# PROBABILISTIC AND DIFFERENTIABLE PROGRAMMING V9: Probabilistic Programming II

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### Probabilistic Logic Programs (PLP)

- devised by Poole and Sato in the 90s.
- built on top of the programming language Prolog
- upgrade directed graphical models
- Generalises probabilistic databases (Suciu et al.)
- combines the advantages / expressive power of programming languages (Turing equivalent) and graphical models
- Implementations: see next page



#### **PLP** Systems

- PRISM <u>https://www.prismmodelchecker.org/</u>
- ProbLog2 <u>http://dtai.cs.kuleuven.be/problog/</u>
- Yap Prolog <u>https://github.com/vscosta/yap-6.3</u> includes
  - ProbLog1
  - cplint
  - CLP(BN)
  - LP2
- PITA in XSB Prolog <a href="http://xsb.sourceforge.net/">http://xsb.sourceforge.net/</a>
- AlLog2 <a href="http://artint.info/code/ailog/ailog2.html">http://artint.info/code/ailog/ailog2.html</a>
- SLPs <u>http://stoics.org.uk/~nicos/sware/pepl</u>
- contdist <u>http://www.cs.sunysb.edu/~cram/contdist/</u>
- DC <u>https://code.google.com/p/distributional-clauses</u>
- WFOMC <u>http://dtai.cs.kuleuven.be/ml/systems/wfomc</u>



#### Today's Agenda (in classical linear form)

Probabilistic Logic Programming

- 1. Modeling
- 2. Reasoning
- 3. Learning



# MODELING



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#### The motto: Logic everywhere



See also IFIS course Information systems



## The Logic programming (LP) paradigm

- The other big three paradigms of programming
  - Imperative (e.g. C)
  - Functional (e.g., Lisp)
  - Object-oriented (e.g. Java)
- Distinguishing feature of LP: Problem solving by specifying the "What" not the "How to"
- Abstracting from
  - Control structures
  - Memory layout
  - Process direction
- Prominent examples: Prolog, Datalog, ASP (Answer set



### Logic

Science of logic investigates mathematical structures (static and dynamic) and formal languages to describe them by specifying a logic given by

- syntax (well-formed formula)
- semantics (truth conditions for sentences, entailment notion)
- calculus (provability, inference)

#### Introductory logic texbooks with CS in mind

- (Huth,Ryan 00)
- (Ben-Ari 01)

## Where is the logic in logic programming?

- Specification of a domain with a set of formula (sometimes called a knowledge base)
  - Formula specifed by truth-condition semantics as in logic
  - In Prolog: formula are facts or rules
- Specifcation of the problem as a query (also a formula)
  - Query is Boolean or has variables to be bound
- Solving a problem according a logical calculus
  - try to infer (bindings for) query w.r.t. the knowledge base using rules
- In Prolog use resolution

## Prolog

- Prolog: Programmation en Logique
- Invented around 1970 when there was high interest in
  - Theorem proving
  - Language processing with formal grammars
- Protagonists
  - R. Kowalski: Theoretical contribution with SL-Resolution
  - A. Colmerauer and P. Roussel: developer



## A bit of gambling with ProbLog



- Toss (biased) coin & draw ball from each urn
- win if (heads and a red ball) or (two balls of same color)
- 0.4 :: heads.
  0.3 :: col(1,red); 0.7 :: col(1, blue).
  - 0.2 :: col(2,red); 0.3 :: col(2,green);
     0.5 :: col(2,blue).
     Probabilistic choices

consequences

•

- win :- heads, col(\_,red).
- win :- col(1,C), col(2,C).

- Probabilistic fact: Heads with probability 0.4
- annotated disjunction: first ball is red with probability 0.3 and blue with 0.7
- annotated disjunction: second ball is red with probability 0.2, green with 0.3, and blue with 0.5
- Logical rule encoding background knowledge



#### Queries

```
0.4 :: heads.
0.3 :: col(1,red); 0.7 :: col(1, blue).
0.2 :: col(2,red); 0.3 :: col(2,green);0.5 :: col(2,blue).
win :- heads, col(_,red).
win :- col(1,C), col(2,C).
```

- Probability of win? (marginal propability)
- Probability of win given col(2, green)?

(conditional propability)

Most probable world where win is true?

(Most probable explanation (MPE))



#### **Possible Worlds**

0.4 ::	heads.
--------	--------

- 0.3 :: col(1,red); 0.7 :: col(1, blue).
- 0.2 :: col(2,red); 0.3 :: col(2,green);0.5 :: col(2,blue).

win :- heads, col(\_,red).
win :- col(1,C), col(2,C).

