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https://hdl.handle.net/2324/3038

出版情報: DOI Technical Report. 179, 2000-10. Department of Informatics, Kyushu University

バージョン: 権利関係:



Learning Elementary Formal Systems with Queries

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Abstract

The elementary formal system (EFS) is a kind of logic programs which directly manipulates strings, and the learnability of the subclass called hereditary EFSs (HEFSs) has been investigated in the frameworks of the PAC-learning, querylearning, and inductive inference models. The hierarchy of HEFS is expressed by HEFS(m, k, t, r), where m, k, t and r denote the number of clauses, occurrences of variables in the head, atoms in the body, and arity of predicate symbols. The present paper deals with the learnability of HEFS in the query learning model using equivalence queries and additional queries such as membership, predicate membership, entailment membership, and dependency queries. We show that the HEFS(*, k, t, r) is polynomial-time learnable with the equivalence and predicate membership queries and the HEFS (*, k, *, r) with termination property is polynomial-time learnable with the equivalence, entailment membership, and dependency queries for the unbounded parameter *. A lowerbound on the number of queries is presented. We also show that the HEFS(*, k, t, r) is hard to learn with the equivalence and membership queries under the cryptographic assumptions. Furthermore, the learnability of the class of unions of regular pattern languages, which is a subclass of HEFSs, is investigated. The bounded unions of regular pattern languages are polynomial-time predictable with membership query. However, all the finite unions of regular pattern languages are not polynomial-time predictable with membership query if neither are the DNF formulas.

Keywords: elementary formal systems, query learning, prediction-preserving reduction, pattern languages, polynomial-time learning.

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1 Introduction

The elementary formal system (EFS, for short) was originally invented by Smullyan [39] in early 1960s to develop his recursive function theory. Professor Arikawa is a pioneer to employ such an EFS for studying formal language theory [7] in 1970. After about 20 years later, he and his partners [8, 9] characterized the EFSs as logic programs over strings and introduced a new hierarchy of various language classes, which includes the four classes of Chomsky hierarchy, the class of pattern languages, and many others. Furthermore, he enhanced EFSs as a unifying framework for language learning, by designing inductive inference algorithms (MIEFS) for these EFS classes based on Shapiro's Model Inference [34].

Stimulated by the series of Arikawa's works, many researchers investigated the EFSs on the various areas of algorithmic/computational learning theory. Shinohara [37] showed that the *length-bounded* EFSs belonging to the above hierarchy is inferable in the limit from positive examples alone. This result is a valuable extension of the previous inferability of bounded unions of pattern languages [1, 36, 37, 43]. Mukouchi and Arikawa [28] showed that the class of length-bounded EFSs is also refutable. This notion is a new criterion introduced by them that a learner can refute each hypothesis space if it turns out to be insufficient for identification. Many other researchers such as [20, 21, 26, 27] enjoyed various topological properties of EFSs on inductive inference. Jain and Sharma [18] analyzed the mind change complexity and the intrinsic complexity of EFSs.

In contrast to the learnability of EFSs on inductive inference, the polynomial-time learnability is another interesting theme on learning EFSs. For this purpose, Miyano et al. [24, 25] introduced the subclass hereditary EFS, denoted by HEFS. This class includes the class of pattern languages and is enough to express the context-free languages. Furthermore, this class exactly defines the class PTIME [17]. Miyano et al. consider the learnability of the hierarchy HEFS(m, k, t, r) with the parameters such that m, k, t and r are the maximum number of clauses, the maximum number of occurrences of variables in the head, the maximum number of atoms in the body, and the maximum arity of predicate symbols, respectively. They showed that the HEFS(m, k, t, r) is PAC-learnable for every fixed $m, k, t, r \geq 0$.

Other result was shown in the query learning model introduced by Angluin [4]. In this learning model, an algorithm can ask the equivalence, membership, and other several queries. As an interesting relationship between the PAC and query models, it is known that if a class is learnable in polynomial time with equivalence queries (and membership queries, resp.) and the membership decision is polynomial time decidable, then it is also PAC-learnable (with membership queries, resp.) [4]. Sakakibara [33] studied the

query learnability of the subclass of HEFSs called *extended simple* EFS (ESEFS, for short). He showed that the *k*-bounded ESEFS is learnable in polynomial time using the equivalence and *predicate membership* queries. The *k*-bounded ESEFS is a proper subclass of HEFS⁻(*, k, k, 1), where HEFS⁻(m, k, t, r) denotes the HEFS(m, k, t, r) of which the facts are always ground.

In the present paper, we investigate the learnability of the HEFSs w.r.t. the query learning model. Two classes are shown to be learnable in polynomial time using the queries mentioned below with presenting the learning algorithms. Moreover, other classes are shown to be hard to learn in the sense of representation-independent hardness [5, 32].

First, we extend the Sakakibara's result [33] to the whole class of HEFS(*, k, t, r). The learning algorithm with a top-down search strategy is based on the controlled generation of candidate clauses and the contradiction backtracing algorithm of Shapiro [34]. This algorithm can be regarded as a counterpart of the MIEFS of Arikawa, Shinohara, and Yamamoto [9] along a polynomial-time learning model. We show that this algorithm learns all hypotheses H_* of HEFS(*, k, t, r) in polynomial time using $O(p^t m n^{2k+2rt} k^k)$ equivalence queries and $O(p^{t+1} m n^{2k+2r(t+1)} k^k)$ predicate membership queries for every $k, t, r \geq 0$, where p is the number of predicate symbols, m is the cardinality of H_* , and n is the size of the longest counterexample seen so far. Unfortunately, the running time is exponential in t.

To overcome this difficulty, we consider a subclass of HEFS called terminating HEFS (THEFS, for short). Arikawa et al. [9] and Yamamoto [42] showed that the standard SLD-resolution procedure can be used as the decision procedure for EFS languages. However, this procedure may not terminate in case of goals. Thus, we consider the dependency relation of an EFS H that is a smallest transitive relation over atoms $>_H$ such that $A>_H B$ if A and B appear, respectively, in the head and the body of an instance of a clause in H. An HEFS H is called terminating if there exists a well-founded relation >, i.e., there exists no infinite decreasing chain, on atoms that bounds $>_H$. It is obvious that, for a terminating HEFS H, the SLD-resolution procedure for $H \models C$ always terminates for every clause C. Hence, we define the hierarchy THEFS(m, k, t, r) of terminating HEFSs.

We also allow a learner to use two types of additional queries for the target EFS H_* . The first type of queries is the entailment membership query in the model of the learning from entailment [15, 31]. This model is considered to be reasonable for learning the first-order logic or logic programs [10, 11, 16, 19, 31]. The goal of a learning algorithm is to find a hypothesis equivalent to the target hypothesis w.r.t. the entailment semantics using the queries. The entailment semantics is defined in the next section together with other semantics. The second type of queries is the dependency query to determine whether a

pair of atoms are in a dependency relation.

We design a learning algorithm for THEFS(*, k, *, r) with equivalence, entailment membership, and dependency queries. This algorithm adopts the bottom-up search strategy by combining three generalization techniques, namely, saturation, rewind and maximal common subsumer [10, 11, 15, 16, 19, 31]. We show that for every $k, r \geq 0$, this algorithm exactly learns the class THEFS(*, k, *, r) in polynomial time using $O(pmn^{2r+1})$ equivalence queries, $O(p^2m^2n^{4k+4r+1}k^k)$ entailment membership queries, and $O(p^2m^2n^{4k+4r+1}k^k)$ dependency queries, where m is the number of clauses and n is the length of the longest counterexample seen so far. The number $O(pmn^{2r+1})$ of equivalence queries for this algorithm is significantly smaller than the number $O(p^tmn^{2k+2rt}k^k)$ for the previous top-down algorithm for HEFS(*, k, t, r). Also we show that, by analyzing the VC-dimension, lower bound of the queries to learn THEFS(*, k, *, r) is $\Omega(mn^{r/2})$ for some ordering >, which implies that the number of equivalence queries of this algorithm is nearly optimal.

Furthermore, we present the series of representation-independent hardness results of predicting HEFSs by adopting the prediction-preserving reduction without or with membership queries [5, 32]. The property is known that if a class is not polynomial-time predictable (with membership queries), then it is not polynomial-time learnable with equivalence queries (and membership queries) [5, 32]. We denote by \mathcal{RP} , $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ and $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ the class of regular pattern languages, at most m unions of regular pattern languages, and all finite union of regular pattern languages, respectively [12, 24, 25, 35, 36, 38]. Shinohara and Arimura [38] showed that \mathcal{RP} and $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ are inferable from positive data although $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ is not. On this line of studies, we show the hardness of the query learnability of these classes. The \mathcal{RP} is not polynomial-time predictable if neither are DNF formulas and the $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries if neither are DNF formulas. The $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ is polynomial-time predictable with membership queries but it is open whether it is learnable with the equivalence and membership queries.

The above results for pattern languages can be regarded as an improvement for the non-PAC-learnability of the \mathcal{RP} and $\cup \mathcal{RP}$, which is representation-dependent [25]. Furthermore, the third result is an extension of the learnability of \mathcal{RP} with membership queries [23]. The \mathcal{RP} , $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ and $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ are corresponding to the HEFS(1, *, 0, 1), HEFS(m, *, 0, 1) and HEFS(*, *, 0, 1), respectively. Hence, we can conclude that the bound on k is necessary to efficiently learn HEFS(*, k, t, r) with equivalence and membership queries. Other hardness results indicate that the HEFS⁻(*, k, t, r) is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries under the cryptographic assumptions, even if k = t = r = 1.

Finally, concerning with the learnability of k-bounded ESEFSs which is a subclass of

HEFS⁻(*, k, k, 1), with the equivalence and predicate membership queries [33], we show that the bound k is essential for this efficiency, i.e., the HEFS⁻(*, *, *, r) is not polynomial-time predictable with the membership or predicate membership queries if neither are the DNF formulas, even if r = 1. All results in this paper are summarized in Fig. 1.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we give the definitions and theorems on elementary formal systems, learning models, and prediction-preserving reductions necessary for the later discussion.

2.1 Elementary formal systems and their languages

For a set S, #S denotes the cardinality of S. Let Σ be a finite alphabet of constant symbols, X be a countable set of variables, and for every $r \geq 0$, Π_r be a finite alphabet of r-ary predicate symbols. Moreover, let $\Pi = \bigcup_{i \geq 0} \Pi_i$. We assume that Σ , X and Π are mutually disjoint. We call the pair $S = (\Sigma, \Pi)$ a signature.

For each predicate symbol $p \in \Pi_r$, r is called an arity of p. We denote by $arity(\Pi)$ the maximum arity of the predicate symbols in Π . By Σ^* , Σ^+ and $\Sigma^{[n]}$, we denote the sets of all finite strings, all nonempty finite strings, and all strings of length n or less respectively, over Σ .

A pattern over S is an element of $(\Sigma \cup X)^+$. A pattern over S is called regular if each variable appears at most once in it. An atom over S is an expression of the form $p(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_r)$, where $r \geq 0$, $p \in \Pi_r$ and each π_i is a pattern over S $(1 \leq i \leq n)$. A definite clause (clause, for short) over S is an expression of the form:

$$C = A \leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_m,$$

where $m \geq 0$ and A, A_1, \ldots, A_m are atoms over \mathcal{S} . The atom A and the set $\{A_1, \ldots, A_m\}$ of atoms are called the *head* and the *body* of C and denoted by hd(C) and bd(C), respectively. In case that m = 0 (resp., m > 0), a clause is called a fact (resp., rule). A clause or an atom over \mathcal{S} is ground if it contains no variable.

