Polynomial inference of universal automata from membership and equivalence queries

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Abstract
A MAT learning algorithm is presented that infers the universal automaton for a regular target language, using a polynomial number of queries with respect to that automaton. The universal automaton is one of several canonical characterizations for regular languages. Our learner is based on the concept of an observation table, which seems to be particularly fitting for this computational model, and we adapt the necessary notions and definitions from the literature to the case of universal automata.

Keywords: Query learning; universal finite automata

1. Introduction

The area of Grammatical Inference (GI) is concerned with algorithms that extrapolate from limited information to infer a formal description of an unknown language. An important concept in this context is the convergence to a certain partition of the target language, which is obtained by splitting and merging sets (or, from the automaton perspective; states). In this paper, we present an algorithm with the objective of inferring the universal automaton (UA) for the target language, and in doing so we restrict our attention to automata in which states are non-mergable by definition; see [15]. We may therefore adopt a general strategy of iteratively dividing states until the conditions for the desired type of description are met. The long-term memory [4] of our learner shall be an observation table, which in its most general interpretation fits the characteristics of universal automata more closely than those of any other kind of finite-state automaton. This also means that our way of obtaining an automaton from an observation table is distinctively different from earlier approaches such as [1] [2].

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When formalizing a learning task, the information source is of key importance. This can for instance be a finite set of positive examples, also known as a text (the limits of this source are discussed by [1]), or a potentially infinite sequence of positive and negative examples, known as an enumeration [14]. A substantial amount of work has also been devoted to algorithms that learn by querying an oracle. [1] introduced the notion of a minimal adequate teacher (MAT) to allow for polynomial-time learning of regular languages. This is an oracle capable of answering two types of queries, membership and equivalence queries. Let $L$ be the target language. An equivalence query (EQ) is of the form “Is $A$ a correct description of $L$?”, and is answered by the oracle either with a simple ‘yes’, or with a counterexample in the symmetric difference of $L(A)$ and $L$ (that is, with an element in $c \in (L \setminus L(A)) \cup (L(A) \setminus L)$). Membership queries (MQs), on the other hand, are of the type “Is $w$ an element of $L$?” and are answered with ‘yes’ or ‘no’. In the present article, we adopt the MAT model and require the learner to return the target universal automaton after a finite number of queries.

Whereas [1] focused on learning regular languages by presenting state-minimal deterministic finite-state automata (DFA) as hypotheses to the teacher, our learner builds universal automata (UA), which offer another kind of canonical description for regular languages. A survey of the theory of UA is found in [17]. A third form of canonical description for regular languages is the residual finite-state automata (RFSA; see Denis et al. [12]). This type of FA has been considered in the MAT model by Bollig et al. [2]. Interestingly, the hypotheses presented by the RFSA learner in [2] are not always ensured to be state-minimal RFSA but can seemingly be arbitrary non-deterministic automata (NFA); only the final, correct hypothesis is guaranteed to be the canonical RFSA of the target language.

2. Preliminaries

Before we continue, it is useful to revise some of the notions and notations related to MAT learning, and to recall a number of technical devices that will serve as our toolbox in the upcoming discussions.

2.1. Finite-State Automata

A finite-state automaton (FA) is a tuple $A = (\Sigma, Q, I, F, \delta)$ where

- $\Sigma$ is a finite set of alphabet symbols,
- $Q$ is the finite set of states,
- $I \subseteq Q$ is the set of start or initial states,
- $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of accepting states, and
- $\delta \subseteq Q \times \Sigma \times Q$ is the transition relation.
From the transition relation $\delta$, we derive the functions $\delta^+ : Q \times \Sigma^* \rightarrow 2^Q$ and $\delta^* : \Sigma^* \rightarrow 2^Q$. Intuitively, $\delta^+(q, w)$ is the set of all states that can be reached from $q$ on input $w \in \Sigma^*$, and $\delta^*(w)$ is the set of all states that can be reached from an initial state on $w$. More formally, $\delta^+$ is given by $\delta^+(q, \varepsilon) = \{q\}$ and, for every $w = w'a \in \Sigma^+$,

$$\delta^+(q, w) = \{q'' \in Q \mid \exists q' \in \delta^+(q, w), q'' \in Q : \langle q', a, q'' \rangle \in \delta\}.$$

We can now define $\delta^* : \Sigma^* \rightarrow 2^Q$ as

$$\delta^*(w) = \bigcup_{q \in \delta} \delta^+(q, w).$$

With every state $q$, we shall associate two sets of strings, $P_q$ and $F_q$. Intuitively, $P_q$ is the set of all strings that can end up in $q$ (the past of $q$), and $F_q$ is the set of all strings that can lead from $q$ into an accepting state (the future of $q$). Again, more formally, for every state $q \in Q$, let $P_q := \{s \in \Sigma^* \mid q \in \delta^+(s)\}$ and $F_q := \{e \in \Sigma^* \mid \delta^+(q, e) \cap F \neq \emptyset\}$. A state $q$ is reachable if $P_q \neq \emptyset$ and co-reachable if $F_q \neq \emptyset$. An automaton is trim if all of its states are reachable and co-reachable. By keeping only the states that are reachable and co-reachable we obtain the trimmed version of an automaton; this can be easily done in polynomial time and does not change the accepted language.

Note that unlike the classical definition of FA, the above definition allows for multiple start states. This is motivated by the fact every state will be identified with a pair $(X, Y)$ of strings, intuitively corresponding to the past and future of that state. A state $(X, Y)$ will be classified as a start state whenever $\varepsilon \in X$, which can be true for more than one such pair.

It will sometimes be useful to identify the automaton $A$ with the membership predicate for the language that it recognizes. Given $w \in \Sigma^*$, we thus write

- $A(w) = 1$ if $\delta^*(w) \cap F \neq \emptyset$,
- $A(w) = 0$ if $\delta^*(w) \cap Q \neq \emptyset$ but $\delta^*(w) \cap F = \emptyset$, and
- $A(w) = \ast$ if $\delta^*(w) = \emptyset$.

The language accepted by $A$ is $L(A) := \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid A(w) = 1\}$. A string language is regular if it is accepted by an FA.

An FA $A$ is total if, for every $a \in \Sigma$ and $q \in Q$, there is a some $\langle q, a, q' \rangle \in \delta$. Furthermore, $A$ is a deterministic FA (abbreviated DFA) if $\langle q, a, q' \rangle, \langle q, a, q'' \rangle \in \delta$ implies $q' = q''$, otherwise non-deterministic (an NFA). For DFA, we may abbreviate $\delta^*(s) = \{q\}$ to $\delta^*(s) = q$, and $\delta^+(s, e) = \{q\}$ to $\delta^+(s, e) = q$ without risk of confusion. We also write $L(w) = 1$ if $w \in L$ for $w \in \Sigma^*$ and $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$, and $L(w) = 0$ if $w \notin L$.

### 2.2. Factors of a Language and Universal Automata

Let $\Sigma$ be an alphabet and $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ be a language. A pair $(X, Y)$ with $X, Y \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is a subfactor of $L$ if $X \cdot Y \subseteq L$ (where $\cdot$ denotes concatenation, lifted
to sets in the usual way; for simplicity, often we omit the \( \cdot \) operator, writing concatenation as juxtaposition). A subfactor \( (X,Y) \) is a factor of \( L \) if it is maximal with respect to inclusion, in other words, if for every \( X \subseteq X' \) and \( Y \subseteq Y' \), \( X'Y' \subseteq L \) implies \( X' = X \) and \( Y' = Y \). Henceforth, we denote by \( \text{fac}(L) \) the set of all factors of \( L \).

As shown by [17], a language \( L \) is regular if and only if \( \text{fac}(L) \) is finite. The set \( Q = \text{fac}(L) \) can be viewed as the states of an FA \( U_L = (\Sigma, Q, I, F, \delta) \) with

- \( I = \{ (X,Y) \in \text{fac}(L) | \varepsilon \in X \} \),
- \( F = \{ (X,Y) \in \text{fac}(L) | \varepsilon \in Y \} \),
- \( \langle (X,Y), a, (X',Y') \rangle \in \delta \) if and only if \( XaY' \subseteq L \).

This (unique!) automaton is called the universal automaton of \( L \).

Note that for \( (X,Y) \in \text{fac}(L) \), the set \( X \) determines \( Y \) and vice versa via, for example, \( Y = \bigcap_{x \in X} x^{-1}L \). The bijection has several interesting implications [17], e.g.:

\[
\langle (X,Y), a, (X',Y') \rangle \in \delta \iff Xa \subseteq X' \iff aY' \subseteq Y.
\]

2.3. Observation tables

We will now introduce the central data structure of our learning algorithm. Let \( L \subseteq \Sigma^* \) be the target language. A triple \( T = \langle S, E, \text{obs} \rangle \) consisting of two non-empty finite sets \( S, E \subseteq \Sigma^* \) and a function \( \text{obs} : S \times E \rightarrow \{0,1\} \) is an observation table for \( L \) if

- \( S \) is prefix-closed,
- \( E \) is suffix-closed,
- \( \text{obs} \) is a total function with

\[
\text{obs}(s, e) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } se \in L \text{ is confirmed,} \\ 0 & \text{if } se \notin L \text{ is confirmed.} \end{cases}
\]

3. Tables of subsets

The following ideas, which only require some basic set theory, are fundamental for our approach. We could have stated them in more concrete terms, but this abstract approach is better to convey the basic ideas. Similar notions have been developed in Clark [8], Courcelle et al. [10].

