containing missing values with 50% or more missing values. This  
411 feature leads to a better performance of the NIPALS algorithm for this particular dataset.  
412 It might be argued that a ‘preliminary filtering’ of proteins, in terms of the maximum  
413 amount of missing values allowed within each protein would be good practice but would  
414 still be subjective in where to set the maximum.

415

## 416 **5. Conclusions**

417 Data pre-processing steps have a large impact on the final selection of the most  
418 important proteins when using multivariate statistical tools such as PLS and VIP and  
419 heavily rely on how missing values are treated. There is no absolute truth in terms of  
420 which is the most appropriate way to deal with missing data, however, from the ones  
421 studied, BPCA gave the best result.

422 We recommend: (1) not to discard proteins containing missing values from the  
423 start, (2) estimate the amount of missing values in the dataset and within each individual  
424 protein, (3) based on the amount of missing values make a choice to impute missing  
425 values with an appropriate available method (we recommend BPCA in our case), (4) go  
426 back to the gels to check whether those selected proteins are real spots and not just  
427 artifacts or threshold values.

428

## 429 **6. Acknowledgments**

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438

439 **7. References**

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Table 1A. Matching results for incomplete DIGE dataset

<i>Gel (treatments: cy3, cy5, cy2)</i>	<i>Detected spots</i>	<i>% spots matched to master gel 3</i>
Gel 1	1601	75
Gel 2	1532	67
Gel 3	1692	100
Gel 4	1412	67
Gel 5	1548	78
Gel 6	1256	69

Table 1B. Matching results for classical dyes dataset

<i>Treatments</i>	<i>Average detected spots (n=6)</i>	<i>% average matched spots to reference gel (n=6)</i>
Condition 1	733	63
Condition 2	520	64
Condition 3	622	69
Condition 4	609	63

## Figure Legends

**Figure 1.** Flow chart detailing the procedure followed for (A) testing the performance of handling missing values using the ‘Complete DIGE dataset’ composed of 542 totally matched proteins, (B) testing the impact of missing values handling techniques on VIP selection using the ‘incomplete datasets’: DIGE and classical dyes. The asterisk indicates that missing values were not imputed during preprocessing but were handled during the multivariate analysis through the NIPALS algorithm.

**Figure 2.** Distribution of missing values for (a) random removal in ‘complete DIGE’ dataset (test dataset, containing 542 proteins matched across all gels) and (b) incomplete DIGE dataset (containing 1462 proteins).

**Figure 3.** PLS-DA score plots for the (a) ‘complete DIGE’ dataset (542 proteins matched across all gels), (b) after random removal of 30% of the data and treated with, Unscrambler (NIPALS algorithm) or imputed with (c) BPCA and (d) KNN.

**Figure 4.** (a) Number of important proteins selected through VIP 50\* after random removal of 30% of the data in the ‘complete DIGE’ dataset and treated with the different options to handle missing values, (b) ‘complete DIGE’ dataset versus imputed data with BPCA or KNN. VIP 50\* is defined as the fifty most important proteins selected by PLS-DA and VIP analysis.

**Figure 5.** (a) Venn diagrams showing the overlap of the selected proteins through PLS-DA and VIP 50\* (b) Percentage of proteins from the 50 selected as a function of the number of missing values for the incomplete DIGE dataset. VIP 50\* is defined as the fifty most important proteins selected by PLS-DA and VIP analysis. The maximum number of missing values in this dataset would be 10 out of 12 because of the DIGE set up (3 dye approach).

