# **PROBABILITY THEORY & FUZZY LOGIC**

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April 24, 2003 Los Alamos National Laboratory – Sponsored by ESA Div.

LANL Uncertainty Quantification Working Group: http://public.lanl.gov/kmh/uncertainty/meetings

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## **PROBABILITY THEORY AND FUZZY LOGIC**

• How does fuzzy logic relate to probability theory?

 This is the question that was raised by Loginov in 1966, shortly after the publication of my first paper on fuzzy sets (1965).

 Relationship between probability theory and fuzzy logic has been, and continues to be, an object of controversy.

# **PRINCIPAL VIEWS**

- Inevitability of probability
- Fuzzy logic is probability theory in disguise
- The tools provided by fuzzy logic are not of importance

 Probability theory and fuzzy logic are complementary rather than competitive



## • My current view:

It is a fundamental limitation to base probability theory on bivalent logic
Probability theory should be based on fuzzy logic

## **RELATED PAPER**

• Lotfi A. Zadeh, "Toward a perception-based theory of probabilistic reasoning with imprecise probabilities," special issue on imprecise probabilities, Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference, Vol. 105, pp.233-264, 2002.

Downloadable from:

http://www-bisc.cs.berkeley.edu/BISCProgram/Projects.htm

#### THERE IS A FUNDAMENTAL CONFLICT BETWEEN BIVALENCE AND REALITY

- we live in a world in which almost everything is a matter of degree
- but
- *in bivalent logic, every proposition is either true or false, with no shades of gray allowed* 
  - *in fuzzy logic, everything is, or is allowed to be, a matter of degree*
- in bivalent-logic-based probability theory, PT, only certainty is a matter of degree
  - in perception-based probability theory, PTp, everything is, or is allowed to be, a matter of degree

#### **INEVITABILITY OF PROBABILITY**

• The only satisfactory description of uncertainty is probability. By this I mean that every uncertainty statement must be in the form of a probability; that several uncertainties must be combined using the rules of probability; and that the calculus of probabilities is adequate to handle all situations involving uncertainty...probability is the only sensible description of uncertainty and is adequate for all problems involving uncertainty. All other methods are inadequate... anything that can be done with fuzzy logic, belief functions, upper and lower probabilities, or any other alternative to probability can better be done with probability [Lindley (1987)]

 The numerous schemes for representing and reasoning about uncertainty that have appeared in the AI literature are unnecessary – probability is all that is needed [Cheesman (1985)]

## **BASIC PROBLEMS WITH PT**



# IT IS A FUNDAMENTAL LIMITATION TO BASE PROBABILITY THEORY ON BIVALENT LOGIC

- A major shortcoming of bivalent-logicbased probability theory, PT, relates to the inability of PT to operate on perceptionbased information
- In addition, PT has serious problems with
  (a) brittleness of basic concepts
  (b) the "it is possible but not probable" dilemma

#### PREAMBLE

 It is a deep-seated tradition in science to strive for the ultimate in rigor and precision. But as we enter into the age of machine intelligence and automated reasoning, other important goals come into view.

 We begin to realize that humans have a remarkable capability—a capability which machines do not have-to perform a wide variety of physical and mental tasks without any measurements and any computations. In performing such tasks, humans employ perceptions of distance, speed, direction, size, likelihood, intent and other attributes of physical and mental objects

• To endow machines with this capability, what is needed is a theory in which the objects of computation are, or are allowed to be, perceptions. The aim of the computational theory of perceptions is to serve this purpose purpose which is not served by existing theories.

# **KEY IDEA**

 In the computational theory of perceptions, perceptions are dealt with through their descriptions in a natural language

# COMPUTATIONAL THEORY OF PERCEPTIONS (CTP) BASIC POSTULATES

perceptions are intrinsically imprecise

 imprecision of perceptions is a concomitant of the bounded ability of sensory organs—and ultimately the brain—to resolve detail and store information

## **KEY POINTS**

- a natural language is, above all, a system for describing and reasoning with perceptions
- in large measure, human decisions are perception-based
- one of the principal purposes of CWP (Computing with Words and Perceptions) is that of making it possible to construct machines that are capable of operating on perception-based information expressed in a natural language
- existing bivalent-logic-based machines do not have this capability

# ILLUSTRATION AUTOMATION OF DRIVING IN CITY TRAFFIC

- a blind-folded driver could drive in city traffic if
  - a) a passenger in the front seat could instruct the driver on what to do
  - b) a passenger in the front seat could describe in a natural language his/her perceptions of decision-relevant information

replacement of the driver by a machine is a much more challenging problem in case (b) than in case (a)

#### **MEASUREMENT-BASED VS. PERCEPTION-BASED INFORMATIO**



#### MEASUREMENT-BASED VS. PERCEPTION-BASED CONCEPTS

measurement-based

perception-based

expected value stationarity continuous usual value

regularity

smooth

Example of a regular process  $T = (t_0, t_1, t_2 ...)$  $t_i = travel time from home to office on day i.$ 

#### WHAT IS CWP?

#### THE BALLS-IN-BOX PROBLEM

Version 1. Measurement-based

- a box contains 20 black and white balls
- over 70% are black



 there are three times as many black balls as white balls

- what is the number of white balls?
- what is the probability that a ball drawn at random is white?

Version 2. Perception-based

- a box contains about 20 black and white balls
- most are black
- there are several times as many black balls as white balls

what is the number of white balls?
what is the probability that a ball drawn at random is white?

Version 3. Perception-based

- a box contains about 20 black balls of various sizes
- most are large
- there are several times as many large balls as small balls

• what is the number of small balls?

what is the probability that a ball drawn at random is small?



