An Introduction to Inductive Logic Programming

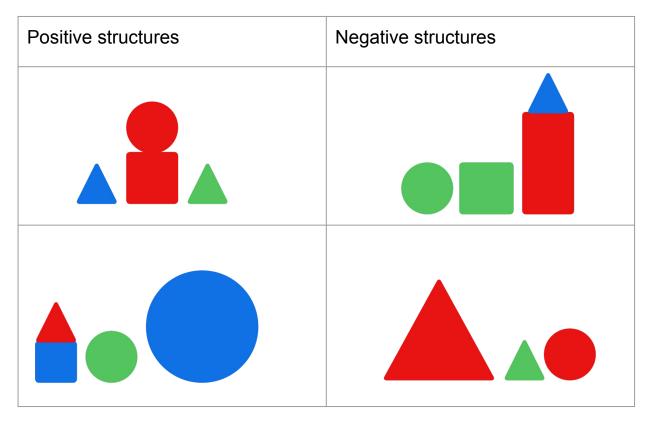
Céline Hocquette

University of Oxford

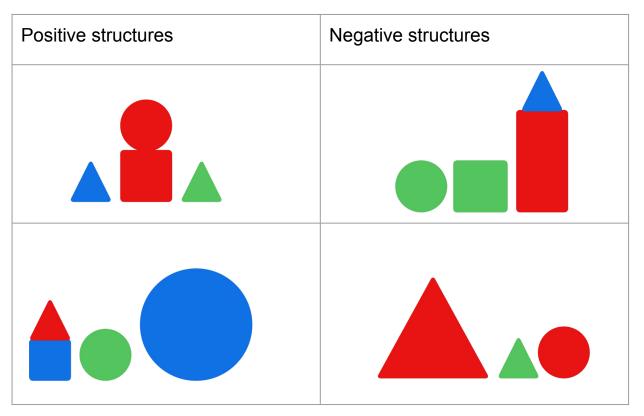


slides available on my website: https://celinehocquette.github.io/

Game playing: Zendo



Game playing: Zendo



A zendo structure is positive if it contains a piece small and not blue in contact with another piece.

Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr

Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr
learning	?

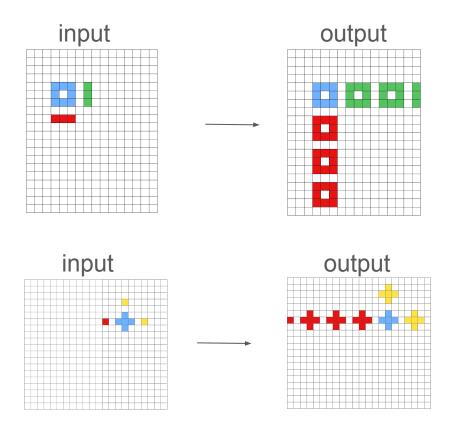
Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr
learning	?

Add two to each element and reverse

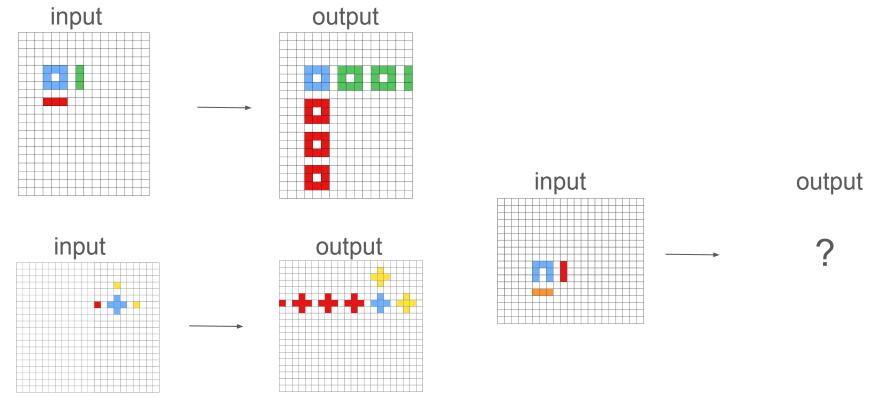
Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr
learning	ipkptcgn

Add two to each element and reverse

Abstraction and Reasoning Corpus (ARC) [Chollet, 2019]

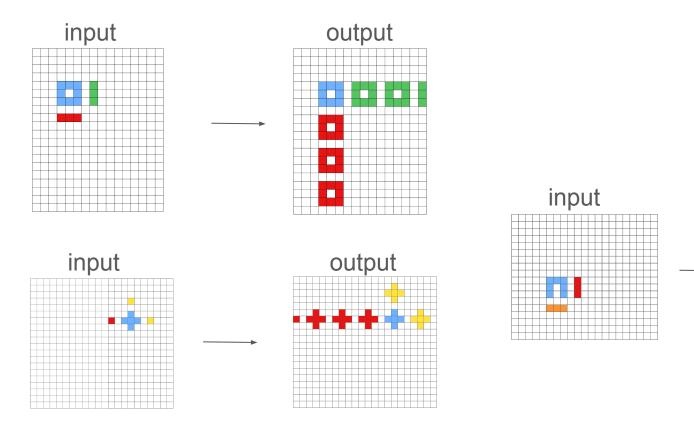


Abstraction and Reasoning Corpus (ARC) [Chollet, 2019]

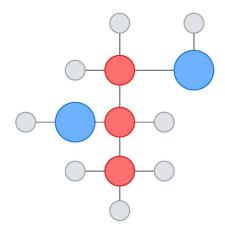


output

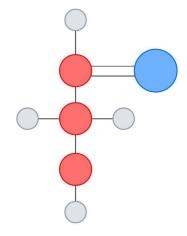
Abstraction and Reasoning Corpus (ARC) [Chollet, 2019]



Drug design



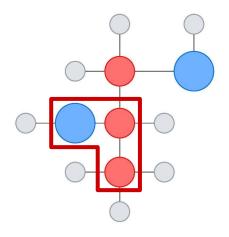
active molecule



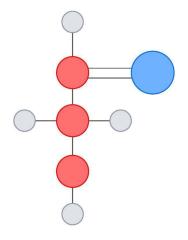
inactive molecule



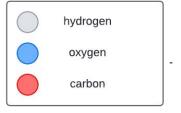
Drug design



active molecule



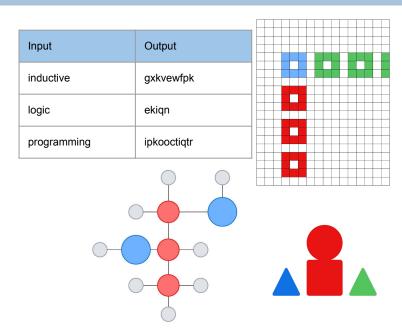
inactive molecule



A molecule is active if it contains an oxygen atom bonded to a carbon atom, which is bonded to another carbon atom, by single bonds.

