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11 An empirical comparison of popular structure learning 11 $\frac{11}{12}$ An empirical comparison of popular structure learning $\frac{11}{12}$ $\frac{1}{13}$ algorithms with a view to gene network inference $\frac{1}{x}$

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²²
Article history: **In this work, we study the performance of different structure learning algorithms in the** $\frac{22}{\alpha}$ *Article history:*

23 Received 28 March 2016 **context of inferring gene networks** from transcription data. We consider representatives 24 Received in revised form 10 October 2016 of different structure learning approaches, some of which perform unrestricted searches, 25 Accepted 20 December 2016 \sim 25 Such as the PC algorithm and the Gobnilp method, and some of which introduce prior \sim 25 Accepted 25 Accepted 25 Accepted 26 ²⁶ ^{Avanable online xxxx} examples the structure, such as the K2 algorithm. Competing methods are evaluated ²⁶ Received 28 March 2016 Received in revised form 10 October 2016 Accepted 20 December 2016 Available online xxxx

- $\frac{27}{\text{Kewounds}}$ $\frac{27}{\text{Kewords}}$ *Keywords:*
- ²⁸ Bayesian networks and the setter the carrying network. A real data application based on an experiment performed by the ²⁸ Bayesian networks
- 29 29 University of Padova is also considered. Structure learning
- 30 Reverse engineering **Supering States and Supering Contract Contrac** Reverse engineering DAGs

1. Introduction

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38 38 39 Genes and proteins do not act in isolation – it is the interactions between them that underlie all major functions of a 40 living cell, from cell differentiation and signal transduction to metabolic processes and cell division. Better understanding 41 of gene networks is one of the central aims of systems biology. Initial approaches to modeling regulatory mechanisms 42 relied on systems of differential equations [\[5\],](#page--1-0) which are, although very refined, unfortunately limited to small systems 43 about which we already have a hypothesized theory. However, the invention of the technology for measuring abundance 44 of gene transcripts (gene expression), that serve as a proxy for protein abundance, prompted interest in reconstructing the 45 regulatory network from observational data. The idea is to reason backwards: deduce the structure of a complex system from 46 observations of its behavior. This problem has received much attention in the computational biology literature, resulting in a plethora of different models and methods – we refer the interested reader to [\[2,12,16\]](#page--1-0) for a comprehensive review of the 47 48 field. Here, we focus on Bayesian networks, a special class of probabilistic graphical models.

49 A Bayesian network is a statistical model consisting of a Acyclic Directed Graph (DAG) and a family ${\cal F}$ of distributions 49 50 50 over a set of variables of interest. The graphical structure consists of a set of nodes *V* and a set of directed edges *E*. The 51 51 nodes represent random variables, while edges imply the absence of conditional independence. If there is a directed edge 52 from u to v , we say that u is a parent of v , and denote by pa(v) a set of parents of v . If we denote by $\pmb{X}=(X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_p)^\top$ 52 ⁵³ the variables of the model, the structure of a DAG is associated with their joint distribution through a factorization property ⁵³ 54 54

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$$
f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p) = \prod_{i=1}^p f[x_i | pa(x_i)],
$$

4 where *f* stands for a generic probability distribution function. When X_i , $i = 1, 2, \ldots, p$ are discrete, we usually assume 5 that all conditional distributions on the right hand side are multinomial, giving rise to a joint multivariate multinomial $^{\,5}$ 6 distribution. When they are continuous, we usually assume that all conditional distributions on the right hand side are 6 7 - normal, giving rise to a joint multivariate normal distribution Np(μ, Σ). Here $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_p)^\top$ represents the mean $^{-7}$ ⁸ vector and $\Sigma = [\sigma_{rs}]$, $r, s = 1, \ldots, p$, is the covariance matrix encoding the structure of the network. In fact, the model can 9 9 be equivalently represented in the recursive form

$$
X = \alpha + BX + \epsilon, \tag{1}
$$

 $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_p)^\top$ is the base level, $\bm{B} = [b_{rs}], r, s = 1, \ldots p$ is a matrix of regression coefficients and $\bm{\epsilon} \sim 12$ $13 \text{ N}_p(0, \text{diag}(\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_p))$ is the random disturbance. If variables are topologically ordered with respect to the DAG, **B** will 13 14 14 be strictly upper triangular and there is a simple relation between the two parameterizations being *μ* = *(I* − *B)*−¹*α* and **Σ** = **(***I* − **B**)^{−1}diag ($\theta_1, ..., \theta_p$) [**(***I* − **B**)^{−1}]^T, for more details see [\[24\].](#page--1-0) ¹⁵

