

# *Exploiting Answer Set Programming with External Sources for Meta-Interpretive Learning*

TOBIAS KAMINSKI and THOMAS EITER

*Technical University of Vienna (TU Wien), Vienna, Austria*  
(e-mail: {kaminski,eiter}@kr.tuwien.ac.at)

KATSUMI INOUE

*National Institute of Informatics, Tokyo, Japan*  
(e-mail: inoue@nii.ac.jp)

*submitted 1 May 2018; accepted 11 May 2018*

---

## Abstract

Meta-Interpretive Learning (MIL) learns logic programs from examples by instantiating meta-rules, which is implemented by the *Metagol* system based on Prolog. Viewing MIL-problems as combinatorial search problems, they can alternatively be solved by employing Answer Set Programming (ASP), which may result in performance gains as a result of efficient conflict propagation. However, a straightforward ASP-encoding of MIL results in a huge search space due to a lack of procedural bias and the need for grounding. To address these challenging issues, we encode MIL in the HEX-formalism, which is an extension of ASP that allows us to outsource the background knowledge, and we restrict the search space to compensate for a procedural bias in ASP. This way, the import of constants from the background knowledge can for a given type of meta-rules be limited to relevant ones. Moreover, by abstracting from term manipulations in the encoding and by exploiting the HEX interface mechanism, the import of such constants can be entirely avoided in order to mitigate the grounding bottleneck. An experimental evaluation shows promising results.

**KEYWORDS:** Inductive Logic Programming, Meta-Interpretive Learning, Answer Set Programming

---

## 1 Introduction

Recently, *Meta-Interpretive Learning (MIL)* (Muggleton *et al.* 2015) has attracted a lot of attention in the area of *Inductive Logic Programming (ILP)*. The approach learns definite logic programs from positive and negative examples given some background knowledge by instantiating so-called *meta-rules*. The latter can be viewed as templates specifying the shapes of rules that may be used in the induced program. The formalism is very powerful as it enables *predicate invention*, i.e. to use new predicate symbols in the induced program, and supports learning of recursive programs, while the hypothesis space can be constrained effectively by using meta-rules.

MIL has been implemented in the *Metagol* system (Cropper and Muggleton 2016b), which is based on a classical *Prolog* meta-interpreter. The system is very efficient by exploiting the query-driven procedure of Prolog to guide the instantiation of meta-rules in a specific order. In contrast (and complementary) to a common *declarative bias* in ILP which constrains the hypothesis space, this constitutes a *procedural bias* that may affect efficiency (or even termination).

While traditionally most ILP systems are based on Prolog, the advantages of *Answer Set Programming (ASP)* (Gelfond and Lifschitz 1991) for ILP were recognized and several ASP-based systems have been developed, e.g. (Otero 2001; Ray 2009; Law *et al.* 2014). Some benign

features of ASP are its pure declarativity, which allows to modularly restrict the search space by adding rules and constraints to an encoding without risking non-termination, and that enumeration of solutions is easy. Furthermore, the efficiency and optimization techniques of modern ASP solvers such as CLASP (Gebser *et al.* 2012), which supports conflict propagation and learning, can be exploited. Muggleton *et al.* (2014) already considered an ASP-version of Metagol, which used only one specific meta-rule and was tailored to inducing grammars. The authors observed that ASP can have an advantage for MIL over Prolog due to effective pruning, but that it performs worse when the background knowledge is more extensive or only few constraints are present.

Implementing general MIL by ASP comes with its own challenges; and solving MIL-problems efficiently by utilizing a straightforward ASP encoding turns out to be infeasible in many cases. The first challenge is the large search space as a result of an unguided search due to a lack of procedural bias. Consequently, the search space must be carefully restricted in an encoding in order to avoid many irrelevant instantiations of meta-rules. The second and more severe challenge concerns the *grounding bottleneck* of ASP: in contrast to Prolog, where only relevant terms are taken into account by *unification*, all terms that possibly occur in a derivation from the background knowledge must be considered in a grounding step. Finally, a third challenge are recursive manipulations of structured objects, such as strings or lists, that are common for defining background knowledge in Metagol and easy to realize in Prolog, but are less supported in ASP.

In this paper, we meet the mentioned challenges for a class of MIL-problems that is widely encountered in practice, by developing a MIL-encoding in *ASP with external sources*, specifically in the HEX-formalism (Eiter *et al.* 2016). HEX-programs extend ASP with a bidirectional information exchange between a program and arbitrary external sources of computation via special *external atoms*, which may introduce new constants into a program by so-called *value invention*.

After introducing the necessary background on MIL and HEX-programs in Section 2, we proceed to present our contributions as follows:

- We introduce in Section 3 our novel MIL approach based on HEX-programs for general MIL-problems. In the first encoding,  $\Pi(\mathcal{M})$ , we restrict the search space by interleaving derivations at the object level and the meta level such that new instantiations of meta-rules can be generated based on pieces of information that are already derived wrt. partial hypotheses of rules. Furthermore, we outsource the background knowledge and access it by means of external atoms, which enables the manipulation of complex objects such as strings or lists.
- We then define the class of *forward-chained* MIL-problems, for which the grounding can be restricted. Informally, in such problems the elements  $x, y$  in the binary head  $p(x, y)$  of a rule must be connected via a path  $p_1(x_1, x_2), p_2(x_2, x_3), \dots, p_k(x_k, x_{k+1})$  in the body, where  $x = x_1$  and  $x_{k+1} = y$ . This allows us to guard the import of new terms from the background knowledge in a second encoding,  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$ , by using already imported terms in an inductive manner.
- A large number of constants may still be imported from the background knowledge. We thus develop in Section 4 a technique to abstract from object-level terms in a third encoding,  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ , by externally computing sequences of background knowledge atoms that derive all positive examples, and by checking non-derivability of negative examples with an external constraint.
- In Section 5, we present results of an empirical evaluation based on known benchmark problems; they provide evidence for the potential of using a HEX-based approach for MIL.

While our encoding is inspired by the implementation presented in (Muggleton *et al.* 2014), to the best of our knowledge, a general implementation of MIL using ASP has not been considered in the literature so far, and neither strategies to compensate for the missing procedural bias nor to mitigate grounding issues have been investigated. Despite the use of the HEX formalism, our results may be applied to other ASP formalisms and approaches as well. Proof sketches and details on the benchmark encodings used in Section 5 can be found in the supplementary material corresponding to this paper at the TPLP archives.

## 2 Background

We assume a finite set  $\mathcal{P}$  of predicate symbols, a finite set  $\mathcal{C}$  of constant symbols, and disjoint sets  $\mathcal{X}_1$  and  $\mathcal{X}_2$  of first-order and higher-order variables, resp., not overlapping with  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$ . An atom  $a$  of the form  $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ , where  $t_i \in \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{X}_1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , is *first-order* if  $p \in \mathcal{P}$  and *higher-order* if  $p \in \mathcal{X}_2$ ; its *arity* is  $n$ . A *ground atom* is a first-order atom where  $t_i \in \mathcal{C}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . We represent *interpretations* over the Herbrand base by sets of ground atoms, and an interpretation  $I$  *models* a ground atom  $a$ , denoted  $I \models a$ , if  $a \in I$ .

A (*disjunctive*) *logic program*  $P$  is a set of rules of the form

$$a_1 \vee \dots \vee a_k \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m, \text{not } b_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } b_n, \quad (1)$$

where each  $a_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , and each  $b_j$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , is a first-order atom. Given a rule  $r$ , we call  $H(r) = \{a_1, \dots, a_k\}$  the head of  $r$ ,  $B^+(r) = \{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$  the positive body of  $r$ , and  $B^-(r) = \{b_{m+1}, \dots, b_n\}$  the negative body of  $r$ . A rule is a *fact* if  $n = 0$ , a *constraint* if  $k = 0$ , and *definite* if  $k = 1$  and  $m = n$ . A *definite program* is a logic program that contains only definite rules.

The grounding  $\text{grd}(r)$  of a rule  $r$  is obtained as usual; the grounding of a program  $P$  is  $\text{grd}(P) = \bigcup_{r \in P} \text{grd}(r)$ . An interpretation  $I$  models a ground rule  $r$ , denoted  $I \models r$ , if  $I \models a_i$  for some  $a_i \in H(r)$ , whenever  $I \models b_i$  for all  $b_i \in B^+(r)$  and  $I \not\models b_j$  for all  $b_j \in B^-(r)$ . An interpretation  $I$  models a logic program  $P$ , denoted  $I \models P$ , if  $I \models r$  for all  $r \in \text{grd}(P)$ ; and a definite program  $P$  entails a ground atom  $a$ , denoted  $P \models a$ , if for every  $I$  s.t.  $I \models P$  it holds that  $I \models a$ .

