

Fuzzy Systems

Fuzzy Sets and Fuzzy Logic

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Motivation

Motivation

Every day humans use imprecise linguistic terms e.g. big, fast, about 12 o'clock, old, etc.

All complex human actions are decisions based on such concepts:

- driving and parking a car,
- financial/business decisions,
- law and justice,
- giving a lecture,
- listening to the professor/tutor.

So, these terms and the way they are processed play a crucial role.

Computers need a mathematical model to express and process such complex semantics.

Concepts in classical mathematics are inadequate for such models.



Lotfi Asker Zadeh (1965)

Classes of objects in the real world do not have precisely defined criteria of membership.

Such imprecisely defined "classes" play an important role in human thinking,

Particularly in domains of pattern recognition, communication of information, and abstraction.



Zadeh in 2004 (born 1921)

Imprecision

Any notion is said to be imprecise when its *meaning* is not fixed by sharp boundaries.

Can be applied fully/to certain degree/not at all.

Gradualness ("membership gradience") also called fuzziness.

A Proposition is imprecise if it contains gradual predicates.

Such propositions may be neither true nor false, but in-between.

They are true to a certain degree, i.e. partial truth.

Forms of such degrees can be found in natural language, e.g. very, rather, almost not, etc.



Example – The Sorites Paradox

If a sand dune is small, adding one grain of sand to it leaves it small. A sand dune with a single grain is small.

Hence all sand dunes are small.

Paradox comes from all-or-nothing treatment of small.

Degree of truth of "heap of sand is small" decreases by adding one grain after another.

Certain number of words refer to continuous numerical scales.

Example – The Sorites Paradox

How many grains of sand has a sand dune at least?

Statement A(n): "n grains of sand are a sand dune."

Let $d_n = T(A(n))$ denote "degree of acceptance" for A(n).

Then

$$0 = d_0 \le d_1 \le \ldots \le d_n \le \ldots \le 1$$

can be seen as truth values of a many valued logic.



Applications of Fuzzy Systems

Control Engineering

Approximate Reasoning

Data Analysis

Image Analysis

Advantages:

Use of imprecise or uncertain information

Use of expert knowledge

Robust nonlinear control

Time to market

Marketing aspects



Washing Machines Use Fuzzy Logic



Source: http://www.siemens-home.com/



Fuzzy Sets

Lotfi A. Zadeh (1965)

"A fuzzy set is a class with a continuum of membership grades."

An imprecisely defined set M can often be characterized by a membership function μ_M .

 μ_M associates real number in [0,1] with each element $x \in X$.

Value of μ_M at x represents grade of membership of x in M.

A Fuzzy set is defined as mapping

$$\mu: X \mapsto [0,1].$$

Fuzzy sets μ_M generalize the notion of a characteristic function

$$\chi_M : X \mapsto \{0, 1\}.$$

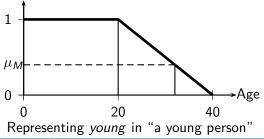
 $\mu_M(u) = 1$ reflects full membership in M.

 $\mu_M(u) = 0$ expresses absolute non-membership in M.

Sets can be viewed as special case of fuzzy sets where only full membership and absolute non-membership are allowed.

Such sets are called *crisp sets* or Boolean sets.

Membership degrees $0 < \mu_M < 1$ represent partial membership.



A Membership function attached to a given linguistic description (such as *young*) depends on context:

A young retired person is certainly older than young student.

Even idea of young student depends on the user.

Membership degrees are fixed only by convention:

Unit interval as range of membership grades is arbitrary.

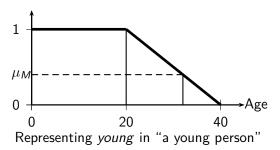
Natural for modeling membership grades of fuzzy sets of real numbers.



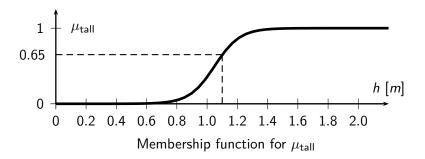
Consider again representation for predicate young

There is no precise threshold between prototypes of *young* and prototypes of *not young*.

Fuzzy sets offer natural interface between linguistic and numerical representations.



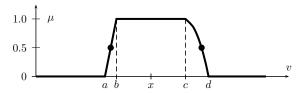
Example - Body Height of 4 Year Old Boys



1.5 m is for sure tall, 0.7 m is for sure small, but in-between?! Imprecise predicate tall modeled as sigmoid function, e.g. height of 1.1 m has membership degree of 0.65.

So, height of 1.1 m satisfies predicate tall with 0.65.

Example – Velocity of Rotating Hard Disk



Fuzzy set μ characterizing velocity of rotating hard disk.

Let x be velocity v of rotating hard disk in revolutions per minute.

If no observations about x available, use expert's knowledge:

"It's impossible that v drops under a or exceeds d.

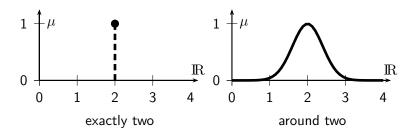
"It's highly certain that any value between [b,c] can occur."

Additionally, values of v with membership degree of 0.5 are provided.

Interval [a, d] is called *support* of the fuzzy set.

Interval [b, c] is denoted as *core* of the fuzzy set.

Examples for Fuzzy Numbers



Exact numerical value has membership degree of 1.

Left: monotonically increasing, right: monotonically decreasing, *i.e.* unimodal function.

Terms like around modeled using triangular or Gaussian function.

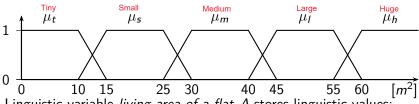
Linguistic Variables and Linguistic Values

Linguistic variables represent attributes in fuzzy systems.

They are partitioned into linguistic values (not numerical!).

Partition is usually chosen subjectively (based on human intuition).

All linguistic values have a meaning, not a precise numerical value.



Linguistic variable *living area of a flat A* stores linguistic values: e.g. tiny, small, medium, large, huge

Every $x \in A$ has $\mu(x) \in [0,1]$ to each value, *e.g.* let $a = 42.5m^2$. So, $\mu_t(a) = \mu_s(a) = \mu_b(a) = 0$, $\mu_m(a) = \mu_l(a) = 0.5$.

