

Motivation

From Propositions To Fuzzy Logic and Rules

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Present a formal foundation for

- ▶ propositional rules
- ▶ fuzzy sets
- ▶ fuzzy rules

in order to enable understanding and implementation of a fuzzy propositional rules classifier.

Outline

- ▶ Propositions
- ▶ Propositions over sets
- ▶ Fuzzy Sets
- ▶ Propositions over Fuzzy Sets

Propositional Logic

What is a proposition anyway?

A proposition is a statement that is either true or false. In this context, an interesting statement was made by the greek philosopher Eubulides a long time ago:

This statement is false.

Before we can start saying anything about the above or other statements, we need to establish a language, the *propositional language* or *PL*.

Propositional Logic Syntax

Components

The *PL* language consists of

- ▶ an infinite set of *variables* $V = \{a, b, \dots\}$, and
- ▶ a set of *symbols* $S = \{\sim, \vee, (,)\}$.

Definition

An *expression* in *PL* is any string consisting of elements from the sets V and S , i.e., any string of variables and symbols.

Leaving out outer parentheses

We sometimes leave out the outermost parentheses of expressions: $(\alpha \vee \beta)$ becomes $\alpha \vee \beta$ even though this is, strictly speaking, not a well formed formula according to the rules above.

Formation Rules

An expression is either a *well formed formula* (wff) or it is not. The following wff formation rules allow us to define wff:

Definition

- ▶ A variable alone is a wff
- ▶ If α is a wff, so is $\sim \alpha$, and
- ▶ If α and β are wff, so is $(\alpha \vee \beta)$

Example

for variables a and b the expression $(a \vee \sim \sim \sim b)$ is a wff, while the expression $a \sim \vee b$ is not.

Propositional Logic Semantics

Semantics = Meaning

Given a wff we would like to determine whether this expression is true or false. In order to do this we need to define the *semantics* or meaning of our language.

Propositional Logic Semantics

Setting: variable value assignments

Definition

We define a *setting* s as a function $s : V \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ assigning to each variable either the value 0 or the value 1, denoting true or false respectively.

Propositional Logic Semantics

Interpretation: Truth Value of Expressions

Definition

An *interpretation* is a function that takes as input a wff and returns 0 or 1 depending on the setting used.

- ▶ Formally if we let WFF denote the (infinite) set of wff of PL we define the interpretation I_s as $I_s : WFF \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.
- ▶ If the setting s is given by the context or is irrelevant, we drop the subscript and just write I .

Propositional Logic Semantics

Semantics of Operators: Pronunciation

\sim and \vee are *propositional operators* and are called *negation* and *disjunction*, respectively.

The expression $\alpha \vee \beta$ is called the “disjunction of α and β ”, while $\sim \alpha$ is called the “negation of α ”.

In everyday language negation is often pronounced “not”, while disjunction is pronounced “or”.

Propositional Logic Semantics

Semantics of Operators: Formals

$$\begin{aligned} \sim &: \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \\ \vee &: \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\sim(0) = 1$$

$$\sim(1) = 0$$

\vee	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

Table: Truth table for disjunction \vee

Propositional Logic Semantics

Semantics of Operators: Infix notation

Usually the propositional operators taking two arguments (binary operators) are written in what is called infix notation, i.e., instead of $\vee(0, 1)$ we write $0 \vee 1$. We also usually remove the parentheses from $\sim(0)$ and write ~ 0 .

Example

$$\vee(0, 1) = 0 \vee 1 = 1.$$

Propositional Logic Semantics

Computing the Interpretation I

The computation of I applied to a wff is made according to these rules:

- ▶ For a variable a , $I(a) = s(a)$,
- ▶ $I(\sim \alpha) = \sim I(\alpha)$, and
- ▶ $I(\alpha \vee \beta) = I(\alpha) \vee I(\beta)$

for wff α and β .