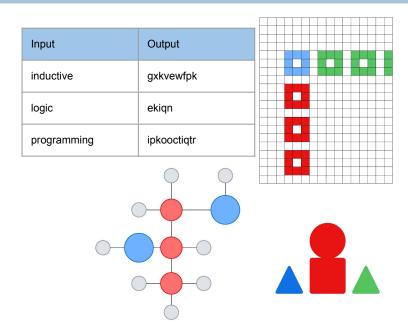
Let's use machine learning to solve these problems!

What do we need?



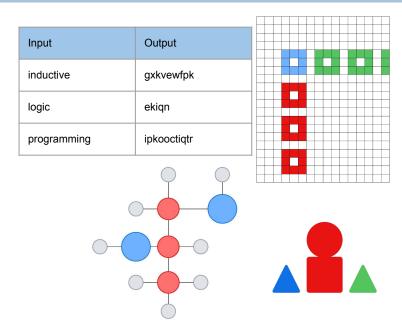
What do we need?

- learn from small amount of data



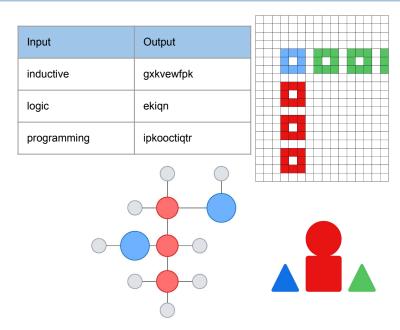
What do we need?

- learn from small amount of data
- learn interpretable programs



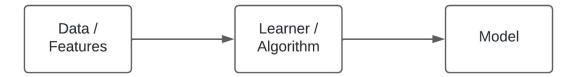
What do we need?

- learn from small amount of data
- learn interpretable programs
- learn from relational data



Data / Features





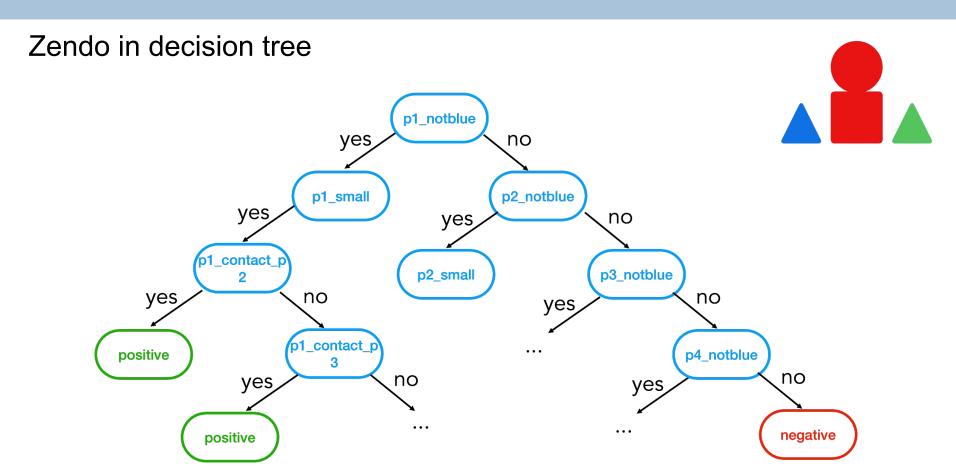


Features:

 blue green red notblue notgreen notred round square triangle rectangle small medium large contact_piece1 contact_piece2 contact_piece3 contact_piece4



	red	green	blue	triangle	rectangle	square	circle	contact_p1	contact_p2	contact_p3	contact_p4	small	medium	large
piece1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
piece2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
piece3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
piece4	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0



Machine Learning

Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr

Features:

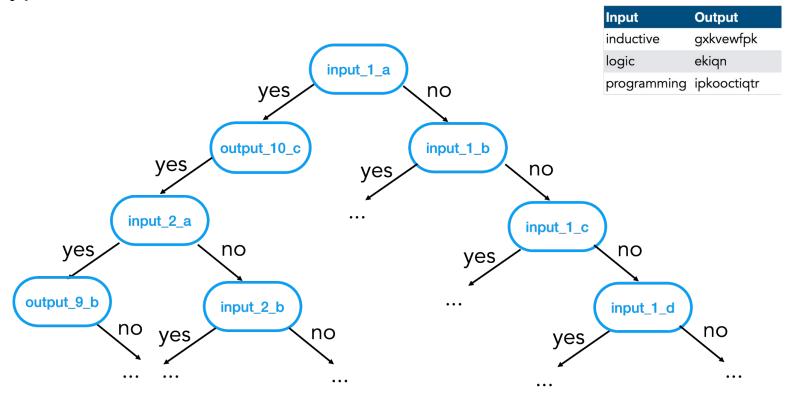
- input_1_a input_1_b input_1_c ...
- input_2_a input_3_b input_2_c ...
- input_3_a input_3_b input_3_c ...

Machine Learning

Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr

	input_1_a	input_1_b	input_1_c	input_1_i	input_1_j	input_1_k	input_1_I	input_1_m	input_1_p
inductive	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
logic	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
programming	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

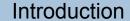
Encryption in decision tree



Requirements:

- learn from small amount of data
- learn interpretable programs
- learn from relational data

These requirements are difficult for existing ML approaches.



In this presentation: an introduction to Inductive Logic Programming

- 1 Introduction
- 2 What is ILP?
- 3 Representation language
- 4 Search techniques in ILP
- 5 ILP features
- 6 Case study: Popper
- 7 Conclusion

More technical details

Inductive Logic Programming At 30: A New Introduction

Andrew Cropper Andrew.cropper@cs.ox.ac.uk

University of Oxford

Sebastijan Dumančić s.dumancic@tudelft.nl

TU Delft

Abstract

Inductive logic programming (ILP) is a form of machine learning. The goal of ILP is to induce a hypothesis (a set of logical rules) that generalises training examples. As ILP turns 30, we provide a new introduction to the field. We introduce the necessary logical notation and the main learning settings; describe the building blocks of an ILP system; compare several systems on several dimensions; describe four systems (Aleph, TILDE, ASPAL, and Metagol); highlight key application areas; and, finally, summarise current limitations and directions for future research.

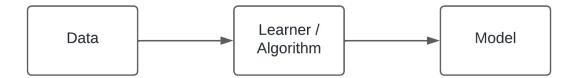
What is Inductive Logic Programming?

What is ILP?

