Inference of Dynamic Boolean Networks 動的ネットワークの論理モデルに関する推論と学習

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Boolean Network

Discrete model of genetic networks and adaptive systems
 N = (V, F)

- $V = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$: finite set of nodes \Leftrightarrow gene
- $F = \{f_1, ..., f_n\}$: Boolean functions \Leftrightarrow gene regulation rule

Boolean network



$$p(t+1) = q(t)$$

$$q(t+1) = p(t) \wedge r(t)$$

$$r(t+1) = \overline{p(t)}$$

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In	put		Ou	tput	
Time t			Tim	e t+	·1
р	q	r	р	q	r
0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	0

Attractors

p(t+1) = q(t) $q(t+1) = p(t) \wedge r(t)$ $r(t+1) = \overline{p(t)}$

- Periodic sequence of states
 - $\begin{array}{c} \ 011 \rightarrow 101 \rightarrow 010 \rightarrow \\ 101 \rightarrow 010 \rightarrow \dots \end{array}$
 - $\begin{array}{c} -111 \rightarrow 110 \rightarrow 100 \rightarrow \\ 000 \rightarrow 001 \rightarrow 001 \rightarrow \dots \end{array}$
- Different attractors ⇔
 Different cell types
- In Synchronous BN, any node reaches one attractor.

State transition diagram



Normal Logic Programs

• A normal logic program (NLP) P is a set of rules:

$$\mathsf{H} \leftarrow \mathsf{A}_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \mathsf{A}_m \wedge \neg \mathsf{B}_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \neg \mathsf{B}_n \quad (m, n \ge 0)$$

where H, A_i and B_i are atoms and - is (*default*) *negation*.

- P is *definite* if n = 0 for every rule in P.
- ground(P) : the set of ground instances of all rules in P.
- The Herbrand base \mathbf{H}_{P} is the set of ground atoms from language(P).
- An (*Herbrand*) *interpretation* of an NLP *P* is a subset of H_P .
- An interpretation *I satisfies* a ground rule of the form:

$$\mathsf{H} \leftarrow \mathsf{A}_1 \land \dots \land \mathsf{A}_m \land \neg \mathsf{B}_1 \land \dots \land \neg \mathsf{B}_n$$

iff $\forall i. A_i \in I$ and $\forall j. B_j \notin I$ imply that $H \in I$.

• *I* is an (*Herbrand*) *model* of *P* if *I* satisfies all rules in *ground*(*P*).

T_P operator

- $T_P(I) := \{ H \mid H \leftarrow L_1 \land ... \land L_n \in ground(P), I \models L_1 \land ... \land L_n \}.$
- When *P* is a *definite* program, $I \models A_1 \land ... \land A_m$ iff $\forall i. A_i \in I$. In this case, T_P operator is *monotone*, and the sequence $I_0 = \{\}, I_{n+1} = T_P(I_n) \ (n=0,...)$

reaches the *least fixpoint* of T_p , denoted as $I^* = T_p \uparrow \omega$: $I^* = T_p (I^*)$. $T_p \uparrow \omega$ is the *least model* of *P* (van Emden & Kowalski, 1976).

• When *P* is a *normal* program,

 $I \models A_1 \land ... \land A_m \land \neg B_1 \land ... \land \neg B_n$ iff $\forall i. A_i \in I$ and $\forall j. B_j \notin I$. In this case, T_P is nonmonotone (Apt, Blair & Walker, 1988).

• The *orbit* of *I* wrt P (Blair *et al.*, 1997) is $\langle T_P^{\ k}(I) \rangle_{k=0,1,2,...}$, where $T_P^{\ 0}(I) = I$, $T_P^{\ k+1}(I) = T_P(T_P^{\ k}(I))$ for k = 0, 1, 2,

T_P operator, supportedness, completion

- An interpretation *I* is *supported* (Apt, Blair & Walker, 1988) if $\forall A \in I. \exists (A \leftarrow A_1 \land ... \land A_m \land \neg B_1 \land ... \land \neg B_n) \in ground(P)$ such that $\forall i. A_i \in I$ and $\forall j. B_i \notin I$.
- **<u>Prop.</u>** An interpretation *I* is a model of *P* iff $T_P(I) \subseteq I$.
- **<u>Prop.</u>** *I* is supported iff $I \subseteq T_P(I)$.
- <u>Cor.</u> *I* is a supported model of *P* iff $I = T_P(I)$.
- <u>**Prop.**</u> *I* is a model of Comp(P) iff $I = T_P(I)$, where Comp(P) is Clark's completion of *P*.
- <u>Cor.</u> *I* is a supported model of *P* iff *I* is a model of *Comp(P)*.

