

## Systems biology

# pyaging: a Python-based compendium of GPU-optimized aging clocks

Lucas Paulo de Lima Camillo <sup>1,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Clinical Medicine, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 0SP, United Kingdom

\*Corresponding author. School of Clinical Medicine, University of Cambridge, Hills Road, Cambridge CB2 0SP, United Kingdom.

E-mail: lucas\_camillo@alumni.brown.edu or lpd27@cam.ac.uk (L.P.d.L.C.)

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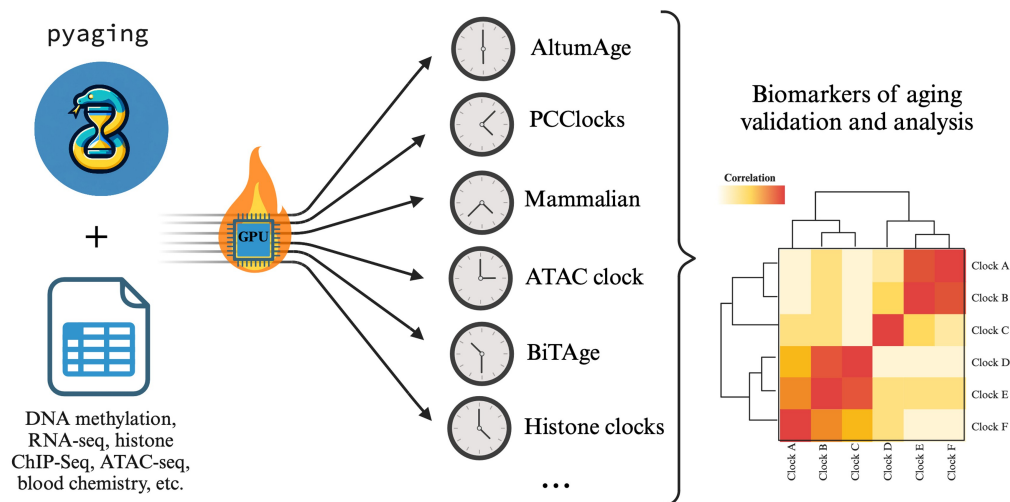
### Abstract

**Motivation:** Aging is intricately linked to diseases and mortality. It is reflected in molecular changes across various tissues which can be leveraged for the development of biomarkers of aging using machine learning models, known as aging clocks. Despite advancements in the field, a significant challenge remains: the lack of robust, Python-based software tools for integrating and comparing these diverse models. This gap highlights the need for comprehensive solutions that can handle the complexity and variety of data in aging research.

**Results:** To address this gap, I introduce `pyaging`, a comprehensive open-source Python package designed to facilitate aging research. `pyaging` harmonizes dozens of aging clocks, covering a range of molecular data types such as DNA methylation, transcriptomics, histone mark ChIP-Seq, and ATAC-Seq. The package is not limited to traditional model types; it features a diverse array, from linear and principal component models to neural networks and automatic relevance determination models. Thanks to a PyTorch-based backend that enables GPU acceleration, `pyaging` is capable of rapid inference, even when dealing with large datasets and complex models. In addition, the package's support for multi-species analysis extends its utility across various organisms, including humans, various mammals, and *Caenorhabditis elegans*.

**Availability and implementation:** `pyaging` is accessible on GitHub, at <https://github.com/rsinghlab/pyaging>, and the distribution is available on PyPi, at <https://pypi.org/project/pyaging/>. The software is also archived on Zenodo, at <https://zenodo.org/doi/10.5281/zenodo.10335011>.

### Graphical Abstract



## 1 Introduction

As we entered the 21st century, longevity studies became the cornerstone of aging research in various model organisms. The span of these studies ranged from a few days in

*Caenorhabditis elegans* to several weeks in *Drosophila melanogaster*, extending up to a few years in *Mus musculus*. This spectrum allowed for manageable daily mortality tracking in the burgeoning field of gerontology. Nonetheless, the

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feasibility of lifespan studies, both in terms of time and cost, remains a significant challenge. The transformative work by Horvath in 2013 marked a pivotal moment, introducing a reliable age predictor and catalyzing a new domain of research focused on the development and refinement of biomarkers of aging, healthspan, and lifespan (Horvath 2013).

