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# **Comparison of Scoring Functions on Greedy Search Bayesian Network Learning Algorithms**

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# ABSTRACT

Score-based structure learning algorithm is commonly used in learning the Bayesian Network. Other than searching strategy, scoring functions play a vital role in these algorithms. Many studies proposed various types of scoring functions with different characteristics. In this study, we compare the performances of five scoring functions: Bayesian Dirichlet equivalent-likelihood (BDe) score (equivalent sample size, ESS of 4 and 10), Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) score, Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) score and K2 score. Instead of just comparing networks with different scores, we included different learning algorithms to study the relationship between score functions and greedy search learning algorithms. Structural hamming distance is used to measure the difference between networks obtained and the true network. The results are divided into two sections where the first section studies the differences between data with different number of variables and the second section studies the differences between data with different sample sizes. In general, the BIC score performs well and consistently for most data while the BDe score with an equivalent sample size of 4 performs better for data with bigger sample sizes.

*Keywords:* Bayesian network, greedy search, heuristic search, score-based, scoring function, structure learning

# **INTRODUCTION**

Since its introduction by Pearl (1985), the Bayesian Network (BN) has had a huge impact on data mining as one of the best mining tools. Numerous studies have been done on learning BN in the last few decades. Constraint-based and score-based algorithms are two major classes of BN structural learning algorithms while hybrid-based algorithms that combined

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*E-mail addresses:* cychua91@hotmail.com (ChongYong, Chua), hcong@usm.my (HongChoon, Ong) \*Corresponding Author both is later introduced. Despite advantages and disadvantages of each algorithm, scorebased algorithms, especially the greedy search type algorithm that constantly looks for the most improvement in each iteration, are used frequently due to its simplicity and

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effectiveness. With score-based algorithms such as Hill Climbing (Daly & Shen, 2007) and K2 algorithm (Cooper & Herskovits, 1992), a scoring function is chosen to calculate the joint probability distribution using a BN structure from its corresponding database, and then a network searching approach is used to maximise this function. To this end, most score-based algorithm research is done on improving the search phase but scoring functions play a vital role as well. A good search approach can help to sidestep local maxima while a good scoring function can decide which network is closer to the true network. In real world applications, a network with a higher score does not always imply a good output. Instead, a network that can define the true causal relationship of the problem studied is a better output.

Scoring functions are usually derived from basic assumptions on the network parameter distribution. Based on multinomial sampling and dirichlet distribution assumptions, Heckerman et al. (1995) proposed the BD score and further improved it to the BDe score after including the likelihood equivalence assumption. Cooper and Herskovits (1992) introduced the K2 score, which is a particular case of BD score in their K2 algorithm paper. In other cases without the assumption of distribution, log-likelihood score is one of the established scores available. However, it does not represent a good score in BN learning as it leads to overfitting due to its tendency of favouring a complete network. To limit the overfitting problem, AIC score (Akaike, 1974) and BIC score (Schwarz, 1978) are proposed by introducing a penalising term in the log-likelihood score function.

In most cases, improvement of BN structural learning is done independently for searching mechanism and scoring functions. However, there is a relationship between searching mechanism and scoring functions. Each scoring function has its own characteristics and advantages that fit into certain learning algorithms. In this study, we were interested in identifying which scoring function worked better for a greedy search type algorithm. The rest of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 introduces some preliminary concepts, assumptions and notations of Bayesian networks and scoring functions used. This is followed by Section 3, which shows the results of our experiment and discusses the results, and lastly, Section 4 consists of the conclusion.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### **Bayesian Network**

BN, also known as Bayesian Belief Network (BBN), is a powerful data mining tool for reasoning under uncertainty (Heckerman, 1996). BN is a directed acyclic graph (DAG) that consists of two parts  $G = \langle S, \Theta \rangle$ . For a set of variables  $X = \{X_1, X_2, ..., X_n\}$  from data D, a network structure, S, is a set of arcs connecting nodes or variable X, which indicates that there exists a dependent relationship between the nodes.  $\Theta$  is the conditional probability associated with each variable. Suppose that  $X_i$  denotes a variable and its corresponding node,  $\pi_i$  is the parent of each node  $X_i$  in S as well as the variable corresponding to the parents. Given the structure S, the joint probability distribution for X is given by:

$$f(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(X_i | \pi_i)$$
[1]