Definition 1 Let $S = (\Sigma, \Pi)$ be a signature. An elementary formal system (EFS, for short) over S is a finite set of clauses over S.

For a signature $S = (\Sigma, \Pi)$, $Atom_S$ and $Clause_S$ denote the sets of all atoms and all clauses over S, respectively. In particular, the set of all ground atoms over S is called the $Herbrand\ base$ over S and denoted by $Base_S$.

Figure 1: The summary of the learnability of a hierarchy HEFS(m, k, t, r) of HEFSs presented in this paper. In the all tables, the first row indicates the types of queries used. The types of queries assumed in this paper are the equivalence (EQ), membership (MQ), predicate membership (PMQ), entailment membership (EntMQ), and dependency (DQ) queries. Each "poly" means that the class is polynomial-time exact learnable with EQs and the indicated queries. Each "hard" (resp., "hard—") means that some hard class (resp., the class of DNF formulas) is prediction-preserving reducible with the indicated queries to the class. The "pred" means that the class is polynomial-time predictable with the indicated queries. The "PAC" and "not PAC" mean the class is and is not polynomial-time PAC-learnable, respectively. Finally, each arrow in the tables means that the result of the cell containing the arrow is directly derived from the neighbor pointed by the arrow.

(a) Learnability of HEFSs

Class	EQ	EQ+MQ	EQ+PMQ
$\mathrm{HEFS}(m,k,t,r)$	PAC [24, 25]	←	←
k -bounded ESEFSs $(\subseteq HEFS^-(*, k, k, 1))$	\rightarrow	hard (Th14)	poly [33]
$\mathrm{HEFS}(*,k,t,r)$	\rightarrow	hard (Th14)	poly (Th5)
$HEFS^{-}(*,*,*,r)$	\rightarrow	\rightarrow	$hard^-$ (Th15)

(b) Learnability of terminating HEFSs

Class		EQ+MQ	EQ+PMQ	EQ+EntMQ	EQ+EntMQ+DQ
$\overline{\text{THEFS}(*,k,*,r)}$	\rightarrow	hard (Th14)	open	open	poly (Th7)

(c) Learnability of regular pattern languages and their unions

Class		EQ	EQ+MQ
\mathcal{RP}	(= HEFS(1, *, 0, 1))	not PAC [24, 25] / hard (Th11)	poly [23]
$\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$	$(= \mathrm{HEFS}(m, *, 0, 1))$	↑ / ↑	pred (Th13)
$\cup \mathcal{RP}$	(= HEFS(*, *, 0, 1))	↑ / ↑	hard- (Th12)

A substitution is a homomorphism $\theta: (\Sigma \cup X)^+ \to (\Sigma \cup X)^+$ such that $\theta(a) = a$ for each symbol $a \in \Sigma$. For a substitution θ and a pattern π , the $\pi\theta$ denotes the image of π by θ . For an atom $A = p(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_n)$ and a clause $C = A \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$, we define $A\theta = p(\pi_1\theta, \ldots, \pi_n\theta)$ and $C\theta = A\theta \leftarrow A_1\theta, \ldots, A_m\theta$. Then, we say that $A\theta$ and $C\theta$ are instances of A and C, respectively. In particular, if $A\theta$ or $C\theta$ becomes ground, then θ is called a ground substitution.

We end this subsection by introducing the notion of *subsumption*, denoted by \supseteq which plays an important role in Section 3. For atoms A and B over S, we define A subsumes B, denoted by $A \supseteq B$, if there exists a substitution θ such that $A\theta = B$, that is, B is an instance of A.

For clauses C and D over S, we define C subsumes D, denoted by $C \supseteq D$, if there exists a substitution θ such that $hd(C\theta) = hd(D)$ and $bd(C\theta) \subseteq bd(D)$. We define C properly subsumes D, denoted by $C \supseteq D$, if $C \supseteq D$ but $D \not\supseteq C$.

For EFSs H and G over S, we define H subsumes G, denoted by $H \supseteq G$, if for every $D \in G$, there exists a clause $C \in H$ such that $C \supseteq D$. Then we say that H is a generalization of G or G is a refinement of H. Furthermore, a refinement G of H is conservative if, for every $D \in G$, there exists at most one clause $C \in H$ such that $C \supseteq D$. We define $H \supseteq G$ if $H \supseteq G$ but $G \not\supseteq H$.

2.2 Three semantics for EFSs

In this subsection, we first introduce a model theory for EFSs as follows for uniformly dealing with three semantics. Let us identify a given signature $\mathcal{S} = (\Sigma, \Pi)$ with the first-order signature $(\Sigma, \{\cdot\}, \Pi)$, where "·" is a string concatenation operator satisfying the associativity $\forall x \forall y \forall z [x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z]$.

An interpretation \mathcal{I} over \mathcal{S} is a triple (U, I, α) , where U is a set, I is a mapping that maps $p \in \Pi_r$ $(r \geq 0)$, "·" and $a \in \Sigma$ to an r-ary relation over U, a binary associative function over U and an element of U, respectively, and α is a variable-assignment to U. Then, the satisfaction relation \models is defined in a standard manner (cf., [14, 30]). A model of an atom A or a clause C over \mathcal{S} is an interpretation \mathcal{I} over \mathcal{S} such that $\mathcal{I} \models A$ and $\mathcal{I} \models C$, respectively. We assume that any variable in a clause is universally quantified. A model of an EFS H over \mathcal{S} is a model of every clause in H over \mathcal{S} .

For an EFS H and a clause C over S, we say that H entails C, denoted by $H \models C$, if every model of H is a model of C. For EFSs H and G over S, we say that H entails G, denoted by $H \models G$, if every model of H is a model of G.

Originally, the semantics of EFSs is defined by the provability relation \vdash defined [9]. For an EFS H and a clause C over S, respectively, the relation $H \vdash C$ which means that

C is provable from H is defined inductively as follows:

- 1. If $C \in H$, then $H \vdash C$.
- 2. If $H \vdash C$, then $H \vdash C\theta$ for a substitution θ .
- 3. If $H \vdash A \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m, A_{m+1}$ and $H \vdash A_{m+1}$, then $H \vdash A \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$.

The following lemma gives the relationship between \vdash and \models .

Lemma 1 (Arikawa et al. [9]) For every atom A and EFS H, $H \models A$ iff $H \vdash A \leftarrow$.

The language semantics is a standard semantics of EFSs (cf. [8, 9, 24, 25]). Let H be an EFS over $S = (\Sigma, \Pi)$ and $p_0 \in \Pi$ be a distinguished predicate symbol. Then, the language defined by H and p_0 over S is the set

$$L_{\mathcal{S}}(H, p_0) = \{ w \in \Sigma^+ \mid H \models p_0(w) \}.$$

A language $L \subseteq \Sigma^+$ is definable by an EFS over S or it is an EFS language over S if there exists an EFS H over S and $p_0 \in \Pi$ such that $L = L_S(H, p_0)$.

The least Herbrand model semantics [9, 42] is based on all of the ground atoms provable from a given EFS. The least Herbrand model of an EFS H over S is the set $M_S(H) = \{ A \in Base_S \mid H \models A \}$ [9, 42].

The entailment semantics is based on all clauses entailed by a given EFS. The entailment set of an EFS H over S, denoted by $Ent_{S}(H)$, is the set of all clauses over S entailed by H, i.e., $Ent_{S}(H) = \{ C \in Clause_{S} \mid H \models C \}$.

Formally, a semantics for a class \mathcal{H} of EFSs is a pair $(U, \hat{L}(\cdot))$, where U is a set of objects, called the domain, and a mapping $\hat{L}: \mathcal{H} \to 2^U$, called the language mapping.

Definition 2 Let \mathcal{S} be a signature (Σ, Π) and $p_0 \in \Pi_1$ is the distinguished predicate.

- The language semantics on S is a pair $(Atom_S, L_S(\cdot, p_0))$.
- The least Herbrand model semantics on S is a pair $(Base_{S}, M_{S}(\cdot))$.
- The entailment semantics on S is a pair ($Clause_S$, $Ent_S(\cdot)$).

We introduce a proof-DAG by extending the parse-DAG for k-bounded CFGs by Angluin [3] and the ground proof-DAG for EFS by Sakakibara [33].

Definition 3 A proof-DAG for a clause C by an EFS H is a finite directed acyclic graph T with the following properties. Nodes in T are atoms possibly containing variables. The node A is the unique node with in-degree zero, called the root. For each node B in T, let Succ(B) be the set of nodes B' with edges from B to B'. Then for every node B in T, either $B \in bd(C)$ or $(B \leftarrow Succ(B))$ is an instance of a clause in H.

A proof-DAG T of C by H is minimal if no proper subgraph of T is also a proof-DAG C by H. A minimal proof-DAG for a clause C by H is said to be trivial if all nodes in T are contained in $hd(C) \cup bd(C)$, and non-trivial otherwise. We will assume that a proof-DAG is always minimal.

The Skolem substitution for C w.r.t. H is a substitution σ that replaces the variables x in C with mutually distinct fresh constants c_x not appearing in H and C.

Lemma 2 Let H be an EFS and C a clause. For the Skolem substitution σ for C w.r.t. H, $H \models \forall (C)$ iff $H \models C\sigma$.

Lemma 3 Let S be a signature, H an EFS consisting of ground clauses, and $A \in Base_S$ a ground atom. Then, $H \models A$ iff there exists a minimal proof-DAG T for $A \leftarrow by H$.

Proof. The if direction of the lemma is easily proved by induction on the size $n \geq 1$ of the proof-DAG for A by H. Next, we will show the only-if direction. Suppose that $H \models A$. Let $M = M_{\mathcal{S}}(H)$. First, since M is the smallest among the Herbrand model of H, we can show that M is the supported model, that is, if $M \models A$ then there is some $C \in H$ such that A = hd(C) and $M \models bd(C)$. Then, we show the lemma by induction on the cardinality n = #H. If n = 1 then H consists of the fact $A \leftarrow$, and thus, the lemma immediately follows. Suppose that #H = n + 1 and the lemma holds for any EFS of cardinality no more than n. By the claim shown above, there is some clause $C = (A \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_m) \in H$ such that A = hd(C) and $M \models B_1 \land \ldots \land B_m$. Let $H' = H - \{C\}$ and $M' = M_{\mathcal{S}}(H')$. We will show that $M' \models B_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge B_m$. Suppose to the contrary that there is some interpretation I such that $I \models H - \{C\}$ but $I \not\models B_1 \land \ldots \land B_m$. Since $B_1 \land \ldots \land B_m$ is the body of C, we see that $I \models C$ regardless the truth value of A. Therefore, I is a model of both $H - \{C\}$ and C, and thus that $I \models M$ but $I \not\models B_1 \land \ldots \land B_m$. However, this contradicts the assumption. Hence, $M' \models B_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge B_m$. Since $\#H' \leq n$, by induction hypothesis, we have that for every $1 \leq i \leq m$, there exists a proof-DAG T_i for B_i by H'. Hence, we have a proof-DAG for A by H by merging T_1, \ldots, T_m and by adding the root node A and the edges $\{(A, B_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq m\}$. It is not hard to see that the resulting graph T is acyclic.

