

Online Learnability of s -CNF

An **s -clause** is a clause with at most s literals. An **s -CNF** is a conjunction of s -clauses.

The class s -CNF is efficiently learnable online from $X = \{0, 1\}^n$.

The proof is analogical to that of s -DNF learnability (the $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{n'}$ are then all s -clauses).

(Learning an s -CNF from conjunctive observations is the subject of [Project 1](#).)

s-term DNF and s-clause CNF

An **s-term DNF** is a disjunction of at most s conjunctions. An **s-clause CNF** is a conjunction of at most s clauses. The two names are also used to refer to the respective classes of formulas.

From the **De Morgan's laws**, it follows that each s-term DNF can be written as a tautologically equivalent s-CNF, by “multiplying out”.

Example with 2-term DNF:

$$(p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge p_3) \vee (p_4 \wedge p_5) = \\ (p_1 \vee p_4) \wedge (p_1 \vee p_5) \wedge (p_2 \vee p_4) \wedge (p_2 \vee p_5) \wedge (p_3 \vee p_4) \wedge (p_3 \vee p_5)$$

Therefore

$$\mathcal{C}(\text{s-term DNF}) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(\text{s-CNF}) \quad (1)$$

Analogously, $\mathcal{C}(\text{s-clause CNF}) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(\text{s-DNF})$.

Learnability of s -term DNF and s -clause CNF

Since s -DNF is efficiently learnable online from $X = \{0, 1\}^n$, so is s -clause CNF.

This is because due to (1), for each target s -clause CNF, the agent can learn an equivalent s -DNF.

For an analogical reason, s -clause CNF is also efficiently learnable online from $X = \{0, 1\}^n$, with the agent using s -DNF.

Consider a conjunction $h = h_{k+1}$ learned from contingent conjunctions $x_{\leq k}$, i.e.,

$$h = \text{lgg}(\{ x_{k_i} \}) \quad (2)$$

where $\{ x_{k_i} \}$ are exactly the positive examples from $x_{\leq k}$. (2) can be equivalently written as

$$\neg h = \text{lgg}(\{ \neg x_{k_i} \})$$

where $\neg h$ and all of $\neg x_{k_i}$ are *clauses* and the policy **(??)** is

$$h(x) = 1 \text{ iff } \neg h \models \neg x \quad (3)$$

because $\neg h \models \neg x$ is equivalent to $x \models h$.

Disjunctive Observations and Hypothesis (cont'd)

For clausal hypotheses h and clausal observations x we define the decision policy

$$h(x) = 1 \text{ iff } h \models x \quad (4)$$

which is consistent with (3) where $\neg h$ and $\neg x$ are clauses.

Analogously to Theorem (??) we have the following evident principle

Theorem 1

Let h, h' be clauses. If $h \subseteq h'$ then $h \models h'$. Let furthermore h not be tautologically false. Then $h \subseteq h'$ if and only if $h \models h'$.

Thus if h is not tautologically false, (4) is equivalent to (??).

Disjunctive Observations and Hypothesis (cont'd)

The policy $(??)$ is the same for disjunctions and conjunctions, despite the difference btw. (4) and $(??)$.

The mistake bound of the generalization algorithm asserted by Theorem $(??)$ remains true even when X is assumed to consist of clauses.
(exercise problem.)

So clauses can be learned from clauses online by the generalization algorithm with no modification of it.

Example: Clausal Observations and Hypothesis

Clauses can be written as implications, e.g. $\neg p \vee q \models p \rightarrow q$, and interpreted as *rules*. Consider two positive clausal examples

$$x_1 = \text{man} \wedge \text{adult} \wedge \text{young} \rightarrow \text{married} \vee \text{bachelor}$$

$$x_2 = \text{man} \wedge \text{adult} \rightarrow \text{married} \vee \text{bachelor} \vee \text{nerd}$$

$$h = \text{lgg}(x_1, x_2) = \text{Lits}(x_1) \cap \text{Lits}(x_2) =$$

$$\text{man} \wedge \text{adult} \rightarrow \text{married} \vee \text{bachelor}$$

The correct rule is thus learned from observed rules which are true but insufficiently general.

