Extracting Gene Regulation Networks Using Linear-Chain Conditional Random Fields and Rules

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Abstract

Published literature in molecular genetics may collectively provide much information on gene regulation networks. Dedicated computational approaches are required to sip through large volumes of text and infer gene interactions. We propose a novel sieve-based relation extraction system that uses linear-chain conditional random fields and rules. Also, we introduce a new skip-mention data representation to enable distant relation extraction using first-order models. To account for a variety of relation types, multiple models are inferred. The system was applied to the BioNLP 2013 Gene Regulation Network Shared Task. Our approach was ranked first of five, with a slot error rate of 0.73.

1 Introduction

In recent years we have witnessed an increasing number of studies that use comprehensive PubMed literature as an additional source of information. Millions of biomedical abstracts and thousands of phenotype and gene descriptions reside in online article databases. These represent an enormous amount of knowledge that can be mined with dedicated natural language processing techniques. However, extensive biological insight is often required to develop text mining techniques that can be readily used by biomedical experts. Profiling biomedical research literature was among the first approaches in disease-gene prediction and is now becoming invaluable to researchers (Piro and Di Cunto, 2012; Moreau and Tranchevent, 2012). Information from publication repositories was often merged with other databases. Successful examples of such integration include an OMIM database on human genes and genetic phenotypes (Amberger et al., 2011), GeneRIF function annotation database (Osborne et al., 2006), Gene Ontology (Ashburner et al., 2000) and clinical information about drugs in the DailyMed database (Polen et al., 2008). Biomedical literature mining is a powerful way to identify promising candidate genes for which abundant knowledge might already be available.

Relation extraction (Sarawagi, 2008) can identify semantic relationships between entities from text and is one of the key information extraction tasks. Because of the abundance of publications in molecular biology computational methods are required to convert text into structured data. Early relation extraction systems typically used hand-crafted rules to extract a small set of relation types (Brin, 1999). Later, machine learning methods were adapted to support the task and were trained over a set of predefined relation types. In cases where no tagged data is available, some unsupervised techniques offer the extraction of relation descriptors based on syntactic text properties (Bach and Badaskar, 2007). Current state-of-the-art systems achieve best results by combining both machine learning and rule-based approaches (Xu et al., 2012).

Information on gene interactions are scattered in data resources such as PubMed. The reconstruction of gene regulatory networks is a longstanding but fundamental challenge that can improve our understanding of cellular processes and molecular interactions (Sauka-Spengler and Bronner-Fraser, 2008). In this study we aimed at extracting a gene regulatory network of the popular model organism the Bacillus subtilis. Specifically, we focused on the sporulation function, a type of cellular differentiation and a well-studied cellular function in B. subtilis.

We describe the method that we used for our participation in the BioNLP 2013 Gene Regulation Network (GRN) Shared Task (Bossy et al., 2013). The goal of the task was to retrieve the
genic interactions. The participants were provided with manually annotated sentences from research literature that contain entities, events and genic interactions. Entities are sequences of text that identify objects, such as genes, proteins and regulations. Events and relations are described by type, two associated entities and direction between the two entities. The participants were asked to predict relations of interaction type in the test data set. The submitted network of interactions was compared to the reference network and evaluated with Slot Error Rate (SER) (Makhoul et al., 1999) 

\[ SER = \frac{(S + I + D)}{N} \] 

that measures the fraction of incorrect predictions as the sum of relation substitutions (S), insertions (I) and deletions (D) relative to the number of reference relations (N).

We begin with a description of related work and the background of relation extraction. We then present our extension of linear-chain conditional random fields (CRF) with skip-mentions (Sec. 3). Then we explain our sieve-based system architecture (Sec. 4), which is the complete pipeline of data processing that includes data preparation, linear-chain CRF and rule based relation detection and data cleaning. Finally, we describe the results at BioNLP 2013 GRN Shared Task (Sec. 6).

