

Human Metabolic Phenotyping and Metabolome Wide Association Studies

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Abstract. Metabolic phenotyping in large-scale population studies can yield crucial information regarding the impact and interaction of genetic and environmental factors with regard to the prevalence and risk of chronic diseases. Spectroscopic technologies such as nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy and mass spectrometry (MS) can be used to generate multi-parameter profiles of biological samples and together with automated sample delivery and mathematical modelling systems, can be used as a high throughput screening tool. The adaptation of these metabolic profiling tools from pre-clinical studies in animal models to population studies in man is explored and an overview of the current and future roles of metabolic phenotyping is described, including the idea of “Metabolome Wide Association Screening” focussing on key dis-

ease areas such as cardiovascular disease and metabolic syndrome, cancers and neurodegeneration.

1 Introduction

Recognition of the inadequacy of the genome sequence to explain the fundamental nature of many disease processes has precipitated a marked increase in the evaluation of approaches that relate gene expression to phenotypic outcomes. There is also increasing recognition of biological complexity and the conceptual paradigm has been shifted from simple univariate measurements of response to the need to integrate technologies and their outputs in order to operate at a systems biology level. Interactions of genes, proteins and metabolites at different levels of biomolecular organization can be probed by various technologies and integrated using bioinformatic and chemometric strategies to extract latent information that carries a diagnostic or even prognostic signature. One of the major goals of twenty-first century medicine will be the introduction of personalized health care through a holistic understanding of an individual's overall biochemical status. In order to achieve this aim, the effects of both genetic predisposition and a wide range of environmental factors such as diet, drug intake, smoking habits, stress and amount of physical activity, etc., need to be taken into account. Metabonomics (variously referred to as metabolomics or metabolic profiling) (Nicholson et al. 1999, 2002; Fiehn et al. 2000) is a rapidly emerging field of research combining sophisticated analytical tools such as nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy and mass spectrometry with multivariate statistical analysis to generate complex metabolic profiles of biofluids and tissues. Pathological stimuli or genetic modification influence metabolite profiles in a characteristic and consistent manner, involving adjustment of the intra- and extracellular fluids as the organism strives to maintain homeostatic equilibrium. By harnessing appropriate mathematical and pattern recognition procedures to interrogate the data produced by high-resolution spectral analysis, characteristic profiles of physiological or pathological responses can be established.

The global objective of this chapter is to review the potential of metabolic profiling methods for characterizing the complex metabolic phenotype of humans in health and disease. Metabolic profiling has been successfully applied across a wide range of fields in plant and animal biology such as characterization of natural products (Bailey et al. 2002), monitoring response to therapeutic or nutritional interventions (Neild et al. 1997; Lamers et al. 2003; Wang et al. 2004), toxicology (Ebbels et al. 2007), drug metabolism (Foxall et al. 1996; Plumb et al. 2003), functional genomics (Gavaghan et al. 2000) and disease diagnosis and prognosis (Brindle et al. 2002; Yi et al. 2006; Clayton et al. 2006). The vast majority of metabolic profiling studies have been conducted in laboratory models of disease or toxicity where control over genetic and environmental conditions can be exercised. However, given the substantial array of animal studies that identify the metabolic response to controlled interventions, it is now appropriate to expand the available knowledge to address more complex phenotypes and, in particular, to extend the methodology to investigate human metabolism. The potential of metabolic profiling to address complex human clinical and even epidemiological questions has vastly increased due to recent advances in both analytical and mathematical technology; including capacity for higher throughput of samples, increased analytical sensitivity and the evolution of mathematical methods for accommodating analytical and biological variation. In this chapter, illustrations of research where metabolic profiling has already been employed in investigating human health and disease is summarized, and potential areas which would benefit from application of such technology are outlined.

