Towards Fast Algorithms for Fuzzy Data Processing: Type 1, Type 2, and Beyond or

How Interval Ideas Travelled from Warszawa, Tokyo, and California Back to Warszawa

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Many of these results come from joint papers with Andrzej Pownuk

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1. Outline

- From the mathematical viewpoint, we can use Zadeh's extension principle to process fuzzy data.
- However, a direct implementation of Zadeh's extension principle often requires too many computational steps.
- A known way to speed up computations is to use interval computations on α -cuts.
- We show that in many cases, we can further reduce computation time.
- The need to decrease computation time is even more important for type-2 fuzzy sets.
- They require even more computations; we show that for type-2, a significant speed up is also possible.
- We also extend the speed-up beyond the min t-norm.



Part I Fuzzy Data Processing: What Is the Problem, and Which Algorithms Are Available for Solving This Problem

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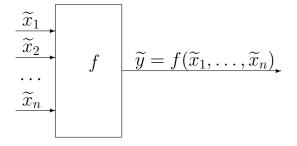
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Why Data Processing and Knowledge Processing Are Needed in the First Place

- Problem: some quantities y are difficult (or impossible) to measure or estimate directly.
- Solution: indirect measurements or estimates



- Fact: estimates \widetilde{x}_i are approximate.
- Question: how approximation errors $\Delta x_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{x}_i x_i$ affect the resulting error $\Delta y = \widetilde{y} - y$?



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Interval Computations

- Manufacturers of MI provide us with bounds Δ_i on measurement errors: $|\Delta x_i| \leq \Delta_i$.
- Thus, we know that $x_i \in [\widetilde{x}_i \Delta_i, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i]$.
- Often, we also know probabilities, but in 2 cases, we don't:
 - cutting-edge measurements;
 - cutting-cost manufacturing.
- In such situations:
 - we know the intervals $[\underline{x}_i, \overline{x}_i] = [\widetilde{x}_i \Delta_i, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i]$ of possible values of x_i , and
 - we want to find the range of possible values of y:

$$\mathbf{y} = [\underline{y}, \overline{y}] = \{ f(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_1 \in [\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1], \dots, [\underline{x}_n, \overline{x}_n] \}.$$

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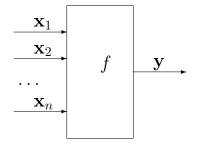
4. Main Problem of Interval Computations

We are given:

- an integer n;
- n intervals $\mathbf{x}_1 = [\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1], \ldots, \mathbf{x}_n = [\underline{x}_n, \overline{x}_n],$ and
- an algorithm $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ which transforms n real numbers into a real number $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$.

We need to compute the endpoints \underline{y} and \overline{y} of the interval

$$\mathbf{y} = [\underline{y}, \overline{y}] = \{ f(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_1 \in [\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1], \dots, [\underline{x}_n, \overline{x}_n] \}.$$





5. Interval Computations: A Brief History

- Origins: Archimedes (Ancient Greece)
- Pioneers: Mieczyslaw Warmus (Poland), Teruo Sunaga (Japan), Raymond Moore (USA), 1956–59
- First boom: early 1960s.
- First challenge: taking interval uncertainty into account when planning spaceflights to the Moon.
- Current applications (sample):
 - design of elementary particle colliders:
 Martin Berz, Kyoko Makino (USA)
 - will a comet hit the Earth: Berz, Moore (USA)
 - robotics: Jaulin (France), Neumaier (Austria)
 - chemical engineering: Mark Stadtherr (USA)

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6. Need to Process Fuzzy Uncertainty

- In many practical situations, we only have expert estimates for the inputs x_i .
- Sometimes, experts provide guaranteed bounds on x_i , and even the probabilities of different values.
- However, such cases are rare.
- Usually, the experts' opinion is described by (imprecise, "fuzzy") words from natural language.
- Example: the value x_i of the *i*-th quantity is approximately 1.0, with an accuracy most probably about 0.1.
- Based on such "fuzzy" information, what can we say about $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$?
- The need to process such "fuzzy" information was first emphasized in the early 1960s by L. Zadeh.