T_P operator for NLPs

- $p \leftarrow q$.
- $p \leftarrow \neg r$.
- $r \leftarrow p \land \neg q$.

- 1. {}
- 2. {*p*}
 - 3. {*p*,*r*}
 - 4. {*r*}
 - 5. {}
 - 6. repeat 2-5
 - T_P is nonmonotone.
 - No fixpoint is reached in general.
 - No supported model exists here.

Translating Synchronous BNs into NLPs (Inoue, IJCAI 2011)

Given a BN N = (V, F), transform each $f_i \in F$ to DNF:

$$f_i(t) = \bigvee_{j=1}^{J} B_{i,j}(t),$$

$$B_{i,j}(t) = v_{i,j,1}(t) \wedge \cdots \wedge v_{i,j,m_j}(t) \wedge \neg v_{i,j,m_j+1}(t) \wedge \cdots \wedge \neg v_{i,j,n_j}(t)$$

$$V_{C} \subseteq V: \text{ constant nodes (j=0)}$$

$$\pi(N) = \{ (v_{i} \leftarrow B_{i,j}) \mid v_{i} \in V \setminus V_{C}, 1 \leq j \leq l_{i} \}$$

$$\cup \{ (v_{i} \leftarrow v_{i}) \mid v_{i} \in V_{C} \}.$$

- For any state $\mathbf{v}(t) \in \{0,1\}^n$, put $I^t = \{v_i \in V \mid v_i(t) = 1\}$.
- $I^{t+1} = T_{\pi(N)}(I^t)$. The orbit of I^t wrt $T_{\pi(N)}$ is precisely the trajectory of N starting from $\mathbf{v}(t)$.

Boolean Network (Example)



$$p \leftarrow q.$$
$$q \leftarrow p \land r$$

 $r \leftarrow \neg p$.

- Starting from v(0)=(0,1,1), the orbit of I₀ wrt π(N) becomes:
- 1. $\{q, r\}$
- 2. {**p**, **r**}
- 3. {**q**}
- 4. {**p**, **r**}
- 5. repeat 3-2
 - Starting from $\mathbf{v}(0)=(0,0,0)$, the orbit of I_0 wrt $\pi(N)$ becomes:
- 1. {}
- 2. {**r**}
- 3. {**r**}
- 4. fixpoint

Characterizing Point Attractors

- <u>Theorem</u> (Inoue, 2011): {/} is a point attractor of *N* iff / is a supported model of $\pi(N)$.
- The supported models of an NLP are exactly the models of its Clark's completion:

$$Comp(\pi(N)) = \bigwedge_{v_i \in V \setminus C} \left(v_i \leftrightarrow \bigvee_{j=1}^{l_i} B_{i,j} \right) \wedge \underbrace{(c_i \leftrightarrow c_i)}_{c_i \in C}$$

c.f. (Tamura & Akutsu, 2009).

Supported Classes

(Inoue & Sakama, *Lifschitz Festschrift*, 2012)

• A **supported class** of a logic program *P* is defined as a nonempty set *S* of Herbrand interpretations satisfying the fixpoint equation:

$$\mathbf{S} = \{ T_{\rho}(I) \mid I \subseteq \mathbf{S} \}.$$

- A supported class **S** of P is **strict** if no proper subset of **S** is a supported class of P.
- <u>Theorem</u>: A non-empty set **S** of Herbrand interpretations is a strict supported class of *P* iff $S = \{T_P^k(I) \mid k \in \omega\}$ for every $I \in S$.
- <u>**Theorem</u>**: A finite set **S** of Herbrand interpretations of *P* is a strict supported class of *P* iff there is a directed cycle $I_1 \rightarrow I_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow I_k \rightarrow I_1$ ($k \ge 1$) in the state transition graph induced by T_p such that $\{I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_k\} = S$.</u>
- Prop.: Let S and S' be strict supported classes of a logic program P that has a finite Herbrand base. Then, S ≠ S' iff S ∩ S' = {}.