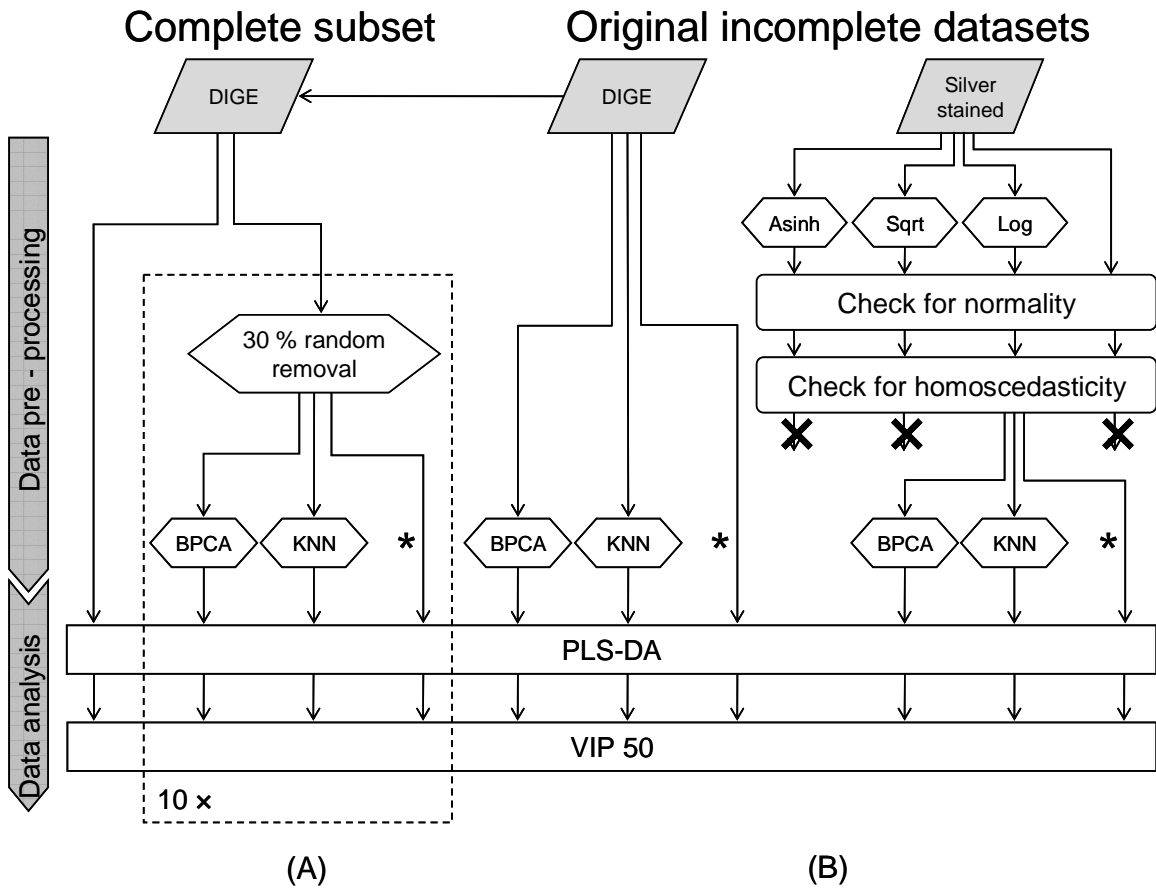
**Figure 6.** Score plots (PLS) after the VIP 50\* procedure for the incomplete DIGE dataset, (a) missing values handled during the calculations NIPALS (b) BPCA imputed, (c) KNN imputed. VIP 50\* is defined as the fifty most important proteins selected by PLS-DA and VIP analysis.

**Figure 7.** (a) Venn diagrams showing the overlap of the selected proteins through PLS-DA and VIP 50\*, (b) Percentage of proteins from the 50 selected as a function of the number of missing values for the incomplete classical dyes dataset. VIP 50\* is defined as the fifty most important proteins selected by PLS-DA and VIP analysis. The maximum number of missing values in this dataset would be 23 out of 24 for this dataset.

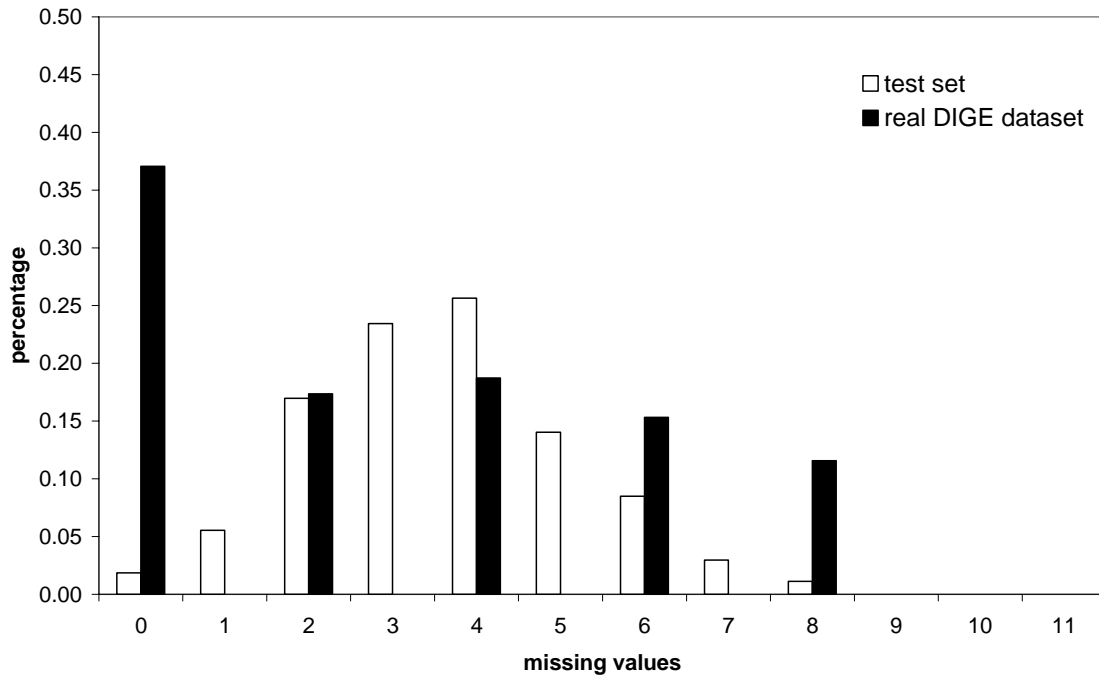
**Figure 8.** Score plots (PLS-DA) after the VIP 50\* procedure for the classical dyes dataset (563 proteins containing 29% missing values), (a) missing values ignored during the calculations (b) BPCA imputed, (c) KNN imputed. VIP 50\* is defined as the fifty most important proteins selected by PLS-DA and VIP analysis.