Propositional Logic Semantics

Example: Computing the Interpretation I

Example

$$\begin{aligned} I(\sim(\sim a \vee \sim b)) &= \sim I(\sim a \vee \sim b) \\ &= \sim(\sim I(a) \vee \sim I(b)) \\ &= \sim(\sim s(a) \vee \sim s(b)) \end{aligned}$$

If we let $s(a) = 1$ and $s(b) = 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned} I_s(\sim(\sim a \vee \sim b)) &= \sim(\sim 1 \vee \sim 0) \\ &= \sim(0 \vee 1) = \sim 1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Propositional Logic

Syntactic “Sugar”

- ▶ \wedge is called *conjunction* (“and”)

$$(a \wedge b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sim(\sim a \vee \sim b)$$

$(a \wedge b)$ is often called the “conjunction of a and b ”.

- ▶ \rightarrow is called *implication* (“implies”)

$$(a \rightarrow b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\sim a \vee b)$$

Left side is the *antecedent*, right side is the *consequent*. We also

let $(b \leftarrow a) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (a \rightarrow b)$.

- ▶ \leftrightarrow is called *equivalence* (“equivalence”)

$$(a \leftrightarrow b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (a \rightarrow b) \wedge (b \rightarrow a)$$

Propositional Logic

Validity and Satisfiability: Defined

A wff α is *valid* if and only if $I_s(\alpha) = 1$ for every setting s . A wff α is *satisfiable* if there exists a setting s such that $I_s(\alpha) = 1$, and *unsatisfiable* if no such setting s exists.

Example

The wff $(\alpha \vee \sim \alpha)$ is valid, while $(\alpha \wedge \sim \alpha)$ is unsatisfiable.

Testing for validity: Falsifying Setting Method

Based on the observation that:

- ▶ $\sim \alpha$ is satisfiable $\Rightarrow \alpha$ is not valid, or
- ▶ $\sim \alpha$ is unsatisfiable $\Rightarrow \alpha$ is valid.

Strategy: find consistent satisfying setting s for $\sim \alpha$ or show that there is none.

Propositional Logic

Testing for validity: Truth Table Method

The truth table for $(a \rightarrow b)$ is given here:

a	b	$(a \rightarrow b)$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

- ▶ Table rows represent settings of variables a and b and the resulting value for $(a \rightarrow b)$.
- ▶ Is $(a \rightarrow b)$ valid? Satisfiable?
Valid: No. Satisfiable: Yes.

Note: Tables can become Large.

Propositional Logic

Example: Testing for validity using Falsifying Setting Method

Is $((p \wedge (p \leftrightarrow (q \wedge r))) \rightarrow q)$ valid?

$(($	p	\wedge	$($	p	\leftrightarrow	$($	q	\wedge	r	$))$	\rightarrow	q	$)$
1	1		1	1		1	1	1		0	0		
4	2		6	5		8	7	9		1	3		

Propositional Logic

Example: Testing for validity using Falsifying Setting Method

Is $((p \wedge (p \leftrightarrow (q \wedge r))) \rightarrow q)$ valid?

$$((p \wedge (p \leftrightarrow (q \wedge r))) \rightarrow q)$$

1	1	1	1	<u>1</u>	1	1	0	<u>0</u>
4	2	6	5	8	7	9	1	3

Answer: Yes. The settings underlined pose a contradiction.

Note:

If we during the process shown are allowed alternatives, we need to show a contradiction in *all* the possible alternative settings in order to declare our expression valid.

Propositional Logic

The PL Logic System: Components

The logic system of PL consists of three things:

- ▶ The specification of the language PL, as given above,
- ▶ the set of valid wff of PL, known as *axioms*, and
- ▶ the two transformation rules *Uniform Substitution (US)* and *Modus Ponens (MP)*.

The axioms and wff obtained from the axioms by application of the transformation rules are called *theorems* of PL. We denote that α is a theorem by writing $\vdash \alpha$.

Propositional Logic

The PL Logic System: Uniform Substitution

- ▶ The result of uniformly replacing any variable a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n in a theorem α with any wff $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n$ respectively is itself a theorem.
- ▶ Uniform means here that any occurrence of a_i in α is substituted with the same wff β_i . We write this as $\alpha[\beta_1/a_1, \beta_2/a_2, \dots, \beta_n/a_n]$.

