A New and Useful Syntactic Restriction on Rule Semantics for Tabular Data

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Abstract

Different rule semantics have been defined successively in many contexts such as functional dependencies in databases or association rules in data mining to mention a few. In this paper, we focus on the class of rule semantics for tabular data for which Armstrong's axiom system is sound and complete, so-called *well-formed semantics*. The main contribution of this paper is to show that an *equivalence* does exist between some syntactic restrictions on the natural definition of a given semantics and the fact that this semantics is well-formed. From a practical point of view, this equivalence allows to prove easily whether or not a new semantics is well-formed. Moreover, the same reasoning on rules can be performed over any well-formed semantics.

We also point out the relationship between our generic definition of rule satisfaction and the underlying data mining problem, i.e. given a well-formed semantics and

a relation, discover a cover of rules satisfied in this relation.

This work takes its roots from a bioinformatics application, the discovery of gene regulatory networks from gene expression data.

Keywords Rules, implications, Armstrong's axiom system, data mining.

1 Introduction

The notion of *rules* or *implications* is very popular and appears in different flavors in databases, data mining or artificial intelligence communities. The two more famous examples of rules are association rules [5] and functional dependencies [7]. As such, a simple remark can be done on such rules: their syntax is the same but their semantics widely differs. In this paper, we consider rules to be defined on *tabular datasets*. Basically, tabular dataset is equivalent to a *relation* over a set U of distinguished at-

tributes (or columns) in databases terminology [1]. In this context, a *rule* is an expression of the shape $X \rightarrow Y$ i.e. "X implies Y" with $X, Y \subseteq U$.

The *semantics* of a rule $X \rightarrow Y$ over U is the *meaning*, the *sense* one wants to give to this rule: Given a relation r , a rule $X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be *satisfied* in r if the semantics of the rule is true (or valid) in r . We identified three main components to specify a semantics for rules in a relation: The type of the data, the subsets of the relation on which the rule applies and the predicates occurring in the "if... then..." part of the rule. We proposed in this paper a natural and "generic" definition of a semantics in order to be able to capture most of existing semantics already known on tabular data.

Note that error measures and quality measures are not taken into account in our generic definition of a semantics. These measures can be generally applied to many different semantics and do not belong to what we believe to be the core definition of a rule semantics. Moreover, we do not want to define as many semantics as there are measures. In a data mining context, error and quality measures can be integrated a posteriori to sort and to qualify the rules.

Furthermore, we focus on those semantics verifying Armstrong's axioms, so-called "well-formed semantics" [4], i.e. semantics for rules on which Armstrong's axiom system applies. The practical interests are twofold:

- Firstly, *reasoning* can be performed on rules from the Armstrong's axioms. For instance, given a set of rules F , it is possible to know if a rule is *implied* by this set of rules in linear time [11].
- It is also possible to work on "small" *covers* of rules [27, 19, 18] and to use a discovery process specific to the considered cover, but applicable to *all* well-formed semantics.

Paper contribution The contribution of this paper is to show that an *equivalence* does exist between some syntactic restrictions on the natural definition of a given semantics and the fact that this semantics is *well-formed*.

From a practical point of view, this equivalence allows to prove easily that a new semantics is well-formed: So far, for a given semantics, we had to give a proof of the soundness and the completeness of the Armstrong's axiom system for this semantics, this proof being not always trivial. Now, it is just enough to show that this semantics complies with the proposed syntactic restrictions.

We also point out the relationship between our generic definition of rule satisfaction and the underlying data mining problem, i.e. given a well-formed semantics and a relation, discover a cover of rules satisfied in this relation. More precisely, we show how a base of the closure system for any well-formed semantics can be computed from the dataset.

Application This work takes its roots from a bioinformatics application, the discovery of gene regulatory networks from gene expression data. The challenge is to find out relationships between genes that reflect observations of how expression level of each gene affects those of others. The conjecture that association rules could be a model for the discovery of gene regulatory networks has been partially validated in [10, 21, 14, 13]. Nevertheless, we believe that many different kinds of rules between genes could be useful with respect to some biological objectives and the restricted setting of association rules could be not enough to cope with this diversity. Three different types of rules were already proposed in [3] for gene expression data.