## **COMPUTATION** (version 1)

measurement-based X = number of black balls Y<sub>2</sub> number of white balls  $X \ge 0.7 \bullet 20 = 14$ X + Y = 20X = 3YY = 525 p = 5/20

• perception-based X = number of blackballs Y = number of white balls  $X = most \times 20^*$ X = several \* Y $X + Y = 20^*$ P = Y/N

#### THE TRIP-PLANNING PROBLEM

- I have to fly from A to D, and would like to get there as soon as possible
- I have two choices: (a) fly to D with a connection in B; or (b) fly to D with a connection in C



- if I choose (a), I will arrive in D at time t<sub>1</sub>
- if I choose (b), I will arrive in D at time t<sub>2</sub>
- $t_1$  is earlier than  $t_2$
- Should I choose (a) ?

- now, let us take a closer look at the problem
- the connection time, c<sub>B</sub>, in B is short
- should I miss the connecting flight from B to D, the next flight will bring me to D at t<sub>3</sub>
- $t_3$  is later than  $t_2$
- what should I do?

$$decision = f(t_1, t_2, t_3, c_B, c_C)$$

existing methods of decision analysis do not have the capability to compute f

reason: nominal values of decision variables *≠* observed values of decision variables

- the problem is that we need information about the probabilities of missing connections in B and C.
- I do not have, and nobody has, measurementbased information about these probabilities
- whatever information I have is perceptionbased

#### THE KERNEL PROBLEM — THE SIMPLEST B-HARD DECISION PROBLEM



 decision is a function of t<sub>1</sub>, t<sub>2</sub>, t<sub>3</sub> and perceived probability of missing connection

strength of decision

## DECISION













#### **TEST PROBLEMS**

- Most Swedes are tall
- What is the average height of Swedes?

Prob {Robert is young} is low
 Prob {Robert is middle-aged} is high
 Prob {Robert is old} is low

 What is the probability that Robert is neither young nor old?



C<sub>ij</sub> = measured cost of travel
from i to j

ASP

airport shuttle problem



*t<sub>ij</sub>* = perceived time of travel from i to j

#### **PROBLEMS WITH PT**

- Bivalent-logic-based PT is capable of solving complex problems
- But, what is not widely recognized is that PT cannot answer simple questions drawn from everyday experiences
- To deal with such questions, PT must undergo three stages of generalization, leading to perception-based probability theory, PTp

#### **BASIC STRUCTURE OF PROBABILITY THEORY**



In PTp everything is or is allowed to be perception-based

#### THE NEED FOR A RESTRUCTURING OF PROBABILITY THEORY

- to circumvent the limitations of PT three stages of generalization are required
- 1. f-generalization
- 2. f.g-generalization
- 3. *nl-generalization*



#### FUNDAMENTAL POINTS

• the point of departure in perception-based probability theory (PTp) is the postulate:

subjective probability=perception of likelihood

- perception of likelihood is similar to perceptions of time, distance, speed, weight, age, taste, mood, resemblance and other attributes of physical and mental objects
  - perceptions are intrinsically imprecise, reflecting the bounded ability of sensory organs and, ultimately, the brain, to resolve detail and store information

perceptions and subjective probabilities are f-granular

#### SIMPLE EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS WHICH CANNOT BE ANSWERED THROUGH THE USE OF PT

- I am driving to the airport. How long will it take me to get there?
   Hotel clerk: About 20-25 minutes
   PT: Can't tell
- I live in Berkeley. I have access to police department and insurance company files. What is the probability that my car may be stolen?
   PT: Can't tell
- I live in the United States. Last year, one percent of tax returns were audited. What is the probability that my tax return will be audited?
   PT: Can't tell
# CONTINUED

- Robert is a professor. Almost all professors have a Ph.D. degree. What is the probability that Robert has a Ph.D. degree?
   PT: Can't tell
- I am talking on the phone to someone I do not know. How old is he? My perception: Young PT: Can't tell
  Almost all A's are B's. Almost all B's are C's. What fraction of A's are C's?
  - **PT: Between 0 and 1**
- The balls-in-box example
- The trip-planning example
- The Robert example

# BRITTLENESS (DISCONTINUITY)

 Almost all concepts in PT are bivalent in the sense that a concept, C, is either true or false, with no partiality of truth allowed. For example, events A and B are either independent or not independent. A process, P, is either stationary or nonstationary, and so on. An example of brittleness is: If all A's are B's and all B's are C's, then all A's are C's; but if almost all A's are B's and almost all B's are C's, then all that can be said is that proportion of A's in C's is between 0 and 1.

# BRITTLENESS OF BIVALENT-LOGIC-BASED DEFINITIONS

- when a concept which is in reality a matter of degree is defined as one which is not, the sorites paradox points to a need for redefinition
- stability
- statistical independence
- stationarity
- Inearity

## **BRITTLENESS OF DEFINITIONS**

- statistical independence
   P (A, B) = P(A) P(B)
- stationarity

 $P(X_1,...,X_n) = P(X_1-a,...,X_n-a)$  for all a

randomness

Kolmogorov, Chaitin, ...

 in PT<sub>p</sub>, statistical independence, stationarity, etc are a matter of degree

# BRITTLENESS OF DEFINITIONS (THE SORITES PARADOX)

# statistical independence

- A and B are independent  $\longrightarrow P_A(B) = P(B)$
- suppose that (a) P<sub>A</sub>(B) and P(B) differ by an epsilon; (b) epsilon increases
- at which point will A and B cease to be independent?
  - statistical independence is a matter of degree
  - degree of independence is contextdependent
- brittleness is a consequence of bivalence

# THE DILEMMA OF "IT IS POSSIBLE BUT NOT PROBABLE"

• A simple version of this dilemma is the following. Assume that A is a proper subset of B and that the Lebesgue measure of A is arbitrarily close to the Lebesgue measure of B. Now, what can be said about the probability measure, P(A), given the probability measure P(B)? The only assertion that can be made is that P(A) lies between 0 and P(B). The uniformativeness of this assessment of P(A) **to counterintuitive conclusions.** For leads example, suppose that with probability 0.99 Robert returns from work within one minute of 6pm. What is the probability that he is home at 6pm?