#### 0.4 x 0.3 x 0.3





#### **Possible Worlds**

```
0.4 :: heads.
0.3 :: col(1,red); 0.7 :: col(1, blue).
0.2 :: col(2,red); 0.3 :: col(2,green);0.5 :: col(2,blue).
win :- heads, col(_,red).
win :- col(1,C), col(2,C).
```





#### All Possible Worlds



(remember the discussion in  $\sqrt{8}$  on traces)



#### Most likely world with W (win = true)?



$$P(win = true) = P(win) = \sum_{world with w=true} = 0.562$$





#### Marginal Probability

#### P(win | col(2, green)) = 0.036/0.3 = 0.12P(win, col(2, green))/P(col(2, green)) = $\Sigma/\Sigma$





**Conditional Probability** 

#### Distribution semantics (Sato, 95)

**Distribution semantics** with probabilistic facts (Sato 95)

$$P(Q) = \sum_{F \cup R \models Q} \prod_{f \in F} p(f) \prod_{f \notin F} (1 - p(f))$$
Probability of possible world

where

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- Q = query
- F = subset of facts (assumed to hold in a possible world)
- R = Prolog rules
- $F \cup R \models Q$ : Summing condition: possible worlds where Q is true

# INFERENCE



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## The challenge: disjoint sum problem

```
0.4 :: heads(1).
0.7 :: heads(2).
0.5 :: heads(3).
win :- heads(1).
win :- heads(1), heads(3). % win <-> h(1) v (h(2) & h(3))
```

• 
$$P(win) = P\left(h(1) \lor (h(s) \land h(3))\right) \neq$$
  
 $P(h(1)) + P(h(2) \land h(3))$ 

Rather should be

• = 
$$P(h(1)) + P(h(2) \wedge h(3)) - P(h(1) \wedge h(2) \wedge h(3))$$



## Idea: Weighted Model Counting (WMC)

```
0.4 :: heads(1).
0.7 :: heads(2).
0.5 :: heads(3).
win :- heads(1).
win :- heads(1), heads(3). % win <-> h(1) v (h(2) & h(3))
```

- Ground out
- Put formula in CNF (conjunctive normal form)
- Weights
- Call WMC





### Recap on some terminlogy from logic

- A propositional formula is in conjunctive normal form (CNF) iff it is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals
- Literals = proposition symbol or its negation
- Every propositional formula can be transformed into CNF (using distribution, de Morgan rules and double negation elimination)

#### Recap on some terminlogy from logic

For the example note that

- $A \leftrightarrow B$  and  $(A \rightarrow B) \land (B \rightarrow A)$  are equivalent
- $A \rightarrow B$  is equivalent to  $\neg A \lor B$
- Interpretations  $I_i$  (truth value assignments) can also be recorded in set notation (as doen in the following)
- E.g.  $I_2 = \{\neg A, B\}$  or even shorter:  $I_2 = \{B\}$  (considering only the propositional variables with value 1)

							III CN	Г	
	Α	В	$A \leftrightarrow B$	$(A \rightarrow B)$	٨	$(B \rightarrow A)$	$(\neg A \lor B)$	٨	$(\neg B \lor A)$
I <sub>1</sub>	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$I_2$	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
I <sub>3</sub>	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
$I_4$	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

in CNF

#### Recap on some terminology from logic

- Grounding
  - Idea: "Propositionalize" rules
  - Technically: Instantiate all variables with all possible constant combinations
  - E.g. successfulStudent(X):- lovesLogic(X) over constants {a,b}
    - successfulStudent(a):- lovesLogic(a),
    - successfulStudent(b):- lovesLogic(b)

- (Grounding not used actually on the slides before, as rules contained no variables)

## Weighted Model Counting

$$WMC(\phi) = \sum_{I_V \vDash \phi} \prod_{l \in I_V} w(l)$$

#### where

-  $\phi$  : propositional formula in CNF

(resulting from problog programm or any other statistical relational model (SRL))

#### - $I_V$ : interpretation of propositional variables

(in set notation; corresponds to possible world)

- w(l): weight of literal (for p::f one assigns  $w(f) = p, w(\neg f) = 1 - p$ )

For 
$$\phi = Q$$
:

$$WMC(Q) = \sum_{F \cup R \models Q} \prod_{f \in F} p(f) \prod_{f \notin F} 1 - p(f)$$