7. How to Describe Fuzzy Uncertainty: Reminder

- In Zadeh's approach, we assign:
 - to each number x_i ,
 - a degree $m_i(x_i) \in [0,1]$ with which x_i is a possible value of the *i*-th input.
- In most practical situations, the membership function:
 - starts with 0,
 - continuously \uparrow until a certain value,
 - and then continuously \downarrow to 0.
- Such membership function describe usual expert's expressions such as "small", " $\approx a$ with an error $\approx \sigma$ ".
- Membership functions of this type are actively used in expert estimates of number-valued quantities.
- They are thus called *fuzzy numbers*.

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8. Processing Fuzzy Data: Formulation of the Problem

- We know an algorithm $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ that relates:
 - the value of the desired difficult-to-estimate quantity y with
 - the values of easier-to-estimate auxiliary quantities x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- We also have expert knowledge about each of the quantities x_i .
- For each i, this knowledge is described in terms of the corresponding membership function $m_i(x_i)$.
- Based on this information, we want to find the membership function m(y) which describes:
 - for each real number y,
 - the degree of confidence that this number is a possible value of the desired quantity.

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9. Towards Solving the Problem

- Intuitively, y is a possible value of the desired quantity if for some values x_1, \ldots, x_n :
 - $-x_1$ is a possible value of the 1st input quantity,
 - and x_2 is a possible value of the 2nd input quantity,
 - $-\ldots$
 - and $y = f(x_1 \dots, x_n)$.
- We know:
 - that the degree of confidence that x_1 is a possible value of the 1st input quantity is equal to $m_1(x_1)$,
 - that the degree of confidence that x_2 is a possible value of the 2nd input quantity is equal to $m_2(x_2)$,
 - etc.
- The degree of confidence $d(y, x_1, ..., x_n)$ in an equality $y = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$ is, of course, 1 or 0.



- The simplest way to represent "and" is to use min.
- Thus, for each combination of values x_1, \ldots, x_n , the degree of confidence d in a composite statement

" x_1 is a possible value of the 1st input quantity, and x_2 is a possible value of the 2nd input quantity, ..., and $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ "

is equal to

$$d = \min(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), \dots, d(y, x_1, \dots, x_n)).$$

- We can simplify this expression if we consider two possible cases:
 - when $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, we get $d = \min(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), \dots, d(y, x_1, \dots, x_n));$
 - otherwise, we get d = 0.

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11. Using "Or"

- We want to combine these degrees of belief into a single degree of confidence that for some values x_1, \ldots, x_n ,
 - $-x_1$ is a possible value of the 1st input quantity,
 - and x_2 is a possible value of the 2nd quantity, ...,
 - and $y = f(x_1 \dots, x_n)$.
- The words "for some values x_1, \ldots, x_n " means that the following composite property hold
 - either for one combination of real numbers x_1, \ldots, x_n ,
 - or from another combination, etc.
- The simplest way to represent "or" is to use max.
- Thus, the desired degree of confidence m(y) is equal to the maximum of the degrees corr. to different x_i :

$$m(y) = \sup_{x_1,...,x_n} \min(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), ..., d(y, x_1, ..., x_n)).$$

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- x_1, \dots, x_n • We know that the maximized degree is non-zero only
- when $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.
- It is therefore sufficient to only take supremum over such combinations.
- For such combinations, we can omit the $d(y, x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ in the maximized expression.
- So, we arrive at the following formula:

$$m(y) = \sup \{ \min(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \}.$$

- This formula was first proposed by L. Zadeh and is thus called Zadeh's extension principle.
- This is the main formula that describes knowledge processing under fuzzy uncertainty.