2 Defining the “Normal” Phenotype

Prior to utilizing metabolic profiling technology for diagnostic purposes in human studies, it is first necessary to define the metabolic range covered by normal physiological variation. Only then can robust and specific biomarkers of disease be extracted. Metabolic variation is dependent on both genetic and environmental parameters, and each biological tissue or fluid has its own unique metabolic signature (Fig. 1). Ethnicity, gender, age, activity, nutritional status, medication, stress, polymor-

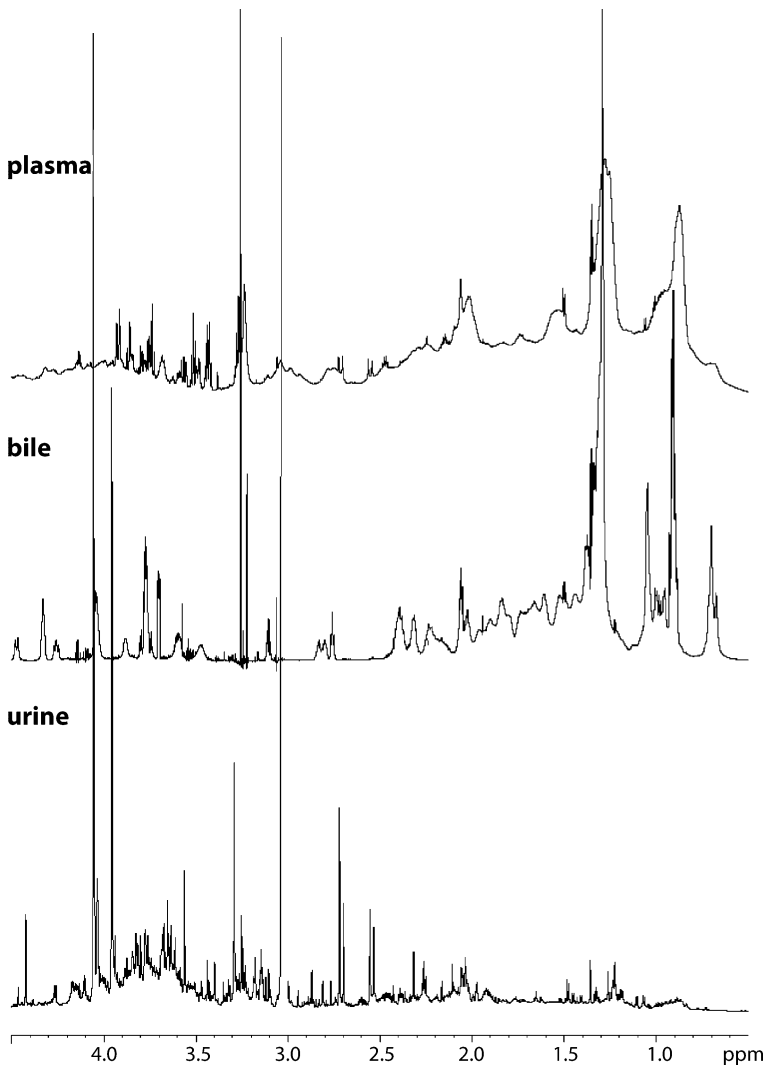


Fig. 1. Standard 600 MHz ^1H NMR spectra showing characteristic profiles for urine, plasma and bile

