Graph Mining for Automatic Classification of Logical Proofs

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Abstract: We introduce graph mining for evaluation of logical proofs constructed by undergraduate students in the introductory course of logic. We start with description of the source data and their transformation into GraphML. As particular tasks may differ—students solve different tasks—we introduce a method for unification of resolution steps that enables to generate generalized frequent subgraphs. We then introduce a new system for graph mining that uses generalized frequent patterns as new attributes. We show that both overall accuracy and precision for incorrect resolution proofs overcome 97%. We also discuss a use of emergent patterns and three-class classification (correct/incorrect/unrecognised).

1 INTRODUCTION

Resolution in propositional logic is a simple method for building efficient provers and is frequently taught in university courses of logic. Although the structure of such proofs is quite simple, there is, up to our knowledge, no tool for automatic evaluation of student solutions. Main reason may lie in the fact that building a proof is in essence a constructive task. It means that not only the result—whether the set of clauses is contradictory or not—but rather the sequence of resolution steps is important for evaluation of correctness of a student solution.

If we aimed at error detection in a proof only, it would be sufficient to use some search method to find the erroneous resolution step. By this way we even would be capable to detect an error of particular kind, like resolution on two propositional letters. However, there are several drawbacks of this approach. First, detection of an error not necessary means that the solution was completely incorrect. Second, and more important, by search we can hardly discover patterns, or sequence of patterns, that are typical for wrong solutions. And third, for each kind of task – resolution proofs, tableaux proofs etc. – we would need to construct particular search queries. In opposite, the method described in this paper is usable, and hopefully useful, without a principal modification for any logical proof method for which a proof can be expressed by a tree.

In this paper we propose a method that employs graph mining (Cook and Holder, 2006) for classification of the proof as correct or incorrect. As the tasks—resolution proofs—differs, there is a need for unified description of this kind of proofs. For that reason we introduce generalized resolution schemata, so called generalized frequent subgraphs. Each subgraph of a resolution proof is then an instance of one generalized frequent subgraph. In Section 2 we introduce the source data and their transformation into GraphML (GraphML team, 2007). Section 3 discusses preliminary experiments with various graph mining algorithms. Based on these results, in Section 4 we first introduce a method for construction of generalized resolution graphs. Then we describe a system for graph mining that uses different kinds of generalized subgraphs as new attributes. We show that both overall accuracy and precision for incorrect resolution proofs overcome 97%. Discussion and conclusion are in Sections 5 and 6, respectively.

2 DATA AND DATA PRE-PROCESSING

The data set contained 393 different resolution proofs for propositional calculus, 71 incorrect solutions and 322 correct ones. Each student solved and handwrote one task. Two examples of solutions are shown in Fig. 1.

To transform the students proofs into an electronic version we used GraphML (GraphML team, 2007), which uses an XML-based syntax and supports wide range of graphs including directed, undirected, mixed

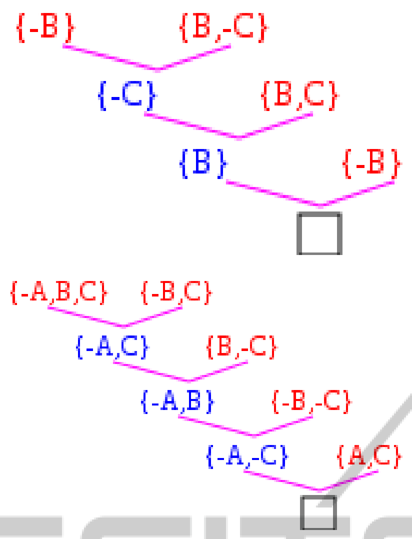

Figure 1: An example of a correct and an incorrect resolution proof.

graphs, hypergraphs, etc.

Common errors in proofs are the following: repetition of the same literal in the clause, resolving on two literals at the same time, incorrect resolution—the literal is missing in the resolved clause, resolving on the same literals (not on one positive and one negative), resolving within one clause, resolved literal is not removed, the clause is incorrectly copied, switching the order of literals in the clause, proof is not finished, resolving the clause and the negation of the second one (instead of the positive clause).