**Meta-Interpretive Learning.** The *Meta-Interpretive Learning (MIL)* approach by Muggleton *et al.* (2015) learns definite logic programs from examples by instantiating so-called *meta-rules*. Here, we focus on meta-rules of the form

$$P(x, y) \leftarrow Q_1(x_1, y_1), \dots, Q_k(x_k, y_k), R_1(z_1), \dots, R_n(z_n), \quad (2)$$

where  $P, Q_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , and  $R_j$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , are higher-order variables, and  $x, y, x_i, y_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , and  $z_j$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , are first-order variables s.t.  $x$  and  $y$  also occur in the body. That is, we consider meta-rules with binary atoms in the head and with binary and/or unary atoms in the body. Meta-rules with unary head atoms can be simulated by using atoms of the form  $p(x, x)$ , and we allow meta-rules of arbitrary (finite) length, such that the program class  $H_m^2$  is covered (cf. Cropper and Muggleton, 2014). A *meta-substitution* of a meta-rule  $R$  is an instantiation of  $R$  where all higher-order variables are substituted by predicate symbols.<sup>1</sup> Examples of concrete meta-rules with names as used by Cropper and Muggleton (2016a) are shown in Figure 1.

We are now ready to formally introduce the setting of MIL, adapted to our approach.

<sup>1</sup> Even though we do not consider constants in meta-substitutions, they can easily be simulated by using e.g. a dedicated atom  $=_x(x)$  in the body, where  $=_x$  is defined in the background knowledge and binds  $x$  to a specific constant.

Precon:  $P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x), R(x, y)$  Postcon:  $P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, y), R(y)$   
 Chain:  $P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, z), R(z, y)$  Tailrec:  $P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, z), P(z, y)$

Fig. 1. Examples of Meta-Rules

### Definition 1

A *Meta-Interpretive Learning (MIL-) problem* is a quadruple  $\mathcal{M} = (B, E^+, E^-, \mathcal{R})$ , where

- $B$  is a definite program, called *background knowledge (BK)*;
- $E^+$  and  $E^-$  are finite sets of binary ground atoms called *positive resp. negative examples*;
- $\mathcal{R}$  is a finite set of meta-rules.

We say that  $B$  is *extensional* if it contains only ground atoms. A *solution* for  $\mathcal{M}$  is a *hypothesis*  $\mathcal{H}$  consisting of a set of meta-substitutions of meta-rules in  $\mathcal{R}$  s.t.  $B \cup \mathcal{H} \models e^+$  for each  $e^+ \in E^+$  and  $B \cup \mathcal{H} \not\models e^-$  for each  $e^- \in E^-$ .

In order to obtain solutions that generalize well to new examples, by Occam's Razor simple solutions to MIL-problems are desired; thus Metagol computes a *minimal solution* containing a minimal number of meta-substitutions (i.e. rules).

### Example 1

Consider the MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$ , with  $B = \{m(\text{ann}, \text{bob}), f(\text{john}, \text{bob}), m(\text{sue}, \text{ann}), f(\text{tim}, \text{ann})\}$ ,  $E^+ = \{a(\text{sue}, \text{bob}), a(\text{tim}, \text{bob}), a(\text{john}, \text{bob})\}$ ,  $E^- = \{a(\text{bob}, \text{tim})\}$ , abbreviating *mother*, *father* and *ancestor*, and meta-rules  $\mathcal{R} = \{P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, y); P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, z), R(z, y)\}$ . A minimal solution for  $\mathcal{M}$  is  $\{p1(x, y) \leftarrow f(x, y); p1(x, y) \leftarrow m(x, y); a(x, y) \leftarrow p1(x, y); a(x, y) \leftarrow p1(x, z), a(z, y)\}$ , where  $p1$  is an invented predicate intuitively representing the concept *parent*.

Muggleton *et al.* (2015) showed that MIL-problems as in Definition 1 are decidable if no proper function symbols (i.e., only constants) are used, and  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  are finite, but are undecidable in general. Yet, in practice, complex terms such as lists are often used for MIL. Hence, we assume some suitable restriction, e.g. to consider only a finite set of flat lists, s.t. in slight abuse of notation, complex ground terms (e.g.,  $[a, b, c]$ ) are technically regarded as constants in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**HEX-Programs.** For solving MIL-problems, we exploit the HEX formalism (Eiter *et al.* 2016) in our approach. HEX-*programs* extend disjunctive logic programs by *external atoms*, which can occur in rule bodies. External atoms are of the form  $\&g[X_1, \dots, X_k](Y_1, \dots, Y_l)$ , where  $X_i \in \mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{X}_1$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , are *input parameters*, and  $Y_j \in \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{X}_1$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq l$ , are *output parameters*. The semantics of a ground external atom  $\&g[p_1, \dots, p_k](c_1, \dots, c_l)$  with  $k$  input and  $l$  output parameters wrt. an interpretation  $I$  is determined by a  $1+k+l$ -ary (*Boolean*) *oracle function*  $f_{\&g}$  such that  $I \models \&g[p_1, \dots, p_k](c_1, \dots, c_l)$  iff  $f_{\&g}(I, p_1, \dots, p_k, c_1, \dots, c_l) = 1$ . In practice, oracle functions are usually realized as plugins provided to a solver, implemented in C++ or Python code.

HEX-programs  $\Pi$  are interpreted under the *answer set semantics* (Gelfond and Lifschitz 1991) based on the *FLP-reduct* by Faber *et al.* (2011) (a variant of the well-known *GL-reduct*), which for an interpretation  $I$  is  $f\Pi^I = \{r \in \text{grd}(\Pi) \mid I \models b_i \text{ for all } b_i \in B^+(r), I \not\models b_j \text{ for all } b_j \in B^-(r)\}$ . An interpretation  $I$  is an *answer set* of a HEX-program  $\Pi$  if  $I$  is a subset-minimal model of  $f\Pi^I$ .

### Example 2

Consider the HEX-program  $\Pi = \{l([a, a]); l(y) \leftarrow \&\text{remove}[x](y), l(x)\}$ , and suppose that the oracle function  $f_{\&\text{remove}}(I, X, Y)$  evaluates to 1 iff  $X$  and  $Y$  are ground lists and  $Y$  can be obtained from  $X$  by removing the first list element. The single answer set of  $\Pi$  is  $\{l([a, a]), l([a]), l([\ ])\}$ .

Note that in Example 2, the output of the external atom contains constants not occurring in  $\Pi$  and are thus introduced by the external source by so-called *value invention*. By employing suitable safety conditions, it can be ensured that only finitely many new constants must be considered. For more details we refer to (Eiter *et al.* 2016). As HEX allows for predicate input to external atoms, their semantics may depend on the extension of predicates in an answer set.

### Example 3

Consider the HEX-program  $\Pi = \{p(a) \vee p(b); \leftarrow \&contains[p, b]()\}$ , and suppose that the oracle function  $f_{\&contains}(I, p, b)$  evaluates to 1 iff  $p(b) \in I$ . Without the constraint,  $\Pi$  has the two answer sets  $\{p(a)\}$  and  $\{p(b)\}$ , whereby the constraint eliminates the second one.

## 3 HEX-Encoding of Meta-Interpretive Learning

In this section, we introduce our main encoding for solving general MIL-problems, where the BK is stored externally and interfaced by means of external atoms. Subsequently, we present a modification of the encoding which reduces the number of constants that need to be considered during grounding in case only a certain type of meta-rules is used.

A major motivation for developing an ASP-based approach to solve MIL-problems is that constraints given by negative examples can be efficiently propagated by an ASP solver, while Metagol checks them only at the end. This can be shown by simple synthetic examples; e.g. consider the BK of facts  $q_i^j(i)$ ,  $q_i^{11}(i)$  and  $q_i^j(0)$ , for  $1 \leq i, j \leq 10$ . For the positive examples  $p(1), \dots, p(10)$  and the negative example  $p(0)$ , Metagol finds no solution within one hour using meta-rule  $P(x) \leftarrow Q(x)$ . In contrast, the problem can be solved by a simple ASP encoding instantly. The reason is that e.g.  $p(1)$  can only be derived by the rule  $p(x) \leftarrow q_1^{11}(x)$  given the negative example  $p(0)$ , and Metagol explores a huge number of rule combinations before this is detected.