# CONTINUED



# CONTINUED

• Using PT, with no additional information or the use of the maximum entropy principle, the answer is: between 0 and 1. This simple example is an instance of a basic problem of what to do when we know what is possible but cannot assess the associated probabilities or probability distributions. A case in point relates to assessment of the probability of a worst case scenario.

# **EXAMPLE -- INFORMATION ORTHOGONALITY**

- A,B,C are crisp events
- principal dependencies: (a) conjunctive; (b) serial
- conjunctive:  $P_{A,B}(C)=?$  given  $P_A(C)$  and  $P_B(C)$





### $P_A(C) = ?$ given $P_A(B)$ and $P_B(C)$



counterintuitive

 $P_{A}(B) = 1$  $P_{B}(C) = 1 - \varepsilon$  $P_{A}(C) = 0$ 

#### **REAL-WORLD EXAMPLE**

C= US-born A= professor B= engineer

most engineers are US-born
most professors are US-born
most (engineers^professors) are not US-born

# **F-GENERALIZATION**

- f-generalization of a theory, T, involves an introduction into T of the concept of a fuzzy set
- f-generalization of PT, PT + , adds to PT the capability to deal with fuzzy probabilities, fuzzy probability distributions, fuzzy events, fuzzy functions and fuzzy relations



# **F.G-GENERALIZATION**

- f.g-generalization of T, T<sup>++</sup>, involves an introduction into T of the concept of a granulated fuzzy set
- f.g-generalization of PT, PT<sup>++</sup>, adds to PT<sup>+</sup> the capability to deal with f-granular probabilities, f-granular probability distributions, f-granular events, f-granular functions and f-granular relations





# EXAMPLES OF F-GRANULATION (LINGUISTIC VARIABLES)

color: red, blue, green, yellow, ...

age: young, middle-aged, old, very old

size: small, big, very big, ...

distance: near, far, very, not very far, ...



humans have a remarkable capability to perform a wide variety of physical and mental tasks, e.g., driving a car in city traffic, without any measurements and any computations
one of the principal aims of CTP is to develop a better understanding of how this capability can be added to machines

# **NL-GENERALIZATION**



# **NL-GENERALIZATION**

- NI<sup>++</sup>-generalization of T. T<sub>nl</sub>, involves an addition to T<sup>++</sup> of a capability to operate on propositions expressed in a natural language
- nl-generalization of T adds to T<sup>++</sup> a capability to operate on perceptions described in a natural language
- nl-generalization of PT, PT<sub>nl</sub>, adds to PT<sup>++</sup> a capability to operate on perceptions described in a natural language
- nl-generalization of PT is perception-based probability theory, PTp
- a key concept in PTp is PNL (Precisiated Natural Language)

## **PERCEPTION OF A FUNCTION**



# **TEST PROBLEM**

# • A function, Y=f(X), is defined by its fuzzy graph expressed as

f<sub>1</sub> if X is small then Y is small if X is medium then Y is large if X is large then Y is small
(a) what is the value of Y if X is not large?
(b) what is the maximum value of Y



# BIMODAL DISTRIBUTION (PERCEPTION-BASED PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION)



 $P(X) = P_{i(1)} |A_1 + P_{i(2)}|A_2 + P_{i(3)}|A_3$ Prob {X is A<sub>i</sub>} is P<sub>j(i)</sub>

P(X)=/ow\small + high\medium + low\large

# CONTINUED

- function: if X is small then Y is large +...
   (X is small, Y is large)
- probability distribution: low \ small + low \ medium + high \ large +...
- Count \ attribute value distribution: 5\* \ small + 8\* \ large +...

**PRINCIPAL RATIONALES FOR F-GRANULATION** 

detail not known
detail not needed
detail not wanted

# **BIMODAL PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTIONS (LAZ 1981)**



## **BIMODAL PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION**

X: a random variable taking values in U g: probability density function of X



## CONTINUED

P\* defines a possibility distribution of g

$$\pi(g) = \mu_{P_i}(\int_U \mu_{A_i}(u)g(u)du) \wedge \cdots \wedge \mu_{P_u}(\int_U \mu_{A_n}(u)g(u)du)$$

problems

a) what is the probability of a perception-based event A in U
b) what is the perception-based expected value of X

# **PROBABILITY OF A PERCEPTION-BASED EVENT**

problem:

knowing  $\pi(g)$ 

Prob {X is A} = 
$$\int_U \mu_A(u)g(u)du = f(g)$$

#### **Extension** Principle

$$\frac{\pi_1(g)}{\pi_2(f(g))}$$

$$\pi_2(v) = \sup_g \pi_1(g)$$
Subject to:  $v = f(g)$ 

# CONTINUED

$$\mu_A(v) = \sup_g (\mu_{P_1}(\int_U \mu_{A_1}(u)g(u)du) \wedge \cdots \wedge \mu_{P_n}(\int_U \mu_{A_n}(u)g(u)du))$$

#### subject to

$$v = \int_U \mu_A(u) g(u) du$$

# EXPECTED VALUE OF A BIMODAL PD

$$E(P^*) = \int_U ug(u) du = f(g)$$

#### **Extension** Principle

S

$$\mu_{E(P^*)}(v) = \sup_{g} (\mu_{P_1}(\int_U \mu_{A_1}(u)g(u)du) \wedge \cdots$$
$$\wedge \mu_{P_n}(\int_U \mu_{A_n}(u)g(u)du))$$
ubject to: 
$$v = \int_U ug(u)du$$