ILP is a form of Machine Learning

Inductive Logic Programming (ILP)

$$ILP = ML + logic$$

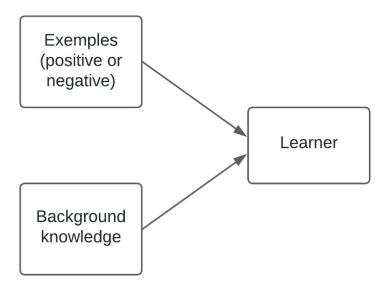


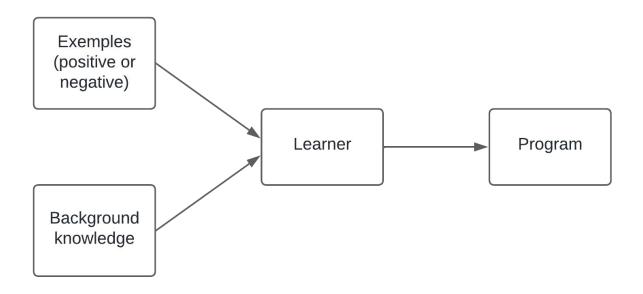
Inductive Logic Programming (ILP)

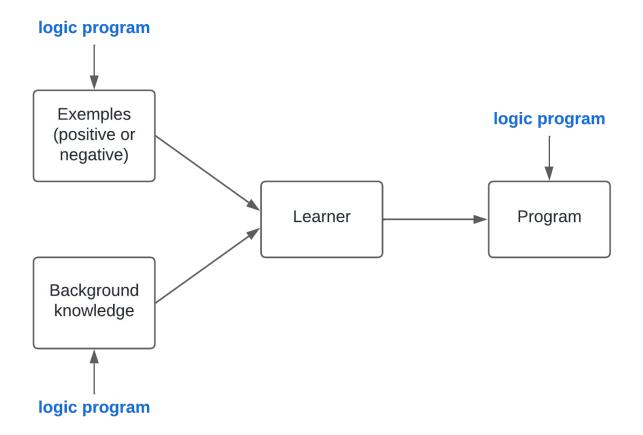
Exemples (positive or negative)

Exemples (positive or negative)

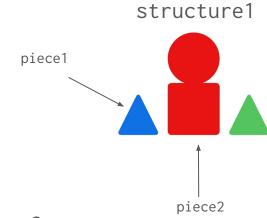
Background knowledge







Logic



constants:

structure1, piece1, piece2, ...

Logic



variables:

Structure, Piece, A, B, C, ...

Logic



predicates:

blue/1, red/1, contact/2, distance/3, ...

Logic



atoms:

```
blue(piece1)
red(piece2)
triangle(Piece)
contact(Piece, piece2)
distance(A, B, 1)
```

Logic



literal:

```
blue(piece1)
    red(Piece)
triangle(piece2)
    contact(Piece, piece2)
distance(A, B, 1)
...
```

Logic



a clause:

b1, ..., bn → h1, ..., hn.

Logic



a clause:

∀ Piece, blue(Piece), triangle(Piece) → good_piece(Piece).

Logic



a clause:

∀ Piece, blue(Piece), triangle(Piece) → good_piece(Piece).

if this side is true

then this side is true

Logic



a clause:

blue(Piece), triangle(Piece) → good_piece(Piece).

Logic



a clause:

 $good_piece(Piece) \leftarrow blue(Piece), triangle(Piece).$

Logic



a program:

```
good_piece(Piece) \leftarrow blue(Piece), triangle(Piece).
good_piece(Piece) \leftarrow red(Piece), square(Piece).
```

Logic



```
blue(piece1).
good_piece(Piece) ← blue(Piece).
```

Logic



```
blue(piece1).
good_piece(Piece) ← blue(Piece).
good_piece(piece1).
```

Logic



A: blue(piece1).

B: good_piece(Piece) ← blue(Piece).

C: good_piece(piece1).

Logic programming

programming paradigm based on logic

```
blue(p1).
red(p2).
contact(p1,p2).
contact(p3,p4).

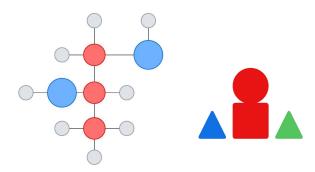
[?- contact(p1,p2).
true.
[?- contact(p1,p3).
false.
[?- contact(p1,A).
A = p2.
```

Why logic programs?

- relational

```
edge(bond_street, oxford_circus).
single_bond(atom1, atom2).
on_top(piece2, piece3).
aligned(piece1, piece3, piece4).
```





Why logic programs?

- relational
- declarative

```
good_piece(Piece) ←
    blue(Piece),
    triangle(Piece),
    contact(Piece,Piece1),
    red(Piece1),
    square(Piece1).

can execute in any order
if any literal fails, the whole rule fails
```

Why logic programs?

- relational
- declarative

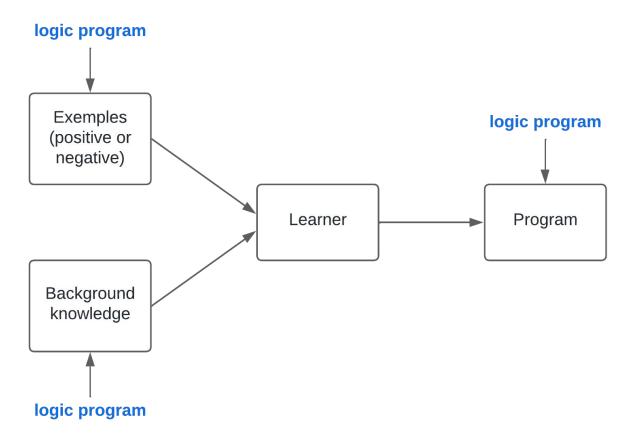
```
good_piece(Piece) ←
    blue(Piece),
    triangle(Piece),
    contact(Piece,Piece1),
    red(Piece1),
    square(Piece1).
good_piece(Piece) ←
    green(Piece),
    round(Piece).
```

if any rule succeeds, the program succeeds

Why logic programs?

- relational
- declarative
- interpretable

```
good_piece(Piece) ←
    blue(Piece),
    triangle(Piece),
    contact(Piece,Piece1),
    red(Piece1),
    square(Piece1).
good_piece(Piece) ←
    green(Piece),
    round(Piece).
```



Inductive Logic Programming (ILP) Learning from entailment

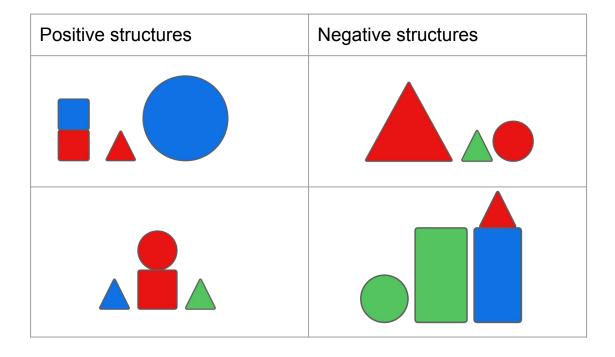
Given:

- positive examples E⁺
- negative examples E⁻
- background knowledge B

Find:

- H such that:
 - ∀e∈E+, B∪H ⊨ e
 - ∀e∈E⁻, BUH ⊭ e

Let's use ILP on our problems!





```
% positive examples
pos(zendo(structure1)).
pos(zendo(structure2)).
```





```
% positive examples
pos(zendo(structure1)).
pos(zendo(structure2)).
```

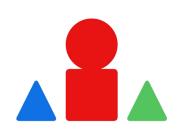
```
% negative examples
neg(zendo(structure3)).
neg(zendo(structure4)).
```



```
% positive examples
                                 % background knowledge
pos(zendo(structure1)).
                                 piece(structure1, piece1).
pos(zendo(structure2)).
                                 piece(structure1, piece2).
                                 piece(structure1, piece3).
                                 piece(structure1, piece4).
                                 blue(piece1).
% negative examples
                                 red(piece2).
neg(zendo(structure3)).
                                 red(piece3).
neg(zendo(structure4)).
                                 blue(piece4).
                                 square(piece1).
                                 square(piece1).
                                 triangle(piece1).
                                 round(piece1).
                                 small(piece2).
```

contact(p1,p2).

•••



```
% positive examples
pos(zendo(structure1)).
pos(zendo(structure2)).
```

% negative examples
neg(zendo(structure3)).
neg(zendo(structure4)).

```
% background knowledge
piece(structure1, piece1).
piece(structure1, piece2).
piece(structure1, piece3).
piece(structure1, piece4).
blue(piece1).
red(piece2).
red(piece3).
blue(piece4).
square(piece1).
square(piece1).
triangle(piece1).
round(piece1).
small(piece2).
contact(p1,p2).
•••
```

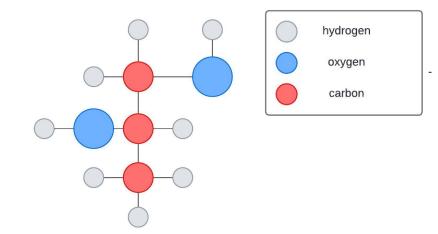


Learned program:

```
zendo(A) :-
   piece(A,C),
   contact(C,B),
   small(B),
   not_blue(B).
```

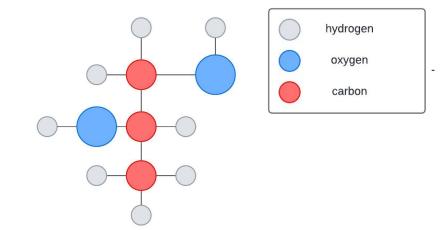


% positive examples
pos(active(molecule1)).





```
% positive examples
pos(active(molecule1)).
% negative examples
neg(active(molecule2))
```

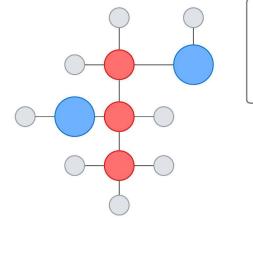




```
% positive examples
pos(active(molecule1)).
```

% negative examples
neg(active(molecule2))

```
% background knowledge
atom(molecule1, atom1).
atom(molecule1, atom2).
atom(molecule1, atom3).
atom(molecule1, atom4).
hydrogen(atom1).
hydrogen(atom1).
oxygen(atom3).
carbon(atom4).
bond(atom1, atom3, single).
bond(atom3, atom4, single).
bond(A,B,C) :- bond(B,A,C).
```

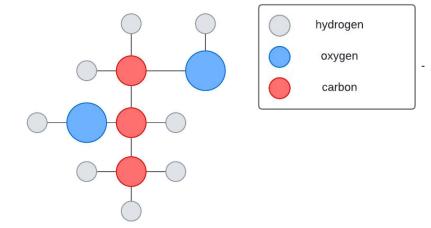




```
% positive examples
pos(active(molecule1)).
```

% negative examples
neg(active(molecule2))

```
% background knowledge
atom(molecule1, atom1).
atom(molecule1, atom2).
atom(molecule1, atom3).
atom(molecule1, atom4).
hydrogen(atom1).
hydrogen(atom2).
oxygen(atom3).
carbon(atom4).
bond(atom1, atom3, single).
bond(atom3, atom4, single).
bond(A,B,C) :- bond(B,A,C).
```



```
% Learned program
active(Molecule) :-
    atom(Molecule,Atom1),
    oxygen(Atom1),
    atom(Molecule,Atom2),
    carbon(Atom2),
    atom(Molecule,Atom3),
    carbon(Atom3),
    bond(Atom1, Atom2, single),
    bond(Atom2, Atom3, single).
```

Inductive Logic Programming (ILP)

- generalise from a small amount of data

Inductive Logic Programming (ILP)

- generalise from a small amount of data
- learn interpretable programs

Inductive Logic Programming (ILP)

- generalise from a small amount of data
- learn interpretable programs
- learn from relational data

Questions?

Representation language

- propositional logic

	red	green	blue	triangle	rectangle	square	circle	contact_p1	contact_p2	contact_p3	contact_p4	small	medium	large
piece1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
piece2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
piece3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
piece4	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

- propositional logic

good_structure :- piece1_small, piece1_notblue, contact_piece1_piece2.

- propositional logic
 - limited expressivity (same as DT learners)
 - not relational
 - no recursion

- first-order logic: intractable

```
\forall A \exists B \forall C \text{ contact}(A,B), \text{ green}(B), \text{ left}(A,C), \text{ blue}(C) \rightarrow \text{small}(A) \Box \neg \text{ right}(A,B)
```

- Horn logic: at most one positive literal
 - SLD-resolution
 - Turing complete

```
contact(A,B), green(B), left(A,C), blue(C) \rightarrow good_piece(A)
```

- Prolog

Advantages:

- Turing-complete
- list and complex data structure
- numerical reasoning

Disadvantage:

- not guaranteed to terminate

 Datalog: definite programs without functional symbols and minor syntactic restrictions

Advantages:

- guaranteed to terminate
- sufficient for most problems

Disadvantage:

not Turing complete (no function symbols)

- monotonic vs non-monotonic logic

A logic is monotonic when adding knowledge to it does not reduce the logical consequences of that theory.

A logic is non-monotonic if some conclusions can be invalidated by adding more knowledge.

```
blue(piece1).
good_piece(Piece) :- blue(Piece).
has consequences:
blue(piece1).
good_piece(piece1).
```

```
blue(piece1).
good_piece(Piece) :- blue(Piece).
good_piece(Piece) :- red(Piece).
has consequences:
blue(piece1).
good_piece(piece1).
```

Most non-monotonic programs use negation-as-failure (NAF) (Clark, 1977).

An atom is false if it cannot be proven true.

```
blue(piece1).
good_piece(Piece) :- blue(Piece), not small(Piece).
has consequences:
blue(piece1).
good_piece(piece1).
```

```
blue(piece1).
small(piece1).
good_piece(Piece) :- blue(Piece), not small(Piece).
has consequences:
blue(piece1).
```

Search techniques in ILP

How does ILP work?