3 FINDING CHARACTERISTIC SUBGRAPH FOR RESOLUTION PROOFS

The first, preliminary, experiment—finding characteristic subgraphs for incorrect and correct resolution proofs—aimed at evaluating the capabilities of particular algorithms. They were performed on the whole set of data and then separately on the sets representing correct and incorrect proofs. The applications provided frequent subgraphs as their output for each set of data which help in identifying and distinguishing between subgraphs that are characteristic for correct and incorrect proofs, respectively. One such subgraph is depicted in Fig. 2.

Specifically, we performed several experiments with four algorithms (Brauner, 2013)—gSpan (Yan and Han, 2002), FFSM (Huan et al., 2003), Subdue (Ketkar et al., 2005), and SLEUTH (Zaki, 2005).

With gSpan we performed experiments for different minimal relative frequencies ranging from 5 to 35 per cent. The overall running time varied from a few milliseconds to tens of milliseconds and the number of resulting subgraphs for all three data sets varied from hundreds to tens according to the frequency. Size of the output varied from hundreds to tens of kilobytes. With FFSM we tuned the parameters of our experiments so that the results were comparable to gSpan. Comparable numbers of resulting subgraphs were obtained in less time with FFSM. Despite the two-file output representation, the size of the output was slightly smaller in comparison to gSpan. With Subdue we performed several experiments for different parameter settings. The results were promising: we obtained from 60 to 80 interesting subgraphs in less than tenths of a second. The maximal size of output was 20 kilobytes. Unlike Subdue, SLEUTH finds all frequent patterns for a given minimum support.

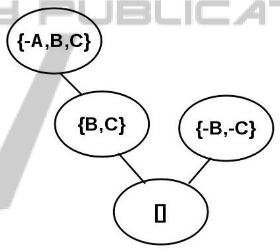

Figure 2: Characteristic subgraph for incorrect resolution proofs.

To sum up the examined methods for mining in general graphs, although all of them are acceptable for our purpose, Subdue and SLEUTH seemed to be the best. Subdue offers a suitable input format that is convenient for data classification. Readability of the output and, most of all, the relatively small number of relevant output graphs, makes Subdue preferable for finding frequent subgraphs in that type of data. A wide choice of settings is another advantage. In the case of SLEUTH, input trees, either ordered or unordered, can be considered. It is possible to search induced or embedded subtrees. The main advantage, when compared to Subdue, is that SLEUTH computes for a given minimum support a complete set of frequent subgraphs. For that reason we have chosen SLEUTH for the main experiment, i.e., for extracting frequent subgraphs and use those subgraphs as new boolean attributes for two tasks, classification of a resolution proof as correct or incorrect and classification of the main error in the solution, if it has been classified as wrong.

4 FREQUENT SUBGRAPHS FOR CLASSIFICATION

4.1 Description of the Method

The system consists of five agents (Zhang and Zhang, 2004; Kerber, 1995). For the purpose of building other systems for evaluation of graph tasks (like resolution proofs in different calculi, tableaux proofs etc.), all the agents have been designed to be as independent as possible.

The system is driven by parameters. The main ones are minimum accuracy and minimum precision for each class, minimum and maximum support, a specific kind of pattern to learn (all frequent or emerging (Dong and Li, 1999)) and minimum growth rate for emerging patterns.

Agent A1 serves for extraction of a specified knowledge from the XML description of the student solution. It sends that information to agent A2 for detection of frequent subgraphs and for building generalized subgraphs. A2 starts with the maximum support and learns a set of frequent subgraphs which subsequently sends as a result to two kinds of agents, A3 and A4i. Agent A3 serves for building a classifier that classifies the solution into two classes—CORRECT and INCORRECT. Agents A4i, one for each kind of error, are intended for learning the rules for detection of the particular error.

In the step of evaluation of a student result there are two possible situations. In the case that a particular classifier has reached accuracy (or precision) higher than its threshold, agents A3 and A4i send the result to agent A5 that collects and outputs the report on the student solution. In the case that a threshold has not been reached, messages are sent back to A2 demanding for completion of the set of frequent subgraphs, actually in decreasing minimum support and subsequently, learning new subgraphs. If the minimum support reaches the limit (see parameters), the system stops.