First-Order Logic Observations

We will study the case when observations X are *first-order logic* (**FOL**, for short) conjunctions or clauses, i.e., conjunctions or disjunctions of FOL literals made using

- a finite set \mathcal{P} of *predicates*
- a finite set \mathcal{F} of *functions* (including constants)

Symbols x, y, z (typed in italics, possibly with indexes) will denote FOL *variables*.

Note: confusion of a FOL variable x or y with an observation x resp. action y is excluded: FOL variables occur only as terms in predicates.

If a FOL conjunction or clause is shown *without quantifiers* then all its variables are implicitly quantified

- *existentially*, for a *conjunction*
- *universally*, for a *clause*

So the negation of a FOL conjunction is a FOL clause and vice versa.

We now extend subsumption to FOL.

Let h, h' be two FOL conjunctions or two FOL clauses. We say that h **subsumes** h' (written $h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$) if there is a substitution θ such that $\text{Lits}(h\theta) \subseteq \text{Lits}(h')$. We say that h **strictly subsumes** h' (written $h \subset_{\theta} h'$) if $h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$ and $h' \not\subseteq_{\theta} h$.

Propositional formulas are special cases of FOL formulas with propositional variables corresponding to zero-arity predicates. So subsumption as defined above is identical to this definition for propositional conjunctions or clauses.

Example: Subsumption

“There exist two vertices not connected by an edge”:

$$h = \text{vertex}(x) \wedge \text{vertex}(y) \wedge \neg \text{edge}(x, y)$$

“There exists a vertex not connected by an edge to vertex a”:

$$h' = \text{vertex}(x) \wedge \text{vertex}(a) \wedge \neg \text{edge}(x, a)$$

$h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$ because for $\theta = \{ y \mapsto a \}$, $\text{Lits}(h) \subseteq \text{Lits}(h')$.

$h' \not\subseteq_{\theta} h$ because the literal $\text{vertex}(a)$ is not in h .

Subsumption vs. Consequence in FOL

We call a FOL conjunction or FOL clause **self-resolving** if it contains a positive literal and a negative literal both with the same predicate.

The relationship between \subseteq_{θ} and \models for conjunctions (Theorem (??)) and clauses (Theorem (1)) is extended to FOL as follows:

Theorem 2

Let h, h' be FOL conjunctions. If $h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$ then $h' \models h$. Let furthermore h' not be self-resolving. Then $h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$ if and only if $h' \models h$.

Let h, h' be FOL clauses. If $h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$ then $h \models h'$. Let furthermore h not be self-resolving. Then $h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$ if and only if $h \models h'$.

Simple corollary: the theorem holds when \subseteq_{θ} is replaced by \approx_{θ} and \models is replaced by \models .

Example: Subsumption vs. Consequence for Conjunctions

- Both $h' \models h$ and $h \subseteq_{\theta} h'$:

$$h = \text{vertex}(x) \wedge \text{vertex}(y) \wedge \neg \text{edge}(x, y)$$

$$h' = \text{vertex}(x) \wedge \text{vertex}(a) \wedge \neg \text{edge}(x, a)$$

- $h' \models h$ but $h \not\subseteq_{\theta} h'$ because h is self-resolving (exercise problem):

$$h = p(x, y) \wedge p(y, z) \wedge \neg p(x, z)$$

$$h' = p(a, b) \wedge p(b, c) \wedge p(c, d) \wedge \neg p(a, d)$$

- Similarly for clauses (just negating the h, h' above): $h \models h'$ but $h \not\subseteq_{\theta} h'$ because h is self-resolving:

$$h = p(x, y) \wedge p(y, z) \rightarrow p(x, z)$$

$$h' = p(a, b) \wedge p(b, c) \wedge p(c, d) \rightarrow p(a, d)$$

Least General Generalization in FOL

The definition of propositional least general generalization is extended to FOL simply by replacing the respective symbols \subseteq, \subset by $\subseteq_{\theta}, \subset_{\theta}$.

For a pair of FOL conjunctions (FOL clauses, respectively) h, h' , we say that g is a **least general generalization** of h and h' if $g \subseteq_{\theta} h$, $g \subseteq_{\theta} h'$, and there is no FOL conjunction (FOL clause) g' such that $g' \subseteq_{\theta} h$, $g' \subseteq_{\theta} h'$ and $g \subset_{\theta} g'$.

