# V12: Structure Learning in Bayesian Networks II

Roughly speaking, there are 3 approaches to learning without a prespecified structure:

(1) constraint-based structure learning

Finds a model that best explains the dependencies/independencies in the data.

(2) **Score-based** stucture learning (today)

We define a hypothesis space of potential models and a scoring function that measures how well the model fits the observed data. Our computational task is then to find the highest-scoring network.

#### (3) Bayesian model averaging methods

Generates an ensemble of possible structures.

# **Bayesian Structure Scores**

There are 2 obvious choices of scoring functions:

- Maximum likelihood parameters (V11)
- Bayesian scores (today)

#### **Bayesian Score**

The main principle of the Bayesian approach is that whenever we have **uncertainty** over anything, we should place a **distribution** over it.

Here, we are uncertain both about the **structure** and **parameters** of the network.

We define a **structure prior** P(G) that puts a prior probability on different graph structures, and a **parameter prior** P( $\theta_G|G$ ) that puts a probability on different choices of parameters once the graph is given.

By Bayes rule, we have

$$P(G|D) = \frac{P(D|G)P(G)}{P(D)}$$

The denominator P(D) is simply a normalizing factor that does not help distinguishing between different structures.

Thus, we define the **Bayesian score** as  $score_B(G:D) = \log P(D|G) + \log P(G)$ 

The ability to ascribe a prior P(G) over structures gives us a way of preferring some structures over others.

E.g. we could penalize dense structures more than sparse ones.

However, the structure-prior term is almost irrelevant compared to the first term.

The first term P(D|G) takes into consideration our uncertainty over the parameters:  $P(D|G) = \int_{\theta_G} P(D|\theta_G, G) P(\theta_G|G) d\theta_G$ 

 $P(D|\theta_G, G)$  is the **likelihood** of the data given the network  $\langle G, \theta_G \rangle$ .

 $P(\theta_G|G)$  is our prior distribution over different parameter values for the network G.

P(D | G) is called the **marginal likelihood** of the data given the structure.

The maximum likelihood score would return the maximum of this function.

In contrast, the marginal likelihood is the average value of this function.

Why does the Bayesian score avoid overfitting?

For this we examine the **sensitivity** of the likelihood to the particular choice of parameters.

In V11, we discussed that the maximal likelihood is overly "optimistic" in its evaluation of the score:

it evaluates the likelihood of the training data using the best parameter values for the given data.

This is unrealistic.

The Bayesian approach tells us that, although the choice of parameter  $\hat{\theta}$  is the most likely given the training set D, it is not the only choice.

The posterior over parameters provides us with a range of parameter choices, along with a measure how likely each of them is.

By integrating  $P(D|\theta_G, G)$  over the different choices of parameters  $\theta_G$ ,

$$P(D|G) = \int_{\theta_G} P(D|\theta_G, G) P(\theta_G|G) d\theta_G$$

we are measuring the expected likelihood, averaged over different possible choices of  $\theta_G$ .

Thus, we are being more conservative.

Using the chain rule for probabilities, we can rewrite the marginal likelihood as

$$P(D|G) = \prod_{m=1}^{M} P(\xi[m]|\xi[1], \dots, \xi[m-1], G)$$

Each of the terms in this product is the probability of the m'th instance using the parameters learned from the first m - 1 instances (using Bayesian estimation).

Thus, the m'th instance provides us with one data point for testing the ability of our model to predict a new data instance, based on the model learned from the previous one.

The Bayesian score does not depend on the order of instances.

This suggests that

$$\frac{1}{M}\log P(D|G) \approx E_P[\log P(X|G,D)]$$

is an estimator for the average log-likelihood of a new sample X from the distribution P\*.

In practice, it turns out that for reasonable sample sizes this is indeed a fairly good estimator of the ability of a model to generalize to unseen data.



Comparison of the average log-marginal-likelihood per sample in training data (x-axis) to the expected log-likelihood of new samples from the underlying distribution (y-axis).

Each point corresponds to a network structure, the true network is marked by a circle.

We start by examining how to compute the marginal likelihood for simple cases.

Consider a simple binary random variable X, and assume that we have a prior distribution  $Dirichlet(\alpha_1, \alpha_0)$  over X (see V10, p.20).

Consider a data set D with M[1] heads and M[0] tails.