## **PERCEPTION-BASED DECISION ANALYSIS**

#### ranking of f-granular probability distributions



# **USUALITY CONSTRAINT PROPAGATION RULE**

X: random variable taking values in U g: probability density of X



$$X \text{ isu } A \longrightarrow \text{Prob } \{X \text{ is } A\} \text{ is usually}$$
$$\pi(g) = \mu_{usually}(\int_{U} \mu_{A}(u)g(u)du)$$
$$\mu_{C}(v) = \sup_{g}(\mu_{usually}(\int_{U} \mu_{A}(u)g(u)du))$$

subject to:

 $v = \int_U \mu_B(u)g(u)du$ 

## **CATEGORIES OF UNCERTAINTY**

category 1: possibilistic examples crisp:  $0 \le X \le a$ ; fuzzy: X is small category 2: probabilistic example X isp N (m,  $\sigma^2$ ) category 3: possibility<sup>2</sup> (possibility of possibility) (type 2) example: grade of membership of  $\mu$  in A is low category 4: probabilistic<sup>2</sup> (probability of probability) (second order probability) example: P(A) isp B LAZ 4/24/2003

# CONTINUED

# category 5: possibilistic\probabilistic (possibility of probability)

example:

X isp  $(P_1 \lor A_1 + \dots + P_n \lor A_n)$ , Prob {X is  $A_i$ } is  $P_i$ 

# category 6: probabilistic\\possibilistic (probability of possibility)

X isrs  $(P_1 | M_1 + \dots + P_n | M_n)$ 



category 6 = fuzzy-set-valued granular probability distributions



# **NEW TOOLS**



# GRANULAR COMPUTING GENERALIZED VALUATION valuation = assignment of a value to a variable



singular value

measurement-based

granular values

perception-based

# PRECISIATED NATURAL LANGUAGE



# **CWP AND PNL**

- a concept which plays a central role in CWP is that of PNL (Precisiated Natural Language)
- basically, a natural language, NL, is a system for describing perceptions
- perceptions are intrinsically imprecise
- imprecision of natural languages is a reflection of the imprecision of perceptions
  - the primary function of PNL is that of serving as a part of NL which admits precisiation
- PNL has a much higher expressive power than any language that is based on bivalent logic

# **PRINCIPAL FUNCTIONS OF PNL**

• knowledge—and especially world knowledge—description language Robert is tall heavy smoking causes lung cancer • definition language smooth function stability deduction language A is near B B is near C C is not far from A
### PNL

### **KEY POINTS**

- PNL is a subset of precisiable propositions/commands/questions in NL
- PNL is equipped with two dictionaries: (1) from NL to GCL; and (2) from GCL to PFL; and (3) a modular multiagent deduction database (DDB) of rules of deduction (rules of generalized constrained propagation) expressed in PFL
- the deduction database includes a collection of modules and submodules, among them the WORLD KNOWLEDGE module

### THE CONCEPT OF PRECISIATION



p is precisiable w/r to PL = p is translatable into PL
criterion of precisiability: p\* is an object of computation
PL: propositional logic
predicate logic
modal logic
Prolog
LISP
SQL

Generalized Constraint Language (GCL) : p\* = GC-form

### PRECISIABILITY

- <u>Robert is tall</u>: not PL-precisiable; PNL-precisiable
- all men are mortal: PL-precisiable
- <u>most Swedes are tall</u>: not PL-precisiable; PNLprecisiable
- <u>about 20-25 minutes</u>: not PL-precisiable; PNLprecisiable
- <u>slow down</u>: not PL-precisiable; PNL-precisiable
- <u>overeating causes obesity</u>: not PL-precisiable;
   <u>PNL-precisiable</u>
- Robert loves Anne: PNL-precisiable
- Robert loves women: not PNL-precisiable
- you are great: not PNL-precisiable

### PRECISIATION

 precisiation is not coextensive with meaning representation precisiation of p = precisiation of meaning of p
 example:

yes

p = usually Robert returns from work at about 6pm.
I understand what you mean but can you be more precise?

p → Prob (Time (Robert.returns.from.work) is 6\*) is usually



### **EXAMPLES**

**PL: propositional logic** 

Robert is taller than Alan

taller (Robert, Alan) Height (Robert)>Height (Alan)

**PL: first-order predicate logic** 

- all men are mortal → ∀x (man(x) → mortal(x))
- most Swedes are tall → not precisiable

PL: PNL

most Swedes are tall → ∑Count (tall.Swedes/Swedes)

is most

principal distinguishing features of PNL are:

PL : GCL (Generalized Constraint Language) DL (Deduction Logic): FL (fuzzy logic) PNL is maximally expressive

### THE CONCEPT OF A GENERALIZED CONSTRAINT (1985)



principal modalities:

- probabilistic (r = p)
- •veristic (r = v)
- •usuality (r=u)
- random set (r=rs)
- fuzzy graph (r=fg)
- •bimodal (r=bm)
- Pawlak set (r=ps)

- possibilistic (r = blank) : X is R , R=possibility distribution of X
  - : X isp R : R=probability distribution of X
  - : X isv R : R=verity (truth) distribution of X
  - : X isu R : R=usual value of X
  - : X isrs R : R=fuzzy-set-valued distribution of X
  - : R=fuzzy graph of X : X isfg
  - X isbm R : R=bimodal distribution of X
  - : X isps R : upper and lower approximation to X LAZ 4/24/2003

## **GENERALIZED CONSTRAINT**

standard constraint: X ∈ C
generalized constraint: X isr R



X=(X<sub>1</sub>,...,X<sub>n</sub>)
X may have a structure: X=Location (Residence(Carol))
X may be a function of another variable: X=f(Y)
X may be conditioned: (X/Y)
r := / ¡U.../ ¼ ¼blank/v/p/u/rs/fg/ps/...