**Figure 9.** Observed and imputed spot volume values for 4 selected proteins (plot A-D) from the ‘classical dyes dataset’. Treatments (1-4) stand for the different storage conditions used. The open symbols represent the imputed values using either BPCA ( $\diamond$ ) or KNN ( $\Delta$ ) imputation. The closed symbols ( $\bullet$ ) represent the original non-missing observations making up the NIPALS dataset. Plot A, ‘None differs’ shows data for a protein (439) that was included in the VIP selection for all three missing values handling methods (either imputed during preprocessing, by BPCA or KNN imputation, or handled during the multivariate analysis through the NIPALS algorithm). The other plots (B-D) show data for proteins (respectively 401, 589 and 348) that were NOT selected after the missing values handling method referred to in the heading of the plot, but were selected by the other two missing values handling methods.

Figure 1



**Figure 2**



**Figure 3**

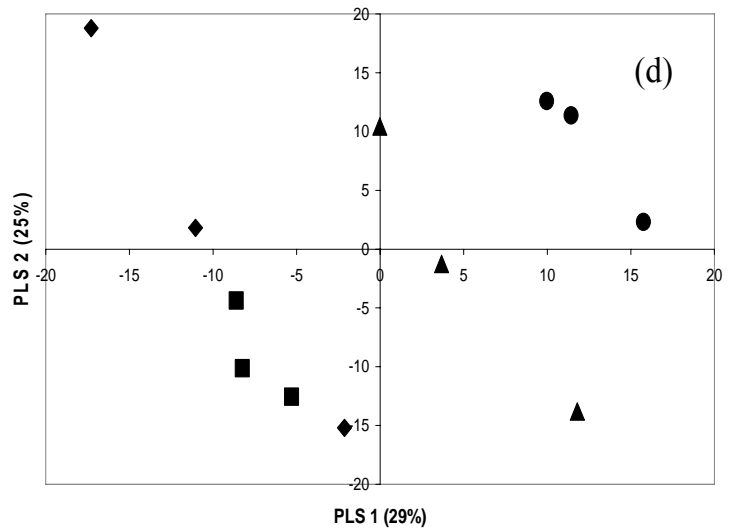
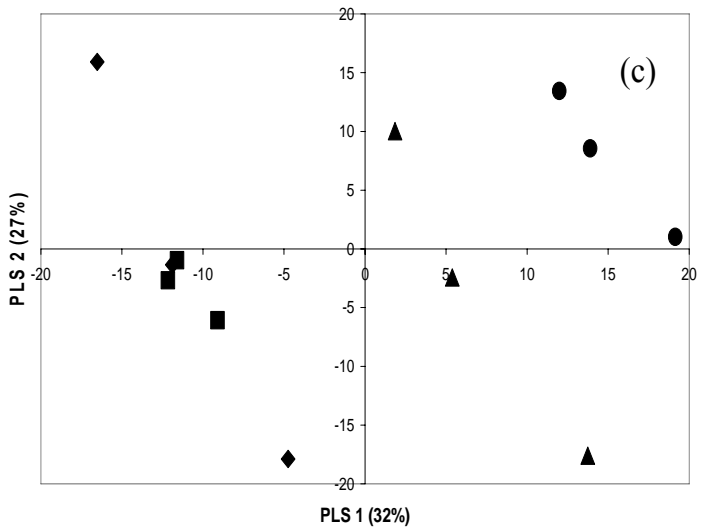
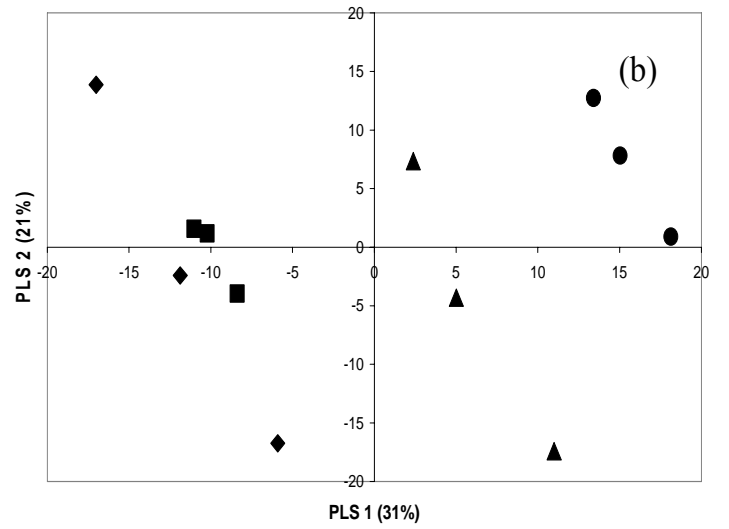
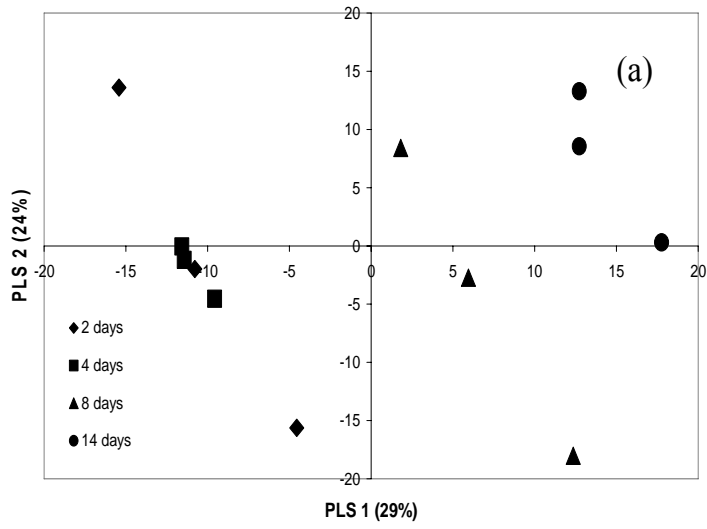
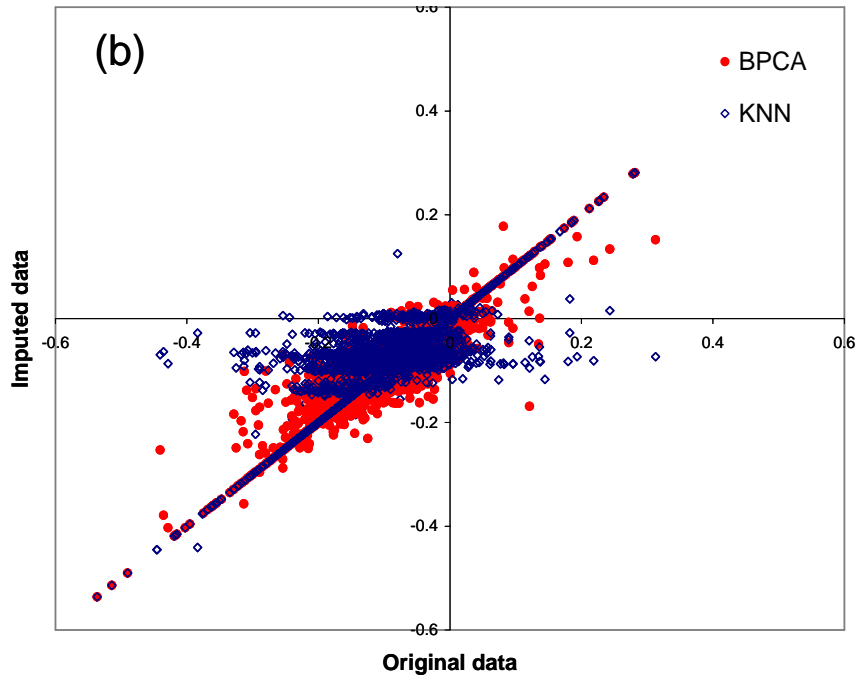
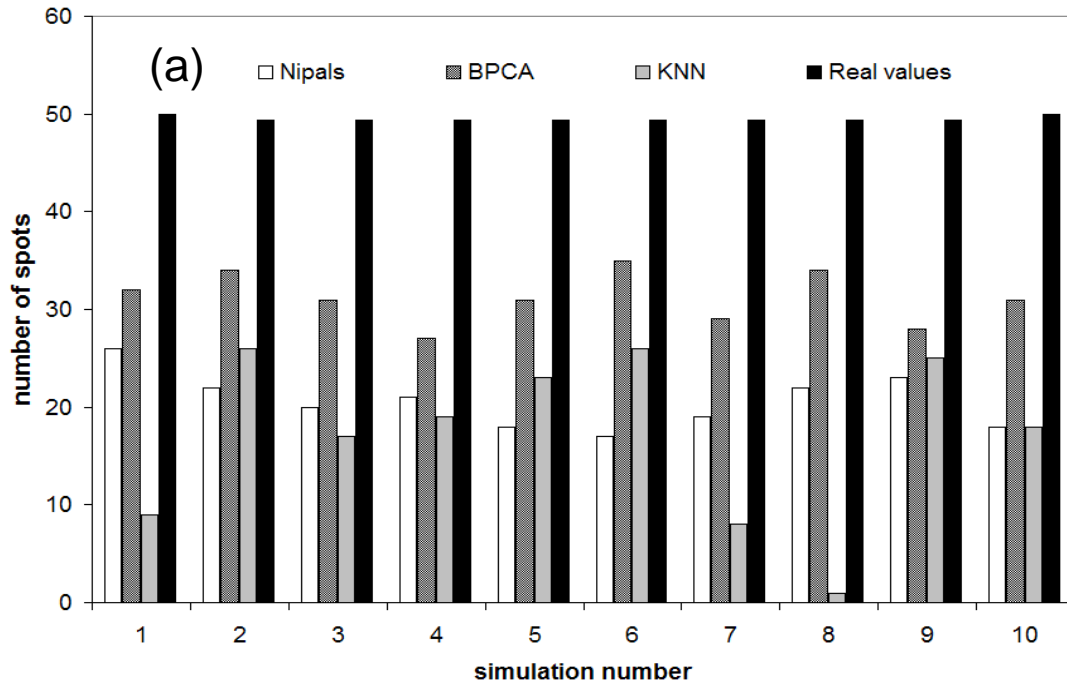