Support and Core of a Fuzzy Set

Definition

The support $S(\mu)$ of a fuzzy set $\mu \in \mathcal{F}(X)$ is the crisp set that contains all elements of X that have nonzero membership. Formally

$$S(\mu) = [\mu]_0 = \{x \in X \mid \mu(x) > 0\}.$$

Definition

The *core* $C(\mu)$ of a fuzzy set $\mu \in \mathcal{F}(X)$ is the crisp set that contains all elements of X that have membership of one. Formally,

$$C(\mu) = [\mu]_1 = \{x \in X \mid \mu(x) = 1\}.$$

Height of a Fuzzy Set

Definition

The height $h(\mu)$ of a fuzzy set $\mu \in \mathcal{F}(X)$ is the largest membership grade obtained by any element in that set. Formally,

$$h(\mu) = \sup_{x \in X} \left\{ \mu(x) \right\}.$$

 $h(\mu)$ may also be viewed as supremum of α for which $[\mu]_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$.

Definition

A fuzzy set μ is called *normal*, iff $h(\mu) = 1$. It is called *subnormal*, iff $h(\mu) < 1$.

Semantics of Fuzzy Sets

What membership grades may mean?

Fuzzy sets are relevant in three types of information-driven tasks:

classification and data analysis,

decision-making problems,

approximate reasoning.

These three tasks exploit three semantics of membership grades:

similarity

preference

possibility

Degree of Similarity

Oldest interpretation of membership grades.

 $\mu(u)$ is degree of proximity of u from prototype elements of μ .

Goes back to interests of fuzzy set concept in pattern classification.

Still used today for cluster analysis, regression, etc.

Here, proximity between pieces of information is modelled.

Also, in fuzzy control: similarity degrees are measured between current situation and prototypical ones.

Degree of Preference

μ represents both:

- set of more or less preferred objects and
- values of a decision variable X.

$\mu(u)$ represents both:

- intensity of preference in favor of object u and
- feasibility of selecting u as value of X.

Fuzzy sets then represent criteria or flexible constraints.

This has been used in

- fuzzy optimization (especially fuzzy linear programming) and
- decision analysis.

Typical applications: engineering design and scheduling problems.

Degree of Possibility

This interpretation was implicitly proposed by Zadeh when he introduced possibility theory and developed his theory of approximate reasoning.

 $\mu(u)$ can be viewed as:

- degree of possibility that parameter X has value u
- given the only information "X is μ ".

Then support values are mutually exclusive and membership degrees rank these values by their possibility.

This view has been used in expert systems and artificial intelligence.

Fuzzy Numbers

Definition

 μ is a fuzzy number if and only if μ is normal and $[\mu]_{\alpha}$ is bounded, closed, and convex $\forall \alpha \in (0,1]$.

Example:

The term *approximately* x_0 is often described by a parametrized class of membership functions, *e.g.*

$$\mu_1(x) = \max\{0, 1 - c_1|x - x_0|\},$$
 $c_1 > 0,$
 $\mu_2(x) = \exp(-c_2||x - x_0||_p),$
 $c_2 > 0, p \ge 1.$



Multi-valued Logics

Set Operators...

... are defined by using traditional logics operator

Let *X* be universe of discourse (universal set):

$$A \cap B = \{x \in X \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$

$$A \cup B = \{x \in X \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$$

$$A^{c} = \{x \in X \mid x \notin A\} = \{x \in X \mid \neg(x \in A)\}$$

$$A \subseteq B$$
 if and only if $(x \in A) \rightarrow (x \in B)$ for all $x \in X$

One idea to define fuzzy set operators: use fuzzy logics.



The Traditional or Aristotlelian Logic

What is logic about? Different schools speak different languages!

There are raditional, linguistic, psychological, epistemological and mathematical schools.

Traditional logic has been founded by Aristotle (384-322 B.C.).

Aristotlelian logic can be seen as formal approach to human reasoning.

It's still used today in Artificial Intelligence for knowledge representation and reasoning about knowledge.



Detail of "The School of Athens" by R. Sanzio (1509) showing Plato (left) and his student Aristotle (right).

Classical Logic: An Overview

Logic studies methods/principles of reasoning.

Classical logic deals with propositions (either true or false).

The propositional logic handles combination of logical variables.

Key idea: how to express *n*-ary logic functions with **logic primitives**, *e.g.* \neg , \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow .

A set of logic primitives is **complete** if any logic function can be composed by a finite number of these primitives, e.g. $\{\neg, \land, \lor\}$, $\{\neg, \land\}$, $\{\neg, \rightarrow\}$, $\{\downarrow\}$ (NOR), $\{|\}$ (NAND) (this was also discussed during the 1st exercise).

Inference Rules

When a variable represented by logical formula is: true for all possible truth values, *i.e.* it is called **tautology**, false for all possible truth values, *i.e.* it is called **contradiction**.

Various forms of tautologies exist to perform deductive inference

They are called **inference rules**:

$$(a \land (a \rightarrow b)) \rightarrow b$$
 (modus ponens)
 $(\neg b \land (a \rightarrow b)) \rightarrow \neg a$ (modus tollens)
 $((a \rightarrow b) \land (b \rightarrow c)) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow c)$ (hypothetical syllogism)

e.g. modus ponens: given two true propositions a and $a \rightarrow b$ (premises), truth of proposition b (conclusion) can be inferred.

Every tautology remains a tautology when any of its variables is replaced with an arbitrary logic formula.

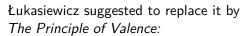


The Basic Principle of Classical Logic

The Principle of Bivalence:

"Every proposition is either true or false."

It has been formally developed by Tarski.



"Every proposition has a truth value."

Propositions can have intermediate truth value, expressed by a number from the unit interval [0,1].



Alfred Tarski (1902-1983)



Jan Łukasiewicz (1878-1956)

Three-valued Logics

A 2-valued logic can be extended to a 3-valued logic *in several ways*, *i.e.* different three-valued logics have been well established:

truth, falsity, indeterminacy are denoted by 1, 0, and 1/2, resp.

The negation $\neg a$ is defined as 1-a, i.e. $\neg 1=0, \neg 0=1$ and $\neg 1/2=1/2$.

Other primitives, e.g. $\land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$, differ from logic to logic.

Five well-known three-valued logics (named after their originators) are defined in the following.

