

Challenges for Perceptual Computer Applications and How They Were Overcome

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Abstract—*Perceptual Computing* is a methodology of **Computing with Words (CWW)** for assisting people in making subjective judgments. This article introduces the *Perceptual Computer (Per-C)*, our instantiation of **Perceptual Computing**. **Per-C** consists of three components: encoder, CWW engine and decoder. Perceptions—words—activate the Per-C and are the Per-C output (along with data); so, it is possible for a human to interact with the Per-C using just a vocabulary. The encoder transforms words into fuzzy sets and leads to a *codebook*—words with their associated fuzzy set models. The outputs of the encoder activate a CWW engine whose output is one or more other fuzzy sets, which are then mapped by the decoder into a recommendation (subjective judgment) with supporting data. The recommendation may be in the form of a word, group of similar words, rank or class. When the Per-C was applied to actual applications, challenges occurred that had to be overcome. In this article we describe three applications (investment decision making, social judgment making, and distributed decision making), the challenges encountered and how they were overcome.

I. INTRODUCTION

The phrase *Computing With Words (CWW)*, originated by Zadeh in 1996 [29], equates fuzzy logic to it (see Box 1). Oh, if it were only that simple! The 2010 Computational Intelligence Magazine article [8] presents seven points of view of what CWW means, and, it should be clear to anyone who reads this article that, there is no consensus on what it means. Additionally, the Foreword to the June 2010 Special Section of the *IEEE Transactions on Fuzzy Systems* on CWW [7] provides further thoughts about CWW by Zadeh, as well as some new important distinctions between two levels of CWW (called by him “basic” and “advanced” CWW). We conclude from all of this that the entropy level of “CWW” is quite high, which means (to us) that this is a fantastic field to work in, because you will be getting into it at almost the ground level.

We think it is now fair to state that CWW is a broad overarching high-level paradigm that makes it very rich because it is open to different interpretations and different instantiations, but all such interpretations require fuzzy logic to implement them.

For more than a decade we have been interested in CWW for assisting people in making subjective judgments, and call the methodology for doing this *Perceptual Computing* [17]. Such judgments, are personal opinions that have been influenced by one’s personal-views, experience or background, and can also be interpreted as personal assessments of the levels of variables of interest, and, are made using a mixture of qualitative and quantitative information. Using Zadeh’s distinction between

basic and advanced CWW (see Box 1), *Perceptual Computing* at present is basic CWW.

Our instantiation of *Perceptual Computing* is called a *Perceptual Computer (Per-C)* [9], [11], [12]. It has the architecture that is depicted in Fig. 1, and consists of three components: encoder, CWW engine and decoder. Perceptions—words—activate the Per-C and are the Per-C output (along with data); so, it is possible for a human to interact with the Per-C using just a vocabulary. A vocabulary is application (context) dependent, and must be large enough so that it lets the end-user interact with the Per-C in a user-friendly manner. The encoder transforms words into fuzzy sets (FSs) and leads to a *codebook*—words with their associated FS models. The outputs of the encoder activate a CWW engine whose output is one or more other FSs, which are then mapped by the decoder into a recommendation (subjective judgment) with supporting data. The recommendation may be in the form of a word, group of similar words, rank or class.

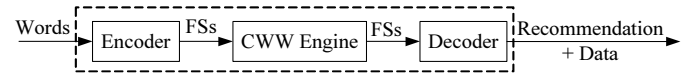


Fig. 1. Architecture for the Perceptual Computer (Per-C).

The Per-C is an interactive device that can aid people in making subjective judgments. It can propagate random and linguistic uncertainties into the subjective judgment, but in a way that can be modeled and observed by the judgment maker. The Per-C is not a single device for all problems, but is instead a device that must be designed for each specific problem by using the methodology of *Perceptual Computing*, a methodology that is described in the next section.

We agree with Zadeh that fuzzy logic should be used for CWW, and so it is used as the mathematical vehicle for the Per-C, but not the ordinary fuzzy logic. Because *words can mean different things to different people*, it is important to use an FS model that lets us capture word uncertainties. We use interval type-2 fuzzy sets (IT2 FSs) (Box 2) and fuzzy logic because they can do this. Detailed discussions about this have already appeared in [13] and are not repeated here.