Presently, the field boasts over a hundred aging clocks—machine learning models designed to predict various aspects of aging. DNA methylation, undoubtedly the most popular data type for constructing aging biomarkers, is complemented by other molecular signatures like transcriptomics, proteomics, blood chemistry, histone modification, and chromatin accessibility, each offering unique advantages. However, there exists a notable gap in software tools that consolidate these diverse aging clocks for comparative analysis. A few notable initiatives, such as the R packages methylclock (Pelegí-Sisó *et al.* 2021) and methylCYPHER (Thrush *et al.* 2022), represent steps toward addressing this need.

Yet, the development of aging biomarkers is not without its challenges, as underscored in a recent perspective (Moqri *et al.* 2023). Current software tools in this domain face several limitations: (i) while popular in biology, the prevalent use of R, an ad-hoc object-oriented programming system, often lacks the versatility needed for complex models like neural networks, which are more effectively implemented in languages such as Python; (ii) most existing age prediction packages are limited to a handful of clocks, far fewer than the actual breadth of available models; (iii) a focus predominantly on DNA methylation biomarkers narrows the scope for cross-comparison across different molecular layers; (iv) the lack of nonlinear techniques, such as neural network-based approaches like AltumAge (Galkin *et al.* 2021, de Lima Camillo *et al.* 2022); (v) the reliance on CPU processing results in slower inference, especially with larger datasets and more complex models; (vi) a species-specific focus, predominantly on *Homo sapiens*.

Addressing these challenges, I have developed `pyaging`, a Python-based package that acts as a comprehensive repository for various biomarkers of aging and aging clocks. `pyaging` offers: (i) a Python-centric approach, utilizing the versatile AnnData (Virshup *et al.* 2021) format of annotated data matrices in memory and on disk; (ii) an expanding repository, currently encompassing over 50 clocks with routine updates given new developments in the literature; (iii) clocks based on a diverse range of data types, encompassing DNA methylation (Hannum *et al.* 2013, Horvath 2013, Knight *et al.* 2016, Lin *et al.* 2016, Petkovich *et al.* 2017, Stubbs *et al.* 2017, Zhang *et al.* 2017, Horvath *et al.* 2018, Levine *et al.* 2018, Meer *et al.* 2018, Thompson *et al.* 2018, Lee *et al.* 2019, Lu *et al.* 2019, Zhang *et al.* 2019, Han *et al.* 2020, McEwen *et al.* 2020, Belsky *et al.* 2022, de Lima Camillo *et al.* 2022, Endicott *et al.* 2022, Higgins-Chen *et al.* 2022, Lu *et al.* 2022, Dec *et al.* 2023, Li *et al.* 2023, Lu *et al.* 2023, McGreevy *et al.* 2023, Ying *et al.* 2024), transcriptomics (Meyer and Schumacher 2021), histone mark ChIP-Seq (de Lima Camillo *et al.* 2023), and ATAC-Seq (Morandini *et al.* 2024); (iv) a variety of models, including linear, principal component (PC) linear models, neural networks, and automatic relevance determination (ARD) (MacKay 2003) models; (v) a PyTorch-based (Paszke *et al.* 2019) backend that leverages GPU processing for enhanced inference speeds;

(vi) a multi-species scope, currently covering *H.sapiens*, *M.musculus*, *C.elegans*, and various mammalian species.

## 2 Materials and methods

The development of `pyaging` commenced with an extensive review of the literature to identify a diverse array of aging clocks, encompassing various data types, computational models, and species, as summarized in Table 1.

Each identified model was subsequently reimplemented with a PyTorch backend to enable GPU-accelerated computations. This approach takes advantage of the fact that aging clocks, at their core, often rely on matrix multiplications, particularly within the domain of linear models, which are prevalent in aging research.

For a linear model, let  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  represent the vector of coefficients (including the intercept  $\beta_0$ ),  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  the vector of error terms,  $\mathbf{X}$  the matrix of independent variables, and  $\mathbf{y}$  the vector of dependent variable observations. The linear model can then be expressed algebraically as:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_n x_{in} + \varepsilon_i, \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m \quad (1)$$

This equation can be succinctly represented in matrix form as:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the vector of dependent variables for  $m$  samples,  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (n+1)}$  is the matrix of independent variables (with the first column being a vector of ones to incorporate the intercept term),  $\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1)}$  is the vector of coefficients including the intercept, and  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the vector of errors.

