1. INTRODUCTION

The nonnegative matrix decomposition (NMD) (also called nonnegative matrix factorization and positive matrix factorization) is a recent methodology that decomposes a nonnegative matrix (i.e. matrix composed by zeros and positive values) into two low-rank nonnegative matrices: one called the basis matrix and the other the mixing matrix. One of the first applications of NMD in the field of engineering was achieved by Lee and Seung (1999) in image processing. The NMD is able to extract patterns or unmix signals involved in a data set (Cichocki et al., 2009) and has been successfully applied to processes that present the intrinsic property to produce nonnegative data. Typical examples of NMD are the unsupervised learning (Cichocki et al., 2009), text database classification (Lu, 2008), which includes endogenous metabolite discovery (Smaragdis et al., May 2014), music instrument recognition (Stodden, 2003; Mysore, 2012), and recommender system (Koren et al., 2019) and has been successfully applied to processes that present the intrinsic property to produce non-negative data. Typical examples of NMD are the unsupervised learning (Cichocki et al., 2009), text database classification (Lu, 2008), which includes endogenous metabolite discovery (Smaragdis et al., May 2014), music instrument recognition (Stodden, 2003; Mysore, 2012), and recommender system (Koren et al., 2019) and has been successfully exploited in a variety of applications in computational biology (Devarajan, 2008), which includes endogenous metabolite discovery (Bartel et al., 2013), cellular identity (Gao and Welch, 2020), genes and clustering samples (Liu et al., 2018) and multi-omics biological data (Wang et al., 2018).

To be suitable for all these applications, several different NMD algorithms have been proposed. One of the first mathematical descriptions of the nonnegative factor model with optimal utilization of the error estimates of data values was presented by Paatero and Tapper (1994). Thereafter, several extensions and simplifications have been proposed as the multiplicative update algorithms, proposed in Lee and Seung (2001), semi-NMD, which removes the non-negative constraints on the data, sparse-NMD that is used to reduce the non-uniqueness of solutions and enhance interpretability of the NMD results, kernel-NMD where the optimization of the model is dimension-free, orthogonal-NMD that imposes the orthogonality constraint to enhance sparsity and weighted-NMD for data sets with missing elements, see Cichocki et al. (2009) and Berry et al. (2007) as well as references therein.

Although there are other applications of NMD, such as dimensionality reduction and preprocessing, this paper will consider the approach from a modeling perspective. Differently from maximum likelihood principle component analysis (MLPCA) (Bernard and Bastin, 2005; Mailier et al., 2012; Dewasme et al., 2017), which extracts from the measurement data sets the number of biochemical reactions and a stoichiometric basis, the NMD derives, in an unstructured way, the fundamental compounds involved in these reactions. This can be seen as a complementary and easy-to-use tool to be combined with the MLPCA when a priori knowledge on the components involved in the reaction rates is not available.

The resulting maximum likelihood NMD (MLNMD) formulation is assessed when applied to the hybridoma cell batch culture process, producing monoclonal antibodies (MAbs). This process complexity, the limited amount of data, and measurement noise levels hamper the process of modeling for monitoring, prediction, and control. Also, the measurements of some of the compounds involved in the production of MAbs are costly and time-consuming, requiring great effort for data acquisition. A basic approach in modeling for monitoring and control is to represent the bioprocess as a macroscopic model (Bastin and Dochain, 1990), as proposed in the literature for the MAb production process (Nolan and Lee, 2011; Amribt et al., 2014; Dewasme et al., 2017; Yilmaz et al., 2020).
This paper proposes an original maximum likelihood nonnegative matrix decomposition (MLNMD) algorithm which accounts for the measurement noise in the estimation of the decomposed matrices. To validate the MLNMD, first, we select the model proposed by Dewasme et al. (2017) to generate noisy data. Furthermore, based on the analysis of the decomposition, two experimental data sets are used to validate and cross-validate the proposed low-rank linear predictor.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 revisits the macroscopic hybridoma cell model, which is used to analyze the decomposition results and validate the MLNMD. Section 3 presents one of the well-established algorithms of NMD - the alternating least-squares (ALS) -, and introduces the MLNMD algorithm. The analysis and the validation of MLNMD using simulation data sets from hybridoma cell batch cultures are presented in Section 4. In Section 5, the experimental data is decomposed by the MLNMD algorithm and the linear predictor is designed, while a second experimental data set cross-validates the proposed method. Section 6 points to open problems and concludes the paper.