Many obstacles have had to be overcome in order to implement *Perceptual Computing*. Some obstacles are common to all applications, whereas others are not. This article explains what the obstacles are and how they were overcome. The ones that are application-dependent are explained in the context of three specific applications: Investment decision making, social

judgment making, and distributed decision-making. These applications are explained in more detail in Section III.

Box 1: Computing With Words

According to Zadeh [29]–[31], “CWW is a methodology in which the objects of computation are words and propositions drawn from a natural language. [It is] inspired by the remarkable human capability to perform a wide variety of physical and mental tasks without any measurements and any computations. CWW may have an important bearing on how humans ... make perception-based rational decisions in an environment of imprecision, uncertainty and partial truth.” He did not mean that computers would actually compute using words—single words or phrases—rather than numbers. He meant that computers would be activated by words, which would be converted into a mathematical representation using fuzzy sets (FSs), and that these FSs would be mapped by a CWW engine into some other FS, after which the latter would be converted back into a word.

More recently, Zadeh [8] has distinguished two kinds of CWWs, *basic* (or Level 1) and *advanced* (or Level 2). According to Zadeh: “In basic CWW the carriers of information are numbers and words. In advanced CWW, the carriers of information are numbers, words and propositions.”

Box 2: Interval Type-2 Fuzzy Sets

An interval type-2 fuzzy set (IT2 FS) \tilde{A} is described by its *footprint of uncertainty* $FOU(\tilde{A})$ (Fig. 2), which can be thought of as the blurring of a type-1 membership function (MF). The FOU is completely described by its two bounding functions, a lower membership function (LMF) $LMF(\tilde{A}) = \underline{\mu}_{\tilde{A}}(x)$ and an upper membership function (UMF) $UMF(\tilde{A}) = \bar{\mu}_{\tilde{A}}(x)$, both of which are type-1 FSs. Consequently, it is possible to use type-1 FS mathematics to characterize and work with IT2 FSs. For lots more information about IT2 FSs, see, e.g. [10].

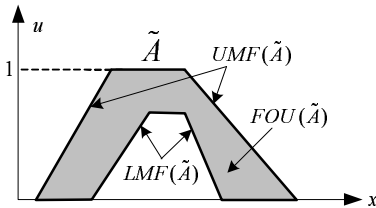


Fig. 2. FOU for an IT2 FS \tilde{A} .

Definition 1: The *centroid* of an IT2 FS \tilde{A} , $C_{\tilde{A}}$, is an interval of numbers $[c_l, c_r]$, where

$$c_l = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N x_i \mu(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mu(x_i)} \quad \forall \mu(x_i) \in [\underline{\mu}_{\tilde{A}}(x_i), \bar{\mu}_{\tilde{A}}(x_i)]$$

$$c_r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N x_i \mu(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mu(x_i)} \quad \forall \mu(x_i) \in [\underline{\mu}_{\tilde{A}}(x_i), \bar{\mu}_{\tilde{A}}(x_i)]$$

c_l and c_r are computed by the KM [3] or EKM [26] Algorithms. The more uncertainty in \tilde{A} (i.e., the more area in its

FOU), the wider the centroid. The *average centroid* (center of centroid) of \tilde{A} is defined as

$$c_{\tilde{A}} = (c_l + c_r)/2. \quad \square \quad (1)$$

II. APPLICATION-INDEPENDENT CHALLENGES AND HOW THEY WERE OVERCOME

To operate the Per-C shown in Fig. 1, one needs to be able to construct the encoder, the CWW engine and the decoder, all of which pose some application-independent challenges. Next we will explain these challenges and how they were overcome.

A. Encoder

Our first **challenge** (all challenges are summarized in Table VI) in implementing the Per-C was how to transform words into IT2 FSs, i.e., the encoding problem. Our **solution** requires: (1) a continuous scale for each variable of interest, and (2) a vocabulary of words that covers the entire scale. Our methods are described for the continuous scale numbered 0–10. One begins by establishing a vocabulary of application-dependent words that is large enough so a person will feel linguistically comfortable interacting with the Per-C. This vocabulary must include subsets of words that feel, to each subject, like they will collectively cover the scale 0–10. The collection of words, \tilde{W}_i , in the vocabulary and their IT2 FS models, $FOU(\tilde{W}_i)$, constitutes a codebook for an application (\mathcal{A}), that is, Codebook (\mathcal{A}) = $\{(\tilde{W}_i, FOU(\tilde{W}_i)), i = 1, \dots, N_{\mathcal{A}}\}$.