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BN is then constructed based on the conditional independence concept, which is defined below:

#### **Definition 1** (Conditional Independence)

Two variables  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are conditionally independent given if the variable  $X_3$ 

$$f(X_1 | X_3) = f(X_1 | X_2, X_3)$$
<sup>[2]</sup>

# **Bayesian Network Structural Learning**

Structural learning in BN refers to selecting the structure that most accurately defines the causal relationships between variables from a set of structure candidates. Typically, a structural learning algorithm can be separated into three major categories, which are constraint-based, score-based and hybrid-based. The constraint-based structural learning algorithm learns the network structure by analysing the probabilistic relations entailed by the Markov property of BN with a conditional independence test and then constructs a graph that satisfies the corresponding d-separation statement (Scutari, 2010). A few common conditional independence tests used for constraint-based algorithms are mutual information (Kullback, 1959) and Pearson's  $\chi^2$  (Spirtes et al., 1993). These tests are able to determine the existence of an edge between two nodes based on the conditional independence property as defined in Definition 1. A constraint-based algorithm begins with learning the skeleton of the network that is a completely undirected network. Most of the learning algorithms restrict the search to the Markov blanket of each node (including the parents, the children and the parents of the children of that particular node). The next step is to set the direction of the arcs that are a part of the v-structure (a triplet of nodes incident on a converging connection  $X_i > X_i < X_k$ ). Lastly, direction of other arcs will be set to satisfy the acyclicity constraint (Neapolitan, 2004). The Incremental Association Markov Blanket by Tsamardinos et al. (2003) and PC algorithm by Spirtes and Glymour (1991) are among the well-established and most applied constraint-based algorithms.

On the other hand, the score-based algorithm works differently from the constraint-based algorithm. This algorithm is a type of maximisation problem that assigns a score to each network structure candidate and tries to maximise it with a certain heuristic search algorithm. Hillclimbing and Tabu search (Glover & Laguna, 1993) are known as greedy search algorithms while the Genetic algorithm (Goldberg, 1989) and Particle Swarm Optimisation (Kennedy & Eberhart, 1995) are examples of metaheuristic algorithms. Greedy search algorithms always opt for the best improvement of each iteration, which is referred to as the greedy property while metaheuristic algorithms explore the search space with simple or complex procedures inspired by natural phenomena. The score of a network structure is a guideline or criterion used to measure the fitness of the structure to prior knowledge and data. A score-based algorithm begins with an empty or a random structure and modifies the structure afterwards. Some transition functions such as adding arcs, deleting arcs or reversing arcs will be applied to the network structure to improve the structure's score. The iteration stops when the score converges at one point. However, one of the disadvantages of score-based algorithms is the iteration might be stuck at the local maxima and not return an optimum solution.

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The hybrid-based algorithm is a combination of both score-based and constraint-based algorithms. It begins with constructing a skeleton or partially directed DAG (PDAG) using a conditional independence test. It then continues with performing a constrained score-based algorithm on the network obtained in the previous stage. MMHC (Tsamardinos et al., 2006) and H2PC (Gasse et al., 2014) are examples of hybrid-based algorithms. Despite the existence of various learning algorithms, score-based algorithms are frequently used in real-life applications compared to other methods. Constraint-based algorithms are efficient and faster especially when the data consist of a large number of variables, but it is strongly dependent on sample size of the data, where the results of conditional independence tests used are not entirely reliable with finite data (Fast, 2010). This weakness is crucial as most real-life data are limited and even incomplete. Although score-based algorithms suffer from limited data as well, the impact is not as significant as constraint-based algorithms. Hybrid-based algorithms on the other hand are not well established yet and have limited a choice of algorithms compared to the previous two types of algorithm. Hence, we are interested in improving score-based algorithms by reviewing existing scoring functions and their relationship with learning algorithms, specifically, greedy search algorithms.

## **Data Assumptions**

The following are a few assumptions about the data considered in this study.

- I. All variables  $X_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., n are discrete and observable and  $X_i$  has  $r_i$  possible values.
- II. All data are complete i.e. all instances have values for all variables that have no missing data. There are no latent variables in the database.
- III. All cases occur independently given a Bayesian network model.