In this context, the main application of this paper is to offer a framework in which biologists may define their "own customized semantics" for rules with regard to their requirements. Once a semantics is proved well-formed, i.e. this semantics just complies with the proposed syntactic restrictions, well-known inference methods on rules can be performed for biologists.

This work has been intended for gene expression data, however, in this paper we extend our proposition to all types of tabular data.

Paper organization We give in Section 2 some examples of rule semantics. In Section 3, we propose a natural definition of a semantics using some syntactic restric-

tions. In Section 4, we further restrict the syntax and give the main result of this paper. We point out in Section 5 some relationships between our proposition and the underlying data mining problem. In Section 6, we give the related contributions of this work and finally, we conclude and give some perspectives in Section 7.

2 Motivating examples

To show the interest of our proposition, we give in the sequel four examples of semantics for tabular data, some of them in the context of gene expression data [3]. These examples show that many rule semantics can be defined.

Let r be a relation over U and $X, Y \in U$ two subsets of attributes. In the context of gene expression data, an attribute is a gene and the domain of attributes is the set of real numbers.

Example 1 Let s_1 be a semantics studying for example the levels of expression of genes, s_1 can be defined as follows, using two user-supplied thresholds ε_1 and ε_2 :

$r \models_{s_1} X \rightarrow Y$ if and only if $\forall t \in r$, if $\forall A \in X, \varepsilon_1 \leq t[A] \leq \varepsilon_2$ then $\forall A \in Y, \varepsilon_1 \leq t[A] \leq \varepsilon_2$.

This semantics points out a semantics close to association rules without discretization phase.

□

Example 2 Let s_2 be a semantics studying for example the evolution of gene expression

levels, s_2 can be defined as follows, using two user-supplied thresholds ε_1 and ε_2 :

$r \models_{s_2} X \rightarrow Y$ if and only if $\forall t_i, t_{i+1} \in r$, if $\forall A \in X, \varepsilon_1 \leq t_{i+1}[A] - t_i[A] \leq \varepsilon_2$ then $\forall A \in Y, \varepsilon_1 \leq t_{i+1}[A] - t_i[A] \leq \varepsilon_2$.

Note that an *order* has to exist among tuples, such a constraint being implicitly expressed with indices on tuples.

□

Example 3 Let s_d be a new semantics studying the Euclidian distance between for example gene expression profiles, s_d can be defined as follows, using two user-supplied thresholds ε_1 and ε_2 :

$r \models_{s_d} X \rightarrow Y$ if and only if $\forall t_i, t_j \in r$, if $\varepsilon_1 \leq d(t_i[X], t_j[X]) \leq \varepsilon_2$ then $\varepsilon_1 \leq d(t_i[Y], t_j[Y]) \leq \varepsilon_2$.

□

These various examples show that with the same syntax, a rule may have very different meanings and from the same dataset, several semantics can be defined and interesting for the experts.

3 Well-formed semantics

We identified three components in the definition of a semantics for rules in a relation:

- The type of the data: Rule semantics can be generally applied for some restricted types of data, for example binary or categorical attributes, temporal data, presence of classes... The nature of the data being analyzed clearly influences the definition of a semantics.

- The subsets of the relation on which a rule applies: An important characteristic of a semantics is the condition on tuples to take into account. We can for example study tuples one by one (like association rules), we can do a pairwise comparison of tuples (like functional dependencies) or compare the tuple i with the tuple $i+1$ or the tuple i with the tuples j where $j > i$... The semantics widely differ depending on these characteristics.

- The predicates occurring in the "if $Pred_1$ is true then $Pred_2$ is true" part of the rule: Predicates $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$ are defined on a set of attributes and a subset of the relation. Note that these two predicates can be the same. For example, for functional dependencies, the predicates can be formulated as: $[\forall A \in X, t_1[A] = t_2[A]]$, where t_1, t_2 are two tuples, and X is a subset of attributes. These predicates really give the meaning of the semantics.

A "generic" definition of a semantics based on these three components, is described in the sequel.