We consider a universe \( U \times V \) and a target \( T \subseteq U \times V \). By letting \( \mathcal{U} = 2^U \) and \( \mathcal{V} = 2^V \), we create a frame \( \mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{V} \). An element \( (X,Y) \in \mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{V} \) is a subfactor of \( T \) if \( X \times Y \subseteq T \). A subfactor \( (X,Y) \) of \( T \) is a factor if, for every subfactor \( (X',Y') \) of \( T \), \( X \subseteq X' \) and \( Y \subseteq Y' \) imply that \( X = X' \) and \( Y = Y' \).
A set \( C \subseteq \mathbb{U} \times \mathbb{V} \) is a cover with respect to \( T \) if, for every \((x, y) \in T\), there is some \((X, Y) \in C\) with \( x \in X \) and \( y \in Y \). A cover \( C \subseteq \mathbb{U} \times \mathbb{V} \) is a subfactor cover (or a factor cover) if each \((X, Y) \in C\) is a subfactor (or a factor, respectively).

The reasoning behind these definitions is as follows: Consider an alphabet \( \Sigma \), take \( U = \Sigma^*\), \( V = \Sigma^*\), and let \( L \) be the target language of some learning process. The language \( L \) then defines an infinite target table \( T_L \) given by \((u, v) \in T_L\) iff \( uv \in L \). The condition \( X \times Y \subseteq T_L \) is now clearly equivalent to \( X \cdot Y \subseteq L \). In the formal language terminology introduced in Section 2, \((X, Y)\) is a (sub)factor of \( L \) iff \((X, Y)\) is a (sub)factor of \( T_L \), while a (sub)factor cover corresponds to a set of (sub)factors \( \{(X_i, Y_i) \mid i \in J\} \) of \( L \) with \( \bigcup_{i \in J} X_i \cdot Y_i = L \).

By repeatedly appealing to the axiom of choice, the following assertion is easily seen:

**Lemma 1.** Let \( C \subseteq \mathbb{U} \times \mathbb{V} \) and let \( T \subseteq T' \subseteq U \times V \) be two targets. If \( C \) is a cover (subfactor cover) with respect to \( T \), then there is some cover (subfactor cover) \( C' \subseteq U \times V \) with respect to \( T' \), extending \( C \) in the sense that \( C \subseteq C' \).

It is tempting to claim the same for factor covers, but unfortunately it does not hold. This is witnessed by \( U = \{1\}, V = \{a, b\}, T = \{(1, a)\}, \) and \( T' = T \cup \{(1, b)\} \). Here, \( \{U \times \{a\}\} \) is a factor cover of \( T \), but \( U \times \{a\} \) is not a factor of \( T' \), so no cover of \( T' \) can both contain \( U \times \{a\}\) and be a factor cover of \( T' \). As we shall see, it is possible to obtain a result corresponding to Lemma 1 also for factor covers, but this requires additional notation.

To this end, let us fix a sub-universe \( S \times E \) of \( U \times V \) such that \( S \subseteq U \) and \( E \subseteq V \). This restriction induces a sub-frame \( \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{E} \), with \( \mathcal{S} = 2^S \subseteq \mathbb{U} \) and \( \mathcal{E} = 2^E \subseteq \mathbb{V} \). Again, let \( T \subseteq U \times V \) be our target, and assume that \( C \subseteq \mathbb{U} \times \mathbb{V} \) is a cover with respect to \( T \). The cover and target induced by \( S \times E \) is then

\[ C|_{S \times E} = \{(X \cap S, Y \cap E) \mid (X, Y) \in C\}, \]

and \( T|_{S \times E} = T \cap (S \times E) \), respectively. The names are justified by the elementary Lemma 2.

**Lemma 2.** Let \( C \) be a cover with respect to \( T \). Then \( C|_{S \times E} \) is a cover with respect to \( T|_{S \times E} \). Moreover, if \( C \) is a subfactor cover then \( C|_{S \times E} \) is a subfactor cover, as well.

**Proof.** Assume that \( C|_{S \times E} \) is not a cover with respect to \( T|_{S \times E} \). Then there is an element \((x, y) \in S \times E\) not covered by \( C|_{S \times E} \). However, as \( C \) is a cover, there is some \((X, Y) \in C\) with \((x, y) \in X \times Y\). Clearly, \((x, y) \in (X \cap S) \times (Y \cap E)\), i.e., we have found some element from \( C|_{S \times E} \), namely \((X \cap S, Y \cap E)\), that covers \((x, y)\), contradicting our assumption. The “moreover-part” is trivial. \( \square \)

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1. E. would have termed a subfactor cover with respect to \( T \) a rectangular decomposition of the relation \( T \) for obvious geometric reasons; we did not use that terminology because “decomposition” hints at some non-overlapping set system, which would point to the wrong direction.
Still, even if $C$ is a factor cover then this need not be the case for $C_{S \times E}$. We again support our claim on an example.

**Example 1.** Let $U \times V$ with $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $V = \{a, b, c\}$ be a universe and

$$T = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (3, b), (4, a)\}$$

be our target. Furthermore, let $S \times E$ be a sub-universe with $S = \{1, 2\}$ and $E = \{a, b\}$. Then, the target induced by $S \times E$ is $T_{|S \times E} = \{(1, a), (1, b), (2, a), (2, b)\}$. It is easy to see that the only factor cover with respect to $T_{|S \times E}$ is $S \times E$. If we look at the factor cover $C = \{(1) \times V, \{1, 2, 4\} \times \{a\}, \{1, 2, 3\} \times \{b\}\}$ of $T$ then its restriction $C_{|S \times E} = \{(1) \times E, S \times \{a\}, S \times \{b\}\}$ is clearly not a factor cover of $T_{|S \times E}$. However, by Lemma 3, it is a subfactor cover of $T_{|S \times E}$.

For the reverse direction, where we enlarge rather than restrict the domain, it is possible to embed smaller factor covers into larger ones. We introduce a further notion that becomes important in this context. Let $T$ be a target with the universe $U \times V$.

- For $X \subseteq U$, $(X, V[X])$ denotes the right-maximal subfactor induced by $X$, i.e., $V[X]$ is the largest subset of $V$ such that $(X, V[X])$ is a subfactor of $T$, i.e., $X \times V[X] \subseteq T$.

- For $Y \subseteq V$, $(U[Y], Y)$ analogously denotes the left-maximal subfactor induced by $Y$.

**Lemma 3.**

- For $X \subseteq U$, $(X, V[X])$ is a subfactor with $V[X] = \{v \in V \mid \forall x \in X : (x, v) \in T\}$.

- For $Y \subseteq V$, $(U[Y], Y)$ is a subfactor with $U[Y] = \{u \in U \mid \forall y \in Y : (u, y) \in T\}$.

- For $X \subseteq U$, $(U[V[X]], V[X])$ is a factor, called the factor induced by $X$.

- For $Y \subseteq V$, $(U[Y], V[U[Y]])$ is a factor, called the factor induced by $Y$.

Let $C \subseteq U \times \mathcal{G}$ be a factor cover with respect to the target $T$.

**Lemma 4.** If $C$ is a factor cover with respect to $T_{|S \times E}$ then there is a factor cover $C'$ with respect to $T$ such that $C \subseteq C'_{|S \times E}$. This fact is testified by the embedding $f : C \rightarrow C'$, $(X, Y) \mapsto (U[Y], V[U[Y]])$ which satisfies $X \subseteq U[Y]$ and $Y \subseteq V[U[Y]]$.

*Proof.** For $(X, Y) \in C$, by definition $U[Y]$ is the maximal subset of $U$ with $U[Y] \times Y \subseteq T$. Similarly, $V[U[Y]]$ is the maximal subset of $V$ for which $U[Y] \times V[U[Y]] \subseteq T$. Since $C$ is a factor cover with respect to $T_{|S \times E}$, we conclude that $X \subseteq U[Y]$ and $Y \subseteq V[U[Y]]$. The existence of a factor cover $C'$ extending $f(C)$ now follows along the lines of Lemma 3. \qed
Remark 1. Let us comment on the previous proof: It is worth noticing here that
the definition of $f$ using $U[Y]$ and $V[U[Y]]$ is not completely symmetric. We
could have chosen to define $f’ : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}’$, $(X, Y) \mapsto (U[V[X]], V[X])$; this would
work out equally well, with minor adjustments to the upcoming proofs. However,
the mapping $f’$ would look different compared to $f$ in concrete examples. For
instance, let $U = V = \{1, 2\}$ and $T = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1)\}$ with $S = E = \{1\}$. Then,
\{$(1, 1)\}$ is a factor cover of $T|_{S \times E} = \{(1, 1)\}$. The maximal subset of
$U$ for which $U[Y] \times Y \subseteq T$ is $U[Y] = \{1, 2\}$. Then, $V[U[Y]]$ would equal $\{1\}$.
Hence, $f’$ is defined by $\{(1, 1)\} \mapsto \{(1, 1), (2, 1)\}$. The factor cover $\mathcal{C}’$
extending $f(\mathcal{C})$ would be $\{((1, 1), (2, 1)), \{(1, 1), (1, 2)\}\}$. If we would have chosen to use
$f’$, this would yield $\{(1, 1)\} \mapsto \{(1, 1), (1, 2)\}$ instead. Also note that it would be
simply wrong to try a symmetric definition like: “Consider $(X, Y) \mapsto (X_Y, Y_X)$,
where $X_Y$ is the maximal subset of $U$ for which $X_Y \times Y \subseteq T$ and $Y_X$ is
the maximal subset of $U$ for which $X \times Y_X \subseteq T$”; in our example, we would have
$X_Y = U$ and $Y_X = V$, which would give the set $X_Y \times Y_X = U \times V$ which is not
even a subfactor.