### **CONSTRAINT QUALIFICATION**

•constraint qualification: (X isr R) is q

•q possibility probability verity (truth)

•example: (X is small) is unlikely

LAZ 4/24/2003

qualifier

### **INFORMATION: PRINCIPAL MODALITIES**

# possibilistic: r = blank X is R (R: possibility distribution of X)

- probabilistic: r = p
   X isp R (R: probability distribution of X)
- veristic: r = v
   X isv R (R: verity (truth) distribution of X)

• if r is not specified, default mode is possibilistic

### EXAMPLES (POSSIBILISTIC)

• Eva is young  $\longrightarrow$  Age (Eva) is young  $\[ \] X \qquad \downarrow_X \qquad \downarrow_R$ 

• Eva is much younger than Maria  $\longrightarrow$ (Age (Eva), Age (Maria)) is much younger

• most Swedes are tall  $\rightarrow \Sigma Count$  (tall.Swedes/Swedes) is most  $\int_{-\infty}^{1} R$ 

### EXAMPLES (PROBABILISITIC)

X is a normally distributed random variable with mean m and variance σ<sup>2</sup> — X isp N(m, σ<sup>2</sup>)

X is a random variable taking the values u₁, u₂, u₃ with probabilities p₁, p₂ and p₃, respectively →

 $X isp(p_1 | u_1 + p_2 | u_2 + p_3 | u_3)$ 

### EXAMPLES (VERISTIC)

 Robert is half German, quarter French and quarter Italian
 Ethnicity (Robert) isv (0.5/German + 0.25/French + 0.25/Italian)

 Robert resided in London from 1985 to 1990
 Reside (Robert, London) isv [1985, 1990]

### **BASIC STRUCTURE OF PNL**



 In PNL, deduction=generalized constraint propagation DDB: deduction database=collection of protoformal rules governing generalized constraint propagation WKDB: PNL-based

### **EXAMPLE OF TRANSLATION**

- P: usually Robert returns from work at about 6 pm
- P\*: Prob {(Time(Return(Robert)) is 6 pm} is usually
- PF(p): Prob {X is A} is B
- X: Time (Return (Robert))
- A: 6 pm
- B: usually

### **BASIC STRUCTURE OF PNL**



#### **MODULAR DEDUCTION DATABASE**



### GENERALIZED CONSTRAINT LANGUAGE (GCL)

- GCL is generated by combination, qualification and propagation of generalized constraints
- in GCL, rules of deduction are the rules governing generalized constraint propagation
- examples of elements of GCL
  - (X isp R) and (X,Y) is S)
  - (X isr R) is unlikely) and (X iss S) is likely
  - if X is small then Y is large

 the language of fuzzy if-then rules is a sublanguage of PNL

### THE BASIC IDEA



GCL (Generalized Constrain Language) is maximally expressive

### DICTIONARIES



### TRANSLATION FROM NL TO PFL



# PNLASA

# DEFINITION LANGUAGE

### **HIERARCHY OF DEFINITION LANGUAGES**



NL: natural language

B language: standard mathematical bivalent-logic-based language F language: fuzzy logic language without granulation F.G language: fuzzy logic language with granulation PNL: Precisiated Natural Language

Note: the language of fuzzy if-then rules is a sublanguage of PNL

Note: a language in the hierarchy subsumes all lower languages

### SIMPLIFIED HIERARCHY



The expressive power of the B language – the standard bivalence-logic-based definition language – is insufficient

Insufficiency of the expressive power of the B language is rooted in the fundamental conflict between bivalence and reality

### EVERYDAY CONCEPTS WHICH CANNOT BE DEFINED REALISTICALY THROUGH THE USE OF B

- check-out time is 12:30 pm
- speed limit is 65 mph
- it is cloudy
- Eva has long hair
- economy is in recession
- Lam risk averse



### **INSUFFICIENCY OF THE B LANGUAGE**

### **Concepts which cannot be defined**

- causality
- relevance
- intelligence

# Concepts whose definitions are problematic stability

- optimality
- statistical independence
- stationarity

### **DEFINITION OF OPTIMALITY OPTIMIZATION=MAXIMIZATION?**





definition of optimal X requires use of PNL

### MAXIMUM ?



a) ∀x (f (x)≤ f(a))
b) ~ (∃x (f (x) > f(a))





**b**) ~  $(\exists x (f (x) dominates f(a)))$ 

### MAXIMUM ?



 $B_{i}$  O  $A_{i}$ 

 $f = \Sigma_i A_i \times B_i$ f: if X is  $A_i$  then Y is  $B_i$ , i=1, ..., n

## EXAMPLE

- I am driving to the airport. How long will it take me to get there?
- Hotel clerk's perception-based answer: about 20-25 minutes
- "about 20-25 minutes" cannot be defined in the language of bivalent logic and probability theory

To define "about 20-25 minutes" what is needed is PNL



#### PNL definition of "about 20 to 25 minutes"

Prob {getting to the airport in less than about 25 min} is unlikely Prob {getting to the airport in about 20 to 25 min} is likely Prob {getting to the airport in more than 25 min} is unlikely



# PNL-BASED DEFINITION OF STATISTICALYAINDEPENDENCE



contingency table



 $\Sigma (M/L) = \frac{\Sigma C (M \times L)}{\Sigma C (L)}$ 

 degree of independence of Y from X= degree to which columns 1, 2, 3 are identical