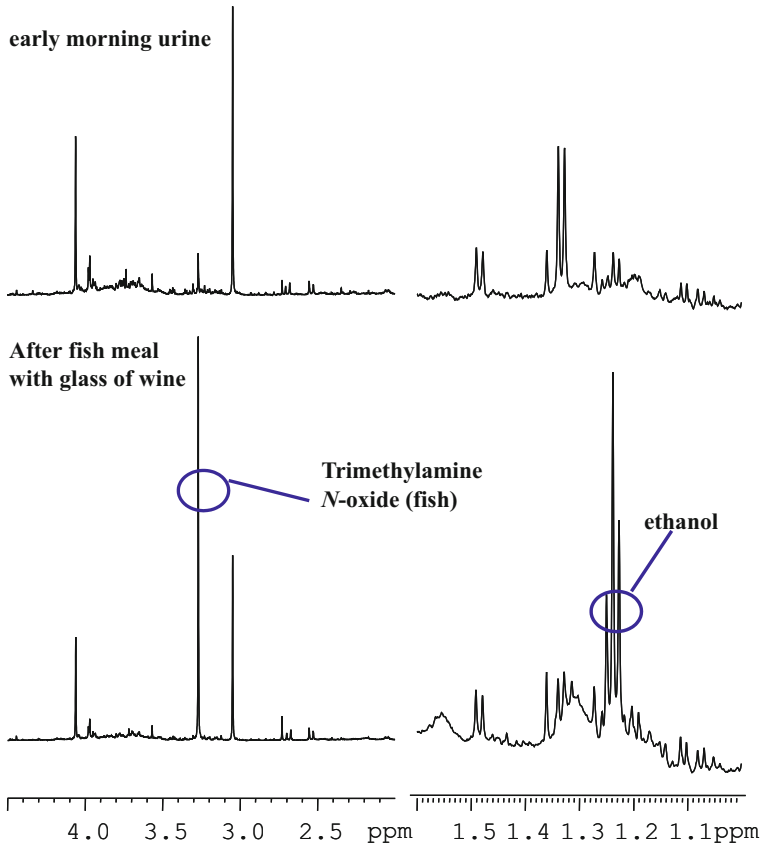


Fig. 2. Selected regions of standard 600-MHz ^1H NMR spectrum of urine samples from a healthy male before and after consuming an evening meal showing characteristic metabolic changes associated with the consumption of fish and a glass of wine (vertical scale for region on right hand side of plot $\times 5$)

phisms, hormone levels and circadian cycles are all known to impact upon mammalian metabolite profiles (Holmes et al. 1994; Slupsky et al. 2007; Williams et al. 2006; Bollard et al. 2001; Teague et al. 2004, 2006) (Fig. 2). Evaluation of normal ranges of mammalian metabolite

composition under various physiological and analytical conditions can be found in the literature for several biological matrices, including urine (Holmes et al. 1994; Maher et al. 2007), plasma (Teahan et al. 2006; Lenz et al. 2003), cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) (Koschorek et al. 1993), feces (Saric et al. 2008) and various tissues (Tsang et al. 2005; Wang et al. 2008; Garrod et al. 1999). The extent of variation and the dynamic ranges of metabolite concentrations in metabolite profiles are dependent upon the influence of homeostatic mechanisms on that biological matrix (Fig. 1). For example, plasma composition is maintained under homeostatic control and metabolite concentrations are found to be relatively stable in terms of both qualitative and quantitative differences in comparison with excretory biofluids such as urine, where metabolite concentrations vary greatly in terms of both the presence and quantity.

3 Detecting Pathophenotypes: Diagnostics

In many instances, diagnosis of the presence of a disease is achievable by routine and inexpensive clinical assays or genetic tests, for example type 2 diabetes, inborn errors of metabolism such as phenylketonuria, and many neurodegenerative disorders (Guthrie and Susi 1963; International Huntington Association and the World Federation of Neurology Research Group on Huntington's Chorea 1994). However, for some diseases, early diagnosis remains the key issue, and even for those diseases that are easily diagnosed by simple assays, in some cases the stage of disease is harder to determine accurately. Therefore, improved diagnostics are required in order to establish the optimal therapeutic management. Here the application of metabolic profiling can be an efficient tool for differential diagnosis of various disease conditions, as has been shown for a wide range of diseases, including cardiovascular, intestinal disorders, cancers, renal disease (Fig. 3), osteopathies and neuropathologies. Several examples are discussed in the following sections.

3.1 Metabolic Profiling of Insulin Resistance

Insulin resistance (IR) is one of the fastest growing human pathological conditions, and is now an increasing health burden in the develop-

ANALYSIS OF RENAL FANCONI URINE BY MS AND NMR

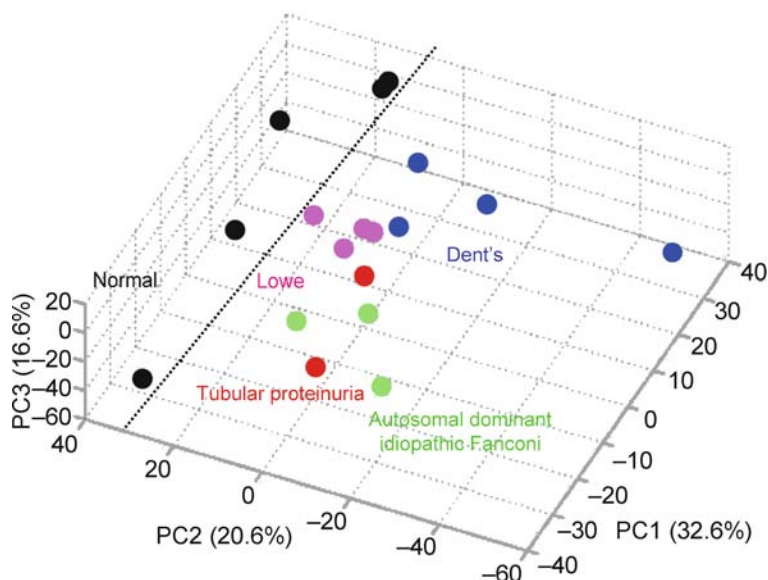


Fig. 3. Principal Components scores plot derived from the NMR and MS profiles of urine obtained from humans with different types of Fanconi syndrome. (Adapted from Vilasi 2007)