## Weighted Model Counting

- Simple WMC solvers based on a generalisation of DPLL algorithm for SAT (Davis Putnam Logeman Loveland algorithm)
- Current solvers often use knowledge compilation here an OBDD (ordered binary decision diagram), many variations s-dDNNF, SDDs, (see also following lectures V10-V13)

win  $\leftrightarrow h(1) \lor (h(2) \land h(3))$ 



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## Weighted Model Counting

- Simple WMC solvers based on a generalisation of DPLL algorithm for SAT (Davis Putnam Logeman Loveland algorithm)
- Current solvers often use knowledge compilation here an OBDD (ordered binary decision diagram), many variations s-dDNNF, SDDs, (see also following lectures V10-V13)

win 
$$\leftrightarrow h(1) \lor (h(2) \land h(3))$$
  
 $h(1) \to 0.4 \quad \neg h(1) \to 0.6$   
 $h(2) \to 0.7 \quad \neg h(2) \to 0.3$   
 $h(3) \to 0.5 \quad \neg h(3) \to 0.5$ 





#### More inference

- Many variations / extensions
- Approximate inference
- Lifted inference (lifting from propositional to first order)
   infected(X) :- contact(X,Y), sick(Y).



# LEARNING



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#### Parameter Learning: an example

- Webpage classification model
- For each Class1, Class2 and each Word

```
?? :: link_class(Source,Target, Class1, Class2).
```

?? :: word\_class(Word,Class).



#### Sampling interpretations



#### Partial interpretations

- Not all facts are observed
  - Note: this is different from some facts Being false
- Use for this some form of the

EM-algorithm (Expectation maximization)

- Expected count used instead of count
- P(Q|E) –conditional queries



## Reminder: EM: How it Works on Naive Bayes

- Consider the following data,
  - N examples with Boolean attributes X1, X2, X3, X4



- which we want to categorize in one of three possible values of class C = {1,2,3} (hidden, no observations given)
- We use a Naive Bayes classifier with hidden variable C

Model  $\rightarrow$  Probabilitie P(C)  $P(X_1|C)$   $P(X_2|C)$   $P(X_3|C)$  $P(X_4|C)$ 



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?

?

?

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### Reminder: EM: General Idea

- The algorithm starts from "invented" (e.g., randomly generated) information to solve the learning problem, i.e.
  - Determine the network parameters (CPT in Bayesian networks)



- It then refines this initial guess by cycling through two basic steps
  - Expectation (E): update the data with predictions generated via the current model
  - Maximization (M): given the updated data, update the model parameters using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) approach

✓ This is the same step that is used for learning parameters for fully observable networks
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#### Learning Rules/Structures

#### Information Extraction in NELL

Recently-Learned Facts twitter			Refresh
instance	iteration da	te learned	confidence
kelly_andrews is a female	826 29-	-mar-2014	98.7 🗳 ኛ
investment_next_year is an economic sector	829 10	-apr-2014	95.3 🏖 ኛ
shibenik is a geopolitical entity that is an organization	829 10	-apr-2014	97.2 🖓 ኛ
quality_web_design_work is a character trait	826 29-	-mar-2014	91.0 🏖 ኛ
mercedes_benz_cls_by_carlsson is an automobile manufacturer	829 10	-apr-2014	95.2 🕼 ኛ
social work is an academic program at the university rutgers university	827 02	-apr-2014	93.8 🖓 ኛ
dante wrote the book the divine comedy	826 29-	-mar-2014	93.8 🗳 ኛ
willie_aames was born in the city los_angeles	831 16	-apr-2014	100.0 🏠 🖑
kitt_peak is a mountain in the state or province arizona	831 16	-apr-2014	96.9 🗳 ኛ
greenwich is a park in the city london	831 16	-apr-2014	100.0 🏖 ኛ
<b>A</b>			
nstances for many different relations		degr	ee of certa

NELL: http://rtw.ml.cmu.edu/rtw/



#### ProbFOIL

- Upgrade rule-learning to a probabilistic setting within a relational learning / inductive logic programming setting
  - Works with a probabilistic logic program instead of a deterministic one.
- Introduce ProbFOIL, an adaption of Quinlan's FOIL
- Apply to probabilistic databases like NELL



#### Example in Pro Log

```
surfing(X) := not rain(X), windOK(X). %H
surfing(X) := not rain(X), sunshine(X).
rain(el). %B
windOK(el).
sunshine(el).
?- surfing(el). % Query
No % Answer no, because surfing(el) does not follow from H u B
```



#### Example in ProbLog

```
pl :: surfing(X) := not rain(X), windOK(X). % H
p2 ::surfing(X) := not rain(X), sunshine(X).
0.2 :: rain(el). % B
0.7 :: windOK(el).
0.6 :: Sunshine(el).
?- P(surfing(el)). % Query
% gives asnwer probability P(B U H |= e) =
% (1-0.2) x 0.7 x pl + (1-0.2) x 0.6 x (1-0.7) x p2
% no rain x windok x pl + no rain x sunshine x not windOk x p2
```

Note: probabilities  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$  in front of rules are syntactic sugar.