Primitives of Some Three-valued Logics

	Łukasiewicz	Bochvar	Kleene	Heyting	Reichenbach
a b	$\land \lor \rightarrow \leftrightarrow$	\wedge \vee \rightarrow \leftrightarrow	\wedge \vee \rightarrow \leftrightarrow	\wedge \vee \rightarrow \leftrightarrow	$\land \lor \rightarrow \leftrightarrow$
0 0	0 0 1 1	0 0 1 1	0 0 1 1	0 0 1 1	0 0 1 1
$0 \frac{1}{2}$	$0 \ \frac{1}{2} \ 1 \ \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$0 \ \frac{1}{2} \ 1 \ \frac{1}{2}$	$0 \frac{1}{2} 1 0$	$0 \ \frac{1}{2} \ 1 \ \frac{1}{2}$
0 1	0 1 1 0	0 1 1 0	0 1 1 0	0 1 1 0	0 1 1 0
$\frac{1}{2}$ 0	$0 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$0 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}$	$0 \frac{1}{2} 0 0$	$0 \ \frac{1}{2} \ \frac{1}{2} \ \frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1	$\frac{1}{2} \ \frac{1}{2} \ 1 \ 1$
$\frac{1}{2}$ 1	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
1 0	0 1 0 0	0 1 0 0	0 1 0 0	0 1 0 0	0 1 0 0
$1 \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$
1 1	1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1

All of them fully conform the usual definitions for $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$.

They differ from each other only in their treatment of 1/2.

Question: Do they satisfy the law of contradiction $(a \land \neg a = 0)$ and the law of excluded middle $(a \lor \neg a = 1)$?

n-valued Logics

After the three-valued logics: generalizations to n-valued logics for arbitrary number of truth values $n \ge 2$.

In the 1930s, various *n*-valued logics were developed.

Usually truth values are assigned by rational number in [0,1].

Key idea: uniformly divide [0,1] into n truth values.

Definition

The set T_n of truth values of an n-valued logic is defined as

$$T_n = \left\{0 = \frac{0}{n-1}, \frac{1}{n-1}, \frac{2}{n-1}, \dots, \frac{n-2}{n-1}, \frac{n-1}{n-1} = 1\right\}.$$

These values can be interpreted as degree of truth.

Primitives in *n*-valued Logics

Łukasiewicz proposed first series of *n*-valued logics for $n \ge 2$.

In the early 1930s, he simply generalized his three-valued logic.

It uses truth values in T_n and defines primitives as follows:

$$abla a = 1 - a$$
 $a \wedge b = \min(a, b)$
 $a \vee b = \max(a, b)$
 $a \mapsto b = \min(1, 1 + b - a)$
 $a \mapsto b = 1 - |a - b|$

The *n*-valued logic of Łukasiewicz is denoted by L_n .

The sequence $(L_2, L_3, \dots, L_{\infty})$ contains the classical two-valued logic L_2 and an infinite-valued logic L_{∞} (rational **countable** values T_{∞}).

The infinite-valued logic L_1 (standard Łukasiewicz logic) is the logic with all real numbers in [0,1] (1 = cardinality of continuum).



From Logic to Fuzzy Logic

Zadeh's fuzzy logic proposal was much simpler

In 1965, he proposed a logic with values in [0, 1]:

$$aggraphi a = 1 - a,$$
 $a \wedge b = \min(a, b),$
 $a \vee b = \max(a, b).$

The set operators are defined pointwise as follows for μ, μ' :

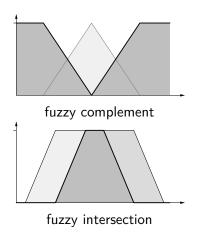
$$\begin{split} \neg \mu : X \to X, \neg \mu(x) &= 1 - \mu(x), \\ \mu \wedge \mu' : X \to X(\mu \wedge \mu')(x) &= \min\{\mu(x), \mu'(x)\}, \\ \mu \vee \mu' : X \to X(\mu \vee \mu')(x) &= \max\{\mu(x), \mu'(x)\}. \end{split}$$

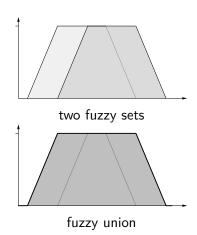


Zadeh in 2004 (born 1921)



Standard Fuzzy Set Operators – Example







Fuzzy Set Theory

STOP

Definition

Let $X \neq \emptyset$ be a set.

$$2^X \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{A \mid A \subseteq X\}$$
 power set of X ,

$$A \in 2^X, \quad \chi_A: X o \{0,1\}$$
 characteristic function,

$$\mathcal{X}(X) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{ \chi_A \mid A \in 2^X \}$$
 set of characteristic functions.

Theorem

$$(2^X, \cap, \cup, ^c)$$
 is Boolean algebra,

$$\phi: 2^X \to \mathcal{X}(X), \quad \phi(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \chi_A \text{ is bijection.}$$

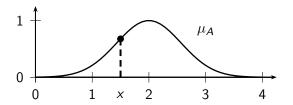
Theorem

$$(\mathcal{X}(X), \wedge, \vee, \neg)$$
 is Boolean algebra where

$$\chi_{A \wedge B} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min \{ \chi_A, \chi_B \}, \quad \chi_{A \vee B} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max \{ \chi_A, \chi_B \}, \quad \chi_{\neg A} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 1 - \chi_A.$$

What does a fuzzy set represent?

Consider fuzzy proposition A ("approximately two") on ${\rm I\!R}$ fuzzy logic offers means to construct such imprecise sentences



A defined by membership function μ_A , *i.e.* truth values $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ be a subject/observation $\mu_A(x)$ is the degree of truth that x is A

Standard Fuzzy Set Operators

Definition

We define the following algebraic operators on $\mathcal{F}(X)$:

$$\begin{split} (\mu \wedge \mu')(x) & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min\{\mu(x), \mu'(x)\} & \text{intersection ("AND")}, \\ (\mu \vee \mu')(x) & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max\{\mu(x), \mu'(x)\} & \text{union ("OR")}, \\ \neg \mu(x) & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 1 - \mu(x) & \text{complement ("NOT")}. \end{split}$$

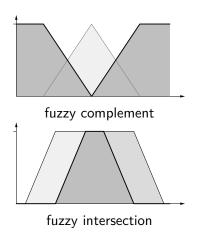
 μ is subset of μ' if and only if $\mu \leq \mu'$.

