Inductive logic programming What I learned

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Logic

With,

Statement A All men are mortal Statement B Socrates is a man

One can deduce,

Statement C Socrates is mortal

- Deduction goes from general to specific
 - Statement A is more 'general' than statement C





Generality with subsumption (i)

Formula substitution

Let θ be a substitution of the form $\{v_1/t_1,...,v_n/t_n\}$.

Let F be an arbitrary formula.

 $F\theta$ is the formula F where each of its variable v_i have been replaced by t_i .

Atom subsumption

Let θ be a substitution of the form $\{v_1/t_1,...,v_n/t_n\}$.

Let F be an arbitrary atom.

 $F\theta$ is the formula F where each of its variable v_i have been replaced by t_i .

Clause subsumption

Let C and D be clauses.

 $C \leq D$, i.e. C subsumes D iff $\exists \theta, C\theta \subseteq D$.

Generality with subsumption (ii)

• Let
$$\theta = \{X/\text{socrates}\}$$

$$A\theta = C$$

$$\Leftrightarrow A \preceq C$$

Statement A is indeed more general than statement C





Generality with entailment

• Clauses of interest:

A
$$mortal(X) \leftarrow man(X)$$

C $mortal(socrates)$

Background knowledge:

•
$$A, B \models C$$

■ With B as background knowledge, A entails C





Inductive logic programming (i)

B Background knowledge Logic program

E Examples Set of ground unit clauses

H Hypothesis Logic program

Given B and E, find H, such that:

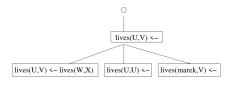
$$B, H \models E$$





Inductive logic programming (ii)

Shapiro's refinement graph:



- Search unbounded
- Consider many solution that do not entail all examples
- Prolog uses this type of search





Inductive logic programming (iii)

There exists another learning approach:

Given B and E, find H, such that:

$$B, H \models E$$

$$B, \overline{E} \models \overline{H}$$

$$B, \overline{E} \models \overline{\bot} \models \overline{H}$$

$$H \models \bot$$

- ullet is the conjunction of literals that are true in all models $B \wedge \overline{E}$
- ullet \perp is the most specific clause for B and E
- ullet The algorithm explores hypotheses more general than ot
- The algorithm uses a metric to rank hypotheses
 hypothesis chosen to be general but with few literals
- Progol uses this type of search



Limitations

- There are two main limitations to this approach:
 - Cannot invent predicates
 - ② Does not handle recursion

 Those two limitations are handled by meta interpretative learning (MIL)





Context free grammar

 A context free grammar consists of production rules of the following form:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} S & \rightarrow & \lambda \\ S & \rightarrow & aS \\ S & \rightarrow & Sb \\ S & \rightarrow & S_1S_2 \end{array}$$

where S, S_1 and S_2 are non-terminal symbols, a,b are terminal symbols and λ marks the end of the string





Meta interpretative learning (i)

Parity example:

| Finite | Definite Clause | Positive |
|----------|--------------------------------------|----------|
| acceptor | Grammar (DCG) | examples |
| 0 0 | $q_0([],[]) \leftarrow$ | λ |
| | $q_0([0 A],B) \leftarrow q_0(A,B)$ | 0 |
| q_0 | $q_0([1 A], B) \leftarrow q_1(A, B)$ | 11 |
| | $q_1([0 A],B) \leftarrow q_1(A,B)$ | 00 |
| | $q_1([1 A],B) \leftarrow q_0(A,B)$ | 101 |

- The example above allow only strings containing an even number of ones
- How do we learn such a model from examples?



Meta interpretative learning (ii)

Parity example:

| Finite | Definite Clause | Positive |
|-------------|--------------------------------------|----------|
| acceptor | Grammar (DCG) | examples |
| 0 0 | $q_0([],[]) \leftarrow$ | λ |
| | $q_0([0 A],B) \leftarrow q_0(A,B)$ | 0 |
| q_0 q_1 | $q_0([1 A], B) \leftarrow q_1(A, B)$ | 11 |
| | $q_1([0 A],B) \leftarrow q_1(A,B)$ | 00 |
| , | $q_1([1 A], B) \leftarrow q_0(A, B)$ | 101 |