2. DYNAMIC MODEL OF HYBRIDOMA CELL CULTURES

The reaction scheme presented in Dewasme et al. (2017), macroscopically describing hybridoma cell catabolism through three metabolic mechanisms (substrate oxidation and overflow, biomass decay), reads:

(a) Substrate oxidation:
\[ k_{31}G + k_{41}Gn \xrightarrow{\varphi_1} X_v + k_{61}MAb. \]  

(b) Substrate overflow:
\[ k_{32}G + k_{42}Gn \xrightarrow{\varphi_2} X_v + k_{52}L. \]

(c) Biomass death
\[ X_v \xrightarrow{\varphi_3} X_d + k_{63}MAb. \]

where \( X_v, X_d, G, Gn, L \) and \( MAb \) are the concentration of the viable biomass, dead biomass, glucose, glutamine, lactate and monoclonal antibodies (MAb), respectively, \( \varphi \) are reaction rates and \( k \) are the stoichiometric parameters of the process. From the reaction scheme, the corresponding mass balance equations can be written as follows:

\[ \frac{dX_v}{dt} = \varphi_1 + \varphi_2 - \varphi_3, \]
\[ \frac{dX_d}{dt} = \varphi_3, \]
\[ \frac{dG}{dt} = -k_{31}\varphi_1 - k_{32}\varphi_2, \]
\[ \frac{dGn}{dt} = -k_{41}\varphi_1 - k_{42}\varphi_2, \]
\[ \frac{dL}{dt} = k_{52}\varphi_2, \]
\[ \frac{dMAb}{dt} = k_{61}\varphi_1 + k_{63}\varphi_3, \]

where the reaction rates are discontinuous functions of the form:

\[ \varphi_1 = \min(\mu_G, \mu_{Gmax}), \]
\[ \varphi_2 = \max(0, (\mu_G - \mu_{Gmax})), \]
\[ \varphi_3 = \mu_{Gmax} \frac{K_{Gd}}{K_{Gd} + G} \frac{K_{Gnd}}{K_{Gnd} + Gn} X_v. \]

where
\[ \mu_G = \mu_{max1} \frac{Gn}{K_{Gn} + Gn} X_v, \quad \mu_{Gmax} = \mu_{max2} X_v. \]  

This model will be considered as a reference in the following result analyses.

3. NONNEGATIVE MATRIX DECOMPOSITION (NMD) METHODS

3.1 NMD

The NMD methods can be split into two main branches: (i) Exact NMD and (ii) Approximate NMD. Exact NMD is an essential tool for linear algebra, and it is closely related to the smallest \( r \) such that \( X \) admits an Exact NMF size \( r \). On the other hand, Approximate NMD, the subject of this paper, takes into account the statistical properties of the measurement errors and is more suitable for practical applications where an Exact NMD is unlikely (see discussion about Exact and Approximate NMD in Gillis (2020)). For simplicity, the Approximate NMD is referred to as NMD in the text.

One widely used algorithm to obtain the NMD models is the alternating least squares (Berry et al., 2007), which can be considered as a maximum likelihood method if all measurement error standard deviations have the same normal distribution (i.e. independently and identically distributed (i.i.d.)).

The NMD decomposes a nonnegative matrix \( X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}_+ \) in two matrices \( W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r} \) (basis matrix) and \( H \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n} \) (mixing matrix), where \( r \), selected by the user, is the basis dimension of the decomposition represented as follows:

\[ X_{m \times n} = W_{m \times r} \cdot H_{r \times n}. \]

where \( m \) is the number of collected samples (observations), \( n \) is the number of the process compounds, which, in this study, are the number of extracellular measurement components (i.e. biomass, metabolites, and substrate concentrations).

The \( W \) and \( H \) matrices are chosen to minimize the objective function that is defined as in Berry et al. (2007):

\[ J = \frac{\|X - WH\|_F}{\sqrt{m \cdot n}}, \]

where \( \| \cdot \|_F \) is the Frobenius norm. The decomposition is obtained by the solution of a bilinear problem as there are two matrices to be determined. In the NMD, the minimization of the bilinear problem uses the alternating least squares (ALS) algorithm, which can be represented by the following steps.

