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## A SYNTACTIC CHARACTERIZATION OF BOUNDED-RANK DECISION TREES IN TERMS OF DECISION LISTS (\*)

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**Abstract.** – *We define syntactically a sub-class of decision lists (tree-like decision lists) and we show its equivalence with the class of bounded rank decision trees. As a by-product, the main theorem provides an alternate and easier proof of the Blum's containment Theorem [1]. Furthermore we give an inversion procedure for Blum's derivation of a decision list from a bounded rank decision tree.*

**Résumé.** – *Nous définissons syntactiquement une sous-classe de listes de décision (tree-like decision lists) et nous montrons son équivalence avec la classe des arbres de décision de rang borné. Comme sous-produit, le théorème principal fournit une preuve alternative et plus simple du Théorème d'inclusion de Blum [1]. En plus, nous donnons une procédure d'inversion pour la dérivation de Blum d'une liste de décision à partir d'un arbre de décision de rang borné.*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Decision lists have been introduced by Rivest in [3] as a representation of boolean functions. He showed that  $k$ -decision lists, *i.e.* decision lists in which any term has at most  $k$  literals, are (1) a generalization of  $k$ -CNF,  $k$ -DNF and of depth- $k$  decision trees and (2) are polynomially learnable under *PAC* model. [2] showed that constant rank decision trees are also polynomially *PAC* learnable and [1] showed that rank- $k$  decision trees are a sub-class of  $k$ -decision lists, thus providing to an improvement of the result of [2] since constant rank decision trees can be polynomially *PAC*-learned using Rivest's algorithm for  $k$ -decision lists as subroutine.

Here we define a sub-class of decision lists - the class of *tree-like decision lists*. For the lists of this class we define the *rank* measure and we show that the class of rank- $k$  decision trees is equivalent to the class of rank- $k$  tree-like

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decision lists. As a by-product of Theorem 3.1, we provide an alternate proof of Blum's containment theorem.

In the final section we give an algorithm such that given a decision list  $L$  it builds a corresponding decision tree. Also when  $L$  is the list that the main Theorem of [1] produces when applied to a rank- $k$  reduced decision tree  $T$ , it allows us to recover exactly  $T$ .

## 2. PRELIMINARIES

Let  $\mathcal{V}_n$  be a set of  $n$  boolean variables  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ . A *literal*  $\ell_i$  denotes a variable  $v_i$  or its negation. Boolean *constants* are denoted by  $a, b, \dots$ . A *term* or *monomial*  $t$  is a *conjunction* of literals. Terms are supposed to be strings of literals and we refer to a *prefix* of length  $k$  of a term  $t$  as the term built from the conjunction of the first (from left to right)  $k$  literals of  $t$ , with  $k \leq |t|$ .

A *decision list*  $L$  on a family  $\{F_i\}$  of boolean functions over  $n$  variables is a sequence  $(F_1, b_1), \dots, (F_{m-1}, b_{m-1}), (1, b_m)$ , with  $m > 0$ . On input  $\vec{x} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , it computes the boolean function  $f_L$  defined as  $b_j$  where  $j$  is the least number less than  $m - 1$  such that  $F_j(\vec{x}) = 1$ , if such  $j$  exists, and  $b_m$  otherwise. Here we limit the boolean functions  $F_i$  to monomials on  $\mathcal{V}_n$  like in [3].  $L$  is a *k-decision list* if for each monomial  $t$ ,  $|t| \leq k$ . The length  $|L|$  of a decision list  $L$  is the number of monomials. A couple of the form  $(t, a)$  will be called *item* and by  $(t, a)_i$  we denote the  $i$ -th item in  $L$ . Given  $L = (t_1, b_1), \dots, (t_{m-1}, b_{m-1}), (1, b_m)$  and a literal  $\ell$  we denote by  $(\ell \wedge L)$  the list  $(\ell \wedge t_1, b_1), \dots, (\ell \wedge t_{m-1}, b_{m-1}), (\ell, b_m)$ .