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- $m(y) = \sup \{ \min(m_1(x_1), \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \}.$
- Knowledge processing under fuzzy uncertainty is usually done by reducing to interval computations.
- Specifically, for each fuzzy set m(x) and for each α in (0,1], we can define its α -cut $\mathbf{x}(\alpha) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x : m(x) \geq \alpha\}$.
- Vice versa, if we know the α -cuts for all α , we can reconstruct m(x) as the largest α for which $x \in \mathbf{x}(\alpha)$.
- When $m_i(x_i)$ are fuzzy numbers, and $y = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$ is continuous, then for each α , we have:

$$\mathbf{y}(\alpha) = f(\mathbf{x}_1(\alpha), \dots, \mathbf{x}_n(\alpha)).$$

- There exist many efficient algorithms and software packages for solving interval computations problems.
- So, the above reduction can help to efficiently solve the problems of fuzzy data processing as well.

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14. Measurement and Estimation Inaccuracies Are Usually Small

- In many practical situations, the measurement and estimation inaccuracies Δx_i are relatively small.
- Then, we can safely ignore terms which are quadratic (or of higher order) in terms of Δx_i :

$$\Delta y = \widetilde{y} - y = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) - f(\widetilde{x}_1 - \Delta x_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n - \Delta x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \cdot \Delta x_i, \text{ where } c_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}.$$

• If needed, the derivative can be estimated by numerical differentiation

$$c_i \approx \frac{f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_{i-1}, \widetilde{x}_i + h, \widetilde{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n) - \widetilde{y}}{h}.$$



15. Estimating Accuracy of Data Processing

- The value $\Delta y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \cdot \Delta x_i$ is the largest when each term is the largest, so $\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_i| \cdot \Delta_i$.
- In the fuzzy case, the similar formula holds for the α cuts, for every α : ${}^{\alpha}\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_i| \cdot {}^{\alpha}\Delta_i$.
- Experts cannot describe their degrees of confidence α with too much accuracy.
- Usually, it is sufficient to consider only eleven values $\alpha = 0.0$, $\alpha = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.2$, ..., $\alpha = 0.9$, and $\alpha = 1.0$.
- Thus, we need to apply the above formula eleven times.
- This is in line with the fact we usually divide each quantity into 7 ± 2 categories (Miller's " 7 ± 2 Law").
- \bullet So, it is sufficient to have at least 9 different categories.

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- Sometimes, all membership functions are "of the same type": $m(z) = m_0(k \cdot z)$ for some symmetric $m_0(z)$.
- \bullet Example: for triangular functions,

$$m_0(z) = \max(1 - |z|, 0).$$

- In this case, $m(z) \ge \alpha$ is equivalent to $m_0(k \cdot z) \ge \alpha$, so ${}^{\alpha}\Delta_0 = k \cdot {}^{\alpha}\Delta$ and ${}^{0}\Delta_0 = k \cdot {}^{0}\Delta$.
- Thus, ${}^{\alpha}\Delta = f(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta$, where $f(\alpha) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{{}^{\alpha}\Delta_{0}}{{}^{0}\Delta_{0}}$.
- For example, for a triangular membership function, we have $f(\alpha) = 1 \alpha$.
- So, if we know the type m_0 (hence $f(\alpha)$), and we know the 0-cut, we can compute all α -cuts as ${}^{\alpha}\Delta = f(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta$.
- So, if $m_i(\Delta x_i)$ are of the same type, then ${}^{\alpha}\Delta_i = f(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta_i$ for all α .

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17. When a Speed-Up Is Possible (cont-d)

- We know that ${}^{\alpha}\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_i| \cdot {}^{\alpha}\Delta_i$.
- For ${}^{\alpha}\Delta_i = f(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta_i$, we get

$$^{\alpha}\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_i| \cdot f(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta_i.$$

- So, ${}^{\alpha}\Delta = f(\alpha) \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_i| \cdot {}^{0}\Delta_i\right) = f(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta.$
- Thus, if all m(x) are of the same type $m_0(z)$, there is no need to compute ${}^{\alpha}\Delta$ eleven times:
 - it is sufficient to compute ${}^{0}\Delta$;
 - to find all other values ${}^{\alpha}\Delta$, we simply multiply ${}^{0}\Delta$ by the factors $f(\alpha)$ corresponding to $m_0(z)$.