1. Given an \( m \times n \) data matrix \( X_0 \), subtract the offset of each column vector of the measurements, in way that each set of data starts or ends in zero (\( X = X_0 - \min(X_0) \));
2. Initialize \( W \) randomly or by using a specific deterministic strategy;
3. Estimate \( H \) from the matrix equation \( W^TWH = W^TX \) by solving
\[ \min_W J = \frac{\|X - WH\|_F}{\sqrt{m \cdot n}}, \text{ fixed } W; \]
4. Set all the negative elements of \( H \) to zero;
5. Estimate \( W \) from the matrix equation \( HH^TW = HX^T \) by solving
\[ \min_W J = \frac{\|X^T - H^T W^T\|_F}{\sqrt{m \cdot n}}, \text{ fixed } H; \]
6. Set all negative elements of \( W \) to zero;
7. Test $X - W \cdot H < \text{tolValue}$ or if the maximum iteration number $\text{maxIter}$, set by the user, is exceeded, terminate. Otherwise return to Step 3.
8. Add the offset values from Step 1 to $W \cdot H$.

In this paper the nonnegative matrix decomposition is called by the function $[W,H] = \text{nnmd}(X,r)$ (as embedded in MatLab (Berry et al., 2007)), where $r$ is the decomposition dimension.

### 3.2 MLNMD

As aforementioned, the maximum likelihood nonnegative matrix decomposition (MLNMD) is a modeling method accounting for the measurement errors during NMD pattern extraction. This is usually achieved by minimizing the weighted residual of the sum of distances of the data with some $r$-dimension model, corresponding to:

$$S^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{(x_{ij} - \tilde{x}_{ij})^2}{\sigma_{ij}^2},$$

where $\tilde{x}$ is the estimate value of the measurement and $\sigma_{ij}^2$ are the measurement variances. A straightforward implementation of the MLNMD algorithm, inspired from the combined works of Wentzell et al. (1997) and Mailier et al. (2012) is presented in Algorithm 1.

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**Algorithm 1. MLNMD**

1. Given an $m \times n$ data matrix $X_0$, subtract the offset of each column vector of the measurements, in way that each set of data starts or ends in zero ($X = X_0 - \min(X_0)$).
2. Given an $m \times n$ data matrix $X$ with no offset and a corresponding $m \times n$ matrix $Q$ of measurement error variances, use NMD to obtain the initial approximation to the MLNMD. The NMD is truncated to rank $r$.
3. Transpose $X$ and $Q$ and compute the maximum likelihood estimates using $H$.

$$X = X^T, \quad Q = Q^T, \quad \Sigma_i = \text{diag}(q_i),$$

$$\tilde{x}_i = H(H^T \Sigma_i^{-1} H)^{-1} H^T \Sigma_i^{-1} x_i,$$

where $x_i$ is a column vector of the transposed matrix $X$, and the cost function is computed as

$$S^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x_i - \tilde{x}_i)^T \Sigma_i^{-1} (x_i - \tilde{x}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{(x_{ij} - \tilde{x}_{ij})^2}{\sigma_{ij}^2}.$$

4. Compute the NMD of $\tilde{X}$ from step 3 and obtain new $H$.

$$[W,H] = \text{nnmd}(\tilde{X},r).$$

5. Repeat step 3 to estimate the MLNMD in the origin space.

$$X = X^T, \quad Q = Q^T, \quad \Phi_j = \text{diag}(q_j),$$

$$\tilde{x}_j = H(H^T \Phi_j^{-1} H)^{-1} H^T \Phi_j^{-1} x_j,$$

$$S^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{m} (x_j - \tilde{x}_j)^T \Phi_j^{-1} (x_j - \tilde{x}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{(x_{ij} - \tilde{x}_{ij})^2}{\sigma_{ij}^2}.$$

6. Compute the NMD of $\tilde{X}$ to obtain a new estimate of the MLNMD solution in the original space.

$$[W,H] = \text{nnmd}(\tilde{X},r).$$

7. Compute the convergence parameter $\lambda$ or maximum predefined iteration value.

$$\lambda = (S^2_1 - S^2_2)/S^2_2.$$ If $\lambda$ is less than the convergence limit or if the maximum iteration number $\text{maxIter}$, set by the user, is exceeded, terminate. Otherwise return to Step 3.