PNL-based definition

### **PROTOFORM LANGUAGE**



### ORGANIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE



## THE CONCEPT OF PROTOFORM

 a protoform is an abstracted prototype of a class of propositions

examples: most Swedes are tall <u>P-abstraction</u> Q A's are B's many Americans are foreign-born

overeating causes obesity <u>P-abstraction</u> Q A's are B's obesity is caused by overeating <u>P-abstraction</u> Q B's are A's

### THE CONCEPT OF PROTOFORM

### **KEY POINTS**

- protoform: abbreviation of "prototypical form"
- PF(p): protoform of p
- PF(p): deep semantic structure of p
- *PF(p): abstraction of precisiation of p*
- abstraction is a form of summarization

 if p has a logical form, LF(p), then PF(p) is an abstraction of LF(p)

all men are mortal  $\longrightarrow \forall x(man(x) \longrightarrow mortal(x)) \longrightarrow \forall x(A(x) \longrightarrow B(x))$   $\uparrow \qquad \uparrow \qquad \uparrow$  $LF \qquad PF$ 

### CONTINUED

 if p does not have a logical form but has a generalized constraint form, GC(p), then PF(p) is an abstraction of GC(p)


#### **PROTOFORM AND PF-EQUIVALENCE**



- P is the class of PF-equivalent propositions
- P does not have a prototype
- P has an abstracted prototype: Q A's are B's
- P is the set of all propositions whose protoform is: Q A's are B's

#### CONTINUED

- abstraction has levels, just as summarization does
- p and q are PF-equivalent at level α if at level of abstraction α, PF(p)=PF(q)



#### **DEDUCTION (COMPUTING) WITH PERCEPTIONS**



example

Dana is young Tandy is a few years older than Dana Tandy is (young+few)

deduction with perceptions involves the use of protoformal rules of generalized constraint propagation

#### **DEDUCTION MODULE**

- rules of deduction are rules governing generalized constraint propagation
- rules of deduction are protoformal examples generalized modus ponens

X is A if X is B then Y is C Y is  $A \circ (B \longrightarrow C)$ 

$$\mu_{y}(v) = \sup(\mu_{A}(u) \wedge \mu_{B \to C}(u, v))$$

Prob (A) is B Prob (C) is D  $\mu_D(v) = \sup_g (\mu_B(\int_U \mu_A(u)g(u)du))$ subject to  $v = \int_U \mu_C(u)g(u)du$ 

#### REASONING WITH PERCEPTIONS: DEDUCTION MODULE



#### **PROTOFORMAL CONSTRAINT PROPAGATION**

p	GC(p)	PF(p)
Dana is young	Age (Dana) is young	X is A
Tandy is a few years older than Dana	Age (Tandy) is (Age (Dana)) +few	Y is (X+B)
X is A <u>Y is (X+B)</u> Y is A+B	Age (Tandy) is (young+few)	
	$\mu_{A+B}(v) = sup_u(\mu_A(u) + \mu_B(u))$	v - u)

**EXAMPLE OF DEDUCTION** 

*most Swedes are tall ? R Swedes are very tall* 



#### **COUNT-AND MEASURE-RELATED RULES**



#### CONTINUED

#### $not(QA's are B's) \longleftrightarrow (not Q) A's are B's$



 $\begin{array}{l} Q_1 \quad A's \ are \ B's \\ Q_2 \quad A's \ are \ C's \\ (Q_1 + Q_2 \ -1) \ A's \ are \ (B\&C)'s \end{array}$ 

#### INTERPOLATION

$$\pi(\mathbf{g}) = \mu_{Pi(1)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_i}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u}) \wedge \cdots \wedge \mu_{Pi(n)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_n}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u})$$
$$\pi^*(\int_{U} \mu_A(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u}) \quad \text{is ?A}$$

$$\pi^{*}(\mathbf{v}) = \sup_{g} \mu_{Pi(1)} (\int_{U} \mu_{A_{i}}(u)g(u)du) \wedge \cdots \wedge \mu_{Pi(n)} (\int_{U} \mu_{A_{n}}(u)g(u)du)$$
  
subject to:  $\mathbf{v} = \int_{U} \mu_{A}(u)g(u)du$   
 $\int_{U} g(u)du = 1$ 

#### CONTINUED

# $\prod(g): possibility distribution of g$ $\prod(g): \mu_{Pi(1)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_i}(u)g(u)du) \wedge \cdots \wedge \mu_{Pi(n)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_n}(u)g(u)du)$

#### extension principle

## П(g) П\*(f(g))

 $\Pi^*(v) = \sup_g(\Pi(g))$ subject to: v = f(g)

#### **EXPECTED VALUE**

$$\pi(\mathbf{g}) = \mu_{Pi(1)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_i}(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}) \wedge \cdots \wedge \mu_{Pi(n)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_n}(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u})$$

$$\pi^*(\int_{U} ug(u) du)$$
 is ?A

$$\pi^{*}(\mathbf{v}) = \sup_{\mathcal{B}} \mu_{Pi(1)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_{i}}(u)g(u)du) \wedge \cdots \wedge \mu_{Pi(n)}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_{n}}(u)g(u)du)$$
  
subject to:  $\mathbf{v} = \int_{U} ug(u)du$ 

#### CONTINUED

- Prob {X is A<sub>i</sub>} is P<sub>j(i</sub>, i=1, ..., m , j=1, ..., n
- **∫** g(u)du=1
- G is small → ∀u(g(u) is small)

Prob {X is A} is ?v

Prob {X is  $A_i$ } =  $\int_{U} g(u) \mu_{A_i}(u) du$ 

construct:  $\mu_{P_{j(i)}}(\mathbf{v}) = \mu_{P_{j(i)}}(\int_{U} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}) \mu_{A_i}(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u})$ 