While the issue of negative examples can be tackled by using ordinary ASP, we employ here HEX-programs as they enable us to outsource the BK from the encoding. This allows us to conveniently specify intensional BK using, e.g. string or list manipulations, which are usually not available in ASP. Another advantage of outsourcing the BK is that the approach becomes parametric wrt. the formalization of the BK, as it is in principle possible to plug in arbitrary (monotonic) external theories (e.g. a description logic ontology). Beyond this flexibility provided by HEX, external atoms are essential to limit the BK that is imported as described in the latter part of this section, and for realizing our state abstraction technique in Section 4.

As we consider meta-rules using unary and binary atoms, we introduce external atoms for importing the relevant unary and binary atoms that are entailed by the BK in an encoding.

### Definition 2

Given a MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$ , we call the external atom  $\&bkUnary[deduced](X, Y)$  *unary BK-atom* and  $\&bkBinary[deduced](X, Y, Z)$  *binary BK-atom*, where the associated oracle functions fulfill  $f_{\&bkUnary}(I, deduced, X, Y) = 1$  iff  $B \cup \{p(a, b) \mid deduced(p, a, b) \in I\} \models X(Y)$ , respectively  $f_{\&bkBinary}(I, deduced, X, Y, Z) = 1$  iff  $B \cup \{p(a, b) \mid deduced(p, a, b) \in I\} \models X(Y, Z)$ .

The BK-atoms receive as input the extension of the predicate *deduced*, which represents the set of all atoms that can be deduced from the program that results from the meta-substitutions of the current hypothesis. Their output constants represent unary, resp., binary atoms that are entailed by the BK augmented with the atoms described by *deduced*.

In theory, MIL can be encoded by applying the well-known *guess-and-check* methodology, i.e. by generating all combinations of meta-substitutions from the given meta-rules and available

predicate symbols, deriving all entailed atoms, and checking compatibility with examples using constraints. However, this results in a huge search space due to the many possible combinations of meta-substitutions, on top of many meta-substitutions that can be generated by different combinations of predicate symbols. At the same time, a large fraction of meta-substitutions is irrelevant for inducing a hypothesis as the resulting rule bodies can never be satisfied based on atoms that are deduced using other rules from the hypothesis and the BK.

For this reason, we interleave guesses on the meta level and derivations on the object level, i.e. deductions using meta-substitutions already guessed to be part of the hypothesis, and we model a procedural bias ensuring that meta-substitutions can only be added if their body is already satisfied by atoms deducible on the object level. Note that while Metagol's top-down mechanism effects that only meta-substitutions necessary for deriving a goal atom are generated, our approach works bottom-up such that the procedural bias is inverted. Guarding the guesses of meta-substitutions in this way has not been considered by Muggleton *et al.* (2014); this constitutes the basis for techniques that restrict the size of the grounding discussed later on.

As in the Metagol implementation of MIL (Muggleton *et al.* 2015), given a MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M} = (B, E^+, E^-, \mathcal{R})$ , we associate each meta-rule  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  with a unique identifier  $R_{id}$  and a set of *ordering constraints*  $R_{ord} \subseteq \{ord(P, Q) \mid P, Q \in \mathcal{X}_2 \text{ occur in } R\}$ ; and we assume a predefined total ordering  $\succeq_{\mathcal{P}}$  over the predicate symbols in  $\mathcal{P}$ . The ordering constraints can be utilized to constrain the search space, and are necessary in Metagol in order to ensure termination. A meta-substitution of a meta-rule  $R$  with head predicate  $p$  instantiated for the higher-order variable  $P$  satisfies the ordering constraints  $R_{ord}$  in case  $p \succeq_{\mathcal{P}} q$  for every binary body predicate  $q$  instantiated for a higher-order variable  $Q$  s.t.  $ord(P, Q) \in R_{ord}$ . Here, we apply ordering constraints only to pairs of head and body predicates, but in general this can be extended to arbitrary pairs of predicates in a meta-substitution. Moreover, we assume that a set  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  of *Skolem predicates* can be used for predicate invention, where no element in  $\mathcal{S}$  occurs in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

We are now ready to present our main encoding for solving MIL-problems using HEX.

### Definition 3

Given a MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M} = (B, E^+, E^-, \mathcal{R})$  and a finite set of Skolem predicates  $\mathcal{S}$ , let  $Sig$  be the set that contains each  $p \in \mathcal{S}$  and each predicate symbol  $p$  that occurs either in  $E^+ \cup E^-$  or in a rule head in  $B$ . The HEX-MIL-encoding for  $\mathcal{M}$  is the HEX-program  $\Pi(\mathcal{M})$  containing

- (1) a fact  $sig(p) \leftarrow$  for each  $p \in Sig$ , and a fact  $ord(p, q) \leftarrow$  for all  $p, q \in Sig$  s.t.  $p \succeq_{\mathcal{P}} q$
- (2) the rules  $unary(x, y) \leftarrow \&bkUnary[deduced](x, y)$  and  $deduced(x, y, z) \leftarrow \&bkBinary[deduced](x, y, z)$
- (3) for each meta-rule  $R = P(x, y) \leftarrow Q_1(x_1, y_1), \dots, Q_k(x_k, y_k), R_1(z_1), \dots, R_n(z_n) \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $\{ord(P, Q_{i_1}), \dots, ord(P, Q_{i_m})\} = \{ord(P, Q_i) \in R_{ord} \mid i \in \{1, \dots, k\}\}$ ,
  - (a) a rule

$$\begin{aligned} & meta(R_{id}, x_P, x_{Q_1}, \dots, x_{Q_k}, x_{R_1}, \dots, x_{R_n}) \vee n\_meta(R_{id}, x_P, x_{Q_1}, \dots, x_{Q_k}, x_{R_1}, \dots, x_{R_n}) \leftarrow \\ & sig(x_P), sig(x_{Q_1}), \dots, sig(x_{Q_k}), sig(x_{R_1}), \dots, sig(x_{R_n}), ord(x_P, x_{Q_1}), \dots, ord(x_P, x_{Q_{i_m}}), \\ & deduced(x_{Q_1}, x_1, y_1), \dots, deduced(x_{Q_k}, x_k, y_k), unary(x_{R_1}, z_1), \dots, unary(x_{R_n}, z_n) \end{aligned}$$

- (b) and a rule

$$\begin{aligned} & deduced(x_P, x, y) \leftarrow meta(R_{id}, x_P, x_{Q_1}, \dots, x_{Q_k}, x_{R_1}, \dots, x_{R_n}), \\ & deduced(x_{Q_1}, x_1, y_1), \dots, deduced(x_{Q_k}, x_k, y_k), unary(x_{R_1}, z_1), \dots, unary(x_{R_n}, z_n) \end{aligned}$$



- (4) a constraint  $\leftarrow \text{not deduced}(p, a, b)$  for each  $p(a, b) \in E^+$ , and  
 a constraint  $\leftarrow \text{deduced}(p, a, b)$  for each  $p(a, b) \in E^-$

In the encoding, the predicate *meta* contains meta-substitutions added to an induced hypothesis, and *deduced* captures all atoms that can be deduced from a guessed hypothesis together with the BK. As we consider examples to be binary atoms and only binary atoms can be derived from meta-substitutions, those binary atoms entailed by the BK are directly derived to be in the extension of *deduced*, while unary atoms can only be derived from the BK s.t. they do not need to be added to the extension of *deduced* and are imported via the predicate *unary* in item (2).

Item (3) constitutes the core of the encoding, which contains the meta-level guessing part (a) and the object-level deduction part (b). A meta-substitution can be guessed to be part of the hypothesis only if first-order instantiations of its body atoms can already be deduced, i.e. only if it is potentially useful for deriving a positive example. At this, predicate names must be from the signature *Sig* and the ordering constraints must be satisfied as stated by the facts in item (1). Finally, item (4) adds the constraints imposed by the positive and negative examples.

For a given MIL-problem, solutions constituted by induced logic programs can directly be obtained from the answer sets of the respective HEX-MIL-encoding. The induced logic program represented by the *meta*-atoms in an interpretation is extracted as follows:

#### Definition 4

For a set of meta-rules  $\mathcal{R}$ , the *logic program induced* by a given interpretation  $I$  consists of all rules obtained from an atom of the form  $\text{meta}(R_{id}, x_P, x_{Q_1}, \dots, x_{Q_k}, x_{R_1}, \dots, x_{R_n})$  in  $I$  such that the meta-rule  $R = P(x, y) \leftarrow Q_1(x_1, y_1), \dots, Q_k(x_k, y_k), R_1(z_1), \dots, R_n(z_n)$  is in  $\mathcal{R}$ , by substituting  $P$  by  $x_P$ ,  $Q_i$  by  $x_{Q_i}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , and  $R_j$  by  $x_{R_j}$  for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .

In the following, we assume that  $\mathcal{R}$  is given by the respective MIL-problem at hand.

Every answer set of a HEX-MIL-encoding encodes a solution for the respective MIL-problem, and all solutions  $\mathcal{H}$  that only contain *productive* rules, i.e. rules such that all atoms in the body of some ground instance is entailed by  $B \cup \mathcal{H}$ , can be generated in this way.

#### Theorem 1

Given a MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$ , (i) if  $S$  is an answer set of  $\Pi(\mathcal{M})$ , the logic program  $\mathcal{H}$  induced by  $S$  is a solution for  $\mathcal{M}$ ; and (ii) if  $\mathcal{H}$  is a solution for  $\mathcal{M}$  s.t. all rules in  $\mathcal{H}$  satisfy  $R_{ord}$  and are productive, then there is an answer set  $S$  of  $\Pi(\mathcal{M})$  s.t.  $\mathcal{H}$  is the logic program induced by  $S$ .

Although the general HEX-MIL-encoding in Definition 3 works well when only a small number of constants is introduced by the BK-atoms, the grounding can quickly become prohibitively large when many constants are generated (e.g. due to list operations). This results from the fact that constants produced by item (2) in Definition 3 are also relevant for instantiating the rules defined in items (3a) and (3b), which contain many variables, causing a combinatorial explosion.

#### Example 4

Consider a MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$ , containing BK  $B = \{\text{remove}([X|R], R) \leftarrow\}$ , and the positive examples  $E^+ = \{\text{remove2}([a, a, a], [a]), \text{remove2}([b, b], [])\}$ . Here, the definition of the BK should be read as an abbreviation for a set of facts, e.g. containing  $\text{remove}([a, a], [a])$ ,  $\text{remove}([a], [])$ , etc., exploiting the list notation of Prolog. Accordingly, the predicate *remove* drops the first element from a list, and a corresponding hypothesis intuitively needs to remove the first two elements from the list in the first argument of an example to yield the second one.

Now, assume that  $\mathcal{C}$  contains lists with letters from the set  $\{a, b, c\}$  up to some length  $n$ . Then, the BK contains, e.g.,  $remove([c, c], [c])$ ,  $remove([c, c, c], [c, c])$ , etc., up to length  $n$ , which are imported via the BK-atoms. However, lists containing the letter  $c$  are irrelevant wrt.  $\mathcal{M}$  because they cannot be obtained from lists appearing in the examples using the operations in the BK.

Next, we introduce a class of meta-rules that allows us to restrict the number of constants imported from the BK, based on the observation from the previous example.

*Definition 5*

A *forward-chained* meta-rule is of the form

$$P(z_0, z_k) \leftarrow Q_1(z_0, z_1), \dots, Q_i(z_{i-1}, z_i), \dots, Q_k(z_{k-1}, z_k), R_1(x_1), \dots, R_l(x_l),$$

where  $1 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $0 \leq l$ , and  $x_j \in \{z_0, \dots, z_k\}$  for all  $1 \leq j \leq l$ . A MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  is *forward-chained* if  $\mathcal{R}$  only contains forward-chained meta-rules.

Intuitively, all first-order variables in the body of a forward-chained meta-rule are part of a chain between the first and second argument of the head atom. Viewing binary predicates in the BK as mappings from their first to their second argument, only atoms from an extensional BK are relevant that occur in a chain between the first and the second argument of examples. Hence, atoms from the BK only need to be imported when their first argument occurs in the examples or in a deduction wrt. BK that has already been imported. However, when the derivable BK depends on guessed meta-substitutions, additional atoms might be relevant, and thus, we only consider extensional BK in the following.

For restricting the import of BK, we introduce a modification of the external atoms from Definition 2, where the output is guarded by an input constant.

*Definition 6*

Given a forward-chained MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $B$  is extensional, we call the external atoms  $\&fcUnary[Y](X)$  and  $\&fcBinary[Y](X, Z)$  *unary* and *binary forward-chained BK-atom*, resp., where  $f_{\&fcUnary}(I, Y, X) = 1$  iff  $X(Y) \in B$ , resp.,  $f_{\&fcBinary}(I, Y, X, Z) = 1$  iff  $X(Y, Z) \in B$ .

As we assume the BK to be extensional, the input parameter *deduced* is not needed for forward-chained BK-atoms. Based on the previous definition, we can modify our HEX-MIL-encoding such that only relevant atoms from the BK are imported, where forward-chained BK-atoms receive as input all constants that already occur in a deduction or the examples.

*Definition 7*

Given a forward-chained MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $B$  is extensional, the *forward-chained HEX-MIL-encoding* for  $\mathcal{M}$  is the HEX-program  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  containing items (1), (3) and (4) from Definition 3, and the rules

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(f1)} \quad unary(x, y) \leftarrow \&fcUnary[y](x), s(y) & \text{(f3)} \quad s(a) \leftarrow \text{for each } p(a, b) \in E^+ \cup E^- \\ \text{(f2)} \quad deduced(x, y, z) \leftarrow \&fcBinary[y](x, z), s(y) & \text{(f4)} \quad s(y) \leftarrow deduced(., ., y) \end{array}$$

The main difference between  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  and  $\Pi(\mathcal{M})$  is that the import of BK is guarded by the predicate  $s$  in items (f1) and (f2), whose extension contains all constants appearing as first argument of an example, due to item (f3), and all constants that appear in deductions based on the already imported BK, due to item (f4).

Every answer set of the forward-chained HEX-MIL-encoding still corresponds to a solution of the respective MIL-problem, but not all solutions may be obtained. Nonetheless, it is ensured that a minimal solution (i.e., with fewest meta-substitutions) is encoded by some answer set:



*Theorem 2*

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a forward-chained MIL-problem with extensional  $B$ . Then, (i) for every answer set  $S$  of  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$ , the logic program induced by  $S$  is a solution for  $\mathcal{M}$ ; and (ii) there is an answer set  $S'$  of  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  s.t. the logic program induced by  $S'$  is a minimal solution for  $\mathcal{M}$  if one exists.

Since, in practice, we employ iterative deepening search for computing a minimal solution, any minimal solution encoded by an answer set of  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  is guaranteed to be found. Thus, we can obtain minimal solutions while grounding issues are mitigated by steering the import of BK. An additional search space reduction results from the pruning of the grounding.

#### 4 State Abstraction

Based on the observation that operations represented by binary BK predicates can be applied sequentially when only forward-chained meta-rules are used, we introduce in this section a further technique that eliminates object-level constants from the encoding entirely. While the  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$ -encoding focuses the import of constants to those obtainable from constants that already occur in deductions, the number of relevant constants can still be large if many binary BK atoms share the first argument; and all of them must be considered during grounding. However, only one BK atom is needed for each element in a chain that derives a positive example  $p(x, y)$  by connecting  $x$  and  $y$ . In fact, the  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$ -encoding solves two problems at the same time: (1) finding sequences of binary BK predicates that derive positive examples; and (2) inducing a (minimal) program that calls the predicates in the respective sequences, and prevents the derivation of negative examples.

*Example 5*

Consider the MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $B$  contains the extension of *remove* from Example 4, and extensional BK represented by  $switch([X, Y|R], [Y, X|R]) \leftarrow$  and  $firstA([a|R]) \leftarrow$ . Furthermore, let  $E^+ = \{p([c, a, b, a, b], [c])\}$ ,  $E^- = \{p([c, b, a, b, b], [c])\}$ , and  $\mathcal{R} = \{P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, z), R(z, y); P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, y), R(y); P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, y)\}$ . Intuitively, a solution program needs to memorize  $c$  and delete the rest; this requires to repeatedly switch the first two elements and remove the first element. For success, the input list must have  $a$  at position 2. This is captured by the hypothesis  $\mathcal{H} = \{p(x, y) \leftarrow p1(x, z), p(z, y); p(x, y) \leftarrow remove(x, y); p1(x, y) \leftarrow switch(x, y), firstA(y); p1(x, y) \leftarrow remove(x, z), switch(z, y)\}$ , where  $p1$  is an invented predicate; this is in fact a minimal solution for  $\mathcal{M}$ . In addition, any program which enables derivations that alternate between calling *switch* and *remove* and prevents to derive the negative example using *firstA* as a guard would be a solution. Notably, the search space of Metagol also contains hypotheses that have no alternation between *switch* and *remove* and thus cannot be solutions.

