Learnability of Solutions to Conjunctive Queries: The Full Dichotomy

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Abstract

The problem of learning the solution space of an unknown formula has been studied in multiple embodiments in computational learning theory. In this article, we study a family of such learning problems; this family contains, for each relational structure, the problem of learning the solution space of an unknown conjunctive query evaluated on the structure. A progression of results aimed to classify the learnability of each of the problems in this family, and thus far a culmination thereof was a positive learnability result generalizing all previous ones. This article completes the classification program towards which this progression of results strived, by presenting a negative learnability result that complements the mentioned positive learnability result. In order to obtain our negative result, we make use of universal-algebraic concepts, and our result is phrased in terms of the varietal property of non-congruence modularity.

Keywords: conjunctive query, prediction with membership queries, universal algebra

1. Introduction

The problem of learning the solution space of an unknown formula has long been of interest in computational learning theory. While the general problem of learning the solution space of even a propositional formula is known to be hard (Kearns and Valiant, 1994; Angluin and Kharitonov, 1995), researchers have considered many restricted versions of formula learning over the years, and have obtained a variety of learnability and non-learnability results (see for example (Angluin, 1987; Angluin et al., 1992; Bshouty et al., 2005; Jackson and Servedio, 2006; Bulatov et al., 2007; Idziak et al., 2010; Bshouty, 2013)).

Conjunctive queries are formulas which are considered heavily in database theory and in the theory of constraint satisfaction. They can be defined logically as formulas built from predicate applications, equality of variables, conjunction, and existential quantification. The problem of deciding, given a conjunctive query and a relational structure (which defines the predicates of the query), whether or not the solution space of the query is non-empty, is a formulation of the constraint satisfaction problem, a very general NP-complete problem. One obtains a rich framework of problems, by considering, for each relational structure B, the constraint satisfaction problem where the relational structure is fixed as B; the computational aspects of this problem framework are of interest and have been explored in numerous contexts (see for example Creignou et al. (2001); Raghavendra (2008); Allender et al. (2009); Chen (2012); Bhattacharyya and Yoshida (2013); Bulatov (2013)). Schaefer's celebrated dichotomy theorem (Schaefer, 1978) provides that, for each

relational structure **B** with a two-element universe, the constraint satisfaction problem on **B** is either polynomial-time decidable or is NP-complete. An active line of research aims to obtain a complexity classification of the constraint satisfaction problem over all relational structures with finite universe; current frontier results include sufficient conditions for tractability (Idziak et al., 2010; Barto and Kozik, 2014) as well as a unifying explanation for known intractability proofs (Bulatov et al., 2005).

As a means of systematically exploring the boundary between learnability and non-learnability, an analogous framework has been considered in learning theory: for each relational structure \mathbf{B} , we may define a problem $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ wherein the aim is to learn the solution space of an unknown conjunctive query evaluated on \mathbf{B} (refer to Section 2 for formal definitions). As two particular examples, consider the following.

- When **B** is a relational structure with universe $\{0,1\}$ that consists of the three relations $\{0\}$, $\{1\}$, and $\{(a,b,c) \in \{0,1\}^3 \mid a \land b \to c\}$, it is known that the solution spaces of conjunctive queries on **B** are exactly the solution spaces of conjunctions of propositional *Horn clauses*; these solution spaces can be equivalently characterized as those closed under the pointwise application of the Boolean AND (\land) operation (Creignou et al., 2001, Lemma 4.8).
- For a finite field $\mathbb{F}=(F;+,\cdot,-,0,1)$, let $\mathbf{V}_{\mathbb{F}}$ be the relational structure with universe F and whose relations are the singleton unary relations $\{f\}$, for $f\in F$; the graph of the function x+y; and, the graph of $\lambda_f(x)=f\cdot x$, for each $f\in F$. Then the solution spaces of conjunctive queries on $\mathbf{V}_{\mathbb{F}}$ are exactly the affine subspaces of the vector spaces $(\langle F,+,-,0,\lambda_f\rangle_{f\in F})^n$, for $n\geq 1$.

A primary research goal of this line of inquiry is to completely understand, over all finite structures \mathbf{B} , which problems of the form $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ are learnable and which are not.