We partially followed the solution introduced in (Zhang, 2004). The main advantage of this solution is its flexibility. The most important feature of the solution that is based on agents is interaction among agents in run-time. As each agent has a strictly defined interface it can be replaced by some other agent. New agents can be easily incorporated into the system. Likewise, introduction of a planner that would plan experiments will not cause any difficulties. Now we focus on two main agents—the agent that learns frequent patterns and on the agent that learns from data where each attribute corresponds to a particular frequent subgraph and the attribute value is equal to 1 if the subgraph is present in the resolution tree and equal to 0 if it is not. The system starts with a maximum support and learns a kind of frequent patterns, based on the parameter settings. In the case that the accuracy is lower than the minimum accuracy demanded, a message is sent back to frequent pattern generator. After decreasing the minimum support the generator is generating an extended set of patterns, or is selecting only emerging patterns. The system has been implemented mostly in Java and employs learning algorithms from Weka (Hall et al., 2009) and an implementation of SLEUTH.

4.2 Generalized Resolution Subgraphs

4.2.1 Unification on Subgraphs

To unify different tasks that may appear in student tests, we defined a unification operator on subgraphs that allows finding of so called *generalized subgraphs*. Briefly saying, a generalized subgraph describes a set of particular subgraphs, e.g., a subgraph with parents $\{A,-B\}$ and $\{A,B\}$ and with the child $\{A\}$ (the result of a correct use of a resolution rule), where A, B, C are propositional letters, is an instance of generalized graph $\{Z,-Y\}$, $\{Z,Y\} \rightarrow \{Z\}$ where Y, Z are variables (of type *proposition*). The example of incorrect use of resolution rule $\{A,-B\}$, $\{A,B\} \rightarrow \{A,A\}$ matches with the generalized graph $\{Z,-Y\}$, $\{Z,Y\} \rightarrow \{Z,Z\}$. In other words, each subgraph is an instance of one generalized subgraph. We can see that the common set unification rules (Dovier et al., 2001) cannot be used here. In this work we focused on generalized subgraphs that consist of three nodes, two parents and their child. Then each generalized subgraph corresponds to one way—correct or incorrect—of resolution rule application.

4.2.2 Ordering on Nodes

As a resolution proof is, in principal, an unordered tree, there is no order on parents in those three-node graphs. To unify two resolution steps that differ only in order of parents we need to define ordering on parent nodes[1]. We take a node and for each propositional letter we first count the number of negative and the number of positive occurrences of the letter, e.g., for $\{-C,-B,A,C\}$ we have these counts: (0,1) for A, (1,0) for B, and (1,1) for C. Following the ordering Ω defined as follows: $(X,Y) \leq (U,V)$ iff $(X < U \vee (X = U \wedge Y \leq V))$, we have a result for the

[1]Ordering on nodes, not on clauses, as a student may write a text that does not correspond to any clause, e.g., $\{A,A\}$.

node $\{C, -B, A, -C\}$: $\{A, -B, C, -C\}$ with description Δ = ((0,1), (1,0), (1,1)). We will compute this transformation for both parent nodes. Then we say that a node is smaller if the description Δ is smaller with respect to the Ω ordering applied lexicographically per components. Continuing with our example above, let the second node be $\{B, C, A, -A\}$ with Δ = ((0,1), (0,1), (1,1)). Then this second node is smaller than the first node $\{A, -B, C, -C\}$, since the first components are equal and (1,0) is greater than (0,1) in case of second components.

4.2.3 Generalization of Subgraphs

Now we can describe how the generalized graphs are built. After the reordering introduced in the previous paragraph, we assign variables Z,Y,X,W,V,U,... to propositional letters. Initially, we merge literals from all nodes into one list and order it using the Ω ordering. After that, we assign variable Z to the letter with the smallest value, variable Y to the letter with the second smallest value, etc. If two values are equal, we compare the corresponding letters only within the first parent, alternatively within the second parent or child, e.g., for the student's (incorrect) resolution step $\{C, -B, A, -C\}, \{B, C, A, -A\} \rightarrow \{A, C\}$, we order the parents getting the result $\{B, C, A, -A\}, \{C, -B, A, -C\} \rightarrow \{A, C\}$. Next we merge all literals into one list $\{B, C, A, -A, C, -B, A, -C, A, C\}$. After reordering, we get {B,-B,C,C,C,-C,A,A,A,-A} with Δ = ((1,1), (1,3), (1,3)). This leads to the following renaming of letters: $B \rightarrow Z$, $C \rightarrow Y$, and $A \rightarrow X$. Final generalized subgraph is $\{Z, Y, X, -X\}, \{Y, -Z, X, -Y\} \rightarrow \{X, Y\}$. In the case that one node contains more propositional letters and the nodes are equal (with respect to the ordering) on the intersection of propositional letters, the longer node is defined as greater. At the end, the variables in each node are lexicographically ordered to prevent from duplicities such as $\{Z, -Y\}$ and $\{-Y, Z\}$.