Characterizing Attractors

- <u>Theorem</u> (Inoue & Sakama, 2012): *S* is an attractor of a Boolean network *N* iff *S* is a strict supported class of $\pi(N)$.
- <u>Proposition</u>: An interpretation *I is a supported model of a logic* program *P* iff {*I*} is a supported class of *P*.
- **Corollary:** {*I*} is a point attractor of a Boolean network *N* iff *I* is a supported model of $\pi(N)$.

Supported Classes = Attractors

• *P*₁:



• There are 3 strict supported classes of P₁:

$$S_1 = \{\{p\}\}, S_2 = \{\{q, r\}\}, S_3 = \{\{p, q\}, \{r\}\}.$$

• S_1 and S_2 are the supported models of P_1 (*point attractors*).



Repressilator (Elowitz & Leibler, Nature 403, 2000)



$$\pi(N):$$

$$p(t+1) = \overline{q(t)} \qquad p \leftarrow \neg q.$$

$$q(t+1) = \overline{r(t)} \qquad q \leftarrow \neg r.$$

$$r(t+1) = \overline{p(t)} \qquad r \leftarrow \neg p.$$

π(N) has no supported model, but has 2 supported classes, which correspond to cycle attractors with period 2 and 6.



Learning Dynamics of Systems

- Learning action theories in ILP
 - Event calculus: Moyle & Muggleton (1997), Moyle (2003)
 - Logic programs: with situation calculus: Otero (2003, 2005)
 - Action languages: Inoue *et al.* (2005), Tran & Baral (2009)
 - Probabilistic logic programs: Corapi et al. (2011)
- Relational reinforcement learning
 - Logic programs: Džeroski *et al*. (2001)
- Abductive action learning
 - Abductive event calculus: Eshghi (1988), Shanahan (2000)
- Active learning of action models
 - STRIPS-like: Rodrigues et al. (2011)
- These works suppose applications to robotics and bioinformatics.
- However, it is hard to infer *rules of systems dynamics* due to presence of positive and negative feedbacks.

LFIT: Learning from Interpretation Transitions (Inoue, Ribeiro & Sakama, *Machine Learning*, 2013)

- Herbrand interpretation I: a state of the world
- Logic program P: a state transition system, which maps an Herbrand interpretation into another interpretation (Blair et al., 1995—1997; Inoue, 2011; Inoue & Sakama, 2012)
- Next state $T_p(I)$: where T_p is the immediate consequence operator $(T_p operator)$.
- We propose a new learning setting in ILP:
 - Given: a set of pairs of Herbrand interpretations (I, J) such that $J = T_{P}(I)$,
 - Induce a program *P*.
- C.f. learning from interpretations (LFI)
 - Given: a set S of Herbrand interpretations,
 - Induce a program P whose models are exactly S.

LFIT Applied to Dynamic Systems

- Learning rules of dynamic systems
 - Cellular Automata (CAs): mathematical model of complex adaptive systems (Conway, Wolfram)
 - Boolean Networks (BNs): logical model of gene regulation networks (Kauffman)
- CAs and BNs can be characterized as logic programs, and T_p operator captures their synchronous update (Inoue 2011).
- A learned program *P* is a *normal logic program* (NLP) in this case.
- Learning NLPs has been considered in ILP, but most approaches take the setting of *learning from entailment*.
- Learning NLPs under the *supported model semantics*.

LFIT Applied to Genetic Networks

- Given an Herbrand interpretation *I*, which corresponds to a gene activity profile (GAP) with gene disruptions for false atoms in *I* and gene overexpressions for true atoms in *I*, the interactions between genes are experimentally analyzed by observing a GAP J such that $J = T_p(I)$ holds after a time step has passed.
- LFIT of an NLP *P* corresponds to inferring a set of gene regulation rules for those experiments of 1-step GAP transitions in a BN.
- Any trajectory from a GAP in a BN reaches an *attractor,* which is either a *fixed point* or a *periodic oscillation*.
- Given a set of trajectories reaching to attractors of a BN, we can also infer an NLP that realizes these trajectories.