Figure 4



**Figure 5**

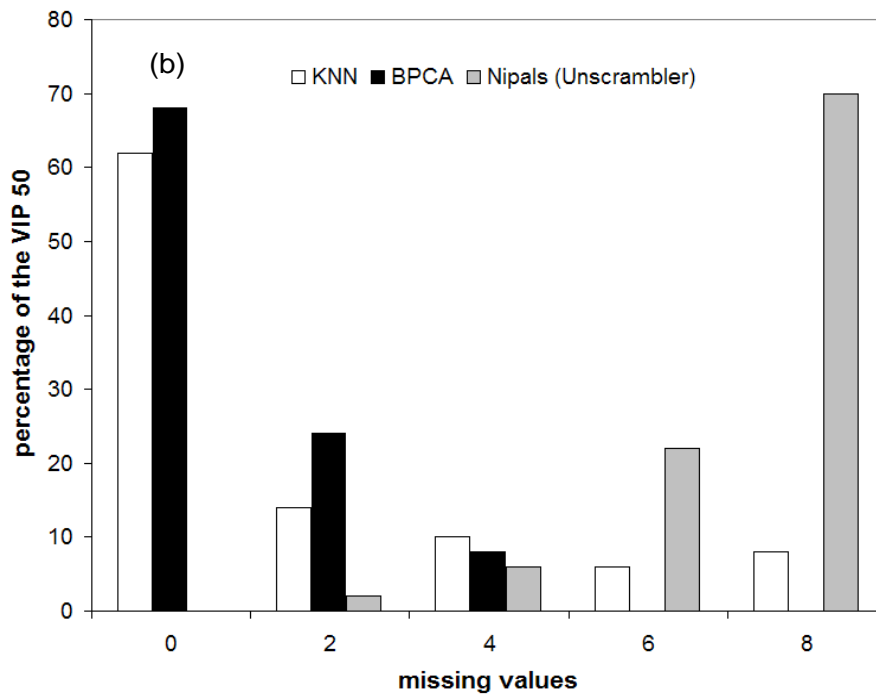