In the context of PC-based clocks, the model can be extended to incorporate dimensionality reduction via principal component analysis (PCA) before applying the linear model:

$$\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1}\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top)\mathbf{W}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (3)$$

Here,  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  denotes the mean vector for each independent variable,  $\mathbf{1}$  is a column vector of ones of length  $m$  used to broadcast the mean subtraction across all samples,  $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  represents the rotation matrix derived from PCA, and  $p$  is the number of principal components retained. The term  $(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1}\boldsymbol{\mu}^\top)\mathbf{W}$  thus represents the projection of centered data onto the principal components, upon which the linear model is applied.

This framework demonstrates that a variety of aging clocks fundamentally rely on matrix operations, making them well-suited for implementations that leverage the computational efficiencies of modern GPU architectures.

The implementation of age prediction in `pyaging` begins with preprocessing the data matrix. Missing values are imputed using methodologies ranging from simple mean imputation to more sophisticated techniques like KNN imputation. The input matrix is then curated to retain only the features pertinent to the selected clock, with any absent features being substituted with standardized values for the clock of interest if available or with zeros. This approach is adopted to accommodate the diversity of data types handled by `pyaging`, and users are duly alerted of such substitutions.

**Table 1.** Overview of aging clocks currently available on pyaging.<sup>a</sup>

Clock name	Species	Model type	Data type	Year	Citation
YingAdaptAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2024	Ying <i>et al.</i> (2024)
YingDamAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2024	Ying <i>et al.</i> (2024)
YingCausAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2024	Ying <i>et al.</i> (2024)
DNAmFitAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2023	McGreevy <i>et al.</i> (2023)
ENCen40	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2023	Dec <i>et al.</i> (2023)
ENCen100	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2023	Dec <i>et al.</i> (2023)
MammalianLifespan	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Li <i>et al.</i> (2023)
MammalianFemale	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Li <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloPanHistone	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloH3K9me3	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloH3K9ac	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloH3K4me3	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloH3K4me1	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloH3K36me3	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloH3K27me3	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
CamilloH3K27ac	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-ARD	Histone mark	2023	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2023)
MammalianBlood3	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2023)
MammalianBlood2	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2023)
MammalianSkin3	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2023)
MammalianSkin2	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2023)
Mammalian3	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2023)
Mammalian2	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2023)
Mammalian1	Multi	Linear	Methylation	2023	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2023)
OcampoATAC2	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	ATAC-seq	2023	Morandini <i>et al.</i> (2023)
OcampoATAC1	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	ATAC-seq	2023	Morandini <i>et al.</i> (2023)
HRSInChPhenoAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2022	Higgins-Chen <i>et al.</i> (2022)
GrimAge2	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2022	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2022)
DunedinPACE	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2022	Belsky <i>et al.</i> (2022)
PCSkinAndBlood	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-linear	Methylation	2022	Higgins-Chen <i>et al.</i> (2022)
PCPhenoAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-linear	Methylation	2022	Higgins-Chen <i>et al.</i> (2022)
PCHorvath2013	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-linear	Methylation	2022	Higgins-Chen <i>et al.</i> (2022)
PCHannum	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-linear	Methylation	2022	Higgins-Chen <i>et al.</i> (2022)
PCGrimAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-linear	Methylation	2022	Higgins-Chen <i>et al.</i> (2022)
PCDNAmTL	<i>H.sapiens</i>	PC-linear	Methylation	2022	Higgins-Chen <i>et al.</i> (2022)
AltumAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Neural network	Methylation	2022	de Lima Camillo <i>et al.</i> (2022)
RepliTali	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2022	Endicott <i>et al.</i> (2022)
BiTAge	<i>C.elegans</i>	Linear	RNA-seq	2021	Meyer and Schumacher (2021)
Han	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2020	Han <i>et al.</i> (2020)
ZhangEN	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2019)
ZhangBLUP	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2019)
GrimAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2019)
DNAmTL	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	Lu <i>et al.</i> (2019)
LeeControl	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2019)
LeeRobust	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2019)
LeeRefinedRobust	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2019)
PedBE	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2019	McEwen <i>et al.</i> (2020)
SkinAndBlood	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2018	Horvath <i>et al.</i> (2018)
PhenoAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2018	Levine <i>et al.</i> (2018)
DNAmPhenoAge	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Blood chemistry	2018	Levine <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Meer	<i>M.musculus</i>	Linear	Methylation	2018	Meer <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Thompson	<i>M.musculus</i>	Linear	Methylation	2018	Thompson <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Petkovich	<i>M.musculus</i>	Linear	Methylation	2017	Petkovich <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Stubbs	<i>M.musculus</i>	Linear	Methylation	2017	Stubbs <i>et al.</i> (2017)
ZhangMortality	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2017	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Knight	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2016	Knight <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Lin	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2016	Lin <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Horvath 2013	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2013	Horvath (2013)
Hannum	<i>H.sapiens</i>	Linear	Methylation	2013	Hannum <i>et al.</i> (2013)

<sup>a</sup> More information on each biomarker is available in the documentation page at <https://readthedocs.org/projects/pyaging/builds/22654195/>.