2 Related Work

The majority of work on relation extraction focuses on binary relations between two entities. Most often, the proposed systems are evaluated against social relations in ACE benchmark data sets (Bunescu and Mooney, 2005; Wang et al., 2006). There the task is to identify pairs of entities and assign them a relation type. A number of machine learning techniques have been used for relation extraction, such as sequence classifiers, including HMM (Freitag and McCallum, 2000), CRF (Lafferty et al., 2001) and MEMM (Kambhatla, 2004), and binary classifiers. The latter most often employ SVM (Van Landeghem et al., 2012).

The ACE 2004 data set (Mitchell et al., 2005) contains two-tier hierarchical relation types. Thus, a relation can have another relation as an attribute and second level relation must have only atomic attributes. Therefore, two-tier relation hierarchies have the maximum height of two. Wang et al. (2006) employed a one-against-one SVM classifier to predict relations in ACE 2004 data set using semantic features from WordNet (Miller, 1995). The BioNLP 2013 GRN Shared Task aims to detect three-tier hierarchical relations. These relations describe interactions that can have events or other interactions as attributes. In contrast to pairwise approach of Wang et al. (2006), we extract relations with sequence classifiers and rules.

The same relation in text can be expressed in many forms. Machine-learning approaches can resolve this heterogeneity by training models on large data sets using a large number of feature functions. Text-based features can be constructed through application of feature functions. An approach to overcome low coverage of different relation forms was proposed by Garcia and Gamallo (2011). They introduced a lexico-syntactic pattern-based feature functions that identify dependency heads and extracts relations. Their approach was evaluated over two relation types in two languages and achieved good results. In our study we use rules to account for the heterogeneity of relation representation.

Generally, when trying to solve a relation extraction task, data sets are tagged using the IOB (inside-outside-beginning) notation (Ramshaw and Marcus, 1995), such that the first word of the relation is tagged as B-REL, other consecutive words within it as I-REL and all others as O. The segment of text that best describes a predefined relation between two entities is called a relation descriptor. Li et al. (2011) trained a linear-chain CRF to uncover these descriptors. They also transformed subject and object mentions of the relations into dedicated values that enabled them to correctly predict relation direction. Additionally, they represented the whole relation descriptor as a single word to use long-range features with a first-order model. We use a similar model but propose a new way of token sequence transformation which discovers the exact relation and not only the descriptor. Banko and Etzioni (2008) used linear models for the extraction of open relations (i.e. extraction of general relation descriptors without any knowledge about specific target relation type). They first characterized the type of relation appearance in the text according to lexical and syntactic patterns and then trained a CRF using these data along with synonym detection (Yates and Etzioni, 2007). Their method is useful when a few relations in a massive corpus are unknown. However, if higher levels of recall are desired, traditional relation extraction is a better fit. In this study we therefore propose a completely super-
vised relation extraction method.

Methods for biomedical relation extraction have been tested within several large evaluation initiatives. The Learning language in logic (LLL) challenge on genic interaction extraction (Nédellec, 2005) is similar to the BioNLP 2013 GRN Shared Task, which contains a subset of the LLL data set enriched with additional annotations. Giuliano et al. (2006) solved the task using an SVM classifier with a specialized local and global context kernel. The local kernel uses only mention-related features such as word, lemma and part-of-speech tag, while the global context kernel compares words that appear on the left, between and on the right of two candidate mentions. To detect relations, they select only documents containing at least two mentions and generate \( \binom{n}{k} \) training examples, where \( n \) is the number of all mentions in a document and \( k \) is number of mentions that form a relation (i.e. two). They then predict three class values according to direction (subject-object, object-subject, no relation). Our approach also uses context features and syntactic features of neighbouring tokens. The direction of relations predicted in our model is arbitrary and it is further determined using rules.

The BioNLP 2011 REL Supporting Shared Task addressed the extraction of entity relations. The winning TESS system (Van Landeghem et al., 2012) used SVMs in a pipeline to detect entity nodes, predict relations and perform some post-processing steps. They predict relations among every two mention pairs in a sentence. Their study concluded that the term detection module has a strong impact on the relation extraction module. In our case, protein and entity mentions (i.e. mentions representing genes) had already been identified, and we therefore focused mainly on extraction of events, relations and event modification mentions.