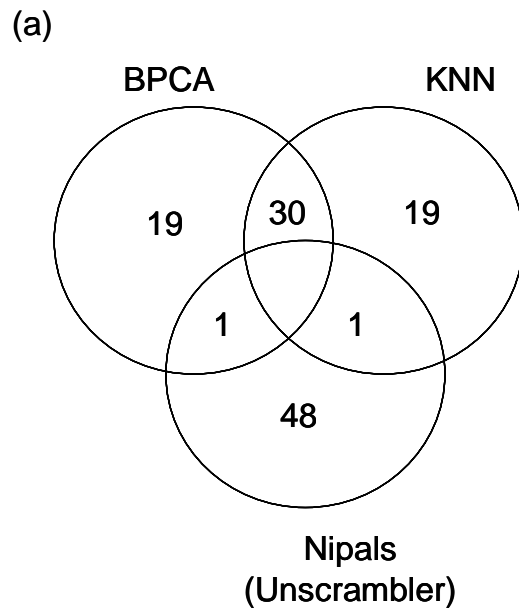
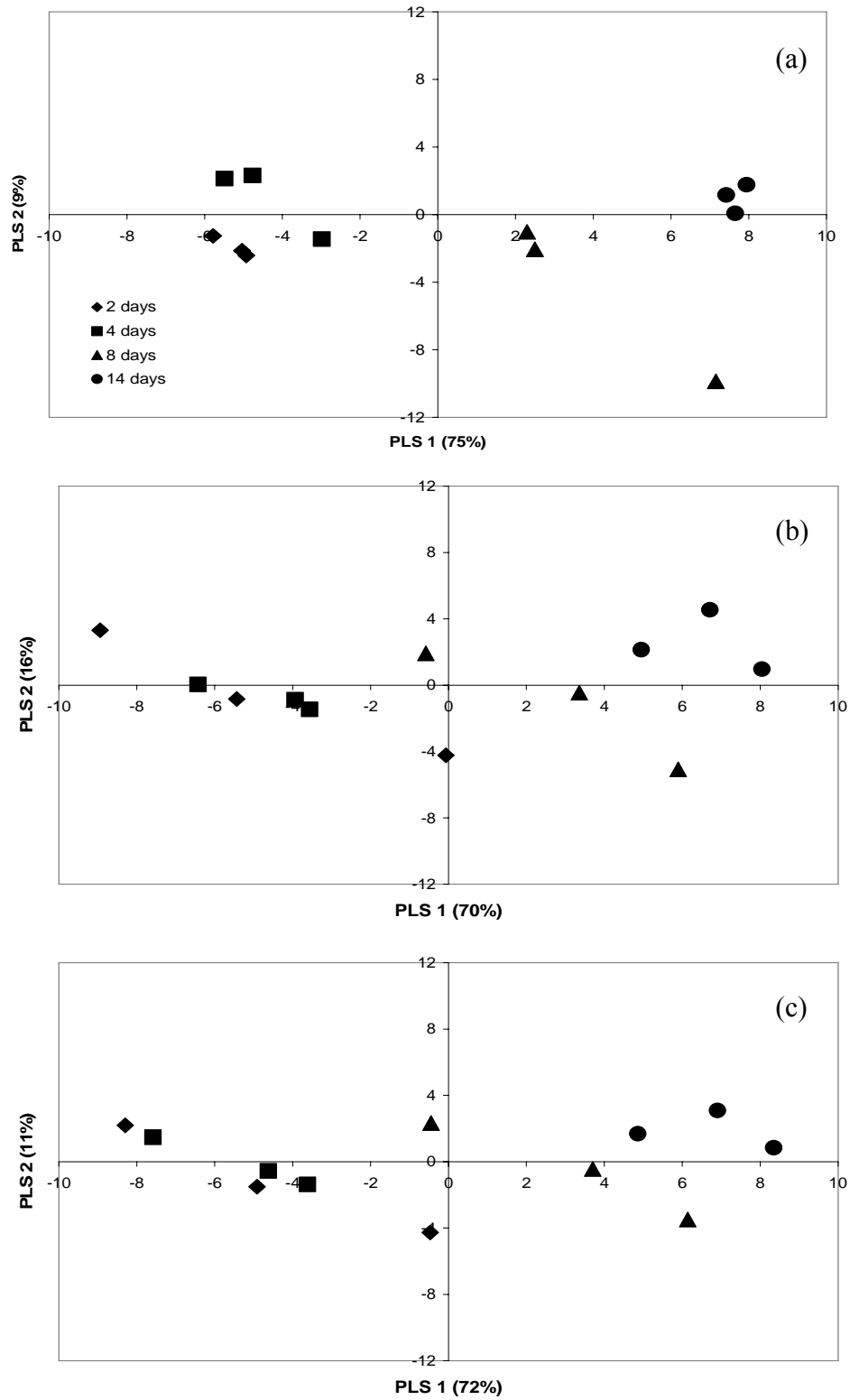