Additional preprocessing steps are tailored to specific models, such as scaling for AltumAge and binarization for BiTAge. The processed data are then fed into the model for age prediction. Postprocessing steps, such as anti-log-linear transformation for certain clocks like Horvath's (2013) and the SkinAndBlood clocks, are applied as necessary. All

computations are conducted using PyTorch (Paszke *et al.* 2019) tensors within AnnData (Virshup *et al.* 2021) objects, ensuring efficient and scalable processing. The output includes the predicted values across all selected clocks, accompanied by the respective metadata, such as citations, for user reference. All of the steps are printed for clarity

using a logger based on (Qiu *et al.* 2022). A simple example is as follows:

```
import pyaging as pya, pandas as pd
df = pd.read_pickle('example_methylation_
data.pkl')
adata = pya.pp.df_to_adata(df, imputer_
strategy='knn')
pya.pred.predict_age(adata,
clock_names=['altumage', 'grimage2',
'dunedinpace'])
```

Detailed tutorials and use-case examples are available on the documentation website: <https://readthedocs.org/projects/pyaging/builds/22654195/>. The code is also available on GitHub: <https://github.com/rsinghlab/pyaging>.

The notebook for the example analyses in this manuscript is available in the [Supplementary Data](#). The packages used are pandas v2.1.3 (McKinney *et al.* 2011), numpy v1.26.2 (Harris *et al.* 2020), seaborn v0.12.2 (Waskom 2021), matplotlib v3.7.1 (Hunter 2007), umap-learn v0.5.5 (McInnes *et al.* 2018), scikit-learn v1.3.2 (Pedregosa *et al.* 2011), pyaging v0.1.6 (this manuscript), and biolearn v0.3.4 (Ying *et al.* 2023). The code was run on an M1 MacBook Pro.

### 3 Results

To demonstrate the capabilities of the `pyaging` package, I briefly analyzed 38 methylation aging clocks and biomarkers of aging using data from my previous work on AltumAge (de Lima Camillo *et al.* 2022). The dataset comprises ~13 000 multi-tissue human samples from fetal tissue to centenarians across 142 studies, featuring beta values from overlapping probes of Illumina's 27k, 450k, and EPIC arrays. `pyaging` facilitates fast and easy comparisons amongst the different models. See [Supplementary Data](#) to reproduce the figures and analyses.

First, with a single line of code, the output of 38 different biomarkers can be calculated. Through hierarchical clustering and Spearman correlation, expected patterns emerge (Fig. 1a). For instance, DNAmTL (Lu *et al.* 2019), and PCDNAmTL (Higgins-Chen *et al.* 2022), both estimating telomere length, cluster together. Similarly, the three human multi-tissue clocks that predict chronological age, i.e. AltumAge (de Lima Camillo *et al.* 2022), Horvath2013 (Horvath 2013), and PCHorvath2013 (Higgins-Chen *et al.* 2022), are grouped. However, there are some interesting observations. For instance, DunedinPACE (Belsky *et al.* 2022), a measure of the pace of aging, is proximate to PedBE (McEwen *et al.* 2020), an aging clock for children and adolescents. In addition, PCGrimAge (Higgins-Chen *et al.* 2022), a predictor of mortality, is near Mammalian1 (Lu *et al.* 2023), the pan-mammalian clock that predicts chronological age. Overall, `pyaging` makes it straightforward to contrast the performance of distinct aging clocks.