Example

The result of $(a \rightarrow (a \vee b))[(c \wedge d)/a, c/b]$ is $((c \wedge d) \rightarrow ((c \wedge d) \vee c))$.

Propositional Logic

The PL Logic System: Modus Ponens

Modus Ponens (also called the rule of detachment) is sometimes written as

$$\frac{\alpha \quad \alpha \rightarrow \beta}{\beta}$$

If α and $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ are theorems, then by MP so is β . This simply reflects the truth-functional meaning of \rightarrow .

Propositional Logic

The PL Logic System: Derivability

We express the derivability of a wff by one or more wff by ' \Rightarrow '. As in:

US: $\vdash \alpha \Rightarrow \vdash \alpha[\beta_1/a_1, \beta_2/a_2, \dots, \beta_n/a_n]$

MP: $\vdash \alpha, (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \vdash \beta$

Propositional Logic

Propositional Consequence: Definition

Clear:

we can manipulate wff by using the rules defining operators and semantics.

Definition

The wff β is a *propositional consequence* of wff α if and only if $\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta \wedge \gamma$ for some wff γ .

We formulate this as a derived transformation rule:

PC: $\vdash \alpha, \vdash (\alpha \leftrightarrow (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \Rightarrow \vdash \beta$

Propositional Logic

Propositional Consequence: Proof of Rule

By showing how we would do without the rule:

- (1) α^{given}
- (2) $(\alpha \leftrightarrow (\beta \wedge \gamma))^{\text{given}}$
- (3) $((\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \wedge ((\beta \wedge \gamma) \rightarrow \alpha))^{\text{US } (a \leftrightarrow b) \wedge (b \leftrightarrow a)}$
- (4) $((((\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \wedge ((\beta \wedge \gamma) \rightarrow \alpha))) \rightarrow ((\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \wedge \gamma))))^{\text{US } ((a \wedge b) \rightarrow a)}$
- (5) $(\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \wedge \gamma))^{\text{MP } (3)+(4)}$
- (6) $(\beta \wedge \gamma)^{\text{MP } (1)+(5)}$
- (7) $((\beta \wedge \gamma) \rightarrow \beta)^{\text{US } ((a \wedge b) \rightarrow a)}$
- (8) β

Propositional Logic

Propositional Consequence: Example

If Alf studies, Alf gets good grades. If Alf does not study, Alf has a good time. If Alf does not get good grades, Alf does not have a good time.

What can we say about Alf?

Propositional Logic

Propositional Consequence: Example Formals

- ▶ s = “Alf studies”
- ▶ g = “Alf gets good grades”
- ▶ t = “Alf has a good time”

$$(s \rightarrow g) \wedge (\sim s \rightarrow t) \wedge (\sim g \rightarrow \sim t) \leftrightarrow g \wedge (s \vee t)$$

Using PC, we can conclude that Alf gets good grades.

Propositions over Sets

Characteristic Function: Defined

Definition

A *characteristic function* is a function that has as co-domain the set $\{0, 1\}$, i.e., $f : U \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a characteristic function.

- ▶ Furthermore, f is the characteristic function of the subset S of U such that S consists exactly of the elements x in U such that $f(x) = 1$.
- ▶ Formally, $S = f^{-1}(1) = \{x \in U \mid f(x) = 1\}$. We will denote the characteristic function for the set $S \subseteq U$ as χ_S .

Propositions over Sets

Propositions: Defined

Now, a proposition over a set is a proposition that describes a property of the elements of that set. Such propositions are modeled by characteristic functions.

Example

Let \mathbb{N} be the set of natural numbers, and let p be the proposition “ x is an even number”. We model p by the characteristic function $even : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ defined as

$$even(x) = (x + 1) \bmod 2$$

We have that $even(2) = 1$, and $even(3) = 0$, and so forth...

Propositions over Sets

Syntax

As before we have to define the language $PL(U)$ of propositions over the set U . Syntactically, this language is identical to the language PL , except that the set V is the set F consisting of (the names of) characteristic functions on the set U .