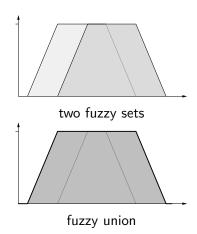
Theorem

 $(\mathcal{F}(X), \wedge, \vee, \neg)$ is a complete distributive lattice but no boolean algebra.



Standard Fuzzy Set Operators – Example







Fuzzy Set Complement

Fuzzy Complement/Fuzzy Negation

Definition

Let X be a given set and $\mu \in \mathcal{F}(X)$. Then the *complement* $\bar{\mu}$ can be defined pointwise by $\bar{\mu}(x) := \sim (\mu(x))$ where $\sim : [0,1] \to [0,1]$ satisfies the conditions

$$\sim (0) = 1, \sim (1) = 0$$

and

for
$$x, y \in [0, 1], x \le y \Longrightarrow \sim x \ge \sim y$$
 (\sim is non-increasing).

Abbreviation: $\sim x := \sim (x)$

Strict and Strong Negations

Additional properties may be required

- $x, y \in [0, 1], x < y \Longrightarrow \sim x > \sim y \ (\sim \text{ is strictly decreasing})$
- \bullet \sim is continuous
- $\sim \sim x = x$ for all $x \in [0,1]$ (\sim is involutive)

According to conditions, two subclasses of negations are defined:

Definition

A negation is called *strict* if it is also strictly decreasing and continuous. A strict negation is said to be *strong* if it is involutive, too.

 $\sim x = 1 - x^2$, for instance, is strict, not strong, thus not involutive

Families of Negations

standard negation:

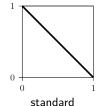
$$\sim x = 1 - x$$

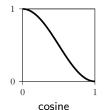
$$\sim_{\theta} (x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leq \theta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

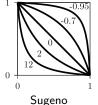
$$\sim x = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \cos(\pi x) \right)$$

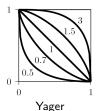
$$\sim_{\lambda} (x) = \frac{1-x}{1+\lambda x}, \quad \lambda > -1$$

$$\sim_{\lambda} (x) = (1-x^{\lambda})^{\frac{1}{\lambda}}$$









Two Extreme Negations

Both negations are not strictly increasing, not continuous, not involutive

Thus they are neither strict nor strong

They are "optimal" since their notions are nearest to crisp negation \sim_i and \sim_{di} are two extreme cases of negations

For any negation \sim the following holds

$$\sim_i \leq \sim \leq \sim_{di}$$

Inverse of a Strict Negation

Any strict negation \sim is strictly decreasing and continuous.

Hence one can define its inverse \sim^{-1} .

 \sim^{-1} is also strict but in general differs from \sim .

 $\sim^{-1}=\sim$ if and only if \sim is involutive.

Every strict negation \sim has a unique value $0 < s_{\sim} < 1$ such that $\sim s_{\sim} = s_{\sim}$.

 s_{\sim} is called *membership crossover point*.

 $A(a) > s_{\sim}$ if and only if $A^{c}(a) < s_{\sim}$ where A^{c} is defined via \sim .

 $\sim^{-1} (s_{\sim}) = s_{\sim}$ always holds as well.

Representation of Negations

Any strong negation can be obtained from standard negation.

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a \leq b$.

Let $\varphi:[a,b] \to [a,b]$ be continuous and strictly increasing.

 φ is called *automorphism* of the interval $[a,b] \subset \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem

A function $\sim : [0,1] \to [0,1]$ is a strong negation if and only if there exists an automorphism φ of the unit interval such that for all $x \in [0,1]$ the following holds

$$\sim_{\varphi} (x) = \varphi^{-1}(1 - \varphi(x)).$$

 $\sim_{\varphi} (x) = \varphi^{-1}(1-\varphi(x))$ is called $\varphi\text{-transform}$ of the standard negation.



Fuzzy Set Intersection and Union

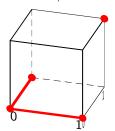
Classical Intersection and Union

Classical set intersection represents logical conjunction.

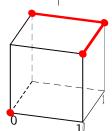
Classical set union represents logical disjunction.

Generalization from $\{0,1\}$ to [0,1] as follows:

$x \wedge y$	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1



$x \lor y$	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1



Fuzzy Set Intersection and Union

Let A, B be fuzzy subsets of X, *i.e.* $A, B \in \mathcal{F}(X)$.

Their intersection and union can be defined pointwise using:

$$(A \cap B)(x) = \top (A(x), B(x))$$
 where $\top : [0, 1]^2 \to [0, 1]$
 $(A \cup B)(x) = \bot (A(x), B(x))$ where $\bot : [0, 1]^2 \to [0, 1]$.

Triangular Norms and Conorms I

op is a triangular norm $(t\text{-norm}) \Longleftrightarrow op$ satisfies conditions T1-T4 op is a triangular conorm $(t\text{-conorm}) \Longleftrightarrow op$ satisfies C1-C4

for all $x, y \in [0, 1]$, the following laws hold

Identity Law

T1:
$$\top (x, 1) = x \quad (A \cap X = A)$$

C1:
$$\bot(x,0) = x \quad (A \cup \emptyset = A)$$
.

Commutativity

T2:
$$\top (x, y) = \top (y, x)$$
 $(A \cap B = B \cap A)$,

C2:
$$\pm (x, y) = \pm (y, x)$$
 $(A \cup B = B \cup A)$.

Triangular Norms and Conorms II

for all $x, y, z \in [0, 1]$, the following laws hold

Associativity

T3:
$$\top (x, \top (y, z)) = \top (\top (x, y), z)$$
 $(A \cap (B \cap C)) = ((A \cap B) \cap C),$
C3: $\bot (x, \bot (y, z)) = \bot (\bot (x, y), z)$ $(A \cup (B \cup C)) = ((A \cup B) \cup C).$

Monotonicity

$$y \le z$$
 implies

T4:
$$\top(x, y) \le \top(x, z)$$

C4: $\bot(x, y) \le \bot(x, z)$.

