Introduction to Probabilistic Logic Programming

Fabrizio Riguzzi

Department of Mathematics and Computer Science – University of Ferrara fabrizio.riguzzi@unife.it





Outline

- Logic
- Handling Uncertainty
- Probabilistic logics
- Probabilistic logic programming
- Other fornalisms
- Examples
- Reasoning



Logic

- Useful to model domains with complex relationships among entities
- Various forms:
 - First Order Logic
 - Logic Programming
 - Description Logics



First Order Logic

- Very expressive
- Open World Assumption
- Undecidable

 $\begin{array}{l} \forall x \; \textit{Intelligent}(x) \rightarrow \textit{GoodMarks}(x) \\ \forall x, y \; \textit{Friends}(x, y) \rightarrow (\textit{Intelligent}(x) \leftrightarrow \textit{Intelligent}(y)) \end{array}$



- Closed World Assumption
- Turing complete
- Prolog

flu(bob). $hay_fever(bob).$ $sneezing(X) \leftarrow flu(X).$ $sneezing(X) \leftarrow hay_fever(X).$



Description Logics

- Subsets of First Order Logic
- Open World Assumption
- Decidable, efficient inference
- Special syntax using concepts (unary predicates) and roles (binary predicates)

fluffy : Cat tom : Cat Cat ⊑ Pet ∃hasAnimal.Pet ⊑ NatureLover (kevin, fluffy) : hasAnimal (kevin, tom) : hasAnimal cat(fluffy). cat(tom). $pet(X) \leftarrow cat(X).$ $natureLover(X) \leftarrow hasAnimal(X, Y), pet(Y).$ hasAnimal(kevin, fluffy).hasAnimal(kevin, tom).



Uncertainty

- Logic: representing relationships, powerful inference
- but the real world is often uncertain

 $\forall x \; Intelligent(x) \rightarrow GoodMarks(x)$ $\forall x, y \; Friends(x, y) \rightarrow (Intelligent(x) \leftrightarrow Intelligent(y))$



- Often convenient to describe a domain using a set of random variables.
- Example: home intrusion detection system
 - Earthquake E
 - Burglary B
 - Alarm A
 - Neighbor call N
- Questions:
 - What is the probability of a burglary? (compute *P*(B = t), belief computation)
 - What is the probability of a burglary given that the neighbor called? (compute P(B = t|N = t), belief updating)
 - What is the probability of a burglary given that there was an earthquake and the neighbor called? (compute P(B = t|N = t, E = t), belief updating)
 - What is the most likely value for burglary given that the neighbor called? (arg max_b P(b|N = t), belief revision)

- When assigning a causal meaning to the variables, the problems are also called
 - Diagnosis: computing *P*(*cause*|*symptom*)
 - Prediction: computing *P*(*symptom*|*cause*)
 - Classification: computing arg max_{class} P(class|data)



• In general, we want to compute

$P(\mathbf{q}|\mathbf{e})$

of a query q (assignment of values to a set of variables Q) given the evidence e (assignment of values to a set of variables E).

• Inference.



Rules of Probability Theory

• Product rule: P(a,b) = P(a|b)P(b)

Implies Bayes rule:

$$egin{aligned} & P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a) \ & P(a|b) = rac{P(b|a)P(a)}{P(b)} \end{aligned}$$

• Sum rule: $P(a) = \sum_{b} P(a, b)$



- X: set of all variables describing the domain
- Joint probability distribution *P*(**X**): *P*(**x**) for all **x**
- We can answer all types of queries using the definition of conditional probability and the sum rule:

$$P(\mathbf{q}|\mathbf{e}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{e})}{P(\mathbf{e})} = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X} \setminus \mathbf{Q} \setminus \mathbf{E}} P(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{e})}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X} \setminus \mathbf{E}} P(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})}$$



- If we have *n* binary variables (|X| = n), knowing the joint probability distribution requires storing O(2ⁿ) different values.
- Even if we had the space, computing *P*(**q**|**e**) would require *O*(2^{*n*}) operations.