With Lemma 4 fresh in mind, let us return to our running example:

Example 2. (cont’d) Starting from the factor cover $\mathcal{C}' = \{S \times E\}$ of $T|_{S \times E}$,
we can use the embedding $f$ in the proof of Lemma 4 which has a fixed-point
on $S \times E$, to find the cover $\mathcal{R} = \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{C}' = \{1\} \times V, \{1, 2, 4\} \times \{a\}, \{1, 2, 3\} \times
\{b\}, S \times E\}$ of $T$. Note that both $\mathcal{R}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ are factor covers of $T$, even though one
is a proper subset of the other. This shows that factor covers are not necessarily
unique, and that they need not contain the same number of elements. Also, the
claimed (rather trivial) inclusion $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{R}|_{S \times E}$ may be strict.

If we increase $T$ slightly, setting $T' = T \cup \{(2, c)\}$ and using the same re-
stricting set $S \times E$ we would then get $\mathcal{R} = \{1, 2, 4\} \times \{a\}, \{1, 2, 3\} \times \{c\}, S \times V\}.
Moreover, $f(S \times E) = S \times V$.

Lemma 5 will play an important rôle in the later analysis of our learning algorithm.

Lemma 5. The embedding $f : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}'$, $(X, Y) \mapsto (U[Y], V[U[Y]])$ given in
Lemma 4 is injective and satisfies $X = U[Y] \cap S$ and $Y = V[U[Y]] \cap E$.

Proof. Assume the contrary, i.e., that there are $(X, Y)$ and $(X’, Y’)$. such that
$(U[Y], V[U[Y]]) = (U[Y’], V[U[Y’]])$. In a sense, the mapping $f$ is defined in
two steps, first computing the first component from $Y$ and then computing
the second component from $U[Y]$. Let us treat the first of these steps. By Lemma 4.
$X$ is extended towards $U[Y]$ satisfying $U[Y] \times Y \subseteq T$. Observe
that, since $(X, Y)$ was a factor of $T|_{S \times E}$, $U[Y] \setminus X \cap S = \emptyset$ (i). Analogously,
$(U[Y’] \setminus X’) \cap S = \emptyset$. Clearly, $(U[Y], V[U[Y]]) = (U[Y’], V[U[Y’]])$ implies that
$U[Y] = U[Y’]$ and hence that $U[Y] \cap S = U[Y’] \cap S$, which implies $X = X’$ due
to (i). A similar argument applies for the second step, yielding $Y = Y’$. This
proves the claim.

A related result is the following one.
Lemma 6. If \((X_i, Y_i), i \in \{1, \ldots, r\}\), are factors of a target \(T\) over a universe \(U \times V\) then so are \((\bigcap_{i=1}^r X_i, \bigcap_{i=1}^r Y_i)\) with \(\bigcup_{i=1}^r Y_i \subseteq V[\bigcap_{i=1}^r X_i]\) and \((U[\bigcap_{i=1}^r Y_i], \bigcap_{i=1}^r Y_i)\) with \(\bigcup_{i=1}^r X_i \subseteq U[\bigcap_{i=1}^r Y_i]\), provided that the intersections are not empty.

Recall that for some set \(Z\), \(Z[\cdot]\) is the induced-operator that we have introduced above. It is natural to think that \(\bigcup_{i=1}^r Y_i = V[\bigcap_{i=1}^r X_i]\), but the following example proves that this is not always the case.

Example 3. Let \(U = \{\varepsilon, a, aa, b\}\) and \(V = \{\varepsilon, a, b, bb\}\) be finite languages over \(\Sigma = \{a, b\}\). Let
\[
T = \{(a, \varepsilon), (aa, \varepsilon), (\varepsilon, a), (a, a), (aa, a), (b, a), (b, b), (\varepsilon, bb), (aa, bb)\}.
\]
The factors of this target are: \(F_1 = \{(\varepsilon, a, aa, b), \{a\}\}\), \(F_2 = \{\{a, aa\}, \{\varepsilon, a\}\}\), \(F_3 = \{\{aa\}, \{\varepsilon, a, bb\}\}\), \(F_4 = \{\{\varepsilon, aa\}, \{a, bb\}\}\), \(F_5 = \{\{b\}, \{a, b\}\}\). Let \(F_i = (X_i, Y_i)\). Note that, since the \(F_i\) are factors, \(U[Y_i] = X_i\) and \(V[X_i] = Y_i\).

Consider more concretely \(F_2 = (X_2, Y_2)\) and \(F_1 = (X_1, Y_1)\). Then, \(X_2 \cap X_4 = \{aa\} = X_3\). Hence, \(V[X_3] = Y_3 = Y_2 \cup Y_4\). On the other hand, \(Y_2 \cap Y_4 = \{a\} = Y_1\), while \(V[Y_1] = X_1 = \{\varepsilon, a, aa, b\}\) is a proper superset of \(X_2 \cup X_4 = \{\varepsilon, a, aa\}\).

In the following sections, \(T\) will be alternatively interpreted as the (learning) target and as the observation table of a learning process. In the latter context, it is also interesting to note that the sets \(U\) and \(V\) of the previous example are prefix-closed and suffix-closed, respectively.

Proof. (of Lemma 6) We will prove the assertion for the case \(r = 2\); for \(r > 2\), an easy induction argument shows the claim. By symmetry, it is sufficient to show that \((X_1 \cap X_2, V[X_1 \cap X_2])\) is a factor, provided that \(X_1 \cap X_2 \neq \emptyset\).

- Due to Lemma 3, \((X_1 \cap X_2, V[X_1 \cap X_2])\) is a subfactor.
- Consider some arbitrary \(y \in Y_1 \cup Y_2\), i.e., \(y \in Y_1\) or \(y \in Y_2\). Without loss of generality, assume that \(y \in Y_1\). As \((X_1, Y_1)\) is a subfactor, for each \(x \in X_1\), \((x, y) \in T\). Hence, \(y \in V[X_1 \cap X_2]\). So, \(Y_1 \cup Y_2 \subseteq V[X_1 \cap X_2]\) follows.
- By definition of \(V[X_1 \cap X_2]\) again, there is no \(y \notin V[X_1 \cap X_2]\) satisfying \(\forall x \in X_1 \cap X_2 : (x, y) \in T\).
- Assume that there is some \(x \notin X_1 \cap X_2\) with \(\forall y \in V[X_1 \cap X_2] : (x, y) \in T\).

Remark 2. Notice that the set of factors \(\text{fac}(T)\) of a target \(T\) has a natural partial order (or lattice) structure imposed on it by letting \((X; Y) \leq (X'; Y')\) if \(X \subseteq X'\) (which is equivalent to the condition \(Y' \subseteq Y\)). The reader can verify this with Example 3, where we find \(F_3 \leq F_2 \leq F_1\), \(F_2 \leq F_4\) and \(F_5 \leq F_1\).
4. Properties of hypotheses

In this section, we establish the connection between observation tables and universal automata. We begin by defining the factors of an observation table, to be contrasted with the previously defined factors of a language.

**Definition 1 (Factors (of a table)).** Let $T = \langle S, E, \text{obs} \rangle$ be an observation table. A subfactor of $T$ is a pair $\langle X, Y \rangle$ with $X \subseteq S$ and $Y \subseteq E$ such that for all $s \in X$ and all $e \in Y$ we have $\text{obs}(s, e) = 1$. Analogously, a factor of $T$ is a subfactor $\langle X, Y \rangle$ of $T$ such that for every subfactor $\langle X', Y' \rangle$ of $T$ with $X \subseteq X'$ and $Y \subseteq Y'$, we have $\langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle$. The set of all factors of $T$ is denoted by $\text{fac}(T)$.

Note that in contrast to the classical representation of observation tables introduced above, there is a more general interpretation—clearly, any observation table corresponds to some subset $T \subseteq S \times E$, and the reader can easily verify that the according notions of (sub)factors as discussed in Section 3 coincide. For instance, the target $T$ from Example 3 can be viewed as belonging to the following observation table:

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More generally, any $T \subseteq S \times E$ corresponds to an observation table, provided that $S$ is a prefix-closed finite language over some alphabet $\Sigma$, $E$ is some suffix-closed finite language over $\Sigma$, and that the table entries are consistent with concatenation, i.e., whenever $xy = x'y'$ for some words $x, x' \in S$ and $y, y' \in E$, then $(x, y) \in T$ if and only if $(x', y') \in T$.

To differentiate between the notion of factors based on Cartesian products discussed in Section 3 and the one based on the concatenation product, we use parentheses $(,)$ in the first case and pointed brackets $\langle, \rangle$ in the second one.