The previous example illustrates that the derivability of positive examples depends on the sequences by which binary BK predicates are called in the induced program. Here, finding a correct sequence for a given example can be viewed as a *planning problem*, where object-level constants represent *states*, binary BK predicates are viewed as *actions*, and unary BK predicates constitute *fluents*. The *state abstraction* technique described in the sequel exploits the insight that the tasks of (1) solving the planning problem and (2) finding a matching hypothesis can be separated, where the HEX-program encodes task (2), and computations involving states are performed externally. The advantage of task separation and state abstraction increases with the number of actions that are applicable in a state, as usually more actions not occurring in a

derivation of a positive example can be ignored; this reduces the search space and the size of the grounding.

We represent possible plans to derive positive examples by sequences of binary BK atoms. At this, cyclic sequences (or plans) have to be excluded by requiring that constants (states) occur only once because otherwise, we may obtain infinitely many sequences for a positive example:

*Definition 8*

Given a forward-chained MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $B$  is extensional, the function  $Seq$  maps each positive example  $p(c_1, c_k) \in E^+$  to the set  $Seq(p(c_1, c_k))$  containing all sequences  $p_1(c_1, c_2), \dots, p_{k-1}(c_{k-1}, c_k)$ , where  $p_i(c_i, c_{i+1}) \in B$  for all  $1 \leq i < k$ , and  $c_i \neq c_j$  if  $i \neq j$ .

*Example 6 (cont'd)*

Reconsider  $\mathcal{M}$  from Example 5. Then  $Seq(p([c, a, b, a, b], [c])) = \{seq\}$ , ( $s = switch$ ,  $r = remove$ ),

$$seq = s([c, a, b, a, b], [a, c, b, a, b]), r([a, c, b, a, b], [c, b, a, b]), s([c, b, a, b], [b, c, a, b]), \\ r([b, c, a, b], [c, a, b]), s([c, a, b], [a, c, b]), r([a, c, b], [c, b]), s([c, b], [b, c]), r([b, c], [c]).$$

In order to make information about action sequences that derive positive examples and fluents that hold in states available to the HEX-encoding, we next introduce two external atoms that import such information. States are simply represented by integers in the output as their structure is irrelevant for combining sequences into a hypothesis that generalizes the plans.

*Definition 9*

For a forward-chained MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $B$  is extensional, let  $e_{id}^+$  and  $seq_{id}$  be unique identifiers, resp., for each  $e^+ \in E^+$  and  $seq \in \bigcup_{e^+ \in E^+} Seq(e^+)$ . The external atoms  $\&saUnary[](X, Y)$  and  $\&saBinary[](X, Y, Z)$  are called *unary* and *binary state abstraction (sa-)atoms*, resp., where

- $f_{\&saUnary}(I, X, Y) = 1$  iff  $X = r$ ,  $Y = (e_{id}^+, seq_{id}, i)$ , and  $r(c_i) \in B$ ; resp.
- $f_{\&saBinary}(I, X, Y, Z) = 1$  iff  $X = p_i$ ,  $Y = (e_{id}^+, seq_{id}, i)$ , and  $Z = (e_{id}^+, seq_{id}, i + 1)$ ,

with  $e^+ \in E^+$ ,  $seq = p_1(c_1, c_2), \dots, p_{k-1}(c_{k-1}, c_k) \in Seq(e^+)$ , and  $i \in \{1, \dots, k - 1\}$ .

For instance, for  $\mathcal{M}$  from Example 5,  $\&saBinary[](switch, (e_{id}^+, seq_{id}, 1), (e_{id}^+, seq_{id}, 2))$  is true, where  $e_{id}^+$  is the identifier of the positive example,  $seq_{id}$  is the identifier of the sequence shown in Example 6, and the integers 1 and 2 represent the states  $[c, a, b, a, b]$  and  $[a, c, b, a, b]$ , respectively, where the second state can be reached from the first state by applying the action *switch*.

In our encoding with state abstractions we also need information about the start and end states of sequences associated with positive examples, as a hypothesis needs to encode a plan for each positive example. This information is accessed via an external atom as well.

*Definition 10*

For a forward-chained MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$ , the external atom  $\&checkPos[](X_1, X_2, Y, Z)$  fulfills that  $f_{\&checkPos}(I, X_1, X_2, Y, Z) = 1$  iff  $X_1 = e_{id}^+$ ,  $X_2 = p$ ,  $Y = (e_{id}^+, seq_{id}, 1)$ , and  $Z = (e_{id}^+, seq_{id}, k + 1)$  for some  $p(a, b) = e^+ \in E^+$  and  $seq = p_1(a, c_2), \dots, p_k(c_k, b) \in Seq(e^+)$ .

Finally, it can only be determined wrt. the BK whether a candidate hypothesis derives a negative example, s.t. the corresponding check cannot be performed in an encoding without importing relevant atoms from the BK. As our goal is to abstract from explicit states in the BK, we also need to outsource the check for non-derivability of negative examples by an external constraint.

*Definition 11*

Given a MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$ , the oracle function  $f_{\&failNeg}(I, meta)$  associated with the external atom  $\&failNeg[meta]()$  evaluates to 1 iff  $B \cup \mathcal{H} \models e^-$  for some  $e^- \in E^-$ , where  $\mathcal{H}$  is the logic program induced by  $\{meta(R_{id}, x_P, x_{Q_1}, \dots, x_{Q_k}, x_{R_1}, \dots, x_{R_n}) \in I\}$ .

In the implementation, the external atom  $\&failNeg[meta]()$  receives information about meta-substitutions already guessed by the solver to be in the respective hypothesis. It can be evaluated to true as soon as a negative example is derivable wrt. its input, as definite logic programs are monotonic; as this may violate a constraint, backtracking in a solver can be triggered.

*Example 7*

Consider MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  with  $B = \{q(a, b), q(a, c), r(a, b)\}$ ,  $E^+ = \{p(a, b)\}$ ,  $E^- = \{p(a, c)\}$ , and  $\mathcal{R} = \{R = P(x, y) \leftarrow Q(x, y)\}$ . For  $I = \{meta(R_{id}, p, q)\}$ , we obtain that  $f_{\&failNeg}(I, meta) = 1$  as the negative example can be derived from  $B \cup \{p(x, y) \leftarrow q(x, y)\}$ ; a solver can exploit the information that  $p(x, y) \leftarrow q(x, y)$  cannot belong to any solution.

Utilizing the external atoms introduced in this section, we define an encoding which separates the planning from the generalization problem and contains no object-level constants.

*Definition 12*

Given a forward-chained MIL-problem  $\mathcal{M}$  where  $B$  is extensional, its *state abstraction* (*sa*-) *HEX-MIL-encoding* is the HEX-program  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  that contains all rules in items (1) and (3) of Definition 3, where *Sig* additionally contains  $e_{id}^+$  for each  $e^+ \in E^+$ , and the rules

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| (s1) $unary(x, y) \leftarrow \&saUnary[](x, y)$   | (s5) $posI(x_{id}) \leftarrow pos(x_{id}, \rightarrow, \rightarrow)$ |
| (s2) $deduced(x, y, z) \leftarrow \&saBinary[](x, y, z)$  | (s6) $\leftarrow not\ deduced(x, y, z), pos(\rightarrow, x, y, z)$   |
| (s3) $\leftarrow not\ posI(e_{id}^+)$ , for each $e^+ \in E^+$                                      | (s7) $\leftarrow \&failNeg[meta]()$                                  |
| (s4) $pos(x_{id}, x, y, z) \vee \neg pos(x_{id}, x, y, z) \leftarrow \&checkPos[](x_{id}, x, y, z)$ |  |

Items (s1) and (s2) in  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  import the fluents for all relevant states and state transitions wrt. sequences that derive positive examples, where states are abstracted. The external atom  $\&checkPos[](X_1, X_2, Y, Z)$  in item (s4) imports all tuples representing the start and end state of each sequence for each positive example. The disjunctive head of (s4) enables each tuple representing a sequence to be guessed to be in the extension of the predicate  $pos$ , which represents all sequences that are modeled by the induced program. While a minimal hypothesis is guaranteed when the guess is over all possible sequences, in practice, we can preselect sequences returned by the atom  $\&checkPos[](X_1, X_2, Y, Z)$ . Moreover, the guess can be omitted if the planning problem is deterministic, i.e. if for each positive example there is exactly one sequence of binary atoms from the BK that derives its second argument from its first argument. Items (s3) and (s5) ensure that at least one sequence for each positive example is selected s.t. the corresponding end state can be derived from the start state by the induced program. Finally, (s6) and (s7) state the constraints regarding positive resp. negative examples.

