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at Faculty of Science of Palacký University in Olomouc
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MINISTERSTVO ŠKOLSTVÍ,
MLÁDEŽE A TĚLOVÝCHOVY



**OP Vzdělávání
pro konkurenceschopnost**

INVESTICE
DO ROZVOJE
VZDĚLÁVÁNÍ

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Department of Mathematical analysis
and Applications of Mathematics
Faculty of Science
Palacký University Olomouc

Intermediate Quantifiers in Fuzzy Natural Logic

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Outline

- 1 The concept of natural logic
- 2 Higher-order fuzzy logic — the main technical tool
- 3 Evaluative linguistic expressions
- 4 Quantifiers
- 5 Intermediate quantifiers
- 6 Syllogistic reasoning
- 7 Square of opposition
- 8 Analysis of the generalized square
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Paradigm of Natural Logic

Natural logic is a collection of terms and rules that come with natural language that allows us to reason and argue in it. Natural language employs a relatively small number of atomic predicates that are related to each other by meaning-postulates that **do not vary from language to language**.

Paradigm of FNL

- (i) To follow paradigm of natural logic by capturing vagueness phenomenon occurring in its semantics and to develop a working mathematical model of parts of linguistic semantics.
- (ii) Develop a mathematical model of natural (commonsense) human reasoning schemes.

FNL is a mathematical logic extending Mathematical Fuzzy Logic in Narrow Sense (FL_n)

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Fuzzy Natural Logic

What FNL can provide?

- Construction of models of systems and processes on the basis of expert knowledge expressed in genuine natural language
- Making computer to “understand” natural language and behave accordingly

Current constituents of FNL

- Theory of evaluative linguistic expressions (*small, very small, medium, large, etc.*)
- Theory of fuzzy/linguistic IF-THEN rules and logical inference (Perception-based Logical Deduction)
- Theory of intermediate quantifiers (*most, a lot of, few, many, etc.*) and generalized (intermediate) Aristotle syllogisms

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Higher-order fuzzy logic — Fuzzy Type Theory

Logical analysis of concepts and natural language expressions requires higher-order logic — **type theory**.

Why fuzzy type theory

- It is a constituent of Mathematical Fuzzy Logic, well established with good mathematical properties.
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Generalization of classical **type theory**

- *Founder*: B. Russel (1903, 1908)
- A. Church, L. Henkin, P. Andrews, P. Martin-Löf

Syntax of FTT is an extended lambda calculus:

- more logical axioms
- many-valued semantics

Main fuzzy type theories

IMTL, Łukasiewicz, EQ-algebra based

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Truth values in FTT

Standard Łukasiewicz MV_{Δ} -algebra

$$\mathcal{E} = \langle [0, 1], \vee, \wedge, \otimes, \Delta, \rightarrow, 0, 1 \rangle$$

$\vee, \wedge =$ minimum, maximum

$$a \otimes b = 0 \vee (a + b - 1) \quad (\text{Łukasiewicz conjunction})$$

$$a \rightarrow b = 1 \wedge (1 - a + b) \quad (\text{Łukasiewicz implication})$$

$$\neg a = a \rightarrow 0 = 1 - a \quad \neg \neg a = a$$

$$a \leftrightarrow b = (a \rightarrow b) \wedge (b \rightarrow a) \quad \Delta(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Interpretation of formulas

Example

$\mathcal{M}^{\mathcal{G}}(A_0) \in E$ is a truth value

$\mathcal{M}^{\mathcal{G}}(A_\alpha \equiv B_\alpha) \in E$ is a truth degree of fuzzy equality
between $\mathcal{M}^{\mathcal{G}}(A_\alpha)$ and $\mathcal{M}^{\mathcal{G}}(B_\alpha)$

$\mathcal{M}^{\mathcal{G}}(A_{0\epsilon}) : M_\alpha \longrightarrow E$ is a fuzzy set in M_ϵ

$\mathcal{M}^{\mathcal{G}}(A_{(0\epsilon)\epsilon}) : M_\epsilon \longrightarrow M_o^{M_\epsilon}$ is a fuzzy relation on M_ϵ

$\mathcal{M}^{\mathcal{G}}(A_{\epsilon\epsilon}) : M_\epsilon \longrightarrow M_\epsilon$ is a function on objects

Generalized completeness holds for FTT:

$$T \vdash A_0 \quad \text{iff} \quad T \models A_0$$

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Evaluative linguistic expressions

Pure evaluative expressions:

very short, rather strong, more or less medium, roughly big, extremely big

Components

(i) TE-adjectives:

small, medium, big; weak, medium strong, strong; silly, normal, intelligent; good, average, bad