3.1 Generic definition of a semantics

Given a relation r , the *satisfaction* of a rule $X \rightarrow Y$ in r for a semantics s , noted $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$, can be defined in a general way as follows:

Definition 1 Let $X, Y \subseteq U$ and r a relation over U . The *satisfaction* of the rule $X \rightarrow Y$ in r for a semantics s , noted $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$, is defined by:
 $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$ if and only if $\forall r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$, if $Pred_1(X, r')$ is true then $Pred_2(Y, r')$ is true where:

1. $d_c(r')$ specifies a constraint which has to be verified over $r' \subseteq r$.
2. $Pred_1(X, r')$ (resp. $Pred_2(Y, r')$) is a predicate specifying a condition on X (resp. Y) over r' .

A semantics is thus characterized by a constraint d_c defined on a subset of tuples and by two predicates $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$ defined for a subset of attributes.

Predicates are logical expressions returning true **or** false. They are defined on X and r' **only**, no other attributes or subset of r are allowed in this definition.

The formal description of these logical expressions is quite important while being somewhat tedious. For the time being, we prefer to give the intuition through examples. In future works, we plan to give the formal definition of d_c , $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$.

Note that pathological predicates logically equivalent to true (or false) should be taken into account in our definition, but are useless in practice. In the sequel, such predicates will not be considered.

Example 4 The semantics s_1 presented in example 1 can be characterized by the con-

straint d_c and the predicate defined as follows:

1. $d_c(r') = [r' = \{t\} \text{ with } t \in r]$.
2. $Pred_1(X, \{t\}) = Pred_2(X, \{t\}) = [\forall A \in X, \varepsilon_1 \leq t[A] \leq \varepsilon_2]$.

□

In the sequel, we shall say that a semantics s *complies* with definition 1 if s can be syntactically expressed within the setting of definition 1.

Moreover, we shall note by C the class of rule semantics complying with definition 1.

It is worth noting that we do not integrate quality or error measures of a rule in the "core" definition of a semantics. Roughly speaking, two types of measures can characterize rules, error measures and quality measures:

- Error measures like for example confidence defined for association rules or error indications defined for functional dependencies [22], allow to append approximate rules to exact rules, i.e. those rules which are almost satisfied. These measures are very interesting since they allow to take into account noise in data.
- Quality measures like support, dependency or informative rate [5, 30], allow at contrary to limit the number of rules and possibly to sort out the obtained rules. These measures allow to give to the experts the rules which seem to be

the most surprising, the most "interesting" with regard to the chosen statistical criteria.

They can be integrated a posteriori to sort and to qualify the rules. Those error and quality measures will not be discussed anymore in the rest of this paper.

Example 5 The semantics s_2 belongs to C since it can be characterized by the constraint d_c and the predicate defined as follows:

1. $d_c(r') = [r' = \{t_i, t_{i+1}\} \text{ with } t_i, t_{i+1} \in r]$.
2. $Pred_1(X, \{t_i, t_{i+1}\}) = Pred_2(X, \{t_i, t_{i+1}\}) = [\forall A \in X, \varepsilon_1 \leq t_{i+1}[A] - t_i[A] \leq \varepsilon_2]$.

□

Example 6 The semantics s_d belongs to C since it can be characterized by the constraint d_c and the predicate defined as follows:

1. $d_c(r') = [r' = \{t_i, t_j\} \text{ with } t_i, t_j \in r]$.
2. $Pred_1(X, \{t_i, t_j\}) = Pred_2(X, \{t_i, t_j\}) = [\varepsilon_1 \leq d(t_i[X], t_j[X]) \leq \varepsilon_2]$.

□

To conclude, the definition 1 of a semantics has been devised as naturally as possible to capture a great variety of rules. Nevertheless, this definition does not accept everything as shown in the following example:

Example 7 Consider the semantics of inclusion dependencies defined as follows:

$r \models R[X] \subseteq R[Y]$ if and only if $\forall t \in r, \exists t' \in r$ such that $t[X] = t'[Y]$.

Due to the test $t[X] = t'[Y]$, a condition on X and Y 's attributes has to be specified i.e. $Pred_1$ (or $Pred_2$) has to use X and Y in its definition. Therefore, the satisfaction of inclusion dependencies cannot be expressed within definition 1, thus this semantics does not belong to C .