The goal of ILP is to identify a program which correctly generalises the training examples among a search space.

What is the search space?

The search space is the set of all programs that may be output by the learner.

What is the search space?

The search space is defined by the *inductive bias*:

- syntactic bias
- semantic bias

Syntactic bias: Mode declarations

```
modeh(*,zendo(+structure)).
modeb(*,piece(+structure,-piece)).
modeb(*,blue(+piece)).
modeb(*,contact(+piece,+piece)).
```

X

Mode declarations

```
modeh(*,zendo(+structure)).
modeb(*,piece(+structure,-piece)).
modeb(*,blue(+piece)).
modeb(*,contact(+piece,+piece)).
```

```
zendo(Structure) :-
   piece(Structure,Piece),
   green(Piece)
```

Meta-rules

Specify the form of rules in programs

Meta-rules

Specify the form of rules in programs

$$P(A,B) := Q(A,C), R(C,B)$$

Search techniques in ILP

Meta-rules

Construction Earlier Search State Search State S

Specify the form of rules in programs

P(A,B) := Q(A,C), R(C,B)

reachable(Node1,Node2) : edge(Node1,Node3),
 edge(Node3,Node2).

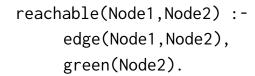


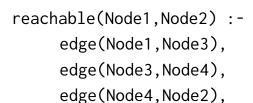
Search techniques in ILP

Meta-rules

Specify the form of rules in programs













What is the search space?

Choosing an appropriate inductive bias is essential!

too strong: we might exclude solutions, difficult to provide too weak: large search space

How do we search the search space?

Generality ordering over the search space

Subsumption

```
C1 = zendo(U) < piece(U,V), green(V)
C2 = zendo(A) < piece(A,B), green(B), small(B)</pre>
```

Subsumption

```
C1 = zendo(U) 	ilder piece(U,V), green(V)

C2 = zendo(A) 	ilder piece(A,B), green(B), small(B)

C1 = {zendo(U), ¬piece(U,V),¬ green(V)}

C2 = {zendo(A), ¬piece(A,B), ¬green(B),¬small(B)}
```

Subsumption

```
C1 = zendo(U) \leftarrow piece(U,V), green(V)
C2 = zendo(A) \leftarrow piece(A,B), green(B), small(B)
C1 = \{zendo(U), \neg piece(U,V), \neg green(V)\}
C2 = {zendo(A), \neg piece(A,B), \neg green(B), \neg small(B)}
\theta = \{A/U, B/V\}
\{zendo(U), \neg piece(U,V), \neg green(V)\} \theta \subseteq \{zendo(A), \neg piece(A,B), \neg green(B), \neg small(B)\}
```

Subsumption

```
C1 = zendo(U) \leftarrow piece(U,V), green(V)
C2 = zendo(A) \leftarrow piece(A,B), green(B), small(B)
C1 = \{zendo(U), \neg piece(U,V), \neg green(V)\}
C2 = {zendo(A), \neg piece(A,B), \neg green(B), \neg small(B)}
\theta = \{A/U, B/V\}
\{zendo(U), \neg piece(U,V), \neg green(V)\} \theta \subseteq \{zendo(A), \neg piece(A,B), \neg green(B), \neg small(B)\}
```

C1 subsumes C2

Search techniques in ILP

C2 is more specific than C1 if C1 subsumes C2

```
C1 = zendo(Structure) :- piece(Structure, Piece), green(Piece)
```

C2 = zendo(Structure) :- piece(Structure, Piece), green(Piece), size(Piece, Size), small(Size)

C2 is more specific than C1: C2 entails fewer examples than C1

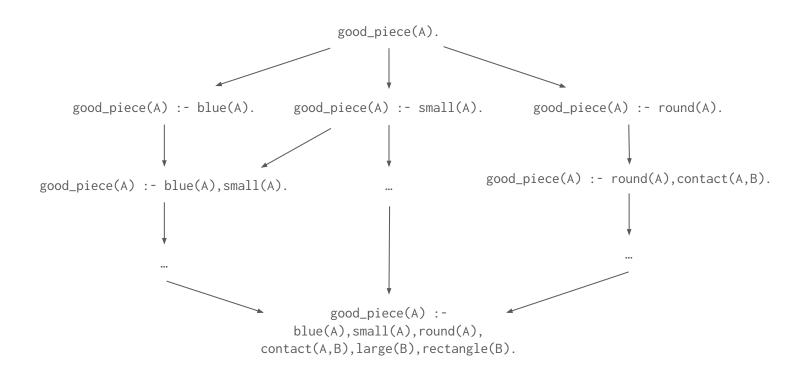
C2 is more general than C1 if C2 subsumes C1

```
C1 = zendo(Structure) :- piece(Structure,Piece), green(Piece)

C2 = zendo(Structure) :- piece(Structure,Piece), green(Piece).
zendo(Structure) :- piece(Structure,Piece1), contact(Piece1,Piece2), blue(Piece2)
```

C2 is more general than C1: C2 entails more examples than C1

Subsumption lattice



Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

1. find a rule which covers some positive examples, by using heuristics to guide the search.

Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

1. find a rule which covers some positive examples, by using heuristics to guide the search.

```
good_piece(A) :- blue(A)
```

Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

1. find a rule which covers some positive examples, by using heuristics to guide the search.

```
good_piece(A) :- blue(A), small(A)
```

Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

 find a rule which covers some positive examples, by using heuristics to guide the search.

```
good_piece(A) :- blue(A), small(A), number_contact(A,X)
```

Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

 find a rule which covers some positive examples, by using heuristics to guide the search.

```
good_piece(A) :- blue(A), small(A), number_contact(A,X), X>3.
```

no information gain but needed!

Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

- 1. find a rule which covers some positive examples, by using heuristics to guide the search.
- 2. repeat step 1 on the uncovered positive examples

Start with a general hypothesis and iteratively specialise it

Advantages:

- recursion

Disadvantages:

- inefficient
- not optimal

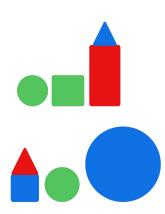
Start with a specific hypothesis and iteratively generalise it

Start with a specific hypothesis and iteratively generalise it

```
good_piece(A) :-
piece(A,B),green(B),small(B),round(B),piece(A,C),square(C),green(C),
piece(A,D), rectangle(D), large(D), red(D), piece(A,E), triangle(E),...
```

```
good_piece(A) :-
piece(A,B), square(B), small(B), blue(B), piece(A,C), triangle(C), red(C),
piece(A,D),round(D),large(D),blue(D),piece(A,E),round(E),...
```

Start with a specific hypothesis and iteratively generalise it



```
good_piece(A) :-
piece(A,B),green(B),small(B),round(B),piece(A,C),square(C),piece(A,D)
,blue(A,D)
```

Start with a specific hypothesis and iteratively generalise it

Advantages:

- fast

Disadvantages:

- optimality
- recursion
- predicate invention

Search techniques in ILP

Bidirectional search

bottom-up + top-down

Bidirectional search

bottom-up + top-down

- 1. Bottom-up: find the most specific rule R for each positive example
- 2. Top-down: search the generalisations of R

Bidirectional search

bottom-up + top-down

- 1. Bottom-up: find the most specific rule R for each positive example
- Top-down: search the generalisations of R

Advantages:

- fast
- large programs

Bidirectional search

bottom-up + top-down

- 1. Bottom-up: find the most specific rule R for each positive example
- Top-down: search the generalisations of R

Advantages:

- fast
- large programs

Disadvantages:

- overfitting
- recursion
- predicate invention

Search all over

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Delegate the search to a solver (SAT / ASP / SMT)

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Advantages:

- recursion
- optimality
- completeness

Search all over

Delegate the search to a solver (SAT / ASP / SMT)

Advantages:

- recursion
- optimality
- completeness

Disadvantages:

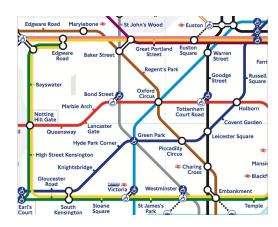
- small domains

Questions?

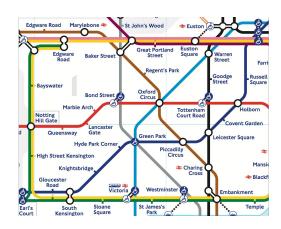
ILP Features

Recursion

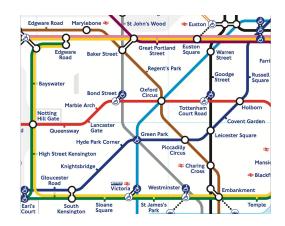
 $connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,B).$



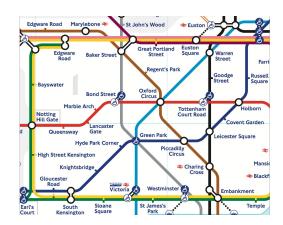
```
\begin{aligned} & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,B). \end{aligned}
```



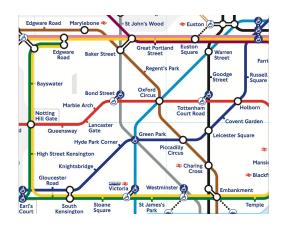
```
\begin{split} & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,D), edge(D,B). \end{split}
```



```
\begin{split} & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,D), edge(D,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,D), edge(D,E), edge(E,B). \end{split}
```

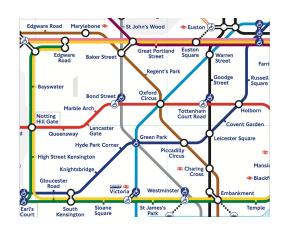


```
\begin{split} & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,D), edge(D,B). \\ & connected(A,B) \longleftarrow edge(A,C), edge(C,D), edge(D,E), edge(E,B). \end{split}
```



- Cannot generalise to arbitrary depth
- Difficult to learn because of its size

```
connected(A,B) \leftarrow edge(A,B).
connected(A,B) \leftarrow edge(A,C),connected(C,B).
```



- · Generalises to any size
- Smaller and therefore easier to learn (needs fewer examples)

Predicate Invention

Automatically invent new symbols

Predicate Invention

Automatically invent new symbols

- 1 write shorter programs
- 2 express new concepts

Predicate Invention: write shorter programs

greatgrandparent(A,B):- mother(A,C),mother(C,D),mother(D,B).

```
greatgrandparent(A,B):- mother(A,C),mother(C,D),mother(D,B).
greatgrandparent(A,B):- mother(A,C),mother(C,D),father(D,B).
```

```
greatgrandparent(A,B):- mother(A,C),mother(C,D),mother(D,B).
greatgrandparent(A,B):- mother(A,C),mother(C,D),father(D,B).
greatgrandparent(A,B):- mother(A,C),father(C,D),mother(D,B).
greatgrandparent(A,B):- father(A,C),father(C,D),father(D,B).
greatgrandparent(A,B):- father(A,C),father(C,D),mother(D,B).
greatgrandparent(A,B):- father(A,C),mother(C,D),father(D,B).
greatgrandparent(A,B):- father(A,C),mother(C,D),mother(D,B).
```

- Difficult to learn because of its size
- Needs many examples

```
greatgrandparent(A,B):- inv(A,C),inv(C,D),inv(D,B).
inv(A,B):- mother(A,B).
inv(A,B):- father(A,B).
```

```
greatgrandparent(A,B):- inv(A,C),inv(C,D),inv(D,B).
inv(A,B):- mother(A,B).
inv(A,B):- father(A,B).

parent relation
```

```
greatgrandparent(A,B):- inv(A,C),inv(C,D),inv(D,B).
inv(A,B):- mother(A,B).
inv(A,B):- father(A,B).
```

- Shorter and therefore easier to learn
- Needs fewer examples

Predicate Invention: express new concepts

Find the maximum value of a list and add it to every element

Predicate Invention: express new concepts

Find the maximum value of a list and add it to every element

```
f(A,B):- inv1(A,Max), ...
inv1(A,B):- head(A,B), empty(B).
inv1(A,B):- head(A,B), inv1(A,C), B>C.
inv1(A,B):- head(A,C), inv1(A,B), B=<D.</pre>
```

Predicate Invention: express new concepts

Find the maximum value of a list and add it to every element

```
f(A,B):- inv1(A,Max), inv2(A,Max,B).
inv1(A,B):- head(A,B), empty(B).
inv1(A,B):- head(A,B), inv1(A,C), B>C.
inv1(A,B):- head(A,C), inv1(A,B), B=<D.
inv2(A,Max,B):- empty(A), empty(B).
inv2(A,Max,B):- head(A,H1), add(H1,Max,H2), tail(A,T1), head(B,H2), inv2(T1,Max,T2), tail(B,T2).</pre>
```

higher-order relation: a relation which takes another relation as argument eg: fold, map, filter, count

Input	Output
logic	LOGIC
program	PROGRAM
learning	LEARNING

Input	Output
logic	LOGIC
program	PROGRAM
learning	LEARNING

First-order program:

```
\label{eq:map_uppercase} \begin{split} \mathsf{map\_uppercase}(\mathsf{A},\mathsf{B}) &\leftarrow \mathsf{empty}(\mathsf{A}), \mathsf{empty}(\mathsf{B}). \\ \mathsf{map\_uppercase}(\mathsf{A},\mathsf{B}) &\leftarrow \mathsf{head}(\mathsf{A},\mathsf{C}), \mathsf{uppercase}(\mathsf{C},\mathsf{D}), \mathsf{tail}(\mathsf{A},\mathsf{E}), \mathsf{map\_uppercase}(\mathsf{E},\mathsf{F}), \mathsf{head}(\mathsf{B},\mathsf{D}), \mathsf{tail}(\mathsf{B},\mathsf{F}). \end{split}
```