18. A More General Case

- A more general case is:
 - when we have a list of T different types of uncertainty i.e., types of membership functions, and
 - each approximation error Δx_i consists of $\leq T$ components of the corresponding type t:

$$\Delta x_i = \sum_{t=1}^T \Delta x_{i,t}.$$

- For example:
 - type t = 1 may correspond to intervals (which are, of course, a particular case of fuzzy uncertainty),
 - type t = 2 may correspond to triangular membership functions, etc.



19. How This Case Is Processed Now

- First stage:
 - we use the known membership functions $m_{i,t}(\Delta x_{i,t})$
 - to find the memberships functions $m_i(\Delta x_i)$ that correspond to the sums Δx_i .
- Second stage: we use $m_i(\Delta x_i)$ to compute the desired membership function $m(\Delta y)$.
- *Problem:* on the second stage, we apply the above formula eleven times:

$${}^{\alpha}\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_i| \cdot {}^{\alpha}\Delta_i.$$



20. The Main Idea of this Section

• We have $\Delta y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \cdot \Delta x_i$, where

$$\Delta x_i = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \Delta x_{i,t}.$$

- Thus, $\Delta y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \cdot \left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \Delta x_{i,t}\right)$.
- Grouping together all the terms corr. to type t, we get $\Delta y = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \Delta y_t$, where $\Delta y_t \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \cdot \Delta x_{i,t}$.
- For each t, we are combining membership functions of the same type, so it is enough to compute ${}^{0}\Delta_{t}$.
- Then, we add the resulting membership functions by adding the corresponding α -cuts.

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21. Resulting Algorithm

- Let $[-{}^{0}\Delta_{i,t}, {}^{0}\Delta_{i,t}]$ be 0-cuts of the membership functions $m_{i,t}(\Delta x_{i,t})$.
- Based on these 0-cuts, we compute, for each type t, the values ${}^{0}\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_{i}| \cdot {}^{0}\Delta_{i,t}$.
- Then, for $\alpha = 0$, $\alpha = 0.1$, ..., and for $\alpha = 1.0$, we compute the values ${}^{\alpha}\Delta_t = f_t(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta_t$.
- Finally, we add up α -cuts corresponding to different types t, to come up with the expression ${}^{\alpha}\Delta = \sum_{t=1}^{T} {}^{\alpha}\Delta_{t}$.
- Comment. We can combine the last two steps into a single step: ${}^{\alpha}\Delta = \sum_{t=1}^{T} f_t(\alpha) \cdot {}^{0}\Delta_t$.



22. The New Algorithm Is Much Faster

• The original algorithm computed the above formula eleven times:

$${}^{\alpha}\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |c_i| \cdot {}^{\alpha}\Delta_i.$$

- The new algorithm uses the corresponding formula T times, i.e., as many times as there are types.
- All the other computations are much faster, since they do not grow with the input size n.
- \bullet Thus, if the number T of different types is smaller than eleven, the new methods is much faster.
- Example: for T=2 types (e.g., intervals and triangular m(x)), we get a $\frac{11}{2}=5.5$ times speedup.



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Type-2 Fuzzy Case: What Is
Known and How to Further Speed
Up Data Processing

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23. Need for Type-2 Fuzzy Sets

- Fuzzy logic analyzes cases when an expert cannot describe his/her knowledge by an exact value.
- Instead, the expert describe this knowledge by using words from natural language.
- Fuzzy logic described these words in a computer understandable form as fuzzy sets.
- In the traditional approach to fuzzy logic, the expert's degree of certainty $m_A(x)$ is a number from [0,1].
- However, we consider situations when an expert cannot describe his/her knowledge by a number.
- It is not reasonable to expect that the same expert will express his/her degree of certainty by an exact number.
- It is more reasonable to expect that the expert will describe m(x) also by words from natural language.