A *decision tree*  $T$  is a binary tree such that the internal nodes are labelled with a variable of  $\mathcal{V}_n$ , the leaves are labelled with boolean constants and each right (respectively left) arc is labelled with 1 (respectively 0). Note that the same variable can label several internal nodes on the same path; if there is no such repetition, then the tree is said to be *reduced*. The boolean function  $f_T$  computed by  $T$  is defined in the following way: if  $T$  is a constant  $a$  then  $f_T = a$ , otherwise if  $T = (v_i, T_1, T_2)$ , then  $f_T = (v_i \wedge f_{T_1}) \vee (\bar{v}_i \wedge f_{T_2})$ .

The *rank*  $r(T)$  of a decision tree  $T$  is the height of the largest complete binary tree that can be embedded in  $T$ . It is defined by:

$$r(T) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } T = a \\ \max(r(T_1), r(T_2)) & \text{if } T = (v_i, T_1, T_2) \text{ and } r(T_1) \neq r(T_2) \\ r(T_1) + 1 & \text{if } T = (v_i, T_1, T_2) \text{ and } r(T_1) = r(T_2) \end{cases}$$

The size  $|T|$  of a decision tree  $T$  is the number of its internal nodes. We refer to  $\mathcal{T}_k$  as the class of rank  $k$  decision trees.

3. MAIN RESULT

First we define the class  $\mathcal{L}_k$  of tree-like decision lists with rank  $k$ , proving some key properties they satisfy. Then we show the equivalence between  $\mathcal{L}_k$  and  $\mathcal{T}_k$ .

3.1. Tree-like decision lists

To reader's convenience we state the Lemma (proved below) that guarantees the soundness of the definition of tree-like decision list.

LEMMA 3.1: *Given a tree-like decision list  $L$ , with  $|L| > 1$ , there exists a unique decomposition of  $L$  in  $(\ell \wedge L_1)$  and  $L_2$  such that  $L = (\ell \wedge L_1), L_2$ , and  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are tree-like decision lists.*

DEFINITION 3.1: *A tree-like decision list (tdl) is defined inductively by:*

- $(1, a)$  is a tdl for any  $a \in \{0, 1\}$ ;
- given two tdl's  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ , the decision list  $(\ell \wedge L_1), L_2$  is a tdl for any literal  $\ell$ .

The rank  $\rho(L)$  of a tdl  $L$  is 0 if  $L = (1, a)$ , and is obtained from  $\rho(L_1)$  and  $\rho(L_2)$ , as for the decision trees, otherwise.  $\mathcal{L}_k$  is the class of tdl's having rank  $k$ .

Observe that a rank- $k$  tdl is not necessarily a  $k$ -decision list. For example, the 3-decision list  $((v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge v_3, 1), (v_1 \wedge v_2, 1), (v_1, 1), (1, 0))$  has rank 1.

It is easy to see that in a tdl  $L$  of length greater than 1 there is always a first item having a term  $t$  such that  $|t| = 1$  (so  $t = \ell$ ) and all  $t_i$ 's in the previous items of  $L$ , if any, start with  $\ell$  and have length at least 2. This observation allows us to prove the key property (Lemma 3.1) of the tdl's, namely: from a tdl  $L$ , there is a unique way to recover the two sub-tdl's  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  and the literal  $\ell$  that define it.

*Proof of Lemma 3.1:* The decomposition of  $L$  is as follows:

- Starting from the leftmost item of  $L$ , search for the first term  $t$  such that  $|t| = 1$ ;
- define  $(\ell \wedge L_1)$  by taking all the items of  $L$  up to  $t$ , define  $L_2$  as the remaining items of  $L$ .