Triangular Norms and Conorms III

op is a triangular norm $(t\text{-norm}) \Longleftrightarrow op$ satisfies conditions T1-T4 op is a triangular conorm $(t\text{-conorm}) \Longleftrightarrow op$ satisfies C1-C4

Both identity law and monotonicity respectively imply

$$\forall x \in [0,1] : \top(0,x) = 0,$$

$$\forall x \in [0,1] : \bot(1,x) = 1,$$
 for any *t*-norm $\top : \top(x,y) \leq \min(x,y),$ for any *t*-conorm $\bot : \bot(x,y) \geq \max(x,y).$

note:
$$x = 1 \Rightarrow T(0,1) = 0$$
 and $x \le 1 \Rightarrow T(x,0) \le T(1,0) = T(0,1) = 0$

De Morgan Triplet I

For every \top and strong negation \sim , one can define t-conorm \perp by

$$\perp (x, y) = \sim \top (\sim x, \sim y), \quad x, y \in [0, 1].$$

Additionally, in this case $\top(x, y) = \sim \bot(\sim x, \sim y), \ x, y \in [0, 1].$

 \perp , \top are called *N-dual t-conorm* and *N-dual t-norm* to \top , \perp , resp.

In case of the standard negation $\sim x = 1 - x$ for $x \in [0, 1]$, N-dual \perp and \top are called *dual t-conorm* and *dual t-norm*, resp.

 $\bot(x,y) = \neg \top(\neg x, \neg y)$ expresses "fuzzy" De Morgan's law.

note: De Morgan's laws $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$, $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$

De Morgan Triplet II

Definition

The triplet (\top, \bot, \sim) is called *De Morgan triplet* if and only if \top is t-norm, \bot is t-conorm, \sim is strong negation, \top , \bot and \sim satisfy $\bot(x,y) = \sim \top(\sim x, \sim y)$.

In the following, some important De Morgan triplets will be shown, only the most frequently used and important ones. In all cases, the standard negation $\sim x = 1 - x$ is considered.

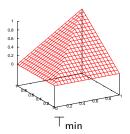
R. Kruse, C. Doell

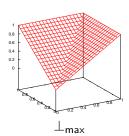
The Minimum and Maximum I

$$\top_{\min}(x, y) = \min(x, y), \quad \bot_{\max}(x, y) = \max(x, y)$$

Minimum is the greatest t-norm and max is the weakest t-conorm.

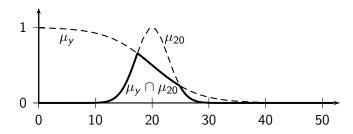
$$\top(x,y) \leq \min(x,y)$$
 and $\bot(x,y) \geq \max(x,y)$ for any \top and \bot





The Minimum and Maximum II

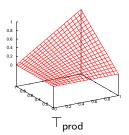
 \top_{\min} and \bot_{\max} can be easily processed numerically and visually, e.g. linguistic values *young* and *approx*. 20 described by μ_y , μ_{20} . $\top_{\min}(\mu_y, \mu_{20})$ is shown below.

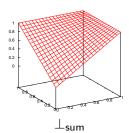


The Product and Probabilistic Sum

$$\top_{\mathsf{prod}}(x,y) = x \cdot y, \quad \bot_{\mathsf{sum}}(x,y) = x + y - x \cdot y$$

Note that use of product and its dual has nothing to do with probability theory.

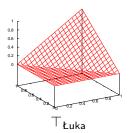


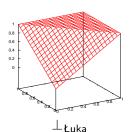


The Łukasiewicz t-norm and t-conorm

$$\top_{\text{Łuka}}(x,y) = \max\{0, \ x+y-1\}, \quad \bot_{\text{Łuka}}(x,y) = \min\{1, \ x+y\}$$

 $\top_{\text{Łuka}}, \ \bot_{\text{Łuka}}$ are also called *bold intersection* and *bounded sum*.



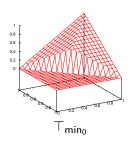


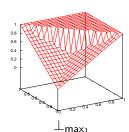
The Nilpotent Minimum and Maximum

$$\top_{\min_0}(x,y) = \begin{cases} \min(x,y) & \text{if } x+y > 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\perp_{\mathsf{max}_1}(x,y) = \begin{cases} \mathsf{max}(x,y) & \text{if } x+y < 1 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Found in 1992 and independently rediscovered in 1995.





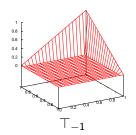
The Drastic Product and Sum

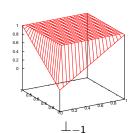
$$T_{-1}(x,y) = \begin{cases} \min(x,y) & \text{if } \max(x,y) = 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\perp_{-1}(x,y) = \begin{cases} \max(x,y) & \text{if } \min(x,y) = 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 T_{-1} is the weakest *t*-norm, \bot_{-1} is the strongest *t*-conorm.

$$\top_{-1} \leq \top \leq \top_{min}, \quad \bot_{max} \leq \bot \leq \bot_{-1} \text{ for any } \top \text{ and } \bot$$



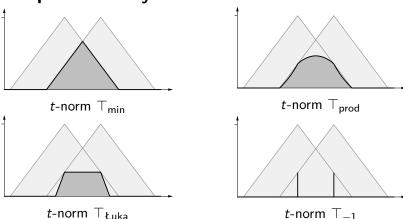


FS - Fuzzy Sets and Fuzzy Logic

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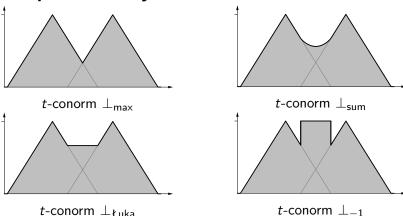


Examples of Fuzzy Intersections



Note that all fuzzy intersections are contained within upper left graph and lower right one.

Examples of Fuzzy Unions



Note that all fuzzy unions are contained within upper left graph and lower right one.

The Special Role of Minimum and Maximum I

 \top_{\min} and \bot_{\max} play key role for intersection and union, resp.

In a practical sense, they are very simple.

Apart from the identity law, commutativity, associativity and monotonicity, they also satisfy the following properties for all $x, y, z \in [0, 1]$:

Distributivity

$$\perp_{\max}(x, \top_{\min}(y, z)) = \top_{\min}(\perp_{\max}(x, y), \perp_{\max}(x, z)),$$

$$\top_{\min}(x, \perp_{\max}(y, z)) = \perp_{\max}(\top_{\min}(x, y), \top_{\min}(x, z))$$

Continuity

 \top_{\min} and \bot_{\max} are continuous.