## **Scoring Functions**

**Bayesian Dirichlet likelihood-equivalence (BDe).** As an extension of the Bayesian Dirichlet score, the BDe score included two more assumptions:

#### Assumption 1: Likelihood equivalence

Given two directed acyclic graphs, G and G', such that P(G)>0 and P(G')>0, if G and G' are equivalent then  $P(\Theta|G)=P(\Theta|G')$ .

Assumption 2: Complete structural possibility

For any complete directed acyclic graph G, we have P(G)>0.

The BDe score with equivalent sample size, , can be expressed (Heckerman et al., 1995) as:

$$\mathbf{P}(G,D) = \mathbf{P}(G) \times \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{j=1}^{q} \left( \frac{\Gamma(N'_{ij})}{\Gamma(N_{ij}+N'_{ij})} \times \prod_{k=1}^{r_i} \frac{\Gamma(N_{ijk}+N'_{ijk})}{\Gamma(N'_{ijk})} \right)$$
[3]

where  $N_{ijk}$  denotes the number of instances in the database *D* where the variable  $x_i$  assigned its *k*th value ( $k = 1, 2, ..., r_i$ ), and its parent  $\pi_i$  assigned its *j*th value ( $j = 1, 2, ..., q_i$ ),  $N_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{r_i} N_{ijk}$ ,  $N'_{ijk} = N' \times P(X_i = x_{ik}, \prod_{k = 1}^{r_i} w_{ij}|G)$  and  $N'_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{r_i} N'_{ijk}$ .

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) & Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). Loglikelihood (LL) score in BN is a measure of likelihood in log form between the network and data parameter. The LL score is written as:

$$LL(G|D) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{q_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_i} N_{ijk} \log\left(\frac{N_{ijk}}{N_{ij}}\right)$$
[4]

The LL score has decomposable property, where the score is the summation of conditional probability of each node given their parent sets. It also assumes likelihood equivalence assumption as explained in Assumption 1. Due to its likelihood equivalence and decomposable property, the LL score is computational efficient when used in structure learning. However, the LL score is not commonly used in BN structure learning as it tends to favour a complete network. When used in a structural learning algorithm, it tends to generate a fully connected DAG, causing overfitting problem. In order to eliminate overfitting problem, a penalised term is introduced to limit the number of arcs in the final network. A general penalised LL score, PLL, is shown as follows:

$$PLL(G|D) = LL(G|D) - f(N)|G|$$
[5]

where,  $|G| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (r_i - 1)q_i$  denotes network complexity, which is the number of parameters in  $\Theta$  for the network G and f(N) is a non-negative penalisation function. When f(N)=1, the penalised score function is the Akaike Information Criterion score (AIC) as shown below (Akaike, 1974):

$$AIC(G|D) = LL(G|D) - |G|$$
<sup>[6]</sup>

Later on, Schwarz (1978) proposed a stricter penalised scoring function, Bayesian Scoring Criterion score (BIC), which is given as:

$$BIC(G|D) = LL(G|D) - \frac{1}{2}log(N) \cdot |G|$$
<sup>[7]</sup>

**K2 Score.** Cooper and Herskovits (1992) proposed the K2 score, which is a particular case of BD score with the uninformative assignment  $N'_{ijk} = 1$  (corresponding to zero pseudo-counts). The K2 score can be expressed as:

$$K2(G,D) = \log(P(B)) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{q_i} \left( \log\left(\frac{(r_i - 1)!}{(N_{ij} + r_i - 1)!}\right) + \sum_{k=1}^{r_i} \log(N_{ijk}!) \right)$$
[8]

Decomposability of the K2 score makes it a computational efficient scoring function but it does not have a score equivalence property as the previous three scoring functions. However, score equivalence property might or might not help in network learning. When we want to

learn the causal relationship between variables, we would need to eliminate the equivalence network from the true network as they infer a different causal relationship; score equivalence property skips this process. On the other hand, score equivalence property can reduce the time consumed if we only need the inference of one variable given another as either equivalence network can do this task.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