□

3.2 Framework of well-formed semantics

A general framework can be borrowed from theoretical investigations performed over functional dependencies and Armstrong's axiom system [28, 16]. This framework allows to resume interesting properties defined for functional dependencies like reasoning on rules and generating covers for rules.

To be sure that a semantics fulfills this framework, the notion of well-formed semantics can be defined as follows:

Definition 2 A semantics s is *well-formed* if Armstrong's axiom system is sound and complete for s .

Let us recall the Armstrong's axiom system for a set of rules F defined over a set of attributes U :

1. (reflexivity) if $X \subseteq Y \subseteq U$ then $F \vdash Y \rightarrow X$

2. (augmentation) if $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ and $W \subseteq U$, then $F \vdash XW \rightarrow YW$
3. (transitivity) if $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ and $F \vdash Y \rightarrow Z$ then $F \vdash X \rightarrow Z$

The notation $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ means that a proof of $X \rightarrow Y$ can be obtained using Armstrong's axiom system from F . Moreover, given a semantics s , the notation $F \models_s X \rightarrow Y$ means that for all relations r over U , if $r \models_s F$ then $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$.

In other words, for any well-formed semantics s , $\vdash$ and $\models_s$ coincide.

To know whether or not a given semantics is well-formed, we have to give a proof of the soundness and the completeness of the Armstrong's axiom system for this semantics.

This proof being not always trivial, the idea is to find further syntactic restrictions on rule satisfaction definition in order to ensure the well-formedness of the semantics.

4 More syntactic restrictions

In this setting, we propose some syntactic restrictions on the definition 1, which ensure that a semantics is well-formed. In other words, given a new semantics, we do not have to prove anything to be sure that Armstrong's axioms apply: It is just enough that the semantics complies with these syntactic restrictions.

Definition 3 Let $X, Y \subseteq U$ and r a relation over U . The *satisfaction* of the rule $X \rightarrow Y$ in r for a semantics s , noted $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$, is defined by:
 $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$ if and only if $\forall r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$, if $\forall A \in X$, $Pred(A, r')$ is true then $\forall A \in Y$, $Pred(A, r')$ is true where:

1. $d_c(r')$ specifies a constraint which has to be verified over $r' \subseteq r$.
2. $Pred(A, r')$ is a predicate specifying a condition on A over r' .

The first item of this new semantic definition does not change with regard to the definition 1. Nevertheless, the difference is twofold:

- Firstly, the two predicates $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$ are equivalent.
- Secondly, a restriction is posed on the predicate: Now, it must be satisfied for each *single attribute* $A \in X$ instead of being satisfied for the *subset of attributes* X .

Since two syntactically different definitions of predicates could be equivalent, we need to precisely define what "equivalent" means. Intuitively, two predicates are equivalent if for any relation r and for any subset of attributes $X \subseteq U$, $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$ are satisfied for X on the same subsets of r . Here is the formal definition:

Definition 4 Two predicates $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$ are said to be *equivalent*, denoted by $Pred_1 \equiv Pred_2$, if and only if for any

relation r and for any subset of attributes $X \subseteq U$, we have:

$\{r' \subseteq r \mid r' \text{ verifying } d_c(r') \text{ and } Pred_1(X, r') \text{ is true}\} = \{r' \subseteq r \mid r' \text{ verifying } d_c(r') \text{ and } Pred_2(X, r') \text{ is true}\}.$

In the sequel, we shall note by C_A the class of rule semantics complying with definition 3, C_A being a subset of C .

Recall that (trivial) semantics build from predicates logically equivalent to true (or false) are not considered in C .

4.1 Main result

The main result of the paper gives an equivalence between well-formed semantics and semantics complying with definition 3 and is stated as follows:

Theorem 1 Let $s \in C$ be a rule semantics. The semantics s is well-formed if and only if $s \in C_A$.

Proof 1 The proof is given in Appendix.

This theorem shows that among semantics complying with definition 1, only those complying with definition 3 are well-formed and any well-formed semantics can be expressed within the syntactic restrictions given in definition 3.