ing world as well as westernized societies. IR has been studied across a wide range of animal models using metabolic profiling and large-scale epidemiological studies are now being undertaken in human populations. Several studies on models of insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes have been undertaken in animal models. For example, the effects of streptozotocin-induced diabetes have been profiled using NMR with principal components analysis (PCA) (Nemoto et al. 2007). The effects of a high-fat diet were explored in inbred mouse strains selected for their resistance (BALB/c) and susceptibility (129S6) to IR and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). High plasma concentrations of phosphocholine and increased urinary excretion of methylamines, associated with changes in gut microflora were found (Dumas et al. 2006a). Several

studies have also been conducted on the Zucker rat, which is a common animal model for IR and obesity (Dumas et al. 2006b; Yi et al. 2006). Several recent EU-funded initiatives such as MolPAGE, FGENT-CARD, PROCARDIS involve or even focus on metabolic profiling of the human IR phenotype. Most of the early publications arising from these studies encompass an exploration of variation in human biofluids (Teague et al. 2004; Maher et al. 2007; Plumb et al. 2005), but several smaller studies targeting IR have identified specific metabolic phenotypes or metabotypes associated with IR and type 2 diabetes (Williams et al. 2005; Atherton et al. 2006). Indeed, type 2 diabetes was first profiled using NMR spectroscopy in 1984 (Bales et al. 1984). Although as yet there are few substantive papers exploring the more subtle and substantive metabolic consequences of IR, an explosion in the literature reporting on some of the major epidemiological studies is imminent.

3.2 Cardiovascular Disease

Like IR, cardiovascular disease (CVD) is also a part of the metabolic syndrome spectrum and is also growing at an alarming rate. CVD has been studied across several small populations using metabolic profiling approaches. Predominantly NMR spectroscopy-based studies on plasma or serum, in particular, have yielded metabolic profiles that are differentiated from control or healthy profiles in both the lipoprotein profiles, choline metabolites and in some of the lower molecular weight metabolic components (Brindle et al. 2002; Kirschenlohr et al. 2006). One LC-MS study, conducted on patients with myocardial ischaemia, some of whom demonstrated inducible ischemia and some of whom did not, was able to separate the two groups clearly on the basis of citric and lactic acid amongst other metabolites. However, of the 23 metabolites identified as candidate biomarkers, few were identified and the study lacked a matched control group. Nevertheless, the potential of LC-MS methodology to characterize myocardial ischemia was clearly demonstrated (Sabatine et al. 2005). Although early studies have produced promising results in terms of obtaining a diagnostic signature, due to confounders such as medication, the higher prevalence of the disease in men and the high dependency on diet and lifestyle, there is

still a requirement for larger-scale definitive studies in this area. Identification of an early diagnostic for CVD, or even a prognostic signature, would undoubtedly be one of the “Holy Grails” of metabolic profiling. Several population-based epidemiology studies have been designed to test hypotheses regarding the relationship between the development of hypertension, a condition that predisposes to CVD, and various lifestyle factors. In particular, the INTERMAP study (International Study of Macronutrients and Blood Pressure) was launched in 1996 to investigate the relationship of dietary intake of macronutrients and other factors to blood pressure across four countries: China, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States (Stamler et al. 2003). This study involved collection of two 24-h urine samples from 4,680 participants, in addition to blood pressure measurements and NMR spectroscopy; the first results are beginning to emerge (Dumas et al. 2006b; Homes et al. 2007). Furthermore we have recently introduced the concept of the “Metabolome-wide association study” (Holmes et al. 2008) demonstrating broad metabolite profile screening is linked statistically to disease risk factor data to identify new molecular targets in metabolism that can be physiologically tested. Thus, whilst large epidemiological studies present a practical and logistical challenge, they are at least feasible and metabolic profiling is well suited to characterizing the metabolic phenotypes of populations, which have high risk and prevalence of pathological or prepathological conditions such as CVD and hypertension.