Second, given that many biomarkers are discordant, samples can be grouped into ageotypes (Ahadi *et al.* 2020). To visualize such behaviors, I ran PCA on the data matrix with the scaled result of the 38 models, followed by uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) on the top five components for further dimensionality reduction (Fig. 1b–e). A chronological age predictor, a mortality predictor, and a pace of aging predictor not always agree with one another. For

instance, there are islands in which AltumAge is low (Fig. 1b) but GrimAge2 (Lu *et al.* 2022) is high (Fig. 1c). Similarly, some clusters exhibit diverging patterns with DunedinPACE (Fig. 1d). Lastly, given that all samples are from human, the MammalianLifespan (Li *et al.* 2023) predicts roughly the same number for the entire data. In summary, given that different clocks measure different phenomena, `pyaging` makes it easy to better understand aging profiles.

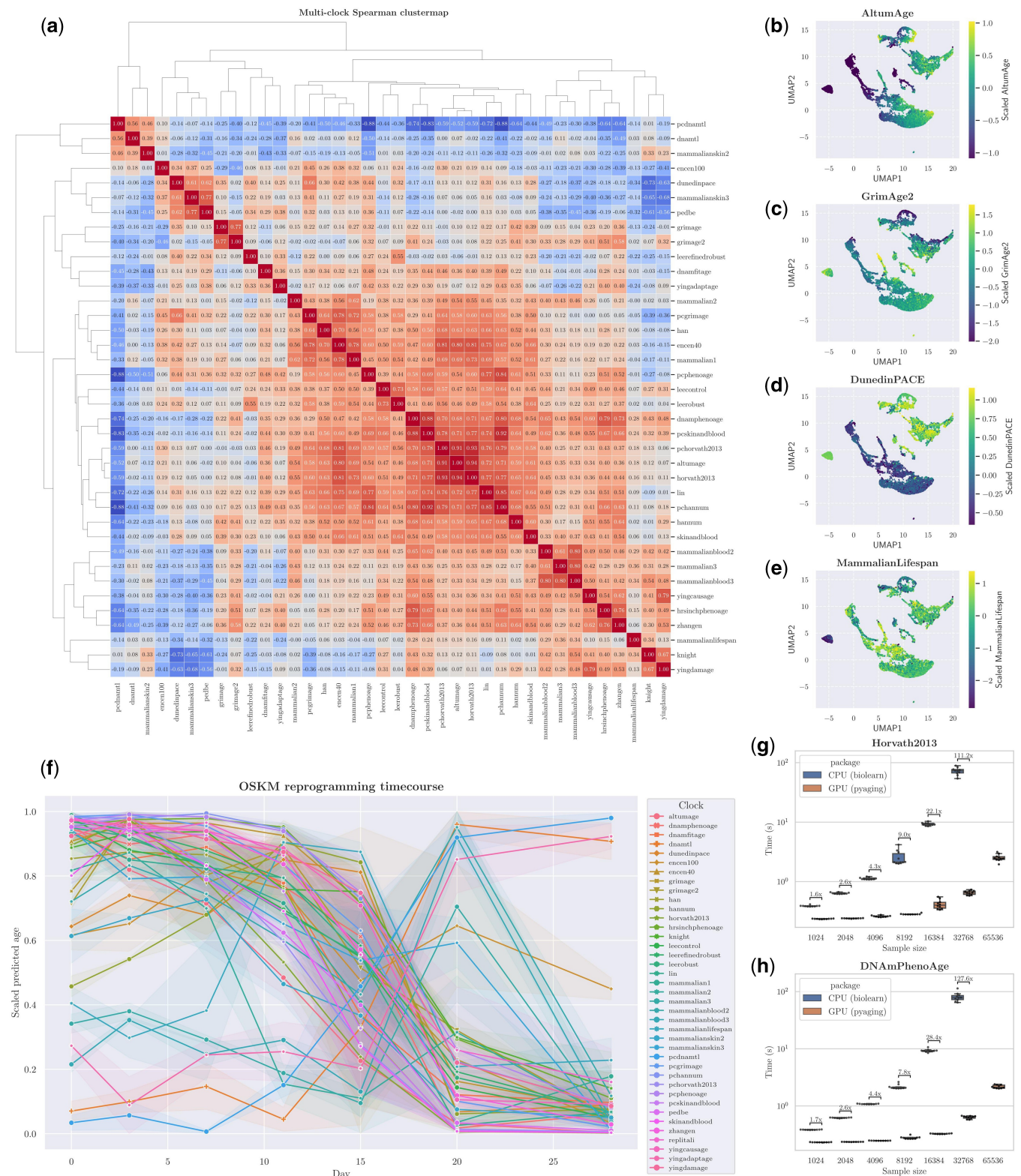
Third, a burgeoning field of research within the aging research community is age reversal through epigenetic reprogramming (de Lima Camillo and Quinlan 2021, Simpson *et al.* 2021, Paine *et al.* 2023). With the expression of four transcription factors, it has been shown that the predicted age with the methylation clock Horvath2013 (Horvath 2013) is decreased to zero (Olova *et al.* 2019). To shine more light upon this process, I ran 39 clocks in a reprogramming dataset [GSE54848 (Ohnuki *et al.* 2014)]. To better compare different clocks, I scaled the data with one as the maximum and zero as the minimum of each clock (Fig. 1f). Whilst most clocks indeed show a rejuvenation event, more markedly between days 10 and 20 of reprogramming, a few such as telomere length predictors DNAmTL and PCDNAmTL increase. Others do not change meaningfully, such as the centerian predictor ENCCen100 (Dec *et al.* 2023). Excitingly, some clocks such as AltumAge display a drop in predicted age at Day 3 while others such as some PC clocks only show rejuvenation at Day 11. This type of analysis can guide wet lab experiments as a tentative rejuvenation event might be missed depending on the clock used.