4.2 Usefulness of these syntactic restrictions

We shall point out the interest of this result through several examples.

Example 8 The semantics s_1 (see example 4), can be characterized by the constraint d_c and the predicate $Pred$ defined as follows:

1. $d_c(r') = [r' = \{t\} \text{ with } t \in r]$.
2. $Pred(A, \{t\}) = [\varepsilon_1 \leq t[A] \leq \varepsilon_2]$.

Thus, the semantics $s_1 \in C_A$ and this is sufficient from Theorem 1, to prove the following result:

Corollary 1 The semantics s_1 is well-formed.

□

Example 9 The semantics s_2 (see example 5), can be characterized by the constraint d_c and the predicate $Pred$ defined as follows:

1. $d_c(r') = [r' = \{t_i, t_{i+1}\} \text{ with } t_i, t_{i+1} \in r]$.
2. $Pred(A, \{t_i, t_{i+1}\}) = [\varepsilon_1 \leq t_{i+1}[A] - t_i[A] \leq \varepsilon_2]$.

Thus, the semantics $s_2 \in C_A$ and this is sufficient from Theorem 1, to prove the following result:

Corollary 2 The semantics s_2 is well-formed.

□

Example 10 For the semantics s_d (see example 6), we have the following result:

Corollary 3 The semantics s_d is not well-formed.

Proof 2 We have to show that the semantics s_d does not comply with definition 3. The semantics s_d complies with definition 1, but the predicate $Pred(X, \{t_i, t_j\}) = [\varepsilon_1 \leq d(t_i[X], t_j[X]) \leq \varepsilon_2]$, for $X \subseteq U$ is obviously different from the predicate $Pred'(X, \{t_i, t_j\}) = [\forall A \in X, \varepsilon_1 \leq d(t_i[A], t_j[A]) \leq \varepsilon_2]$. It is easy to give a counter example where $Pred(X, r)$ is true and $Pred'(X, r)$ is false. Thus, $s_d \notin C_A$ and by Theorem 1, the result follows.

□

5 Some relationships with data mining

In a KDD context, the discovery of rules in tabular data has mainly been studied in the context of association rules for binary data [5] and functional dependencies [16, 20, 25]. In the setting of this paper, we may question about the underlying discovery problem for any well-formed semantics.

We are only interested in the context of this paper of semantics $s \in C_A$ i.e. the well-formed semantics. Rule generation for a semantics $s \in C \setminus C_A$ is also interesting but out of the scope of this paper.

First, recall that a one-to-one correspondence does exist between a set of rules and a closure system¹ [17]. Second, given a relation r and a well-formed semantics s , we can

¹A closure system C on U is such that $U \in C$ and $\forall X, Y \in C, X \cap Y \in C$.

always define a closure system with respect to the set of satisfied rules in the relation r for the semantics s .

Two main techniques do exist to compute a cover of rules:

- Those which enumerate the closure system to generate for example a minimum cover [19], generally used for association rules generation [31].
- Those which avoid the enumeration of the closure system to generate the canonical cover, generally used for the inference of functional dependencies [28, 16].

In both cases, the first step is to compute a *base*² of the closure system in the dataset, data accesses being made only during this step. This step is obviously specific to the considered semantics.

In this paper, we show how a base of the closure system for any well-formed semantics can be computed from the dataset.

First, we define a *base* with regard to our generic definition of rule semantics and then we give a proof that this is indeed a base:

Definition 5 Let r a relation over U and s a given well-formed semantics. Let $B_s(r)$ the set defined as follows:

$$B_s(r) = \bigcup_{r' \subseteq r \mid d_c(r')} \{A \in U \mid Pred(A, r') \text{ is true}\}.$$

²Also called *agree sets* for functional dependencies.

We have the following result which extends in our context a well-known result obtained in the setting of functional dependencies [12]:

Proposition 1 $B_s(r)$ is a *base* of the closure system with respect to the set $F_s(r)$ of satisfied rules in r for the semantics s .

Proof 3 Let us recall that a sub-family B of a closure system C is a *base* if $Inf \subseteq B \subseteq C$ where Inf is the set of meet-irreducible sets.