(ii) Hedges:

- **Narrowing:** *very, extremely, significantly*
- **Widening:** *more or less, roughly, very roughly*
- **Specifying:** *approximately, about, rather, precisely, typically*

Other evaluative expressions:

Fuzzy numbers, compound, negative

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Semantics of natural language in FNL

Evaluative linguistic expressions characterize part of a bounded ordered scale in a certain **context**

Possible world = **Context**

$$w = \langle v_L, v_S, v_R \rangle, \quad v_L, v_S, v_R \in \mathbb{R}$$

Distance:

$w = \langle 10, 100, 400 \rangle$ (*Czech Republic*)

$w = \langle 100, 500, 3\ 000 \rangle$ (*Russia*)

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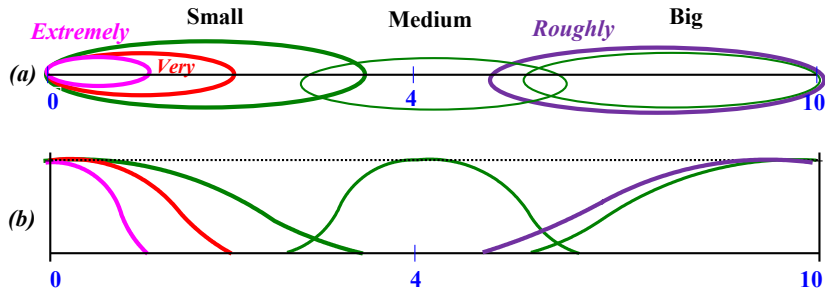
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Extensions of evaluative expressions

Context $w = \langle 0, 4, 10 \rangle$



Semantics of evaluative linguistic expressions: Special theory T^{Ev} of ŁFTT

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Classical and generalized quantifiers

(i) Classical quantifiers

Aristotelian logic — the quantifiers *All*, *Some*, *No*;

G. Frege, Ch. S. Pierce, O. H. Mitchell— the quantifiers \forall, \exists

(ii) Generalized quantifiers

A. Mostowski, P. Lindström, J. van Benthem, J. Barwise, R. Cooper,
L. E. Keenan, D. Westerståhl

Most, at least five, many, an odd number of, etc.

(iii) Fuzzy quantifiers

L. A. Zadeh,

Generalization of (ii): I. Glöckner (semi-fuzzy quantifiers),

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Quantifiers in natural language

Words (expressions) that precede and modify nouns; tell us how many or how much. They specify quantity of specimens in the domain of discourse having a certain property.

Example

All, Most, Almost all, Few, Many, Some, No

Most women in the party are well dressed

Few students passed exam

Important subclass of generalized quantifiers

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Semantics of intermediate quantifiers

Main idea

Intermediate quantifiers are classical quantifiers \forall and \exists taken over a *smaller* class of elements. Its size is determined using an appropriate evaluative expression.

Classical logic: No substantiation why and how the range of quantification should be made smaller

Semantics of intermediate quantifiers

Main idea

Intermediate quantifiers are classical quantifiers \forall and \exists taken over a *smaller* class of elements. Its size is determined using an appropriate evaluative expression.

Classical logic: *No substantiation why and how the range of quantification should be made smaller*

Formal theory of intermediate quantifiers

“Most B 's are A ” (“Most small children are slim”)

$$(Q_{Bi\ Ve}^{\forall} x)(B, A) := \underbrace{(\exists z)((\Delta(z \subseteq B))}_{\text{“the greatest” fuzzy subset of } B} \quad \& \quad \underbrace{(\forall x)(z x \Rightarrow Ax))}_{\text{each of } z\text{'s has } A} \quad \wedge \quad \underbrace{Bi\ Ve((\mu B)z))}_{\text{size of } z \text{ is evaluated as } \textit{Very big}}$$

Formal theory of intermediate quantifiers

$T^{IQ} = T^{Ev} + 4$ special axioms

“ \langle Quantifier \rangle B 's are A ”

$$(Q_{Ev}^{\forall} x)(B, A) := \underbrace{(\exists z)((\Delta(z \subseteq B))}_{\text{“the greatest” fuzzy subset of } B\text{'s}} \quad \& \quad \underbrace{(\forall x)(z x \Rightarrow Ax))}_{\text{each of } z\text{'s has } A} \quad \wedge \quad \underbrace{Ev((\mu B)z))}_{\text{size of } z \text{ is evaluated by } Ev}$$

Ev — extension of a certain evaluative expression

(*big, very big, small*, etc.)