Let us survey the main known results about the framework of learning problems $\mathcal{C}_{\text{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$. Dalmau (1999) presented an analog of Schaefer's theorem, namely, a dichotomy theorem indicating, for each relational structure ${f B}$ with a two-element universe, which of the problems ${\cal C}_{\rm CQ}({f B})$ are learnable. Precisely, this dichotomy theorem implies that each such problem is either polynomially learnable with equivalence queries, or is not polynomially predictable with membership queries. The negative result, and all others under discussion, are proved under established cryptographic assumptions which are invoked in the present article (see Section 2.2), and the positive and negative results in the discussion that follows are proved in these two models, respectively. Dalmau and Jeavons (2003) established a link between this framework and universal algebra; gave a general strategy for presenting positive results; and provided dichotomy theorems for two restricted classes of structures. Bulatov, Chen, and Dalmau (Bulatov et al., 2007) gave a positive learnability result which applies to each relational structure having a so-called *generalized majority-minority poly*morphism. Later, Idziak, Markovic, McKenzie, Valeriote and Willard (Idziak et al., 2010) gave a positive learnability result generalizing all previous positive results; their result applies to any structure B for which all solution spaces have *small* (polynomial-size) generating sets, in a precise sense (see their discussion for more information). They point out that all previous positive results were based on small generating sets, and hence that their result is a natural culmination of the progression of positive results.

^{1.} Let us mention that, in the existing literature, some positive results are stated for queries where universal quantification is also permitted. As the main contribution of the present article is to present a negative result, we focus the discussion on conjunctive queries.

In this article, we complete the classification program towards which all of these previous works strive, by presenting a negative learnability result that complements the positive learnability result of Idziak et al. and hence that encompasses all previous negative learnability results in the framework at hand. Namely, we prove that for any structure $\mathbf B$ to which the Idziak et al. positive learnability result does not apply, it holds that $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf B)$ is not polynomially predictable with membership queries.

In order to establish our negative result, we make significant use of universal-algebraic notions and results, which we now turn to elaborate on. Each structure ${\bf B}$ can be passed to an algebra, its so-called algebra of polymorphisms, and it is known that the complexity of learning ${\cal C}_{\rm CQ}({\bf B})$ is an invariant of this passage (that is, two structures that are passed to the same algebra have the same complexity of learning; see Proposition 5). We consider the variety generated by the algebra of a structure, which we show is justified (Proposition 4). If this variety is *congruence modular*, then we invoke a theorem, due to Libor Barto (Barto, 2014), which shows that the algebra of ${\bf B}$ has a property called *few subpowers*, and thus that the Idziak et al. positive result can be applied. (Barto's theorem resolved in the positive a conjecture known as the *Edinburgh conjecture* and also as the *Valeriote conjecture* (Bova et al., 2013).)

The focus in this article, then, is on proving that if the mentioned variety is *not* congruence modular, then the problem $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ is hard to learn. In order to prove this, we make use of concepts developed in a previous work which also studied non-congruence modularity (Bova et al., 2013). In particular, we make use of a structural result established there (Lemma 12) which essentially shows that, to prove hardness, one can work with a relational structure which can be localized to behave as a set of *pentagons*, which are a certain type of relational structure. Exploiting this structural result in the context of learning, however, is far from obvious, and involves developing significantly more detailed reductions than those used in the previous work (Bova et al., 2013), which dealt with comparing the solution spaces of two given conjunctive queries. The reason the reductions need to be more detailed here is that, when reducing one problem to another, one needs to translate from one concept to a second in a way that closely preserves structure of the solution space; this contrasts sharply with the earlier work (Bova et al., 2013), where reductions needed only preserve a single bit, namely, the answer to a decision problem. Indeed, as an intermediate step, we show the hardness of a natural term-learning problem on lattices, which may be of independent interest (Section 5).

Let us emphasize that our main technical contribution, that non-congruence modularity of a structure's variety implies hardness of learning, does not at all require Barto's theorem and can be read and understood independently thereof.

2. Preliminaries

When P is a condition (such as a containment $x \in c$), we use [P] to denote the value equal to 1 if P is true, and 0 if P is false. When $f: A \to B$ and $g: B \to C$ are functions, we sometimes use g(f) to denote their composition.

2.1. Concept learning

Our terminology and notation is based on those employed by Pitt and Warmuth (1990) and by Angluin and Kharitonov (1995).

We assume that objects are encoded over the binary alphabet $\{0,1\}$, and use X to denote $\{0,1\}^*$. When x is a string, we use |x| to denote its length, and for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we use $X^{[n]}$ to denote $\{x \in X : |x| \le n\}$. A prediction problem \mathcal{C} is a subset of $X \times X$; when $(u,x) \in \mathcal{C}$, we

refer to u as a concept name or concept representation (of C). Relative to a prediction problem C, the concept represented by u is defined as $\kappa_C(u) = \{x \mid (u, x) \in C\}$.

A pwm-algorithm (short for prediction with membership queries algorithm) is an algorithm A with the following properties. The algorithm A takes as input a bound $s \in \mathbb{N}$ on the size of the target concept representation, a bound $n \in \mathbb{N}$ on the length of examples, and an accuracy bound ϵ , a positive rational number. It may make three types of oracle calls, the responses to which are determined by an unknown target concept c and an unknown distribution D on $X^{[n]}$: (1) A membership query takes a string $x \in X$ as input and returns $[x \in c]$; (2) A request for a random classified example takes no input and returns a pair (x, b), where x is a string chosen independently according to D, and $b = [x \in c]$; (3) A request for an element to predict takes no input and returns a string x chosen independently according to x. The algorithm x may make any number of oracle calls of types 1 and 2; however, in any run, it must make exactly one oracle call of type 3 and then eventually halt with an output of 1 or 0 without making any further oracle calls.