The following lemma characterizes the entailment relation \models for EFS in terms of a proof-DAG, and corresponds to the subsumption theorem in clausal logic [29].

Lemma 4 (The subsumption theorem) Let H be an EFS and C a clause. Then, $H \models C$ if and only if one of the following statements holds:

(i) C is a tautology.

- (ii) C is subsumed by some clause in H.
- (ii) There exists a non-trivial minimal proof-DAG for C by H.

Proof. Let σ be the Skolem substitution for C w.r.t. H. Since $C\sigma$ is ground, it follows from Lemma 2 and the deduction theorem of first-order logic that $H \cup bd(C\sigma) \models hd(C\sigma)$. Thus from Lemma 3, there is some proof-DAG T' for $hd(C\sigma)$ by $H \cup bd(C\sigma)$. By the definition of the proof-DAG, if $bd(C\sigma)$ is ground then this proof-DAG T' is also a proof-DAG for $C\sigma$ by H. Since σ is one-to-one and introduces only fresh constants into C, we can obtain a proof-DAG T for C from T' by applying the inverse mapping σ^{-1} to T'. The converse is also true.

In the remainder of this paper, we will omit the subscript S if it is not necessary to explicitly disignate it. In Section 3, a signature is explicitly given to a learner before the learning session starts. In Section 4, a signature is implicitly assumed to contain all predicate and constant symbols occurring in EFSs.

2.3 Hereditary EFSs and the other subclasses

In this subsection, we introduce the several subclasses of EFSs, which are developed by many researchers [7, 8, 9, 17, 24, 25, 33, 37, 42].

First, we prepare the notations necessary to define the subclasses. The size of a pattern π , denoted by $|\pi|$, is the total number of symbols from $\Sigma \cup X$ appearing in π . The variable-occurrence of π , denoted by $o(\pi)$, is the total number of the occurrences of variables from X appearing in π . For example, if $\Sigma = \{a,b\}$, $X = \{x,y,\ldots\}$ and $\pi = abxbxyab$, then $|\pi| = 8$ and $o(\pi) = 3$. For an atom $A = p(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_n)$, we define $|A| = |\pi_1| + \cdots + |\pi_n|$ and $o(A) = o(\pi_1) + \cdots + o(\pi_n)$. For a clause $C = A_0 \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$, we define $|C| = |A_0| + \cdots + |A_m|$ and $o(C) = o(A_0) + \cdots + o(A_m)$. For an EFS H, the size of H, written |H|, is $\sum_{C \in H} |C|$.

Definition 4 We introduce the following restrictions of clauses.

- 1. A clause $A \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$ is called *variable-bounded* [9] if every variable appearing in the body A_1, \ldots, A_m also appears in the head A.
- 2. A clause $A \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$ is called *length-bounded* [9] if $|A\theta| \ge |A_1\theta| + \ldots + |A_m\theta|$ for each substitution θ .
- 3. A clause is called *extended simple* [33] if it is of the form $p(\pi) \leftarrow q_1(x_1), \ldots, q_m(x_m)$, where p, q_1, \ldots, q_m are unary predicate symbols and x_1, \ldots, x_m are all variables appearing in π .

- 4. A clause is called *simple* [9] if it is of the form $p(\pi) \leftarrow q_1(x_1), \ldots, q_m(x_m)$, where p, q_1, \ldots, q_m are unary predicate symbols and x_1, \ldots, x_m are mutually distinct variables appearing in π .
- 5. A simple clause is called regular [7] if the pattern in its head is regular.
- 6. A regular clause is called *left-linear* (resp., right-linear) [7] if the pattern in its head is of the form wx (resp., xw) for some string $w \in \Sigma^*$.
- 7. A clause is hereditary [25] if it is of the form

$$p(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_n) \leftarrow q_1(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_{t_1}), q_2(\tau_{t_1+1}, \ldots, \tau_{t_2}), \ldots, q_m(\tau_{t_{m-1}+1}, \ldots, \tau_{t_m}),$$

and each pattern τ_i $(1 \le j \le t_m)$ is a substring of some π_i $(1 \le i \le n)$.

The extended simple clause was introduced in the context of simple formal systems (SFSs) [33], so an extended simple clause is an extension of a simple clause in SFSs [7]. In contrast, the above extended simple clause is not an extension of a simple clause in EFSs. In particular, there exists no extended simple clause that is a non-ground fact and that has variables only occurring in the head.

Definition 5 An EFS H is called variable-bounded (resp., length-bounded, extended simple, simple, regular, left-linear, right-linear, hereditary) if each clause in H is variable-bounded (resp., length-bounded, extended simple, simple, regular, left-linear, right-linear, hereditary).

For example, let $\Pi = \{p_0, q\}$ and $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$. Then, the following simple EFS H_0 and HEFS H_1 define the languages $L(H_0, p_0) = \{w \in \{a, b\}^+ \mid w \text{ is a string of the balanced parentheses}\}$ and $L(H_1, p_0) = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \geq 1\}$, respectively.

$$H_0 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} p_0(xy) \leftarrow p_0(x), p_0(y) \\ p_0(axb) \leftarrow p_0(x) \\ p_0(ab) \leftarrow \end{array} \right\}, \ H_1 = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} p_0(xyz) \leftarrow q(x,y,z) \\ q(ax,by,cz) \leftarrow q(x,y,z) \\ q(a,b,c) \leftarrow \end{array} \right\}.$$

We abbreviate an extended simple EFS and a hereditary EFS as an ESEFS and an HEFS, respectively. The following hierarchy HEFS(m, k, t, r) of HEFSs introduced by [25] gives a useful framework for polynomial-time learnability.

Definition 6 (Miyano et al. [24, 25]) For every $m, k, t, r \ge 0$, HEFS(m, k, t, r) is the class of HEFSs consisting of at most m clauses each of which satisfies the following conditions (a)–(c). HEFS⁻(m, k, t, r) is the subclass of HEFS(m, k, t, r) consisting of at most m clauses each of which satisfies the following conditions (a)–(d).

- (a) The variable-occurrence in the head is at most k.
- (b) The number of atoms in the body is at most t.
- (c) The arity of each predicate symbol is at most r.
- (d) All facts are ground.

In this hierarchy, the symbol '*' indicates that there is no bound on this parameter.

For example, the HEFSs H_0 and H_1 in the above example belong to HEFS⁻(3, 2, 2, 1) and HEFS⁻(3, 3, 1, 3), respectively. We can give the correspondence of the EFS languages to Chomsky's hierarchy and complexity classes.

Theorem 1 The following relations hold for the EFS languages above.

- 1. (Arikawa [7], Arikawa et al. [9]) A language is recursively enumerable, (resp., context-sensitive, context-free, regular) iff it is definable by a variable-bounded (resp., length-bounded, regular, left/right-linear) EFS.
- 2. (Ikeda, Arimura [17]) A language is accepted by a polynomial time deterministic Turing machine iff it is definable by a hereditary EFS.
- 3. (Arikawa et al. [9]) A regular pattern language, (resp., union of regular pattern language, regular language, context-free language) is definable by an EFS in HEFS(1, *, 0, 1), (resp. HEFS(*, *, 0, 1), HEFS(*, 1, 1, 1), HEFS(*, 2, 2, 1)).

Finally, we formulate the termination for HEFSs, which are motivated by the acyclicity of EFSs [6, 10, 13].

Definition 7 Let S be a signature and H be an EFS over S. The dependency graph of H is a possibly infinite directed graph $G_H = (Atom_S, E)$ such that there exists an edge from A to B, i.e., $(A, B) \in E$, iff there exist a ground instance C of some clause in H such that A = hd(C) and $B \in bd(C)$.

Definition 8 Let S be a signature and H be an EFS over S. The dependency relation of H is a binary relation $>_H$ on $Atom_S$ such that $A>_H B$ iff there exists a path of non-zero length from A to B in the dependency graph G_H of H.

A binary relation R on S is transitive if aRb and bRc implies aRc for every $a, b, c \in S$. Also R is well-founded if there exists no infinite decreasing chain from a such as $aRa_1, a_1Ra_2, a_2Ra_3, \cdots$, for every $a \in S$.

Definition 9 Let S be a signature, H be an EFS over S and > be a transitive binary relation on $Atom_S$. The dependency relation $>_H$ of H is bounded by > if $A>_H B$ implies A>B for every atoms $A,B\in Atom_S$.

Definition 10 Let S be a signature and H be an EFS over S Then, H is terminating if there exists a well-founded transitive binary relation > on $Atom_S$ that bounds the dependency relation $>_H$ of H.

Let S be a signature, \mathcal{H} be a class of EFSs over S, and > be a transitive binary relation on $Atom_{S}$. We say that \mathcal{H} is uniformly bounded by > if the dependency relation $>_{H}$ is bounded by > for every $H \in \mathcal{H}$. We denote by $\mathcal{H}(>)$ the maximal subclass of \mathcal{H} whose dependency relation is uniformly bounded by >, i.e., $\mathcal{H}(>) = \{ H \in \mathcal{H} \mid >_{H} \text{ is bounded by } > \}$.

As similar as HEFS(m, k, t, r), we can introduce a class THEFS(m, k, t, r) of terminating HEFSs with the same parameters m, k, t and r. In particular, we denote (THEFS(m, k, t, r))(>) by THEFS(>, m, k, t, r).

2.4 Learning models

In this subsection, we introduce the learning models. Here, a class \mathcal{H} of grammars, called a *hypothesis space*, is always assumed. If a hypothesis space \mathcal{H} is a class of EFSs, then a signature is assumed to be in common.

Let $(U, \hat{L}(\cdot))$ be the semantics for \mathcal{H} . Each element of U is called an *example*. The language $\hat{L}(H)$ is also called the *concept defined by* H. We say that two hypotheses H and H_* are *equivalent* under the semantics $(U, \hat{L}(\cdot))$ if $\hat{L}(H) = \hat{L}(H_*)$.

Let $H_* \in \mathcal{H}$ be a target hypothesis. An example w is called positive for H_* if $w \in \hat{L}(H_*)$ and negative otherwise. Many researchers have been developed several different learning models to capture the efficient learnability from the viewpoints of the criterion of identification and the protocol of receiving examples and queries. In this paper, we employ the following two learning models. First, we define the exact learning model, where a learning algorithm makes the following queries to collect the information on H_* [4].

Definition 11 (Angluin [4]) Let $H_* \in \mathcal{H}$ be a target hypothesis.

1. An equivalence query for H_* (EQ, for short) takes $H \in \mathcal{H}$ as input, denoted by EQ(H). The answer is "yes" if $\hat{L}(H) = \hat{L}(H_*)$ and a counterexample $w \in (\hat{L}(H_*) - \hat{L}(H)) \cup (\hat{L}(H) - \hat{L}(H_*))$ is returned otherwise. A counterexample w is called positive if $w \in \hat{L}(H_*)$ and called negative if $w \notin \hat{L}(H_*)$.

2. A membership query for H_* (MQ, for short) takes $w \in \Sigma^+$ as input, denoted by MQ(w). The answer is "yes" if $w \in L(H_*)$ and "no" otherwise.