Fourth, one of the main advantages of the package is speed. I compared `pyaging` with `biolearn` (Ying *et al.* 2023), a preliminary CPU-based biomarker package. To compare their performance, I predicted the ages of the AltumAge data with two linear models, Horvath2013 and DNAmPhenoAge (Levine *et al.* 2018)—more complex clocks that would benefit the most from GPU acceleration, such as AltumAge, were not available on `biolearn` at the time of writing. I timed the line in which age is predicted for both packages given ten random samples of different sizes (Fig. 1g and f). At the lower end, `pyaging` displays a minor advantage with 1024 samples for the average of both clocks (0.233 versus 0.386s). Nevertheless, the fold difference in time quickly increases with a larger sample size, with a roughly 120-fold difference with 32768 samples (0.642 versus 76.608s). Moreover, the setting with the highest number of samples, 65536 ran out of memory with `biolearn` and could not be completed. While the absolute time is not substantial, given increasing data sizes and complexity of models, this will become more significant as the field develops. This becomes increasingly important as age predictors are developed for single cells given the usual large number of observations. Overall, this comparison highlights the power of GPU-acceleration enabled by `pyaging`.

### 4 Conclusion

Despite the abundance of aging clocks developed, a critical gap remains in integrating these diverse models for comprehensive analysis, a need only partially addressed by existing tools like `methclock` and `methyLCYPHER`. My contribution, the `pyaging` package, represents a significant advancement in addressing these challenges. By adopting a Python-centric approach, `pyaging` overcomes the limitations inherent in the





**Figure 1.** Four simple analyses with pyaging. (a) Heatmap showing Spearman's correlation amongst 38 methylation clocks in AltumAge's dataset. Clocks are grouped by hierarchical clustering. (b-e) UMAP plot of the top five principal components from the scaled data matrix of 38 different clocks for AltumAge's data, highlighting AltumAge (b), GrimAge2 (c), DunedinPACE (d), and MammalianLifespan (e). (f) Line plot of 39 different clocks for the reprogramming timecourse dataset GSE54848; 95% confidence intervals are derived from 1000 bootstraps. (g, h) Performance comparison between GPU-enabled age prediction with pyaging versus CPU-only biolearn using Horvath2013 and DNAmPhenoAge. Ten random samples of size  $n$  from AltumAge's data were taken to construct the boxplots. Predictions for the 65 536-sample setting for was not computed for biolearn due to memory issues.

R-dominated landscape of current tools, offering greater flexibility for complex models. The incorporation of a wide array of aging clocks, covering various molecular signatures, reflects the commitment to a comprehensive understanding of aging. In addition, `pyaging` integrates advanced modeling techniques and leverages GPU processing for enhanced computational efficiency. Its multi-species capability extends its utility across a range of gerontological studies. Overall, `pyaging` not only marks a substantial progress in the field of biomarkers of aging but also sets a foundation for further scientific inquiries in this rapidly developing domain.

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## Author contributions

L.P.D.L.C. is the sole contributor for this work.

## Supplementary data

[Supplementary data](#) are available at *Bioinformatics* online.

## Conflict of interest

L.P.d.L.C. is the Head of Machine Learning and a share-option holder at Shift Bioscience Ltd.

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