**Remark 3.** Observe that if $L \neq \emptyset$, then $\langle X, Y \rangle \in \text{fac}(L)$ implies $X \neq \emptyset$ and $Y \neq \emptyset$. An analogous statement is true for observation tables that contain a non-zero entry. As observation tables containing only zero entries would lead to the empty language as a hypothesis, and as this will be checked in the very first step in the learning algorithm that we will present, we can henceforth assume that $X \neq \emptyset$ and $Y \neq \emptyset$ for all $\langle X, Y \rangle \in \text{fac}(T)$.

**Definition 2 (Automaton associated to a table).** Let $T$ be an observation table for a language $L$. The associated automaton derived from $T$ is $\mathcal{A}_T = \langle \Sigma, Q_T, I_T, F_T, \delta_T \rangle$ with

- $Q_T = \text{fac}(T)$,
- $I_T = \{ \langle X, Y \rangle \in Q_T \mid \varepsilon \in X \}$,
• $F_T = \{(X, Y) \in Q_T \mid \varepsilon \in Y\}$, and

• for every $a \in \Sigma$ and $(X, Y), (X', Y') \in Q_T$, we have $(\langle X, Y \rangle, a, \langle X', Y' \rangle) \in \delta_T$ if and only if $X \cdot \{a\} \cdot Y' \subseteq L$.

From $A_T$, we obtain the associated hypothesis $H_T = \langle \Sigma, Q_T, I_T, F_T, \delta_T \rangle$ as the trimmed version of $A_T$.

In the following, $H_T$ will be the hypothesis that our learner presents to the teacher, while the condition $X \cdot \{a\} \cdot Y' \subseteq L$ in the construction of $A_T$ is checked via membership queries to the teacher. Since we allow such queries during the synthesis process, we are guaranteed to find $A_T$ for any observation table $T$. This sets our algorithm apart from previous MAT learners which require additional properties in their observation tables such as consistency and closedness before synthesizing an automaton. There are examples of observation table $T$ where $A_T \neq H_T$ (Appendix 7.2).

Remark 4. For $a \in \Sigma$ we define $T \circ a := \langle S, E, \text{obs}_a \rangle$ such that

$$\text{obs}_a(s, e) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if sae } L \text{ is confirmed}, \\ 0 & \text{if sae } \notin L \text{ is confirmed}. \end{cases}$$

The definition of $A_T$ necessitates these auxiliary tables, and an efficient implementation should save the information thus gathered to economize with membership queries. This may speed up the computation but has no bearing on the correctness of the algorithm.

Definition 3. $A_T$ is strongly reachable if, for all $a \in \Sigma$ and $(X', Y') \in Q_T$ and all $xa \in X'$, there is some $(X, Y) \in Q_T$ with $x \in X$ and $(\langle X, Y \rangle, a, \langle X', Y' \rangle) \in \delta_T$. Analogously, we can define strong co-reachability.

Lemma 7. If $A_T$ is strongly reachable then it is trim, i.e., $A_T = H_T$.

Proof. We only prove that every state of $A_T$ is reachable, as co-reachability can be seen by a similar argument. The proof is by induction on the length of the shortest words $w(q) \in X$ of state $q = \langle X, Y \rangle$. If $|w(q)| = 0$, then $\varepsilon \in X$, i.e., $q$ is an initial state and hence reachable. Assume that the claim is true for all $q$ with $|w(q)| \leq n$. Consider some state $q = \langle X, Y \rangle$ with $|w(q)| = n + 1$. Hence, $w(q) = xa$. As $A_T$ is strongly reachable, there is some state $p = \langle W, Z \rangle$ with $x \in W$ and $(p, a, q) \in \delta_T$. Hence, $q$ is reachable.

We will need an even slightly stronger notion in what follows.

Definition 4. An observation table $T = \langle S, E, \text{obs} \rangle$ for a language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is stable if

1. for every $s, s' \in S$ such that there is $ae \in \Sigma E$ with $L(sae) > L(s'ae)$, there is $e' \in E$ such that $L(se') > L(s'e')$; and

2. for every $e, e' \in E$ such that there is $sa \in \Sigma S$ with $L(sae) > L(sae')$, there is $s' \in S$ such that $L(s'e) > L(s'e')$. 

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Note that this is similar to Angluin’s consistency condition in her LSTAR algorithm.

**Lemma 8.** If $T$ is stable then $A_T$ is strongly reachable and strongly co-reachable.

**Proof.** To show that $A_T$ is strongly reachable, we proceed as follows. Let $\langle X', Y' \rangle$ be a factor of $T$ such that there is a string $xa \in X'$. Let $\langle X, Y \rangle$ be a factor of $T$ such that $x \in X$ and $X$ is of minimal size. As $S$ is prefix-closed, this factor exists. If $\langle \langle X, Y \rangle, a, \langle X', Y' \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T$ then we are done. Otherwise, there are $z \in X$ and $y' \in Y'$ such that $L(za'y') = 0$. Since $L(xay') = 1$, there is $y'' \in E$ such that $L(xay'y'') > L(zy'y'')$, so by adding $y''$ to $Y$ we reduce the size of $X$ while keeping $x \in X$, thus contradicting the minimality assumption.

To show that $A_T$ is strongly co-reachable, we can argue symmetrically. □

We propose the procedure $\text{MakeStable}(T)$: Look for $s, s' \in S$ such that there is $ae \in \Sigma E$ with $L(se) > L(s'a'e)$ but there is no $e' \in E$ with $L(se') > L(s'a'e')$. Add $ae$ to $E$ and fill up the table with MQs. Symmetrically, strings can be added to $S$.

**Lemma 9.** Every time we add an element from $S \cdot \Sigma$ to $S$, or from $\Sigma \cdot E$ to $E$ in order to make $T$ stable, the number of factors in $T$ increases.

**Proof. Sketch.** Suppose we add $e'$ to $E$ due to Condition 1 in Definition 4. Every factor $\langle X, Y \rangle$ of $T$ with $s \in X$ also had $s' \in X$ since no element in $Y$ can prevent it from being so. By adding $e'$ to $E$, $\langle X, Y \rangle$ splits into $\langle X', S[X'] \rangle$ with $X' := \{ s \in X \mid se' \in L \}$. A similar argument holds when we enlarge $S$ instead. □

As we will make sure that any hypothesis automaton our learner conjectures is from a stable observation table $T$, we assume stability for all tables in the remainder of this section. This also implies that $\text{fac}(T)$ is the state set of any automaton $A_T$ we consider.

The next lemma may be expected but needs a non-trivial induction argument.

**Lemma 10.** Let $\langle X, Y \rangle \in Q_T$. Then $X = P_{\langle X, Y \rangle} \cap S$ and $Y = F_{\langle X, Y \rangle} \cap E$.

**Proof.** We only prove $X = P_{\langle X, Y \rangle} \cap S$ since the part for the future set of $\langle X, Y \rangle$ follows from a symmetrical argument.

Let $\langle X, Y \rangle \in Q_T$. We have to prove the following two assertions:

1. If $w \in X$ then $w \in P_{\langle X, Y \rangle} \cap S$, and
2. If $w \in P_{\langle X, Y \rangle} \cap S$ then $w \in X$.

The proof is by induction on the length of $w$. As the induction base, consider $w = \varepsilon$.

1. Since $\varepsilon \in X$ implies $\langle X, Y \rangle \in I_T$ we have $\varepsilon \in P_{\langle X, Y \rangle}$ by definition of $P_{\langle X, Y \rangle}$.
2. If \( \varepsilon \in \mathcal{P}(X,Y) \cap S \) then \( \langle X,Y \rangle \) must be an initial state of \( \mathcal{A}_T \), as our automata do not have transitions on the empty word. By definition, this means that \( \varepsilon \in X \).

Now, assume the claim to hold for all states and for all words \( w \) of length up to \( n \). Consider some \( w \) with \( |w| = n + 1 \). Hence, \( w = ua \in S \) for some \( u \in \Sigma^n \) and \( a \in \Sigma \). The remainder of the proof is as follows for the respective directions:

1. Consider \( w = ua \in X \). As \( \mathcal{A}_T \) is strongly reachable (Lemma 10), there is a table factor \( \langle X', Y' \rangle \) with \( u \in X' \) and \( \langle \langle X', Y' \rangle, a, \langle X, Y \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T \). By the induction hypothesis, \( u \in \mathcal{P}(X,Y) \cap S \) since \( S \) is prefix-closed. As \( \langle \langle X', Y' \rangle, a, \langle X, Y \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T \), \( w \in \mathcal{P}(X,Y) \cap S \).

2. Assume \( w \in \mathcal{P}(X,Y) \cap S \). Let \( \langle X', Y' \rangle \) be a state that can be passed when leading \( w = ua \) into \( \langle X, Y \rangle \), with \( \langle \langle X', Y' \rangle, a, \langle X, Y \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T \). By the choice of \( \langle X', Y' \rangle \), \( u \in \mathcal{P}(X,Y) \cap S \) since \( S \) is prefix-closed. By the induction hypothesis, \( u \in X' \). By the definition of \( \delta_T \), in particular for all \( y \in Y \), we find that \( obs_a(u, y) = 1 \). Since \( w = ua \), \( obs(w, y) = 1 \) for all \( y \in Y \).

As \( \langle X, Y \rangle \) is a table factor, we conclude that \( w \in X \).