• A value of **X** is (x₁,..., x_n):

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = P(x_n | x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1) P(x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1) = \dots P(x_n | x_{n-1}, \dots, x_1) \dots P(x_2 | x_1) P(x_1) = (1)$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | x_{i-1}, \dots, x_1)$$

by repeated application of the product rule.

• Chain rule.



• If, for each variable X_i , \mathbf{Pa}_i is a subset of $\{X_{i-1}, \ldots, X_1\}$ such that X_i is conditionally independent of $\{X_{i-1}, \ldots, X_1\} \setminus \mathbf{Pa}_i$ given \mathbf{Pa}_i , i.e,

$$P(\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{x}_{i-1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_1) = P(\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{p} \mathbf{a}_i)$$
 whenever $P(\mathbf{x}_{i-1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_1) > 0$

then we could write

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = P(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) =$$

$$P(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{x}_{n-1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_1) \dots P(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1) P(\mathbf{x}_1) =$$

$$P(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{p} \mathbf{a}_n) \dots P(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{p} \mathbf{a}_1) P(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{p} \mathbf{a}_1) =$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^n P(\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{p} \mathbf{a}_i)$$



- *P*(x_i|**p**a_i): conditional probability table, much smaller than {X_{i-1},...,X₁},
- If k is the maximum size of Pa_i, then the storage requirements are O(n2^k) instead of O(2ⁿ).



Probabilistic Graphical Models

- Taking into account independencies among the variables enables faster inference.
- Graphical models: graph structures that represent independencies.
- Bayesian network [Pearl 88]: directed acyclic graph with a node per variable and an edge from X_i to X_i only if X_i ∈ Pa_i.
- A BN together with the set of CPTs P(x_i|pa_i) defines a joint probability distribution.



Example - Alarm





Markov Networks

Undirected graphical models



• Each clique in the graph is associated with a potential $\phi_i \ge 0$

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\prod_{i} \phi_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i})}{Z}$$
$$Z = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \prod_{i} \phi_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i})$$

Intelligent	GoodMarks	$\phi_i(I,G)$
false	false	4.5
false	true	4.5
true	false	1.0
true	true	4.5

Dipartimento di Matematica e Informatica

Markov Networks



 If all the potential are strictly positive, we can use a log-linear model (where the f_is are features)

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(\sum_{i} w_{i} f_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i}))}{Z}$$
$$Z = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \exp(\sum_{i} w_{i} f_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i})))$$
$$f_{i}(Intelligent, GoodMarks) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \neg \text{Intelligent} \lor \text{GoodMarks} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$w_{i} = 1.5$$



Combining Logic and Probability

- Logic does not handle well uncertainty
- Graphical models do not handle well relationships among entities
- Solution: combine the two
- Many approaches proposed in the areas of Logic Programming, Uncertainty in AI, Machine Learning, Databases, Knowledge Representation



Probabilistic Logic Programming

- Distribution Semantics [Sato ICLP95]
- A probabilistic logic program defines a probability distribution over normal logic programs (called instances or possible worlds or simply worlds)
- The distribution is extended to a joint distribution over worlds and interpretations (or queries)
- The probability of a query is obtained from this distribution



Probabilistic Logic Programming (PLP) Languages under the Distribution Semantics

- Probabilistic Logic Programs [Dantsin RCLP91]
- Probabilistic Horn Abduction [Poole NGC93], Independent Choice Logic (ICL) [Poole AI97]
- PRISM [Sato ICLP95]
- Logic Programs with Annotated Disjunctions (LPADs) [Vennekens et al. ICLP04]
- ProbLog [De Raedt et al. IJCAI07]
- They differ in the way they define the distribution over logic programs



PLP Online

• http://cplint.eu

- Inference (knwoledge compilation, Monte Carlo)
- Parameter learning (EMBLEM)
- Structure learning (SLIPCOVER)
- https://dtai.cs.kuleuven.be/problog/
 - Inference (knwoledge compilation, Monte Carlo)
 - Parameter learning (LFI-ProbLog)