A pwm-algorithm is said to run in polynomial time if its running time is bounded by a polynomial in s, n, and $1/\epsilon$. A pwm-algorithm A is said to successfully predict a prediction problem $\mathcal C$ if for each input (s,n,ϵ) , each concept name $u\in X^{[s]}$ of $\mathcal C$, and for each probability distribution D on $X^{[n]}$, when A is run on (s,n,ϵ) and the oracle calls of type 1 and 2 are answered according to $c=\kappa_{\mathcal C}(u)$ and D, the probability that the output of A is not equal to $[x\in c]$ is bounded above by ϵ . A prediction problem is polynomially predictable with membership queries if there exists a pwm-algorithm that runs in polynomial time and successfully predicts $\mathcal C$.

2.2. Problems

We introduce the problems that will be of concern.

A relational signature is a finite set of relation symbols; each relation symbol has an arity $k \geq 0$ associated with it. Note that we assume that all relational signatures under discussion are finite. A relational structure $\mathbf B$ over a relational signature σ consists of a finite set B called its universe and, for each relation symbol $R \in \sigma$, a relation $R^{\mathbf B} \subseteq B^k$, where k is the arity of R. We generally use the letters $\mathbf A, \mathbf B, \ldots$ to denote relational structures, and the corresponding letters A, B, \ldots to denote their respective universes. Note that we assume that all relational structures under discussion are finite in that each has a finite universe; nonetheless, we sometimes state this explicitly for emphasis. A conjunctive query on a relational signature σ is a first-order formula built from predicate applications $R(v_1,\ldots,v_k)$ (where $R \in \sigma$ and v_1,\ldots,v_k are variables, with k equal to the arity of R), equality of variables v=v', conjunction, and existential quantification. When $\mathbf B$ is a relational structure and $Q \subseteq B^k$ is a relation, we say that Q is cq-definable over $\mathbf B$ if there exists a conjunctive query $\phi(v_1,\ldots,v_k)$ such that (b_1,\ldots,b_k) satisfies ϕ on $\mathbf B$ if and only if $(b_1,\ldots,b_k) \in Q$.

The prediction problems that we study are as follows. There is a problem for each relational structure ${\bf B}$. Each conjunctive query $\phi(V)$ over the signature of ${\bf B}$ is a concept representation, and its concept is the set that contains an assignment $f:V\to B$ if it holds that ${\bf B},f\models\phi$, that is, if it satisfies $\phi(V)$ over ${\bf B}$. Formally, for each relational structure ${\bf B}$, we define $\mathcal{C}_{\rm CQ}({\bf B})$ to be the prediction problem

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\{(\phi(V), f) \mid \phi \text{ is a conjunctive query and } f: V \to B \text{ is a mapping such that } \mathbf{B}, f \models \phi\}.
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Our hardness results for prediction problems are based on the hardness of predicting propositional formulas. By a propositional formula, we understand a formula built from propositional

variables and the basis consisting of AND (\land), OR (\lor), and NOT (\neg), where the fan-in of AND and OR is assumed to be two. We define \mathcal{C}_{PF} as the prediction problem containing those pairs (θ , f) where θ is a propositional formula, and f is a propositional assignment to the variables of θ that satisfies θ . (Note that the existence of a pwm-algorithm for \mathcal{C}_{PF} is readily verified to be insensitive to our assumption of fan-in two for AND and OR gates.) The following cryptographic evidence is known for the hardness of learning \mathcal{C}_{PF} . Let us refer to the following three hypotheses (Kearns and Valiant, 1994) as the *Kearns-Valiant hypotheses*: testing quadratic residues is intractable; inverting RSA encryption is intractable; factoring Blum integers is intractable.

Theorem 1 (Angluin and Kharitonov, 1995, Corollary 3) Under the assumption that one of the Kearns-Valiant hypotheses holds, the prediction problem C_{PF} is not polynomially predictable with membership queries.

3. Reducibility and hardness

In this section, we describe the notion of reduction that will be used throughout the paper (Section 3.1); we demonstrate how certain standard algebraic constructions are relevant in our learning context, and also present notions of algebra to be used (Section 3.2); and, we provide a certain learning problem on propositional formulas that will be wieldy (Section 3.3).

3.1. Oracular pwm-reducibility

We define an extension of the notion of *pwm-reduction* due to Angluin and Kharitonov (1995); we refer to our notion of reduction as *oracular pwm-reduction*.