\( \Box \)

We now turn our attention to a notion of consistency well-known in Learning Theory but less frequently addressed explicitly in Grammatical Inference:

**Definition 5.** \( \mathcal{A} \) is \( T \)-consistent if \( \mathcal{A}(se) = obs(s,e) \) for every \( \langle s,e \rangle \in S \times E \).

**Lemma 11.** The automaton \( \mathcal{A}_T \) is \( T \)-consistent.

**Proof.** Let \( \langle s,e \rangle \in S \times E \) with \( obs(s,e) = 1 \). There is a factor \( \langle X,Y \rangle = \langle S[\{e\}],E[S[\{e\}]] \rangle \) such that \( s \in X \) and \( e \in Y \). Assuming that \( T \) is stable, by Lemma 10 \( X = \mathcal{P}(X,Y) \cap S \) and \( Y = \mathcal{F}(X,Y) \cap E \), so \( \langle X,Y \rangle \in \delta_T(s) \) and \( \delta_T^*(\langle X,Y \rangle, s) \subseteq \mathcal{F}_T \), and consequently \( \mathcal{A}_T(se) = 1 \).

For the opposite direction, assume that there is an accepting run of \( \mathcal{A}_T \) on \( se \). After having read all of \( s \), \( \mathcal{A}_T \) must be in some state \( \langle X,Y \rangle \) from which it can continue to an accepting state. We thus know that \( s \in \mathcal{P}(X,Y) \cap S \) and that \( e \in \mathcal{F}(X,Y) \cap E \). By Lemma 10 \( s \in X \) and \( e \in Y \), and since \( \langle X,Y \rangle \) is a factor, this yields \( obs(s,e) = 1 \).

\( \Box \)

So, in the following we can assume that \( \mathcal{A}_T \) is \( T \)-consistent. This will be an important property when we prove the correctness of our inference algorithm. Moreover, we can establish the following lemma.

**Lemma 12.** If the states \( \langle X,Y \rangle, \langle X_1, Y_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle X_r, Y_r \rangle \in Q_T \) are such that the language \( \mathcal{F}(X,Y) \) fulfills \( \mathcal{F}(X,Y) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^r \mathcal{F}(X_i,Y_i) \) then we have \( Y \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^r Y_i \).

**Proof.** If the claim were wrong then there would be some \( w \in Y \subseteq \subseteq E \) not contained in any of the \( Y_i \). However, since Lemma 10 tells us that \( Y \subseteq \mathcal{F}(X,Y) \), there must be some \( \mathcal{F}(X_i,Y_i) \) containing \( w \). Pick some arbitrary \( v \in X_i \). As \( vw \in X_i \mathcal{F}(X_i,Y_i) \), we have \( vw \in L(\mathcal{A}_T) \) due to Lemma 10 which proves that
Lemma 13. Let \( T \) be a saturated observation table. For every natural number \( r \) and choice of \( r \) table factors \( \langle X_i, Y_i \rangle, i \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \), it holds that
\[
\bigcap_{i=1}^{r} P_{\langle X_i, Y_i \rangle} \neq \emptyset \text{ if and only if } \bigcap_{i=1}^{r} X_i \neq \emptyset.
\]

Proof. The “if” direction is immediate from Lemma 10.

Therefore, let \( x \) be a string of minimal length that is witness to the falsity of the opposite direction of the lemma (so the lemma holds for every proper prefix of \( x \)). We note that \( x \) cannot be the empty string because a state \( \langle X, Y \rangle \) is in \( \delta_T(x) \) if and only if it is an initial state, which it is if and only if \( \varepsilon \in X \). Therefore, let \( x = ua \) for some string \( u \in \Sigma^* \) and symbol \( a \in \Sigma \), and let \( \{\langle X_i, Y_i \rangle \mid i \in \{1, \ldots, r\}\} = \delta_T(x) \). Moreover, let \( \langle W_i, Z_i \rangle \) with \( i \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \) be a selection of factors in \( \delta_T(u) \) such that \( \{\langle W_i, Z_i \rangle, a, \langle X_i, Y_i \rangle \mid i \in \{1, \ldots, r\}\} \subseteq \delta_T \). By Lemma 6 and the minimality of \( x \), the factor \( \langle W, Z \rangle = (\bigcap_{i=1}^{r} W_i, E[\bigcap_{i=1}^{r} W_i]) \) exists and since \( W \) is a subset of every \( W_i \) the set \( \{\langle W, Z \rangle, a, \langle X_i, Y_i \rangle \mid i \in \{1, \ldots, r\}\} \) is contained in \( \delta_T \). Definition 3 now allows us to pick an arbitrary \( w \in W \) such that \( wa \in X_i \) for some \( j \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \), and because of \( WaY_j \subseteq L \) for every \( Y_i \), the maximality of the factors and the containment of \( wa \in X_j \subseteq S \), we have \( wa \in X_i \) for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \). This obviously contradicts our assumption concerning \( x \).

We propose the following procedure, which we call \textbf{MakeSaturated}(\( T \)):

\begin{verbatim}
For \( j \leftarrow 0 \) to \( |Q_T| \) do:
for every state \( \langle X, Y \rangle \) that contains an \( x \in X \) of length \( j \) as a shortest word:
for every state \( \langle X', Y' \rangle \) and letter \( a \) with \( xa \notin X' \), add \( xa \) to \( X' \).
\end{verbatim}

Clearly, adding words to \( X' \) amounts in extending \( S \). We proceed similarly with conflicts on the second component. Observe that, as we add longer and longer words, no state could have been overlooked by this procedure as inductively we guarantee the containment of words of length \( j \) in states \( \langle X, Y \rangle \) reachable in \( j \) steps; moreover, we could visualize its work (on the first component) as proceeding from the initial states (for \( j = 0 \)) further and further down through the automaton, and we will reach all states by the assumed stability of \( T \), see Lemma 8. Conversely, the conflicts on the second component let the algorithm work from the final states backwards and will again reach all states.
by the assumed stability of $T$, see Lemma 8. As can be seen in the example in Appendix 7.3 MakeSaturated can cause the number of states to increase, which is of course working towards our target.

Lemma 14. Let $T = (S, E, \text{obs})$ be an observation table for $L$ and let $T' = (S', E', \text{obs}')$ be the observation table resulting from MakeSaturated$(T)$. Provided that the procedure always terminates, $T'$ is a saturated observation table for $L$.

Proof. Consider two factors $p = (X, Y)$ and $q = (X', Y')$ of $T'$ with $XaY' \subseteq L$. Our procedure MakeSaturated$(T)$ guarantees that among the shortest strings in $X$, there is some $x$ with $xa \in X'$. By a symmetric argument, among the shortest strings in $Y$, there is some $y$ with $ay \in Y'$.

We will ensure termination when presenting our learner but will assume it for now. We are now going to state the main result of this section.

Theorem 1. $A_T$ is the universal automaton for $L(A_T)$.

We prove this by two lemmata. The first, Lemma 15, shows that the states of $A_T$ satisfy the defining property of universal automata. This is sufficient for the claim, as the second, Lemma 16, shows that the states correspond to factors of the language recognized by $A_T$.

Lemma 15. For states $\langle X, Y \rangle, \langle X', Y' \rangle \in Q_T$ and the symbol $a \in \Sigma$, the transition $\langle X, Y \rangle, a, \langle X', Y' \rangle \in \delta_T$ if and only if $P_{\langle X, Y \rangle} \cdot \{a\} \cdot F_{\langle X', Y' \rangle} \subseteq L(A_T)$.

Proof. The “only if” direction follows from the definition of $\delta_T$, and of the past and future languages of a state.

The “if” direction is shown as follows. Due to Lemma 10 $X \subseteq P_{\langle X, Y \rangle}$ and $Y' \subseteq F_{\langle X', Y' \rangle}$. Hence, $X \cdot \{a\} \cdot Y' \subseteq L(A_T)$. Due to the $T$-consistency of $A_T$, for all $s \in X$ and all $e \in Y'$ we have $\text{obs}_s(s, e) = 1$, meaning that $sae \in L$. Hence, $\langle \langle X, Y \rangle, a, \langle X', Y' \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T$. □

Lemma 16. For all $q \in Q_T$, the pair $\langle P_q, F_q \rangle$ is a factor of $L(A_T)$.

Proof. To prove the claim, we can assume $T = (S, E, \text{obs})$ to be saturated by Lemma 13. In the following, let $q = \langle X, Y \rangle$. Clearly, $\langle P_q, F_q \rangle$ is a subfactor of $L(A_T)$. To violate maximality, there is some $s \notin P_q$ with $\{s\} \cdot F_q \subseteq L(A_T)$ or some $e \notin F_q$ with $P_q \{e\} \subseteq L(A_T)$. By symmetry, it is sufficient to discuss the first of these cases. So, we will prove by induction on the length of $s$ that whenever we have $\{s\} \cdot F_q \subseteq L(A_T)$ we also have $s \in P_q$.

Assume then that $\{s\} \cdot F_q \subseteq L(A_T)$, from which we obtain $\{s\} \cdot Y \subseteq L(A_T)$ by applying Lemma 10. If $s = \varepsilon$ then $F_q \subseteq L$, and hence $q$ is an initial state and $\varepsilon$ is trivially in $P_q$. This proves the base case of the induction.