The Special Role of Minimum and Maximum II

Strict monotonicity on the diagonal

$$x < y \text{ implies } \top_{\min}(x, x) < \top_{\min}(y, y) \text{ and } \bot_{\max}(x, x) < \bot_{\max}(y, y).$$

Idempotency

$$\top_{\min}(x,x) = x$$
, $\bot_{\max}(x,x) = x$

Absorption

$$\top_{\min}(x, \perp_{\max}(x, y)) = x, \quad \perp_{\max}(x, \top_{\min}(x, y)) = x$$

Non-compensation

$$x < y < z$$
 imply $\top_{\min}(x, z) \neq \top_{\min}(y, y)$ and $\bot_{\max}(x, z) \neq \bot_{\max}(y, y)$.

The Special Role of Minimum and Maximum III

Is $(\mathcal{F}(X), \top_{\min}, \bot_{\max}, \sim)$ a boolean algebra?

Consider the properties (B1)-(B9) of any Boolean algebra.

For $(\mathcal{F}(X), \top_{\min}, \bot_{\max}, \sim)$ with strong negation \sim only complementary (B7) does not hold.

Hence $(\mathcal{F}(X), \top_{\min}, \bot_{\max}, \sim)$ is a *completely distributive lattice* with identity element μ_X and zero element μ_{\emptyset} .

No lattice $(\mathcal{F}(X), \top, \bot, \sim)$ forms a Boolean algebra

due to the fact that complementary (B7) does not hold:

- There is no complement/negation \sim with $\top (A, \sim A) = \mu_{\emptyset}$.
- There is no complement/negation \sim with $\bot(A, \sim A) = \mu_X$.

Complementary Property of Fuzzy Sets

Using fuzzy sets, it's impossible to keep up a Boolean algebra.

Verify, e.g. that law of contradiction is violated, i.e.

$$(\exists x \in X)(A \cap A^c)(x) \neq \emptyset.$$

We use min, max and strong negation \sim as fuzzy set operators.

So we need to show that

$$\min\{A(x), 1 - A(x)\} = 0$$

is violated for at least one $x \in X$.

easy: This Equation is violated for all $A(x) \in (0,1)$.

It is satisfied only for $A(x) \in \{0, 1\}$.

The concept of a pseudoinverse

Definition

Let $f:[a,b] \to [c,d]$ be a monotone function between two closed subintervals of extended real line. The pseudoinverse function to f is the function $f^{(-1)}:[c,d] \to [a,b]$ defined as

$$f^{(-1)}(y) = \begin{cases} \sup\{x \in [a,b] \mid f(x) < y\} & \text{for } f \text{ non-decreasing,} \\ \sup\{x \in [a,b] \mid f(x) > y\} & \text{for } f \text{ non-increasing.} \end{cases}$$

Continuous Archimedean *t*-norms and *t*-conorms

broad class of problems relates to representation of multi-place functions by composition of a "simpler" function, e.g.

$$K(x, y) = f^{(-1)}(f(x) + f(y))$$

So, one should consider suitable subclass of all t-norms.

Definition

A t-norm \top is

- (a) continuous if \top as function is continuous on unit interval,
- (b) Archimedean if \top is continuous and $\top(x,x) < x$ for all $x \in]0,1[$.

Definition

A t-conorm \perp is

- (a) continuous if \bot as function is continuous on unit interval,
- (b) Archimedean if \bot is continuous and $\bot(x,x) > x$ for all $x \in]0,1[$.

Continuous Archimedean t-norms

Theorem

A t-norm \top is continuous and Archimedean if and only if there exists a strictly decreasing and continuous function $f:[0,1]\to [0,\infty]$ with f(1)=0 such that

$$\top(x,y) = f^{(-1)}(f(x) + f(y))$$
 (1)

where

$$f^{(-1)}(x) = \begin{cases} f^{-1}(x) & \text{if } x \leq f(0) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is the pseudoinverse of f. Moreover, this representation is unique up to a positive multiplicative constant.

 \top is generated by f if \top has representation (1).

f is called *additive generator* of \top .

Additive Generators of *t*-norms – Examples

Find an additive generator f of $\top_{\text{Łuka}}(x,y) = \max\{x+y-1, 0\}$.

for instance
$$f_{\text{Luka}}(x) = 1 - x$$

then,
$$f_{\text{Łuka}}^{(-1)}(x) = \max\{1 - x, 0\}$$

thus
$$\top_{\text{Luka}}(x,y) = f_{\text{Luka}}^{(-1)}(f_{\text{Luka}}(x) + f_{\text{Luka}}(y))$$

Find an additive generator f of $\top_{prod}(x, y) = x \cdot y$.

to be discussed in the exercise

hint: use of logarithmic and exponential function

Continuous Archimedean t-conorms

Theorem

A t-conorm \bot is continuous and Archimedean if and only if there exists a strictly increasing and continuous function $g:[0,1]\to [0,\infty]$ with g(0)=0 such that

$$\pm(x,y) = g^{(-1)}(g(x) + g(y)) \tag{2}$$

where

$$g^{(-1)}(x) = \begin{cases} g^{-1}(x) & \text{if } x \leq g(1) \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is the pseudoinverse of g. Moreover, this representation is unique up to a positive multiplicative constant.

- \perp is generated by g if \perp has representation (2).
- g is called additive generator of \bot .

Additive Generators of *t*-conorms – Two Examples

Find an additive generator g of $\perp_{\text{Luka}}(x, y) = \min\{x + y, 1\}$.

for instance
$$g_{\text{Luka}}(x) = x$$

then, $g_{\text{Luka}}^{(-1)}(x) = \min\{x, 1\}$
thus $\perp_{\text{Luka}}(x, y) = g_{\text{Luka}}^{(-1)}(g_{\text{Luka}}(x) + g_{\text{Luka}}(y))$

Find an additive generator g of $\perp_{sum}(x, y) = x + y - x \cdot y$.

to be discussed in the exercise

hint: use of logarithmic and exponential function

Now, let us examine some typical families of operations.

Hamacher Family I

$$T_{\alpha}(x,y) = \frac{x \cdot y}{\alpha + (1 - \alpha)(x + y + x \cdot y)}, \quad \alpha \ge 0,$$

$$\bot_{\beta}(x,y) = \frac{x + y + (\beta - 1) \cdot x \cdot y}{1 + \beta \cdot x \cdot y}, \quad \beta \ge -1,$$

$$\sim_{\gamma}(x) = \frac{1 - x}{1 + \gamma x}, \quad \gamma > -1$$

Theorem

 (\top, \bot, \sim) is a De Morgan triplet such that

$$\top(x,y) = \top(x,z) \Longrightarrow y = z,$$

$$\bot(x,y) = \bot(x,z) \Longrightarrow y = z,$$

$$\forall z \le x \ \exists y, y' \text{ such that } \top(x,y) = z, \ \bot(z,y') = x$$

and \top and \bot are rational functions if and only if there are numbers $\alpha \geq 0, \ \beta \geq -1$ and $\gamma > -1$ such that $\alpha = \frac{1+\beta}{1+\gamma}$ and $\top = \top_{\alpha}, \ \bot = \bot_{\beta}$ and $\sim = \sim_{\gamma}$.

