An introduction to PRISM



- What is PRISM?
 - acronym of PRogramming In Statistical Modeling
 - programming language for symbolic-statistical modeling
 - downloadable at http://mi.cs.titech.ac.jp/prism/
- Modeling targets
 - complex phenomena governed by rules and probabilities
 - gene-inheritance, stochastic NLP, consumer-behavior,...
- Features
 - programs as statistical models
 - probabilities and most likely paths computed
 - parameter learning by the EM algorithm
- See [Sato '01] for theoretical background

Development of PRISM







An example of PRISM modeling

Gene inheritance





Program DB = rules + distribution P_F over msws



btype(X):- pg_table(X,[Gf,Gm]),gtype(Gf,Gm).
pg_table(X,GT): ((X=a;X=b),(GT=[X,o];GT=[o,X];GT=[X,X])
 ;X=o,GT=[o,o]

;X=ab,(GT=[a,b];GT=[b,a])). (basic random switch)
gtype(Gf,Gm):- msw(abo,Gf),mws(abo,Gm).

$$P_F(\mathsf{msw}(\mathsf{abo}, \mathsf{a})) = \theta_{(\mathsf{abo}, \mathsf{a})} = 0.3 \text{ (parameter)}$$

....
$$\Rightarrow P_{DB}(\mathsf{btype}(\mathsf{a})) = 0.4 \text{ (computed prob.)}$$

Observation — Explanation search — Prob. computation



PRISM Explanation graph

Three modes of execution

Prob. computation:

| ?- prob(btype(a)).The probability of btype(a) is: 0.4

Search for explanation graph:

```
| ?- probf(btype(a)).
btype(a) <=> gtype(a,a) v gtype(a,o) v gtype(o,a)
gtype(a,a) <=> msw(gene,a) & msw(gene,a)
gtype(a,o) <=> msw(gene,a) & msw(gene,o)
gtype(o,a) <=> msw(gene,o) & msw(gene,a)
```

Sampling: | ?- sample(btype(X)). X = a?





Learning parameters



Statistical modeling



PRISM



Declarative semantics

Parameterized logic programs

• Program $DB = F \cup R$

• R definite clauses (rules)

Prob. measure over the Herbrand interpretations of F parameterized with θ

- F probabilistic facts with $P_F(\cdot \mid \theta)$
- Distribution semantics

Prob. measure over the Herbrand interpretations of *DB*

- $P_F(\cdot \mid \theta)$ is extended by DB to $P_{DB}(\cdot \mid \theta)$
- $P_{DB}(\cdot \mid \theta)$ is the denotation of DB
- θ is set manually or learned from data



Distribution semantics (1) [Sato 95]



- Ground atom = random variable taking on {1,0}
- Program represents a set of ground clauses

$$DB = F \cup R$$

= {A₁, A₂, ...} \cup {B₁ \leftarrow W₁, ...}

- Why semantic difficulty?
 - infinite symbols infinite Herbrand universe
 - Recursion infinitely many random variables
 - D-semantics allows for recursion and infinite domains, and unconditionally definable (even for looping programs)

Distribution semantics (2)



- Sample P_F and get $\langle A_1 = 1, A_2 = 0, A_3 = 1, \ldots \rangle$
- \clubsuit Pick up $F' = \{A_1, A_3, \ldots\}$ a set of true facts
- \clubsuit The least Herbrand model $\mathbf{M}(F' \cup R)$ is defined
- \clubsuit Every ground atom has a truth value depending on F' and hence considered as a random variable
- $\stackrel{\text{\tiny \forall}}{\Rightarrow} P_{DB}(A_1 = x_1, B_1 = y_1, A_2 = x_2, B_2 = y_2, \dots \mid \theta)$ is defined PRISM

Distribution semantics (3)



P_{DB}(· | θ) is a σ-additive probability measure on
 Ω = {ω | ω = ⟨z₁, z₂,...⟩, z_i ∈ {0, 1}}

where $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ corresponds to an Herbrand interpretation

- φ closed formula: $P_{DB}(\varphi) = P_{DB}(\{\omega \mid \omega \models \varphi\})$
 - Globally consistent probs are assigned to all closed formulas
- Continuity by σ -additivity