We then randomize the words in the vocabulary and survey a group of subjects to provide end-point data for the words on the scale. The subjects are asked the following question: *On a scale of 0-10, what are the end-points of an interval that you associate with the word ___?* Once enough data intervals (e.g., 30) have been obtained, they can be processed by the Interval Approach (IA) ([6]; see also Box 3) to obtain an IT2 FS model for each word.

B. CWW Engine

Next we consider how to construct the CWW engine, which maps IT2 FSs into IT2 FSs. There are different kinds of CWW engines, e.g.,

- 1) The *novel weighted average* (NWA) [17]. Aggregation of numerical subcriteria (data, features, decisions, recommendations, judgments, scores, etc.) obtained by using a weighted average of those numbers is quite common and widely used. In many situations, however, providing a single number for either the subcriteria or weights is problematic (there could be uncertainties about them), and it is more meaningful to provide uniformly-weighted intervals, non-uniformly-weighted intervals (T1 FSs), or words (IT2 FSs), or a mixture of all these, for them. The **challenge** was how to aggregate this disparate information. Our **solution** was to use the NWA, a weighted average in which at least one subcriterion or weight is not a single real number, but is instead an interval, T1 FS, or an IT2 FS. NWAs include the interval weighted average (IWA), fuzzy weighted average (FWA) [5], and linguistic weighted

average (LWA) [23], [24]. More details about the NWAs, especially the LWA, are given in Box 4.

- 2) *Perceptual reasoning (PR)* [15], [17], [27]. One of the most popular CWW engines uses if-then rules. The use of if-then rules in a Per-C is quite different from their use in most engineering applications of rule-based systems – fuzzy logic systems (FLSs) – because in a FLS the output almost always is a number, whereas the output of the Per-C is a recommendation. For CWW, our **challenge** was how to make the output FOU of the if-then rule-based CWW engine resemble the three kinds of FOUs in a CWW codebook. This is so that the decoder can do its job properly (map an FOU into a word in a codebook), and agrees with the adage, “not only do words mean different things to different people, but they must also mean similar things to different people,” or else people would not be able to communicate with each other. Our **solution** was PR, which consists of two steps: 1) A firing quantity is computed for each rule by computing a scalar Jaccard similarity measure [17], [25] between each input word and its corresponding antecedent word, and, if a rule has p antecedents, then taking the minimum of the p Jaccard similarity measures; and, 2) The IT2 FS consequents of the fired rules are combined using a NWA in which the “weights” are the firing quantities and the “subcriteria” are the IT2 FS consequents. The result of PR is a convex and normal FOU, which does indeed resemble the three kinds of FOUs in a CWW codebook.

C. Decoder

The **challenge** in decoding was how to map the output of the CWW engine into a recommendation. Our **solution** consisted of three kinds of decoders according to three forms of recommendations [17]:

- 1) *Word*. This is the most typical case, for which a similarity measure that compares the similarity between two FOUs is used. Obviously, if two FOUs have the same shape and are located very close to each other, they should be linguistically similar; or, if they have different shapes and are located close to each other, they should not be linguistically similar; or, if they have the same or different shapes but are not located close to each other they should also not be linguistically similar. We have found that the Jaccard similarity measure [25] provides a crisp numerical similarity measure that agrees with all three of the previous statements.
- 2) *Rank*. In some decision-making situations, several strategies/candidates are compared at the same time to find the best one(s). Ranking methods are needed to do this. We have used a very simple ranking method that is based on the average centroid of an IT2 FS in (1).
- 3) *Class*. In some decision making applications, the output of the CWW engine has to be mapped into a class. Classifiers are needed to do this. The classification literature is huge. Our classifiers are based on subsethood [17], which defines the degree of containment of one set

in another. The subsethood between two IT2 FSs may either be an interval of numbers or a single number. We prefer to use a single subsethood number for our classifiers.