Suppose that this decomposition is not unique so that  $L$  can be written as  $(\ell' \wedge L'_1), L'_2$ . By hypothesis, by the decomposition and by the previous observation we have that  $\ell$  and  $\ell'$  must be the same literal and they must be in the same item of  $L$ . Since the items in  $(\ell' \wedge L'_1), L'_2$  and in  $(\ell \wedge L_1), L_2$

are the same, it follows immediately that  $L'_2 = L_2$  and therefore  $L'_1 = L_1$ . So the decomposition of  $L$  with respect to its sub-tdl's is unique.  $\square$

We define the boolean function  $\phi_L$  associated with a tdl  $L$  in terms of the tree structure as follows:  $\phi_L = a$  if  $L = (1, a)$  and  $\phi_L = (\ell \wedge \phi_{L_1}) \vee (\bar{\ell} \wedge \phi_{L_2})$  otherwise. Then the previous property allows us to show that the boolean function  $f_L$  computed by  $L$  is  $\phi_L$ .

LEMMA 3.2: *For any tree-like decision list  $L$ ,  $f_L = \phi_L$ .*

*Proof:* By induction on  $|L|$ . Suppose  $|L| > 1$ , since if  $|L| = 1$  the result is trivial. By Lemma 3.1 we find uniquely  $\ell, L_1$  and  $L_2$  such that  $L = (\ell \wedge L_1), L_2$  and by inductive hypothesis  $\phi_{L_i} = f_{L_i}$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . If  $\ell = 1$ , then  $f_L = f_{L_1} = \phi_{L_1}$ , since the last term of  $L_1$  is the true term. On the other hand, if  $\ell = 0$ , then all terms in  $(\ell \wedge L_1)$  are falsified and so  $f_L = f_{L_2} = \phi_{L_2}$ . So  $f_L = (\ell \wedge \phi_{L_1}) \vee (\bar{\ell} \wedge \phi_{L_2}) = \phi_L$ .  $\square$

### 3.2. Equivalence result

THEOREM 3.1: *For any decision tree  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$ , there is an equivalent tdl  $L \in \mathcal{L}_k$ , moreover  $L$  is  $k$ -decision list and the size of  $L$  is equal to the number of leaves of  $T$ .*

*Proof:* By double induction on the height and on the rank of  $T$ . If  $r(T) = 0$  and  $T = a$ , then  $L = (1, a)$  and the result is immediate. Now, Let  $r(T) = k$  and suppose that  $\ell$  is the literal at the root of  $T$  and that  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are respectively the right and the left sub-trees of  $T$ . By definition of rank at least one between  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  has rank at most  $k - 1$ . Assume without loss of generality that  $T_1$  has this property. Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be the two tdl's associated respectively with  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , having their same rank and granted by the inductive hypothesis. The list  $L$  we associate with  $T$  is therefore  $(\ell \wedge L_1), L_2$ . Thus  $r(T) = \rho(L)$  and  $f_T = f_L$  since by inductive hypothesis we have  $r(T_i) = \rho(L_i)$  and  $f_{T_i} = f_{L_i}$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Observe that the role of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  is compulsory if we want to obtain a  $k$ -decision list.  $\square$

Observe that the proof of this Theorem, suggested by one of the Referees, implicitly defines another way to obtain Theorem 1 of [Bl]. Here we give a sketch of its original proof since it will be useful in the next section.

THEOREM 3.2 ([1]): *For any decision tree  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$  of  $m$  leaves there exists an equivalent  $k$ -decision list of size at most  $m$ .*

*Proof:* By induction on  $m$ . If  $m = 1$  or  $m = 2$  the result is easy. Suppose  $m > 2$ , observe that if  $r(T) = k$ , then there is a path of length at most  $k$

ending in a leaf  $a$ . Consider the item  $(t, a)$  where  $t$  is the term associated to this path and consider the tree  $\bar{T} = T - t$  obtained by by-passing  $T$  with respect to  $t$ , i.e. eliminating the node in  $T$  corresponding to the last variable in  $t$  and attaching the brother sub-tree of the leaf  $a$  to the node above it. Since  $\bar{T}$  has at most  $m - 1$  leaves, by inductive hypothesis we have that  $L_{\bar{T}}$  is the list associated to  $\bar{T}$ . The list  $L$  is therefore  $(t, a), L_{\bar{T}}$ . Since the length of each term is bounded by the rank of  $T$ ,  $L$  is a  $k$ -decision list; and, since we repeat the above procedure for each leaf in  $T$ , the length of  $L$  is at most  $m$ .  $\square$

The reverse inclusion is given by the following Theorem.