For the inductive step, assume the claim to be true for all $s$ of length up to $n$ and consider some $s = ua$ of length $n + 1$. Let $\delta_T^r(s) = \{\langle X_i, Y_i \rangle \mid 1 \leq i \leq r\}$
for some \( r \in \mathbb{N} \). As \( \{s \} \cdot \mathcal{F}_q \subseteq \mathcal{L}(A_T) \), we have \( \delta_T(s) \neq \emptyset \) and moreover \( \mathcal{F}_q \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^r \mathcal{F}_{(X_i,Y_i)} \). By Lemma 12 this yields

\[
Y \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^r Y_i.
\]

Let us consider certain factors of \( T \) in sequence:

- For every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \), let \( (Z_i, W_i) \in \delta_T(u) \) and \( \langle \langle Z_i, W_i \rangle, a, \langle X_i, Y_i \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T \).

- For every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \), let \( X'_i = S[Y_i \cap Y] \supseteq X'_i \cup X \) and \( Y'_i = Y_i \cap Y \). Since \( Y_i \) and \( Y \) overlap, this factor exists, and as \( Y_i \cap Y \subseteq Y_i \), we have \( \langle \langle Z_i, W_i \rangle, a, \langle X'_i, Y'_i \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T \).

- Let \( (Z, W) \) fulfil \( Z = \bigcap_{i=1}^r Z_i \) and \( W = E[\bigcap_{i=1}^r Z_i] \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^r W_i \). Since \( u \in \bigcap_{i=1}^r \mathcal{P}_{(Z_i, W_i)} \), the intersection \( Z = \bigcap_{i=1}^r Z_i \) is not empty, as \( T \) is saturated and due to Lemma 13. Moreover, these are factors by Lemma 6. Furthermore, \( \langle \langle Z, W \rangle, a, \langle X, Y \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T \), as we have that \( zy \in L \) for every \( z \in Z \) and \( y \in Y \).

Now, \( \{u\} \cdot \mathcal{F}_{(Z, W)} \subseteq \mathcal{L}(A_T) \), and thus \( u \in \mathcal{P}_{(Z, W)} \) by the induction hypothesis. In combination with \( \langle \langle Z, W \rangle, a, \langle X, Y \rangle \rangle \in \delta_T \), we obtain \( s \in \mathcal{P}_{(X, Y)} \).

This concludes the proof of Theorem 1, which constitutes the backbone of our learning algorithm, which we are going to present in the following section.

### 5. Inference algorithm

We propose the following learning algorithm for the inference of universal automata within the MAT model. We assume that the target alphabet \( \Sigma \) is given to the learner in advance.

**Initialization.** The learner starts out with an initial table \( T_0 = \langle S_0, E_0, \text{obs}_0 \rangle \), defined by \( S_0 = E_0 = \{\varepsilon\} \).

**Loop.** The table \( T_i \) is completed using MQs, and made stable and saturated using \texttt{MakeStable} and \texttt{MakeSaturated}. The synthesized automaton \( A_{T_i} \) is passed to the teacher through an EQ. If the teacher accepts \( A_{T_i} \) as the universal automaton for the target language \( L \), then the algorithm terminates successfully. Otherwise, the learner receives a counterexample \( w_i \). In this case, it adds all prefixes of \( w_i \) to \( S_i \) and all suffixes to \( E_i \), before reentering the loop with the updated table \( T_{i+1} \).

We give an example runs of our learner in Appendix 7.1. This algorithm satisfies a number of properties which we state in a sequence of lemmata. First of all, recall that due to Lemma 11 the learner’s hypothesis automaton \( A_T \) is always \( T \)-consistent. Furthermore, we have:
Lemma 17. Either $\mathcal{L}(A_{T_0}) = \emptyset$ or there is some subset $A \subseteq \Sigma$ such that $\mathcal{L}(A_{T_0}) = A^*$.

Proof. When constructing $T_0$, the algorithm checks if $\varepsilon \in L$ via an MQ. If $\varepsilon \not\in L$ then the automaton $A_{T_0}$ will have an empty state set $Q_0$ and no transitions. If $\varepsilon \in L$ then $A_{T_0}$ will have a singleton state set $Q_0$. In that case we also have $I_0 = F_0 = Q_0$. Upon building the transitions of $A_{T_0}$, the algorithm first checks if any $a \in \Sigma$ is in the target language $L$ (via MQs) and adds loop transitions to the only state accordingly. If $L \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$, no loop transitions are added, which is reflected by the case $A = \emptyset$ in the formulation of the claim. \hfill \square

The languages mentioned in Lemma 17 are exactly those that can be accepted by any universal automaton with at most one state, which shows that our algorithm would need only one equivalence query for the corresponding target automata.

Lemma 18. For each $i \geq 0$, if $A_{T_{i+1}}$ is presented as a hypothesis, then there is an injective embedding $f_i : Q_i \to Q_{i+1}$ with the property that whenever $(X, Y) \to (X', Y')$ then $X = X' \cap S_i$ and $Y = Y' \cap E_i$. A similar statement is true for the intermediate automata obtained before calling MakeStable or MakeSaturated.

Proof. The proof makes use of notation from Section 3. First, observe that $T_i = T_{i+1}|_{S_i \times E_i}$. Clearly, $Q_i = \text{fac}(T_i)$ is a factor cover of $T_i$. Hence, Lemmas 3 and 5 provide an injective embedding into some factor cover of $T_{i+1}$ which is clearly contained in $Q_{i+1} = \text{fac}(T_{i+1})$. The claimed properties $X = X' \cap S_i$ and $Y = Y' \cap E_i$ translate from Lemma 5. \hfill \square

Lemma 19. For each $i \geq 0$, if the automaton $A_{T_{i+1}}$ is presented as a hypothesis and if the embedding $f_i : Q_i \to Q_{i+1}$ is bijective then $f_i^{-1} : Q_{i+1} \to Q_i$ is an automaton morphism. Moreover, the induced mapping $d_i : \delta_{T_{i+1}} \to \delta_{T_i}$ is injective.

Proof. To avoid a special case, observe that since our algorithm always makes progress in the sense of changing its hypothesis between two rounds, no set of states and no set of transitions considered in this lemma can be empty, as the only possibility to obtain the empty language or the language $\{\varepsilon\}$ as a hypothesis would be with $A_{T_0}$; we refer to Lemma 17. It remains to show that, whenever there is an $a$-transition from $q$ to $p$ in $A_{T_{i+1}}$, then there is an $a$-transition between the corresponding states $f_i^{-1}(q)$ and $f_i^{-1}(p)$.

More concretely, we know that $q, p \in \text{fac}(T_{i+1})$, i.e., $q = \langle X_q, Y_q \rangle$ and $p = \langle X_p, Y_p \rangle$. Moreover, Lemma 5 explains that $f_i^{-1}(q) = q' = \langle X'_q, Y'_q \rangle$ with $X'_q = X_q \cap S_i$ and $f_i^{-1}(p) = p' = \langle X'_p, Y'_p \rangle$ with $X'_p = X_p \cap E_i$. By definition, $(q, a, p) \in \delta_{T_{i+1}}$ if $xay \in L$ for all $x \in X_q$ and all $y \in Y_p$. Hence, we have $xay \in L$ for all $x \in X'_q$ and $y \in Y'_p$, so that $(q, a, p) \in \delta_{T_{i+1}}$ implies $(q', a, p') \in \delta_{T_i}$ as claimed. Clearly, $d_i : (q, a, p) \mapsto (q', a, p') \in \delta_{T_i}$ is injective since $f_i$ is a bijection. \hfill \square

Let $U_L$ be the universal automaton for the target language $L$ with state set $Q = \text{fac}(L)$. The following assertion can be seen by the same arguments as in the proof of Lemma 18.
Lemma 20. For each \( i \geq 0 \), if \( \mathcal{A}_{T+i} \) is presented as a hypothesis then there exists an injective embedding \( f_i : Q_i \rightarrow Q \) with the property that whenever \( \langle X, Y \rangle \mapsto \langle X', Y' \rangle \) then \( X = X' \cap S_i \) and \( Y = Y' \cap E_i \).

Theorem 2. The algorithm converges to the target automaton \( \mathcal{U}_L \) after at most \( \max\{1, |\Sigma| n^3\} \) many equivalence queries, where \( n \) is the number of states of \( \mathcal{U}_L \).

Proof. Due to Lemma 20, any hypothesis automaton has at most as many states as \( \mathcal{U}_L \). Moreover, Lemma 18 shows that \( n_i \leq n_{i+1} \), where \( n_i = |Q_i| \) is the number of states of the \( j \)th hypothesis. This together with Theorem 1 and the fact that universal automata are unique up to renaming of states shows that the learning algorithm will finally yield the target automaton \( \mathcal{U}_L \). In the following reasoning, let \( m_j \) denote the number of transitions of the \( j \)th hypothesis. Clearly, \( m_j \leq |\Sigma| n_j^2 \). Since we always have \( \mathcal{A}_j \neq \mathcal{A}_{j+1} \) due to the received counterexamples, we can observe two kinds of progress: The first kind is when \( n_j < n_{j+1} \). Since \( n_{j+1} \leq n \), this kind of progress can occur at most \( n \) times. The second is when \( n_j = n_{j+1} \) but \( m_j > m_{j+1} \). This case is due to Lemma 19. Since \( m_j \leq |\Sigma| n_j^2 \leq |\Sigma| n^2 \), the second kind of progress can occur at most \( |\Sigma| n^2 \) times. When combined, the two observations yield the claimed rate of convergence.