For details of ranking, similarity and subsethood measures see Chapter 4 of [17].

Box 3: Interval Approach (IA)

The IA consists of two parts, a data part and a FS part. In the data part, data intervals that have been collected from a group of subjects are preprocessed, after which data statistics are computed for the surviving intervals. In the FS part, FS uncertainty measures are established for a pre-specified triangle T1 MF (always beginning with the assumption that the FOU is an interior FOU, and, if need be, later switching to a shoulder FOU). Then the parameters of the triangle T1 MF are determined using the data statistics, and the derived T1 MFs are aggregated to form an FOU for a word, and finally a mathematical model is obtained for the FOU.

Only three FOU shapes can be obtained from the IA: interior, left shoulder, and right shoulder, as shown in Fig. 3. A word that is modeled by an interior FOU has an UMF that is a trapezoid and a LMF that is a triangle, but, in general, neither the trapezoid nor the triangle are symmetrical. A word that is modeled as a left- or right-shoulder FOU has trapezoidal upper and lower MFs; however, the legs of the respective two trapezoids are not necessarily parallel. One of the strong points of the IA is that subject data establish which FOU is used to model a word, that is, the FOU is not chosen ahead of time – the data speaks!

An enhanced IA is also now available [28].

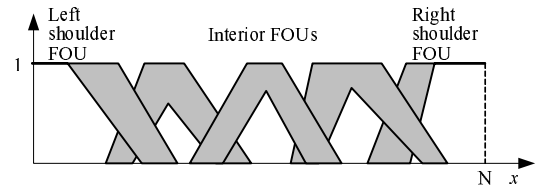


Fig. 3. Left-shoulder, right-shoulder and interior FOUs, all of whose LMFs and UMFs are piecewise linear [6], [17].

Box 4: Novel Weighted Average (NWA)

Because there can be four possible models (numbers, intervals, T1 FSs, and words modeled by IT2 FSs) for subcriteria or weights, there can be 16 different weighted averages. When at least one subcriterion or weight is modeled as an interval, and all other subcriteria or weights are modeled by no more than such a model, the resulting weighted average is called an IWA, denoted Y_{IWA} . On the other hand, when at least one subcriterion or weight is modeled as a T1 FS, and all other subcriteria or weights are modeled by no more than such a model, the resulting weighted average is called a FWA, denoted Y_{FWA} . And, finally, when at least one subcriterion or weight is modeled as an IT2 FS, the resulting weighted average is called a LWA. The IWA and FWA are special cases of the LWA; hence, here our focus is only on the latter.

The following is a very useful *expressive* way to summarize the LWA:

$$\tilde{Y}_{LWA} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{X}_i \tilde{W}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{W}_i}$$

where \tilde{X}_i , the sub-criteria, and \tilde{W}_i , the weights, are words modeled by IT2 FSs. \tilde{Y}_{LWA} is also an IT2 FS. This is called an expressive way to summarize the LWA rather than a computational way to summarize the LWA, because the LWA is not computed by multiplying, adding, and dividing IT2 FSs. It is more complicated than that. It has been shown [17], [23], [24] that the UMF of \tilde{Y}_{LWA} is a FWA [5] of the UMFs of \tilde{X}_i and \tilde{W}_i , and the LMF of \tilde{Y}_{LWA} is a FWA of the LMFs of \tilde{X}_i and \tilde{W}_i . The LWA and FWA are computed using alpha-cuts and the details of how to do this are found in [17], [23], [24].

III. APPLICATION-DEPENDENT CHALLENGES AND HOW THEY WERE OVERCOME

When the methodology of perceptual computing was applied to actual applications, challenges occurred that had to be overcome. In this section we describe some applications, the challenges encountered and how they were overcome.

A. Investment Judgment Advisor (IJA)

The following investment decision application is modified from Tong and Bonissone's example [21]:

A private citizen has a moderately large amount of capital that he wishes to invest to his best advantage. He has selected five possible investment areas $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5\}$ and has four investment criteria $\{c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4\}$ by which to judge them. These are:

- a_1 -the commodity market, a_2 -the stock market, a_3 -gold, a_4 -real estate, and a_5 -long-term bonds;
- c_1 -the risk of losing the capital sum, c_2 -the vulnerability of the capital sum to modification by inflation, c_3 -the amount of interest [profit] received, and c_4 -the cash realizability of the capital sum [liquidity].