3 Conditional Random Fields with Skip-Mentions

Conditional random fields (CRF) (Lafferty et al., 2001) is a discriminative model that estimates joint distribution \( p(\tilde{\gamma} | \pi) \) over the target sequence \( \tilde{\gamma} \), conditioned on the observed sequence \( \pi \). The following example shows an observed sequence \( \pi \) where mentions are printed in bold:

“Transcription of cheV initiates from a sigma D-dependent promoter element both in vivo and in vitro, and expression of a cheV-lacZ fusion is completely dependent on sigD.”

Corresponding sequences \( \pi^{POS}, \pi^{PARSE}, \pi^{LEMMA} \) contain part-of-speech tags, parse tree tokens and lemmas for each word, respectively. Different feature functions \( f_j \) (Fig. 2), employed by CRF, use these sequences in order to model the target sequence \( \tilde{\gamma} \), which also corresponds to tokens in \( \pi \). Feature function modelling is an essential part when training CRF. Selection of feature functions contributes the most to an increase of precision and recall when training CRF classifiers. Usually these are given as templates and the final features are generated by scanning the entire training data set. The feature functions used in our model are described in Sec. 3.1.

CRF training finds a weight vector \( w \) that predicts the best possible (i.e. the most probable) sequence \( \tilde{y} \) given \( \pi \). Hence,

\[
\tilde{y} = \arg \max_{\gamma} p(\gamma | \pi, w),
\]

where the conditional distribution equals

\[
p(\gamma | \pi, w) = \frac{\exp(\sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_j(\gamma, \pi, i))}{C(\pi, w)}.
\]

Here, \( n \) is the length of the observed sequence \( \pi \), \( m \) is the number of feature functions and \( C(\pi, w) \) is a normalization constant computed over all possible \( \gamma \). We do not consider the normalization constant because we are not interested in exact target sequence probabilities. We select only the target sequence that is ranked first.

Figure 1: The structure of a linear-chain CRF model. It shows an observable sequence \( \pi \) and target sequence \( \tilde{\gamma} \) containing \( n \) tokens.

The structure of a linear-chain CRF (LCRF) model or any other more general graphical model is defined by references to the target sequence labels within the feature functions. Fig. 1 shows the
function \( f(\gamma, \pi, i) : \)

\[
\text{if } (y_{i-1} == O \text{ and } y_i == \text{GENE and } x_{i-1} == \text{transcribes}) \text{ then return 1}
\]

\[
\text{else return 0}
\]

Figure 2: An example of a feature function. It checks if the previous label was Other, the current is Gene and the previous word was “transcribes”, returns 1, otherwise 0.

structure of the LCRF. Note that the \( i \)-th factor can depend only on the current and the previous sequence labels \( y_i \) and \( y_{i-1} \). LCRF can be efficiently trained, whereas exact inference of weights in CRF with arbitrary structure is intractable due to an exponential number of partial sequences. Thus, approximate approaches must be adopted.

### 3.1 Data Representation

The goal of our task is to identify relations between two selected mentions. If we process the input sequences as is, we cannot model the dependencies between two consecutive mentions because there can be many other tokens in between. From an excerpt of the example in the previous section, “cheV initiates from a sigmaD”, we can observe the limitation of modelling just two consecutive tokens. With this type of labelling it is hard to extract the relationships using a first-order model. Also, we are not interested in identifying relation descriptors (i.e. segments of text that best describe a pre-defined relation); therefore, we generate new sequences containing only mentions. Mentions are also the only tokens that can be an attribute of a relation. In Fig. 3 we show the transformation of our example into a mention sequence. The observable sequence \( \pi \) contains sorted entity mentions that are annotated. These annotations were part of the training corpus. The target sequence \( \gamma \) is tagged with the none symbol (i.e. \( O \)) or the name of the relationship (e.g. Interaction.Requirement). Each relationship target token represents a relationship between the current and the previous observable mention.