Subsumption, least generalization

- For two rules R_1 , R_2 with the same head, R_1 subsumes R_2 if there is a substitution θ s.t. $b^+(R_1)\theta \subseteq b^+(R_2)$ and $b^-(R_1)\theta \subseteq b^-(R_2)$.
- A rule *R* is the *least (general) generalization* (*Ig*) of R_1 and R_2 , written as $R = Ig(R_1, R_2)$, if *R* subsumes both R_1 and R_2 and is subsumed by any rule that subsumes both R_1 and R_2 .
- The lg of two atoms $p(s_1, ..., s_n)$ and $q(s_1, ..., s_n)$ is undefined if $p \neq q$; and is $p(lg(s_1, t_1), ..., lg(s_n, t_n))$ if p = q.
- The lg of two rules $lg(R_1, R_2)$ is then written as:

$$lg(h(R_1), h(R_2)) \leftarrow \bigwedge_{L \in b^+(R_1), K \in b^+(R_2)} lg(L, K) \wedge \bigwedge_{L \in b^-(R_1), K \in b^-(R_2)} \neg lg(L, K).$$

LF1T: Learning from 1-Step Transitions

- Input: E ⊆ 2^B × 2^B: (positive) examples/observations,
 P : an (initial) NLP;
- **Output:** NLP *P* s.t. $J = T_{P}(I)$ holds for any $(I, J) \in E$
- 1. If $E = \emptyset$, then output *P* and stop;
- 2. Pick $(I, J) \subseteq E$; put $E := E \notin \{(I, J)\};$
- 3. For each $A \subseteq J$, let

 $R'_{A} := A \leftarrow \bigwedge_{B \in I} B \land \bigwedge_{C \in \mathbf{B} \neq I} \neg C;$

- 1. If R'_A is not subsumed by any rule in *P*, then $P := P \cup \{R'_A\}$ and simplify *P* by generalizing some rules in *P* and removing all clauses subsumed by them;
- 2. Return to 1.

Resolution as Generalization

• (naïve/ground resolution) Let R_1 and R_2 be two ground rules, and I be a literal such that $h(R_1) = h(R_2)$, $I \subseteq b(R_1)$ and $\overline{I} \subseteq b(R_2)$. If $(b(R_2) \notin {\overline{I}}) \subseteq (b(R_1) \notin {I})$ then the ground resolution of R_1 and R_2 (upon I) is defined as

 $res(R_1,R_2) = h(R_1) \leftarrow \bigwedge_{K \in b(R_1) \notin \{I\}} K$ In particular, if $(b(R_2) \notin \{\overline{I}\}) = (b(R_1) \notin \{I\})$ then the ground resolution is called the *naïve resolution* of R1 and R2 (upon I).

- **Example.** $R_1 = (p \leftarrow q \land r), R_2 = (p \leftarrow \neg q \land r), R_3 = (p \leftarrow \neg q):$ $res(R_1, R_2) = res(R_1, R_3) = (p \leftarrow r).$
- **Proposition**. The naïve resolution of R_1 and R_2 is the least generalization of them, e.g., $Ig(R_1, R_2) = res(R_1, R_2)$.

LF1T (naïve resolution) $[R'_A := A \leftarrow \bigwedge_{B \in I} B \land \bigwedge_{C \in B^{*}} \neg C]$



Step	$I \rightarrow J$	Operation	Rule	ID	Ρ	P _{old}
1	qr→pr	$R^{qr}_{\ \ \ p}$	$p \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land r$	1	1	{}
		R ^{qr} _r	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land r$	2	1,2	
2	pr→q	$R^{pr}_{\ q}$	$q \leftarrow p \land \neg q \land r$	3	1,2,3	
3	$q \rightarrow pr$	$R^{q}{}_{ ho}$	$p \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land \neg r$	4		
		res(4,1)	$p \leftarrow \neg p \land q$	5	2,3,5	+1,4
		R ^q _r	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land \neg r$	6		
		res(6,2)	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land q$	7	3,5,7	+2,6
4	pqr→pq	$R^{pqr}_{\ \ \ p}$	$p \leftarrow p \land q \land r$	8		
		res(8,1)	$p \leftarrow q \wedge r$	9	3,5,7,9	+8
		R^{pqr}_{q}	$q \leftarrow p \land q \land r$	10		
		res(10,3)	$q \leftarrow p \wedge r$	11	5,7,9,11	+3,10

Cont. (naïve resolution) $[R'_A := A \leftarrow \bigwedge_{B \in I} B \land \bigwedge_{C \in B^{*}} \neg C]$