8. Add the offset obtained in the Step 1 to final $\tilde{X}$.

---

### 4. SIMULATION RESULTS AND DECOMPOSITION ANALYSIS

Model (4) is used to generate an 8-day simulated experiment with a sampling period of 0.1 days. The corresponding parameters are presented in Table 1. Also, for each measurement is added an uncorrelated white-noise with 5% of relative standard deviation. Thus, the generated data is nonnegative with $m = 81$ samples from $n = 6$ different component concentrations, i.e viable biomass $X_v$, dead biomass $X_d$, glucose $G$, glutamine $G_n$, lactate $L$ and monoclonal antibodies $MAb$.

---

**4.1 Selection of the $r$-dimension**

In order to select the $r$-dimension, the latter is increased until the rank of $H$ is reached. In the current case, the maximum admissible $r$-dimension is $4$. Figure 1 presents the fitting root-mean-square errors of NMD for increasing values of $r$.

---

**Fig. 1. NMD $r$-dimensions ans its root-mean-square errors.**

Analyzing the basis matrix $W$ we find out that from $r = 1$ to $r = 3$, there is a direct link between the basis signals, contained in basis matrix $W$, and the measured compounds from the process - this will be clear in the next section. Despite the root-mean-square error being the smallest with $r = 4$, the obtained basis signals do not contain dynamic relations to the gathered process measurements. Hence, to keep the relation between the basis matrix $W$ and the bioprocess measurements, the select decomposition dimension is $r = 3$.

---

**4.2 Numerical analysis: NMD vs. MLNMD**

Analyzing Figure 2a, with the selected basis dimension $r = 3$, the reconstruction of the measurements by the decomposition $\tilde{X} = W \cdot H$ badly fits, especially for viable and dead biomasses, despite a quite accurate fitting regarding the other compound concentrations. This insufficient behavior of the NMD motivates the inclusion of a maximum likelihood criterion to improve the quality of the estimates.
Fig. 2. Validations of the simulation data. (a) NMD and (b) MLNMD results. Continuous gray lines are the measurements from the data set ($X$) and dashed black lines are the decomposition validation ($\hat{X}$).

Table 1. Simulation parameters, obtained from Dewasme et al. (2017).

| Parameters | Values          | Parameters | Values          |
|------------|-----------------|------------|-----------------|
| $\mu_{\text{max}1}$ | 0.484 d$^{-1}$ | $k_{31}$ | 3.12            |
| $\mu_{\text{max}2}$ | 0.319 d$^{-1}$ | $k_{32}$ | 15.2            |
| $K_{Gd}$   | 0.0089 g/L      | $k_{34}$ | 0.624           |
| $K_{Gd}$   | 1.58 g/L        | $k_{35}$ | 1.22            |
| $K_{Gn}$   | 1.33 g/L        | $k_{36}$ | 23.9            |
| $\mu_{\text{max}}$ | 0.866 d$^{-1}$ | $k_{51}$ | 43.5            |
| $K_{G}$    | 0.100 g/L       | $k_{53}$ | 14.2            |
| $X_{d}(0)$ | 0.100 cells/ml  | $X_{d}(0)$ | 0.0151 cells/ml |
| $G(0)$     | 5.99 g/L        | $G(0)$   | 0.303 g/L       |
| $L(0)$     | 0.360 g/L       | $MAb(0)$ | 6.53 $\mu$g/ml |

The same data set generated from model (4) simulation is used to obtain the maximum likelihood decomposition $[W, \bar{H}] = \text{mlnnd}(X_0, Q, r)$, where $Q$ is the matrix of measurement error variances and $\hat{}$ denotes the maximum likelihood solution. Figure 2b shows the validation of the MLNMD in dashed black lines. The maximum likelihood solution for the bilinear problem is expressed by the following linear relation:

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
\hat{X}_r \\
\hat{X}_d \\
\hat{G} \\
\hat{Gn} \\
\hat{L} \\
\hat{MAb}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0.0313 & 0 \\
0.0209 & 0.0026 & 0.0006 \\
0.0000 & 0 & 0.9915 \\
0.0001 & 0.0011 & 0.1303 \\
0.1206 & 0.2597 & 0.0003 \\
0.9925 & 0.9652 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
+ \Phi_{\text{off set}},
$$

where $\Phi_{\text{off set}} = [\min(X_r) \ min(X_d) \ min(G) \ min(Gn) \ min(L) \ min(MAb)]^T$, which can be obtained directly from the data set and, for the sake of clarity, the values of matrix $\bar{W}$ are represented in Figure 3. Originally $\hat{X}$, $\bar{H}$ and $\bar{W}$ should be expressed by its transpose, but we suppressed the transpose symbol for notation simplification.