As can be shown,  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  only yields correct solutions, and a minimal one if all sequences that derive positive examples are acyclic. More formally:

*Theorem 3*

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a forward-chained MIL-problem with extensional BK  $B$ . Then, (i) for every answer set  $S$  of  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ , the logic program induced by  $S$  is a solution for  $\mathcal{M}$ ; and (ii) there is an answer set  $S'$  of  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  s.t. the logic program induced by  $S'$  is a minimal solution for  $\mathcal{M}$  if one exists and every sequence of binary BK atoms that derives a positive example in  $E^+$  is acyclic.

Hence, we have an alternative to find solutions for forward-chained MIL-problems where planning and generalization are separated in a way such that the BK can be outsourced completely.

## 5 Empirical Evaluation

In this section, we evaluate our approach by comparing it to Metagol in terms of efficiency.

**Experimental Setup.** For experimentation, we utilized an iterative deepening strategy which incrementally increases a limit for the maximal number of guessed meta-substitutions imposed via a constraint to obtain minimal solutions. In addition, we incrementally increased the number of invented predicates wrt. each limit, which proved to be beneficial for performance.

We computed answer sets of our encodings with *hexlite*<sup>2</sup> 0.3.20, which is based on CLINGO 5.1.0. For comparison, we used *SWI-Prolog* 7.2.3 to run Metagol 2.2.0 (Cropper and Muggleton 2016b). Experiments were run on a Linux machine with 2.5 GHz dual-core Intel Core i5 processor and 8 GB RAM; the timeout was 600 seconds per instance. The results wrt. the average running times in seconds are shown in Figure 2, where error bars indicate the *standard error* (=  $s/\sqrt{n}$  for  $n$  instances) per instance size. In addition, the average running times required for the grounding step are shown in Figure 3. We compared the encodings  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  and  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  (conditions *hexmil* and *stateab* in Figure 2, resp.) to Metagol for the first two benchmarks, and only used  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  for the third benchmark as discussed below.

For each MIL-problem in this section, we used the meta-rules shown in Figure 1, and we implemented it in Metagol and used our HEX-MIL-encodings. External atoms are realized as Python-plugins in our implementation. For operations defined by the BK, we utilized custom list manipulations. The external atoms  $\&checkPos[(X_1, X_2, Y, Z)$  and  $\&failNeg[meta]()$  in  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  employ breadth-first search for computing all sequences wrt. positive examples and for checking the derivability of negative examples, respectively. In the further development of our implementation, our goal is to employ more sophisticated planning algorithms for computing the sequences, and to interface a Prolog-interpreter for processing the BK and for checking negative examples.

The encodings for the benchmark problems and all instances used in the experiments are available at <http://www.kr.tuwien.ac.at/research/projects/inthex/hexmil/>.

**String Transformation (B1).** Our first benchmark is based on Example 5, and akin to inducing *regular grammars* as considered by Muggleton *et al.* (2014). Learning grammars is a suitable use case for MIL as it enables recursive string processing and predicate invention to represent substrings. In contrast to Muggleton *et al.* (2014), we also allow switching the first two letters in a string in addition to removing elements, which increases the search space and makes conflict propagation and state abstraction more relevant. For the instances used by Muggleton *et al.* (2014), Metagol performs much better due to limited branching in the search space. We used positive and negative examples of the form  $p([c]X, [c])$ , where  $X$  is a random sequence of letters  $a$  and  $b$ . The predicates in the BK are *remove*, *switch*, *firstA*, *firstB* and *firstC* (cf. Example 5). We used problems containing one positive and one negative example of the same length, and tested lengths  $n \in \{1, \dots, 15\}$ . We report average runtimes of 20 randomly generated instances per  $n$ .

**East-West Trains (B2).** The *East-West train challenge* by Larson and Michalski (1977) is a popular ILP-benchmark. The task is to learn a theory that classifies trains based on features (e.g. shapes of cars and types of loads) to be either east- or westbound. In our benchmark, eastbound

<sup>2</sup> <https://github.com/hexhex/hexlite/>

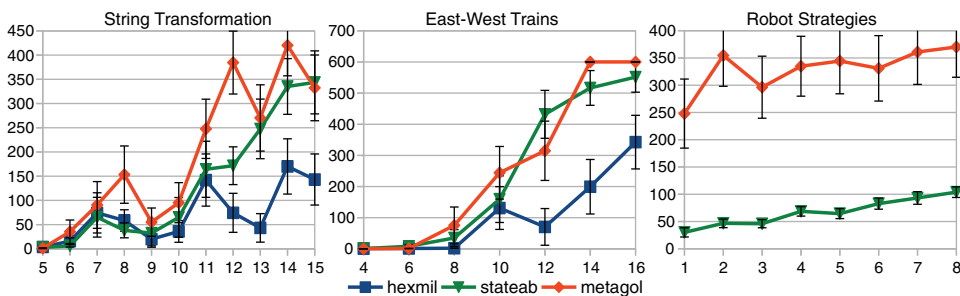


Fig. 2. Benchmark results for *String Transformation*, *East-West Trains* and *Robot Strategies* (left to right). Average overall running times in seconds are shown on the y-axis, and instance size is shown on the x-axis.

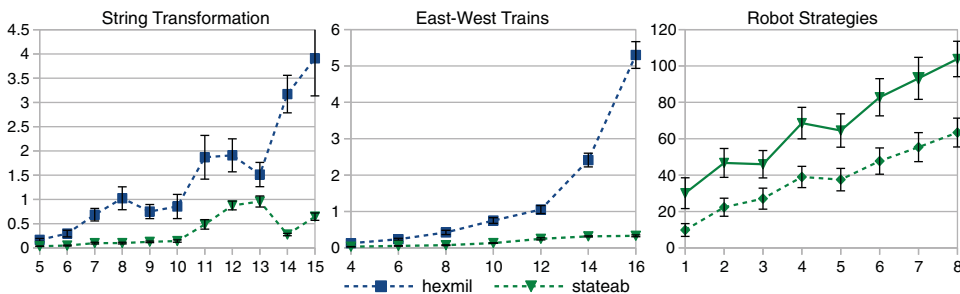


Fig. 3. Grounding times. Dashed lines indicate the average running times required for grounding in seconds, the solid line in the rightmost diagram shows the overall running times of benchmark B3 for comparison. Overall running times are not shown for benchmarks B1 and B2 as they are much larger than the grounding times. Grounding in condition *hexmil* was infeasible for benchmark B3.

trains are positive and westbound trains negative examples, where trains are represented by lists. The BK defines the operation *removeCar* which removes the first car from a train; and we declare 50 different unary predicates, e.g. *shape\_rectangle* or *load\_3\_triangles*, for checking properties of the remaining part of a train. We used a data set of 10 eastbound and 10 westbound trains proposed by Michie *et al.* (1994) that was also considered by Muggleton *et al.* (2015). We generated instances of size  $n \in \{4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16\}$  by randomly selecting  $n$  from the 20 trains, s.t.  $n/2$  were eastbound, and averaged the running times of 10 instances for each problem size.

**Robot Waiter Strategies (B3).** For our final experiment, we used a problem by Cropper and Muggleton (2016a) that consists in learning robot strategies: customers sit at a table in a row, and a waiter robot serves each customer her desired drink, which is either tea or coffee. Initially, the robot is at the left end of the table and each customer has an empty cup. In the goal state, each cup contains the desired drink and the robot is at the right end of the table. States are represented using lists, and positive examples map an initial state to a goal state considering different numbers of customers and preferences for drinks. The actions are defined by binary BK predicates *move\_right*, *pour\_coffee* and *pour\_tea*, and the fluents by unary BK predicates *wants\_coffee*, *wants\_tea* and *at\_end*.<sup>3</sup> A solution constitutes a planning strategy by generalizing a plan for each positive example.

<sup>3</sup> In contrast to Cropper and Muggleton (2016a), we omitted the action *turn\_cup\_over*, as otherwise we obtained timeouts for the majority of instances and all conditions, as it is also the case for Metagol in (Cropper and Muggleton 2016a).