We first prove that $B_s(r) \subseteq C(F_s(r))$ and then that $Inf_s(r) \subseteq B_s(r)$, where $Inf_s(r)$ is the set of meet-irreducible sets of the closure system $C(F_s(r))$.

Let $X \in B_s(r)$, we have to prove that $X \in C(F_s(r))$ i.e. that $X = X^+$. Suppose to the contrary that $\exists A \in U \setminus X$ such that $r \models_s X \rightarrow A$. In that case, $\forall r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$ such that $\forall B \in X, Pred(B, r')$ is true, we must have $Pred(A, r')$ is true. That leads to a contradiction, since $X \in B_s(r)$.

Let $X \in Inf_s(r)$, we have to prove that $X \in B_s(r)$. By definition, $X = X^+$ and thus, for any $A \in U \setminus X$, $r \not\models_s X \rightarrow A$ i.e. for any $A \in U \setminus X$, $\exists Y_A \in B_s(r)$ such that $X \subseteq Y_A$ and $A \notin Y_A$. As above, $Y_A \in C(F_s(r))$ for all $A \in U \setminus X$. Now, we have: $X = \bigcap_{A \in U \setminus X} (Y_A)$ and since $X \in Inf_s(r)$, we must have $X = Y_A$ for some $A \in U \setminus X$. Hence, we have $X \in B_s(r)$.

□

We can note that the base $B_s(r)$ is de-

fined at the level of single attributes $A \in U$, which shows the necessity that the semantics complies with the definition 3.

From a data mining point of view, the computation of $B_s(r)$ is a crucial step since data accesses are only performed here.

Example 11 Consider the semantics s_1 and the relation r made of 5 tuples over a set of 6 attributes, given in Table 1.

r	g_1	g_2	g_3	g_4	g_5	g_6
t_1	1.7	1.5	1.2	-0.3	1.4	1.6
t_2	1.8	-0.7	1.3	0.8	-0.1	1.7
t_3	-1.8	0.4	1.7	1.8	0.6	-0.4
t_4	-1.7	-1.4	0.9	0.5	-1.8	-0.2
t_5	0.0	1.9	-1.9	1.7	1.6	-0.5

Table 1: A running example

The base of the closure system $B_s(r)$ is computed as follows:

$$B_s(r) = \bigcup_{t \in r} \{ A \in U \mid 1.0 \leq t[A] \leq 2.0 \}.$$

For this relation r , we have:

$$B_s(r) = \{ \{g_1, g_2, g_3, g_5, g_6\}, \{g_1, g_3, g_6\}, \{g_3, g_4\}, \{\}, \{g_2, g_4, g_5\} \}.$$

For example, a minimal cover of satisfied rules can be computed from $B_s(r)$ to give the following rules:

$$\{g_1 \rightarrow \{g_3, g_6\}, \{g_1, g_4\} \rightarrow g_2, g_2 \rightarrow g_5, \{g_2, g_3\} \rightarrow g_1, g_5 \rightarrow g_2, g_6 \rightarrow g_1\}.$$

□

6 Related contributions

To the best of our knowledge, we are not aware of related works in the literature dealing with syntactical characterizations with regard to some inference systems. Nevertheless, related contributions have been done on association rules in data mining [5, 9] and functional dependencies in data bases [20, 25, 29]. Rule mining often results in a huge amount of rules and as a consequence, rules turn out to be useless for experts. This is the well-known post-processing step in a KDD process. To address this problem, different lines of research have been performed. Firstly, rules may be filtered out a priori, based on user-defined templates of rules [23, 8]. Secondly, many quality measures have been developed to select only the most interesting rules [6, 30] with regard to these measures. Thirdly, inference rules or inference systems have been proposed to reduce the number of rules given to the experts [9, 15, 24, 26]. Most of these works consider new inference systems for association rules by taking into account support and confidence thresholds.

In [3], we proposed three new semantics for gene expression data and show their biological interests. In [2, 4], we did a first step toward a formal framework with a first generic definition of a semantics and the notion of a well-formed semantics. In this paper, we go a step beyond by giving a new syntactical characterization of a well-formed semantics, leading to the theorem 1.