24. Type-2 Fuzzy Sets

- It is reasonable to that the expert will describe these degrees also by words from natural language.
- Thus, a natural representation of the degree m(x) is not a number, but rather a new fuzzy set.
- Such situations, in which to every value x we assign a fuzzy number m(x), are called type-2 fuzzy sets.
- Type-2 fuzzy sets provide a more adequate representation of expert knowledge.
- It is thus not surprising that in comparison with the more traditional type-1 sets, such sets lead to
 - a higher quality control,
 - higher quality clustering, etc.
- If type-2 fuzzy sets are more adequate, why are not they used more?



25. The Main Obstacle to Using Type-2 Fuzzy Sets

- Main reason: transition to type-2 fuzzy sets leads to an increase in computation time.
- Indeed, to describe a traditional (type-1) membership function function, it is sufficient to describe,
 - for each value x,
 - a single number m(x).
- In contrast, to describe a type-2 set,
 - for each value x,
 - we must describe the entire membership function –
 which needs several parameters to describe.
- We need more numbers just to store such information.
- So, we need more computational time to process all the numbers representing these sets.

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26. Interval-Valued Fuzzy Sets

- In line with this reasoning:
 - the most widely used type-2 fuzzy sets are
 - the ones which require the smallest number of parameters to store.
- We are talking about *interval-valued* fuzzy numbers, in which:
 - for each x,
 - the degree of certainty m(x) is an interval

$$\mathbf{m}(x) = [\underline{m}(x), \overline{m}(x)].$$

- To store each interval, we need exactly two numbers.
- This is the smallest possible increase over the single number needed to store the type-1 value m(x).

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- For interval-valued fuzzy data, we only know the interval $\mathbf{m}_i(x_i) = [\underline{m}_i(x), \overline{m}_i(x)]$ of possible values of $m_i(x_i)$.
- By applying Zadeh's extension principle to different $m_i(x_i) \in [\underline{m}_i(x), \overline{m}_i(x)]$, we get different values of $m(y) = \sup\{\min(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\}.$
- When the values $m_i(x_i)$ continuously change, the value m(y) also continuously changes.
- We want to know the set of possible values of m(y).
- So, for every y, the set $\mathbf{m}(y)$ of all possible values of m(y) is an interval:

$$\mathbf{m}(y) = [\underline{m}(y), \overline{m}(y)].$$

• Thus, to describe this set, it is sufficient, for each y, to describe the endpoints $\underline{m}(y)$ and $\overline{m}(y)$.

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$$m(y) = \sup \{ \min(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), \dots) : y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \}.$$

- This expression is non-strictly increasing in $m_i(x_i)$, so:
 - m(y) attains its smallest value when all the inputs $m_i(x_i)$ are the smallest:

$$\underline{m}(y) = \sup\{\min(\underline{m}_1(x_1), \underline{m}_2(x_2), \dots) : y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)\};$$
• $m(y)$ attains its largest value when all the inputs

• m(y) attains its largest value when all the inputs $m_i(x_i)$ are the largest:

$$\overline{m}(y) = \sup \{ \min(\overline{m}_1(x_1), \overline{m}_2(x_2), \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \}.$$

• So, we need to apply Zadeh's extension principle to lower and membership functions $\underline{m}_i(x_i)$ and $\overline{m}_i(x_i)$.

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- To find m(y) (corr., $\overline{m}(y)$), we apply Zadeh's extension principle to membership f-s $\underline{m}_i(x_i)$ (corr., $\overline{m}_i(x_i)$).
- For type-1 fuzzy sets, Zadeh's extension principle can be reduced to interval computations.
- Let $\mathbf{y}(\alpha)$ denote α -cuts for $\underline{m}(y)$, and let $\overline{\mathbf{y}}(\alpha)$ denote α -cuts for $\overline{m}(y)$.
- Then, we arrive at the following algorithm: for every $\alpha \in (0,1],$
 - first compute

$$\underline{\mathbf{x}}_i(\alpha) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x_i : \underline{m}_i(x_i) \ge \alpha\} \text{ and } \overline{\mathbf{x}}_i(\alpha) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x_i : \overline{m}_i(x_i) \ge \alpha\};$$