Step	$I \rightarrow J$	Operation	Rule	ID	Р	P _{old}
5	pq→p	R^{pq}_{p}	$p \leftarrow p \land q \land \neg r$	12		
		res(12,5)	$p \leftarrow q \land \neg r$	13	5,7,9,11,13	+12
		res(13,9)	$p \leftarrow q$	14	7,11,14	+5,9,13
6	$p \rightarrow \varepsilon$					
7	ε→r	R^{ε}_{r}	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg q \land \neg r$	15		
		res(15,6)	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg r$	16	7,11,14,16	+15
8	r→r	R ^r _r	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg q \land r$	17		
		res(17,15)	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg q$	18	7,11,14,16,18	+17
		res(18,7)	$r \leftarrow \neg p$	19	11,14,19	+7,16,18

$$p \leftarrow q.$$
$$q \leftarrow p \land r.$$
$$r \leftarrow \neg p.$$

propositional program

 $p(t+1) \leftarrow q(t).$ $q(t+1) \leftarrow p(t) \land r(t).$ $r(t+1) \leftarrow \neg p(t).$

first-order program

LF1T (ground resolution) $[R'_A := A \leftarrow \bigwedge_{B \in I} B \land \bigwedge_{C \in B^{*}} \neg C]$



Step	$I \rightarrow J$	Operation	Rule	ID	Р
1	qr→pr	$R^{qr}_{\ p}$	$p \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land r$	1	1
		R ^{qr} _r	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land r$	2	1,2
2	pr→q	$R^{pr}_{\ q}$	$q \leftarrow p \land \neg q \land r$	3	1,2,3
3	q→pr	$R^{q}{}_{ ho}$	$p \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land \neg r$	4	
		res(4,1)	$p \leftarrow \neg p \land q$	5	2,3,5
		R^{q}_{r}	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land q \land \neg r$	6	
		res(6,2)	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land q$	7	3,5,7
4	$pqr \rightarrow pq$	$R^{pqr}_{\ \ \ p}$	$p \leftarrow p \land q \land r$	8	
		res(8, <mark>5</mark>)	$p \leftarrow q \wedge r$	9	3,5,7,9
		R^{pqr}_{q}	$q \leftarrow p \land q \land r$	10	
		res(10,3)	$q \leftarrow p \wedge r$	11	5,7,9,11

Cont. (ground resolution) $[R'_A := A \leftarrow \bigwedge_{B \in I} B \land \bigwedge_{C \in B \neq I} \neg C]$

Step	$I \rightarrow J$	Operation	Rule	ID	Р
5	$pq \rightarrow p$	R^{pq}_{p}	$p \leftarrow p \land q \land \neg r$	12	
		res(12, <mark>5</mark>)	$p \leftarrow q \land \neg r$	13	5,7,9,11,13
		res(13,9)	$p \leftarrow q$	14	7,11,14
6	$p \rightarrow \varepsilon$				
7	ε→r	R^{ε}_{r}	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg q \land \neg r$	15	
		res(15, <mark>7</mark>)	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg r$	16	7,11,14,16
8	r→r	R ^r _r	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg q \land r$	17	
		res(17, <mark>7</mark>)	$r \leftarrow \neg p \land \neg q$	18	7,11,14,16,18
		res(18, <mark>16</mark>)	$r \leftarrow \neg p$	19	11,14,19

$$p \leftarrow q.$$

$$q \leftarrow p \land r.$$

$$r \leftarrow \neg p.$$

propositional program

 $p(t+1) \leftarrow q(t).$ $q(t+1) \leftarrow p(t) \land r(t).$ $r(t+1) \leftarrow \neg p(t).$

first-order program

Worst-Case Complexity

- Theorem. Using naïve resolution, the memory use of the LF1T algorithm is bounded by O(n 3ⁿ), and the time complexity of learning is bounded by O(n² 9ⁿ), where n = |B|. On the other hand, with ground resolution, the memory use is bounded by O(2ⁿ), which is the maximum size of P, and the time complexity is bounded by O(4ⁿ).
- **Corollary.** Given the set *E* of complete state transitions, which has the size $O(2^n)$, the complexity of LF1T(*E*, \emptyset) with ground resolution is bounded by $O(|E|^2)$. On the other hand, the worst-case complexity of learning with naïve resolution is $O(n^2 \cdot |E|^{4.5})$.