Definition 12 (Angluin [4]) A polynomial-time exact learning algorithm \mathbf{A} for \mathcal{H} is an algorithm that identifies the target hypothesis $H_* \in \mathcal{H}$ making equivalence and membership queries for H_* , \mathbf{A} must halt and output a hypothesis $H \in \mathcal{H}$ that is equivalent to H_* , i.e., $\hat{L}(H) = \hat{L}(H_*)$, and, at any stage in the learning algorithm, the running time of \mathbf{A} must be bounded by a polynomial in the size of H_* and of the longest counterexample returned by equivalence queries so far. \mathcal{H} is called polynomial-time exact learnable if there exists a polynomial-time exact learning algorithm for \mathcal{H} .

On the other hand, we introduce the prediction model according to Pitt and Warmuth [32] and Angluin and Kharitonov [5].

Definition 13 (Pitt & Warmuth [32], Angluin & Kharitonov [5]) A prediction algorithm \mathbf{A} for \mathcal{H} is an algorithm that takes m (a bound on the size of \mathcal{H}), n (a bound on the length of examples), ε (an accuracy bound), a collection of labeled examples such that each positive (resp., negative) example is labeled by + (resp., -), and an unlabeled example w of H_* as input, and outputs either + or - indicating its prediction for w. The \mathbf{A} is called a polynomial-time prediction algorithm if the running time of \mathbf{A} is bounded by a polynomial in s, n and $1/\varepsilon$. For some polynomial p, for all input parameters m, n and ε and for all probability distributions on examples, if \mathbf{A} is given at least $p(m, n, 1/\varepsilon)$ randomly generated examples of H_* and randomly generated unlabeled example w, and the probability that \mathbf{A} incorrectly predicts the label of w for H_* is at most ε , then we say that \mathbf{A} successfully predicts \mathcal{H} . Moreover, \mathcal{H} is called polynomial-time predictable if there exists a polynomial-time prediction algorithm for \mathcal{H} that successfully predicts \mathcal{H} .

The **A** is a prediction with membership queries algorithm (pwm-algorithm, for short) is a prediction algorithm that is allowed to make membership queries. The notions that **A** is a polynomial-time pwm-algorithm, a pwm-algorithm **A** successfully predicts \mathcal{H} , and \mathcal{H} is polynomial-time predictable with membership queries are defined similarly as above.

We can also define a variant of PAC-learning model [41] in which a learning algorithm is allowed to make membership queries in addition to random examples [5]. There is a close relationship among exact learning with equivalence queries, PAC-learning and prediction models without or with membership queries.

Theorem 2 (Angluin [4], Angluin & Kharitonov [5]) If \mathcal{H} is polynomial-time exact learnable with equivalence queries, then it is polynomial-time PAC learnable. If \mathcal{H}

is polynomial-time PAC learnable, then it is polynomial-time predictable. Furthermore, these statements also hold with membership queries.

In this paper, we also introduce the following extension of membership queries based on the non-standard semantics of EFSs.

Definition 14 Let $H_* \in \mathcal{H}$ be a target hypothesis.

- 1. (Angluin [3], Sakakibara [33]) A predicate membership query for H_* (PMQ, for short) takes a ground atom $A = p(w_1, \ldots, w_n)$ for $p \in \Pi$ and $w_i \in \Sigma^+$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ as input, denoted by PMQ(A). The answer is "yes" if $H_* \models A$, i.e., $A \in M(H_*)$ and "no" otherwise.
- 2. (Frazier & Pitt [15]) An entailment membership query for H_* (EntMQ, for short) takes a (possibly non-ground) clause C as input, denoted by EntMQ(C). The answer is "yes" if $H_* \models C$, i.e., $C \in Ent(H_*)$ and "no" otherwise.

The PMQs and EntMQs coincide with exactly the membership queries under the least Herbrand model semantics ($Base, M(\cdot)$) and the entailment semantics ($Clause_{\mathcal{S}}, Ent(\cdot)$), respectively. We can observe that an MQ is simulated by a PMQ and then a PMQ is by an EntMQ.

Furthermore, we can define the entailment equivalence query (EntEQ, for short) as the equivalence query under the semantics ($Clause_{\mathcal{S}}, Ent(\cdot)$), where a counterexample is a clause. The learning model with EntEQ and EntMQ, called learning from entailment [15], gives a valuable framework for the efficient learnability of first-order logic or logic programs [10, 11, 16, 19, 31].

Finally, we define the query to ask about the termination information.

Definition 15 A dependency query for H_* (DQ, for short) takes a pair (A, B) of atoms as input, denoted by DQ(A, B). The answer is "yes" if $A >_{H_*} B$ holds and "no" otherwise.

2.5 Prediction-preserving reduction

Pitt and Warmuth [32] have introduced the notion of reducibility between prediction problems. *Prediction-preserving reducibility* is essentially a method of showing that one hypothesis space is no harder to predict than another. Furthermore, Angluin and Kharitonov [5] have extended the prediction-preserving reduction to the notion of reducibility between prediction problems with membership queries.

Definition 16 (Pitt & Warmuth [32], Angluin & Kharitonov [5]) Let \mathcal{H}_i be a hypothesis space over a domain U_i (i = 1, 2). We say that predicting \mathcal{H}_1 reduces to predicting \mathcal{H}_2 , denoted by $\mathcal{H}_1 \leq \mathcal{H}_2$, if there exists a function $f: \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N} \times U_1 \to U_2$ (called an instance mapping) and a function $g: \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N} \times \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$ (called a concept mapping) satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. for each $w \in U_1^{[n]}$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}_1^{[s]}, w \in \hat{L}(H)$ iff $f(n, s, w) \in \hat{L}(g(n, s, H))$;
- 2. the size complexity of g is polynomial in the size complexity of H;
- 3. f(n, s, w) can be computed in polynomial time.

Furthermore, we say that predicting \mathcal{H}_1 reduces to predicting \mathcal{H}_2 with membership queries (pwm-reduces, for short), denoted by $\mathcal{H}_1 \leq_{\text{pwm}} \mathcal{H}_2$, if there exists a function $f: \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N} \times U_1 \to U_2$, a function $g: \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N} \times \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$, and a function $h: \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N} \times U_2 \to U_1 \cup \{\top, \bot\}$ (called a membership query mapping) satisfying the above and the following conditions:

- 4. for each $w' \in U_2$ and $H \in \mathcal{H}_1^{[s]}$, if $h(n, s, w') = \top$ then $w' \in \hat{L}(g(n, s, H))$; if $h(n, s, w') = \bot$ then $w \notin \hat{L}(g(n, s, H))$; if $h(n, s, w') = w \in U_1$, then it holds that $w' \in \hat{L}(g(n, s, H))$ iff $w \in \hat{L}(H)$;
- 5. h(n, s, w') can be computed in polynomial time.

Theorem 3 (Pitt & Warmuth [32], Angluin & Kharitonov [5]) Let \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 be hypothesis spaces, and suppose that $\mathcal{H}_1 \unlhd \mathcal{H}_2$ ($\mathcal{H}_1 \unlhd_{\text{pwm}} \mathcal{H}_2$). If \mathcal{H}_2 is polynomial-time predictable (with membership queries), then so is \mathcal{H}_1 .

We deal with the following hypothesis spaces to reduce the prediction problem to several EFS subclasses: \mathcal{DFA} and $\cup \mathcal{DFA}$ denote the class of all languages accepted by the DFAs and the finite union of DFAs, respectively. \mathcal{DNF}_n denotes the class of all DNF formulas over n Boolean variables; Let $\mathcal{DNF} = \bigcup_{n>1} \mathcal{DNF}_n$.

Theorem 4 The following statements hold.

- 1. (Angluin [2]) \mathcal{DFA} is polynomial-time exactly learnable with equivalence and membership queries.
- 2. (Angluin & Kharitonov [5]) ∪DFA is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries under the cryptographic assumptions that inverting the RSA encryption function, recognizing quadratic residues and factoring Blum integers are solvable in polynomial time.

3. (Angluin & Kharitonov [5]) DNF is either polynomial-time predictable or not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries, if there exist one-way functions that can not be inverted by polynomial-sized circuits.

3 Learning HEFSs

In this section, we investigate the polynomial-time learnability of subclasses of HEFSs using various types of queries. We first show that the class HEFS(*, k, t, r) of HEFSs is polynomial-time exact learnable with equivalence and predicate membership queries. Next, we show that the class THEFS(*, k, *, r) of terminating HEFSs is polynomial-time exact learnable with equivalence, entailment membership, and dependency queries, which reflects the termination information.

3.1 The learnability of a subclass of HEFSs

Sakakibara [33] showed that, for every $k \geq 0$, the class of k-bounded ESEFSs, which is a subclass of HEFS⁻(*, k, k, 1), is polynomial-time exact learnable with equivalence and predicate membership queries. In this subsection, we extend this result to the whole class HEFS(*, k, t, r) for every $k, t, r \geq 0$.

In general, the entailment relation is undecidable for variable-bounded EFSs [9] and deterministic exponential-time complete for HEFSs [17]. The following lemma claims that the entailment relation in HEFS(*, k, *, r) is polynomial-time decidable.

Lemma 5 For a clause C and an EFS H, suppose that $H \cup \{C\} \in \text{HEFS}(*, k, *, r)$. Then, a proof-DAG for $H \models C$ is polynomial-time computable in |C| and |H| if it exists.

Proof. Let θ be the ground substitution that maps each variable x in C to a new constant c_x . Then, we can see that $H \models C$ if $H \cup bd(C\theta) \models hd(C\theta)$ under the extended alphabet $\Sigma \cup \{c_x\}_x$. The result immediately follows from Miyano et al. [25].

For a signature $S = (\Sigma, \Pi)$ and an atom $A = p(\pi_1, ..., \pi_r)$, we define the subset $Atom_S(A)$ as:

$$Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(A) = \left\{ q(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_s) \in Atom_{\mathcal{S}} \middle| \begin{array}{l} \text{every } \tau_i (1 \leq i \leq s) \text{ is a substring} \\ \text{of some } \pi_j (1 \leq j \leq r) \end{array} \right\}.$$

Then, the following series of lemmas are necessary to prove the learnability of HEFS(*, k, t, r).

Lemma 6 Let S be a signature, H an HEFS over S and C a clause over S. Then, for every atom A in a proof-DAG for $H \models C$, it holds that $A \in Atom_{S}(hd(C))$.

Procedure LEARN_HEFS_BY_CBA /* A learning algorithm for HEFS(*, k, t, r) with EQs and PMQs */ /* S: a fixed signature */ $1 \quad H := \emptyset;$ 2 while EQ(H) = ``no'' do begin $/* L(H, p_0) \neq L(H_*, p_0) */$ 3 E := a counterexample returned by the EQ; /* E is an atom. */ if $H \models E$ then /* E is negative, i.e., $H \models E$ and $H_* \not\models E^*$ / 4 5 $T := a \text{ proof-DAG for } H \models E; A := root(T);$ 6 while PMQ(B) = "no" for some child B of A do 7 A := B: 8 $\{B_1, \ldots, B_{t'}\} := \text{all children of } A \ (t' \ge 0);$ $C := \text{a clause in } H \text{ that subsumes } A \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_{t'}; /^* C \text{ is false in } H_* */$ 9 10 $H := H - \{C\};$ else /* E is positive, i.e., $H \not\models E$ and $H_* \models E */$ 11 $H := H \cup Cand(E, k, t, r);$ 12 13 **end** /* while */ 14 return H;

Figure 2: A polynomial-time learning algorithm for HEFS(*, k, t, r) with EQs and PMQs, based on the contradiction backtracing algorithm [34, 33] (Lines 5 to 10).