The mention sequence as demonstrated in Fig. 3 does not model the relationships that exist between distant mentions. For example, the mentions cheV and promoter are related by a Promoter

of relation, which cannot be identified using only LCRF. Linear model can only detect dependencies between two consecutive mentions. To model such relationships on different distances we generate appropriate skip-mention sequences. The notion of skip-mention stands for the number of other mentions between two consecutive mentions which are not included in a specific skip-mention sequence. Thus, to model relationships between every second mention, we generate two one skip-mention sequences for each sentence. A one skip-mention sequence identifies the Promoter of relation, shown in Fig. 4.

For every \( s \) skip-mention number, we generate \( s + 1 \) mention sequences of length \( \left\lceil \frac{n}{s} \right\rceil \). After these sequences are generated, we train one LCRF model per each skip-mention number. Model training and inference of predictions can be done in parallel due to the sequence independence. Analogously, we generate model-specific skip-mention sequences for inference and get target labellings as a result. We extract the identified relations between the two mentions and represent them as an undirected graph.

Fig. 5 shows the distribution of distances be-
between the relation mention attributes (i.e. agents and targets) in the BioNLP 2013 GRN training and development data set. The attribute mention data consists of all entity mentions and events. We observe that most of relations connect attributes on distances of two and three mentions.

To get our final predictions we train CRF models on zero to ten skip-mention sequences. We use the same unigram and bigram feature function set for all models. These include the following:

- target label distribution,
- mention type (e.g. Gene, Protein) and observable values (e.g., sigma D) of mention distance 4 around current mention,
- context features using bag-of-words matching on the left, between and on the right side of mentions,
- hearst concurrence features (Bansal and Klein, 2012),
- token distance between mentions,
- parse tree depth and path between mentions,
- previous and next lemmas and part-of-speech tags.

4 Data Analysis Pipeline

We propose a pipeline system combining multiple processing sieves. Each sieve is an independent data processing component. The system consists of eight sieves, where the first two sieves prepare data for relation extraction, main sieves consist of linear-chain CRF and rule-based relation detection, and the last sieve cleans the output data. Full implementation is publicly available (https://bitbucket.org/szitnik/iobie). We use CRF-Suite (http://www.chokkan.org/software/crfsuite) for faster CRF training and inference.

First, we transform the input data into a format appropriate for our processing and enrich the data with lemmas, parse trees and part-of-speech tags. We then identify additional action mentions which act as event attributes (see Sec. 4.3). Next, we employ the CRF models to detect events. We treat events as a relation type. The main relation processing sieves detect relations. We designed several processing sieves, which support different relation attribute types and hierarchies. We also employ rules at each step to properly set the agent and target attributes. In the last relation processing sieve, we perform rule-based relation extraction to detect high precision relations and boost the recall. In the last step we clean the extracted results and export the data.

The proposed system sieves are executed in the following order:

i Preprocessing Sieve
ii Mention Processing Sieve
iii Event Processing Sieve
iv Mention Relations Processing Sieve
v Event Relations Processing Sieve
vi Gene Relations Processing Sieve
vii Rule-Based Relations Processing Sieve
viii Data Cleaning Sieve

In the description of the sieves in the following sections, we use general relation terms, naming the relation attributes as subject and object, as shown in Fig. 6.

![Figure 6: General relation representation.](image-url)
4.1 Preprocessing Sieve
The preprocessing sieve includes data import, sentence detection and text tokenization. Additionally, we enrich the data using part-of-speech tags, parse trees (http://opennlp.apache.org) and lemmas (Juršić et al., 2010).

4.2 Mention Processing Sieve
The entity mentions consist of Protein, GeneFamily, ProteinFamily, ProteinComplex, PolymeraseComplex, Gene, Operon, mRNA, Site, Regulon and Promoter types. Action mentions (e.g. inhibits, co-transcribes) are automatically detected as they are needed as event attributes for the event extraction. We therefore select all lemmas of the action mentions from the training data and detect new mentions from the test data set by comparing lemma values.