Special intermediate quantifiers

Classical quantifiers

A: All B are $A := (Q_{Bi\Delta}^{\forall}x)(B, A) \equiv (\forall x)(Bx \Rightarrow Ax)$,

E: No B are $A := (Q_{Bi\Delta}^{\forall}x)(B, \neg A) \equiv (\forall x)(Bx \Rightarrow \neg Ax)$,

I: Some B are $A := (Q_{Bi\Delta}^{\exists}x)(B, A) \equiv (\exists x)(Bx \wedge Ax)$,

O: Some B are not $A := (Q_{Bi\Delta}^{\exists}x)(B, \neg A) \equiv (\exists x)(Bx \wedge \neg Ax)$.

Special intermediate quantifiers

P: Almost all B are $A := (Q_{Bi Ex}^{\forall})(B, A)$

≡

$$(\exists z)((\Delta(z \subseteq B) \& (\forall x)(zx \Rightarrow Ax)) \wedge (Bi Ex)((\mu B)z)),$$

B: Few B are A ($:=$ Almost all B are not A) $:= (Q_{Bi Ex}^{\forall})(B, \neg A)$

≡

$$(\exists z)((\Delta(z \subseteq B) \& (\forall x)(zx \Rightarrow \neg Ax)) \wedge (Bi Ex)((\mu B)z)),$$

T: Most B are $A := (Q_{Bi Ve}^{\forall})(B, A)$

≡

$$(\exists z)((\Delta(z \subseteq B) \& (\forall x)(zx \Rightarrow Ax)) \wedge (Bi Ve)((\mu B)z)),$$

D: Most B are not $A := (Q_{Bi Ve}^{\forall})(B, \neg A)$

K: Many B are $A := (Q_{\neg(Sm\bar{v})}^{\forall})(B, A)$

G: Many B are not $A := (Q_{\neg(Sm\bar{v})}^{\forall})(B, \neg A)$

Special intermediate quantifiers

Our theory enables to develop mathematical model of the meaning of complicated expressions of natural language including their vagueness

Example

- **Almost all** birds are good flyers.
- **Many** people in the party are women.
- **Most** school children are picky eaters.
- **Few** dresses are yellow.

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Generalized (intermediate) syllogisms

Definition

- A **syllogism** $\langle P_1, P_2, C \rangle$ — logical argument in which the *conclusion* C is inferred from two *premises* — *major* P_1 and *minor* P_2 .
 - Major premise (P_1): All humans are mortal.
 - Minor premise (P_2): Some animals are human.
 - Conclusion (C): Some animals are mortal.
- **Intermediate syllogism**: traditional syllogism in which some classical quantifiers are replaced by intermediate ones.
- We say that the syllogism is **(strongly) valid** (in T^{IQ}) if

$$T^{IQ} \vdash P_1 \& P_2 \Rightarrow C,$$

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105 valid generalized Aristotle's syllogisms

Figure I

Q_1 M is Y

Q_2 X is M

Q_3 X is Y

Figure II

Q_1 Y is M

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Example (ATT-I)

All women are well dressed

Most people in the party are women

Most people in the party are well dressed

Example (ETO-II)

No lazy people pass exam

Most students pass exam

Some students are not lazy people

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Figure III

Q_1 M is Y

Q_2 M is X

Q_3 X is Y

Figure IV

Q_1 Y is M

Q_2 M is X

Q_3 X is Y

Example (PPI-III)

Almost all old people are ill

Almost all old people have gray hair

Some people with gray hair are ill

Example (TAI-IV)

*Most shares with downward trend are from car industry

All shares of car industry are important

Some important shares have downward trend

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Classical relations between formulas

Definition (Classical logic)

- Two formulas P_1, P_2 are **contradictory** if in any model they cannot both be true, and they cannot both be false.
- Two formulas P_1, P_2 are **contraries** if in any model they cannot both be true, but both can be false.
- Two formulas P_1, P_2 are **sub-contraries** if in any model they cannot both be false, but both can be true.
- A formula P_1 is **subaltern** of P_2 (**superaltern**) if, in any model, it must be true if its superaltern is true. The superaltern must be false if the subaltern is false.