Observe that clauses take the form

$$Q([],[]) \leftarrow \\ Q([C|x],y) \leftarrow Q(x,y)$$





Meta interpretative learning (iii)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Q([],[]) & \leftarrow \\ Q([C|x],y) & \leftarrow & Q(x,y) \end{array}$$

| Meta-Interpreter (Regular) | Ground facts | |
|--|------------------------------|--|
| $parse(S) \leftarrow parse(q0, S, []).$ | $acceptor(q0) \leftarrow$ | |
| $parse(Q, [], []) \leftarrow acceptor(Q).$ | $delta1(q0,0,q0) \leftarrow$ | |
| $parse(Q, [C X], Y) \leftarrow$ | $delta1(q0,1,q1) \leftarrow$ | |
| delta1(Q, C, P), | $delta1(q1,0,q1) \leftarrow$ | |
| parse(P, X, Y). | $delta1(q1,1,q0) \leftarrow$ | |

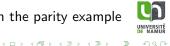
- Using the new formulation, we can build an interpreter
- We still want to learn the ground facts from examples



Meta interpretative learning (iv)

```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) :- parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) :- abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q,[C|X],Y,G1,G2) :- skolem(P), abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3),
\rightarrow parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
% Examples for parity example
parse([],[],G1), parse([0],G1,G2), parse([0,0],G2,G3), parse([1,1],G3,G4),
  parse([0,0,0],G4,G5), parse([0,1,1],G5,G6), parse([1,0,1],G6,G),
  not(parse([1],G,G)), not(parse([0,1],G,G).
% Output
G = [delta1(s(1),0,s(1)), delta1(s(0),1,s(1)), delta1(s(1),1,s(0)),
\rightarrow delta1(s(0),0,s(0)), acceptor(s(0))]
```

- In a few lines of Prolog, we can quickly learn the parity example
- This model is called Metagol_R



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
? parse([],[],G1).
H = []
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),

→ abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
? parse(s(0),[],[],[],G1).
H = []
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),

→ abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
? abduce(acceptor(s(0)),[],G1).
H = []
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
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abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
G1 = [acceptor(s(0))])
H = G1 = [acceptor(s(0))]
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
? parse([0],[acceptor(s(0))],G2).
H = [acceptor(s(0))]
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
? parse(s(0),[0],[],[acceptor(s(0))],G2).
H = [acceptor(s(0))]
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
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parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
? abduce(delta1(s(0),0,s(0)),[acceptor(s(0))],T),
| parse(s(0),[],[],T,G2).
H = [acceptor(s(0))]
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
? abduce(acceptor(s(0)),
| [delta1(s(0),0,s(0)), acceptor(s(0))],G2).
H = [acceptor(s(0))]
```



```
% Meta interpretor for regular grammar
parse(S,G1,G2) := parse(s(0),S,[],G1,G2).
parse(Q,X,X,G1,G2) := abduce(acceptor(Q),G1,G2).
parse(Q, [C|X], Y, G1, G2) := skolem(P),
\rightarrow abduce(delta1(Q,C,P),G1,G3), parse(P,X,Y,G3,G2).
abduce(X,G,G) :- member(X,G).
abduce(X,G,[X|G]) := not(member(X,G)).
skolem(s(0)). skolem(s(1)).
```

```
G2 = [delta1(s(0),0,s(0)), acceptor(s(0))]

H = G2 = [delta1(s(0),0,s(0)), acceptor(s(0))]
```



Meta interpretative learning (v)

MIL has gone even further to consider other metarules

| Name | Meta-Rule | Order |
|----------|------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Instance | $P(X,Y) \leftarrow$ | True |
| Base | $P(x,y) \leftarrow Q(x,y)$ | $P \succ Q$ |
| Chain | $P(x,y) \leftarrow Q(x,z), R(z,y)$ | $P \succ Q, P \succ R$ |
| TailRec | $P(x,y) \leftarrow Q(x,z), P(z,y)$ | $P \succ Q$, |
| | | $x \succ z \succ y$ |

- ullet It considers datalog logic programs in \mathcal{H}_2^2
 - ullet arity ≤ 2 for predicates
 - $\bullet~\#atoms \leq 2$ in the body of clauses
- ullet \mathcal{H}_2^2 has Universal Turing Machine expressivity





ILP for texts of law

- There are at least three ways to study texts of law with ILP
 - Identify logical rules in texts of law and generalize them with ILP (slides 6-8)
 - Suppose that words in texts of law form a context free grammar and learn it with MIL (slides 11-14)
 - $^{oxtsymbol{oxed{oxed{oxed{oxed{B}}}}}$ Believe in the expressivity of \mathcal{H}^2_2 (slide 15)