Then the maximum likelihood value given D is

$$P(D|\hat{\theta}) = \left(\frac{M[1]}{M}\right)^{M[1]} \cdot \left(\frac{M[0]}{M}\right)^{M[0]}$$

Now let us consider the marginal likelihood.

For this, we need to compute the probability P(X[1], ..., X[M]) of the data given our prior.

We can do this e.g. using the chain rule:

$$P(x[1], \dots, x[M]) = P(x[1]) \cdot P(x[2]|x[1]) \cdot \dots \cdot P(x[M]|x[1], \dots, x[M-1])$$

Recall from V10 (p.14) that if we used a Beta prior, then

$$P(x[m+1] = H|x[1], ..., x[m]) = \frac{M^m[1] + \alpha_1}{m + \alpha}$$

where  $M^{m}[1]$  is the number of heads in the first *m* examples.

For example, if D =  $\langle$  H, T, T, H, H $\rangle$ ,

$$P(x[1], ..., x[5]) = \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha} \cdot \frac{\alpha_0}{\alpha + 1} \cdot \frac{\alpha_0 + 1}{\alpha + 2} \cdot \frac{\alpha_1 + 1}{\alpha + 3} \cdot \frac{\alpha_1 + 2}{\alpha + 4}$$
$$= \frac{\alpha_1(\alpha_1 + 1)(\alpha_1 + 2)\alpha_0(\alpha_0 + 1)}{\alpha ... (\alpha + 4)}$$

Picking e.g.  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_0 = 1$  so that  $\alpha = \alpha_1 + \alpha_0 = 2$ , we get  $\frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 2}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} = \frac{12}{720} = 0.017$ 



This is significantly lower than the likelihood

$$\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^3 \cdot \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2 = \frac{108}{3125} \approx 0.035$$

Thus, a model using maximum-likelihood parameters ascribes a much higher probability to the sequence than does the marginal likelihood.

In general, for a binomial distribution with a Beta prior, we have

$$P(x[1], \dots, x[M]) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha + M)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_1 + M[1])}{\Gamma(\alpha_1)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_0 + M[1])}{\Gamma(\alpha_0)}$$

A similar formula holds for a multinomial distribution over the space  $x^1, ..., x^k$ with a Dirichlet prior with hyperparameters  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k$ :

$$P(x[1], \dots, x[M]) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha + M)} \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_i + M[x^i])}{\Gamma(\alpha_i)}$$

We now generalize the discussion of the Bayesian score to more general BNs.

Consider 2 possible structures of 2 binary random variables X and Y.

G<sub>0</sub> is the graph with no edges. Here, we have

$$P(D|G_0) = \int_{\Theta_X \times \Theta_Y} P(D|\Theta_X, \Theta_Y, G_0) P(\Theta_X, \Theta_Y|G_0) d[\Theta_X, \Theta_Y]$$

The likelihood term  $P(D|\Theta_X, \Theta_Y, G_0)$  can be written as a product of terms, one involving  $\Theta_X$  and the observations of X in the data, and the other involving  $\Theta_Y$  and the observations of Y in the data.

If we also assume parameter independence, that is that  $P(\Theta_X, \Theta_Y | G_0)$  decomposes as a product  $P(\Theta_X | G_0) P(\Theta_Y | G_0)$  then we can simplify the integral

$$P(D|G_0) = \int_{\Theta_X \times \Theta_Y} P(D|\Theta_X, \Theta_Y, G_0) P(\Theta_X, \Theta_Y|G_0) d[\Theta_X, \Theta_Y]$$
  
=  $\left( \int_{\Theta_X} P(\Theta_X|G_0) \prod_m P(x[m]|\Theta_X, G_0) d\Theta_X \right) \left( \int_{\Theta_Y} P(\Theta_Y|G_0) \prod_m P(y[m]|\Theta_Y, G_0) d\Theta_Y \right)$ 

Since we assumed parameter independence, we wrote the integral over a product of independent functions as the product of the integrals of the functions.

Each of the 2 integrals is the marginal likelihood of a single variable.