¹⁶ The problem of learning the structure of a Bayesian network from realizations of the random vector **X** is conceptually ¹⁶ ¹⁷ simple but computationally very complex. Many algorithms, with optimal asymptotic properties, have been proposed [see ¹⁷ ¹⁸ for instance [\[6,28\]\]](#page--1-0). The problem encountered when applying these algorithms to gene networks is the small sample size – ¹⁸ 19 19 very often the number of considered genes *p* exceeds the number of statistical units *n*. This typical property of biological 20 datasets poses serious limitations for structure learning, explored in detail in [\[18\].](#page--1-0) To attenuate this problem, several authors 20 ²¹ exploited the expected sparsity of biological networks [\[4,26\].](#page--1-0) Another possible remedy is to use other sources of information 21 ²² and include them in the learning process. This seems reasonable, since technological advances seen in the last two decades 22 ²³ drastically reduced experimental costs and made measurements of biological activity more readily available. 23

 24 Much of the experimentally obtained knowledge is stored in online public databases. One instance is represented by 24 25 pathway diagrams, which are elaborate diagrams featuring genes, proteins and other small molecules, showing how they \quad 25 26 work together to achieve a particular biological effect. From a technical point of view, they are networks and can be repre- 26 ²⁷ sented through a graph where genes and their connections are, respectively, nodes and edges. We will study the effect of 27 ²⁸ including some of the information they carry into the learning process. More specifically, for a set of genes of interest we 28 29 will specify a topological ordering according to the pathway information, and then pass this ordering to the algorithms that 29 30 30 use prior information.

³¹ In this empirical comparison, we consider representatives of different structure learning approaches, such as the con-³² straint based PC algorithm [\[28\],](#page--1-0) the exact Gobnilp method [\[8\]](#page--1-0) and the score based K2 algorithm [\[6\].](#page--1-0) The software used is a 32 ³³ combination of tools available in Hugin [\[21\],](#page--1-0) Gobnilp [\[8\]](#page--1-0) and R [\[23\].](#page--1-0) We perform an extensive simulation study, considering 33 34 two data generating mechanisms, with the aim of verifying whether the approaches that include prior information, such 34 35 as K2, perform better than those that rely on data only. In addition to simulated data, we also consider real data from the $\,$ 35 36 36 *Drosophila melanogaster* experiment. In this experiment, performed by the University of Padova [\[11\],](#page--1-0) researchers measured 37 the expression of genes participating in the WNT signaling pathway in a fruit fly. 37

³⁸ The outline of the paper is as follows. In Section 2, we introduce algorithms considered in this work, we propose the ³⁸ 39 data driven categorization procedure for continuous gene expression measurements, and describe the method we used to 39 ⁴⁰ evaluate the performance of algorithms. Details and results of the simulation studies are given in Section [3,](#page--1-0) while the eval-⁴¹ uation on the real dataset is given in Section [4.](#page--1-0) Conclusions, some limitations of the present work and future perspectives ⁴¹ 42 are given in Section [5.](#page--1-0) 42 43 43

45 45

44 44 **2. Structure learning algorithms**

⁴⁶ Structure learning algorithms can be roughly divided into two groups: (1) the score based approaches that search the ⁴⁶ ⁴⁷ space of possible structures to find the one that maximizes the score (reflecting the goodness of fit and model parsimony), 47 ⁴⁸ and (2) the constraint based approaches, that test a large number of conditional independencies between variables and then 48 ⁴⁹ find the structure that best fits the set of inferred relations. Computational complexity of both approaches is prohibitive ⁴⁹ 50 for all but small problems, and so some strategy for restricting the search space and reducing the number of performed 50 ⁵¹ tests is usually adopted. In that case, one does not have a guarantee that the inferred structure will be globally optimal, but ⁵¹ 52 must rely on proven asymptotic validity. Recently, a number of approaches to structure learning that do not rely on a search 52 ⁵³ strategy, but explore the entire space of DAGs, have been proposed. Two major directions are dynamic programming and ⁵³ ⁵⁴ integer linear programming. For the former, see for instance [\[20\].](#page--1-0) We consider a representative of the latter: the approach ⁵⁴ ⁵⁵ introduced in [\[7\],](#page--1-0) where the problem of structure learning is translated into an optimization problem with a linear objective ⁵⁵ 56 56 function and a set of linear constraints (as well as integrality constraints on the variables).

⁵⁷ As already stated, in this empirical study we consider representatives of different structure learning strategies: a number ⁵⁷ ⁵⁸ of variants of the PC algorithm [\[28\],](#page--1-0) the K2 algorithm [\[6\]](#page--1-0) and the exact Gobnilp method [\[8\].](#page--1-0) Of the examined approaches, the ⁵⁸ ⁵⁹ K2 algorithm and all modifications of the K2 algorithm here considered, include the prior information. The prior information ⁵⁹ 60 is in the form of the topological ordering of the studied genes. In the simulation study, we specify the topological ordering 60 ⁶¹ according to the true underlying graph. In the real study, we relied on public databases of biological knowledge. In particular, ⁶¹

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