 $sneezing(X) \leftarrow flu(X), msw(flu_sneezing(X), 1).$ $sneezing(X) \leftarrow hay_fever(X), msw(hay_fever_sneezing(X), 1).$ flu(bob). $hay_fever(bob).$

- $: -set_sw(hay_fever_sneezing(X), [0.8, 0.2]).$
- Distributions over *msw* facts (random switches)
- Worlds obtained by selecting one value for every grounding of each *msw* statement

Dipartimento di Matematica e Informatica

Logic Programs with Annotated Disjunctions

http://cplint.eu/e/sneezing_simple.pl

sneezing(X) : 0.7 ; null : $0.3 \leftarrow flu(X)$. sneezing(X) : 0.8 ; null : $0.2 \leftarrow hay_fever(X)$. flu(bob). hay_fever(bob).

- Distributions over the head of rules
- null does not appear in the body of any rule
- Worlds obtained by selecting one atom from the head of every grounding of each clause



 $sneezing(X) \leftarrow flu(X), flu_sneezing(X).$ $sneezing(X) \leftarrow hay_fever(X), hay_fever_sneezing(X).$ flu(bob). $hay_fever(bob).$ $0.7 :: flu_sneezing(X).$ $0.8 :: hay_fever_sneezing(X).$

- Distributions over facts
- Worlds obtained by selecting or not every grounding of each probabilistic fact



- Case of no function symbols: finite Herbrand universe, finite set of groundings of each switch/clause/fact
- Atomic choice: selection of the *i*-th atom for grounding Cθ of switch/clause C
 - represented with the triple (C, θ, i)
- Example $C_1 = sneezing(X) : 0.7$; null : $0.3 \leftarrow flu(X)$., $(C_1, \{X/bob\}, 1)$
- A ProbLog fact p :: F is interpreted as $F : p \lor null : 1 p$.



- Selection *σ*: a total set of atomic choices (one atomic choice for every grounding of each clause)
- A selection σ identifies a logic program w_{σ} called world
- The probability of w_{σ} is $P(w_{\sigma}) = \prod_{(C,\theta,i) \in \sigma} P_0(C,i)$
- Finite set of worlds: $W_T = \{w_1, \ldots, w_m\}$
- P(w) distribution over worlds: $\sum_{w \in W_T} P(w) = 1$



- Ground query Q
- P(Q|w) = 1 if Q is true in w and 0 otherwise

•
$$P(Q) = \sum_{w} P(Q, w) = \sum_{w} P(Q|w) P(w) = \sum_{w \models Q} P(w)$$

- You can see *P*(*Q*) as the probability that *Q* is true in a world sampled at random from *P*(*w*)
 - for each choice, sample a value to get a world
 - test the query in the world



Example Program (LPAD) Worlds

http://cplint.eu/e/sneezing_simple.pl

 $sneezing(bob) \leftarrow flu(bob).$ $sneezing(bob) \leftarrow hay_fever(bob).$ flu(bob). $hay_fever(bob).$ $P(w_1) = 0.7 \times 0.8$

 $\begin{array}{lll} sneezing(bob) \leftarrow flu(bob). & nu\\ null \leftarrow hay_fever(bob). & nu\\ flu(bob). & flu\\ hay_fever(bob). & ha\\ P(w_3) = 0.7 \times 0.2 & P(\end{array}$

 $null \leftarrow flu(bob).$ $sneezing(bob) \leftarrow hay_fever(bob).$ flu(bob). $hay_fever(bob).$ $P(w_2) = 0.3 \times 0.8$

 $null \leftarrow flu(bob).$ $null \leftarrow hay_fever(bob).$ flu(bob). $hay_fever(bob).$ $P(w_4) = 0.3 \times 0.2$

$$P(Q) = \sum_{w \in W_{\mathcal{T}}} P(Q, w) = \sum_{w \in W_{\mathcal{T}}} P(Q|w) P(w) = \sum_{w \in W_{\mathcal{T}}: w \models Q} P(w)$$

sneezing(bob) is true in 3 worlds

• $P(sneezing(bob)) = 0.7 \times 0.8 + 0.3 \times 0.8 + 0.7 \times 0.2 = 0.94$

Example Program (ProbLog) Worlds

4 worlds

 $sneezing(X) \leftarrow flu(X), flu_sneezing(X).$ $sneezing(X) \leftarrow hay_fever(X), hay_fever_sneezing(X).$ flu(bob). $hay_fever(bob).$