## **Experimental Design**

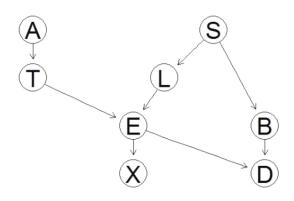
In this experiment, five scoring functions were compared on seven sets of data ranging from 8 to 417 variables using three benchmark structure learning algorithms. The five scoring functions compared were the BDe score (ESS of 4), BDe (ESS of 10), AIC score, BIC score and K2 score. Hill Climbing (HC), Tabu Search (TS) and the K2 algorithm were used to test the accuracy of each scoring function. Since the optimal equivalent sample size (ESS) of the BDe score was unknown, we identified the ESS value by including two variations of the BDe score in this study with an ESS of 4 and 10, respectively. The length of the Tabu list used in the TS was set as 10 as a simple test was conducted to show that a Tabu list of more than 10 does not improve the quality of the network learnt. Node ordering required for K2 algorithm was obtained from the true network such that, if  $x_i$  preceded  $x_j$  in the ordering,  $x_j$  must not be in the parent sets of the paper of each dataset. True networks for each dataset are shown in Figures 1 to 7. Since all variables in the datasets studied did not have a number of parents exceeding 10 in their respective true network, the maximum number of parents for each algorithm was capped at 10.

The end result of networks generated by each scoring function and learning algorithm was compared with the true network using the Structural Hamming Distance (SHD) from "bnlearn" package in R. A brief explanation of SHD is quoted from Tsamardinos et al. (2006):

SHD directly compares the structure of the learned and the true networks and its use is fully oriented toward discovery rather than inference. SHD between two PDAGs is defined as the number of the following operators required to make the PDAGs match: add or delete an undirected edge, and add, remove, or reverse the orientation of an edge. Thus, an algorithm will be penalized by an increase of the score by 1 for learning a PDAG with an extra un-oriented edge and by 1 for not orienting an edge that should have been oriented. Algorithms that return a DAG are converted to the corresponding PDAG before calculating this measure. The reason for defining the SHD on PDAGs instead of DAGs is so that we do not penalize for structural differences that cannot be statistically distinguished.

The first section of this experiment studied the effect of scoring functions on different types of datasets with varying numbers of variables as summarised in Table 1. Each dataset was run with three learning algorithms using five scoring functions. The final network of each simulation was compared to the true network using SHD as explained in the previous

paragraph. The smaller the SHD between the network obtained and the true network, the better the score. The second section of this experiment investigated the effect of scoring functions on same datasets with different sample sizes. We selected three datasets (Alarm, Win95pts and Andes) for this study. For each dataset, we generated three sets of data with 5,000, 10,000 and 20,000 instances, respectively, based on the conditional probability table of the true network. The method for comparing is the same as the first section of the experiment with different sets of data.





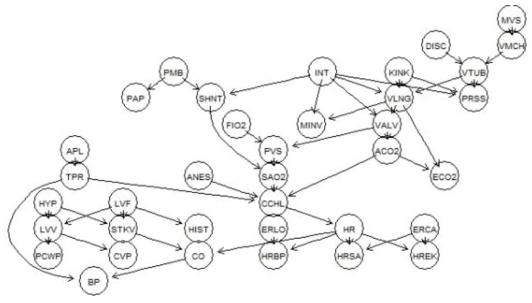


Figure 2. Alarm

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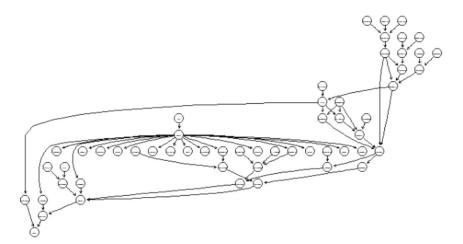


Figure 3. Hailfinder

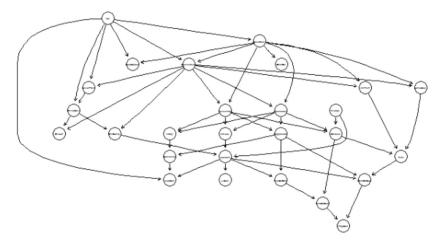
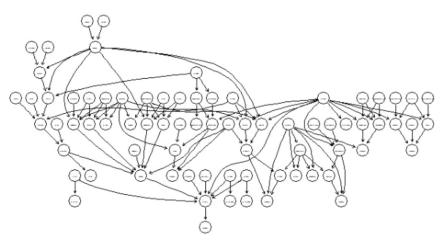
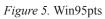