The investor's goal is to decide which investments he should partake in because he does not want to invest in all of them. In order to arrive at his decisions, he must first rate each of the five alternative investment areas for each of the four criteria and assign weights to them. He fills in Table I by answering the following questions:

- *To me, the risk of losing my capital in investment alternative a_j seems to be _____?*
- *To me, the vulnerability of investment alternative a_j to inflation seems to be _____?*
- *To me, the amount of profit that I would receive from investment alternative a_j seems to be _____?*
- *To me, the liquidity of investment alternative a_j seems to be _____?*

He also fills in Table II by answering the following questions:

- *The importance that I attach to the investment criterion c_j is _____?*

His ratings and weights use words and therefore are linguistic. The problem facing the individual investor is how to aggregate the linguistic information in Tables I and II so as to arrive at his preferential ranking of the five investments.

1) *Encoder for the IJA*: We will use the codebook for *liquidity* as an example. Initially, the following 11 words were chosen to rate *liquidity*:

Very bad, more or less bad, somewhat bad, bad, somewhat fair, fair, very fair, more or less good, somewhat good, good, very good

During the first four months of 2008 a word survey was conducted and data were collected from 40 adult (male and female) subjects. The IA was applied to the data collected to compute the FOU; however, we observed that when an individual was given the opportunity to choose a word from the full 11-word codebook and then changed the words to the ones either to the left or to the right of them, there was almost no change in the outputs of the IJA. The individuals who tested the IJA did not like this because they were expecting to see changes when they changed the words. This made the IJA not "user-friendly." This "human factor" was surprising to us because we have always advocated providing the individual who will interact with the Per-C a large vocabulary in order to make this interaction "user-friendly." So, the **challenge** was how to trim a too large codebook so that it is more user-friendly, i.e., how to provide an individual with vocabularies that contain *sufficiently dissimilar* words so that when a change is made from one word to another there is a noticeable change in the output of the IJA.

According to several researchers [18], [20], a codebook for making preference judgments should have 5-9 words. In order to accomplish this, the similarity matrix for the 11 words were computed using the Jaccard similarity measure, as shown in Table III. Our **solution** was to start from the left column of the similarity matrix and to remove all of the words to which it is similar to degree > 0.6 . Beginning with *Very Bad*, observe that it is not similar to any word with degree > 0.6 ; so, it is kept in the user-friendly codebook and we move to the next word *Bad*. Observe that it is similar to *More or Less Bad* to degree 0.78; hence, *More or Less Bad* is eliminated. There are no other words in the row for *Bad* for which the similarity is > 0.6 ; hence, no other words are eliminated, *Bad* is kept in the user-friendly codebook, and we move next to the word *Somewhat Bad*. Focusing on the elements on the right-hand side of the diagonal element in the row for *Somewhat Bad*, observe that *Somewhat Bad* is not similar to any other words to degree > 0.6 ; hence, no words are eliminated, *Somewhat Bad* is kept in the user-friendly codebook, and we move next to the word *Fair*. Proceeding in this way through the rest of the similarity matrix, the following user-friendly seven-word codebook was obtained:

Very bad, bad, somewhat bad, fair, somewhat good, good, very good

2) *CWW Engine for the IJA*: The IJA uses an LWA to aggregate the results for each of the rows in Table I. Observe that two of the investment criteria have a positive connotation—*amount of profit received* and *liquidity*—and two have a negative connotation—*risk of losing capital* and *vulnerability to inflation*. "Positive connotation" means that an investor generally thinks positively about *amount of profit received* and *liquidity* (i.e., the more the better) whereas "negative connotation"

TABLE I
INVESTMENT ALTERNATIVES/INVESTMENT CRITERIA ARRAY. EXAMPLE OF THE LINGUISTIC RATINGS OF INVESTMENT ALTERNATIVES FOR INVESTMENT CRITERIA, PROVIDED BY AN INDIVIDUAL