 $\begin{array}{ll} flu_sneezing(bob).\\ hay_fever_sneezing(bob).\\ P(w_1) = 0.7 \times 0.8\\ flu_sneezing(bob).\\ P(w_3) = 0.7 \times 0.2 \end{array} \begin{array}{ll} hay_fever_sneezing(bob).\\ P(w_2) = 0.3 \times 0.8\\ P(w_4) = 0.3 \times 0.2 \end{array}$

- sneezing(bob) is true in 3 worlds
- $P(sneezing(bob)) = 0.7 \times 0.8 + 0.3 \times 0.8 + 0.7 \times 0.2 = 0.94$



Logic Programs with Annotated Disjunctions

http://cplint.eu/e/sneezing.pl

```
strong_sneezing(X) : 0.3 ; moderate_sneezing(X) : 0.5 \leftarrow flu(X).
strong_sneezing(X) : 0.2 ; moderate_sneezing(X) : 0.6 \leftarrow hay_fever(X).
flu(bob).
hay_fever(bob).
```

- 9 worlds
- strong_sneezing(bob) is true in 5
- P(strong_sneezing(bob)) = 0.3 · 0.2 + 0.3 · 0.6 + 0.3 · 0.2 + 0.5 · 0.2 + 0.2 · 0.2 = 0.44



- A player is given the opportunity to select one of three closed doors, behind one of which there is a prize.
- Behind the other two doors are empty rooms.
- Once the player has made a selection, Monty is obligated to open one of the remaining closed doors which does not contain the prize, showing that the room behind it is empty.
- He then asks the player if he would like to switch his selection to the other unopened door, or stay with his original choice.
- Does it matter if he switches?



Monty Hall Puzzle

http://cplint.eu/e/monty.swinb

```
:- use module(library(pita)).
:- endif.
:- pita.
:- begin_lpad.
prize(1):1/3; prize(2):1/3; prize(3):1/3.
open_door(2):0.5; open_door(3):0.5:- prize(1).
open door(2):- prize(3).
open_door(3):- prize(2).
win keep:- prize(1).
win switch:-
 prize(2),
  open_door(3).
win switch:-
 prize(3),
  open_door(2).
:- end lpad.
```



Throwing coins http://cplint.eu/e/coin.swinb

```
heads(Coin):1/2 ; tails(Coin):1/2 :-
  toss(Coin), \+biased(Coin).
heads(Coin):0.6 ; tails(Coin):0.4 :-
  toss(Coin), biased(Coin).
fair(Coin):0.9 ; biased(Coin):0.1.
toss(coin).
```


Examples

Mendel's inheritance rules for pea plants http://cplint.eu/e/mendel.pl

```
color(X,purple):-cg(X,_A,p).
color(X,white):-cg(X,1,w),cg(X,2,w).
cg(X,1,A):0.5; cg(X,1,B):0.5:-
mother(Y,X),cg(Y,1,A),cg(Y,2,B).
cg(X,2,A):0.5; cg(X,2,B):0.5:-
father(Y,X),cg(Y,1,A),cg(Y,2,B).
```

Probability of paths http://cplint.eu/e/path.swinb

```
path(X, X).
path(X, Y):-path(X, Z),edge(Z, Y).
edge(a,b):0.3.
edge(b,c):0.2.
edge(a,c):0.6.
```



Encoding Bayesian Networks



burg	t	f	earthq	t	f
	0.1	0.9		0.2	0.8

http://cplint.eu/e/alarm.pl

```
burg(t):0.1 ; burg(f):0.9.
earthq(t):0.2 ; earthq(f):0.8.
alarm(t):-burg(t),earthq(t).
alarm(t):0.8 ; alarm(f):0.2:-burg(t),earthq(f).
alarm(t):0.8 ; alarm(f):0.2:-burg(f),earthq(t).
alarm(t):0.1 ; alarm(f):0.9:-burg(f),earthq(f).
```