Now consider the network  $G_{X \to Y} = (X \to Y)$ 

If we again assume parameter independence, we can decompose this integral into a product of 3 integrals, each over a single parameter family.

$$P(D|G_{X \to Y}) = \left( \int_{\Theta_X} P(\Theta_X | G_{X \to Y}) \prod_m P(x[m]|\Theta_X, G_{X \to Y}) d\Theta_X \right)$$
$$\left( \int_{\Theta_Y | x^0} P\left(\Theta_{Y | x^0} | G_{X \to Y}\right) \prod_{m:x[m]=x^0} P\left(y[m] \left|\Theta_{Y | x^0}, G_{X \to Y}\right) d\Theta_{Y | x^0}\right)$$
$$\left( \int_{\Theta_Y | x^1} P\left(\Theta_{Y | x^1} | G_{X \to Y}\right) \prod_{m:x[m]=x^1} P\left(y[m] \left|\Theta_{Y | x^1}, G_{X \to Y}\right) d\Theta_{Y | x^1}\right)$$

Each term can be written using the closed form solution, see Dirichlet prior (p.13).

Comparing the marginal likelihood of the two structures  $G_0$  and  $G_{X \to Y}$ , we see that the term that corresponds to X is similar in both.

In fact, the terms  $P(x[m]|\Theta_X, G_{X\to Y})$  and  $P(x[m]|\Theta_X, G_0)$  both make the same predictions given the parameter values.

Thus, if we choose the prior  $P(\Theta_X | G_0)$  to be the same as  $P(\Theta_X | G_{X \to Y})$ , the first terms in the marginal likelihood of both structures are identical.

Under this assumption, the difference between the two marginal likelihoods is due to the difference between the marginal likelihood of the observations of Y and the marginal likelihoods of the observations of Y when we partition our examples based on the observed value of X.

Let us now consider what effect the complexity of the network has.

We consider an idealized experiment where the empirical distribution is such that  $P(x^1) = 0.5$  and  $P(y^1 | x^1) = 0.5 + p$  and  $P(y^1 | x^0) = 0.5 - p$ .

*p* is a free parameter.

Larger values of *p* imply stronger dependence between X and Y.

The marginal distributions of X and Y are the same regardless of the value of p. Thus, the score of the empty graph  $G_0$  does not depend on p.

But the score of the structure  $G_{X\to Y}$ depends on *p*. The figure illustrates how the scores change depending on the number of training samples. As we get more data, the Bayesian score prefers the structure  $G_{X\to Y}$  where X and Y



are dependent.

But if the dependence becomes weaker (smaller *p* values), more data are needed to establish this preference.

<u>Proposition</u>: Let G be a network structure and let  $P(\Theta_G | G)$  be a parameter prior satisfying global parameter independence. Then

$$P(D|G) = \prod_{i} \int_{\Theta_{X_{i}}|Pa_{X_{i}}} \prod_{m} P\left(x_{i}[m]|pa_{X_{i}}[m], \Theta_{X_{i}}|Pa_{X_{i}}, G\right) P\left(\Theta_{X_{i}}|Pa_{X_{i}}|G\right) d\Theta_{X_{i}}|Pa_{X_{i}}.$$

The Bayesian score is biased towards simpler structures.

But as it gets more data, it is willing to recognize that a more complex structure is necessary. It appears to trade off the fit to data with model copmlexity.

# Practical example of parameter learning: Stochastic Dynamics simulations of a photosynthetic vesicle

Introduction: prelude photosynthesis

II Process view and geometric model of a chromatophore vesicle Tihamér Geyer & V. Helms (Biophys. J. 2006a, 2006b)

**III** Stochastic dynamics simulations

T. Geyer, Florian Lauck & V. Helms (J. Biotechnol. 2007)

IV Parameter fit through evolutionary algorithm T. Geyer, X. Mol, S. Blaß & V. Helms (PLoS ONE 2010)

# **Bacterial Photosynthesis 101**



#### Viewing the photosynthetic apparatus as a conversion chain



Thick arrows : path through which the photon energy is converted into chemical energy stored in ATP via the intermediate stages (rounded rectangles).

Each conversion step takes place in parallely working proteins. Their number N times the conversion rate of a single protein R determines the total throughput of this step.

- $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  : incoming photons collected in the LHCs
- E : excitons in the LHCs and in the RC
- $e^-H^+$  electron-proton pairs stored on the quinols
- $e^{-}$  for the electrons on the cytochrome  $c_2$
- pH : transmembrane proton gradient
- H<sup>+</sup> : protons outside of the vesicle (broken outine of the respective reservoir).