Lemma 7 Let S be a signature (Σ, Π) and A an atom over S. Then, it holds that $\#Atom_{S}(A) \leq q_{1}(p, n) = pn^{2r}$, where $p = \#\Pi$, n = |A| and $r = arity(\Pi)$.

Lemma 8 For every integer $k \geq 0$ and atom A, there are at most $|A|^{2k}k^k$ atoms B with variable-occurrence no more than k that subsumes A, i.e., $B \supseteq A$ and $o(B) \leq k$.

Let S be a signature. For integers $k, t, r \geq 0$ and an atom A over S, Cand(A, k, t, r) is the set of all hereditary clauses in HEFS(*, k, t, r) over S of the form $B \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_{t'}$ such that $B \supseteq A$, $o(B) \leq k$ and $B_i \in Atom_S(B)$, where $0 \leq i \leq t'$ and $0 \leq t' \leq t$. The following lemma immediately follows from Lemma 7 and Lemma 8.

Lemma 9 #Cand(E, k, t, r) is bounded by $q_2(p, n) = O(p^t n^{2k+2rt} k^k)$, where $p = \#\Pi$ and n = |E|. (k^k reflects that the same variable may occur more than once.)

Theorem 5 For a signature $S = (\Sigma, \Pi)$, the class HEFS(*, k, t, r) is polynomial-time exact learnable with $O(p^t m \, n^{2k+2rt} k^k)$ equivalence queries and $O(p^{t+1} m \, n^{2k+2r(t+1)} k^k)$ predicate membership queries, where $p = \#\Pi$, m is the cardinality of a target HEFS, and n is the size of the longest counterexample received so far.

Proof. Fig. 2 shows our learning algorithm LEARN_BY_CBA for HEFS(*, k, t, r), which is an extension of the algorithm given by Sakakibara [33]. We will only state the difference between Sakakibara's algorithm and ours in the proof.

Starting with $H = \emptyset$, the algorithm executes the while loop at line 2 until EQ(H) returns "yes." If a negative counterexample E is returned at line 3, then hypothesis H is too strong, i.e., $H \models E$. In this case, the algorithm tries to detect an incorrect clause $C \in H$ such that $H_* \not\models C$ by searching the proof-DAG T for E by H from lines 5 to line 10 with a contradiction backtracing algorithm (CBA) [34]. Initially, the root is false in the model $M(H_*)$. Starting from the root, the algorithm goes downward by following any false child of the current node. Eventually, the algorithm reaches a false node A none of whose children is false in $M(H_*)$. Then, we know that there exists some clause $C \in H$ that subsumes $A \in H$ is false in $A \in H$, ..., $A \in H$ is false in $A \in H$ and should be removed from H. By the similar discussion as [33] and by Lemma 6, we can show that the CBA still correctly works for any subclass of variable-bounded EFSs and runs in polynomial time in p and n making at most $A \in H$ where $A \in H$ is a polynomial time in p and n making at most $A \in H$ is a polynomial time in p and n making at most $A \in H$ is a polynomial time in p and n making at most $A \in H$ is a polynomial time in p and n

On the other hand, if a positive counterexample E is returned, then hypothesis H is too weak, i.e., $H \not\models E$. In this case, the algorithm tries to find all candidate clauses used to construct a proof-DAG for E by H_* . By Lemma 4, there exists some hereditary clause C such that $hd(C)\theta = hd(E)$ for some substitution θ . Therefore, by an execution of the step of line 12, we can add at least one clause in H_* . This step may add some false clauses to H, but they will be eventually removed by the CBA steps. By Lemma 9, the cardinality of the candidate set Cand(E,k,t) is bounded by $q_2(p,n)$, and the time complexity to construct Cand(E,k,t) is also at most $q_2(p,n)$. Finally, we can show that the execution from lines 5 to line 10 and at line 12 are iterated at most $O(m+m\,q_2(p,n))$ and m times, respectively. Hence, the number of EQs and PMQs and is bounded by $O(m+m\,q_2(p,n)) = O(mp^tn^{2k+2rt}k^k)$, and $O(m\,q_1(p,n)\,q_2(p,n)) = O(mp^{t+1}n^{2k+2r(t+1)}k^k)$ respectively.

3.2 The learnability of a subclass of terminating HEFSs

In this subsection, we present a polynomial-time learning algorithm LEARN_BY_GEN for THEFS(*, k, *, r) with EntEQs, EntMQs and DQs as Fig. 3.

In the following, we denote by H_* the target hypothesis and we assume that a fixed signature S is given to the learner before a learning session. The algorithm starts with the most specific hypothesis $H = \emptyset$ and searches hypothesis space THEFS(*, k, *, r) from specific to general with respect to the subsumption lattice based on \square . For each positive counterexample E returned by EntEQ, the algorithm constructs another positive example

Procedure: LEARN_BY_GEN /* A learning algorithm for THEFS(*, k, *, r) with EntEQs, EntMQs and DQs */ /* S: a fixed signature */ $1 \quad H := \emptyset;$ 2 while EntEQ(H) = "no" do begin /* $Ent(H) \neq Ent(H_*)$ */ 3 E :=the counterexample returned by the EntEQ; /* Compute the saturant by H; See Fig. 4 */ 4 D := Saturate(E, H, S);/* Compute the prime counterexample; See Fig. 4 */ $D := Rewind(D, \mathcal{S});$ 5 6 for each $C \in H$ do begin if $\operatorname{EntMQ}(F)$ ="yes" for some $F \in MCS(C, D, \mathcal{S}, k)$ then /* See Fig. 5 */ 7 8 $H := (H - \{C\}) \cup \{F\}$ and **goto** FOUND; **end** /* for */ 9 $H := H \cup \{D\};$ 10 11 FOUND: 12 end /* main loop */ 13 return H;

Figure 3: A polynomial-time learning algorithm for THEFS(*, k, *, r) with EntEQs, Ent-MQs and DQs, based on saturation, rewind and minimal common subsumer.

D that is subsumed by some clause in H_* . Then, the algorithm generalizes hypothesis H by carefully merging the obtained example D with some clause in H so that only positive counterexamples are provided.

3.2.1 The Saturation and the Rewind procedures

The first task of the algorithm is, given a positive example E, to constructs another positive example D that is subsumed by some clause in H_* . From the subsumption theorem (Lemma 4), we know that there are three cases for the clause E, (i) E is a tautology, (ii) E is directly subsumed by some clause in H_* , and (iii) there is a non-trivial proof-DAG for E by H_* . The first case (i) is impossible since E is a counterexample for H. If the second case (ii) holds then the task is already done. Therefore, we will deal with the third case (iii) by using the saturation and the rewind procedures, which invert the proof steps by which positive examples are derived from clauses in H_* .

For a clause C, the saturation is an operation to add to the body of C all atoms derivable from the body of C and H. More formally, for a clause C and an EFS H, $Closure_{\mathcal{S},H}(bd(C))$ is the set of all atoms $B \in Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(A)$ such that $H \models \forall (B \leftarrow bd(C))$. Then, the saturant of C by H, denoted by $Saturant(C, H, \mathcal{S})$, is the clause $A \leftarrow Closure_{\mathcal{S},H}(bd(C))$.

Lemma 10 For every fixed $k,r \geq 0$, the saturant of any clause C by any HEFS $H \in$

HEFS(*, k, *, r) is unique up to renaming, of polynomial size in |C|, and polynomial-time computable in |C| and |H|.

Lemma 11 If a clause C is a positive counterexample of H w.r.t. H_* , then the saturant of C by H is also a positive counterexample of H w.r.t. H_* .

Proof. By definition, C subsumes its saturant $D = Saturant(C, H, \mathcal{S})$. Therefore, $H_* \models C$ implies $H_* \models D$. Conversely, the saturant D is obtained from C by adding to the body of C only the atoms entailed by H. We have $H \models \forall (bd(C) \rightarrow bd(D))$, and it follows that $H \models D$ implies $H \models C$.

A positive example $C \in Ent(H_*)$ for H_* is called *prime w.r.t.* H_* if all proof-DAG for C by H_* are trivial, and *composite* otherwise. If a positive example C is prime then it is ensured that C is subsumed by some clause in H_* . The converse does not hold in general.

Lemma 12 If a positive counterexample C is prime then C is subsumed by some clause in H_* .

Proof. By assumption, C is neither a tautology nor a clause with some non-trivial proof-DAG by H_* . Thus, the result immediately follows from Lemma 4.

Lemma 13 Let H_* and H be EFSs in THEFS(*, k, *, r). Given any saturated positive counterexample C for H_* w.r.t. H, the algorithm Rewind in Fig. 4 finds a prime positive counterexample for H_* w.r.t. H in polynomial time by using $O(pn^{2r})$ EntMQ and $O(pn^{2r})$ DQ, where n = |hd(C)|, $p = \#\Pi$ and $r = \text{arity}(\Pi)$.

Proof. Let $C = (A \leftarrow Body)$ be any saturated positive counterexample for H_* w.r.t. H. Let $A_0 = A, A_1, \ldots, A_i, \ldots$ $(i \ge 0)$ be the sequence of the values of the atom A at line 2 of the algorithm Rewind in Fig. 4, where A_i is the value at the i-th execution of the for-loop (the i-th stage). For every $i \ge 0$, let C_i be the clause $(A_i \leftarrow bd(C))$. By assumption, $C_0 = C$ is a saturated positive counterexample for H_* w.r.t. H. Then, we show the following claim.

(Claim 1) If C_i is a saturated positive counterexample for H_* w.r.t. H, and furthermore C is not prime, then there exists some atom $B = A_{i+1} \in Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(A) - bd(C)$ such that $DQ(A_i, B) = \text{"yes"}$ and $EntMQ(B \leftarrow bd(C)) = \text{"yes"}$.

(Proof for the claim) If C_i is not prime then there is a non-trivial proof-DAG T for C_i by H_* . Such a non-trivial proof-DAG T contains some node B that does not appear in C_i . By definition, B is neither the root nor an atom in $bd(C_i)$. Since C_i is saturated by H, we have $B \in bd(C_i)$ iff $H \models \forall (B \leftarrow bd(C_i))$. Therefore, if $B \not\in bd(C_i)$ then we have

```
Procedure Saturate(D, H, S)
 1 Body := \emptyset; Head := hd(D);
 2 for each B \in Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(Head) do
 3
        Let \sigma be the Skolem substitution for (B \leftarrow bd(D)) w.r.t. H;
 4
        if (H \cup bd(D\sigma) \models B\sigma) then
            Body := Body \cup \{B\};
 5
   return (Head \leftarrow Body);
Procedure Rewind(C, S)
 1 A := hd(C); Body := bd(C); S := Atom_S(A) - Body;
   while (DQ(A, B) = "yes" \text{ and } EntMQ(B \leftarrow Body) = "yes" \text{ for some } B \in S) do
        A := B;
 3
4 return (A \leftarrow Body); /* prime w.r.t. H_* */
```

Figure 4: The procedure Saturate to compute a saturated positive counterexample and the procedure Rewind to compute a prime positive counterexample.

that $H \not\models \forall (B \leftarrow bd(C_i))$. On the other hand, for any node B in a proof-DAG T for C_i by H_* , $H_* \models \forall (B \leftarrow bd(C_i))$ holds. Thus, we have that $EntMQ(B \leftarrow bd(C)) = \text{``yes''}$. By construction, B is a descendant of the root A. Thus, we also have $DQ(A_i, B) = \text{``yes''}$. Furthermore, we know that $C_{i+1} = (B \leftarrow bd(C_i))$ is a positive counterexample for H_* w.r.t. H. (End of the proof for the claim)

By the above claim, we know that if the while-loop at line 2 terminates then the clause C_i must be prime w.r.t. H_* . Also, C_i is a positive counterexample. On the other hand, the sequence of generated atoms form the decreasing sequence $A_0 = A >_{H_*} A_1 >_{H_*} \cdots >_{H_*} A_i >_{H_*} \cdots >_{H_*} A_i >_{H_*} \cdots$ w.r.t. the dependency relation $>_{H_*}$ for H_* . If H_* is an HEFS, all A_i are members of $Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(A)$ and if H_* is terminating then all A_0, A_1, \cdots must be mutually distinct. Thus, it follows from Lemma 7 that the length of the decreasing sequence is bounded above by $|Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(A)| = O(pn^{2r})$, where n = |A|. Hence, the time and the query complexities immediately follow.