An *oracular pwm-reduction* from a prediction problem \mathcal{C} to a second prediction problem \mathcal{C}' is a triple (f, g, H) where f and g are mappings and H is an algorithm with the following properties:

- 1. There exists a polynomial q such that for each $s, n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for each $u \in X^{[s]}$, it holds that g(s, n, u) is a string with $|g(s, n, u)| \leq g(s, n, |u|)$.
- 2. For each $s, n \in \mathbb{N}$, for each $u \in X^{[s]}$, and for each $x \in X^{[n]}$, it holds that x' = f(s, n, x) is a string such that $x \in \kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(u)$ if and only if $x' \in \kappa_{\mathcal{C}'}(g(s, n, u))$. Also, there exists a polynomial t such that f is computable in time t(s, n, |x|).
- 3. For each $s,n\in\mathbb{N}$, for each $u\in X^{[s]}$, and for each $x'\in X^{[n]}$, the algorithm H, on input (s,n,x'), may submit strings $x\in X$ as queries to an oracle, which responds $[x\in\kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(u)]$; the algorithm's output must be $[x'\in\kappa_{\mathcal{C}'}(g(s,n,u))]$. The algorithm H is required to run in polynomial time (in s,n, and |x'|).

Let us remark that the existence of a pwm-reduction between two prediction problems immediately implies the existence of an oracular pwm-reduction: pwm-reducibility can be viewed as the special case of oracular pwm-reducibility where the algorithm H can make at most one oracle query and, in the case that this query is made, the result must be the output of H.

Proposition 2 Let C and C' be prediction problems. If there exists an oracular pwm-reduction from C to C' and it holds that C' is polynomially predictable with membership queries, then C is also polynomially predictable with membership queries.

The proof of Proposition 2 is extremely similar to that of (Angluin and Kharitonov, 1995, Lemma 2).

The following property, which is straightforward to verify, will be used tacitly.²

Proposition 3 Oracular pwm-reducibility is transitive.

3.2. Algebras and varieties

We make use of basic notions from universal algebra, and suggest (Burris and Sankappanavar, 1981; McKenzie et al., 1987) as references. For our purposes in this article, an algebra is a pair (A; F) consisting of a set A, the universe of the algebra, and a set F of finitary operations on A. An algebra is finite if its universe is finite; we deal here mainly with finite algebras. The variety generated by an algebra \mathbb{A} , denoted by $\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{A})$, is the smallest class of algebras containing \mathbb{A} that is closed under taking homomorphic images, subalgebras, and products. An operation $f: B^m \to B$ is a polymorphism of a relation $Q \subseteq B^k$ if for any m tuples $(b_1^1, \ldots, b_k^1), \ldots, (b_1^m, \ldots, b_k^m)$ in Q, the tuple $(f(b_1^1, \ldots, b_1^m), \ldots, f(b_k^1, \ldots, b_k^m))$ is in Q. A relational structure \mathbf{B} is compatible with an algebra having the same universe B if for each operation $f: B^m \to B$ of the algebra, it holds that f is a polymorphism of \mathbf{B} , by which is meant, f is a polymorphism of each relation of \mathbf{B} . We similarly speak of a single relation or a set of relations being compatible with an algebra. For a relational structure \mathbf{B} , we define $\mathbb{A}(\mathbf{B})$ to be the algebra with universe B and whose operations are the polymorphisms of \mathbf{B} .

We will make use of the following facts, the second of which was established in previous work.

Proposition 4 Suppose that \mathbb{B} is a finite algebra, and that \mathbf{A} is a finite structure which is compatible with an algebra in $\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{B})$. Then, there exists a relational structure \mathbf{B} which is compatible with \mathbb{B} such that there exists an oracular pwm-reduction from $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{A})$ to $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$.

Proposition 5 (follows from (Dalmau and Jeavons, 2003, Proof of Lemma 9)) Suppose that \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{B}' are relational structures with the same universe and such that \mathbf{B} is compatible with $\mathbb{A}(\mathbf{B}')$. Then there exists an oracular pwm-reduction from $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ to $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B}')$.

A lattice is an algebra $(L; \wedge, \vee)$ where each of the operations \wedge and \vee is binary, idempotent, commutative, and associative; and, the absorption law $a \wedge (a \vee b) = a \vee (a \wedge b) = a$ holds. A lattice naturally induces a partial order \leq defined by $a \leq b$ if and only if $a \wedge b = a$. A lattice is distributive if it satisfies the identity $x \wedge (y \vee z) = (x \wedge y) \vee (x \wedge z)$. We say that a lattice is non-trivial if its universe has size strictly greater than 1. By a lattice term, we refer to a term built from variables and the two operation symbols \wedge and \vee .

A congruence of an algebra $\mathbb{A}=(A;F)$ is an equivalence relation on A that is compatible with \mathbb{A} . The congruences of an algebra naturally form a lattice. An algebra \mathbb{A} is congruence modular if its lattice of congruences satisfies the modular law: $x \leq y \to x \lor (y \land z) = y \land (x \lor z)$. A class of algebras is congruence modular if each algebra therein is congruence modular.