# Stochastic dynamics simulations: Molecules & Pools model



Round edges: **pools** for metabolite molecules

Rectangles: protein machines are modeled explicitly as multiple copies

fixed set of parameters

integrate rate equations with stochastic algorithm

## Include stochastic effects

(Consequence1)  $\rightarrow$  modeling of reactions as continuous fluxes of matter is no longer correct.

(Consequence2) Significant stochastic fluctuations occur.

To study the stochastic effects in biochemical reactions, stochastic formulations of chemical kinetics and Monte Carlo computer simulations have been used.

**Daniel Gillespie** (J Comput Phys 22, 403 (1976); J Chem Phys 81, 2340 (1977)) introduced the exact **Dynamic Monte Carlo (DMC)** method that connects the traditional chemical kinetics and stochastic approaches.

## **Basic outline of the direct method of Gillespie**

(Step i) generate a list of the components/species and define the initial distribution at time t = 0.

(Step ii) generate a list of possible events  $E_i$  (chemical reactions as well as physical processes).

(Step iii) using the current component/species distribution, prepare a probability table  $P(E_i)$  of all the events that can take place.

Compute the total probability

$$P_{tot} = \sum P(E_i)$$

 $P(E_i)$ : probability of event  $E_i$ .

(Step iv) Pick two random numbers  $r_1$  and  $r_2 \in [0...1]$  to decide which event  $E_{\mu}$  will occur next and the amount of time  $\tau$  after which  $E_{\mu}$  will occur.

Resat et al., J.Phys.Chem. B 105, 11026 (2001)

## **Basic outline of the direct method of Gillespie**

Using the random number  $r_1$  and the probability table,

the event  $E_{\mu}$  is determined by finding the event that satisfies the relation

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\mu-1} P(E_i) < r_1 P_{tot} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\mu} P(E_i)$$

The second random number  $r_2$  is used to obtain the amount of time  $\tau$  between the reactions

$$\tau = -\frac{1}{P_{tot}} \ln(r_2)$$

As the total probability of the events changes in time, the time step between occurring steps varies.

Steps (iii) and (iv) are repeated at each step of the simulation.

The necessary number of runs depends on the inherent noise of the system and on the desired statistical accuracy.

Resat et al., J.Phys.Chem. B 105, 11026 (2001)

# reactions included in stochastic model of chromatophore



# Stochastic simulations of a complete vesicle

Model vesicle: 12 LH1/RC-monomers

1-6 *bc*<sup>1</sup> complexes 1 ATPase

120 quinones 20 cytochrome  $c_2$ 

integrate rate equations with:

- Gillespie algorithm (associations)
- Timer algorithm (reactions); 1 random number determines when reaction occurs

simulating 1 minute real time requires 1.5 minute on one opteron 2.4 GHz proc

# simulate increase of light intensity (sunrise)

during 1 minute, light intensity is slowly increased from 0 to 10 W/m<sup>2</sup> (quasi steady state)

- $\rightarrow$  there are two regimes
- one limited by available light
- one limited by  $bc_1$  throughput



# oxidation state of cytochrome c<sub>2</sub> pool



### oxidation state of cytochrome c<sub>2</sub> pool



# total number of produced ATP



high light intensity: interruptions are buffered up to 0.3 s duration

# c<sub>2</sub> pool acts as buffer



At high light intensity, c2 pool is mainly oxidized.

If light is turned off, bc1 can continue to work (load c2s, pump protons, let ATPase produce ATP) until c2 pool is fully reduced.

#### What if parameters are/were unknown?

# Bridging the Gap: Linking Molecular Simulations and Systemic Descriptions of Cellular Compartments

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Center for Bioinformatics, Saarland University, Saarbrücken, Germany

PLoS ONE (2010)

choose 25 out of 45 system parameters for optimization.

take 7 different non-equilibrium time-resolved experiments from Dieter Oesterhelt lab (MPI Martinsried).