We also introduce the existing relationship with the data mining problem of discovery of rules.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we have pointed out that an equivalence does exist between some syntactic restrictions on the natural definition of a given semantics and the fact that this semantics is well-formed, i.e. Armstrong's axioms are sound and complete for this semantics. From a practical point of view, this equivalence allows to prove easily whether or not a given semantics is well-formed.

We have illustrated our proposition on many examples of semantics and have shown the usefulness of our proposition as a tool to ensure that classical reasoning on rules with Armstrong's axioms is indeed possible.

We have also pointed out the relationship between our generic definition of rule satisfaction and the underlying data mining problem.

In the context of our application on gene expression data, this work brings some foundations to build new well-formed semantics with biologists which best fit into their requirements. Moreover, the rule discovery process has to be revisited to avoid a costly (exponential in the number of genes) and useless (too many rules being generated to be validated by biologists) generation of rules.

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9 Appendix

Proof of Theorem 1 Let $s \in C$ be a rule semantics. We have first to prove that if $s \in C_A$ then s is well-formed and secondly that if s is well-formed then $s \in C_A$ or equivalently that if $s \notin C_A$ then s is not well-formed.

Lemma 1 Let $s \in C$ be a rule semantics. If $s \in C_A$ then the semantics s is well-formed.

Proof 4 (If) Suppose that $s \in C$ i.e. s complies with definition 3, we have to show that s is well-formed i.e. that Armstrong’s axiom system is sound and complete for s .

Lemma 2 Armstrong’s axiom system is sound for s .

Proof 5 Let F be a set of rules over U . We need to show that if $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ then $F \models_s X \rightarrow Y$, i.e. let r be a relation over U such that $r \models_s F$, if $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ then $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$.

1. (reflexivity) We have to show that if $X \subseteq Y \subseteq U$ then $r \models_s Y \rightarrow X$.
Let $X \subseteq Y \subseteq U$ and let $r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$ and $\forall A \in Y, \text{Pred}(A, r')$ is true. Since $X \subseteq Y$, the result follows.
2. (augmentation) We have to show that if $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ and $W \subseteq U$, then $r \models_s XW \rightarrow YW$.
Let $r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$ and $\forall A \in X \cup W, \text{Pred}(A, r')$ is true. If $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$, then we have $\forall B \in Y, \text{Pred}(B, r')$ is true. The result follows.
3. (transitivity) We have to show that if $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ and $F \vdash Y \rightarrow Z$ then $r \models_s X \rightarrow Z$.
Let $r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$ and $\forall A \in X, \text{Pred}(A, r')$ is true. If $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ and $F \vdash Y \rightarrow Z$, then $\forall B \in Y, \text{Pred}(B, r')$ is true and $\forall C \in Z, \text{Pred}(C, r')$ is true respectively. The result follows.

Note here that the proof is indeed possible thanks to the restriction posed on the

predicate, satisfied for each single attribute $A \in X$, in definition 3.

Lemma 3 Armstrong's axiom system is complete for s .

Proof 6 We need to show that if $F \models_s X \rightarrow Y$ then $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$ or equivalently, if $F \not\vdash X \rightarrow Y$ then $F \not\models_s X \rightarrow Y$. As a consequence, assuming that $F \not\vdash X \rightarrow Y$, it is enough to give a counter-example relation r such that $r \models_s F$ but $r \not\models_s X \rightarrow Y$.

Note here that to exhibit the counter-example r , we do not have to explicitly give the data instance. Using the constraint $d_c(r)$, we just have to build a relation verifying this constraint, whatever the real values are.

Let r be a relation verifying $d_c(r)$ such that $\forall A \in X^+$, $Pred(A, r)$ is true and $\forall B \in U \setminus X^+$, $Pred(B, r)$ is false.

Clearly, such a relation always exists whenever $Pred$ is not logically equivalent to true (or false) (cf section 3.1).

Let us recall that $X^+ = \{A \in U \mid F \vdash X \rightarrow A\}$.

One can note, by the construction of r , that $r \models_s V \rightarrow W$ if and only if $V \in X^+$ and $\exists A \in W$ such that $A \in U \setminus X^+$. Otherwise, $r \models_s V \rightarrow W$.