Hamacher Family II

Additive generators f_{α} of \top_{α} are

$$f_{\alpha} = \begin{cases} \frac{1-x}{x} & \text{if } \alpha = 0\\ \log \frac{\alpha + (1-\alpha)x}{x} & \text{if } \alpha > 0. \end{cases}$$

Each member of these families is strict t-norm and strict t-conorm, respectively.

Members of this family of t-norms are decreasing functions of parameter α .

Sugeno-Weber Family I

For $\lambda > 1$ and $x, y \in [0, 1]$, define

 $\lambda = 0$ leads to $\top_{\text{Łuka}}$ and $\bot_{\text{Łuka}}$, resp.

 $\lambda \to \infty$ results in \top_{prod} and $\bot_{\text{sum}},$ resp.

 $\lambda \to -1$ creates \top_{-1} and \bot_{-1} , resp.

Sugeno-Weber Family II

Additive generators f_{λ} of \top_{λ} are

$$f_{\lambda}(x) = egin{cases} 1-x & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \ 1-rac{\log(1+\lambda x)}{\log(1+\lambda)} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

 $\{\top_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda}>-1}$ are increasing functions of parameter λ .

Additive generators of \perp_{λ} are $g_{\lambda}(x) = 1 - f_{\lambda}(x)$.

Yager Family

For $0 and <math>x, y \in [0, 1]$, define

Additive generators of \top_p are

$$f_p(x) = (1-x)^p,$$

and of \perp_p are

$$g_p(x) = x^p$$
.

 $\{\top_p\}_{0< p<\infty}$ are strictly increasing in p.

Note that $\lim_{p\to+0} \top_p = \top_{\text{Łuka}}$.

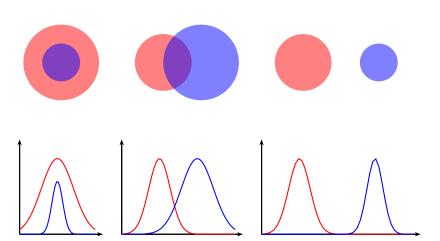


Fuzzy Sets Inclusion



Fuzzy Implications

crisp: $x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B$, fuzzy: $x \in \mu \Rightarrow x \in \mu'$



Definitions of Fuzzy Implications

One way of defining I is to use $\forall a, b \in \{0, 1\}$

$$I(a, b) = \neg a \lor b.$$

In fuzzy logic, disjunction and negation are t-conorm and fuzzy complement, resp., thus $\forall a, b \in [0,1]$

$$I(a,b) = \bot(\sim a,b).$$

Another way in classical logic is $\forall a, b \in \{0, 1\}$

$$I(a, b) = \max \{x \in \{0, 1\} \mid a \land x \le b\}.$$

In fuzzy logic, conjunction represents *t*-norm, thus $\forall a, b \in [0, 1]$

$$I(a,b) = \sup \{x \in [0,1] \mid \top(a,x) \leq b\}.$$

So, classical definitions are equal, fuzzy extensions are not.

Definitions of Fuzzy Implications

 $I(a,b) = \bot(\sim a,b)$ may also be written as either

$$I(a,b) = \neg a \lor (a \land b)$$
 or $I(a,b) = (\neg a \land \neg b) \lor b$.

Fuzzy logical extensions are thus, respectively,

$$I(a,b) = \bot(\sim a, \top(a,b)),$$

$$I(a,b) = \bot(\top(\sim a, \sim b), b)$$

where (\top, \bot, n) must be a *De Morgan triplet*.

So again, classical definitions are equal, fuzzy extensions are not.

reason: Law of absorption of negation does not hold in fuzzy logic.

S-Implications

Implications based on $I(a,b) = \bot(\sim a,b)$ are called S-**implications**.

Symbol S is often used to denote t-conorms.

Four well-known S-implications are based on $\sim a = 1 - a$:

Name	I(a,b)	\perp (a,b)
Kleene-Dienes	$I_{max}(a,b) = max(1-a,b)$	$ \max(a,b) $
Reichenbach	$I_{sum}(a,b) = 1 - a + ab$	a+b-ab
Łukasiewicz	$I_{L}(a,b) = \min(1, 1-a+b)$	$\mid \min(1, a+b)$
largest	$I_{-1}(a,b) = egin{cases} b, & ext{if } a=1 \ 1-a, & ext{if } b=0 \ 1, & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} b, & \text{if } a = 0 \\ a, & \text{if } b = 0 \\ 1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

S-Implications

The drastic sum \perp_{-1} leads to the largest S-implication I_{-1} due to the following theorem:

Theorem

Let \bot_1, \bot_2 be t-conorms such that $\bot_1(a,b) \le \bot_2(a,b)$ for all $a,b \in [0,1]$. Let I_1,I_2 be S-implications based on same fuzzy complement \sim and \bot_1, \bot_2 , respectively. Then $I_1(a,b) \le I_2(a,b)$ for all $a,b \in [0,1]$.

Since \perp_{-1} leads to the largest *S*-implication, similarly, \perp_{max} leads to the smallest *S*-implication I_{max} .

Furthermore,

$$I_{\text{max}} < I_{\text{sum}} < I_k < I_{-1}$$

R-Implications

$$I(a,b) = \sup \{x \in [0,1] \mid \top(a,x) \leq b\}$$
 leads to *R*-implications.

Symbol R represents close connection to residuated semigroup.