Remark 5. An argument similar to the proof of Theorem 2, based on Lemma 18, shows that the procedures \texttt{MakeStable} and \texttt{MakeSaturated} terminate, as they will always either increase the number of states or add only a small number of table entries a fixed number of times. More precisely, if we have a smart teacher that never provides us with unnecessarily long counterexamples, then the length of any counterexample is bounded by the number \( n \) of states of the target automaton. So, each update necessary after an equivalence query would add at most \( n \) rows and \( n \) columns to the table. Due to Lemma 4, \texttt{MakeStable} allows a similar estimate. \texttt{MakeSaturated} might add in the worst case \( n \) rows and \( n \) columns per case (given by two factors \( p = \langle X, Y \rangle \) and \( q = \langle X', Y' \rangle \) such that \( XaY' \subseteq L \) and \( xa \not\in X' \) for all \( x \in X \)), and there could be at most a quadratic number of cases, as we would repair each case by selecting a smallest \( t \in X \) and adding \( ta \) to \( X' \). So, at most a cubic number of rows and columns are added here. This dominates the worst case, so that we can conclude that a cubic number of times, at most a cubic number of rows and columns are added to the table. This shows that there are at most \( O(n^6) \) rows and columns in the observation table at the termination of the learning algorithm, so that the table contains at most \( O(n^{12}) \) many entries, which also upper-bounds the total number of membership queries ever made by the algorithm. Of course, if the teacher is not so smart, bigger tables might occur.

6. Discussions, conclusions and future research

We have presented a novel MAT learner for regular languages. In this section, we are going to explain some connections and differences to alternative MAT learners and also point to directions of future research.
6.1. Comparison with other MAT learners

To discuss similarities and differences to the famous LSTAR learner of [1], we introduce some more notations. Let \( T = \langle S, E, \text{obs} \rangle \) be an observation table. For \( s \in S \), let \( \text{row}[s] = \{ e \in E \mid \text{obs}(s, e) = 1 \} \). Slightly abusing the notation introduced in Sec. 3, \( \langle \{ s \}, \text{row}[s] \rangle \) is the factor induced by \( \{ s \} \), as \( \text{row}[s] = E[\{ s \}] \) is the right-maximal subfactor of \( \{ s \} \). For \( \text{row}[s] \neq \emptyset \), let \( \langle S[\text{row}[s]], \text{row}[s] \rangle \) be the \textit{row factor} of \( s \). Likewise, let \( \text{col}[e] = \{ s \in S \mid \text{obs}(s, e) = 1 \} \) and \( \langle \text{col}[e], E[\text{col}[e]] \rangle \) be the \textit{column factor} of \( e \). Let \( \mathcal{R} \) and \( \mathcal{C} \) collect all row and column factors, respectively.

**Remark 6.** If \( \langle X, Y \rangle \) is any factor, then \( \langle X, Y \rangle \in \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{C} \). This also gives an algorithm for computing \( \text{fac}(T) \): As long as there exists some yet uncovered \( (s,e) \) with \( \text{obs}(s,e) = 1 \), compute the row and column factor of \( s \) resp. \( e \) and add them to the cover.

**Remark 7.** If LSTAR constructs a hypothesis from \( T \), then the hypothesized automaton has as state set \( \mathcal{R} \). By way of contrast, our algorithm’s hypothesis automaton \( A_T \) has state set \( \text{fac}(T) = \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{C} \).

Another difference lies in the definition of a transition function for LSTAR. Define \( \text{row}[s]_a = \{ e \in E \mid \text{obs}_a(s, e) = 1 \} \) for \( a \in \Sigma \). We obtain a transition \( \langle s, a, s' \rangle \) for \( s, s' \in S \) and \( a \in \Sigma \) if \( \text{row}[s]_a = \text{row}[s'] \). If for all \( a \in \Sigma \) and all \( s \in S \) there is some \( s' \in S \) with \( \text{row}[s]_a = \text{row}[s'] \) then we call \( T \) closed and all states in the resulting automaton are reachable. If for all \( a \in \Sigma \) and all \( s, s' \in S \) with \( \text{row}[s] = \text{row}[s'] \) we have \( \text{row}[s]_a = \text{row}[s']_a \) then we call \( T \) consistent and the resulting automaton is deterministic. Note that this way of constructing an automaton from an observation table surely differs from our method.

We compare a run of LSTAR and of our learner in the appendix, assuming that the teacher gives the same counterexample to both learners whenever possible. We observe that our learner needs the same number of EQs as LSTAR does; however, the purpose of the EQ is different, as our learner somehow gathers the information LSTAR gets by an EQ already when making the table saturated. We leave it for future (implementation) work to compare the work of both learners through experimental studies.

Another MAT learner which we could compare to ours is the learner for residual finite-state automata (RFSA) in Bollig et al. [2]. The canonical RFSA for a language \( L \) can also be exponentially more succinct than the state-minimal DFA, and is as most as big. In this case, the derivation of an automaton from a table is still based on the concept of rows but the notion of identity between rows (equality between sets) is replaced by a covering relation (subset relation). In case of successful learning, only equivalence classes of \( L \) that are strict supersets of the union of all other classes they contain are admitted as states. So, in a sense, this type of automata fit less well into our framework, discussing factors of tables etc. However, it might be an idea to translate the mentioned covering relation to our more general setting as a line of future research.
6.2. Upper bounds on the number of equivalence queries

We underline that while Bollig et al. [2], Denis et al. [12], Yokomori [20] all refer to the state-minimal deterministic automaton when indicating the (polynomial) complexity of their respective learners for various kinds of special NFA, we give an algorithm with polynomial runtime in terms of the non-deterministic target automaton. We conjecture that there is a close connection to the notion of polynomial characterizability by [11] – this property is fulfilled by DFA but not by NFA in general (modulo the complexity-theoretic assumption that $P \neq NP$) [11], nor by residual finite-state automata [2] (also see [16] for more discussion). We surmise that for universal automata it is again fulfilled, which would yield a further explanation for our advantageous result.

6.3. Comments on distributional learning

Also note that our way of deriving an automaton from an observation table differs from those in [1] or [2] for residual finite-state automata (RSFA) inasmuch as we do not base it on rows alone (originally formulated as sequences of 0s and 1s induced by the labeling sets) but on concrete subsets of the labeling sets, along with the respective consequences. However, this approach is quite close to the notion of distributional learning developed by Clark [6, 7] for context-free grammars (a MAT learner for CFGs can be found in [8]).

Let us finally remark that also the framework developed by Clark in a series of papers, e.g., Clark [5, 6, 9] fits into the framework developed in Sec. 3. In its basic setting, Clark associates to each language $L$ the set of subwords $Sub(L) = \{u \in \Sigma^* | \exists l, r \in \Sigma^* : lur \in L\}$ and the set of contexts $\mathcal{C}(L) = \{(l, r) \in \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^* | \exists u \in \Sigma^* : lur \in L\}$. Let $U = Sub(\Sigma^*)$ and $V = \mathcal{C}(\Sigma^*)$. Then, $L$ again yields a target $T = \{(u, (l, r)) | lur \in L\}$. The lattice structure mentioned in Remark 2 is central to Clark’s approach. To generalize the learning strategies that we develop for universal automata towards such targets would be a challenging question for future research.

6.4. Generalizing the setting: alternative learning scenarios and objects

As indicated in the last sections of [17], we may find that a generalization of our approach towards the learning of subsets of monoids, not only free monoids, is possible. We are only aware of text learning results for algebraic structures, see [19]. We also encourage to further our approach to learning other structures such as trees, matrices of symbols, or tuples of strings.

Alternatively, we can look into other learning models, taking universal automata as our target descriptions. For instance, see [13] for an alternative universal automata learner from positive and negative examples relying on the state merging paradigm.

The presentation of LSTAR in terms of our approach resembles [10]. In particular, LSTAR factor covers are described by the row set $\mathcal{R}$ and hence satisfy:
Each \((s, e) \in S \times E\) with \(se \in L\) is covered by exactly one \((X, E[X]) \in \mathcal{E}(Q)\), where \(s\) uniquely determines \(X\) (equivalence class decomposition of \(S\)).

This coincides with what Courcelle et al. \cite{10} Def. 1.4 call a deterministic decomposition. They observe that there are always canonical (minimal) such decompositions and they also show that these naturally correspond to state-minimal DFAs, i.e., the hypothesis space of the LSTAR algorithm, which provides an alternative explanation of some of the results of \cite{1}. These connections are interesting, all the more so as \cite{10} also provide applications of their approach to certain kinds of top-down tree automata and to regular \(\omega\)-languages. From a formal-language point of view, this raises the question if objects like universal automata exist in those contexts as well. From the viewpoint of Grammatical Inference, developing MAT learning algorithms for such universal automata would then be the challenge.

We hope to report on implementations of our algorithm soon, possibly integrated within existing frameworks like LearnLib \cite{18} or Libalf \cite{3}.