For this benchmark, solutions are constrained to be *functional*, i.e. to map an initial state only to the unique respective goal state and not to any non-goal state. Accordingly, negative examples are implicitly given by all binary atoms that map an initial state to a non-goal state. In Metagol, solutions can be restricted to functional theories by means of a property declaration, and we also integrated a corresponding check in the implementation for the external atom `&failNeg[meta]()`.

We generated random instances similar to Cropper and Muggleton (2016a), where each positive example has a random number of  $i \in [1, 10]$  customers with random drink preferences, and the instance size is measured in terms of the number of positive examples ranging from 1 to 8. For each instance size we averaged the running times of 20 problem instances.

**Findings.** Regarding (B1) and (B2), we found that instances can be solved significantly faster by employing  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  than by Metagol due to conflict propagation in ASP. The encoding  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  performed similar to Metagol since only two binary predicates, resp. one, are defined by the BK s.t. solving the planning problem externally does not yield a significant advantage, and the advantage of efficient conflict propagation in ASP is outweighed by the overhead that goes along with outsourcing constraints for negative examples in  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ .  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  performs slightly better in (B1), where two actions are available instead of only one in (B2).

For (B3), we did not obtain results by using  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  for many instances as the grounding was too large due to the imported BK. For instance size 5, the import from the BK already consumed around 100 MB of memory due to the high number of states, and the grounding of the encoding exceeded the available memory. However, the grounding problem could effectively be avoided by using state abstractions with  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ , which yielded a significant speed-up compared to Metagol. This is due to the fact that by using  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ , the planning problem is split from the generalization problem such that only one precomputed plan per positive example is considered, which greatly reduced the search space. Overall, the performance could be improved by one of our encodings wrt. Metagol in all benchmarks, whereby state abstraction was crucial when many different actions are defined by the BK, but may decrease efficiency otherwise.

With respect to the grounding step, we found that grounding  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  required significantly more resources in terms of running time as well as the size of the grounding than grounding  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ , both in the case of (B1) and (B2). The reason is that only states need to be considered which occur in a sequence of binary BK atoms that derives a positive example for grounding the encoding  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ , while  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  also imports all constants that are potentially relevant for deriving some negative example. However, the advantage of  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  wrt. the grounding step is canceled out for (B1) and (B2) due to the overhead that goes along with outsourcing the check for negative examples and the small advantage in terms of search space pruning. Moreover, the grounding time required for (B1) and (B2) in general is negligible compared to the solving time. In contrast, we observed that the running time required for grounding  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  in the case of (B3) makes up more than half of the overall running time. This is explained by the fact that the external atoms `&checkPos`, `&saUnary` and `&saBinary` need to be evaluated during grounding due to value invention, which accounts for the major fraction of the overall grounding time.

We also tested the effect of fixing the number of invented predicates, and obtained timeouts for many instances which could be solved otherwise. The reason is that the availability of additional predicate symbols blows up the search space at the last iteration of the iterative deepening search. Consequently, the advantage of finding solutions with fewer invented predicates faster compensates for the time invested in restarting the solver many times during iterative deepening.



## 6 Discussion

In this section, we first discuss the practical implications of constraining the shapes of meta-rules that can be employed for learning, and the limitations of our state abstraction technique. Additionally, we discuss some possible mitigations wrt. these limitations, which are the subject of future work. Previous work related to our approach is discussed at the end of this section.

**Meta-Rules.** In this paper, we focused on meta-rules according to Equation 2, and restricted the form of meta-rules and of the BK for the encodings  $\Pi_f(\mathcal{M})$  and  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ . At this, the fragment of *dyadic Datalog*, i.e. the class of Datalog programs with predicates of arity at most two, is extremely important in practice as it is suitable whenever input data is given in form of a graph. Moreover, the seminal paper on MIL mainly focused on the program class  $H_2^2$  and shows that it has *Universal Turing Machine* expressivity (Muggleton *et al.* 2015). Accordingly, considering only hypotheses from the class  $H_m^2$  does not constitute a severe restriction.

On the other hand, the set of hypotheses that can be learned by the encodings based on forward- chained meta-rules and extensional BK is restricted compared to the solutions that can be obtained by using the general encoding. In particular, as e.g. the meta-rule  $P(x,y) \leftarrow Q(y,x)$  is not forward-chained, it is not possible to learn the inverse of binary predicates from the BK. For instance, when a predicate *move\_right* is contained in the BK, it is not possible to learn a predicate *move\_left*. In this case, the inverses of binary predicates could be added to the BK explicitly. Furthermore, the restriction to extensional BK prevents dependencies of the BK on the induced hypothesis, i.e. predicates in the BK cannot be defined in terms of predicates defined by a solution. However, the majority of MIL-problems considered in the literature are forward-chained, and they do not employ BK that depends on the respective hypothesis as usually only invented predicates are used for rule heads in a hypothesis.

Intuitively, forward-chained meta-rules are natural for applications where binary examples represent a mapping from their first to their second argument, e.g. of an initial state to a goal state in a planning scenario or a string transformation, and where sequences of operations need to be applied to obtain the second from the first argument. Many MIL-problems resulting from practical applications fall into this class. Previous applications of MIL have been mainly considered in three different areas: *Robot Planning*, e.g. by Cropper and Muggleton (2014; 2015; 2016a); *String/Language Processing*, e.g. by Lin *et al.* (2014) and by Cropper *et al.* (2015); and *Computer Vision*, e.g. by Dai *et al.* (2017). We found that most of the MIL-problems considered in the first two areas solely employ forward-chained rules and extensional BK, or in some cases can easily be transformed to forward-chained rules. However, there are also some applications of MIL in the literature where a mapping to forward-chained meta-rules is not (easily) possible (Tamaddoni-Nezhad *et al.* 2014; Farquhar *et al.* 2015; Dai *et al.* 2017).

**State Abstraction for Nondeterministic Planning Problems.** With respect to the degree of nondeterminism of the planning problems associated with a forward-chained MIL-problem, we can distinguish two factors that impact the size of the search space. First, many different (potentially nondeterministic) actions may be applicable in the different states of a planning problem while there are only few valid plans. Second, there may also be many different action sequences constituting solutions to the respective planning problem.

In the first case, the size of the search space can be reduced compared to Metagol by pre-computing correct plans in the encoding  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$ , which also reduces the size of the grounding. While Metagol generates meta-substitutions based on all applicable actions,  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  only considers actions and states that are part of a correct plan. In the second case, the size of the search

space generated by  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  is closer to the size of the search space explored by Metagol because all possible plans need to be computed and considered during induction. This is necessary since it cannot be decided beforehand which selection of plans allows for a minimal solution wrt. the number of rules. Note that, for the same reason, the search space of Metagol also must contain all possible plans wrt. positive examples.

Accordingly, the effectiveness of the encoding  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  depends on a tradeoff between the number of actions applicable to states and the number of plans that can be generated for positive examples, and it has an advantage when there are many possible actions but only few plans. Due to the grounding bottleneck, the encoding  $\Pi_{sa}(\mathcal{M})$  is likely to be less efficient than Metagol when there are many possible plans and according states that need to be imported. It is an open challenge to tackle problems of this type efficiently by using state abstraction.

As noted in Section 4, our approach could be extended by filtering techniques to preselect plans by the external atom in order to avoid the import of all possible plans for positive examples. At the same time, this would be difficult to realize in Metagol where planning and generalization are performed simultaneously. For instance, the number of plans could be restricted by analyzing them, and filtering those that are redundant for obtaining a minimal solution. Furthermore, only a limited number of plans could be imported and the impact on the accuracy investigated to find a good balance between efficiency and compactness of the hypothesis.

**State Abstraction and Cyclic Sequences.** When computing sequences that derive positive examples according to Definition 8, cyclic sequences need to be avoided. At the same time, cyclic sequences potentially allow to induce a smaller hypothesis for a given MIL-problem, such that part (ii) of Theorem 3 is restricted to acyclic sequences as well. However, note that in general, a shorter sequence that derives the second argument of a positive examples from its first argument is obtained by removing cycles. Hence, in practice, the prevention of cyclic plans is often reasonable as, e.g. considering a robot planning scenario, one does not want the robot to loop many times between the same states. Furthermore, one is usually interested in learning a strategy that generalizes minimal (or at least reasonably short) plans. Consequently, there is a tradeoff between the lengths of plans that are considered for learning a strategy, and the size of a hypothesis that generalizes them. Potentially more compact hypotheses can be obtained by allowing cyclic plans, but infinite loops must be prevented.