# PROBABILITY MODULE

#### **INTERPOLATION OF BIMODAL DISTRIBUTIONS**



#### INTERPOLATION MODULE AND PROBABILITY MODULE

Prob {X is 
$$A_{i}$$
} is  $P_{i}$ ,  $i = 1, ..., n$   
Prob {X is A} is Q

$$\mu_{\varrho}(v) = \sup_{g} (\mu_{P_{1}}(\int_{U} \mu_{A_{1}}(u)g(u)du) \wedge \cdots \wedge$$

$$\mu_{P_n} \int_U \mu_{P_n} \left( \int_U \mu_{A_n} (u) g(u) du \right)$$

subject to

$$U = \int_U \mu_A(u) g(u) du$$

#### **PROBABILISTIC CONSTRAINT PROPAGATION RULE** (a special version of the generalized extension principle)



# USUALTY SUBMODILE

#### CONJUNCTION



 determination of r involves interpolation of a bimodal distribution

#### **USUALITY — QUALIFIED RULES**



**USUALITY — QUALIFIED RULES** 

X isu A Y isu B Z = f(X, Y)

#### Z isu f(A, B)

$$\mu_Z(w) = \sup_{u,v|w=f(u,v)} (\mu_A(u) \wedge \mu_B(v))$$

# EXTENSION PRINCIPLE MODULE

#### PRINCIPAL COMPUTATIONAL RULE IS THE EXTENSION PRINCIPLE (EP)

point of departure: function evaluation



#### **EXTENSION PRINCIPLE HIERARCHY**



#### VERSION EP(0,1) (1965; 1975)



#### VERSION EP(1,1) (COMPOSITIONAL RULE OF INFERENCE) (1965)



### EXTENSION PRINCIPLE EP(2,0) (Mamdani)



 $f^* = \Sigma_i A_i \times B_i$ X = a Y =  $\Sigma_i^{\mu} A_i(a) \dot{B}_i$ 

(if X is  $A_{I}$  then Y is  $B_{I}$ )



#### VERSION EP(1,1b) (DEMPSTER-SHAFER)

X isp 
$$(p_1 | u_1 + ... + p_u | u_n)$$

(X, Y) is R

Y isp  $(p_1 \ (u_1) + ... + p_n \ (u_n))$ 

Y is a fuzzy-set-valued random variable

 $\mu_{R(u_i)}(v) = \mu_R(u_i, v)$ 

#### VERSION GEP(0,0)

$$\mu_{g(f^{-1}(A))}(v) = \sup_{u}(\mu_{A}(f(u)))$$

### subject to

v = g(u)

#### **GENERALIZED EXTENSION PRINCIPLE**

f(X) is A g(Y) is B Z=h(X,Y)

Z is h (f<sup>1</sup>(A), g<sup>-1</sup> (B))

### $\mu_{z}(w) = \sup_{u,v} (\mu_{A}(f(u)) \land \mu_{B}(g(u)))$

subject to

$$w = h(u,v)$$



If X is A<sub>i</sub> then Y isu B<sub>i</sub>, i=1,..., n X isu A

Y isu ∑<sub>l</sub> m<sub>i</sub>∧B<sub>i</sub>

 $m = \sup_{u} (\mu_{A}(u) \land \mu_{A_{i}}(u))_{H_{i}}$  matching coefficient

 $A_i$ 

# THE ROBERT EXAMPLE

## THE ROBERT EXAMPLE

 the Robert example relates to everyday commonsense reasoning— a kind of reasoning which is preponderantly perception-based

 the Robert example is intended to serve as a test of the deductive capability of a reasoning system to operate on perception-based information

#### THE ROBERT EXAMPLE

 the Robert example is a sequence of versions of increasing complexity in which what varies is the initial data-set (IDS)

version 1

IDS: usually Robert returns from work at about 6 pm

questions:

**q**<sub>1</sub> : what is the probability that Robert is home at t\* (about t pm)?

q<sub>2</sub> : what is the earliest time at which the probability that Robert is home is high?

#### CONTINUED

version 2:

IDS: usually Robert leaves office at about 5:30pm, and usually it takes about 30min to get home

 $q_1, q_2$ : same as in version 1

version 3: this version is similar to version 2 except that travel time depends on the time of departure from office.

 $q_1, q_2$ : same as version 1
# THE ROBERT EXAMPLE (VERSION 3)

IDS: Robert leaves office between 5:15pm and 5:45pm. When the time of departure is about 5:20pm, the travel time is usually about 20min; when the time of departure is about 5:30pm, the travel time is usually about 30min; when the time of departure is about 5:40pm, the travel time is about 20min

usually Robert leaves office at about 5:30pm What is the probability that Robert is home at about t pm?

# THE ROBERT EXAMPLE

Version 4

 Usually Robert returns from work at about 6 pm Usually Ann returns from work about half-an-hour later What is the probability that both Robert and Ann are home at about t pm?



# THE ROBERT EXAMPLE

Version 1.

*My perception is that Robert usually returns from work at about 6:00pm* 

q<sub>1</sub>: What is the probability that Robert is home at about t pm?
q<sub>2</sub>: What is the earliest time at which the probability that Robert is home is high?

#### **PROTOFORMAL DEDUCTION**

### THE ROBERT EXAMPLE

IDS p: usually Robert returns from work at about 6 pm.
TDS q: what is the probability that Robert is home at about t pm?