Figure 4. Insurance





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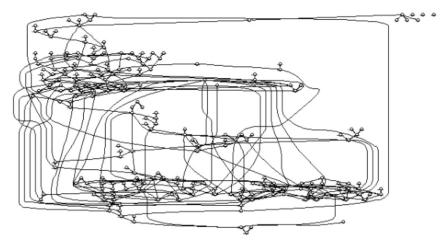
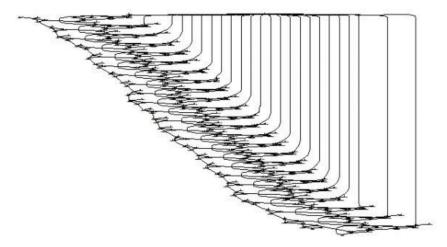


Figure 6. Andes



# Figure 7. Diabetes

# Table 1

Summary	of	Datasets
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Data	No. of Variables	No. of Instances	Reference
Asia	8	5 000	Lauritzen and Spiegelhalter (1988)
Insurance	27	20 000	Binder et al. (1997)
Alarm	37	20 000	Beinlich et al. (1989)
Hailfinder	56	20 000	Abramson et al. (1996)
Win05n4a	7(	20.000	Developed at Microsoft Research and
Win95pts	/0	76 20 000	contributed to the community by Jack Breese.
Andes	223	20 000	Conati et al. (1997)
Diabetes	417	20 000	Andreassen et al. (1991)

# **Experiment Results**

As explained in the previous section, the experiment was divided into two sections. In order to simplify the evaluation of the results, we categorised the data into small data (less than 50 variables), medium data (51-100 variables) and large data (more than 100 variables). The results of the first section are tabulated in Table 2 with bold font indicating the lowest SHD for each row.

For small data, the BDe score (ESS of 4) gives the best performance by generating 7 out of 9 networks with the lowest SHD. This is followed by the BIC score and K2 score with four and two networks of the lowest SHD, respectively. However, the BDe score with an ESS of 4 does not outperform other scoring functions as the differences were not convincing. For medium and large data, the BIC score performed best by generating seven networks with the smallest SHD from a total of 12 networks. Albeit only seven networks generated by BIC score had the smallest SHD, the difference between the BIC score and other scoring functions was significant with minimal exception. Surprisingly, the AIC score generated networks with the lowest SHD for data on diabetes but it did not differ much from the BIC score and both BDe scores.

The BDe score was asymptotically equivalent to the BIC score but one of the reasons the BDe with an ESS of 4 performed better for smaller data was due to the relatively larger sample size. BIC scores tend to penalise complex networks more heavily compared to BDe scores especially for smaller sample sizes. Since all datasets except Asia had the same sample size, which was 20,000 instances, the performance of the BDe score dropped as the number of variables increased. On the other hand, BIC scores favour a simpler network for larger data with a smaller sample size. Hence, the BIC score performed better than the BDe score as the number of variables increased.

In terms of an ESS parameter for the BDe score, an ESS of 4 outperformed an ESS of 10 for all networks generated. According to two studies done on finding the optimal ESS for BDe scores (Steck & Jaakkola, 2002; Silander et al., 2007), a lower ESS tended to favour deletion of arcs while a higher ESS favoured addition of arcs. With a large sample, the learnt network becomes an empty graph as the ESS approaches zero and tends to become a fully connected graph as the ESS increases. This explains why 4 is better than 10 as the ESS for the BDe score in this study as nearly all the networks generated had overfitting problem. Hence, a smaller number of ESS reduced the complexity of networks generated and was closer to the true network.

In the comparison with structural learning algorithms, the BIC score performed well for both Hill Climbing and Tabu search. Meanwhile, the K2 score occasionally performed better when the K2 algorithm was used. Although the K2 score performed better for certain data, the difference was small and the time consumed for the K2 score was significantly higher than for the others. For the second section of this experiment, the results are tabulated in Table 3. The results of different sample sizes on the Alarm data once again strengthened the belief that the BDe score performed better for larger sample sizes. For Alarm data with 20,000 instances, the BDe score with an ESS of 4 performed better with HC and TS. However, when the sample size was reduced to 10,000, the BIC score started to perform better and this was proven when the sample size was reduced to 5,000.