**THEOREM 3.3:** *For any tdl  $L \in \mathcal{L}_k$ , there is an equivalent decision tree  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$ .*

*Proof:* By induction on  $|L|$ . If  $|L| = 1$ , then  $L = (1, a)$  so  $T = a$ . If  $|L| > 1$ , then by Lemma 3.1 we can identify uniquely  $\ell, L_1$  and  $L_2$  such that  $L = (\ell \wedge L_1), L_2$ . Given  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  associated respectively with  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ , we build the tree  $T = (\ell, T_1, T_2)$  according to the sign of  $\ell$ . Then  $r(T) = \rho(L)$  and  $f_T = f_L$  since by inductive hypothesis we have  $r(T_i) = \rho(L_i)$  and  $f_{T_i} = f_{L_i}$ , for  $i = 1, 2$ .  $\square$

Given  $L \in \mathcal{L}_k$  the number of steps required to build  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$  is  $O(|L| \log |L| + (|L| - 2^k)^2)$ . To see this we first discuss the case in which  $T$  is a complete binary decision tree of depth  $k$ , then we consider the general case.

Consider the algorithm implicitly defined by the previous Theorem subdivided in phases as follows. At the *first phase* we search for the first term in  $L$  from the left having size 1, in  $|L|$  items, using the decomposition algorithm of Lemma 3.1. We have thus identified the literal at the root of  $T$  and the two sub-tdl's  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  of  $L$ . At the *second phase* we search sequentially in  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  for two terms of size 1 in only  $|L| - 1$  items, since  $|L_1| + |L_2| = |L|$  and we can exclude from the search the term identified at the previous phase. In general, at the  $j$ -th *phase*, we search for  $2^{j-1}$  terms of size 1 in  $(|L| - (2^{j-1} - 1))$  items.

Observe that after  $j$  phases such that  $\sum_{i=0}^j 2^i = |L|$  we have identified all the terms in  $L$ . Thus the number of phases is  $j = O(\log |L|)$ . The total number of steps required to build (a binary complete decision tree)  $T$  is  $\sum_{i=1}^j (|L| - (2^{i-1} - 1))$  and this is  $O(|L| \log |L|)$ .

Observe that if  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$ , then a complete binary tree  $T_c$  of depth  $k$  is always embedded in  $T$ . This means that in the general case of a not necessarily complete decision tree  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$ , at some point the algorithm will recover

$T_c$ . By previous observation, this part requires at most  $O(|L| \log |L|)$  steps and eliminates  $2^k$  items from  $L$ . For the remaining  $|L| - 2^k$  items in  $L$  we can only say that in each phase the algorithm eliminates at least one item. So in the worst case this second part requires  $O((|L| - 2^k)^2)$  steps. Therefore the total number of steps is  $O(|L| \log |L| + (|L| - 2^k)^2)$ . Observe that when  $L$  corresponds to a complete decision tree our algorithm runs in time  $O(|L| \log |L|)$ .

As remarked in Lemma 1 of [2], for any decision tree  $T$ ,  $r(T) \leq \log(|T| + 1)$  since the smallest decision tree of rank  $k$  is the complete binary tree of depth  $k$ . This means that a decision tree of size  $n$  can be represented by a tdl  $L \in \mathcal{L}_{\lceil \log(n+1) \rceil}$ . On the other hand, since the minimal decision tree computing the parity function over  $n$  variables requires a complete binary decision tree with  $2^n$  leaves, the minimal tdl computing the parity function belongs to  $\mathcal{L}_n$  but must have length no less than  $2^n$ .