4.3 Event Processing Sieve
The general definition of an event is described as a change on the state of a bio-molecule or biomolecules (e.g. “expression of a cheV-lacZ fusion is completely dependent on sigD”). We represent events as a special case of relationship and name them “EVENT”. In the training data, the event subject types are Protein, GeneFamily, PolymeraseComplex, Gene, Operon, mRNA, Site, Regulon and Promoter types, while the objects are always of the action type (e.g. “expression”), which we discover in the previous sieve. After identifying event relations using the linear-chain CRF approach, we apply a rule that sets the action mention as an object and the gene as a subject attribute for every extracted event.

4.4 Relations Processing Sieves
According to the task relation properties (i.e. different subject and object types), we extract relations in three phases (iv, v, vi). This enables us to extract hierarchical relations (i.e. relation contains another relation as subject or object) and achieve higher precision. All sieves use the proposed linear-chain CRF-based extraction. The processing sieves use specific relation properties and are executed as follows:

(v) In the second stage, we extract relations that contain at least one event as their attribute. Prior to execution we transform events into their mention form. Mentions generated from events consist of two tokens. They are taken from the event attributes and the new event mention is included into the list of existing mentions. Its order within the list is determined by the index of the lowest mention token. Next, relations are identified following the same principle as in the first step.

(vi) According to an evaluation peculiarity of the challenge, the goal is to extract possible interactions between genes. Thus, when a relation between a gene $G_1$ and an event $E$ should be extracted, the GRN network is the same as if the method identifies a relation between a gene $G_1$ and gene $G_2$, if $G_2$ is the object of event $E$. We exploit this notion by generating training data to learn relation extraction only between $B. subtilis$ genes. During this step we use an external resource of all known genes of the bacteria retrieved from the NCBI$^2$.

The training and development data sets include seven relation instances that have a relation as an attribute. We omitted this type of hierarchy extraction due to the small number of data instances and execution of relation extraction between genes.

There are also four negative relation instances. The BioNLP task focuses on positive relations, so there would be no increase in performance if negative relations were extracted. Therefore, we extract only positive relations. According to the data set, we could simply add a separate sieve which would extract negations by using manually defined rules. Words that explicitly define these negations are not, whereas, neither and nor.

4.5 Rule-Based Relations Processing Sieve
The last step of relation processing uses rules that extract relations with high precision. General rules consist of the following four methods:

- The method that checks all consequent mention triplets that contain exactly one action mention. As input we set the index of the action mention within the triplet, its matching regular expression and target relation.


\[\text{http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/AL009126}\]
• The method that processes every two consequent *B. subtilis* entity mentions. It takes a regular expression, which must match the text between the mentions, and a target relation.

• The third method is a modification of the previous method that supports having a list of entity mentions on the left or the right side. For example, this method extracts two relations in the following example: “rsfA is under the control of both sigma(F) and sigma(G)”.

• The last method is a variation of the second method, which removes subsentences between the two mentions prior to relation extraction. For example, the method is able to extract distant relation from the following example: “sigma(F) factor turns on about 48 genes, including the gene for RsfA, and the gene for sigma(G)”. This is sigma(F) → Interaction.Activation → sigma(G).

We extract the Interaction relations using regular expression and specific keywords for the transcription types (e.g. keywords *transcribe*, *directs transcription*, *under control of*), inhibition (keywords *repress*, *inactivate*, *inhibits*, *negatively regulated by*), activation (e.g. keywords *governed by*, *activated by*, *essential to activation*, *turns on*), requirement (e.g. keyword *require*) and binding (e.g. keywords *binds to*, *-binding*). Notice that in biomedical literature, a multitude of expressions are often used to describe the same type of genetic interaction. For instance, researchers might prefer using the expression *to repress over to inactivate* or *to inhibit*. Thus, we exploit these synsets to improve the predictive accuracy of the model.

### 4.6 Data Cleaning Sieve

The last sieve involves data cleaning. This consists of removing relation loops and eliminating redundancy.

A relation is considered a loop if its attribute mentions represent the same entity (i.e. mentions corefer). For instance, sentence “... _sigma D_ element, while cheV-lacZ depends on _sigD_ ...” contains mentions _sigma D_ and _sigD_, which cannot form a relationship because they represent the same gene. By removing loops we reduce the number of insertions. Removal of redundant relations does not affect the final score.