Propositions over Sets

Semantics: Truth Sets

The semantics of p over U is based on truth sets. We define truth sets of wff of $PL(U)$ according to the following rules: For $p \in F$, and wff α and β

- ▶ $T(p) = \{x \in U \mid p(x) = 1\}$,
- ▶ $T(\sim \alpha) = U - T(\alpha)$, and
- ▶ $T(\alpha \vee \beta) = T(\alpha) \cup T(\beta)$.

Propositions over Sets

Semantics: Truth Sets for “Syntactic Sugar”

Analogous to the PL case:

- ▶ $T(\alpha \wedge \beta) = T(\alpha) \cap T(\beta)$,
- ▶ $T(\alpha \rightarrow \beta) = (U - T(\alpha)) \cup T(\beta)$, and
- ▶ $T(\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta) = ((U - T(\alpha)) \cup T(\beta)) \cap ((U - T(\beta)) \cup T(\alpha))$.

Example

For the natural numbers and the proposition *even* the truth set is $T(\text{even}) = \{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$.

Propositions over Sets

Semantics: Interpretation

If we let $WFF(U)$ be the set of wff of $PL(U)$ we define the interpretation $I(\alpha, x)$ of a wff α with respect to an element x in U to be

- ▶ $I(\alpha, x) = 1$ if and only if $x \in T(\alpha)$.

Alternatively, we can formulate the above as

$$I(\alpha, x) = \chi_{T(\alpha)}(x).$$

Propositions over Sets

Interpretation Example

Consider the propositions “ x is a prime number” and “ x is an even number” over the natural numbers modeled by the characteristic functions *even* and *prime* with the usual definitions. Let $\alpha = \text{even} \wedge \text{prime}$. Then we have that

$$T(\alpha) = T(\text{even}) \cap T(\text{prime}) = \{2\},$$

and $I(\alpha, x) = 1$ if and only if $x = 2$.

Propositions over Sets

$PL(U) \supseteq PL$

We state that PL is “contained in” $PL(U)$. Indeed, PL is contained in $PL(\{0, 1\})$ as we can let $a \in V$ become $a \in F$ given by $T(a) = \{s(a)\}$. Then $I_s(\alpha) = I(\alpha, 1)$.

Propositional Rules

The implication view

if-then form

if height = tall and hair = dark then look=handsome

- ▶ “height = tall and hair = dark” is the *antecedent* or “if-part”,
- ▶ “look=handsome” is *consequent*, or “then-part”.

Application

- ▶ fact: height = tall and hair = dark
- ▶ rule: if height = tall and hair = dark then look=handsome
- ▶ inference: look=handsome

In effect we are using Modus ponens

Propositional Rules

The implication view: formals

The *descriptor* “height = tall” is a proposition HeightTall over the set of all people. We now formulate the if-then rule as propositions over sets:

$$(\text{HeightTall} \wedge \text{HairDark}) \rightarrow \text{LookHandsome}$$

The application becomes:

$$\frac{(\text{HeightTall} \wedge \text{HairDark}) \rightarrow \text{LookHandsome}}{(\text{LookHandsome})}$$

Effect:

We infer the unknown proposition LookHandsome.

Propositional Rules

Computation: Computing the Interpretation

Definition

Given a rule $(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$. The application of this rule to a data point x is the computation of $I(\beta, x)$ as $I(\alpha, x)$.

In other words we set $I(\beta, x) = \begin{cases} 1 & I(\alpha, x) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Fuzzy Sets

Inherent Vagueness

- ▶ What would you answer if I ask “Am I tall?”.
- ▶ Does knowing that I am 6ft tall help?
- ▶ Not really. The problem lies in the meaning of the word “tall”. I might be tall in Japan, but not in Holland.

Inherent Vagueness

Fuzzy sets offer a way of modeling *Inherent Vagueness*.

Fuzzy Sets

Generalization of Characteristic Functions

Central:

the generalization of the characteristic function $\chi_S : U \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ of set S to *membership function* $\mu_S : U \rightarrow [0, 1]$.

$\mu_S : U \rightarrow [0, 1]$ gives a *degree* of membership in the *fuzzy set* S .