 $P_{DB}(\exists x\varphi(x)) = \lim_{n\to\infty} P_{DB}(\varphi(t_1) \vee \ldots \vee \varphi(t_n))$

Note

- $P_F(\cdot \mid \theta)$ is constructed from finite distributions $P_F^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n \mid \theta) \ (n = 1, 2, \dots)$ $(= \sum_{x_{n+1}} P_F^{(n+1)}(x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1} \mid \theta))$
- Prob. mass distributes only over the set of possible least H-models {M(F' ∪ R) | F' ⊆ F}
- Distribution semantics covers logic programming, discrete Bayesian net, HMMs, PCFGs,...
- Definable for any DB (unlike other approaches:-)



Tabled search



Explanation graphs

- We compute probabilities using explanation graphs which are a compact representation of statistical-logical dependency among events.
- In an explanation graph, subgraphs are partially ordered and shared by super-graphs.
- Sharing of subgraphs causes sharing of computations by dynamic programming.
- Thus efficient computation is achievable.



Computation sharing





Tabling

- An explanation graph for *G* is obtainable by searching for all explanations of *G* using tabling.
- Tabling remembers successful goals and reuses them to avoid recomputation of the same goal.
- There are two ways of tabling in logic programming;
 - Suspension & resumption of multiple processes
 - based on OLDT search, difficult to implement (see XSB)
 - Single process with iterative search
 - Based on linear-tabling, easy to implement (see B-Prolog)
 - Adopted in PRISM

Linear Tabling [Zhou 04]



- A' is a descendant of A but identical to A.
- A' immediately fails after consuming existing answers in the table

- Advantages
 - easy to implement
 - overhead-free
 - space efficient
 - cut is easy to handle
- Disadvantage
 - iterative computation
- Optimizations
 - subgoal optimization
 - semi-naïve optimization possible





Learning parameters



gEM [Kemeya 00]

- To learn parameters in a program, we apply ML (maximum likelihood) estimation to observed data (top-goal G)
- Usually we do not know which of G's explanation is true one G is an incomplete data Use the EM algorithm.
- PRISM uses the gEM (graphical EM) algorithm which is a generic EM algorithm for PRISM programs unlike specialized ones such as the BW (Baum-Welch) algorithm and the IO (Inside-Outside) algorithm.
 - gEM is derived from distribution semantics.
 - gEM runs on explanation graphs in the manner of dynamic programming.
 - gEM achieves the same time complexity as BW and IO when OLDT search [Tamaki & Sato 86] is used for explanation graph construction.

Search-and-learn schema with tabulation

Tabled search + the graphical EM algorithm
 = efficient parameter learning





EM learning in PRISM

- Old approach:
 - Design a new EM algorithm for each application
- Our approach:
 - Write a PRISM program for each application



Time complexity of gEM + OLDT



- Total time = OLDT search time + iterations * time/iteration
- O(OLDT) ≥ O(explanation graphs) = O(updata-time/iteration)
- Equal to existing (specialized) EM algorithms

	OLDT	gEM	Specialized EM
HMMs	$O(N^2 LT)$	$O(N^2 LT)$	Baum-Welch
PCFGs	$O(N^3L^3T)$	$O(N^3L^3T)$	Inside-Outside
Singly connected Bayesian net	O(V T)	O(V T)	[Castillo et al. 97]
Pseudo PCSGs	$O(N^4 L^3 T)$	$O(N^4 L^3 T)$	[Charniak & Carroll 94]

N = #symbols, #states, L=sentence length, T = #data, |V| = #nodes

Conditions for fast EM learning



• Each observation has finitely many explanations: $comp(R) \vdash G \Leftrightarrow E_1 \lor \ldots \lor E_n$

where $E_i = \mathfrak{msw}_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge \mathfrak{msw}_k$

- Exclusiveness of explanations: $P_{DB}(E_i \wedge E_j) = 0; (i \neq j)$
- Uniqueness of observable goals:

 $P_{DB}(G_i \wedge G_j) = 0; (i \neq j) \text{ and } \sum_i P_{DB}(G_i) = 1$

- Acyclicity:
 - caller-callee relation is partial ordering
- Independence:
 - atoms in an explanation are independent

gEM vs. the Inside-Outside algorithm (1)



- PCFG is a CFG with probs assigned to rules $NP \rightarrow N(0.3), NP \rightarrow Adj N(0.3), NP \rightarrow SNP(0.4)$
- ATR corpus (size=10,995 min=2 ave.=10 max=49)
- PCFG: 860 rules (NT 173, POS 441)
- Parser used for explanation graph construction: Generalized LR (Tomita) parser
- gEM is 850 times faster than IO per iteration

Comparing updating time for sampled 100 sentences (ATR)





gEM vs. the Inside-Outside algorithm (2)



- EDR corpus (size=9,900 min=5 ave.=20 max=63)
- PCFG: 2,687 rules / 12,798 rules (CNF), 3*10^8 parses/sentence at sentence length 20 6.7*10^19 at 38
- Parser used for explanation graph construction: Generalized LR (Tomita) parser
- gEM is 1300 times faster than IO per iteration

Comparing updating time for sampled 100 sentences (EDR)





PCFGs in PRISM

• Probabilistic LL(1) parser with $O(L^3)$

```
\label{eq:constraint} target(pdcg,1). % we observe pdcg([boys,run]),... \\ values(vp,[[v],[v,np]]). % vp has two rules {vp->v, vp->v np} \\ ... % one of {msw(vp,[v]), msw(vp,[v,np])} \\ % is probabilistically chosen \\ pdcg(L):- start_symbol(C), pdcg2([C],L,[]). \\ pdcg2([Wd|R],[Wd|L0],L2):- terminal(Wd), pdcg2(R,L0,L2). \\ pdcg2([A|R],[Wd|L0],L2):- first(A,Wd), % Wd is in first(A) \\ msw(A,RHS), % probabilistic choice \\ pdcg2(RHS,[Wd|L0],L1), pdcg2(R,L1,L2). \\ pdcg2([],L1,L1). \\ \end{tabular}
```

 Parameter learning of PDCG form + ATR corpus completes in 3 min by a PC (3.4Ghz,2GB)

Exploring diverse modeling and parameter learning

- Naïve Bayes
- Profile HMM
- Linkage analysis
- PCFGs (PDCG, PLC, PGLR(k))
- HPSGs
- Graph grammars (HR, NLC)
- Shogi palyer

one report so far

no report so far



Negation and probabilistic constraint modeling

Failure by constraints [Sato 05]

- Generative models
 - simulate how observations are generated
 - no failure assumed (e.g.BNs,HMMs,PCFGs)
- Complex models use constraints
 - failure is inevitable (e.g.HPSGs)
 - Let's model probabilistic agreement in number







The fgEM algorithm

- Failure means loss of probability mass
 - gEM is not usable
 - Distribution is log-linear;

 $P(x \mid \text{success}, \theta)$ where $P(\text{success}) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}: proof} P(x \mid \theta)$

- EM learning of parameters is possible by fgEM
 - fgEM [Sato 04] = gEM [Kameya 00] + FAM [Cussens 01]
 - FAM computes average count of msws in a failed computation

$$E[\mathsf{msw}(i,v)|\mathsf{fail}] = \frac{\sum_{\chi(\mathsf{expl})=\mathsf{fail}} P_{DB}(\mathsf{expl} \mid \theta_k) \delta(\mathsf{msw}(i,v) \in \mathsf{expl})}{\sum_{\chi(\mathsf{expl})=\mathsf{fail}} p(\mathsf{expl} \mid \theta)}$$

• fgEM requires a failure program

Failure program



• A failure program is one that explicitly describes how failure occurs.



• PRISM1.8 uses FOC to automatically derive a failure program from the negation of a source program.



FOC (first-order compiler)

- Full automatic program synthesis for logic programs with negation [Sato 89]
- Compiled program DB^c positively computes the finite failure of DB



Negation elimination by FOC

Source program DB_{even}

even(0).
even(s(X)) :- not(even(X)).