Expressive Power

- All languages under the distribution semantics have the same expressive power
- LPADs have the most general syntax
- There are transformations that can convert each one into the others
- PRISM, ProbLog to LPAD: direct mapping



LPADs to ProbLog

• Clause C_i with variables \overline{X}

. .

$$H_1: p_1 \vee \ldots \vee H_n: p_n \leftarrow B.$$

is translated into

$$H_{1} \leftarrow B, t_{i,1}(X).$$

$$H_{2} \leftarrow B, not(f_{i,1}(\overline{X})), f_{i,2}(\overline{X}).$$

$$\vdots$$

$$H_{n} \leftarrow B, not(f_{i,1}(\overline{X})), \dots, not(f_{i,n-1}(\overline{X})).$$

$$\pi_{1} :: f_{i,1}(\overline{X}).$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\pi_{n-1} :: f_{i,n-1}(\overline{X}).$$
where $\pi_{1} = p_{1}, \pi_{2} = \frac{p_{2}}{1-\pi_{1}}, \pi_{3} = \frac{p_{3}}{(1-\pi_{1})(1-\pi_{2})}, \dots$
In general $\pi_{i} = \frac{p_{i}}{\prod_{j=1}^{I-1}(1-\pi_{j})}$

 $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$



In

- PLP can be converted to Bayesian networks
- Conversion for an LPAD T
- For each ground atom A a binary variable A
- For each clause C_i in the grounding of T

$$H_1: p_1 \vee \ldots \vee H_n: p_n \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \neg C_1, \ldots, \neg C_n$$

a variable CH_i with $B_1, \ldots, B_m, C_1, \ldots, C_l$ as parents and H_1, \ldots, H_n and *null* as values



$$H_1: p_1 \vee \ldots \vee H_n: p_n \leftarrow B_1, \ldots B_m, \neg C_1, \ldots, \neg C_l$$

• The CPT of CH_i is

		$B_1 = 1, \ldots, B_m = 1, C_1 = 0, \ldots, C_l = 0$	
$CH_i = H_1$	0.0	p ₁	0.0
$CH_i = H_n$	0.0	p _n	0.0
$CH_i = null$	1.0	$1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i$	1.0



- Each variable *A* corresponding to atom *A* has as parents all the variables *CH_i* of clauses *C_i* that have *A* in the head.
- The CPT for A is:

	at least one parent = A	remaining cols		
A = 1	1.0	0.0		
<i>A</i> = 0	0.0	1.0		



$$\begin{array}{rcl} C_1 &=& x1: 0.4 \lor x2: 0.6. \\ C_2 &=& x2: 0.1 \lor x3: 0.9. \\ C_3 &=& x4: 0.6 \lor x5: 0.4 \leftarrow x1. \\ C_4 &=& x5: 0.4 \leftarrow x2, x3. \\ C_5 &=& x6: 0.3 \lor x7: 0.2 \leftarrow x2, x5. \end{array}$$





F. Riguzzi (UNIFE)

CH_1, CH_2	<i>x</i> 1, <i>x</i> 2	<i>x</i> 1, <i>x</i> 3	x2, x2	<i>x</i> 2, <i>x</i> 3
x2 = 1	1.0	0.0	1.0	1.0
x2 = 0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0

x2, x5	1,1	1,0	0,1	0,0
$CH_5 = x6$	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
$CH_5 = x7$	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
$CH_5 = null$	0.5	1.0	1.0	1.0





Function Symbols

- What if function symbols are present?
- Infinite, countable Herbrand universe
- Infinite, countable Herbrand base
- Infinite, countable grounding of the program T
- Uncountable W_T
- Each world infinite, countable
- *P*(*w*) = 0
- Semantics not well-defined