Fuzzy Sets

Crisp Set Operators Definitions

Let A and B be two subsets of some set U . We define union, intersection, difference, and complementation using in terms of χ_A and χ_B as follows:

Definition

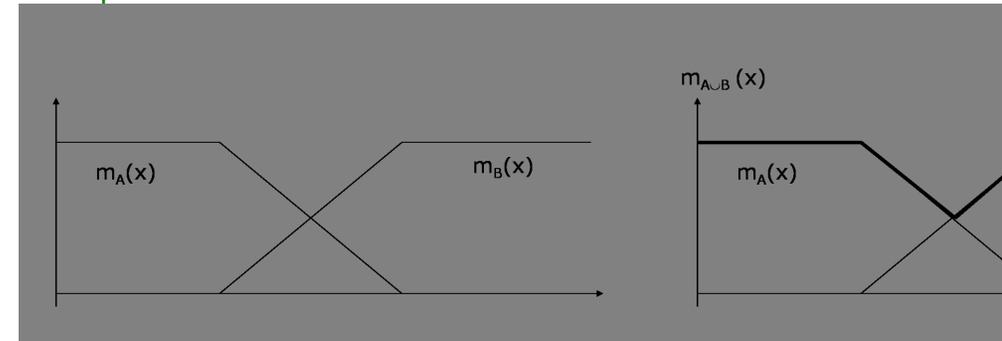
$$\begin{aligned}\chi_{A \cap B}(x) &= \min(\chi_A(x), \chi_B(x)) \\ \chi_{A \cup B}(x) &= \max(\chi_A(x), \chi_B(x)) \\ \chi_{A - B}(x) &= \min(\chi_A(x), 1 - \chi_B(x)) \\ \chi_{A^c}(x) &= 1 - \chi_A(x).\end{aligned}$$

For fuzzy set operations substitute μ for χ .

Fuzzy Sets

Fuzzy Set Operations Example

Example



Fuzzy Relations

Definition

Definition

A fuzzy relation R from a set X to a set Y is a fuzzy set in the cartesian product $X \times Y$, i.e., μ_R is a function $\mu_R : X \times Y \rightarrow [0, 1]$.

For $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, the value $\mu_R(x, y)$ gives the degree to which x is related to y in R .

Fuzzy Relations

Crisp Composition

For crisp binary relations $R \subseteq X \times Y$ and $R' \subseteq Y \times Z$ we can formulate their composition in terms of characteristic functions

$$\chi_{R \circ R'}(x, z) = \max_{y \in Y} \{ \min(\chi_R(x, y), \chi_{R'}(y, z)) \}$$

Fuzzy Relations

Fuzzy Composition

Definition

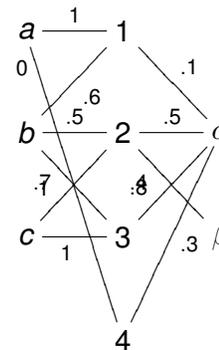
Let X , Y and Z be three sets and let R and R' be two fuzzy relations from X to Y and Y to Z , respectively.

$$\mu_{R \circ R'}(x, z) = \max_{y \in Y} \{ \min(\mu_R(x, y), \mu_{R'}(y, z)) \}.$$

For fuzzy relations, the definition of composition is essentially identical to the crisp case but for the now expected substitution of μ for χ .

Example

Consider sets $X = \{a, b, c\}$, $Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, and $Z = \{\alpha, \beta\}$ and fuzzy relations R and R' from X to Y and Y to Z respectively. Diagram:



$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{R \circ R'}(b, \alpha) &= \max\{\min(.6, .1), \\ &\quad \min(.5, .5), \\ &\quad \min(.7, .8)\} \\ &= \max\{.1, .5, .7\} = .7 \end{aligned}$$

Fuzzy Logic

Defining the Fuzzy Logic Language

Recall:

For $PL(U)$, the interpretation $I(\alpha, x)$ is given by

$$I(\alpha, x) = \chi_{T(\alpha)}(x).$$

Definition (Fuzzy Propositional Language)

We define $FPL(U)$, the language of propositions over fuzzy sets by substituting μ for χ in the definition of $PL(U)$.