Figure 6



**Figure 7**

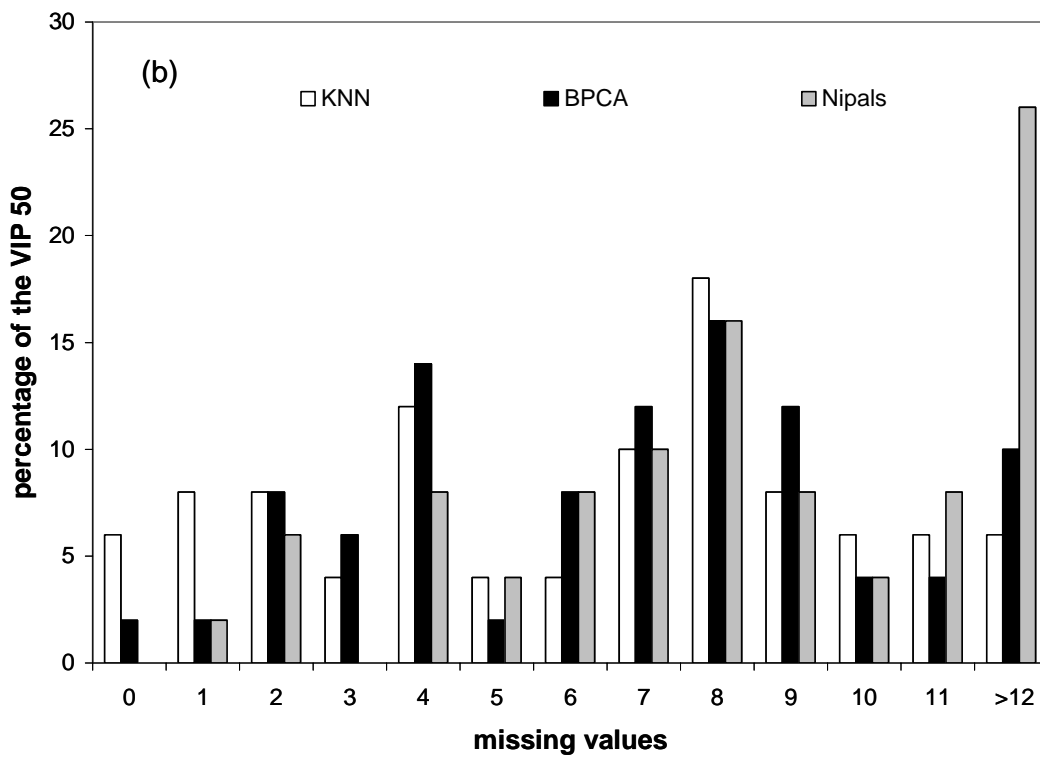
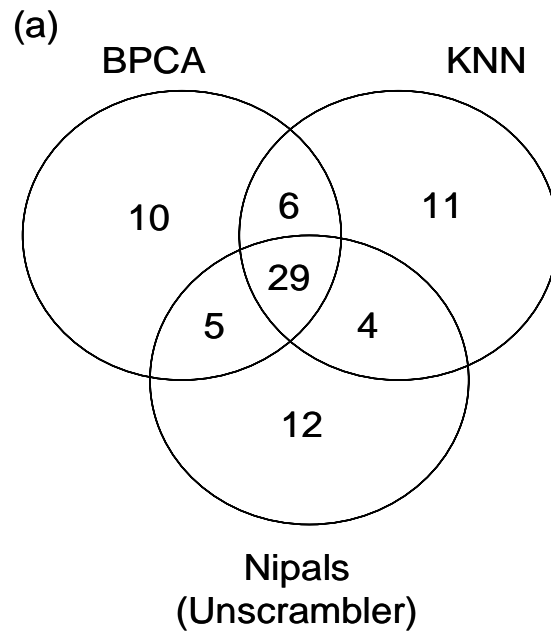