Game of dice

```
on(0,1):1/3 ; on(0,2):1/3 ; on(0,3):1/3.
on(T,1):1/3 ; on(T,2):1/3 ; on(T,3):1/3 :-
T1 is T-1, T1>=0, on(T1,F), \+ on(T1,3).
```



Hidden Markov Models



```
hmm(S,O):-hmm(q1,[],S,O).
hmm(end, S, S, []).
hmm (0, S0, S, [1, 0]) :-
  0 \le end.
  next_state(Q,Q1,S0),
  letter(O,L,SO),
  hmm(01,[0|S0],S,0).
next_state(q1, q1, _S):1/3; next_state(q1, q2_, _S):1/3;
  next state(gl,end, S):1/3.
next_state(q2, q1, _S):1/3; next_state(q2, q2, _S):1/3;
  next state(q2,end, S):1/3.
letter(g1,a, S):0.25;letter(g1,c, S):0.25;
  letter(q1, q, _S):0.25; letter(q1, t, _S):0.25.
letter(g2,a, S):0.25;letter(g2,c, S):0.25;
  letter(q2,q,_S):0.25;letter(q2,t,_S):0.25.
```



- Up to now only discrete random variables and discrete probability distributions.
- Hybrid Probabilistic Logic Programs: some of the random variables are continuous.
- cplint allows the specification of density functions over arguments of atoms in the head of rules



- A probability density on an argument Var of an atom A is specified with
 - A : Density :- Body.

where Density is a special atom

- uniform(Var,L,U): Var is uniformly distributed in [L, U]
- gaussian (Var, Mean, Variance): Gaussian distribution
- dirichlet (Var, Par): Dirichlet distribution with parameters α specified by the list ${\rm Par}$
- gamma (Var, Shape, Scale): gamma distribution
- beta(Var, Alpha, Beta): beta distribution
- + others (see the manual)



Hybrid Programs

- Also discrete distributions, with either a finite or countably infinite support:
 - discrete(Var,D) or finite(Var,D):D is a list of couples Value:Prob assigning probability Prob to Value
 - uniform(Var, D): D is a list of values each taking the same probability (1 over the length of D).
 - poisson (Var, Lambda): Poisson distribution



Semantics

- For each random variable, sample a value, obtaining a world
- Test Q in the world
- P(Q) is the probability that Q is true in the world



Examples

g(X) : gaussian(X,0,1).



g(X) : gaussian(X,[0,0],[[1,0],[0,1]]).





• http://cplint.eu/e/gaussian_mixture.pl defines a mixture of two Gaussians:

```
heads:0.6;tails:0.4.
g(X): gaussian(X,0, 1).
h(X): gaussian(X,5, 2).
mix(X) :- heads, g(X).
mix(X) :- tails, h(X).
```

The argument X of mix (X) follows a distribution that is a mixture of two Gaussian, one with mean 0 and variance 1 with probability 0.6 and one with mean 5 and variance 2 with probability 0.4.



- DISPONTE: "DIstribution Semantics for Probabilistic ONTologiEs" [Riguzzi et al. SWJ15]
- Probabilistic axioms:
 - p :: E

e.g., $p :: C \sqsubseteq D$ represents the fact that we believe in the truth of $C \sqsubseteq D$ with probability p.

 DISPONTE applies the distribution semantics of probabilistic logic programming to description logics



DISPONTE

- World w: regular DL KB obtained by selecting or not the probabilistic axioms
- Probability of a query Q given a world w: P(Q|w) = 1 if w |= Q, 0 otherwise
- Probability of Q $P(Q) = \sum_{w} P(Q, w) = \sum_{w} P(Q|w)P(w) = \sum_{w:w \models Q} P(w)$



Example

0.4 :: fluffy : Cat
0.3 :: tom : Cat
0.6 :: Cat ⊑ Pet
∃hasAnimal.Pet ⊑ NatureLover
(kevin, fluffy) : hasAnimal
(kevin, tom) : hasAnimal



 P(kevin : NatureLover) = 0.4 × 0.3 × 0.6 + 0.4 × 0.7 × 0.6 + 0.6 × 0.3 × 0.6 = 0.348