Fuzzy Logic

Semantics

Definition (Fuzzy Truth Set)

We define the fuzzy truth set $T(\alpha)$ of wff α in $PL(U)$ according to the following rules. For $p \in F$, $x \in U$, and wffs α and β :

- ▶ $\mu_{T(p)}(x) = p(x)$,
- ▶ $\mu_{T(\sim\alpha)}(x) = 1 - \mu_{T(\alpha)}(x)$, and
- ▶ $\mu_{T(\alpha \vee \beta)}(x) = \max(\mu_{T(\alpha)}(x), \mu_{T(\beta)}(x))$.

Fuzzy Logic

Semantics of "Syntactic Sugar"

Analogous to the $PL(U)$ case we can show that

- ▶ $\mu_{T(\alpha \wedge \beta)}(x) = \min(\mu_{T(\alpha)}(x), \mu_{T(\beta)}(x))$,
- ▶ $\mu_{T(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)} = \max(1 - \mu_{T(\alpha)}(x), \mu_{T(\beta)}(x))$, and
- ▶ $\mu_{T(\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta)}(x) = \min(\max(1 - \mu_{T(\alpha)}(x), \mu_{T(\beta)}(x)), \max(1 - \mu_{T(\beta)}(x), \mu_{T(\alpha)}(x)))$.

Definition (Fuzzy Interpretation)

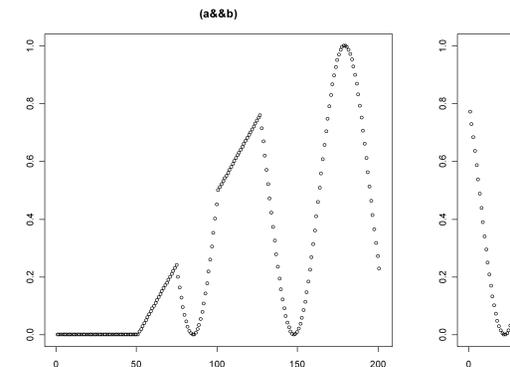
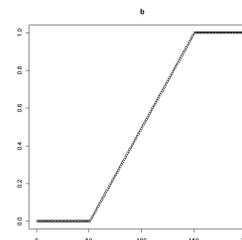
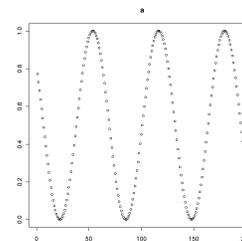
If we let $WFF(U)$ be the set of wffs of $FPL(U)$ we define the interpretation $I(\alpha, x)$ of a wff α with respect to an element x in U to be

- ▶ $I(\alpha, x) = \mu_{T(\alpha)}(x)$.

Fuzzy Logic

Examples

Example



Fuzzy Rules

Definition

There are different ways of defining fuzzy rules. We choose the following:

Definition

$I(\beta, x)$ is computed as

$$I(\beta, x) = I(\alpha, x)$$

according to the fuzzy rule $(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$.

Summary

Propositions over sets

We have learned

- ▶ about the propositional language $PL(U)$, over propositions over sets modeled by characteristic functions of subsets of U .
- ▶ that a *truth set* for a given wff is the set for which the interpretation is a characteristic function.
- ▶ that a propositional rule essentially is the application of modus ponens to an implication called the rule.

Summary

Propositions

We have learned

- ▶ about the propositional language PL , with variable assignments given by *settings* and the truth value of a well formed formula (wff) given by the *interpretation*.
- ▶ that a wff is *valid* if its interpretation is 1 for all possible settings, and is *satisfiable* if there exists a setting such that its interpretation is 1.

Summary

Fuzzy Sets and Logic

We have learned

- ▶ that *fuzzy sets* are a generalization of crisp sets by relaxing the characteristic function to a *membership function* giving the degree of membership in the set.
- ▶ that fuzzy propositions are just like the crisp counterparts,
- ▶ and that we can define fuzzy rules just like their crisp counterparts.