Example: $p(x)$ is a least general generalization of clauses $p(a)$ and $p(b) \vee p(c)$. Other least general generalizations of the same literals include e.g. $p(y)$ or $p(x) \vee p(y)$.

Let g, g' be two different least general generalizations of h and h' . Then $g \approx_{\theta} g'$. (Exercise problem)

Unlike in propositional logic, where the least general generalization is just set intersection, in FOL the computation is more involved.

We will develop the lgg operator which yields a least general generalization for FOL conjunctions or FOL clauses and reduces to set intersection in the propositional case.

For FOL terms t_1, t_2 :

$$\text{lgg}(t_1, t_2) = \begin{cases} s(\text{lgg}(u_1, v_1), \text{lgg}(u_2, v_2), \dots, \text{lgg}(u_n, v_n)) \\ \quad \text{if } t_1 = s(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \text{ and } t_2 = s(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n), \\ \quad \text{where } n \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N} \text{ and } s \text{ is a function symbol.} \\ v \text{ if } t_1, t_2 \text{ have already been matched to variable } v \\ \text{new variable otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that the definition above applies also to FOL constants since a constant is a function of arity 0.

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{lgg}(\text{john}, \text{mary}) &= x_1 \\ \text{lgg}(\text{father_of}(\text{john}), \text{father_of}(\text{mary})) &= \text{father_of}(x_1) \end{aligned}$$

lgg of FOL Literals

For FOL literals $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2$:

$$\text{lgg}(\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2) = \begin{cases} p \left(\underline{\text{lgg}(u_1, v_1)}, \underline{\text{lgg}(u_2, v_2)}, \dots, \underline{\text{lgg}(u_a, v_a)} \right) & \text{if } \mathcal{L}_1 = p(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \text{ and } \mathcal{L}_2 = p(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n), \\ \text{where } n \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N} \text{ and } p \text{ is a signed (negated or not) predicate symbol.} \\ \text{undefined otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Examples:

$$\text{lgg}(\neg p, \neg p) = \neg p$$

$$\text{lgg}(p, q) \text{ undefined}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{lgg} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{met}(\text{father_of}(\text{john}), \text{mother_of}(\text{john})), \\ \text{met}(\text{father_of}(\text{mary}), \text{mother_of}(\text{mary})) \end{array} \right) \\ = \text{met}(\text{father_of}(x), \text{mother_of}(x)) \end{aligned}$$

Igg of FOL Literals in Pseudo-Code

The Igg of two literals is computed by the Anti-unification algorithm, which rewrites both of the input literals a, b into $\text{Igg}(a, b)$.

Require: Literals a, b with same sign, symbol and arity, and not sharing a variable (if they share a variable, replace all occurrences of it in a with a new variable)

- 1: $i = 0; \theta := \emptyset; \sigma := \emptyset$ \triangleright a counter and two substitutions
- 2: v_1, v_2, \dots : variables not appearing in a or b
- 3: **while** $a \neq b$ **do**
- 4: Let p be the leftmost position where a and b differ and s and t be the terms at this position in a and b , respectively.
- 5: **if** for some j ($1 \leq j \leq i$), $v_j\theta = s$ and $v_j\sigma = t$ **then** \triangleright variable already assigned
- 6: put v_j to position p in both a and b \triangleright replace the terms with that variable
- 7: **else**
- 8: $i := i + 1$
- 9: put v_i to position p in both a and b \triangleright replace the terms with a new variable
- 10: $\theta := \theta \cup \{v_i \mapsto s\}, \sigma := \sigma \cup \{v_i \mapsto t\}$ \triangleright store assignment of v_i
- 11: **end if**
- 12: **end while**
- 13: **return** a

lgg of FOL Conjunctions or Clauses

For FOL conjunctions (clauses, respectively) h, h' , define $\text{lgg}(h, h')$ as the conjunction (disjunction) of

$$\text{lgg}(\mathcal{L}_i, \mathcal{L}_j) \tag{5}$$

for all $\mathcal{L}_i \in h, \mathcal{L}_j \in h'$ such that (5) is defined.

Theorem 3

Let h, h' be two FOL clauses or two FOL conjunctions. Then $\text{lgg}(h, h')$ is a least general generalization of h and h' .

(proof - deals with clauses but the case for conjunctions is analogical.)