Compiled program DB^ceven

```
even(0).
even(s(A)):- closure_even0(A,f0).
closure_even0(s(A),_):- even(A).
```

Extension



- Original FOC = for non-probabilistic programs
- Extended for PRISM programs containing negation

$$\neg \exists X(\mathsf{msw}(\mathsf{abo}, X) \land X = \mathsf{a}) \\ \Rightarrow \exists X \mathsf{msw}(\mathsf{abo}, X) \land (X \neq \mathsf{a}))$$

 This transformation is meaning-preserving in view of a new distribution semantics (not included in slides)

Constrained HMMs and a dieting professor

- Constrained HMMs are an instance of probabilistic constraint modeling.
 They are HMMs with constrains that may fail.
- Suppose a professor wishes to diet.
 There are two restaurants R0 and R1
 He visits them and orders pizza or sandwich at R0, and hamburger or sandwich at R1, probabilstically.
- He records lunches like [s,s,h,p,s,h,s].
- He tries to keep the total lunch calories in a week < 4000.</p>
- Only successful records are kept.





 Given: we have a list of his successful records.
 Task: infer the failure probability.

Program for the dieting professor

failure: - not(success). p,s success:- success(_). success(L):-diet(L,r0,0,7). R_0 diet(L,R,C,N):-N>0, msw(lunch(R),D), % order lunch (R == r0, % pizza or sandwich (D = p, C2 is C+900; D = s, C2 is C+400); R == r1, % hamburger or sandwich (D = h, C2 is C+400; D = s, C2 is C+500)),L=[D|L2],N2 is N-1, msw(tr(R),R2), % next restaurant diet(L2,R2,R2,N2). diet([], C, 0):- C < 4000. % calorie constraint must be met



h,s

 R_1



Failure program by FOC

```
failure: - closure_success0(f0).
closure_success0(A):- closure_chmm0(r0,0,7,A).
closure_chmm0(R,B,C,D):-
                                                 tail recursive just like
   (C > 0,
                                                  positive case
      msw(tr(R),R2), msw(lunch(R),F),
                                                  → dynamic programming
      (R_{\pm}=r_{0})
      : R = = r0.
         ( +F=p; F=p, G \text{ is } B+900, H \text{ is } C-1, closure_chmm0(R2,G,H,D)),
        ( +F=s; F=s, I is B+400, J is C-1, closure_chmm0(R2, I, J, D)))
      (R_{4} = r_{1})
      : R == r1
         (¥+F=h; F=h, K is B+400,L is C-1,closure_chmm0(R2,K,L,D)),
        ( ¥+F=s ; F=s, M is B+500, N is C-1, closure_chmm0(R2, M, N, D)))
   ; C = < 0 ),
   ( \pm +C=0 ; C=0, B \ge 4000 ).
```

fgEM learning





Note



- Failure programs can be obtainable by other methods
 - Manual derivation
 - traces all failed paths of computation by inspection and represent them as a program.
 - Negation technique [Sato 89]
 - gives better code than FOC but there are restrictions on applicability
- More complex probabilistic constraint modeling than constrained HMMs is possible.
 - Finite PCFGs = PCFGs with failure constraints [Sato 04]
 - HPSGs = unification based constraint grammar, approximated by PCFGs

References

- Please visit http://mi.cs.titech.ac.jp/prism/
 - Current version is PRISM1.8
- Papers ([Sato 01] is a most comprehensive paper)

[Sato 05] Sato, T., Kameya, Y. and Zhou, N.-F.: Generative modeling with failure in PRISM. IJCAI2005, to appear, 2005. [Zhou 04] Zhou N -F. Shen X -D. and Sato, T.: Semi-paive Evaluation in

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- [Kameya 00] Kameya, Y. and Sato, T.: Efficient EM learning with tabulation for parameterized logic programs. *CL2000*, LNAI, Vol.1861, pp.269–294, 2000.
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 - distribution semantics, ICLP95, Tokyo, pp.715–729, 1995.

Future plan

- More sophisticated learning
 - Conditional random fields
 - DAEM
 - Better tabled search
- More computer power
 - Parallel search on a grid machine
 - 64bit
- More applications
 - Graph grammars
 - User modeling