LFBA: Learning from Basins of Attraction

- Input: $\mathcal{I} \subseteq 2^{2^{B}}$: A set of orbits of interpretations (*)
- **Output:** NLP *P* s.t. for $\forall I \in \mathcal{F}$, any $I \in I$ belongs to the basin of attraction of some attractor of *P* contained in *I*
- *** Assumption:** Each I contains the interpretations belonging to the orbit of some $I_0 \in I$ wrt T_p , and that I constitutes a sequence $I_0 \rightarrow I_1 \rightarrow ... \rightarrow I_{k-1} \rightarrow J_0 \rightarrow ... \rightarrow J_{l-1} \rightarrow J_0 \rightarrow ...$, where |I| = k + l and $\{J_0, ..., J_{l-1}\}$ is an attractor.
- 2 orbits $I, J \in \mathcal{F}$ reach the same attractor iff $I \cap J = \emptyset$.
- 1. Put *P* := Ø;
- 2. If $\mathcal{E} = \emptyset$ then output *P* and stop;
- 3. Pick $I \in \mathcal{I}$, and put $\mathcal{I} := \mathcal{I} \notin \{I\}$;
- 4. Put $E := \{(I, J) \mid I, J \in I, J \text{ is the next state of } I\};$
- *5. P* := **LF1T**(*E*, *P*); Return to 2.

LFBA: Example



Input:
$$\mathcal{E} = \{I_1, I_2\}$$

 $I_1: qr \rightarrow pr \rightarrow q \rightarrow pr \rightarrow q \rightarrow ...$
 $I_2: pqr \rightarrow pq \rightarrow p \rightarrow \varepsilon \rightarrow r \rightarrow r \rightarrow ...$
LF1T($E_1, \emptyset, \emptyset$) = {3,5,7};
LF1T($E_2, \{3,5,7\}$) = {11,14,19};



In general, identification of an exact NLP using **LF1T** may require $2^{|B|}$ examples, while $|\mathcal{E}|$ in **LFBA** is bounded by $c\delta$, where δ is the number of attractors.

Learning Boolean Networks

- Benchmarks of Boolean networks are taken from (Dubrova and Teslenko, 2011).
- All possible 1-step state transitions of N from all 2^{|B|} possible initial states I⁰'s are computed from the benchmarks by firstly computing all stable models of τ(N) U I⁰ using the answer set solver clasp, then by running LF1T with these state transitions.
- Environment: Intel Core I7 (3610QM, 2.3GHz). Time limit: 1 hour.
- Boosting is effective to reduce the size/number of rules.

Name	# nodes	$\# \times \text{length of attractor}$	<pre># rules (org./LFIT)</pre>	Naïve	Ground
Arabidopsis thalania	15	10×1	28 / 241	T.O.	13.825s
Budding yeast	12	7×1	54 / 54	6m01s	0.820s
Fission yeast	10	13×1	23/24	5.208s	0.068s
Mammalian cell	10	$1 \times 1, 1 \times 7$	22 / 22	5.756s	0.076s

 Table 3 Learning time of LF1T for Boolean networks up to 15 nodes

Cellular Automata (CA)

- A CA consists of a regular grid of cells.
- A cell has a finite number of possible states.
- The state of each cell changes synchronously in discrete time steps according to local and identical transition rules.
- The state of a cell in the next time step is determined by its current state and the states of its surrounding cells (neighborhood).
- 2-state CA is regarded as an instance of Boolean networks.
- CA is a model of emergence and self-organization, which are two important features of the nature (the real life) as a complex system.
- 1-dimensional 2-state CA can simulate Turing Machine (Wolfram).
- Multi-state CA: Disease Spreading Model—0 (healthy), 1 (infected), values in between (gradually more ill)

Wolfram's Rule 110

current pattern	111	110	101	100	011	010	001	000
new state for center cell	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0

- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow c(x-1,t) \land c(x,t) \land \neg c(x+1,t).$
- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow c(x-1,t) \land \neg c(x,t) \land c(x+1,t).$
- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1,t) \land c(x,t) \land c(x+1,t).$
- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1,t) \land c(x,t) \land \neg c(x+1,t).$
- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1,t) \land \neg c(x,t) \land c(x+1,t).$
- Rule 110 is known to be Turing-complete.
- The logic program is *acyclic* (Apt & Bezem, 1990).