3.3 Metabolic Investigations of Neuropathological Disease

Disease progression in many neurodegenerative and psychological disorders is difficult to assess with batteries of cognitive or psychological tests forming part of the diagnostic for disease stage. For these pathologies, it would be ideal to have a metabolic indicator of disease stage in order to achieve the optimal therapeutic intervention strategy. In the neurodegeneration field, there are many more studies using magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) of tissues than high-resolution NMR spectroscopy; however, MRS profiles lack sensitivity in comparison. Again, in experimental models such as the transgenic R6/2 mouse model of juvenile Huntington’s disease (Bates et al. 1997), NMR-based metabolomic studies in the R6/2 mouse characterized the metabolic

signature of HD in several tissues and body fluids (urine, plasma, skeletal muscle, striatum, cerebral cortex, cerebellum and brain stem) at 4, 8 and 12 weeks of age (Tsang et al. 2006b). This study supported previous results obtained by Jenkins et al. (1993) using MRS, but additionally was able to resolve choline and glycerophosphocholine resonances. Choline levels were observed to decrease in most of the neuroanatomical regions analysed in the R6/2 mouse, whereas glycerophosphocholine increased suggestive of a pro-catabolic phenotype in the R6/2 mouse model. This has also been shown in a small number of HD patients where glycerophosphocholine levels correlated with disease progression (Underwood et al. 2006). Currently, the European Huntington's Disease Network is focused on collaborating across European cohorts to establish biomarkers of HD and is actively employing a systems biology approach combining transcriptomic, proteomic and metabolomic data from HD patients and age-matched controls. For schizophrenia, the metabolic profiling strategy has been taken one step further, and not only has the metabolic phenotype of the pathology been defined (Tsang et al. 2006a), but a preliminary study evaluating response to therapeutic intervention with antipsychotics has been profiled, showing that those patients treated on the first episode of the disease were able to achieve normalization of their spectral profiles (Holmes et al. 2006).

3.4 Intestinal Disorders

Although it is relatively easy to diagnose irritable bowel disorders, discriminating between them, for example Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis, can provide more of a challenge. Moreover, monitoring the condition generally involves an invasive series of surgical procedures such as colonoscopy. Recently spectroscopic methods have been applied to stool samples from CD, ulcerative colitis, polyposis and colon cancer to achieve discriminatory profiles for each of these conditions (Marchesi et al. 2007; Scanlan et al. 2008). Faecal water profiles from each of these conditions were found to have higher levels of amino acids, lower levels of short chain fatty acids and characteristic bile acid signatures, although the specific amino acids and short chain fatty acids that changed were different for each condition.

3.5 Cancers

Cancer is one area where a specific and distinctive metabolic profile has remained elusive. The first studies performed on profiling cancer using NMR spectroscopy as a diagnostic tool were unfortunately badly confounded (Fossel et al. 1986), which resulted in avoidance of this area for many years. Two of the main problems with cancer diagnostics are the lack of specificity and the fact that many of the metabolic changes are associated with inflammation. Now, however, with the recent advances in technology, several studies on small cohorts of patients have produced promising results. In one such study Odunsi et al. were able to differentiate between patients with ovarian cancer and matched controls using NMR analysis of blood plasma (Odunsi et al. 2005), whilst in another study, excised tumour tissue was analysed using GC-MS and ovarian cancers were differentiated from borderline tumours with high sensitivity (Denkert et al. 2006). Because of the difficulty of finding cancer-specific biomarkers, several studies have employed more than one “omics” platform. For example, renal cell carcinoma has been characterized using a combined proteomic and MS-based metabolic profiling approach (Perroud et al. 2007). Due to the obvious effect on glycolysis in tumours, studies on cancer cell lines often employ ^{13}C -labelled glucose. Using this labelling approach, characterization was achieved for a breast cancer mammary epithelial line from a normal mammary epithelial line (Yang et al. 2007) using a combination of NMR and GC-MS. Whilst such studies can potentially throw light on mechanisms and aid drug target discovery, the metabolic situation is very different and inherently more complex inside the human, and one must bear in mind the biomarkers discovered via metabolic profiling of cell lines may not always be translatable.