^{2.} We remark that, strictly speaking, transitivity of oracular pwm-reducibility is not needed to derive the main result of the paper. Our main result shows that for certain relational structures \mathbf{B} , the prediction problem $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ is not polynomially predictable with membership queries unless $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{PF}}$ is as well. To establish this, it suffices to give a sequence of pwm-reductions from $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{PF}}$ to $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ (which is what we do) and then invoke Proposition 2.

3.3. Propositional formulas

By log, we indicate the logarithm base 2. When θ is a formula or a term, we define $\operatorname{depth}(\theta)$ to be the maximum length of a path from the root of θ (viewed as a tree) to a leaf; we define $\operatorname{leafsize}(\theta)$ to be the number of leaves of θ (again, viewed as a tree). Define $\mathcal{C}_{\operatorname{log-MPF}}$ to be the subset of $\mathcal{C}_{\operatorname{PF}}$ that contains a pair $(\theta, h) \in \mathcal{C}_{\operatorname{PF}}$ when θ is *monotone* (that is, when it does not contain any instances of negation (\neg)) and when $\operatorname{depth}(\theta) \leq 6 + 6 \log(\operatorname{leafsize}(\theta))$.

The following proposition is readily derivable using Spira's lemma and known techniques for representing a propositional formula as a monotone propositional formula.

Proposition 6 There exists an oracular pwm-reduction from C_{PF} to $C_{log-MPF}$.

4. Dichotomy theorem statement

We are now in a position to present the dichotomy theorem statement and to explain how it will follow from the results in the following two sections.

Theorem 7 *Let* B *be a finite relational structure.*

- If the variety V(A(B)) is congruence modular, then the prediction problem $C_{CQ}(B)$ is polynomially exactly learnable with improper equivalence queries, using a concept representation that is polynomially evaluable.
- Otherwise, the prediction problem $C_{CQ}(\mathbf{B})$ is not polynomially predictable with membership queries unless C_{PF} is as well, and hence (by Theorem 1) not unless each of the Kearns-Valiant hypotheses fails.

Let us remark that the following is known: each problem that is polynomially exactly learnable with improper equivalence queries under a polynomially evaluable concept representation is polynomially predictable with membership queries (see for example (Angluin, 1987, Section 2.4)). **Proof** If the variety $\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{A}(\mathbf{B}))$ is congruence modular, then by Barto's theorem (Barto, 2014), it holds that this variety has *few subpowers* and that there is a k-edge polymorphism of \mathbf{B} ; thus, the Idziak et al. result (Idziak et al., 2010, Corollary 5.6) applies. If this variety is not congruence modular, then Proposition 6, Theorem 9, Theorem 11, and Theorem 13 yield a sequence of oracular pwm-reductions from the prediction problem $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{PF}}$ to $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{A})$, where \mathbf{A} is a structure compatible with an algebra in the variety; an oracular pwm-reduction from $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{A})$ to $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ exists by appeal to Propositions 4 and 5. Hence, $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ}}(\mathbf{B})$ is not polynomially predictable with membership queries unless $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{PF}}$ is as well, by Proposition 2.

Let us now present a theorem that addresses the effectivity of the stated dichotomy, that is, the complexity of deciding, given a relational structure **B**, which of the two cases of the dichotomy theorem applies.

Theorem 8 There is an EXPTIME algorithm that decides, given a finite relational structure \mathbf{B} , whether the variety $\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{A}(\mathbf{B}))$ is congruence modular or not.

Proof Essentially, this result follows immediately from the characterization of congruence modular varieties given by Day or Gumm (consult Section 8 of Freese and Valeriote (2009)). Using Gumm's characterization, to determine if $\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{A}(\mathbf{B}))$ is congruence modular one need only search amongst the ternary functions on B for a finite sequence of polymorphisms of \mathbf{B} that satisfy a specified set of equations. This search can be carried out by an algorithm whose running time is bounded by an exponential function in the size of \mathbf{B} . A full discussion of the relevant details can be found in Section 8 of Freese and Valeriote (2009).

Recently, Kazda (2014) has shown that the decision problem addressed in Theorem 8 actually lies in the class NP. His algorithm is based on a "local" characterization of congruence modularity and a clever encoding of the problem into an instance of the constraint satisfaction problem over the structure.

5. Learning lattice terms

In this section, we prove the hardness of a class of prediction problems that deal with lattices, which will serve as a useful intermediate result on the way to our main hardness result; roughly speaking, the problems studied here involve learning the function induced by an unknown term. When $r \geq 1$ and \mathcal{L} is a finite set of finite lattices, define $\mathcal{C}^r_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L})$ to be the prediction problem containing a pair $(t, (\mathbf{L}, h, c))$ when the following conditions hold: t is a lattice term with $\mathrm{depth}(t) \leq r + r \log(\mathrm{leafsize}(t))$; $\mathbf{L} = (L; \wedge, \vee)$ is a lattice in \mathcal{L} ; h is an assignment mapping each variable of t to an element of t; t is an element of t; and, t is, under the assignment t, the term t evaluates to a value greater than or equal to t in t.