References


\[6\] A. Clark. Learning context-free grammars with the syntactic concept lattice. In International Colloquium on Grammatical Inference, ICGI, volume 6339 of LNCS, pages 38–51. Springer, 2010.


7. Appendix

7.1. A run of our learner and a run of LSTAR

We assume familiarity with Angluin’s learner LSTAR for DFA [1].
Let the target language be \( L = \{a\}\{a, b\}^* \). LSTAR starts out with a table

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\varepsilon & 0 \\
 a & 1 \\
b & 0 \\
\end{array}
\]

and then closes it to obtain

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\varepsilon & 0 \\
a & 1 \\
b & 0 \\
aa & 1 \\
ab & 1 \\
\end{array}
\]

which yields its first hypothesis as shown in Figure 1 with states \( p = \langle 0 \rangle \) and \( q = \langle 1 \rangle \).

Meanwhile, our learner starts out with a table

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\varepsilon & 0 \\
\end{array}
\]

and derives from it the automaton \( \langle \Sigma, \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle \). Observe that the table is stable, as is any table with \( |S| = |E| = 1 \), and that it is saturated, as it has no table factors at all. Let us say that the teacher reacts with the (shortest possible) counterexample \( a \). The learner builds a table

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\varepsilon & a \\
 a & 1 \\
\end{array}
\]

This table has the factors \( p = \langle \{\varepsilon, a\}, \{a\} \rangle \) and \( q = \langle \{a\}, \{\varepsilon, a\} \rangle \). Clearly, this table is stable. We did not yet check for the saturation property. This amounts in checking the following cases, looking in each positive case for a saturation
witnesses, i.e., for every pair of table factors \( \langle X, Y \rangle, \langle X', Y' \rangle \) with \( XaY' \subseteq L \), some strings \( x \in X \) and \( y \in Y \) must be found such that \( xa \in X' \) and \( ay \in Y \). (Of course, the same should hold for the letter \( b \).)

- Consider \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{ \varepsilon, a \}, \{ a \} \rangle \). Clearly, \( \{ \varepsilon, a \} \cdot a \cdot \{ a \} \subseteq L \) is true. \( x = \varepsilon \) is a saturation witness for \( xa \in X' \), but \( aY' = \{ aa \} \), so that \( aY' \cap Y = \emptyset \). The procedure MakeSaturated(T) adds \( aa \) to \( E \), so that we obtain the following extended table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \varepsilon )</th>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>( aa )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table has the factors \( x = \langle \{ \varepsilon, a \}, \{ a, aa \} \rangle \) and \( y = \langle \{ a \}, \{ \varepsilon, a, aa \} \rangle \). By construction, \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{ \varepsilon, a \}, \{ a, aa \} \rangle \) now has the required two saturation witnesses on \( a \)-transitions.

- Check \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{ \varepsilon, a \}, \{ a, aa \} \rangle \) on a \( b \)-transition. As \( ba \in \{ \varepsilon, a \} \cdot b \cdot \{ a, aa \} \) but \( ba \notin L \), the saturation condition is fulfilled. Observe that whenever (later) the state \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle \) is extended (by adding strings to \( X \) or \( Y \)), this saturation property will still hold, as the same example would work. This also shows that there is no \( b \)-loop at the corresponding state of the automaton.

- Check \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{ a \}, \{ \varepsilon, a, aa \} \rangle \) on an \( a \)-transition. Clearly, \( \{ a \} \cdot a \cdot \{ \varepsilon, a, aa \} \subseteq L \) is true. \( x = a \) is the only possible saturation witness, with \( xa = aa \notin X' \). Hence, MakeSaturated(T) adds \( aa \) to \( S \), so that we obtain the following extended table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \varepsilon )</th>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>( aa )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( aa )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We now study \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{ a, aa \}, \{ \varepsilon, a, aa \} \rangle \) on an \( a \)-transition. Fortunately, \( y = \varepsilon \) is a saturation witness with \( ay = a \in Y' \).

- Look at \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{ a, aa \}, \{ \varepsilon, a, aa \} \rangle \) on a \( b \)-transition. As \( \{ a, aa \} \cdot b \cdot \{ \varepsilon, a, aa \} \subseteq L \), we have to dig a bit deeper. As neither \( ab \) nor \( aab \) are in \( X' \), we have to add another row \( ab \) by MakeSaturated(T), yielding:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \varepsilon )</th>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>( aa )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( aa )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ab )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
So we consider \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{a, aa, ab\}, \{\varepsilon, a, aa\} \rangle \) on a \( b \)-transition. As neither of \( b \) or \( ba \) or \( baa \) is in \( Y \), we add another column labeled \( b \):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \varepsilon )</th>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>( aa )</th>
<th>( b )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( aa )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ab )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- We now consider \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{a, aa\} \rangle \) and \( \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{\varepsilon, a, aa\} \rangle \) on \( a \)-transitions. As \( X \cdot a \cdot Y' \subseteq L \), we need saturation witnesses. \( x = \varepsilon \) satisfies \( x \in X \), \( xa = a \in X' \). \( y = \varepsilon \) satisfies \( y \in Y' \), \( ay = a \in Y \).
- We now consider \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{a, aa\} \rangle \) and \( \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{a, aa\} \rangle \) on \( b \)-transitions. As \( b \in \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\} \cdot b \cdot \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\} \), the premise \( X \cdot b \cdot Y' \subseteq L \) is not satisfied.
- We turn our attention to the two factors \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{a, aa\} \rangle \) and \( \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{a, aa\} \rangle \) on \( a \)-transitions. As \( X \cdot a \cdot Y' \subseteq L \), we need saturation witnesses. \( x = a \) and \( y = a \) will do.
- Consider \( \langle X, Y \rangle = \langle \{a, aa, ab\}, \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\} \rangle \) and \( \langle X', Y' \rangle = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{a, aa\} \rangle \) on \( b \)-transitions. As \( X \cdot a \cdot Y' \subseteq L \), we need saturation witnesses. While \( x = a \) is such a witness, we must (once more) call MakeSaturated(\( T \)) which adds \( ba \) to \( E \) to ensure the existence of a saturation witness for the second case.

Finally, we end up with the following table \( T \):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \varepsilon )</th>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>( aa )</th>
<th>( b )</th>
<th>( ba )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( aa )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ab )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So, finally we have a saturated table, which corresponds to a DFA \( A_T \) with states

\( p = \langle \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ab\}, \{a, aa\} \rangle \) and

\( q = \langle \{a, aa, ab\}, \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ba\} \rangle \).

As we have seen in our reasoning concerning saturation, \( A_T \) has the following transitions:

- \( \langle p, a, p \rangle \), \( \langle p, a, q \rangle \),
- \( \langle q, a, q \rangle \), \( \langle q, b, q \rangle \), \( \langle q, a, p \rangle \), \( \langle q, b, p \rangle \).

The according automaton graph is depicted in Figure 2. As there are \( a \)- and \( b \)-transitions leading into \( p \) and \( q \), the automaton is strongly reachable and is in
fact the hypothesis presented by our learning algorithm. As this hypothesis is correct, the learning process terminates.

Conversely, LSTAR is not yet ready. Let the next given counterexample be $ba$. LSTAR reacts to the counterexample $ba$ by building a closed table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\varepsilon$</th>
<th>$a$</th>
<th>$ba$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\varepsilon$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$aa$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ab$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$ba$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$bb$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and obtains the FA shown in Figure 3 with states $p = (0,1,0)$, $q = (1,1,1)$, and $r = (0,0,0)$, which is the state-minimal total DFA for $L$. Omitting the trash state $r$, we arrive at Figure 4, which is obviously a subautomaton of the last (correct) hypothesis of our learner.
7.2. An example for $A_T \neq H_T$

The language $L$ contains all strings except those that have a 0 in the following table $T_L$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\varepsilon$</th>
<th>$a$</th>
<th>$b$</th>
<th>$bb$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\varepsilon$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$aa$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Let us consider a table $T$ for $L$ as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\varepsilon$</th>
<th>$a$</th>
<th>$b$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\varepsilon$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We have factors $q = (\{\varepsilon, a, b\}, \{a\})$ and $p = (\{a\}, \{\varepsilon, a\})$ and $r = (\{b\}, \{a, b\})$. The automaton $A_T$ is given in Figure 5. We find that the factor $r$ is not reachable. As a consequence, $A_T$ would not accept $bb$ and is thus not $T$-consistent. However, we remark that in a run of our learner no intermediate stage would yield such a table. The learner starts out with $T_0$:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\varepsilon$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\varepsilon$</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
then gets for example the (shortest) counterexample \( a \) and builds \( T_1 \):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \varepsilon )</th>
<th>( a )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The automaton \( A_{T_1} \) is exactly the trimmed version of \( A_T \) we have derived from the “problematic table” \( T \). Mind that \( A_{T_1} \) already contains \( b \)-transitions as the learner checks them via MQs. However, \( bb \) is not yet in the table and can be given as a counterexample.

7.3. **MakeSaturated can introduce new states**

Let us revisit the example from Sec.7.1 again. If we consider the language \( L' = \{a\} (a, b)^* \setminus \{a^3\} \), then our learning algorithm could behave as described with \( L = \{a\} (a, b)^* \) up to the point when the first time **MakeSaturated** will add some column. This would now lead to the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \varepsilon )</th>
<th>( a )</th>
<th>( aa )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clearly, we now have three table factors.