From Lemma 11, Lemma 12 and Lemma 13, we know that the procedures Saturate and Rewind finds a prime positive counterexample D from a given positive counterexample E at line 3 to line 5 of the algorithm LEARN_BY_GEN in Fig. 3.

3.2.2 Maximal common subsumers

Once a prime positive counterexample D is found, the remaining task in LEARN_BY_GEN is to generalize the current hypothesis H by merging D with H. This is possibly done by taking the least upper bound of D and some clause $C \in H$ w.r.t. the subsumption relation

```
Procedure MCS(D_1, D_2, \mathcal{S}, k)

1 S := \{ (A, \theta_1, \theta_2) \mid A \in Atom_{\mathcal{S}}, o(A) \leq k, A\theta_1 = hd(D_1) \text{ and } A\theta_1 = hd(D_2) \};

2 CS := \emptyset;

3 for each (A, \theta_1, \theta_2) \in S do

4 Body := \{ B \in Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(A) \mid \begin{array}{c} DQ(A, B) \text{ returns "yes,"} \\ B\theta_1 \in bd(D_1) \text{ and } B\theta_2 \in bd(D_2) \end{array} \};

5 CS := CS \cup \{ (A \leftarrow Body) \};

6 return CS;
```

Figure 5: The procedure to compute minimal common subsumer.

 \supseteq [10, 15, 19, 31]. Unfortunately, no unique upper bound w.r.t. \supseteq exists for patterns or hereditary clauses. Hence, we introduce the maximal common subsumers.

Definition 17 Let \mathcal{S} be a signature, \mathcal{C} a subclass of $Clause_{\mathcal{S}}$, and D_i a clause over \mathcal{S} (i = 1, 2). A common subsumer of D_1 and D_2 within \mathcal{C} is a clause $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $C \supseteq D_1$ and $C \supseteq D_2$. A common subsumer C of D_1 and D_2 within \mathcal{C} is maximal if there is no common subsumer D of D_1 and D_2 in \mathcal{C} such that $bd(C) \subset bd(D)$.

Let S be a signature (Σ, Π) . Then, we denote by $MCS(D_1, D_2, S, k)$ the set of all maximal common subsumers of D_1 and D_2 in hereditary clauses over S of which variable-occurrence is at most k.

Lemma 14 Let S be a signature (Σ, Π) , D_i a clause over S (i = 1, 2) and $k \ge 0$ an integer. Then, the set $MCS(D_1, D_2, S, k)$ is of cardinality $q_3(n) = n^{4k}k^k$, of polynomial size, and polynomial-time computable in $p = \#\Pi$ and $n = |D_1| + |D_2|$.

Proof. Consider the procedure as Fig. 5 that computes the set $MCS(D_1, D_2, \mathcal{S}, k)$ using DQ. It is not hard to see that this procedure works correctly. Furthermore, we can show that $\#S \leq n^{4k}k^k$ and $\#Body \leq pn^{2r}$ by Lemma 7 and Lemma 8.

3.2.3 The correctness and the time complexity

Now, we prove the correctness of the learning algorithm LEARN_BY_GEN in Fig. 3. In the following, let $H_0, H_1, \ldots, H_n, \ldots$ and $E_0, E_1, \ldots, E_n, \ldots$ $(n \geq 0)$ be the sequence of hypotheses and counterexamples, respectively, where H_0 is the initial hypothesis \emptyset , and at each stage $i \geq 1$, LEARN_BY_GEN makes the entailment equivalence query $\operatorname{EntEQ}(H_{i-1})$, receives a counterexample E_i to the query, and produces a new hypothesis H_i from E_i and H_{i-1} . A clause is missing if it is subsumed by some clause in H_* but not entailed by the present hypothesis H.

Lemma 15 Suppose that a positive example C subsumes another positive example D, i.e., $C \supseteq D$. If D is prime w.r.t. H_* , then so is C.

Proof. Since $C \supseteq D$, there exists a substitution θ such that $C\theta \subseteq D$. If C is composite w.r.t. H_* , then we can transform a proof-DAG T_C for $H_* \models C$ to a proof-DAG for $H_* \models D$, by applying θ to all atoms in T_C . Since D is composite, this is a contradiction.

Lemma 16 For every $n \geq 0$, $H_* \supseteq H_0$ and E_n is a positive counterexample. Furthermore, H_n is a conservative refinement of H_* .

Proof. We show by induction on $n \geq 0$ that $H_* \supseteq H_n$ and that H_n consists of just prime clauses w.r.t H_* . If n=0, then $H_0=\emptyset$ and the claim trivially holds. Next, suppose n>0. By induction hypothesis, $H_*\supseteq H_{n-1}$ and thus the next counterexample $E=E_n$ at line 4 is positive. Let D be the clause obtained after executing lines 4 to line 8. Combining Lemma 11, Lemma 10 and Lemma 13, we can show that D is still saturated and >-minimal w.r.t. H_* by H and $D\in Ent(H_*)-Ent(H_{n-1})$. By Lemma 13 D is prime. Thus, by Lemma 12, D is subsumed by some missing clause in H_* . Suppose first that there exists some $C\in H_{n-1}$ and some $F\in MCS(C,D,\mathcal{S},k)$ such that EntMQ(F) returns "yes." Then, $H_n=(H_{n-1}-\{C\})\cup\{F\}$. By induction hypothesis, C as well as D is prime. By Lemma 15, F is also prime, so it follows from Lemma 12 that F is subsumed by some clause in H_* . Since $H_*\supseteq H_{n-1}$, this implies that $H_*\supseteq H_n$. Next suppose that there is no such $C\in H_{n-1}$, and then $H_n=H_{n-1}\cup\{D\}$. Since D is prime, it follows from Lemma 12 that $H_*\supseteq H_n$. A new clause F is added to H_n at line 12 only if there exists no maximal common subsumer of D and C subsumed by H_* for all clauses $C\in H_n$. Hence, the refinement H_n of H_* is always conservative.

Corollary 6 $H_* \supset \cdots \supset H_n \supset \cdots \supset H_1 \supset H_0 \ (n \geq 0)$.

Lemma 17 For HEFS(*, k, *, r), there exists no increasing sequence $\cdots \supseteq C_1 \supseteq C_0$. Furthermore, its length is always bounded by $O(pn^{2r+1})$, where $p = \#\Pi$ and $n = |hd(C_0)|$.

Proof. By using the discussion in [9], we can show that the length of the sequence $\cdots \supseteq A_1 \supseteq A_0$ of atoms is bounded by $|A_0| = O(n)$ independent from k. For a given head A, the maximum size of the body is bounded by $\#Atom_{\mathcal{S}}(A) = O(pn^{2r})$. Hence, we have the upper bound of the length of the sequence as $O(pn^{2r+1})$.

Theorem 7 Let $S = (\Sigma, \Pi)$ be a signature. For every $k, r \geq 0$, the class THEFS(> *, *, k, *, r) is polynomial-time exact learnable with $O(pmn^{2r+1})$ EntEQ, $O(p^2m^2n^{4k+4r+1}k^k)$ EntMQ, and $O(p^2mn^{4k+4r+1}k^k)$ DQ, where m is the cardinality of a target THEFS, $p = \#\Pi$ and n is the size of the longest counterexample received so far.

Proof. Since the algorithm LEARN_BY_GEN terminates only if the EQ returns "yes," it is sufficient to show the termination in polynomial time. By Corollary 6, the sequence of hypotheses is of the form $H_* \supset \cdots \supset H_n \supset \cdots \supset H_1 \supset H_0$ $(n \ge 0)$ (1). By Lemma 16, each H_n is a conservative refinement of H_* , so $\#H_n \le \#H_* = m$.

Fix an enumeration $H_* = (C_1^*, \ldots, C_m^*)$. For every $n \geq 0$, we can order H_n as the m-tuple $(C_1^n, \ldots, C_m^n) \in Clause_{\mathcal{S}}^m$ such that, for each i, C_i^n is the unique member of H_n satisfying $C_i^* \supseteq C_i^n$ if it exists and $C_i^n = \bot$ otherwise, where \bot is a special symbol denoting that $C \supseteq \bot$ for every $C \in Clause_{\mathcal{S}}$.

It follows from Lemma 17 that, for every $1 \leq i \leq m$, the length of the longest subsequence such that $\cdots \supseteq C_i^2 \sqsupset C_i^1$ is bounded by $O(pn^{2r+1})$. Thus, both the lengths of the sequence (1) and the number of EntEQs are bounded by $q_4(p,m,n) = O(pmn^{2r+1})$. By Lemma 10, Lemma 13 and Lemma 14, the number of EntMQs is bounded by $q_5 = O(pmn^{4k+2r}k^k)$ and the running time in each iteration of the while-loop is bounded by a polynomial in p, m and n. Hence, the total number of EntMQs is $q_4(p,m,n)q_5(p,m,n) = O(p^2m^2n^{4k+4r+1}k^k)$ and the running time is polynomial in p, m and n.

Since any counterexample in the language semantics $(Atom_{\mathcal{S}}, L_{\mathcal{S}}(\cdot, p_0))$ is also a counterexample in the entailment semantics $(Clause_{\mathcal{S}}, Ent_{\mathcal{S}}(\cdot))$, we can replace each EntEQ in Theorem 7 with EQ.

Corollary 8 For every $k, r \geq 0$, the class THEFS(*, k, *, r) is polynomial-time exact learnable with EQ, EntMQ, and DQ.

Suppose that we have an efficiently decidable, well-founded transitive relation > over $Atom_{\mathcal{S}}$. In this case, we can eliminate DQ to learn a subclass THEFS(>, *, k, *, r) consisting of the programs uniformly bounded by >. The class of reducing programs [42] is an example of such uniformly terminating EFS.

Corollary 9 Let > be any well-founded transitive relation over $Atom_{\mathcal{S}}$ that is polynomial time decidable. For every $k, r \geq 0$, the class THEFS(>, *, k, *, r) is polynomial-time exact learnable with EQ and EntMQ.

3.2.4 A lowerbound result

By Theorem 5 and Theorem 7, note that the number $O(pmn^{2r+1})$ of EQ made by LEARN_BY_GEN is significantly smaller than $O(p^tm n^{2k+2rt}k^k)$ EQ by LEARN_BY_CBA for large $k, t \geq 1$. In this subsection, we analyze the query complexity of the class THEFS(>, m, k, *, r), and obtain the lower bound result, which indicates that the query complexity is almost optimal in terms of m and n for EQ.