1. precisiation: Prob {Time (Robert returns from work is about 6 pm} is usually **Prob** {*Time* (*Robert* is home) is about t pm} Q is ?D calibration:  $\mu_{usually}$ ,  $\mu_{t^*}$ ,  $t^* = about t$ 2. 3. abstraction: **Prob** {X is A} is B **p**\* Prob {Y is C} is ?D

4. search in Probability module for applicable rules (top-level agent)



5. back to IDS and TDS. Go to WKDB (top-level agent)

A/person is at home at time t if A returns before t

Robert is home at t\* =Robert returns from work before t\*

### THE ROBERT EXAMPLE

event equivalence

#### Robert is home at about t pm= Robert returns from work before about t pm



#### 6. back to Probability module

 $\frac{Prob \{X \text{ is } A\} \text{ is } B}{Prob \{X \text{ is } C\} \text{ is } D}$  $\mu_D(v) = \sup_g(\mu_B(\int_U \mu_A(u)g(u)du))$  $V = \int_U \mu_c(u)g(u)du$ 

7. Instantiation :

 $D = Prob \{Robert is home at about 6:15\}$  X = Time (Robert returns from work)  $A = 6^*$  B = usually $C = \le 6:15^*$ 

# THE BALLS-IN-BOX EXAMPLE

- a box contains N balls of various sizes
- my perceptions are:
  - a few are small
    most are medium
    a few are large

IDS (initial data set)

a ball is drawn at random

 what is the probability that the ball is neither small nor large

### **PERCEPTION-BASED ANALYSIS**

a few are small  $\longrightarrow \frac{1}{N} \qquad \Sigma \text{ Count(small) is few} \longrightarrow Q_1 \text{ A's are B's}$ most are medium  $\longrightarrow \frac{1}{N} \qquad \Sigma \text{ Count(medium) is most} \longrightarrow Q_2 \text{ A's are C's}$ a few are large  $\longrightarrow \qquad \frac{1}{N} \qquad \Sigma \text{ Count(large) is few} \longrightarrow Q_3 \text{ A's are D's}$ 

 $A = \{u_1, ..., u_n\}$ ;  $U_i = size of i th ball; u = (u_i, ..., u_n)$ 

 $\Pi_{1}(u_{1},...,u_{n}):$  possibility distribution function of  $(u_{1},...,u_{n})$ induced by the protoform  $Q_{1}$  A's are B's

$$\Pi_{1}(u_{1},...,u_{n}) - \mu_{Q_{1}}(\frac{1}{N} \Sigma_{i} \mu_{B}(u_{i}))$$

 $\Pi(u_1, ..., u_n)$  : possibility distribution function induced by IDS

$$\Pi(u_1,...,u_n) = \Pi_1(u_1,...,u_n) \quad \mathbf{\hat{H}}_2(u_1,...,u_n) \quad \mathbf{\hat{H}}_3(u_1,...,u_n)$$

query: (proportion of balls which are neither large nor small) is? Q<sub>4</sub>

$$Q_4 = \frac{1}{N} \Sigma_i ((1 - \mu_{small}(u_i)) (\dot{H} - \mu_{large}(\mu_i)))$$

protoformal deduction rule (extension principle)

$$\mu_{Q_4}(v) = \sup_{u} (\Pi_1(u) \quad \overleftarrow{\mathbf{H}}_2(u) \quad \overleftarrow{\mathbf{H}}_3(u))$$

subject to 
$$V = \frac{1}{N} \Sigma_i((1 - \mu_{B_1}(\mu_i)))$$
 ( $\hat{H} - \mu_{B_3}(u_i)))$ 

#### SUMMATION—BASIC POINTS

- Among a large number and variety of perceptions in human cognition, there are three that stand out in importance
  - 1. perception of likelihood
  - 2. perception of truth (similarity, compatibility, correspondence)
  - 3. perception of possibility (ease of attainment)
- These perceptions, as most others, are a matter of degree
  - In bivalent-logic-based probability theory, PT, only perception of likelihood is a matter of degree
- In perception-based probability theory, PTp, in addition to the perception of likelihood, perceptions of truth and possibility are, or are allowed to be, a matter of degree

# CONCLUSION

 Conceptually, computationally and mathematically, perception-based probability theory is significantly more complex than measurementbased probability theory.

 Complexity is the price that has to be paid to reduce the gap between theory and reality.

### COMMENTS

from preface to the Special Issue on Imprecise Probabilities, Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference, Vol. 105, 2002

"There is a wide range of views concerning the sources and significance of imprecision. This ranges from de Finetti's view, that imprecision arises merely from incomplete elicitation of subjective probabilities, to Zadeh's view, that most of the information relevant to probabilistic analysis is intrinsically imprecise, and that there is imprecision and fuzziness not only in probabilities, but also in events, relations and properties such as independence. The research program outlined by Zadeh is a more radical departure from standard probability theory than the other approaches in this volume." (Jean-Marc Bernard)

#### From: Peter Walley (Co-editor of special issue)

"I think that your ideas on perception-based probability are exciting and I hope that they will be published in probability and statistics journals where they will be widely read. I think that there is an urgent need for a new, more innovative and more eclectic, journal in the area. The established journals are just not receptive to new ideas - their editors are convinced that all the fundamental ideas of probability were established by Kolmogorov and Bayes, and that it only remains to develop them! "

#### From: Patrick Suppes (Stanford)

"I am not suggesting I fully understand what the final outcome of this direction of work will be, but I am confident that the vigor of the debate, and even more the depth of the new applications of fuzzy logic, constitute a genuinely new turn in the long history of concepts and theories for dealing with uncertainty."

# **STATISTICS**

Count of papers containing the word "fuzzy" in the title, as cited in INSPEC and MATH.SCI.NET databases. (data for 2002 are not complete)

**Compiled by Camille Wanat, Head, Engineering Library, UC Berkeley, April 17, 2003** 

INSPEC/fuzzy		Math.Sci.Net/fuzzy
1970-1979	569	443
1980-1989	2,404	2,466
1990-1999	23,207	5,472
2000-present 1970-present	8,745 34,925	2,319 10,700