Moreover it is obvious that a  $k$ -rank tdl can be represented by a  $k$ -decision list (Theorems 3.3 and 3.2). For the reverse inclusion we can only say that, since a  $k$ -decision list  $L$  has a trivial representation as a decision tree of size  $\leq k^{|L|}$ , then  $L$  can be represented by an equivalent tdl  $L' \in \mathcal{L}_{\lceil \frac{|L|}{\log k} \rceil}$  but of length  $k^{|L|}$ .

#### 4. RECOVERING BOUNDED RANK REDUCED DECISION TREES

The procedure converting a rank  $k$  tdl into an equivalent rank- $k$  decision tree is straightforward. On the other side recovering a rank- $k$  decision tree from the  $k$ -decision list produced by Blum's procedure requires some more work. In this section we present an algorithm, *Rec-Tree*, to recover decision trees from decision lists. Moreover if  $L_T$  is the decision list produced by Theorem 3.2 when applied to the reduced decision tree  $T$  we have that  $Rec-Tree(L_T) = T$ .

Let  $path(T)$  be the set of terms associated with paths of  $T$ . Let  $t = \ell_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \ell_k$  be a term in  $path(T)$ , ending with leaf  $a$ . In order to view  $T$  as in Part 1 of Figure 1, for each variable in  $t$  we define  $+, - \in \{0, 1\}$  according to the sign (respectively the negated sign) of  $\ell_i$  in  $t$ . Moreover if  $T = (v_i, T_1, T_2)$  we denote  $T_1$  by  $T^{i+}$ ,  $T_2$  by  $T^{i-}$  and  $(T^{i+})^{j-}$  by  $T^{i+j-}$  (with  $+$  and  $-$  submitted to the restrictions above). A simple relation between  $T$  and  $\bar{T} = T - t$  is given by the following Remark.

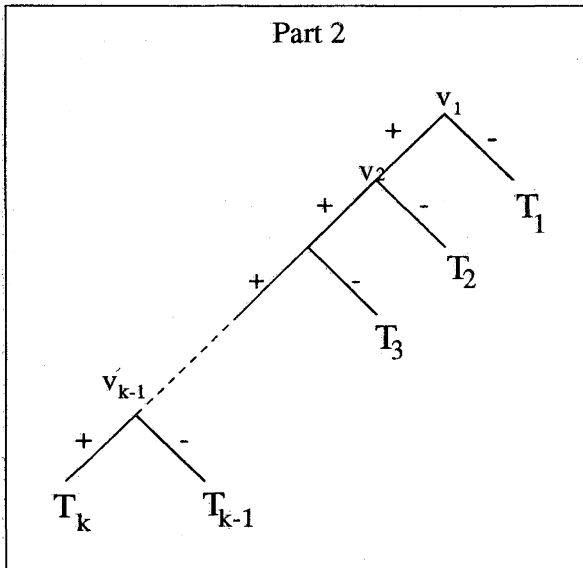
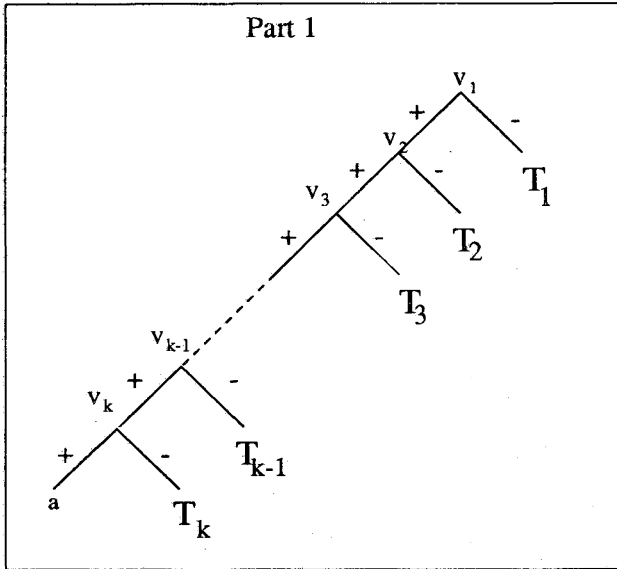


Figure 1. - Part 1: the decision tree  $T$  wrt  $t = \ell_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \ell_k$ ;  
 Part 2: the decision tree  $\bar{T} = T - t$  wrt  $t$ .