Input	Output
logic	LOGIC
program	PROGRAM
learning	LEARNING

Second-order program:

 $map_uppercase(A,B) \leftarrow map(A,B,uppercase).$

Input	Output
logic	LOGIC
program	PROGRAM
learning	LEARNING

Second-order program:

 $map_uppercase(A,B) \leftarrow map(A,B,uppercase).$

- Shorter and therefore easier to learn
- Needs fewer examples to learn it

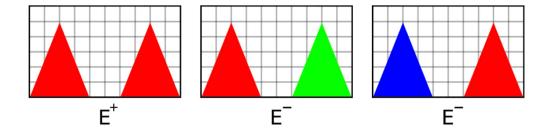
Higher-order programs + invention

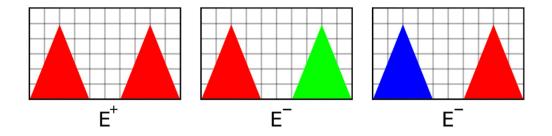
Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr

Higher-order programs + invention

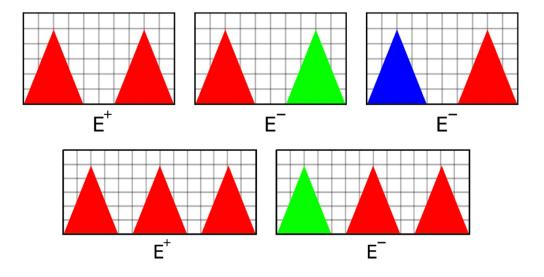
Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr

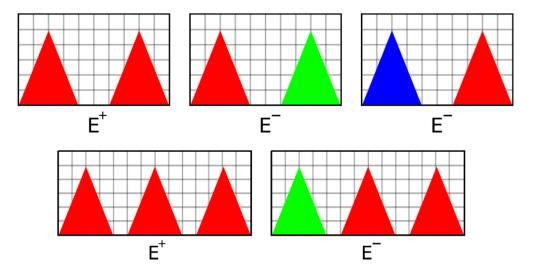
```
str_transformation(Input,Output) 
    map(inv_1,Input,String),
    reverse(String,Output).
inv_1(InputChar, OuputChar) 
    ord(InputChar,Number1),
    succ(Number1,Number2),
    succ(Number1,Number2),
    chr(Number2,OutputChar).
```





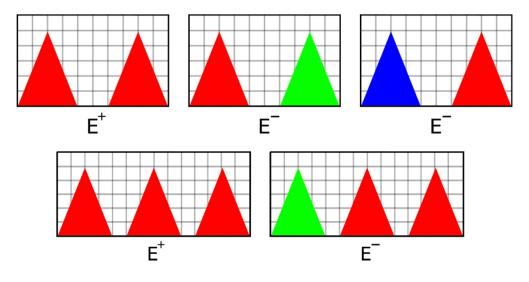
zendo(A) :- cone(A,C1), red(C1), cone(C2), red(C2), all_diff(C1,C2).





```
zendo(A) := cone(A,C1), red(C1), cone(C2), red(C2), all_diff(C1,C2).

zendo(A) := cone(A,C1), red(C1), cone(C2), red(C2), cone(C3), red(C3), all_diff(C1,C2,C3).
```



zendo(A) :- not inv_1(A). inv_1(A) :- cone(A), not red(A).

all the cones are red

Learning optimal programs: textually minimal programs

```
zendo(A) \leftarrow count(A,blue,2).

zendo(A) \leftarrow count(A,blue,4).

zendo(A) \leftarrow count(A,blue,6).

zendo(A) \leftarrow count(A,blue,8).

...
```

Learning optimal programs: textually minimal programs

 $zendo(A) \leftarrow count(A,blue,B), even(B).$

Learning optimal programs: textually minimal programs

 $zendo(A) \leftarrow count(A, blue, B), even(B).$

- easier to interpret
- not necessarily better generalisation over unseen data!

Input	Output
sheep	е
alpaca	а
chicken	?

Input	Output
sheep	е
alpaca	а
chicken	С

Input	Output
sheep	е
alpaca	а
chicken	С

```
f(A,B):- head(A,B),tail(A,C),element(C,B).
f(A,B):- tail(A,C),f(C,B).
```

Input	Output
sheep	е
alpaca	а
chicken	С

```
f(A,B):- head(A,B),tail(A,C),element(C,B).

f(A,B):- tail(A,C),f(C,B).

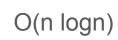
O(n^2)
```

Input	Output
sheep	е
alpaca	а
chicken	С

```
f(A,B):- mergesort(A,C),inv1(C,B).
inv1(A,B):- head(A,B),tail(A,C),head(C,B).
inv1(A,B):- tail(A,C),inv1(C,B).
```

Input	Output
sheep	е
alpaca	а
chicken	С

```
f(A,B):- mergesort(A,C),inv1(C,B).
inv1(A,B):- head(A,B),tail(A,C),head(C,B).
inv1(A,B):- tail(A,C),inv1(C,B).
```



Noisy data

- Noisy examples
- Noisy BK

Most ILP systems support noisy examples

Most ILP systems support noisy examples:

- sequential covering approaches

Most ILP systems support noisy examples:

- sequential covering approaches
- divide-and-conquer approaches

Most ILP systems support noisy examples:

- sequential covering approaches
- divide-and-conquer approaches
- meta-level approaches

Noisy data: noisy examples with meta-level approaches

Relax the ILP solution definition Leverage solver optimisations approaches to find a program with the best coverage

Noisy data: noisy examples with meta-level approaches

Relax the ILP solution definition Leverage solver optimisations approaches to find a program with the best coverage

Which cost function?

