Stochastic Answer Set Programming A Research Program

Francisco Coelho

NOVA LINCS High Performance Computing Chair Departamento de Informática, Universidade de Évora

December 11, 2023

This is a join work with Salvador Abreu@DInf and Bruno Dinis@DMat.

In Short

- About Machine Learning:
 - Vector or matrix based models lack "structure".
 - Large models don't *explain* data.
- About Logic Programs:
 - Logic programs formalize knowledge.
 - Logic doesn't *capture* uncertainty and is *fragile* to noise.
- **Probabilistic Logic Programs** extend formal knowledge with probabilities.
 - How to propagate probabilities through rules?

Goal: Combine Logic and Statistics.

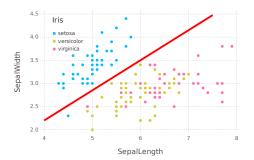
Machine Learning

- Standard Example Iris Classification
- Assumptions of Machine Learning
- Where Machine Learning Fails

The Standard Example — Iris Classification

Learning Functions: The famous Iris database

- x_1 sepal length.
- x₂ sepal width.
- x₃ petal length.
- x₄ petal width.
- y species (one of setosa, versicolor, virginica).

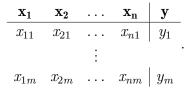


- A setosa model: $-0.40 0.65x_1 + 1.00x_2 > 0.00$.
- A general model template:

 $f_{\theta}(\vec{x}) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \theta_3 x_3 + \theta_4 x_4 > 0$

Assumptions of Machine Learning

• Each instance is described in a single row by a fixed set of features



Instances are independent of one another, given the model

$$y = f_{\theta}(\vec{x}).$$

• Parameters minimize estimation error e.g.

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta} \sum_{i} \left\| y_i - f_{\theta}(\vec{x_i}) \right\|.$$

Failing Assumptions

1/2

student	course	grade
s_1	c_1	a
s_2	c_1	c
s_1	c_2	b
s_2	C_3	b
s_3	c_2	b
s_4	C_3	b
s_3	c_4	X
s_4	c_4	Y

Infer $X \succ_g Y$.

"Proof."

 $s_1 \succ_s s_2 \text{ (rows 1 \& 2)}$ so $c_2 \succ_c c_3 \text{ (3 \& 4)}.$

Then $s_3 \succ_s s_4$ (5 & 6) therefore $X \succ_g Y \square$.

- Instances are not independent.
- Small dataset, so no statistics.

Failing Assumptions

Prompt: Given f(machine) = e, f(learning) = g and f(algorithm) = m, what is the value of f(ksadbf)?

input	output
machine	e
learning	g
algorithm	m
ksadbf	?

Bard: f(ksadbf) = 11. We can see that the value of f(x) is simply the first letter of x minus 96. **ChatGPT:** The information provided seems to define a function f where certain inputs are associated with specific outputs. Based on the given information:

- f(machine) = e
- f(learning) = g
- f(algorithm) = m

However, there is no information given about f(ksadbf). Without additional information or a specific rule that determines the output for f(ksadbf), it is not possible to determine its value. If there is a pattern or rule for how the outputs are assigned based on the inputs, you would need to provide that information for me to help determine the value of f(ksadbf).

No help from state-of-the-art Natural Language Processing or LLMs.

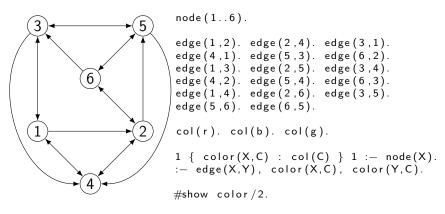
Where Machine Learning Fails

- No *interpretability*: large models (dim θ ~ millions) are not understandable by humans.
- Need for *large number of training* examples.
- Unfit for *multiple relations*, *intersample dependencies* and *variable features*: The *Students, Courses and Results* and *Last Letter* examples.
- Poor *generalization*: A model trained in the iris dataset is useless in any other domain.
- No use of background knowledge.

Logic Programming

- An Example of Logic Programming.
- Inductive Logic Programming.
- Where ILP Fails.

An Example of Logic Programming



 $\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{color}(2,b) \ \operatorname{color}(1,g) \ \operatorname{color}(4,r) \ \operatorname{color}(3,b) \ \operatorname{color}(5,g) \ \operatorname{color}(6,r) \\ \operatorname{color}(1,r) \ \operatorname{color}(2,b) \ \operatorname{color}(4,g) \ \operatorname{color}(3,b) \ \operatorname{color}(5,r) \ \operatorname{color}(6,g) \\ \operatorname{color}(1,r) \ \operatorname{color}(2,g) \ \operatorname{color}(4,b) \ \operatorname{color}(3,g) \ \operatorname{color}(5,r) \ \operatorname{color}(6,b) \\ \operatorname{color}(1,b) \ \operatorname{color}(2,g) \ \operatorname{color}(4,r) \ \operatorname{color}(3,g) \ \operatorname{color}(5,b) \ \operatorname{color}(6,r) \\ \operatorname{color}(2,r) \ \operatorname{color}(1,g) \ \operatorname{color}(4,b) \ \operatorname{color}(3,r) \ \operatorname{color}(5,g) \ \operatorname{color}(6,b) \\ \operatorname{color}(2,r) \ \operatorname{color}(1,b) \ \operatorname{color}(4,g) \ \operatorname{color}(3,r) \ \operatorname{color}(5,b) \ \operatorname{color}(6,g) \\ \end{array}$

Inductive Logic Programming

Learning Logic Programs from Examples.