## Classical FOIL (Quinlan)

- Input
  - Prolog program (or any FOL theory)
  - Observed sequence of facts E (such as surfing(e1))
  - Space of hypotheses *L*
- Output: Hypothesis set  $H \subseteq L$  (rules) s.t.  $B \cup H \models E$
- Hypothesis space contains all admissible rules over the language up to some complexity
- Various heuristics



### Inductive Probabilistic Logic Programming

- Input
  - a set of example facts  $e \in E$  together with the probability p that they hold
  - a background theory *B* in ProbLog

(note: *B* may contain facts and rules, which we know to hold)

- a hypothesis space *L* (a set of clauses)
- Output

$$argmin_{H} loss(H, B, E) = arming_{H} \sum_{e_{i} \in E} |P_{s}(B \cup H \models e_{i}) - p_{i}|$$

with optimal probabilities for rules.

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#### Next weeks

• More details on the efficient representation of probabilities and formula.



Uhhh, a lecture with a hopefully useful

## **APPENDIX**



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## Probability theory basics reminder

#### Random variable (RV)

- possible worlds defined by assignment of values to random variables.
- Boolean random variables

   e.g., Cavity (do I have a cavity?).
   Domain is < true , false >
- Discrete random variables
  - e.g., possible value of Weather is one of < sunny, rainy, cloudy, snow >
- Domain values must be exhaustive and mutually exclusive
- Elementary propositions are constructed by assignment of a value to a random variable: e.g.,
  - Cavity = false (abbreviated as ¬cavity)
  - Cavity = true (abbreviated as cavity)
- (Complex) propositions formed from elementary propositions and standard logical connectives, e.g., Weather = sunny \vee Cavity = false

#### Probabilities

- Axioms (for propositions  $a, b, T = (a \lor \neg a)$ , and  $\bot = \neg T$ ):
  - $0 \le P(a) \le 1; P(T) = 1; P(\bot) = 0$
  - $(P(a \lor b) = P(a) + P(b) P(a \land b)$
- Joint probability distribution of  $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ 
  - $P(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$
  - gives the probability of every atomic event on X
- Conditional probability  $P(a \mid b) = P(a \land b) / P(b) if P(b) > 0$ 
  - Chain rule  $\boldsymbol{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \boldsymbol{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$
- Marginalization:  $P(Y) = \sum_{z \in Z} P(Y, z)$
- Conditioning on Z:
  - $P(Y) = \sum_{z \in Z} P(Y|z)P(z)$  (discrete)
  - $P(Y) = \int P(Y|z)P(z)dz$  (continuous) =  $\mathbb{E}_{z \sim P(z)} P(Y|z)$  (expected value notation)
  - Bayes' Rule  $P(H|D) = \frac{P(D|H) \cdot P(H)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D|H) \cdot P(H)}{\sum_{h} P(D|h)P(h)}$



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#### **Color Convention in this Course**

- Formulae, when occurring inline
- Newly introduced terminology and definitions
- Important results (observations, theorems) as well as emphasizing some aspects
- Examples are given with standard orange with possibly light orange frame
- Comments and notes in nearly opaque post-it
- Algorithms and program code
- Reminders (in the grey fog of your memory)



## Today's lecture is based on the following

- Mainly
  - Luc de Raedt: Probabilistic Logic Programming and its Applications.
     Tutorial given at The Turing, London, September 11, 2017

https://logic-data-science.github.io/Slides/DeRaedt.pdf

- L. De Raedt and A. Kimmig. Probabilistic (logic) programming concepts. Machine Learning, 100(1):5–47, 2015.
- A little bit
  - Tutorial on

https://dtai.cs.kuleuven.be/problog/tutorial.html

- Book: L. D. Raedt. Logical and relational learning. Cognitive Technologies. Springer, 2008.



#### References

- T. Sato. A statistical learning method for logic programs with distribution semantics. In IN PROCEED- INGS OF THE 12TH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LOGIC PROGRAMMING (ICLP'95, pages 715–729. MIT Press, 1995.
- [1] M. Huth and M. Ryan. Logic in Computer Science: Modelling and Reasoning about Systems. Cambridge University Press, 2000.
- M. Ben-Ari. Mathematical Logic for Computer Science. Springer, 2. edition, 2001.