3.6 Infectious Diseases

There have been a number of metabolic profiling initiatives in the infectious disease area, including parasitic infection, tuberculosis and meningitis (Singer et al. 2006; Glickman et al. 1994; Coen et al. 2005). In reality, infectious diseases are predominant in developing countries and therefore relatively little metabolic profiling work has been done in this

area due to financial constraints and practicality. Further complications of applying the technology in this area is the fact that multiple infection is the norm for many of these populations (Buck et al. 1978), thereby rendering extraction of a panel of biomarkers for single infection difficult, although arguably it would be preferable to profile the multiple diseases simultaneously. Since metabolic profiling is an inexpensive technology, particularly when used in an exploratory capacity with subsequent development of biomarker assays, it has great potential in the diagnosis and surveillance of infectious diseases.

4 Defining Biomarkers

In order to be truly useful, a biomarker must be quantifiable, reproducible and analytically simple to measure (Atkinson et al.). Other desirable qualities of biomarkers are that the biomarker is inexpensive to measure, its concentration or level does not vary across a large range, it is specific to the condition of interest and that it is not affected by co-morbid factors.

The capacity for metabolic profiling approaches to generate diagnostic molecular signatures has been demonstrated for a range of conditions in human studies, but many studies have been preliminary in nature and now require extensive validation across larger cohorts on individuals.

Biomarker detection plays a key role in the discovery and development of new treatments for human disease and therefore there has been a great deal of method development in the area of improving biomarker detection and extraction from large multivariate data sets.

Increased sensitivity of analytical detection is useless without the means to interpret the greater number of candidate molecules or signals generated by an analytical platform. The three major analytical platforms—GC-MS, LC-MS and NMR spectroscopy—have strengths and weaknesses that are partially determined by the nature of the disease or intervention under investigation. Although GC-MS typically requires time-consuming derivatization steps, there are several good databases for molecular identification once the data are acquired. To improve molecular identification, GC-MS data can be deconvolved using hierarchical multivariate curve resolution to resolve the spectra into

pure profiles of compounds (Jonsson et al. 2006). GC-MS is well suited to measuring diseases where targeted analysis can be applied to a set of molecules which are known to carry a signature for a particular disease, for example the measurement of organic acids for characterization of many inborn errors of metabolism. LC-MS, and more particularly UPLC-MS, with its enhanced resolution and sensitivity, provides a comprehensive signature of metabolic perturbation and is becoming increasingly useful as the databases associated with molecular identification from retention-time- m/z pairs improve. NMR spectroscopy is the most reproducible of the three techniques and the least prone to artefact. Sensitivity remains lower than MS methods even with the use of cryoprobes, but the technique is inherently more amenable to structural elucidation. For a few well-funded laboratories, the obvious choice is to employ all three techniques. For the rest then, a sensible choice has to be made based on cost, laboratory infrastructure and the clinical, therapeutic or nutritional areas of interest.

Whatever the platform of choice, there is a continuous stream of new chemometric and bioinformatics processing and preprocessing techniques for optimization of the analysis of spectral data including algorithms for curve resolution (Jonsson et al. 2006), peak alignment (Jonsson et al. 2005; Csenki et al. 2007; Stoyanova et al. 2004), normalization (Dieterle et al. 2006) and quantification (Vehtari et al. 2007) in order to provide the best chance of capturing potential biomarkers. Other methods focus more on the identification of correlation within the data structure in order to provide as much information as possible regarding the identity of biomarkers, for example statistical correlation spectroscopy (Cloarec et al. 2005; Crockford et al. 2006).

5 The Way Forward

Arguably, the most valuable type of biomarker is either an early diagnostic or even prognostic, i.e. one which allows detection of a disease prior to the manifestation of clinical symptoms. Identification of prognostic biomarkers can result in prevention of the development of that pathology, or even the reversal of the pathology. Several recent studies have indicated that for certain conditions metabolic profiling can un-

cover a prognostic signature. For example, from the predose ^1H NMR urine profile, it is possible to predict animals who will develop toxicity after an oral dose of galactosamine and to predict toxicity associated with paracetamol ingestion (Clayton et al. 2006).