Generate rules that...

• use background knowledge

parent(john, mary), parent(david, steve), parent(kathy, mary), female(kathy), male(john), male(david).

- to entail all the **positive examples**, father(john, mary), father(david, steve),
- but none of the **negative examples**. father(kathy, mary), father(john, steve),

A solution is

 $father(X, Y) \leftarrow parent(X, Y) \land male(X).$

Where Logic Programming Fails

Meanwhile, in the **real world**, samples are *incomplete* and come with *noise*.

Logic inference is fragile: a mistake in the transcription of a fact is dramatic to the consequences:

• parent(david, mary).

• parent(jonh, mary).

The statistic essence of machine learning provides robustness.

Probabilistic Logic Programming

- Define distributions from logic programs.
- Stochastic ASP: Specifying distributions.

Probabilistic Logic Programs (PLPs)

Logic programs annotated with probabilities.



alarm : 0.00251, $johncalls : 0.9 \leftarrow alarm,$ $johncalls : 0.05 \leftarrow \neg alarm$

• alarm : 0.00251 is $alarm \lor \neg alarm$ plus P(Alarm = true) = 0.00251.

• $johncalls: 0.9 \leftarrow alarm$ is

$$P(Johncalls = true | Alarm = true) = 0.9$$

Any bayesian network can be represented by a PLP.

Distributions from Logic Programs

The program

 $\begin{array}{l} alarm: 0.00251,\\ johncalls: 0.9 \leftarrow alarm,\\ johncalls: 0.05 \leftarrow \neg alarm \end{array}$

entails four possible models (or worlds):

model	probability	
alarm, johncalls	0.002259	
$alarm, \neg john calls$	0.000251	
$\neg alarm, john calls$	0.049874	
$\neg alarm, \neg john calls$		

- **Models** are special sets of *literals* **entailed** from the program.
- Probabilities propagate from facts, through rules.

There's a Problem...

The program

alarm : 0.00251, $johncalls \lor marycalls \leftarrow alarm$

entails three stable (i.e. minimal) models

model	probability
alarm, johncalls	x
alarm, marycalls	
$\neg alarm$	0.99749

but no single way to set x, y.

Some *Probabilistic Logic Programs* define more than one joint distribution.

... and an Oportunity

Some *PLP*s define more than one joint distribution.

- There is no single probability assignment from the facts stable models: $x, y \in [0, 1]$.
- But any assignment is bound by Kolmogorov's axioms, and **forms equations** such as:

$$x + y = P(alarm).$$

• Existing data can be used to estimate the unknowns in those equations.

Stable Models, Events and Probabilities

What are we talking about?

• A logic program has atoms (and literals) and rules:

 $male(john), \neg parent(kathy, mary),$ $father(X, Y) \leftarrow parent(X, Y) \land male(X).$

- A **stable model** is a **minimal** model that contains:
 - program's *facts*: *parent(john, mary)*, *male(john)*.
 - consequences, by the *rules*: *father*(*john*, *mary*).
- Some programs have more than one model:

Logic ProgramStable Models $a \lor \neg a, b \lor c \leftarrow a$ $\{\neg a\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}$

How to propagate probability from annotated facts to other *events*?

Logic Programs and Probabilities

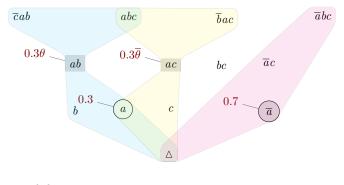
• Consider the literals of a logic program

$$L = \{a_1, \ldots a_n, \neg a_1, \ldots \neg a_n\}.$$

- Any model of that program is a (consistent) subset of L.
- Let $\Omega = \mathbf{P}(L)$, *i.e.* an event e is a subset of L, $e \subseteq L$.
 - Setting a probability for some events seems straightforward: *P*(¬*alarm*) = 0.997483558.
 - For others, not so much:
 - P (alarm, johncalls), P (johncalls, marycalls, alarm), P (marycalls)?
 - $P(alarm, \neg alarm)$, $P(\neg marycalls)$?

How to propagate probability from *facts* to *consequences* and other *events*?