4.3 Classification of Correct and Incorrect Solution

For testing of algorithm performance we employed 10-fold cross validation. At the beginning, all student solutions have been divided into 10 groups randomly. Then for each run, all frequent three-node subgraphs in the learning set have been generated and all generalization of those subgraphs have been computed and used as attributes both for learning set and for the test fold. The results below are averages for those 10 runs.

We used four algorithms from Weka package, J48 decision tree learner, SMO Support Vector Machines, IB1 lazy learner and Naive Bayes classifier. We observed that the best results have been obtained for minimum support below 5% and that there were no significant differences between those low values of minimum support.

The best results have been reached for generalized resolutions subgraphs that have been generated from all frequent patterns, i.e. with minimum support equal to 0% found by Sleuth (Zaki, 2005). The highest accuracy 97.2% was obtained with J48 and SMO. However, J48 outperformed SMO in precision for the class of incorrect solutions—98.8% with recall 85.7%. For the class of correct solutions and J48, precision reached 97.1% and recall 99.7%. The average number of attributes (generalized subgraphs) was 83. The resulting tree is in Fig. 3. The worst performance displayed Naive Bayes, especially in recall on incorrect solutions that was below 78%. Summary of results can be found in Table 1.

If we look at the most frequent patterns which were found, we will see the coincidence with patterns in the decision tree as the most frequent pattern is $\{Z\}, \{-Z\} \rightarrow \{\#\}$ with support 89%. This pattern is also the most frequent for the class of correct proofs with support 99.7%, next is $\{Y, Z\}, \{-Y, Z\} \rightarrow \{Z\}$ with support 70%. Frequent patterns for incorrect proofs are not necesarily interesting in all cases. For example, patterns with high support in both incorrect and correct proofs are mostly unimportant, but if we look only at patterns specific for the class of incorrect proofs, we can find common mistakes that students made. One such pattern is $\{Y, Z\}, \{-Y, -Z\} \rightarrow \{\#\}$ with support 32% for the incorrect proofs. Other similar pattern is $\{-X, Y, Z\}, \{-Y, X\} \rightarrow \{Z\}$ with support 28%.

4.4 Complexity

Complexity of pattern generalization depends on the number of patterns and the number of literals within each pattern. Let r be the maximum number of literals within a 3-node pattern. In the first step, ordering of parents must be done which takes $O(r)$ for counting the number of negative and positive literals, $O(r \log r)$ for sorting and $O(r)$ for comparison of two sorted lists. Letter substitution in the second step consists of counting literals on merged list in $O(r)$, sorting the counts in $O(r \log r)$ and renaming of letters in $O(r)$. Lexicographical reordering is performed in last step and takes $O(r \log r)$. Thus, the time complexity for whole generalization process on m patterns with duplicity removal is $O(m^2 + m(4r + 3r \log r))$.

Table 1: Results for frequent subgraphs.

Algorithm	Accuracy [%]	Precision for incorrect proofs [%]
J48	97.2	98.8
SVM (SMO)	97.2	98.6
IB1	94.9	98.3
Naive Bayes	95.9	98.6