Noisy data: noisy examples

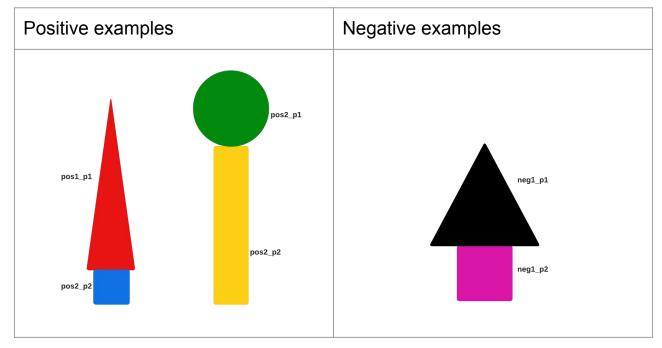
Minimal description length: trade-off model complexity and the fit with the data

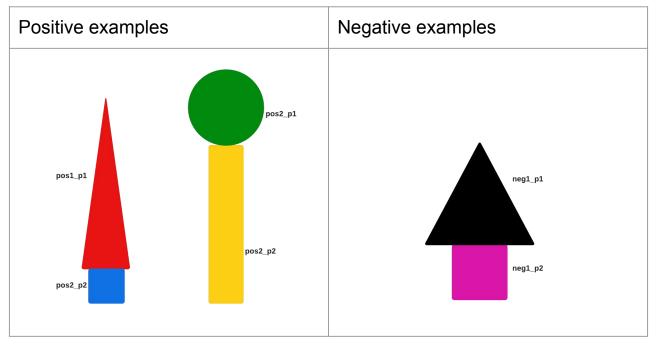
Noisy data: noisy examples

Minimal description length: trade-off model complexity and the fit with the data mdl(p) = fp(p) + fn(p) + size(p)

Noisy data: noisy BK

Difficult for current ILP systems!





 $zendo(A) \leftarrow piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,7).$

Challenges:

- infinite domains

Challenges:

- infinite domains

```
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c1(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c2(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c3(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c4(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c5(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c6(E).
...
```

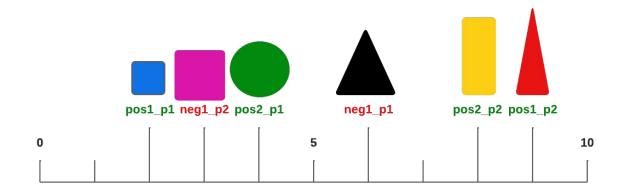
Challenges:

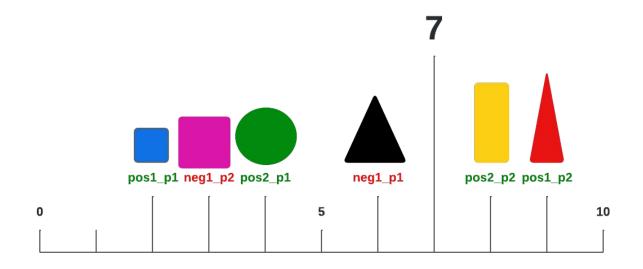
infinite domains

```
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c1(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c2(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c3(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c4(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c5(E).
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,E),c6(E).
...
zendo(A)  piece(A,B),contact(B,C),size(C,D),geq(D,Var),constant(Var)
```

Challenges:

- infinite domains
- numerical reasoning considering all of the examples





```
pharma(A):- zinc(A,B), hacc(A,C), dist(A,B,C,D), leq(D,4.18), geq(D,2.22). pharma(A):- hacc(A,C), hacc(A,E), dist(A,B,C,D), geq(D,1.23), leq(D,3.41). pharma(A):- zinc(A,C), zinc(A,B), bond(B,C,du), dist(A,B,C,D), leq(D,1.23).
```

Comprehensibility

Logic programs are relatively comprehensible

Features

Comprehensibility

Logic programs are relatively comprehensible

Comprehensibility is affected by:

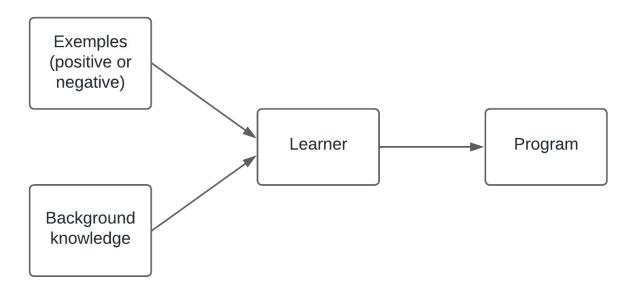
- textual complexity
- predicate invention
- execution complexity

How does predicate invention affect human comprehensibility? Ute Schmid, Christina Zeller, Tarek Besold, Alireza Tamaddoni-Nezhad, and Stephen Muggleton. Inductive Logic Programming, p. 52–67.

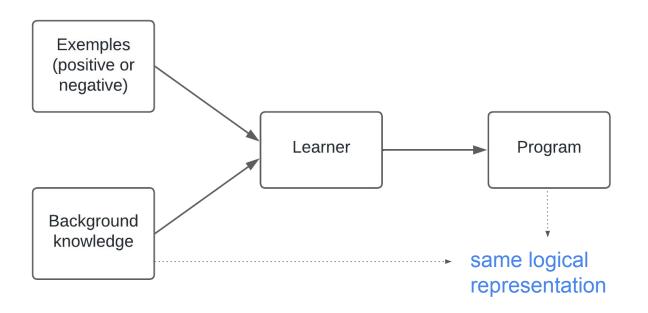
Beneficial and harmful explanatory machine learning, Lun Ai, Stephen Muggleton, Céline Hocquette, Mark Gromowski, and Ute Schmid, Machine Learning, 2021

continuously learn through time

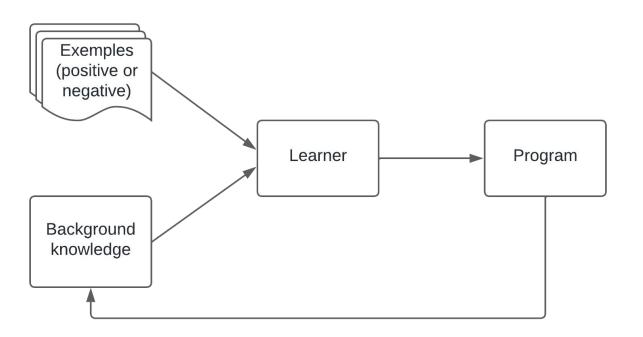
Inductive Logic Programming (ILP) Single task



Inductive Logic Programming (ILP)



Lifelong learning: multiple tasks



Task 1

Input	Output
kutaisi	isiatuk
university	ytisrevinu

Task 1

Input	Output
kutaisi	isiatuk
university	ytisrevinu

```
reverse(A,B) \leftarrow empty(A),empty(B).
reverse(A,B) \leftarrow head(A,C),tail(A,D),reverse(D,E),append(E,C,B).
```

Task 2

Input	Output
kutaisi	isiatuk
university	ytisrevinu

Task 2

Input	Output
georgia	igqtikc
international	kpvgtpcvkqpcn

```
add2(A,B) \leftarrow map(inv1,A,B)
inv1(A,B) \leftarrow succ(A,C), succ(C,B).
```

Task 3

Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr

Task 3

Input	Output
inductive	gxkvewfpk
logic	ekiqn
programming	ipkooctiqtr

 $str_transformation(Input,Output) \leftarrow add2(Input,String), reverse(String,Output).$

Limitation: the size of the search space is polynomial into the number of relations in the BK.

Saving too much BK can degrade learning performance.