Theorem 10 Let S be any signature with at least two letters. For every integers $k, r \geq 0$ such that $k \geq 3r$, any algorithm that exactly identifies all hypotheses in THEFS(m, k, *, r) with EntEQ and EntMQ must make $\Omega(mn^{r/2})$ queries in the worst case, where m is the cardinality of a target THEFS and n is the size of the longest counterexample received so far.

Proof. We say that a concept class C shatters a set $U \subseteq \Sigma^*$ if $\{U \cap c \mid c \in C\} = 2^U$ holds. The VC-dimension of C, denoted by VC(C), is te cardinality of the largest set $U \subseteq \Sigma^*$ that is shattered by C. From arguments in Maass and Turán [22], it is sufficient to show that $VC(\text{THEFS}(>, m, k, *, r)) = \Omega(mn^{r/2})$.

Let $p, q, r, len, bit \in \Pi$ be predicate symbols of arity r + 1, 2r, r, 2, 1, respectively. For an integer $n \geq 0$, [n] denotes the set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then, we encode an integer $i \in [n]$ by the bit vector $\psi(i) = 0^{i-1}10^{n-i} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and an r-vector $(i_1, \ldots, i_r) \in [n]^r$ by an atom $p(\psi(i_1), \ldots, \psi(i_r), 0^n) \in Base_{\mathcal{S}}$. Let $S_{r,n}$ be the set $\{p(\psi(i_1), \ldots, \psi(i_r), 0^n) \mid (i_1, \ldots, i_r) \in [n]^r\}$ of ground atoms of length (r + 1)n corresponding to all n^k r-vectors in $[n]^k$. Note that H_T is terminating and hereditary.

$$p(x_1, \ldots, x_r, 0^n) \leftarrow \bigwedge_{(i_1, \ldots, i_r) \in \overline{T}} \left[q(x_1, \ldots, x_r; 0^{i_1}, \ldots, 0^{i_r}) \right].$$

$$q(x_1 y_1 z_1, \ldots, x_r y_r z_r; v_1, \ldots, v_r) \leftarrow$$

$$\bigwedge_{1 \leq j \leq r} \left[len(x_j y_j, v_j) \wedge bit(y_j) \right] \wedge r(y_1, \ldots, y_r).$$

$$r(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 0, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_r) \leftarrow, \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq i \leq r.$$

$$len(\alpha x, 0y) \leftarrow len(x, y),$$

$$len(\alpha, 0) \leftarrow,$$

$$bit(\alpha) \leftarrow, \quad \text{for all } \alpha \in \{0, 1\}.$$

Let $w \in \{0,1\}^r$ be a bit vector of length r. Then, it holds that, for every $u \in \{0,1\}^*$ and $i \in [n]$, $H_T \models len(u,0^i)$ iff |u| = i. Also, for every $i \in [n]$ and every string w = xyz $(x,y,z \in \{0,1\}^*)$, if $H_T \models len(xy,0^i) \wedge bit(y)$, then y is the i-th bit of w. Furthermore, it holds that, for every $b_1 \cdots b_r \in \{0,1\}^r$, $H_T \models r(b_1,\ldots,b_r)$ iff $b_1 \cdots b_r \neq 1^r$, and $H_T \models q(\psi(i_1),\ldots,\psi(i_r),0^{j_1},\ldots,0^{j_r})$ iff $(i_1,\ldots,i_r) \neq (j_1,\ldots,j_r)$. Hence, it is not hard to see that, for every $(i_1,\ldots,i_r) \in [n]^r$, $H_T \models p(\psi(i_1),\ldots,\psi(i_r),0^n)$ iff $(i_1,\ldots,i_r) \notin \overline{T}$. Since each H_T belongs to HEFS(r+8,4r,*,2r), the class HEFS(r+8,4r,*,2r) shatters the set $S_{r,n}$ of the cardinality n^r .

Similarly, we can show that the class HEFS(m+r+7,4r,*,2r) shatters the direct sum $S_{m,r,n}=S^1_{r,n}\cup\cdots\cup S^m_{r,n}$ of cardinality mn^r obtained by making the m copies of the predicate P. Hence, it immediately follows that $VC(\text{HEFS}(m,k,*,r))=\Omega((m-r-7)\hat{n}^{r/2}/2r^r)=\Omega(m\hat{n}^{r/2})$ in m and n when $k\geq 4r$, where the maximum length of the examples is $\hat{n}=(r+1)n$.

4 Hardness Results for Learning HEFSs

In this section, we present several representation-independent hardness results of predicting the subclasses of HEFSs, which claim the necessity of both the types of queries and the bounds on the parameters are necessary for their efficient learning mentioned in the previous section.

We fix f, g and h to an instance mapping, a concept mapping, and a membership query mapping. Also he parameters n and s denote the bounds of examples and representations, respectively. For simplicity, we assume that the length of examples of Boolean concepts is always fixed to the upper bound n. Furthermore, a signature is always fixed and a semantics is the language semantics.

4.1 Regular pattern languages revisited

We denote by \mathcal{RP} , $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ and $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ regular pattern languages, at most m unions of regular pattern languages, and unbounded unions of regular pattern languages, respectively (cf. [12, 24, 25, 35, 36, 38]). Since each regular pattern language $L(\pi)$ is definable by the HEFS $\{p(\pi) \leftarrow\}$, we can easily observe that \mathcal{RP} , $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ and $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ are corresponding to HEFS(1, *, 0, 1), HEFS(m, *, 0, 1) and HEFS(*, *, 0, 1), respectively. It is known that \mathcal{RP} and $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ are not polynomial-time PAC-learnable unless $\mathbf{NP=RP}$ [24, 25], where they are representation-dependent hardness results.

Theorem 11 \mathcal{RP} is not polynomial-time predictable, if \mathcal{DNF} is not polynomial-time predictable.

Proof. It is sufficient to show that $\mathcal{DNF}_n \subseteq \mathcal{RP}$ for all $n \geq 0$. Let $d = t_1 \vee \cdots \vee t_m$ be a DNF formula over the set $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ of Boolean variables. For each vector $e = e_1 \cdots e_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$, let $\tilde{e} = 1e_11e_21 \cdots 1e_n1$ and let $\alpha = (01)^{3(2n+1)}$. Then, construct f and g as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} f(n,s,e) &=& e' &=& (\mathtt{A}\tilde{e}\mathtt{A}\alpha)^{m-1} \cdot \mathtt{A}\tilde{e}\mathtt{A}, \\ g(n,s,d) &=& P &=& \mathtt{A}P_1\mathtt{A}P_2\mathtt{A} \cdots \mathtt{A}P_m\mathtt{A}, \text{ where } \mathtt{A} \text{ is a new symbol.} \end{array}$$

Here, $P_j = *p_1^j * p_2^j * \cdots * p_n^j *$, where all * are mutually distinct variables in X and $p_i^j = 1$ if t_j contains x_i , $p_i^j = 0$ if t_j contains $\overline{x_i}$, and x_i^j otherwise.

We show that, if e satisfies d, then $e' \in L(P)$. The following statements hold: (a) e satisfies d iff there exists an index j $(1 \le j \le m)$ such that $\tilde{e} \in L(P_j)$, because $|\tilde{e}| = |P_j| = 2n + 1$. (b) For each P_j $(1 \le j \le m)$, α is of the form $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3$ such that $|\alpha_1|, |\alpha_2|, |\alpha_3| > 0$ and $\alpha_2 \in L(P_j)$. (c) For each P_j $(1 \le j \le m)$, it holds that both $\tilde{e} A \alpha, \alpha A \tilde{e} \in L(P_j)$

because of (b). From the (a) and (c), it holds that $e' \in AL(P_1)A \cdots AL(P_i)A \cdots AL(P_m)A$. Hence, $e' \in L(P)$.

Conversely, suppose that e does not satisfy d. From the (a), it holds that (d) $\tilde{e} \notin L(P_j)$ for every j ($1 \leq j \leq m$). Furthermore, (e) $\tilde{e} \notin L(P')$ for any substring P' of P containing an A, because e contains no A. From the conditions (d) and (e), if $e' \in L(P)$, then at least one of the two A's for each occurrence $A\tilde{e}A$ in e' must be substituted to a variable of a P_j in P. Since the number of A's in e' is 2m, the remained A's in e' to match with all A in P are at most m. However, P contains only m+1 A's, so it is impossible that $e' \in L(P)$. Hence, $e' \notin L(P)$ and we can conclude that $\mathcal{DNF}_n \subseteq \mathcal{RP}$.

Theorem 12 $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries, if \mathcal{DNF} is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries.

Proof. It is sufficient to show that $\mathcal{DNF}_n \leq_{\text{pwm}} \cup \mathcal{RP}$ for all $n \geq 0$. For a DNF formula $d = t_1 \vee \cdots \vee t_m$, let π_i $(1 \leq i \leq m)$ and π be regular patterns $p_1^j \cdots p_n^j$ and $x_1 \cdots x_n x_{n+1}$, respectively. Here, p_i^j $(1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m)$ is defined as similar as the proof of Theorem 11. Then, construct f, g and h as follows:

$$f(n, s, e) = e, g(n, s, d) = \{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m, \pi\}, h(n, s, e') = \begin{cases} e' & \text{if } |e'| = n, \\ \bot & \text{if } |e'| < n, \\ \top & \text{if } |e'| > n. \end{cases}$$

For each $e' \in \{0,1\}^*$, we can check the properties of h in Definition 16 as follows. Since $L(\pi) = \{w \in \{0,1\}^* \mid |w| \geq n+1\}$, if $h(n,s,e') = \top$, then $e' \in L(g(n,s,d)) (= L(\pi_1) \cup \cdots \cup L(\pi_m) \cup L(\pi))$. On the other hand, since $|\pi_j| = n$ $(1 \leq j \leq m)$ and $|\pi| = n+1$, L(g(n,s,d)) contains no strings of length < n. So, if $h(n,s,e') = \bot$, then $e' \notin L(g(n,s,d))$. If h(n,s,e') = e', then $e' \notin L(\pi)$ because |e'| = n. Thus, $e' \in L(\pi_1) \cup \cdots \cup L(\pi_m)$ and there exists an index i $(1 \leq i \leq m)$ such that $e' \in L(\pi_i)$ iff e' is obtained by replacing the variables in π_i with 0 or 1, which is corresponding to a truth assignment satisfying t_i . Hence, $e' \in L(g(n,s,d))$ iff e' satisfies d.

Furthermore, for each $e \in \{0,1\}^n$, e satisfies d iff $f(n,s,e) \in L(g(n,s,d))$. Hence, it holds that $\mathcal{DNF}_n \leq_{\text{pwm}} \cup \mathcal{RP}$.