Theorem 9 Suppose that \mathcal{L} is a finite set of finite lattices containing a non-trivial lattice. Then, there exists r > 1 such that there exists an oracular pwm-reduction from the prediction problem $C_{\text{IOg-MPF}}$ to the prediction problem $C_{\text{TERM}}^r(\mathcal{L})$.

It is helpful to first establish this theorem in the case of distributive lattices; the proof uses the fact that each finite distributive lattice can be embedded into a finite power of the two-element lattice.

Lemma 10 Theorem 9 holds in the case that \mathcal{L} contains only distributive lattices.

Proof (Theorem 9) By Lemma 10, it suffices to prove the theorem for each such set \mathcal{L} that contains a non-distributive lattice. We prove this by induction on the maximum cardinality of a non-distributive lattice in \mathbf{L} . Define s(x,y,z) to be the term $(x \wedge y) \vee (x \wedge z)$, and define s'(x,y,z) to be the term $x \wedge (y \vee z)$. In the scope of this proof, when d and d' are elements of a lattice \mathbf{L} with $d \leq d'$, we use [d,d'] to denote the set $\{c \mid d \leq c \leq d'\}$, and we use $\mathbf{L}[d,d']$ to denote the sublattice of \mathbf{L} with universe [d,d']. Note that for any elements a,b,c of a lattice \mathbf{L} , it always holds that $s(a,b,c) \leq s'(a,b,c)$ (see (Burris and Sankappanavar, 1981, Chapter 1, Section 3)).

Define \mathcal{L}^- as the set $\{\mathbf{L}[s(a,b,c),s'(a,b,c)] \mid a,b,c \in \mathbf{L} \text{ and } \mathbf{L} \in \mathcal{L}\}$. We will prove that, for any value r > 1, it holds that $\mathcal{C}^r_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L}^-)$ has an oracular pwm-reduction to $\mathcal{C}^{r+4}_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L})$. Let us argue that this suffices. Consider a lattice $\mathbf{L} \in \mathcal{L}$. If the lattice \mathbf{L} is distributive, then for any elements $a,b,c \in \mathbf{L}$, it holds that s(a,b,c) = s'(a,b,c) and thus that $\mathbf{L}[s(a,b,c),s'(a,b,c)]$ is a one-element lattice. If the lattice \mathbf{L} is non-distributive, then for any elements $a,b,c \in \mathbf{L}$, if

s'(a,b,c) is the top element of \mathbf{L} , then a must be equal to the top element of \mathbf{L} , which in turn implies that s(a,b,c)=s'(a,b,c). Hence (when \mathbf{L} is non-distributive) each lattice of the form $\mathbf{L}[s(a,b,c),s'(a,b,c)]$ has cardinality strictly smaller than that of \mathbf{L} . Now consider two cases. If \mathcal{L}^- contains a non-distributive lattice, then by the argumentation just given and by induction, there exists a value r such that $\mathcal{C}^r_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L}^-)$ admits an oracular pwm-reduction from $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{log-MPF}}$, and hence an oracular pwm-reduction from $\mathcal{C}^r_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L}^-)$ to $\mathcal{C}^{r+4}_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L})$ yields the theorem. If \mathcal{L}^- contains only distributive lattices, we claim that \mathcal{L}^- contains a non-trivial lattice, which completes the argument by appeal to Lemma 10. This claim holds because there exists (by assumption) a non-distributive lattice $\mathbf{L} \in \mathcal{L}$; by definition, there exist elements $a,b,c \in \mathbf{L}$ such that $s(a,b,c) \neq s'(a,b,c)$. Hence, the lattice $\mathbf{L}[s(a,b,c),s'(a,b,c)]$ is non-trivial.