REMARK 4.1: Let  $T$  be a decision tree as in Part 1 of Figure 1 and let  $t \in \text{path}(T)$  be a term  $\ell_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \ell_k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq r(T)$  ending with leaf  $a$ :

- if  $|t| = 1$ , then  $T_1 = \bar{T}$ ;
- if  $|t| > 1$ , then for any  $1 \leq i \leq k - 1$ ,  $T_i = \bar{T}^{1+2+\dots+(i-1)+i^-}$  and  $T_k = \bar{T}^{1+2+\dots+(k-2)^+(k-1)^+}$ .

On a given decision list  $L$ , *Rec-Tree* works as follows: at the first step it recovers the constant decision tree  $T_1$  from the default term of  $L$ ; at the  $i$ -th step it recovers  $T_i$  by: (1) taking the  $(|L| - i + 1)$ -th item  $(t, a)_{|L|-i+1}$  of  $L$ ; (2) building the trivial decision tree consistent with the term  $t$  and the constant  $a$  and putting the tree  $T_{i-1}$ , recovered at the previous step, at the unused nodes of this tree; (3) reducing each one of the  $T_{i-1}$ 's according to the path followed to reach it.

In what follows we provide more details about the algorithm. In order to have a more efficient reduction step and to simplify the proof of the theorem we merge the second and the third step, reducing the  $T_{i-1}$ 's as soon as they have to be attached to a node and working at each node on the previously reduced  $T_{i-1}$ .

Let  $\text{sgn}(\ell, t)$  and  $\text{nsgn}(\ell, t)$  be two functions computing respectively the sign and the negated sign of  $\ell$  in  $t$  and let  $\text{root}(T)$  be a function giving the variable at the root of  $T$ . Consider the following sub-routines:

1. *BTV* (Build a Tree wrt to a Variable), that takes as inputs a variable  $v_i$ , a term  $t$  and two decision trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  and outputs the tree  $T = (\ell_i, T_1, T_2)$  according to the sign of  $v_i$  in  $t$ ;
2. *RT* (Reduce Tree), that takes as inputs a variable  $v_i$ ,  $sg \in \{0, 1\}$  and a decision tree  $T$  and outputs the decision tree  $T^*$  as follows:

**if**  $(T = a)$  **or**  $(\text{Root}(T) \neq v_i)$

**then**  $T^* = T$ ;

**else**  $T^*$  is the sub-tree of  $T$  chosen according to  $sg$ ;

3. *BTT* (Build Tree wrt a Term), a recursive sub-routine that takes as input an item of the form  $(t, a)$  and a decision tree  $T$ , outputs the decision tree  $T^*$  as follows:

**if**  $|t| = 1$

**then**  $T^* = \text{BTV}(t^{\neq 1}, t, a, T)$ ;

**else**

$T^+ = \text{RT}(t^{\neq 1}, \text{sgn}(t^{\neq 1}, t), T)$ ;

$T^- = \text{RT}(t^{\neq 1}, \text{nsgn}(t^{\neq 1}, t), T)$ ;

$T^* = \text{BTV}(t^{\neq 1}, t, \text{BTT}((t^{> 1}, a), T^+), T^-)$ ;

4. Finally *Rec-Tree*, that takes as input a decision list  $L$ , outputs a decision tree  $T$ , defined recursively as follows