Evaluating the decomposition results represented in (22) and Figure 3, it can be easily seen one of the fundamental properties of the nonnegative matrix decomposition: the addition of sparsity in the decomposed matrices (Cichocki et al., 2009). To significantly highlight this characteristic in (22), the most significant values of each row in $\bar{H}$ are represented in bold. Note that some values are extremely small and not zeros due to noise and mainly the selected value of $r$-dimension. Nonetheless, analyzing this matrix, it is clear that the measurements of viable biomass $X_r$ can be approximated by the element in row 1 and column 2, multiplied by all the elements of the second row of $\bar{W}$, i.e. $X_r \approx \hat{X}_r = h_{12} \cdot \bar{w}_2$.

Likewise, it is straightforward to conclude that the dynamical behavior of $\bar{w}_2$, represented by the light gray line in Figure 3, is very close to the dynamical behavior of the $X_d$ measurements, presented in Figure 2b. In the same way, the dead biomass measurements can be approximated by $(X_d \approx \hat{X}_d = h_{21} \cdot \bar{w}_1)$ and both glucose and glutamine can be approximated by only using the dynamics of their respective element located in column 3 of $\bar{H}$ multiplied by $\bar{w}_3$.

As previously mentioned, the analysis of the matrix $\bar{H}$ is corroborated by the comparison of the dynamical behavior of $\bar{W}$ (Figure 3) and the dynamical behavior of $X_r \rightarrow \bar{w}_2$, $X_d \rightarrow \bar{w}_1$ and both $G, Gn \rightarrow \bar{w}_3$ (Figure 2b). Furthermore, taking into account the remaining compounds, the Lactate $L$ and monoclonal antibodies $MAbs$ can be reconstructed by the linear combinations of $\bar{w}_1$ and $\bar{w}_2$.

Moreover, the analysis of the sparsity of $\bar{H}$ revealed the linear interconnections between the pairs $(X_r, X_d) \rightarrow (L, MAb)$ and the mutual relation of $G \leftrightarrow Gn$. The NMD exposed the fundamental compounds involved in reactions (1), (2) and (3). This also discloses the fundamental measurements required to reconstruct all the other process compounds. This is the subject of the next section, where an experimental data set (HB1) is used for the design of the linear predictor, cross-validated with a second experimental data set (HB2).
Remark 1. As previously mentioned, NMD derives, in an unstructured way, the fundamental compounds involved in the process reactions. Therefore, this can be seen as a complementary and easy-to-use tool to be combined with the MLPCA, for instance, when a priori knowledge of the components involved in the reaction rates is not available.

5. MLNMD: EXPERIMENTAL DATA AND LINEAR PREDICTOR DESIGN

5.1 MLNMD: Experimental Data Validation

Two batch cultures of a hybridoma strain (called, HB1 and HB2) were performed in 200 mL T-flasks. At the initial time of each batch, biomass is kept in the reactor, while the metabolites (lactate, ammonia, and monoclonal antibodies) are withdrawn and the substrate concentrations (glucose and glutamine) are set to prescribed values (respectively ranging between 6 and 7 g/L, and 0.3 and 0.4 g/L). The culture time is approximately 7 days for HB1 and 9 days for HB2. Measurements are taken once every day, for more information about culture medium and protocol of measurements, see Dewasme et al. (2017).

In Figure 4a, the experimental data from HB1 and the corresponding confidence intervals, obtained from Dewasme et al. (2017), are represented by the error bars. The sample time, as mentioned before, is 1 day and the batch durations are 7 and 9 days for HB1 and HB2, respectively. Thus, it generates a data set with $m = 7$ (HB1) and $m = 9$ (HB2) samples, both with six component concentrations ($n = 6$).