### 5 Data in BioNLP 2013 GRN Challenge

Table 1 shows statistics of data sets used in our study. For the test data set we do not have tagged data and therefore cannot show the detailed evaluation analysis for each sieve. Each data set consists of sentences extracted from PubMed abstracts on the topic of the gene regulation network of the *B. subtilis*. The sentences in both the training and the development data sets are manually annotated with entity mentions, events and relations. Real mentions in Table 1 are the mentions that refer to genes or other structures, while action mentions refer to event attributes (e.g. transcription). Our task is to extract Interaction relations of the types *regulation*, *inhibition*, *activation*, *requirement*, *binding* and *transcription* for which the extraction algorithm is also evaluated.

The extraction task in GRN Challenge is twofold: given annotated mentions, a participant needs to identify a relation and then determine the role of relation attributes (i.e. subject or object) within the previously identified relation. Only predictions that match the reference relations by both relation type and its attributes are considered as a match.

### 6 Results and Discussion

We tested our system on the data from BioNLP 2013 GRN Shared Task using the leave one out cross validation on the training data and achieved a SER of 0.756, with 4 substitutions, 81 deletions, 14 insertions and 46 matches, given 131 reference relations. The relatively high number of deletions in these results might be due to ambiguities in the data. We identified the following number of extracted relations in the relation extraction sieves (Sec. 4): (iii) 91 events, (iv) 130 relations between mentions only, (v) 27 relations between an event and a mention, (vi) 39 relations between entity mentions, and (vii) 44 relations using only rules. Our approach consists of multiple submodules, each designed for a specific relation attribute type (e.g. either both attributes are mentions, or an event and a mention, or both are genes). Also, the total sum of extracted relations exceeds the number of final predicted relations, which is a consequence of their extraction in multiple sieves. Duplicates and loops were removed in the data cleaning sieve.

The challenge test data set contains 290 mentions across 67 sentences. To detect relations
in the test data, we trained our models on the joint development and training data. At the time of submission we did not use the gene relations processing sieve (see Sec. 4) because it had not yet been implemented. The results of the participants in the challenge are shown in Table 2. According to the official SER measure, our system (U. of Ljubljana) was ranked first. The other four competing systems were K. U. Leuven (Provoost and Moens, 2013), TEES-2.1 (Björne and Salakoski, 2013), IRISA-TexMex (Claveau, 2013) and EVEX (Hakala et al., 2013). Participants aimed at a low number of substitutions, deletions and insertions, while increasing the number of matches. We got the least number of substitutions and fairly good results in the other three indicators, which gave the best final score. Fig. 7 shows the predicted gene regulation network with the relations that our system extracted from test data. This network does not exactly match our submission due to minor algorithm modifications after the submission deadline.

7 Conclusion

We have proposed a sieve-based system for relation extraction from text. The system is based on linear-chain conditional random fields (LCRF) and domain-specific rules. In order to support the extraction of relations between distant mentions, we propose an approach called skip-mention linear chain CRF, which extends LCRF by varying

| Participant       | S  | D  | I  | M  | SER |
|-------------------|----|----|----|----|-----|
| U. of Ljubljana   | 8  | 50 | 6  | 30 | 0.73|
| K. U. Leuven      | 15 | 53 | 5  | 20 | 0.83|
| TEES-2.1          | 9  | 59 | 8  | 20 | 0.86|
| IRISA-TexMex      | 27 | 25 | 28 | 36 | 0.91|
| EVEX              | 10 | 67 | 4  | 11 | 0.92|

Table 2: BioNLP 2013 GRN Shared Task results. The table shows the number of substitutions (S), deletions (D), insertions (I), matches (M) and slot error rate (SER) metric.
the number of skipped mentions to form mention sequences. In contrast to common relation extraction approaches, we inferred a separate model for each relation type.

We applied the proposed system to the BioNLP 2013 Gene Regulation Network Shared Task. The task was to reconstruct the gene regulation network of sporulation in the model organism *B. subtilis*. Our approach scored best among this year’s submissions.

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