Knowledge-Based Model Construction

- The probabilistic logic theory is used directly as a template for generating an underlying complex graphical model [Breese et al. TSMC94].
- Languages: CLP(BN), Markov Logic



CLP(BN) [Costa UAI02]

- Variables in a CLP(BN) program can be random
- Their values, parents and CPTs are defined with the program
- To answer a query with uninstantiated random variables, CLP(BN) builds a BN and performs inference
- The answer will be a probability distribution for the variables
- Probabilistic dependencies expressed by means of CLP constraints
- { Var = Function with p(Values, Dist) }
- { Var = Function with p(Values, Dist, Parents) }





```
course_difficulty(Key, Dif) :-
{ Dif = difficulty(Key) with p([h,m,l],
[0.25, 0.50, 0.25]) }.
student_intelligence(Key, Int) :-
{ Int = intelligence(Key) with p([h, m, l],
[0.5, 0.4, 0.1]) }.
....
registration(r0, c16, s0).
registration(r1, c10, s0).
```

registration(r2,c57,s0).

registration(r3,c22,s1).



CLP(BN)

```
registration grade (Key, Grade) :-
registration(Key, CKey, SKey),
course difficulty(CKey, Dif),
student intelligence (SKey, Int),
{ Grade = grade (Key) with
p([a,b,c,d],
% h h m h l m h m m m l l h l m l l
[0.20, 0.70, 0.85, 0.10, 0.20, 0.50, 0.01, 0.05, 0.10,
 0.60,0.25,0.12,0.30,0.60,0.35,0.04,0.15,0.40,
 0.15,0.04,0.02,0.40,0.15,0.12,0.50,0.60,0.40,
 0.05,0.01,0.01,0.20,0.05,0.03,0.45,0.20,0.10 ],
 [Int,Dif]))
```



}.

CLP(BN)

```
?- [school 32].
   ?- registration_grade(r0,G).
p(G=a)=0.4115,
p(G=b)=0.356,
p(G=c)=0.16575,
p(G=d)=0.06675 ?
?- registration_grade(r0,G),
   student_intelligence(s0, h).
p(G=a)=0.6125,
p(G=b)=0.305,
p(G=c)=0.0625,
p(G=d)=0.02 ?
```



Markov Logic

- A Markov Logic Network (MLN) [Richardson, Domingos ML06] is a set of pairs (*F*, *w*) where *F* is a formula in first-order logic *w* is a real number
- Together with a set of constants, it defines a Markov network with
 - One node for each grounding of each predicate in the MLN
 - One feature for each grounding of each formula F in the MLN, with the corresponding weight w



- 1.5 $\forall x \ Intelligent(x) \rightarrow GoodMarks(x)$
- 1.1 $\forall x, y \; Friends(x, y) \rightarrow (Intelligent(x) \leftrightarrow Intelligent(y))$
- Constants Anna (A) and Bob (B)





Probability of an interpretation x

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(\sum_{i} w_{i} n_{i}(\mathbf{x}_{i}))}{Z}$$

- $n_i(\mathbf{x_i}) =$ number of true groundings of formula F_i in \mathbf{x}
- Typed variables and constants greatly reduce size of ground Markov net



- Inference: we want to compute the probability of a query given the model and, possibly, some evidence, or find assignments of the random variables with the highest probability
- Weight learning: we know the structural part of the model (the logic formulas) but not the numeric part (the weights) and we want to infer the weights from data
- Structure learning we want to infer both the structure and the weights of the model from data



Inference for PLP under DS

- EVID: compute an unconditional probability P(e), the probability of evidence (also query in this case).
- COND: compute the conditional probability distribution of the query given the evidence, i.e. compute P(q|e)
- MPE or *most probable explanation*: find the most likely value of all non-evidence atoms given the evidence, i.e. solving the optimization problem $\arg \max_q P(q|e)$
- MAP or maximum a posteriori: find the most likely value of a set of non-evidence atoms given the evidence, i.e. finding arg max_q P(q|e). MPE is a special case of MAP where Q ∪ E = H_T.
- DISTR: compute the probability distribution or density of the non-ground arguments of a conjunction of literals q, e.g., computing the probability density of X in goal mix(X) of the Gaussian mixture