The HB1 data set is applied to the MLNMD Algorithm 1, with the decomposition basis dimension of three, $r = 3$. The MLNMD of HB1 data is presented in (23) and Figure 4b, and its validation is presented in Figure 4a in black dashed lines.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
X_{d1} \\
\bar{X}_d \\
\bar{G} \\
\bar{G}_n \\
L \\
MAb
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
0.0033 & 0.0257 & 0 \\
0.0182 & 0.0003 & 0 \\
0 & 0.0557 & 0.9915 \\
0 & 0.0018 & 0.1304 \\
0.1547 & 0.1310 & 0 \\
0.9878 & 0.9895 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
H_{HBI}
\begin{bmatrix}
X_{d1} \\
\bar{X}_d \\
\bar{G} \\
\bar{G}_n \\
L \\
MAb
\end{bmatrix}
+ \Phi_{offset},
\]

(23)

where the elements with $\bar{\cdot}$ are the MLNMD of the experimental data set HB1 and $\Phi_{offset} = [\min(X_d) \min(X_d) \min(G) \min(G_n) \min(L) \min(MAb)]^T$ are provided by the original data set.

Similarly to the results of Section 4, the sparsity of matrix $H_{HBI}$ reveals the linear relations between the pairs $(X_d, \bar{X}_d) \rightarrow (L, MAb)$ and the mutual relation of $G \leftrightarrow Gn$. Also, (23) and Figure 4b shows that the dynamical behavior of $w_{HBI,1,1}$, $w_{HBI,1,2}$ and $w_{HBI,1,3}$ are linked to the dynamic behavior of $X_d$, $\bar{X}_d$ and both $\bar{G}$ and $\bar{G}_n$, respectively. These results initiate the design of a linear low-rank predictor for the hybridoma cell cultures.

5.2 Linear Predictor Design

First, consider a linear predictor in the form

\[ Y = K\Xi, \]

(24)

where $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is composed by the predicted compounds (i.e. $Y = [X_c \bar{X}_d \bar{G} \bar{G}_n L MAb]^T$, $K \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}$ and $\Xi \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times m}$. Based on the sparsity of the matrix $H_{HBI}$ presented in equation (23), the structure of $K$ and $\Xi$ are straightforward as

\[
K = \begin{bmatrix}
H_{HBI,1,1} / h_{HBI,1,21} & H_{HBI,1,2} / h_{HBI,1,12} & H_{HBI,1,3} / h_{HBI,1,43}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

and

\[
\Xi = \begin{bmatrix}
X_{d1} (HB2) \\
\bar{X}_d (HB2) \\
\bar{G} (HB2) \\
\bar{G}_n (HB2)
\end{bmatrix},
\]

(26)

where $H_{HBI,1,1} / h_{HBI,1,21}$ means that the first column of $H_{HBI}$ is divided by the element of row 2, column 1, of $H_{HBI}$ and the values of $\Xi$ are inferred from assumed available measurements of the hybridoma cell culture database (i.e. reported in the HB2 data set). The outputs of the linear predictor (24) are presented in Figure 5, where the experimental data from HB2 and the related confidence intervals, obtained from Dewasme et al. (2017), are represented by the error bars.

Figure 5 shows a good predictive property of the linear predictor as the HB2 data set presents different dynamics and larger culture time (9 days) than HB1. Moreover, the MLNMD low-rank linear predictor has the advantage of being designed based on the data-driven approach only, without proceeding to the dynamic modeling of the process metabolites. It must also be highlighted that the provided predictions depend exclusively on the measurements of the viable biomass, dead biomass, and glutamine concentrations.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper presents a data-driven linear predictor for batch cultures of hybridoma cells. The design is obtained based on the nonnegative matrix decomposition considering possible normally distributed measurement errors, conferring a decomposition that is optimal in a maximum likelihood sense. The resulting straightforward MLNMD algorithm is proposed and validated with the help of two experimental data sets from hybridoma cell batch cultures. The approach validations present satisfactory predictions. Interesting perspectives concern the connections of this unstructured approach with dynamic model identifiability and observability frameworks.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors acknowledge the support of the ProtoDrive project (convention no. 2010119) of the Win2Wal program of the Walloon Region (DG06) and MabDrive project (convention no. 1401005), both achieved in collaboration with the CER Groupe.

The scientific responsibility rests with its authors.

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Fig. 4. Validation of the experimental data HB1.

Fig. 5. MLNMD linear predictor cross-validation. The measurements from the HB2 are the error bars and the dashed black lines the linear predictor.

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