Role of PufX Protein in Photosynthetic Growth of *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*.
1. PufX Is Required for Efficient Light-Driven Electron Transfer and Photophosphorylation under Anaerobic Conditions<sup>†</sup>

Wolfgang P. Barz,<sup>‡,§</sup> Francesco Francia,<sup>||</sup> Giovanni Venturoli,<sup>||</sup> B. Andrea Melandri,<sup>||</sup> André Verméglio,<sup>⊥</sup> and Dieter Oesterhelt<sup>\*,‡</sup>

#### **Parameters not optimized**

Parameter	Value	Description				
bc1∷kon(H⁺ont)	10 <sup>10</sup> nm <sup>3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	rate for proton uptake from the cytoplasm by bc1				
bc1∷kt(e:Q₀=>FeS)	2.3 * 10 <sup>3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	rate for electron transfer from $Q_0$ to FeS				
$bc_1::k_{tr}(e:c_1 \Rightarrow c_2)$	10 <sup>5</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	electron transfer rate from $c_1$ to bound cytochrome $c_2$				
$bc_1::k_{tr}(e:Q_0 \Longrightarrow b_L)$	10 <sup>4</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	electron transfer from $Q_0$ to $b_L$ heme				
$bc_1::k_{\rm fr}(e:b_{\rm L}=>b_{\rm H})$	10 <sup>4</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	electron transfer from $b_{\rm L}$ to $b_{\rm H}$ heme				
$\triangle \Phi :: V$	2.65 * 10 <sup>4</sup> nm <sup>3</sup>	inner volume of the vesicle				
∆ <b>Φ∷</b> A	5.28 * 10 <sup>3</sup> nm <sup>2</sup>	membrane area (Q pool "volume")				
$\Delta \Phi$ :: $C_{Hin}$	1.0 e	effective charge of a free proton in the vesicle				
ΔΦ:: <i>C</i> <b>h</b> m	1.0 e	effective charge of a proton on the titratable groups				
$\Delta \Phi$ :: $C_{\text{prot.}}$	-1.0 e	effective charge of an e <sup>-</sup> translocated through an RC				
$\Delta \Phi$ :: $C_{ared}$	-0.5 e	effective charge of a reduced cytochrome $c_2$				
$\Delta \Phi$ :: $C_{cox}$	0.5 e	effective charge of an oxidized cytochrome $c_2$				
PR::Np	80	number of titratable groups in the vesicle				
PR∷pK	5.0	pK of the titratable groups				
Ncare	10	number of dimeric core complexes (2 RC + 1 LHC)				
Мы	10	number of cytochrome bc1 complexes				
NATPase	1	number of ATPases				
N <sub>c2</sub>	20	total number of cytochrome $c_2$				
Nq	200	total number of quinones				

Table S1: Model Parameters Not Included in the Optimization Process

# Parameter optimization through evolutionary algorithm



Figure S1: Determining the Number of bc1 Complexes: Evolution of the Master Score