Three well-known *R*-implications are based on $\sim a = 1 - a$:

• Standard fuzzy intersection leads to Gödel implication

$$I_{\min}(a,b) = \sup \{x \mid \min(a,x) \le b\} =$$

$$\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } a \le b \\ b, & \text{if } a > b. \end{cases}$$

• Product leads to Goguen implication

$$I_{\text{prod}}(a, b) = \sup \{x \mid ax \leq b\} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } a \leq b \\ b/a, & \text{if } a > b. \end{cases}$$

• Łukasiewicz t-norm leads to Łukasiewicz implication

$$I_{\mathsf{L}}(a,b) = \sup\{x \mid \max(0, a+x-1) \le b\} = \min(1, 1-a+b).$$

R-Implications

Name	Formula	\top (a, b) =	
Gödel	$I_{\min}(a,b) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } a \leq b \\ b, & \text{if } a > b \end{cases}$	min(a, b)	
Goguen	$I_{\text{prod}}(a,b) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } a \leq b \\ b/a, & \text{if } a > b \end{cases}$	ab	
Łukasiewicz	$I_{\mathtt{L}}(a,b) = \min(1,\ 1-a+b)$	$max(0,\ a+b-1)$	
largest	$I_{L}(a,b) = egin{cases} b, & if \ a = 1 \ 1, & otherwise \end{cases}$	not defined	

 I_L is actually the limit of all R-implications.

It serves as least upper bound.

It cannot be defined by $I(a, b) = \sup \{x \in [0, 1] \mid \top(a, x) \leq b\}.$

R-Implications

Theorem

Let \top_1, \top_2 be t-norms such that $\top_1(a,b) \leq \top_2(a,b)$ for all $a,b \in [0,1]$. Let I_1,I_2 be R-implications based on \top_1, \top_2 , respectively. Then $I_1(a,b) \geq I_2(a,b)$ for all $a,b \in [0,1]$.

It follows that Gödel I_{min} is the smallest R-implication.

Furthermore.

$$I_{\min} \leq I_{\text{prod}} \leq I_{\text{L}} \leq I_{\text{L}}$$
.

QL-Implications

Implications based on $I(a, b) = \bot(\sim a, \top(a, b))$ are called *QL*-implications (*QL* from quantum logic).

Four well-known *QL*-implications are based on $\sim a = 1 - a$:

• Standard min and max lead to Zadeh implication

$$I_Z(a,b) = \max[1-a,\min(a,b)].$$

• The algebraic product and sum lead to

$$I_{p}(a,b) = 1 - a + a^{2}b.$$

- Using $\top_{\underline{t}}$ and $\bot_{\underline{t}}$ leads to **Kleene-Dienes implication** again.
- Using \top_{-1} and \bot_{-1} leads to

$$I_{\mathsf{q}}(a,b) = egin{cases} b, & ext{if } a = 1 \ 1-a, & ext{if } a
eq 1, b
eq 1 \ 1, & ext{if } a
eq 1, b = 1. \end{cases}$$

Axioms

All I come from generalizations of the classical implication.

They collapse to the classical implication when truth values are 0 or 1. Generalizing classical properties leads to following axioms:

- 1) $a \le b$ implies $I(a, x) \ge I(b, x)$ (monotonicity in 1st argument)
- 2) $a \le b$ implies $I(x, a) \le I(x, b)$ (monotonicity in 2nd argument)
- 3) I(0, a) = 1 (dominance of falsity)
- 4) I(1,b) = b (neutrality of truth)
- 5) I(a, a) = 1 (identity)
- 6) I(a, I(b, c)) = I(b, I(a, c)) (exchange property)
- 7) I(a,b) = 1 if and only if $a \le b$ (boundary condition)
- 8) I(a,b) = I(a,b) = I(a,b) = I(a,b) = I(a,b) = I(a,b) = I(a,b) (contraposition)
- 9) *I* is a continuous function (continuity)

Generator Function

I that satisfy all listed axioms are characterized by this theorem:

Theorem

A function $I:[0,1]^2 \to [0,1]$ satisfies Axioms 1–9 of fuzzy implications for a particular fuzzy complement \sim if and only if there exists a strict increasing continuous function $f:[0,1]\to [0,\infty)$ such that f(0)=0,

$$I(a,b) = f^{(-1)}(f(1) - f(a) + f(b))$$

for all $a, b \in [0, 1]$, and

$$\sim a = f^{-1}(f(1) - f(a))$$

for all $a \in [0, 1]$.

Example

Consider $f_{\lambda}(a) = \ln(1 + \lambda a)$ with $a \in [0, 1]$ and $\lambda > 0$.

Its pseudo-inverse is

$$f_{\lambda}^{(-1)}(a) = egin{cases} rac{e^a-1}{\lambda}, & ext{if } 0 \leq a \leq \ln(1+\lambda) \ 1, & ext{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

The fuzzy complement generated by f for all $a \in [0,1]$ is

$$n_{\lambda}(a) = \frac{1-a}{1+\lambda a}.$$

The resulting fuzzy implication for all $a, b \in [0, 1]$ is thus

$$I_{\lambda}(a,b) = \min\left(1, \frac{1-a+b+\lambda b}{1+\lambda a}\right).$$

If $\lambda \in (-1,0)$, then I_{λ} is called **pseudo-Łukasiewicz implication**.

List of Implications in Many Valued Logics

Name	Class	Form $I(a, b) =$	Axioms	Complement
Gaines-Rescher		$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	1-8	1 — a
Gödel	R	$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \leq b \\ b & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	1–7	
Goguen	R	$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \leq b \\ b/a & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	1–7, 9	
Kleene-Dienes	S,QL	$\max(1-a,b)$	1–4, 6, 8, 9	1 – a
Łukasiewicz	R, S	$\min(1, 1-a+b)$	1-9	1 – a
Pseudo-Łukasiewicz 1	R, S	$\min\left[1,\frac{1-\mathit{a}+(1+\lambda)\mathit{b}}{1+\lambda\mathit{a}}\right]$	1-9	$\frac{1-a}{1+\lambda a},\; (\lambda>-1)$
Pseudo-Łukasiewicz 2	R, S	$\min\left[1,1-\mathit{a}^{\mathit{W}}+\mathit{b}^{\mathit{W}}\right]$	1–9	$(1-a^w)^{\frac{1}{w}},(w>0)$
Reichenbach	S	1-a+ab	1–4, 6, 8, 9	1 – a
Wu		$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \leq b \\ \min(1-a,b) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	1-3,5,7,8	1 — a
Zadeh	QL	$\max[1-a,\min(a,b)]$	1–4, 9	1 — a

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Which Fuzzy Implication?

Since the meaning of I is not unique, we must resolve the following question:

Which I should be used for calculating the fuzzy relation R?

Hence meaningful criteria are needed.

They emerge from various fuzzy inference rules, *i.e.* modus ponens, modus tollens, hypothetical syllogism.



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