One way to relax the acyclicity condition would be to allow for a fixed number of cycles in Definition 8, which may enable the induction of a smaller hypothesis. To empirically investigate the effect of allowing different numbers of cycles in sequences wrt. the accuracy that can be achieved is subject of future work. Moreover, the possibility of cyclic sequences also poses a problem for termination in Metagol, where a different approach is taken to avoid infinite loops. It relies on ordering constraints over predicate arguments of meta-rules wrt. a total ordering over terms, which constrain the hypothesis space as well. Similar ordering information could alternatively be employed in our approach to prevent the generation of infinitely many sequences.

**Related Work.** As discussed in Section 1, our approach is most closely related to (Muggleton et al. 2014) which also applies ASP to MIL. However, the ASP-encoding there is tailored to the induction of grammars, and grounding issues or modeling a procedural bias are not considered.

In addition, several other ILP systems based on ASP have been developed, e.g. (Otero 2001; Ray 2009; Law et al. 2014), which also mainly rely on an ASP-solver for computing solutions. Different to our approach, *default negation* is allowed in the BK and hypotheses, and induced programs are interpreted under the *stable model semantics*. Moreover, examples are

partial interpretations in the approach by Law *et al.* (2014). The declarative bias is defined by *mode declarations* instead of meta-rules in the mentioned approaches, which enables a more fine-grained specification of the hypothesis space; but, to the best of our knowledge, none of them models a procedural bias wrt. rule introduction in ASP itself. The *XHAIL* system bounds the search space by splitting the learning process into phases, where a *Kernel set* of ground rules is computed deductively and generalized in an *induction phase*. However, in contrast to the integration of object-level deduction and meta-level induction in our encoding, the phases are executed sequentially.

Compared to ASP-based systems, the MIL-approach has the advantage that meta-rules effectively limit the search space and, in particular, can guide the process of predicate invention, which is regarded as a very hard problem due to its high combinatorial complexity (Dietterich *et al.* 2008). In addition, intensional BK that manipulates complex terms is difficult to integrate in ASP, while the query-driven procedure exploited by Metagol is well-suited for this.

## 7 Conclusion

We presented a general HEX-encoding for solving MIL-problems that interacts with the BK via external atoms and restricts the search space by interleaving derivations on the object and meta level. In addition, we introduced modifications of the encoding for certain types of MIL-problems and a state abstraction technique to mitigate grounding issues that are hard to tackle otherwise.

Our approach combines several advantages of Metagol and ASP-based approaches, and it is very flexible as it allows to plug in arbitrary (monotonic) theories as BK. Moreover, our encodings can easily be adjusted, e.g. by adding further constraints to limit the import of BK. For instance, we also tried to delay the import of BK by restricting the initial import to chains of a limited length. This resulted in a significant speed-up for many MIL-problems, but minimality of solutions is not guaranteed. Nevertheless, in our tests, solutions that were not considerably larger than solutions of other instances could be obtained instead of timeouts. To investigate how this and similar modifications affect the accuracy wrt. a test data set remains future work.

The potential of an ASP-based approach for MIL is supported by our empirical evaluation; and our techniques could also be exploited in future implementations. Here, we use the HEX-formalism because it is very convenient for prototype implementations. Other formalisms could be used as well, e.g. the theory interface of *Clingo 5* (Gebser *et al.* 2016), which would potentially increase performance. In particular, employing optimization of *weak constraints* is expected to be beneficial for efficiency as the solver needs to be restarted many times during iterative deepening.

## Acknowledgements

This research has been supported by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF) projects P27730 and W1255-N23. Tobias Kaminski was supported by the NII International Internship Program. We thank the reviewers for their efforts and constructive suggestions, and Andrew Cropper for helpful comments.

## Supplementary Material

To view supplementary material for this article, please visit <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S1471068418000261>.

## References

- CROPPER, A. AND MUGGLETON, S. H. 2014. Logical minimisation of meta-rules within meta-interpretive learning. In *ILP 2014*. LNCS, vol. 9046. Springer, 62–75.
- CROPPER, A. AND MUGGLETON, S. H. 2015. Learning efficient logical robot strategies involving composable objects. In *IJCAI 2015*. AAAI Press, 3423–3429.
- CROPPER, A. AND MUGGLETON, S. H. 2016a. Learning higher-order logic programs through abstraction and invention. In *IJCAI 2016*. IJCAI/AAAI Press, 1418–1424.
- CROPPER, A. AND MUGGLETON, S. H. 2016b. Metagol system. <https://github.com/metagol/metagol>.
- CROPPER, A., TAMADDONI-NEZHAD, A., AND MUGGLETON, S. H. 2015. Meta-interpretive learning of data transformation programs. In *ILP 2015*. LNCS, vol. 9575. Springer, 46–59.
- DAI, W., MUGGLETON, S., WEN, J., TAMADDONI-NEZHAD, A., AND ZHOU, Z. 2017. Logical vision: One-shot meta-interpretive learning from real images. In *ILP 2017*. LNCS, vol. 10759. Springer, 46–62.
- DIETTERICH, T. G., DOMINGOS, P. M., GETOOR, L., MUGGLETON, S., AND TADEPALLI, P. 2008. Structured machine learning: the next ten years. *Machine Learning* 73, 1, 3–23.
- EITER, T., FINK, M., IANNI, G., KRENNWALLNER, T., REDL, C., AND SCHÜLLER, P. 2016. A model building framework for answer set programming with external computations. *TPLP* 16, 4, 418–464.
- EITER, T., FINK, M., KRENNWALLNER, T., AND REDL, C. 2016. Domain expansion for ASP-programs with external sources. *Artif. Intell.* 233, 84–121.
- FABER, W., LEONE, N., AND PFEIFER, G. 2011. Semantics and complexity of recursive aggregates in answer set programming. *Artif. Intell.* 175, 1, 278–298.
- FARQUHAR, C., GROV, G., CROPPER, A., MUGGLETON, S., AND BUNDY, A. 2015. Typed meta-interpretive learning for proof strategies. In *ILP (Late Breaking Papers) 2015*. CEUR Workshop Proceedings, vol. 1636. CEUR-WS.org, 17–32.
- GEBSER, M., KAMINSKI, R., KAUFMANN, B., OSTROWSKI, M., SCHAUB, T., AND WANKO, P. 2016. Theory solving made easy with clingo 5. In *ICLP (Techn. Comm.)*. OASICS, vol. 52. Schloss Dagstuhl, 2:1–2:15.
- GEBSER, M., KAUFMANN, B., AND SCHAUB, T. 2012. Conflict-driven answer set solving: From theory to practice. *Artif. Intell.* 187–188, 52–89.
- GELFOND, M. AND LIFSCHITZ, V. 1991. Classical negation in logic programs and disjunctive databases. *New Gen. Comput.* 9, 3–4, 365–386.
- LARSON, J. AND MICHALSKI, R. S. 1977. Inductive inference of VL decision rules. *SIGART Newsletter* 63, 38–44.
- LAW, M., RUSSO, A., AND BRODA, K. 2014. Inductive learning of answer set programs. In *JELIA 2014*. LNCS, vol. 8761. Springer, 311–325.
- LIN, D., DECHTER, E., ELLIS, K., TENENBAUM, J. B., AND MUGGLETON, S. 2014. Bias reformulation for one-shot function induction. In *ECAI 2014*. Frontiers in Artificial Intelligence and Applications, vol. 263. IOS Press, 525–530.
- MICHIE, D., MUGGLETON, S., PAGE, D., AND SRINIVASAN, A. 1994. To the international computing community: A new east-west challenge. Tech. rep., Oxford University Computing laboratory, UK.
- MUGGLETON, S. H., LIN, D., PAHLAVI, N., AND TAMADDONI-NEZHAD, A. 2014. Meta-interpretive learning: application to grammatical inference. *Machine Learning* 94, 1, 25–49.
- MUGGLETON, S. H., LIN, D., AND TAMADDONI-NEZHAD, A. 2015. Meta-interpretive learning of higher-order dyadic datalog: predicate invention revisited. *Machine Learning* 100, 1, 49–73.
- OTERO, R. P. 2001. Induction of stable models. In *ILP 2001*. LNCS, vol. 2157. Springer, 193–205.
- RAY, O. 2009. Nonmonotonic abductive inductive learning. *J. Applied Logic* 7, 3, 329–340.
- TAMADDONI-NEZHAD, A., BOHAN, D., RAYBOULD, A., AND MUGGLETON, S. 2014. Towards machine learning of predictive models from ecological data. In *ILP 2014*. LNCS, vol. 9046. Springer, 154–167.