**if**  $L = (1, a)$

**then**  $T = a$ ;

**else**  $T = BTT((t, a)_1, Rec-tree(L - (t, a)_1))$ ;

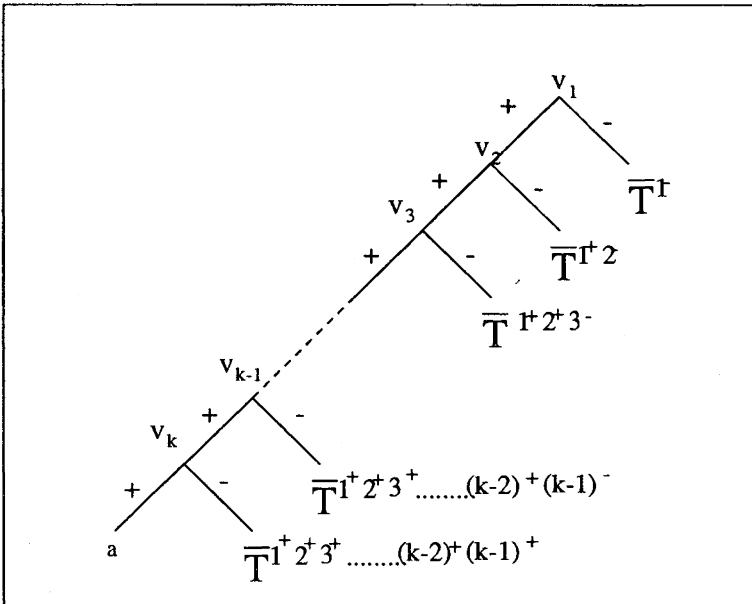


Figure 2. - The output of *BTT* on inputs  $t = \ell_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \ell_k$  and  $\bar{T} = T - t$ .

**THEOREM 4.1:** For any reduced tree  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$ , *Rec-Tree*( $L_T$ ) outputs  $T$  in  $O(|L|k)$  steps.

*Proof:* By induction on the number  $m$  of leaves of  $T$ . Let  $m > 1$ , since the case  $m = 1$  is immediate by definition of *Rec-Tree*. Let  $t = \ell_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \ell_k \in path(T)$  be the term chosen ending with leaf  $a$  and let  $\bar{T} = T - t$ . By inductive hypothesis  $Rec-Tree(L_{\bar{T}}) = \bar{T}$  and by Theorem 3.2  $L_T = (t, a), L_{\bar{T}}$ . The theorem follows showing that  $BTT((t, a), \bar{T}) = T$  and this is obtained by cases on  $|t|$ : if  $|t| = 1$ , then  $t = \ell_k$  for some  $\ell_k$ . Since  $v_k$  is the root label of  $\bar{T}$  and  $T$  is a reduced tree, then  $v_k$  does not occur as label of any node of  $\bar{T}$  (so we have no need to reduce it in *BTT*). By definition of *BTV* we obtain  $T$ . If, otherwise,  $t = \ell_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \ell_k$  with

$k > 1$ , then the result follows by Remark 4.1 observing that, in this case, *BTT* outputs the tree of Figure 2.

Observe that if  $T \in \mathcal{T}_k$ , then every term in  $L_T$  has length bounded by  $k$ , so for each term in  $L$ , *BTT* calls itself at most  $k$  times. Since *Rec-tree* calls *BTT*  $|L| - 1$  times, the total number of steps to output  $T$  is  $O(|L|k)$ .  $\square$

Observe that *Rec-tree* can be used to recover decision trees from any decision list. Suppose that we modify *Rec-tree* by eliminating the reduction sub-routine, and that we run the modified algorithm on a  $k$ -decision list  $L$ . It is easy to see that in  $O(|L|k)$  steps, *Rec-tree* outputs a decision tree  $T$  consistent with  $L$  of depth  $\leq k|L|$  but of size  $\leq k^{|L|}$ . On the other hand, supposing that  $k^{|L|} \gg |\mathcal{V}_n|$  and that the minimal decision tree consistent with  $L$  has size, for example, polynomial in  $|L|$ , it could be interesting to study under what kind of hypothesis and what kind of modifications of *Rec-tree*, such a decision tree can be obtained, using, for instance, a fully reducing subroutine that, for each variable in the currently analyzed term, always explores the whole tree produced at the previous step.

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