Data	Structural	Structural hamming distance (SHD)					
	learning algorithm	BIC	AIC	BDe(4)	BDe(10)	K2	
	НС	1	4	1	8	8	
Asia	TS	1	4	1	8	8	
	K2	1	4	1	8	4	
	НС	45	43	42	45	39	
Insurance	TS	44	42	36	39	39	
	K2	9	11	10	29	10	
Alarm	НС	35	53	25	38	33	
	TS	31	49	14	37	33	
	K2	6	19	10	14	7	
	НС	12	25	19	19	39	
Hailfinder	TS	12	44	35	42	39	
	K2	12	15	18	18	25	
	НС	38	106	125	187	66	
Win95pts	TS	38	106	125	188	66	
	K2	19	90	109	154	19	
Andes	НС	30	512	112	192	216	
	TS	30	515	113	194	216	
	K2	21	473	94	168	53	
Diabetes	НС	497	445	431	464	695	
	TS	497	445	431	464	695	
	K2	176	77	111	149	118	

# Table 2

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Data	Structural	S	tructural	hamming d	istance (SHD	)
		BIC	AIC	BDe(4)	BDe(10)	K2
	НС	35	53	25	38	33
Alarm20000	TS	31	49	14	37	33
	K2	5	19	10	14	7
Alarm10000	НС	12	36	18	18	23
	TS	14	36	13	15	23
	K2	2	23	12	13	2
Alarm5000	НС	12	32	15	32	28
	TS	12	32	15	33	21
	K2	4	24	6	24	5
	НС	38	106	125	187	66
Win95pts20000	TS	38	106	125	188	66
	K2	21	90	109	154	19
Win95pts10000	НС	46	114	146	212	86
	TS	46	114	147	212	88
	K2	23	89	121	181	40
Win95pts5000	НС	48	100	148	217	80
	TS	48	100	152	217	80
	K2	27	86	152	197	36
Andes20000	НС	30	512	112	192	21
	TS	30	515	113	194	21
	K2	21	473	94	168	53
Andes10000	НС	45	493	127	240	26
	TS	45	493	134	242	26
	К2	31	443	110	211	65
Andes5000	НС	72	521	173	297	26
	TS	72	525	174	298	26
	K2	57	455	152	259	10

#### Table 3 SHD Comparison Batwaan Samp

SHD Comparison Between Sample Sizes

# CONCLUSION

In this paper, five scoring functions were compared: BIC, AIC, BDe (ESS of 4), BDe (ESS of 10) and the K2 score. Two factors were manipulated to study the effects of scoring functions on data with a different number of variables and sample sizes. The first part of this study compared the performance of scoring functions between seven sets of data with different numbers of variables, while the second part of the study compared the scoring functions between three sets of data with different sample sizes.

The performance of the scoring functions in this study were measured using structural hamming distance (SHD) between the network generated for each scoring function and the true network. A smaller number of SHD indicated better similarities between the two networks, which implied that a better network was learnt. Albeit the higher scoring was advocated in network learning, defining a true causal relationship was more important as an overfitting network does not always imply true causal relationship.

When the sample size was relatively large, the BDe score with an ESS of 4 performed well. But as the number of variables increased, the data sample size was relatively smaller and the performance of the BDe score descended. On the other hand, the BIC score performed well and was consistent for all data regardless of the number of variables and sample size. Most of the networks generated using the AIC score was too complex and faced the problem of overfitting. Although the K2 score performed better with the K2 algorithm in certain cases, it is not recommended for use as the difference was insignificant while the time consumed was significantly greater. Different greedy search learning algorithms used have minimal impact on the performance of scoring functions. Based on the results, all networks generated had more arcs than the true network. In this case, it implies that stricter penalided terms tend to produce a network more similar to the true network. However, the penalised term is hard to determine as strict terms will produce barely connected network for data with few variables while loose terms will produce a fully connected graph for a large network in extreme cases. In summary, the BIC score is definitely the best benchmarked score for a greedy search type network learning algorithm and the BDe score can perform equally well provided the sample size is large.

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