Incorporating Background Theories

- Torus world: length 4
- $c(0, t) \leftarrow c(4, t)$.
- $c(5, t) \leftarrow c(1, t)$.

c(3) $\rightarrow c(2), c(3)$ $\rightarrow c(1), c(2), c(3)$ $\rightarrow c(1), c(3), c(4)$ attractor $\rightarrow c(1), c(2), c(3) \rightarrow \dots$

t	(4)	1	2	3	4	(1)
0						
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						

learning rules: $0 \rightarrow 1$ (4), $1 \rightarrow 2$ (2), $2 \rightarrow 3$ (2). learning positive rules: (2), (2), (1).

Incorporating Inductive Bias

- Bias I: The body of each rule exactly contains 3 neighbor literals.
- Bias II: The rules are universal for every time step and any position.
- Biases I and II imply that *anti-instantiation* (AI) can be applied immediately instead of least generalization.

Step	$I \rightarrow J$	Op.	Rule	ID	Р
1	0010→0110	R ³ ₂	$c(2) \leftarrow \neg c(1) \land \neg c(2) \land c(3)$	1	
		AI(1)	$c(x) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1) \land \neg c(x) \land c(x+1)$	2	2
		R ³ 3	$c(3) \leftarrow \neg c(2) \land c(3) \land \neg c(4)$	3	
		AI(3)	$c(x) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1) \land c(x) \land \neg c(x+1)$	4	2,4
2	0110→1110	R ² ₁	$c(1) \leftarrow \neg c(0) \land \neg c(1) \land c(2)$	5	
		R ²³ 2	c(2) $\leftarrow \neg$ c(1) \land c(2) \land c(3)	6	
		AI(6)	$c(x) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1) \land c(x) \land c(x+1)$	7	
		res(7,2)	$c(x) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1) \land c(x+1)$	8	4,8
		res(7,4)	$c(x) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1) \land c(x)$	9	8,9

Incorporating Inductive Bias (Cont.)

Step	$I \rightarrow J$	Op.	Rule	ID	Р
2	0110→1110	R ²³ 3	$c(3) \leftarrow c(2) \land c(3) \land \neg c(4)$	10	
		AI(10)	$c(x) \leftarrow c(x-1) \land c(x) \land \neg c(x+1)$	11	
		res(11,9)	$c(x) \leftarrow c(x) \land \neg c(x+1)$	12	8,9,12
3	1110→1011	<i>R⁰¹</i> ¹	$c(1) \leftarrow \neg c(0) \land c(1) \land c(2)$	13	
		R ³⁴ ₄	$c(4) \leftarrow c(3) \land \neg c(4) \land c(5)$	14	
		AI(14)	$c(x) \leftarrow c(x-1) \land \neg c(x) \land c(x+1)$	15	
		res(15,8)	$c(x) \leftarrow \neg c(x) \land c(x+1)$	16	8,9,12,16

- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1,t) \land c(x+1,t)$. (8)
- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow \neg c(x-1,t) \land c(x,t)$. (9)
- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow c(x,t) \land \neg c(x+1,t).$ (12)
- $c(x,t+1) \leftarrow \neg c(x,t) \land c(x+1,t)$. (16)

These are simpler than the original 5 rules, but still have one redundant rule.

Conclusion & Ongoing Work

- Oscillating behavior can be observed in any deterministic operator on the Herbrand base. The attractors of synchronous Boolean networks are completely characterized by the supported class semantics of NLPs.
- Learning complex networks becomes more and more important. We tackled the induction problem of such dynamic systems in terms of NLP learning from synchronous state transitions.
 - Given any state transition diagram, which is either complete or partial, we can learn an NLP that exactly captures the system dynamics.
 - Learning is performed only from positive examples, and produces NLPs that consist only of rules to make literals true.
 - Generalization on state transition rules is done by resolution, in which each rule can be replaced by a general rule. An output NLP is as minimal as possible wrt the size of each rule, but may contain redundant rules.
- A more efficient construction in the bottom-up algorithm with BDD (ILP 2013).
- More complex schemes such as asynchronous and probabilistic updates do not obey transition by the T_p operator.

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