F. Riguzzi (UNIFE

Weight Learning

- Given
 - model: a probabilistic logic model with unknown parameters
 - data: a set of interpretations
- Find the values of the parameters that maximize the probability of the data given the model
- Discriminative learning: maximize the conditional probability of a set of outputs (e.g. ground instances for a predicate) given a set of inputs
- Alternatively, the data are queries for which we know the probability: minimize the error in the probability of the queries that is returned by the model



Structure Learning

- Given
 - language bias: a specification of the search space
 - data: a set of interpretations
- Find the formulas and the parameters that maximize the likelihood of the data given the model
- Discriminative learning: again maximize the conditional likelihood of a set of outputs given a set of inputs



Conclusions

- Handling relationships
- Handling uncertainty
- Open problems
 - Semantics for hybrid programs with function symbols
 - Learning hybrid progams





Resources

Online course on cplint

- Moodle https://edu.swi-prolog.org/
- Videos of lectures https://www.youtube.com/playlist? list=PLJPXEH0boeND0UGWJxBRWs7qzzKpC-FkN
- ACAI summer school on Statistical Relational AI http://acai2018.unife.it/
- Videos of lectures https://www.youtube.com/playlist? list=PLJPXEH0boeNDWTNwWTWnVffXi5XwAj1mb
- Videos of lecture Probabilistic Inductive Logic Programming
 - Part 1 https://youtu.be/mLdPGSlgNxU
 - Part 2 https://youtu.be/DRlOft0Y_Ng
- cplint in Playing with Prolog https://www.youtube.com/ playlist?list=PLJPXEH0boeNAik6QnfvGlAGRQxFY_LCE3





THANKS FOR LISTENING AND ANY QUESTIONS ?



F. Riguzzi (UNIFE)

Introduction to PLP

72/78

- Breese, J. S., Goldman, R. P., and Wellman, M. P. (1994). Introduction to the special section on knowledge-based construction of probabilistic and decision models. IEEE Transactions On Systems, Man and Cybernetics, 24(11):1577-1579.
- Dantsin, E. (1991). Probabilistic logic programs and their semantics. In Russian Conference on Logic Programming, volume 592 of LNCS, pages 152-164. Springer.
- De Raedt, L., Kimmig, A., and Toivonen, H. (2007). Problog: A probabilistic prolog and its application in link discovery. In International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, pages 2462-2467.



- Poole, D. (1993). Logic programming, abduction and probability a top-down anytime algorithm for estimating prior and posterior probabilities. New Gener. Comput., 11(3):377-400.
- Poole, D. (1997). The Independent Choice Logic for modelling multiple agents under uncertainty. Artif. Intell., 94(1-2):7-56.
- Riguzzi, F. (2009). Extended semantics and inference for the Independent Choice Logic. Logic Journal of the IGPL.



- Sato, T. (1995). A statistical learning method for logic programs with distribution semantics. In International Conference on Logic Programming, pages 715-729.
- Vennekens, J., Verbaeten, S., and Bruynooghe, M. (2004). Logic programs with annotated disjunctions. In International Conference on Logic Programming, volume 3131 of LNCS, pages 195-209. Springer.
- Breese, J. S., Goldman, R. P., and Wellman, M. P. (1994). Introduction to the special section on knowledge-based construction of probabilistic and decision models. IEEE Transactions On Systems, Man and Cybernetics, 24(11):1577-1579.



- Costa, Vitor Santos, et al. CLP(BN): Constraint logic programming for probabilistic knowledge. Proceedings of the Nineteenth conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc., 2002.
- Richardson, Matthew, and Pedro Domingos. Markov logic networks. Machine learning 62.1-2 (2006): 107-136.
- Riguzzi, Fabrizio, et al. "Probabilistic description logics under the distribution semantics." Semantic Web 6.5 (2015): 477-501.