- then compute

$$\mathbf{x}(\alpha) = f(\mathbf{x}(\alpha))$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{y}}(\alpha) = f(\underline{\mathbf{x}}_1(\alpha), \dots, \underline{\mathbf{x}}_n(\alpha)); \ \overline{\mathbf{y}}(\alpha) = f(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_1(\alpha), \dots, \overline{\mathbf{x}}_n(\alpha)).$$

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$$m(y) = \sup \{ \min(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \}.$$

• General type-2 case:
$$m_i(x_i)$$
 are fuzzy numbers, with β -cuts $(m_i(x_i))(\beta) = [\underline{(m_i(x_i))(\beta)}, \overline{(m_i(x_i))(\beta)}].$

• Due to known relation with interval computations:

$$(m(y))(\beta) = \sup \{ \min((m_1(x_1))(\beta), \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \}.$$

• Due to monotonicity:

$$(m(y))(\beta) = \sup \{ \min((m_1(x_1))(\beta), \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \};$$

 $\overline{(m(y))(\beta)} = \sup \{ \min(\overline{(m_1(x_1))(\beta)}, \ldots) : y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \}.$

$$\underline{\mathbf{y}}(\alpha, \beta) = f(\underline{\mathbf{x}}_1(\alpha, \beta), \ldots); \ \overline{\mathbf{y}}(\alpha, \beta) = f(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_1(\alpha, \beta), \ldots), \text{ where}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{y}}(\alpha, \beta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{y : m(y)(\beta) \ge \alpha\}, \ \overline{\mathbf{y}}(\alpha, \beta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{y : \overline{m(y)(\beta)} \ge \alpha\}.$$

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31. Conclusions of this Section

- Type-2 fuzzy sets more adequately describe expert's opinion than the more traditional type-1 fuzzy sets.
- The use of type-2 fuzzy sets has thus led to better quality control, better quality clustering, etc.
- Main obstacle: the computational time of data processing increases.
- Known result: processing interval-valued fuzzy numbers can be reduced to interval computations.
- Conclusion: processing interval-valued fuzzy data is (almost) as fast as processing type-1 fuzzy data.
- In this talk, we showed that fast algorithms can be extended to *general* type-2 fuzzy numbers.
- This will hopefully lead to more practical applications of type-2 fuzzy sets.



Part IV Beyond min t-Norms

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$$f_{\&}(a,b) = \min(a,b).$$

- However, in many practical situations, other "and"operations more adequately describe expert reasoning.
- It is therefore desirable to consider the general case $m(y) = \sup\{f_{\&}(m_1(x_1), m_2(x_2), \ldots : u = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\}.$
- We are interested in the linearized case, when

$$\Delta y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \cdot \Delta x_i.$$

• How can we speed up computations in this general case?

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- We know that $\Delta y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, where $y_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} c_i \cdot \Delta x_i$.
- Once we know the membership f-n $m_i(\Delta x_i)$, we can easily find the membership f-n for y_i as $m_i(y_i/c_i)$.
- If we know how to find the membership f-n for the sum of two fuzzy quantities, then we can:
 - find the membership f-n for $s_2 = y_1 + y_2$;
 - then, find membership f-n for

$$s_3 = s_2 + y_2 \ (= y_1 + y_2 + y_3),$$

- etc, until we reach $s_n = y$.
- For fuzzy quantities with membership f-ns $n_1(x_1)$ and $n_2(x_2)$, the membership f-n for $y = x_1 + x_2$ is

$$n(y) = \max_{x_1} f_{\&}(n_1(x_1), n_2(y - x_1)).$$

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$$n(y) = \max_{x_1} f_{\&}(n_1(x_1), n_2(y - x_1)).$$

• Some t-norms are *Archimedean*; for them:

$$f_{\&}(a,b) = f^{-1}(f(a) \cdot f(b))$$
 for some function $f(x)$.