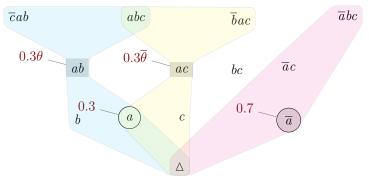
Classes of Events



$$\begin{array}{l} a:0.3\\ b\lor c\leftarrow a \end{array} \quad \overline{a}=\left\{ \neg a\right\},ab=\left\{ a,b\right\},ac=\left\{ a,c\right\} \end{array}$$

- Define equivalence classes for all events, based on ⊆, ⊇ relations with the stable models.
- This example shows 6 out of $2^3 + 1$ classes.

Probabilities for all Events



- **1** Set weights in the stable models (shaded nodes), using parameters when needed: $\mu(\overline{a}) = 0.7; \mu(ab) = 0.3\theta; \mu(ac) = 0.3(1 \theta)$
- **2** Assume that the stable models are disjoint events.
- 3 Define weight of an event as the sum of the weights of the related stable models.
- **4** Normalize weights to get a (probability) distribution.

Probabilities for all Events

$[\![e]\!]$	$\#[e]_{\sim}$	$\mu([e]_{\sim})$	$\mu(e)$	P(E=e)	$\mathcal{P}(E \in [e]_{\sim})$
	37	0	0	0	0
\Box \diamond	9	0	0	0	0
\overline{a}	9	$\frac{7}{10}$	$\frac{7}{90}$	$\frac{7}{207}$	$\frac{7}{23}$
ab	3	$\frac{3}{10}\theta$	$\frac{1}{10}\theta$	$\frac{1}{23}\theta$	$\frac{3}{23}\theta$
ac	3	$\frac{3}{10}\overline{ heta}$	$\frac{1}{10}\overline{ heta}$	$\frac{1}{23}\overline{oldsymbol{ heta}}$	$\frac{3}{23}\overline{ heta}$
\overline{a}, ab	0	$\frac{7+3\theta}{10}$	0	0	0
\overline{a}, ac	0	$\frac{7+3\overline{\theta}}{10}$	0	0	0
ab, ac	2	$\frac{3}{10}$	$\frac{3}{20}$	$\frac{3}{46}$	$\frac{3}{23}$
\overline{a}, ab, ac	1	1	1	$\frac{10}{23}$	$\frac{10}{23}$
	64		$Z = \frac{23}{10}$		

Estimating the Parameters

A sample can be used to estimate the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta},$ by minimizing

$$\operatorname{err}(\theta) := \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}} \left(\operatorname{P}(E = e \mid \Theta = \theta) - \operatorname{P}(S = e) \right)^2.$$

where

- \mathcal{E} is the set of all events,
- $P(E \mid \Theta)$ the **model+parameters** based distribution,
- P(S) is the **empiric** distribution from the given sample.

Behind Parameter Estimation

So, we can derive a distribution $P(E \mid \Theta = \hat{\theta})$ from a program P and a sample S.

- The sample defines an empiric distribution P(S)...
- ... that is used to estimate θ in $P(E \mid \Theta)$...
- ... and score the program *P* w.r.t. that sample using, *e.g.* the err() function.

Back to Inductive Logic Programming

Recall the Learning Logic Programs from Examples setting:

- Given **positive** and **negative** examples, and **background knowledge**...
- find a program...
 - ... using the facts and relations from the **BK**...
 - ... such that **all the PE** and **none the NE** examples are entailed.

Given a sample of events, and a set of programs, the score of those programs (w.r.t. the sample) can be used in evolutionary algorithms while searching for better solutions.

In Conclusion

- Machine Learning has limitations.
- As does Inductive Logic Programming.
- But, distributions can be defined by **Stochastic Logic Programs**.

Distributions can be defined by **Stochastic Logic Programs**. Here we:

- 1 Look at the program's stable models and
- **2** Use them to partition the **events** and then
- **3** Using annotated probabilities, define:
 - 1 a finite measure...
 - **2** that, normalized, is a **distribution** on all events.

Distributions can be defined by **Stochastic Logic Programs**.

- These distributions might have some **parameters**, due to indeterminism in the program.
- A sample can be used to estimate those parameters...
- ... and **score** programs concurring to describe it.
- This score a key ingredient in **evolutionary algorithms**. ... and a step towards the induction of stochastic logic programs using **data** and **background knowledge**.

Induction of Stochastic Logic (ASP) Programs.

- **1** Meta-programming: formal rules for rule generation.
- **2** Generation, Combination and Mutation operators.
- 3 Complexity.
- 4 Applications.
- 6 Profit.

Thank You!

Questions?

References

- Gary Marcus, Deep Learning: A Critical Appraisal, 2018.
- François Chollet, On the Measure of Intelligence, 2019.
- Bengio et al., A Meta-Transfer Objective for Learning to Disentangle Causal Mechanisms, 2019.
- Cropper et al., Turning 30: New Ideas in Inductive Logic Programming, 2020.
- Fabrizio Riguzzi, *Foundations of Probabilistic Logic Programming*, 2023.