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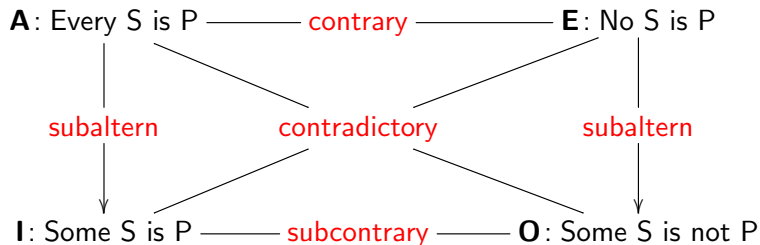
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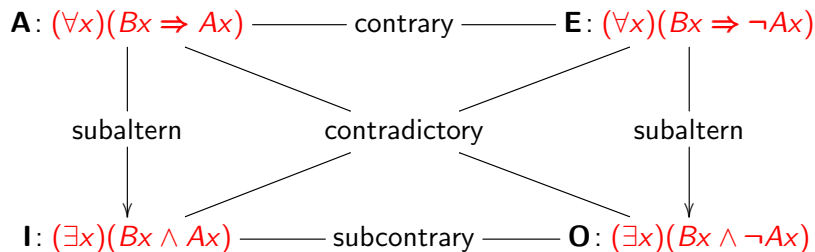
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- Two formulas P_1, P_2 are **sub-contraries** if in any model they cannot both be false, but both can be true.
- A formula P_1 is **subaltern** of P_2 (**superaltern**) if, in any model, it must be true if its superaltern is true. The superaltern must be false if the subaltern is false.

Aristotle square of opposition



Aristotle square with logical formulas



Outline

- 1 The concept of natural logic
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- 6 Syllogistic reasoning
- 7 Square of opposition
- 8 Analysis of the generalized square**
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Generalized definitions

Contraries (classical definition)

- P_1, P_2 are **contraries** if in any model they cannot be both true but can be both false.

Contraries (generalized definition)

- P_1, P_2 are **contraries** in T^{IQ} if $T^{IQ} \vdash P_1 \& P_2 \equiv \perp$.

$$\mathcal{M}(P_1) \otimes \mathcal{P} = \max(0, \mathcal{M}(P_1) + \mathcal{M}(P_2) - 1)$$

Generalized definitions

Sub-contraries (classical definition)

- P_1, P_2 are **sub-contraries** if in any model they cannot be both false but can be both true.

Sub-contraries (generalized definition)

- P_1 and P_2 are **sub-contraries** in T^{IQ} if $T^{IQ} \vdash P_1 \nabla P_2 \neq \perp$
 $\mathcal{M}(P_1) \oplus \mathcal{P} = \min(1, \mathcal{M}(P_1) + \mathcal{M}(P_2))$

Generalized definitions

Contradictory (classical definition)

- P_1, P_2 are **contradictory** if in any model they cannot be both true and they cannot be both false.

Contradictory (generalized definition)

- P_1 and P_2 are **contradictory** in T^{IQ} if $T^{IQ} \vdash \Delta P_1 \& \Delta P_2 \equiv \perp$ as well as $T^{IQ} \vdash \Delta P_1 \nabla \Delta P_2$.

$$\mathcal{M}(P_1) = 1, \mathcal{M}(P_2) < 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \mathcal{M}(P_1) < 1, \mathcal{M}(P_2) = 1$$

Generalized definitions

Sub-altern (classical definition)

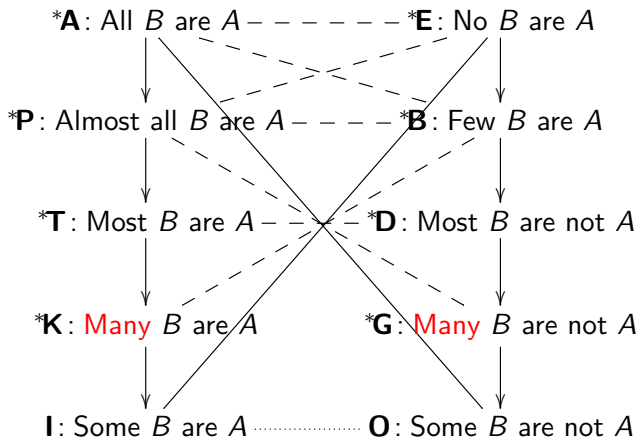
- P_2 is **subaltern** of P_1 called **superaltern** if, in any model, it must be true if its superaltern is true. At the same time, the superaltern must be false if the subaltern is false.

Sub-altern (generalized definition)

- P_2 is **sub-altern** of P_1 in T^{IQ} if $T^{IQ} \vdash P_1 \Rightarrow P_2$.

$$\mathcal{M}(P_1) \leq \mathcal{M}(P_2)$$

Generalized Peterson's square



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Conclusions

- We presented the concept of fuzzy natural logic — basic tool: **higher-order fuzzy logic (FTT)**.
- We demonstrated how semantics of special classes of natural language expressions including their vagueness can be formalized
- We introduced the intermediate quantifiers and their syllogisms
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All proofs are syntactical and so, the proved properties hold in arbitrary model

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