- Archimedean t-norms are universal approximators:
 - for every $\varepsilon > 0$,
 - every t-norm $f_{\&}$ is ε -close to some Archimedean.
- Thus, from the practical viewpoint, we can safely assume that $f_{\&}$ is Archimedean.
- Then, for $q_i(x_i) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(n_i(x_i))$ and $q(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(n(y))$:

$$q(y) = \max_{x_1} q_1(x_1) \cdot q_2(y - x_1).$$

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- We want to compute $q(y) = \max_{x_1} q_1(x_1) \cdot q_2(y x_1)$.
- For $\ell_i(x_i) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\ln(q_i(x_i))$ and $\ell(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\ln(q(y))$:

$$\ell(y) = \min_{x_1} (\ell_1(x_1) + \ell_2(y - x_1)).$$

- This operation is known as *infimal convlution*, and denoted by $\ell = \ell_1 \square \ell_2$.
- It is known that $\ell_1 \square \ell_2 = (\ell_1^* + \ell_2^*)^*$ for Legendre transform

$$\ell^*(s) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sup_x (s \cdot x - \ell(x)).$$

- There exists a linear-time algorithm for computing Legendra transform.
- Thus, we can compute $\ell_1 \square \ell_2$ in linear time.

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- We are given:
 - a function $f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$;
 - n membership functions $m_1(x_1), \ldots, m_n(x_n)$; and
 - an "and"-operation $f_{\&}(a,b)$.
- $m(y) = \max\{f_{\&}(m_1(x_1), \dots, m_n(x_n)) : f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = y\}.$ • First, we represent $f_{\&}$ in the Acrhiemdean form

• We want to compute a new membership function

- $f_{\&}(a,b) = f^{-1}(f(a) \cdot f(b))$ for an appropriate f(x).
- We thus assume that we have algorithms for computing f(x) and the inverse function $f^{-1}(x)$.
- Then, for each i, we find the value \widetilde{x}_i for which $m_i(x_i)$ attains its largest possible value $m_i(\tilde{x}_i) = 1$.

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37. Algorithm (cont-d)

- We then compute the values $c_0 = f(\widetilde{x}_1, \dots, \widetilde{x}_n), c_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i|_{x_i=\widetilde{x}_i}}$, and $a_0 = c_0 \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \cdot \widetilde{x}_i$.
- Then, $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \approx a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \cdot x_i$.
- After that, e compute the membership f-ns $n_1(s_1) = m_1((s_1 a_0)/c_1)$ and $n_i(y_i) = m_i(y_i/c_i)$ for i > 2.
- In terms of the variables $s_1 = a_0 + c_1 \cdot x_1$ and $y_i = c_i \cdot x_i$, the desired quantity y has the form $y = s_1 + y_2 + \ldots + y_n$.
- We compute the minus logarithms of the resulting functions: $\ell_i(y_i) = -\ln(n_i(y_i))$.
- For each i, we then use the Fast Legendre Transform algorithm to compute ℓ_i^* .



38. Algorithm (final)

• Then, we add all these Legendre transforms and apply the Fast Legendre Transform once again, getting:

$$\ell = (\ell_1^* + \ldots + \ell_n^*)^*.$$

- This function $\ell(y)$ is equal to $\ell(y) = -\ln(n(y))$, so we can reconstruct $\nu(y)$ as $n(y) = \exp(-\ell(y))$.
- Finally, we can compute the desired membership function m(u) as $m(y) = f^{-1}(n(y))$.



39. Conclusion for this Section

- To process fuzzy data, we need to use Zadeh's extension principle.
- In principle, this principle can be used for any t-norm.
- However, usually, it is only used for the min t-norm.
- Reason: only for this t-norm, an efficient (linear-time) algorithm for fuzzy data processing was known.
- In many practical situations, other t-norms are more adequate in describing expert's reasoning.
- We have shown that similar efficient linear-time algorithms can be designed for an arbitrary t-norm.
- Thus, it is possible to use a more adequate t-norm and keep fuzzy data processing efficient.



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