It remains to give an oracular pwm-reduction (f, g, H) from $\mathcal{C}^r_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L}^-)$ to $\mathcal{C}^{r+4}_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathcal{L})$. First, define $g(r, n, t^-(x_1, \ldots, x_n))$ to be the term $t(z_1, z_2, z_3, x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ defined as $t^-(x_1^*, \ldots, x_n^*)$, where each x_i^* is defined as the term $(x_i \vee s(z_1, z_2, z_3)) \wedge s'(z_1, z_2, z_3)$. Observe that depth $(t) \leq s'(z_1, z_2, z_3)$ $\operatorname{depth}(t^-) + 4$. Define $f(r, n, (\mathbf{L}^-, h^-, c^-))$ to be (\mathbf{L}, h, c^-) where **L** is a lattice in **L** such that there exist $a, b, c \in \mathbf{L}$ with $\mathbf{L}^- = \mathbf{L}[s(a, b, c), s'(a, b, c)]$, and where h is the extension of $h^$ defined on $\{z_1, z_2, z_3, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ where $h(z_1) = a$, $h(z_2) = b$, and $h(z_3) = c$. This f satisfies the needed property, as $\mathbf{L}^-, h^- \models t^- \geq c^-$ holds if and only if $\mathbf{L}, h^- \models t^- \geq c^$ holds; this latter condition is equivalent to $L, h \models t \geq c^-$, as $h(x_i^*)$ is equal to $h^-(x_i)$ for each i. Define the algorithm H on $(r, n, (\mathbf{L}, h, d))$ to perform the following. Let \mathbf{L}^- be the lattice $\mathbf{L}[s(h(z_1), h(z_2), h(z_3)), s'(h(z_1), h(z_2), h(z_3))]$. Define h^- on $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ by $h^-(x_i) = 1$ $(h(x_i) \lor s(h(z_1), h(z_2), h(z_3))) \land s'(h(z_1), h(z_2), h(z_3))$. Set D^- to be the set $\{d^- \in \mathbf{L}^- \mid d^- \ge d\}$. The algorithm H makes, for each $d^- \in D^-$, the oracle query (\mathbf{L}^-, h^-, d^-) , and returns 1 if and only if at least one of the oracle responses was 1. Let us discuss why this algorithm satisfies the desired property. It is readily verified that, when t and t^- are terms with $g(s, n, t^-(x_1, \dots, x_n)) =$ $t(z_1, z_2, z_3, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and (\mathbf{L}, h, d) is a triple, that it holds that $\mathbf{L}, h \models t \geq d$ if and only if $\mathbf{L}, h \models t^-(x_1^*, \dots, x_n^*) \geq d$ if and only if $\mathbf{L}, h^- \models t^-(x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq d$. Since all values in the image of h^- are in \mathbf{L}^- , the last condition $\mathbf{L}, h^- \models t^-(x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq d$ holds if and only if there exists $d^- \in D^-$ such that $\mathbf{L}^-, h^- \models t^-(x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq d^-$.

6. Learning solutions to conjunctive queries

Let A be a set. When θ and θ' are binary relations on A, we use $\theta \circ \theta'$ to denote their relational product. We use $\operatorname{Eq}(A)$ to denote the lattice of equivalence relations on A, and we use $0_A = \{(a,a) \mid a \in A\}$ and $1_A = A^2$ to denote the bottom and top elements of $\operatorname{Eq}(A)$, respectively. We define a *pentagon* to be a finite relational structure $\mathbf P$ over the signature $\{\alpha,\beta,\gamma\}$ containing three binary relation symbols such that $\alpha^{\mathbf P}$, $\beta^{\mathbf P}$, and $\gamma^{\mathbf P}$ are equivalence relations on P, and the following conditions hold in $\operatorname{Eq}(P)$: $\alpha^{\mathbf P} \leq \beta^{\mathbf P}$, $\beta^{\mathbf P} \wedge \gamma^{\mathbf P} = 0_P$, $\beta^{\mathbf P} \circ \gamma^{\mathbf P} = 1_P$, and $\alpha^{\mathbf P} \vee \gamma^{\mathbf P} = 1_P$. The universe P of a pentagon $\mathbf P$ can be naturally decomposed as a direct product $P = B \times C$ in such a way that $\beta^{\mathbf P}$ and $\gamma^{\mathbf P}$ are the kernels of the projections of P onto B and C, respectively. Then, via the equivalence relation $\alpha^{\mathbf P}$, each element $b \in B$ induces an equivalence relation $\alpha^{\mathbf P}_b = \{(c,c') \in C \times C \mid ((b,c),(b,c')) \in \alpha^{\mathbf P}\}$ on C. For each pentagon $\mathbf P$, we define $\mathbf L(\mathbf P)$ to be the lattice which is the sublattice of $\operatorname{Eq}(C)$ generated by the equivalence relations $\alpha^{\mathbf P}_b$ (over $b \in B$); we extend this operator $\mathbf L(\cdot)$ to sets of pentagons in the natural fashion.