Psychological and physiological stress have also been shown to predispose individuals to a number of illnesses and conditions and the concept of allostatic load, the indication of wear-and-tear on multiple biological systems as they adapt and respond, within the individual, to life's demands (McEwen 2002). It was found that for men at highest risk of mortality, a cluster of five biomarkers are usually present at elevated levels, namely CRP, IL-6, fibrinogen, norepinephrine, and epinephrine (Gruenewald et al. 2006). Application of metabolic profiling strategies to epidemiological cohorts should finally give enough power to make associations between gene-gene and gene-environment factors and the associated consequence on the metabolic phenotype.

As the world turns towards systems biology, there is a pressing need to begin to integrate multiple “-omics” data sensibly. Simply making lists of genes, proteins and metabolites that are altered by a particular disease, mathematical modelling solutions can help to extract latent information and can use aspects of one “-omics” data set to strengthen another. This integration has been attempted at a preliminary level in animal models with relatively small group sizes, but has yet to be applied on a large scale to human clinical or population studies. Examples of co-analysis of “-omics” data include integrating metabolic profiles with quantitative trait locus data in a diabetic rat model (Dumas et al. 2007), combining metabolic and proteomic data for a mouse model of prostate cancer (Rantalainen et al. 2006). Bayesian methods for establishing correlations between two disparate sets of data show promise and have the added advantage of being nonlinear. Preliminary studies linking clinically measured lipoprotein measurements to ^1H NMR spectra enable some resolution of the highly overlapped lipoproteins in the NMR plasma spectra (Vehtari et al. 2007).

Metabolic profiling technology has come a long way since its origins in small-scale animal studies looking at gross metabolic changes. It is now an exquisitely sensitive tool for profiling multiple dynamic biological processes and cannot only accommodate the high degree of

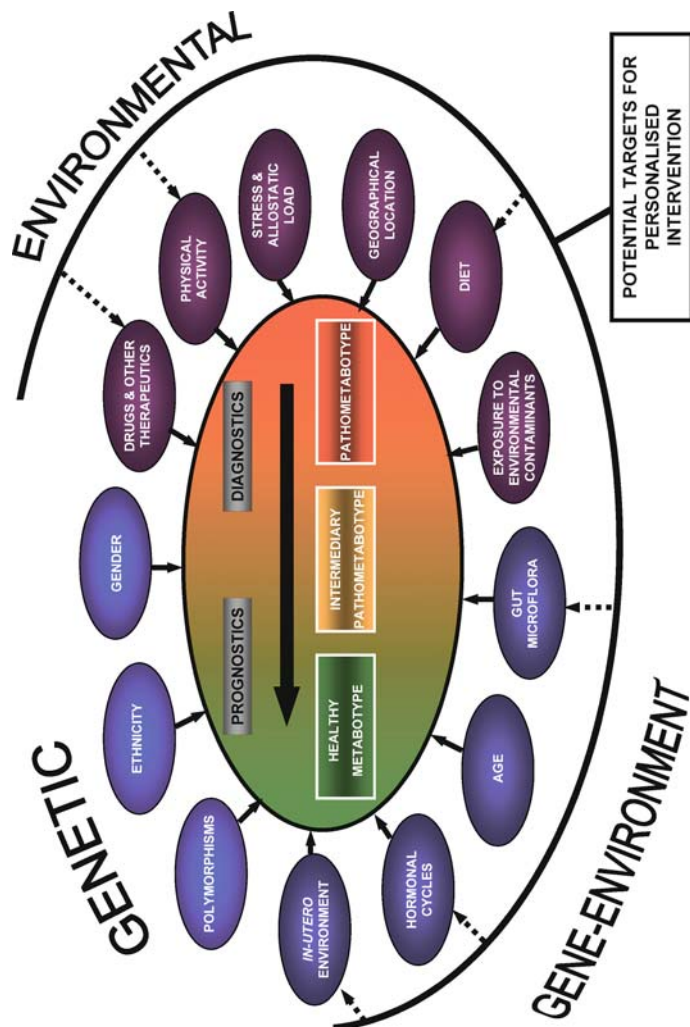


Fig. 4. Schematic showing genetic and environmental factors that contribute to the global metabolic profile of humans

metabolic variation typical of human data sets, but can help to unravel the various contributions from a range of genetic, epigenetic and environmental influences (Fig. 4). We are now standing on the threshold of a new era as this technology comes of age and is increasingly applied in the systems biology arena. With judicious application, this technology promises to deliver advances both in personalized health care and in population screening.

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