# **25 optimization parameters**

#### Analyze 1000 best parameter sets among 32.800 simulations:

$$\langle P \rangle = \exp[\langle \log P \rangle]$$
  
$$\sigma^2 = \langle (\log P - \langle \log P \rangle)^2 \rangle$$
  
$$P_{\min} = \exp[\langle \log P \rangle - \sigma]$$
  
$$P_{\max} = \exp[\langle \log P \rangle + \sigma]$$

parameter	units	< <i>P</i> >	P <sub>min</sub> P <sub>max</sub>	P <sub>min</sub> / P <sub>max</sub>
LHC::o	m² W <sup>1</sup> s <sup>1</sup>	6.22	6.026.42	0.94
LHC::No	1	1.31	0.81 2.13	0.38
LHC::k <sub>D</sub> (E)	s <sup>1</sup>	1.9 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	(1.13.8) * 10 <sup>3</sup>	0.29
RC::kon(E)	s <sup>1</sup>	2.4 * 10 <sup>6</sup>	(1.24.5) * 10 <sup>6</sup>	0.27
RC::kon(H <sup>+</sup> )	nm <sup>3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	1.4 * 10 <sup>8</sup>	(1.31.6) * 10 <sup>8</sup>	0.81
$RC:k_{on}(Q)$	nm² s 1	6.0 * 10 <sup>4</sup>	(4.48.1) * 10 <sup>4</sup>	0.54
RC::k <sub>off</sub> (QH2)	s <sup>1</sup>	87	70108	0.65
RC::kon(c2red)	nm <sup>3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	9.2 * 10 <sup>5</sup>	(7.311.5) * 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.63
RC::k <sub>off</sub> (c2ox)	s <sup>1</sup>	2.2 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	(1.63.0) * 10 <sup>3</sup>	0.53
bc1::kon(QH2@Qo)	nm² s 1	1.2 * 10 <sup>4</sup>	(0.791.7) * 10 <sup>4</sup>	0.46
bc1::koff(Q@Qo)	s <sup>1</sup>	28.3	26.330.4	0.86
$bc_1 :: k_{ti}(\mathbf{Q}; \mathbf{Q}_o - > \mathbf{Q}_i)$	s <sup>1</sup>	4.9 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	$(3.66.7) * 10^3$	0.54
bc1::kon(Q@Qi)	mm <sup>2</sup> s <sup>1</sup>	6.7 * 10 <sup>5</sup>	(4.510) * 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.45
bc1::koff(QH2@Qi)	s <sup>1</sup>	86	68110	0.62
$bc_1::k_t(QH2:Q_t=>Q_o)$	s <sup>1</sup>	3.8 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	(2.65.5) * 10 <sup>3</sup>	0.47
bc1::kon(c2ox)	nm <sup>3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	94 * 10 <sup>6</sup>	(6.314) * 10 <sup>6</sup>	0.47
bc1::koff(c2red)	s <sup>1</sup>	6.0 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	(3.311) * 10 <sup>3</sup>	0.30
bc1::koff(H+@Qo)	s <sup>1</sup>	2.4 * 10 <sup>4</sup>	$(1.34.3) * 10^4$	0.30
<i>bc</i> 1:: <i>k</i> tr(FeS:b = > c)	s <sup>1</sup>	3.9 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	(3.15.1) * 10 <sup>3</sup>	0.61
<i>bc</i> 1:: <i>k</i> 1(FeS:c=>b)	s <sup>1</sup>	2.8 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	$(2.23.6) * 10^3$	0.61
$bc_1::k_{tr}(e:b_H - >Q_i)$	s <sup>1</sup>	7.7 * 10 <sup>3</sup>	(5.012) * 10 <sup>3</sup>	0.42
<i>bc</i> 1::Φ0	mV	102	83114	0.73
ΔΦ::Uo	mV/e	10.3	9.511	0.85
$\Delta \Phi$ :: $\Delta \Phi_0$	mV/pH	10	7.613.7	0.55
PR::pK	1	4.84	3.95.9	0.66

# Sensitivity of master score

Decay rate of excitons in LHC



Absorption cross section light harvesting complex

Kinetic rate for hinge motion of FeS domain in bc1 complex

Some parameters are very sensitive, others not.

# Three best-scored parameter sets

Score of individual parameter set *i* for matching one experiment:

$$s_i = \frac{C_i}{\sum \left(x(t_i) - f(t_i)\right)^2}$$

 $x(t_i)$ : simulation result  $f(t_i)$ : smooth fit of exp. data

**Master score** for one parameter set: defined as product of the individual scores  $s_i$ 



# **Different experiments yield different sensitivity**



"importance score": Sum of the sensitivities  $P_{min}$  / $P_{max}$  of all relevant parameters

**Table 2.** Importance scores and correlation coefficients between the master score and the respective individual scores of the experimental scenarios denoting the relative importance of each of the experiments for the parameter value optimization.

experiment	A7 cytc	A7 ΔΦ	A8 🛆 Ф	A9 cytc	B1 Q	86 P	B6 cytc	BC1
importance score	4.4	7.7	5.8	9.7	3.8	52	8.9	55
correlation	0.09	0.44	022	038	0.83	0.17	0.31	0.41

The importance scores are determined as the sums of the sensitivities of all relevant parameters against the individual scores (see table 52 for all the individual values). The correlation coefficients are obtained from a linear fit of the master score against the respective individual score.

Analysis could suggest new experiments that would be most informative!

# Summary

Only 1/3 of the kinetic parameters previously known.

Stochastic parameter optimization converges robustly into the same parameter basin as known from experiment.

Two large-scale runs (15 + 17 parameters) yielded practically the same results.

If implemented as grid search, less than 2 points per dimension.

It appears enough to know 1/3 - 1/2 of kinetic rates about a system to be able to describe it quantitatively (IF connectivities are known).