To each pentagon \mathbf{P} , we associate a 2-sorted relational structure, denoted by \mathbf{P}_2 , which has $B_{\mathbf{P}}$ and $C_{\mathbf{P}}$ as first and second universe, respectively; here, $B_{\mathbf{P}}$ and $C_{\mathbf{P}}$ denote the sets in the decomposition of the universe P as described above. The structure \mathbf{P}_2 is defined on signature $\{R\}$ and has $R^{\mathbf{P}_2} = \{(b,c,c') \in B_{\mathbf{P}} \times C_{\mathbf{P}} \times C_{\mathbf{P}} \mid (c,c') \in \alpha_b^{\mathbf{P}}\}$. The definition of \mathbf{P}_2 comes from Bova et al. (2013). In forming conjunctive queries over this signature $\{R\}$ each variable has a sort (first or second) associated with each variable; an atom R(x,y,y') may be formed if x is of the first sort and y and y' are of the second sort. When \mathcal{P} is a set of pentagons, we define the prediction problem $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CO-2-PENT}}(\mathcal{P})$ to be the set

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\{(\phi(V_1, V_2), (\mathbf{P}, (h_1, h_2))) \mid \mathbf{P} \in \mathcal{P} \text{ and } h_1 : V_1 \to B_{\mathbf{P}}, h_2 : V_2 \to C_{\mathbf{P}} \text{ such that } \mathbf{P}_2, h_1, h_2 \models \phi \}.
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Here, $\phi(V_1, V_2)$ denotes a conjunctive query over the signature $\{R\}$ with V_1 a set of variables of the first sort and V_2 a set of the second sort.

Theorem 11 Let \mathcal{P} be a finite set of pentagons. There exists an oracular pwm-reduction from the prediction problem $\mathcal{C}^r_{\mathrm{TERM}}(\mathbf{L}(\mathcal{P}))$ for any r > 1 to the prediction problem $\mathcal{C}_{\mathrm{CQ-2-PENT}}(\mathcal{P})$.

The proof makes use of a version of a construction presented in the proof of (Bova et al., 2013, Theorem 10), which construction produces a 2-sorted conjunctive query $\phi_t(x_1, \ldots, x_m, y, y')$ over the signature $\{R\}$ from a lattice term $t(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$, where in ϕ_t the variables x_i are of sort 1 and the variables y and y' are of sort 2. The construction has the property that if $\mathbf{P} \in \mathcal{P}$, then for all $b_1, \ldots, b_m \in B_{\mathbf{P}}$ and for all $c, c' \in C_{\mathbf{P}}$, $\phi_t(b_1, \ldots, b_m, c, c')$ holds in \mathbf{P}_2 if and only if the pair (c, c') is in the equivalence relation given by $t^{\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{P})}(\alpha_{b_1}^{\mathbf{P}}, \ldots, \alpha_{b_m}^{\mathbf{P}})$.

Lemma 12 Bova et al. (2013) Let \mathbf{B} be a finite relational structure such that $\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{A}(\mathbf{B}))$ is not congruence modular. There exists a relational structure \mathbf{A} defined on a signature including three binary relation symbols α , β , and γ which is compatible with an algebra in $\mathcal{V}(\mathbb{A}(\mathbf{B}))$, such that the following hold:

- There exists a finite set \mathcal{P} of pentagons where for each $\mathbf{P} \in \mathcal{P}$, the universe P of \mathbf{P} is a subset of A, and it holds that $\alpha^{\mathbf{P}} = \alpha^{\mathbf{A}} \cap P^2$, $\beta^{\mathbf{P}} = \beta^{\mathbf{A}} \cap P^2$, and $\gamma^{\mathbf{P}} = \gamma^{\mathbf{A}} \cap P^2$. Moreover, the set $\mathbf{L}(\mathcal{P})$ contains a non-trivial lattice.
- For each $k \geq 1$, there exists a relation $D_k \subseteq A^k$ which is cq-definable over \mathbf{A} such that for any elements $a_1, \ldots, a_k \in A$, the tuple (a_1, \ldots, a_k) is in D_k if and only if there exists a $\mathbf{P} \in \mathcal{P}$ such that all of the elements a_1, \ldots, a_k are contained in the universe P of \mathbf{P} . In addition, there exists an algorithm that computes a cq-definition of D_k (over \mathbf{A}) in polynomial time, when given k as input (in unary representation).

In the definition of the set \mathcal{P} we may assume that if \mathbf{P} , \mathbf{P}' are members, then $P \nsubseteq P'$. This additional property can be arranged by only including in \mathcal{P} those pentagons whose universes are maximal with respect to inclusion. Doing so will not change the other properties listed in the previous lemma.

Theorem 13 Let A be a relational structure satisfying the conditions described in Lemma 12, and let P be the set of pentagons described there. There exists an oracular pwm-reduction from $\mathcal{C}_{\text{CQ-2-PENT}}(P)$ to $\mathcal{C}_{\text{CQ}}(A)$.

Essentially, Theorem 13 is proved in the following way. In order to translate a 2-sorted conjunctive query ϕ over pentagons to a conjunctive query ϕ' over \mathbf{A} , the relations β and γ are used to simulate the two sorts, and the relation α is used to simulate the behavior of the relation R. Also, in the resulting conjunctive query ϕ' , all of the variables are related by the relation D_U (where U is the total number of variables), effectively localizing ϕ' to the pentagons found in the set \mathcal{P} .

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