Figure 8

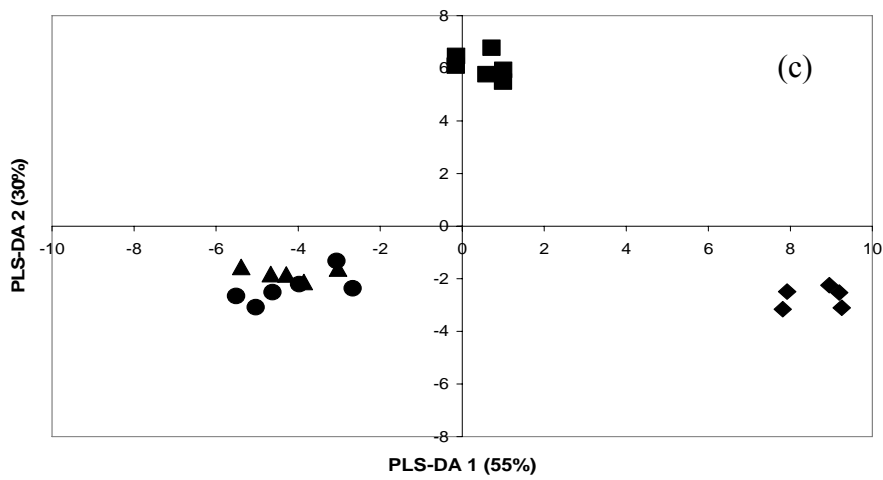
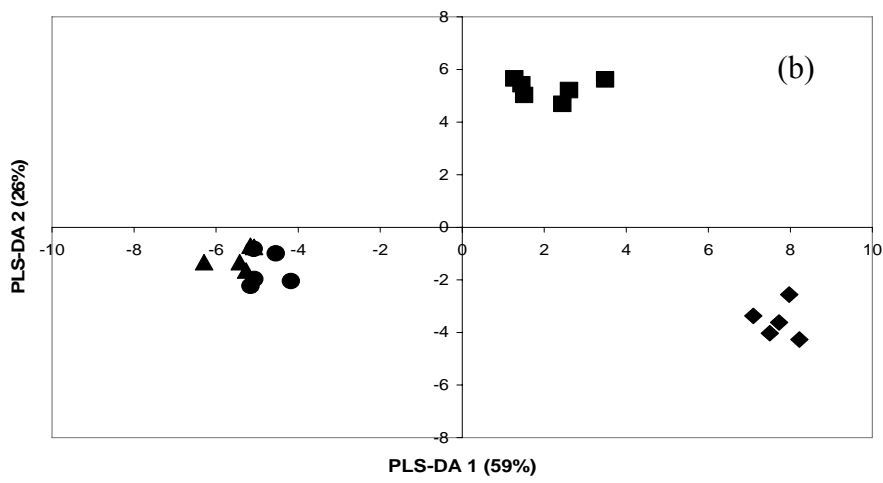
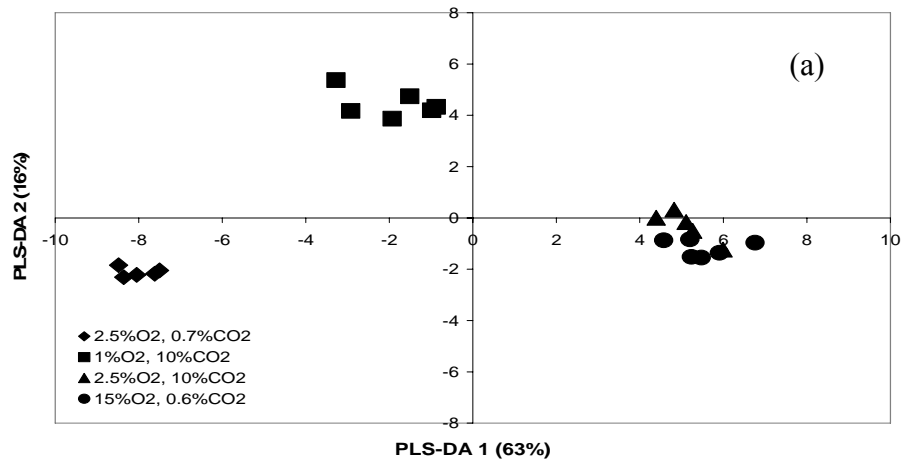


Figure 9