Firstly, we have to show that $r \models_s F$. We suppose the contrary that $r \not\models_s F$ and thus, $\exists V \rightarrow W \in F$ such that $r \not\models_s V \rightarrow W$. It follows by the construction of r that $V \subseteq X^+$ and $\exists A \in W$ such that $A \in U \setminus X^+$. Since $V \in X^+$, we have $F \vdash X \rightarrow V$ and since $F \vdash V \rightarrow W$, we have $F \vdash$

$V \rightarrow A$. Thus, by the transitivity rule, $F \vdash X \rightarrow A$ and thus $A \in X^+$. This leads to a contradiction since $A \in W$, and thus $r \models_s F$.

Secondly, we have to show that $r \not\models_s X \rightarrow Y$. We suppose the contrary that $r \models_s X \rightarrow Y$. It follows by the construction of r that $Y \subseteq X^+$ and thus $F \vdash X \rightarrow Y$. It leads to a contradiction since $F \not\vdash X \rightarrow Y$ was assumed, and thus $r \not\models_s X \rightarrow Y$.

The second part of the proof is certainly the more surprising one since it tells us that any well-formed semantics has to comply with definition 3:

Lemma 4 Let $s \in C$ be a rule semantics. If the semantics s is well-formed, then $s \in C_A$.

Proof 7 (Only if) We have to show that if s is well-formed, then $s \in C_A$ or equivalently, if $s \notin C_A$ (i.e. s does not comply with definition 3) then s is not well-formed.

Suppose that s does not comply with definition 3, two cases are possible: Either the two predicates are different or they are equivalent but it does not exist an equivalent predicate which can be formulated as a condition on each attribute.

Let us consider the first case, i.e. $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$ are not equivalent: In that case, it does exist a relation r and a subset of attributes $Y \subseteq U$ such that $\{r' \subseteq r \mid r' \text{ verifying } d_c(r') \text{ and } Pred_1(Y, r') \text{ is true}\} \neq \{r' \subseteq r \mid r' \text{ verifying } d_c(r') \text{ and } Pred_2(Y, r') \text{ is true}\}$.

Two cases are thus possible:

- $\exists r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$ such that $Pred_1(Y, r')$ is true and $Pred_2(Y, r')$ is false:

Let us assume that s is well-formed. By reflexivity, we have $\forall X \subseteq Y, r \models Y \rightarrow X$ and thus $r \models Y \rightarrow Y$ i.e. $\forall r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$, if $Pred_1(Y, r')$ is true then $Pred_2(Y, r')$ is true which is a contradiction.

- $\exists r' \subseteq r$ verifying $d_c(r')$ such that $Pred_1(Y, r')$ is false and $Pred_2(Y, r')$ is true:

Without loss of generality, let us assume there exists $X \in U \setminus Y$ and $Z \in U \setminus Y$ such that $Pred_1(X, r')$ is true and $Pred_2(Z, r')$ is false, as depicted in Table 2. Thus, we have $r' \models X \rightarrow Y$ and $r' \models Y \rightarrow Z$.

r	X	Y	Z	...
...	...	...	...	...
$r' \{$	P_1 true	P_1 false	P_2 false	...
		P_2 true		...
...	...	...	...	...

Table 2: Example

Assume now that s is well-formed. By transitivity, we should have $r' \models X \rightarrow Z$, which is false and leads to a contradiction.

Finally, we have shown that if $Pred_1$ and $Pred_2$ are not equivalent, then s is not-well-formed.

Now, let us consider the second case, i.e. $Pred_1 \equiv Pred_2$ but they are not equivalent to the predicate $Pred'(Y) = [\forall A \in Y, Pred_1(A)]$: In that case, it does exist a relation r and a subset of attributes $Y \subseteq U$ such that $\{r' \subseteq r \mid r' \text{ verifying } d_c(r') \text{ and } Pred_1(Y, r') \text{ is true}\} \neq \{r' \subseteq r \mid r' \text{ verifying } d_c(r') \text{ and } \forall A \in Y, Pred_1(A, r') \text{ is true}\}$. We can show that reflexivity and transitivity axioms are not sound in r' . The proof is similar to the previous one and is omitted.

□