Since each regular pattern language is regular [35], we can construct a DFA M_{π} such that $L(M_{\pi}) = L(\pi)$ for each regular pattern π as follows: Suppose that π is a regular pattern of the form

$$\pi = x_0 \alpha_1 x_1 \alpha_2 \cdots x_{n-1} \alpha_n x_n,$$

where $x_i \in X$ and $\alpha_i = a_1^i a_2^i \cdots a_{m_i}^i \in \Sigma^+$. Then, the corresponding DFA M_{π} of π is a DFA $(\Sigma, Q, \delta, q_0, F)$ such that:

1.
$$Q = \{q_0, p_1^1, \dots, p_{m_1}^1, q_1, p_1^2, \dots, p_{m_2}^2, q_2, \dots, q_{n-1}, p_1^n, \dots, p_{m_n}^n, q_n\}$$
 and $F = \{q_n\},$

2.
$$\delta(q_i, a) = p_1^{i+1}$$
 and $\delta(q_n, a) = q_n$ for each $a \in \Sigma$ and $0 \le i \le n-1$,

3.
$$\delta(p^i_j,a^i_j)=p^i_{j+1}$$
 and $\delta(p^i_{m_i},a^i_{m_i})=q_i$ for each $1\leq i\leq n$ and $1\leq j\leq m_i-1,$

4. $\delta(p_j^i, a) = p_1^i$ for each $a \in \Sigma$ such that $a \neq a_j^i$.

It is obvious that $|M_{\pi}|$ is bounded by a polynomial in $|\pi|$.

By using the corresponding DFAs, we can easily shown that $\mathcal{RP} \leq_{\text{pwm}} \mathcal{DFA}$ by constructing the following f, g and h for each regular pattern π :

$$f(n, s, e) = e,$$

 $g(n, s, \pi) = M_{\pi},$
 $h(n, s, e') = e'.$

Then, \mathcal{RP} is polynomial-time predictable with membership queries, which is implied by the result of Matsumoto and Shinohara [23] that \mathcal{RP} is polynomial-time learnable with equivalence and membership queries.

Theorem 13 For each $m \geq 0$, $\bigcup_m \mathcal{RP}$ is polynomial-time predictable with membership queries.

Proof. Since \mathcal{DFA} is polynomial-time predictable with membership queries [2], it is sufficient to show that $\bigcup_m \mathcal{RP} \preceq_{\text{pwm}} \mathcal{DFA}$. Let π_1, \ldots, π_m be m regular patterns. Also let $M_{\pi_i} = (Q_i, \Sigma, \delta_i, q_0^i, F_i)$ be the corresponding DFA of π_i . First, construct a DFA $M_{\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_m} = (Q_1 \times \cdots \times Q_m, \Sigma, \delta, (q_0^1, \ldots, q_0^m), F_1 \times \cdots \times F_m)$ such that $\delta((q_1, \ldots, q_m), a) = (p_1, \ldots, p_m)$ iff $\delta_i(q_i, a) = p_i$ for each $a \in \Sigma$ and $i \ (1 \le i \le m)$. Then, construct f, g and h as follows:

$$f(n, s, e) = e,$$

 $g(n, s, \{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m\}) = M_{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m},$
 $h(n, s, e') = e'.$

The size of $g(n, s, \{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m\})$ is $O(s^m)$ and m is a constant. It is obvious that $L(\pi_1) \cup \dots \cup L(\pi_m) = L(M_{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_m})$, which implies the result.

4.2 Other hardness results

By Theorem 12 in Section 4.1, we can conclude that HEFS(*,*,t,r) $(t \ge 0, r \ge 1)$ is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries, if neither are DNF formulas. In this subsection, we discuss the subclasses of $\text{HEFS}^-(*,k,t,r)$, which are restricted that all facts contain no variable as in HEFS, or in even simple EFSs (r = 1).

From the learnability of k-bounded ESEFSs by Sakakibara [33] and HEFS(*, k, t, r) by Theorem 5, it arises a natural question whether we can replace the predicate membership queries with the ordinal membership queries. The next theorem claims that it is impossible preserving efficient learnability.

Theorem 14 For every $k, t, r \geq 1$, HEFS⁻(*, k, t, r) is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries under the cryptographic assumptions.

Proof. It is sufficient to show that $\cup \mathcal{DFA} \leq_{\text{pwm}} \text{HEFS}^-(*, 1, 1, 1)$ by Theorem 3 and 4. Let M_1, \ldots, M_r be DFAs over the same alphabet Σ . Suppose that $c \notin \Sigma$. For each $M_i = (Q_i, \Sigma, \delta_i, q_0^i, F_i)$ $(1 \leq i \leq r)$, construct $H_1(n, s, M_i) \in \text{HEFS}^-(*, 1, 1, 1)$ as follows:

- 1. $q(ax) \leftarrow r(x) \in H_1(n, s, M_i)$ if $\delta_i(q, a) = r$ for each $q, r \in Q_i$ and $a \in \Sigma$;
- 2. $q(c) \leftarrow \in H_1(n, s, M_i)$ for each final state $q \in F_i$.
- 3. $p(x) \leftarrow q_0^i(x) \in H_1(n, s, M_i)$ for each initial state $q_0^i \in Q_i$, where $p \notin Q_1 \cup \cdots \cup Q_r$.

Then, construct f, g and h as follows:

$$f(n, s, w) = wc,$$

$$g(n, s, \{M_1, \dots, M_r\}) = H_1(n, s, M_1) \cup \dots \cup H_1(n, s, M_r),$$

$$h(n, s, w') = \begin{cases} w & \text{if } w' = wc, \\ \bot & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The size of $g(n, s, \{M_1, \ldots, M_r\})$ is bounded by a polynomial in the size of all M_i 's $(1 \leq i \leq r)$. Furthermore, it holds that (1) $w \in L(M_1) \cup \cdots \cup L(M_r)$ iff $f(n, s, w) \in L(g(n, s, d), p)$ for each $w \in \Sigma^{[n]}$, (2) if $h(n, s, w') = \bot$, then $w' \notin L(g(n, s, d), p)$, and (3) if h(n, s, w') = w, then it holds that $w' \in L(g(n, s, d), p)$ iff $w \in L(M_1) \cup \cdots \cup L(M_r)$. Hence, it holds that $\cup \mathcal{DFA} \leq_{\text{pwm}} \text{HEFS}^-(*, 1, 1, 1)$.

Recall that every k-bounded ESEFSs are contained in HEFS⁻(*, k, k, 1). The following theorem claims that, if neither the variable-occurrence nor the number of atoms in the body are bounded, then HEFSs are not polynomial-time predictable even with predicate membership queries.

Theorem 15 For every $r \geq 1$, HEFS⁻(*, *, *, r) is not polynomial-time predictable with predicate membership queries, if \mathcal{DNF} is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries.

Proof. First, we show that $\mathcal{DNF}_n \leq_{\text{pwm}} \text{HEFS}^-(*, *, *, 1)$ for all $n \geq 0$. Let $d = t_1 \vee \cdots \vee t_m$ be a DNF formula. Then, construct the following EFS $H_2(n, s, d)$:

$$H_2(n, s, d) = \begin{cases} q(0) \leftarrow \\ q(1) \leftarrow \\ p(p_1^1 \cdots p_n^1) \leftarrow q(p_1^1), \dots, q(p_n^1) \\ \cdots \\ p(p_1^m \dots p_n^m) \leftarrow q(p_m^1), \dots, q(p_n^m) \end{cases},$$

where p_i^j $(1 \le i \le n, 1 \le j \le m)$ is defined as similar as the proof of Theorem 11. Furthermore, $H'_2(n, s, d)$ be an HEFS obtained by deleting all atoms q(0) and q(1) from the body of each clause in $H_2(n, s, d)$. Then, construct f, g and h as follows:

$$f(n, s, e) = e,$$

 $g(n, s, d) = H'_2(n, s, d),$
 $h(n, s, e') = e'.$

Since $L(g(n,s,d),p) \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$, it is easy to see that (1) e satisfies d iff $f(n,s,e) \in L(g(n,s,d),p)$ for each $e \in \{0,1\}^n$, and (2) $e' \in L(g(n,s,d),p)$ iff h(n,s,e') satisfies d for each $e' \in \{0,1\}^n$. Hence, it holds that $\mathcal{DNF}_n \leq_{\text{pwm}} \text{HEFS}^-(*,*,*,1)$.

Finally, we consider whether the same result holds even if the membership queries are replaced with the predicate membership queries. Although we can extend pwm-reducibility to prediction-preserving reducibility with predicate membership queries according to Definition 16, we only discuss the case HEFS⁻(*,*,*,1). Concerned with the above pwm-reduction $\mathcal{DNF}_n \leq_{\text{pwm}} \text{HEFS}^-(*,*,*,1)$, the difference between MQs and PMQs is just to ask whether $H'_2(n,s,d) \models q(w) \leftarrow \text{for } w \in \{0,1\}^*$. Note that the predicate symbol q in $H'_2(n,s,d)$ denotes the value substituted to a Boolean variable x_i in d, so can generate just 0 and 1. Then, we can extend a membership query mapping h to a predicate membership query mapping h' as h'(n,s,p(w)) = h(w); $h'(n,s,q(w)) = \top$ if |w| = 1; $h'(n,s,q(w)) = \bot$ if |w| > 1. Hence, the statement holds.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we investigated the efficient learnability of a hierarchy HEFS(m, k, t, r) of the HEFSs with the equivalence and other queries, where m is the maximum number of clauses, k is the maximum variable-occurrences in the head, t is the maximum number of atoms in the body, and t is the maximum arity of predicate symbols.

We showed three positive results for the learnability of HEFS(m, k, t, r). First, the class HEFS(*, k, t, r) is polynomial-time learnable with equivalence and predicate membership queries. This is an extension of Sakakibara's result [33] for the class ESEFSs. Second, the more general class is effectively learnable if more powerful queries are allowed and the termination relation over the predicate symbols is assumed, that is the class THEFS(>,*,k,*,r) of terminating HEFSs with additional information on the termination is learnable in polynomial time with equivalence and entailment membership queries. Third, we showed that the number of queries used in the presented learning algorithm for THEFS(>,*,k,*,r) is nearly optimal.

The negative results for the learnability of subclasses of EFSs were proved by the prediction-preserving reduction (with membership query). The class HEFS(*,k,t,r) was shown to be learnable using the above queries but the predicate membership query can not be replaced by the membership query under the cryptographic assumptions.

Moreover, the class \mathcal{RP} is not polynomial-time predictable if the class of DNF formulas is not polynomial-time predictable, and the class $\cup \mathcal{RP}$ is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries, if the class of DNF formulas is not polynomial-time predictable with membership queries. The class $\cup_m \mathcal{RP}$ of bounded union of regular pattern languages is polynomial-time predictable with membership queries. It is a strong evidence for the efficient learnability of the class.

Fig. 1 summarizes the results obtained in this paper. It is a future problem to study the learnability of the class THEFS(>, *, k, *, r) with equivalence and predicate or entailment membership queries but without dependency queries. Khardon [19] has recently shown that function-free k-variable Horn sentences of arity r are polynomial-time learnable in various active learning models without using termination information. Thus, it would be interesting to apply his method to the classes of HEFSs.

Acknowledgment

First of all, the authors would like to thank Prof. Thomas Zeugmann, Prof. Carl Smith and Prof. Takeshi Shinohara for giving an opportunity for writing this paper, and to thank Akihiro Yamamoto, Ayumi Shinohara, Roni Khardon and Eric Martin for fruitful discussions on learning of logic programs. The second author also would like to thank Noriko Sugimoto, Shinichi Shimozono and Takashi Toyoshima for the fruitful discussions on this issue in the joint work [40], which partially gives a motivation of this paper. Finally, the authors would like to thank the anonymous referees for valuable comments which greately improve the preliminary version of this paper.

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