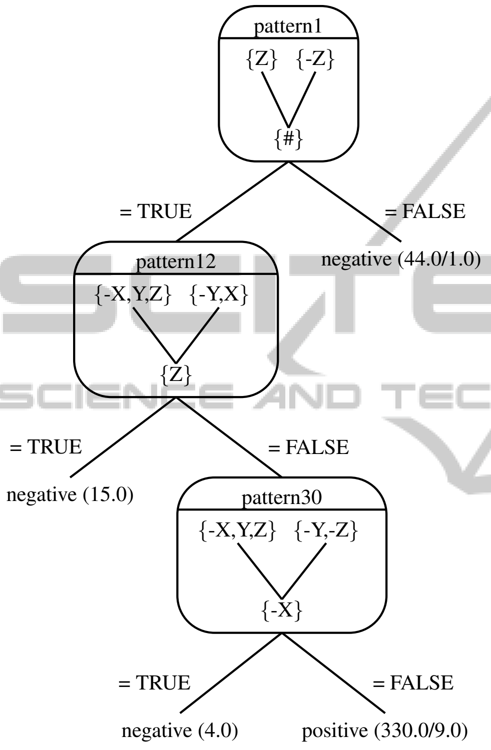

Figure 3: Decision tree with subgraphs as nodes.

Now let the total number of tree nodes be v, number of input trees n, the number of patterns found by Sleuth m, the maximum number of patterns within a single tree p, time complexity of Sleuth $O(X)$, time complexity of sleuth results parsing $O(Y)$, time complexity of classifier (building and testing) $O(C)$. Furthermore, we can assume that $m \gg p$, $m \gg n$ and $m \gg r$. Then the total time complexity of 10-fold cross validation is $O(m^2 + nmp + v + X + Y + C)$.

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Emerging Patterns

We also checked whether emerging patterns would help to improve performance. All the frequent patterns were ranked with GrowthRate metric (Dong and Li, 1999) separately for each of the classes of correct and incorrect solutions. Because we aimed, most of all, to recognize wrong resolution proofs, we built two sets of emerging frequent patterns where the patterns emerging for incorrect resolution proofs have been added to the set of attributes with probability between 0.5 and 0.8, and the emerging patterns for the second class with probability 0.5 and 0.2, respectively. Probability 0.5 stands for equilibrium between both classes.

It was sufficient to use only 10–100 top patterns according to GrowthRate. The best result has been reached for 50 patterns (generalized subgraphs) when probability of choosing an emerging pattern for incorrect solution has been increased to 0.8. Overall accuracy overcome 97.5% and precision on the class of incorrect solutions reached 98.8% with recall 87.3%. It is necessary to stress that the number of attributes was lower, only 50 to compare with 83 for experiments in Table 1. We again used 10-fold cross validation.

5.2 Classification into Three Classes

To increase precision on the class of incorrect proofs, we decided to change the classification paradigm and allow the classifier to leave some portion of examples unclassified. The main goal was to classify only those examples for which the classifier returned high certainty (or probability) of assigning a class.

We used validation set (1/3 of learning examples) for finding a threshold for minimal probability of classification that we accept. If the probability was lower, we assigned class UNKNOWN to such an example. Using 50 emerging patterns and threshold 0.6, we reached precision on the class of incorrect solutions 99.1% with recall 81.6% which corresponds to 73 examples out of 90. It means that 17 examples were not classified to any of those two classes, CORRECT and INCORRECT solution. Overall accuracy, precision and recall for the correct solutions were 96.7%, 96.2% and 99.4%, respectively.

5.3 Inductive Logic Programming

We also checked whether inductive logic programming (ILP) can help to improve the performance under the same conditions. To ensure it, we did not use any domain knowledge predicates that would bring extra knowledge. For that reason, the domain knowledge contained only predicates common for the domain of graphs, like node/3, edge/3, resolutionStep/3 and path/2. We used Aleph system (Srinivasan, 2001). The results were comparable with the method described above.

6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

Our principal goal was to build a robust tool for an automatic evaluation of resolution proofs that would help teacher to classify student solutions. We showed that with the use of machine learning algorithms—namely decision trees and Support Vector Machines—we can reach both accuracy and precision higher than 97%. We showed that precision can be even increased when small portion of examples was left unclassified.

The solution proposed is independent of a particular resolution proof. We observed that only about 30% of incorrect solutions can be recognize with a simple full-text search. For the rest we need a solution that employs more sophisticated analytical tool. We show that machine learning algorithms that use frequent subgraphs as boolean features are sufficient for that task.

As future work we plan to use the results of this system for printing report about a particular student solution. It was observed, during the work on this project, that even knowledge that is uncertain can be useful for a teacher, and that such knowledge can be extracted from output of the learning algorithms.

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