	Investment Criteria			
	(Risk of losing capital)	(vulnerability to inflation)	(Amount of profit received)	(Liquidity)
a_1 (commodities)	High	More or less high	Very high	Fair
a_2 (stocks)	More or less high	Fair	More or less high	More or less good
a_3 (gold)	Low	Low	Fair	Good
a_4 (real estate)	Low	Very low	Fair	Bad
a_5 (long-term bonds)	Very low	High	More or less low	Very good

TABLE II
EXAMPLE OF THE LINGUISTIC WEIGHTS FOR THE INVESTMENT CRITERIA, PROVIDED BY AN INDIVIDUAL

c_1	c_2	c_3	c_4
(Risk of losing capital)	(Vulnerability to inflation)	(Amount of profit received)	(Liquidity)
Very important	More or less important	Very important	Moderately unimportant

TABLE III

SIMILARITY MATRIX FOR THE 11-WORD VOCABULARY. THE WORDS THAT ARE SIMILAR TO DEGREE > 0.6 ARE UNDERLINED, STARTING FROM THE LEFT-MOST WORD VB

Word	VB	B	MLB	SB	F	SF	VF	SG	MLG	G	VG
Very bad (VB)	1	.29	.27	.17	.04	.03	.03	0	0	0	0
Bad (B)	.29	1	<u>.78</u>	.56	.15	.14	.14	.03	.01	.01	0
More or Less Bad (MLB)	.27	.78	1	.54	.11	.11	.11	.01	0	0	0
Somewhat Bad (SB)	.17	.56	.54	1	.23	.22	.22	.06	.03	.02	0
Fair (F)	.04	.15	.11	.23	1	<u>.88</u>	<u>.87</u>	.49	.35	.30	.1
Somewhat Fair (SF)	.03	.14	.11	.22	.88	1	.99	.58	.43	.38	0
Very Fair (VF)	.03	.14	.11	.22	.87	.99	1	.59	.44	.38	0
Somewhat Good (SG)	0	.03	.01	.06	.49	.58	.59	1	<u>.64</u>	.53	.28
More or Less Good (MLG)	0	.01	0	.03	.35	.43	.44	.64	1	.81	.4
Good (G)	0	.01	0	.02	.30	.38	.38	.53	.81	1	.5
Very Good (VG)	0	0	0	0	.15	.21	.21	.28	.49	.54	1

means that an investor generally thinks negatively about *risk of losing capital* and *vulnerability to inflation* (i.e., the less the better). So, the **challenge** was how to handle sub-criteria which have negative connotations and whose inputs are words?

Our **solution** was that a small-sounding word for them should be replaced by a large-sounding word, and a large-sounding word for them should be replaced by a small-sounding word. This kind of word replacement is essentially the well-known idea of an *antonym* [4]. In this article the most basic antonym definition is used [4], i.e.,

$$\mu_{10-A}(x) = \mu_A(10 - x), \quad \forall x \quad (2)$$

where $10 - A$ is the antonym of the T1 FS A , and 10 is the right end of the domain of all FSs used for the application. The definition in (2) can easily be extended to IT2 FSs, i.e.,

$$\mu_{10-\tilde{A}}(x) = \mu_{\tilde{A}}(10 - x), \quad \forall x \quad (3)$$

where $10 - \tilde{A}$ is the antonym of the IT2 FS \tilde{A} . Because an IT2 FS is completely characterized by its LMF and UMF, each of which is a T1 FS, $\mu_{10-\tilde{A}}$ in (3) is obtained by applying (2) to both $LMF(\tilde{A})$ and $UMF(\tilde{A})$.

3) *Decoder for the IJA*: The IJA decoder provides a linguistic ranking (first, second, ..., fifth) using an average centroid based ranking method. It also provides similarities between those alternatives. However, the investor may also want to know the uncertainties and risks associated with the ranking.

So, the **challenge** was how to obtain a ranking band and a risk band.

In our **solution**, the interval centroid was used as a *ranking band* for each alternative. The amount of overlap of the ranking bands is another indicator of how similar the investment alternatives are. The antonym of the ranking band was used to provide a *risk band* (of course, other definitions are possible), i.e. high rank implies low risk, and vice-versa; hence,

$$\begin{aligned} risk\ band(a_i) &= 10 - Centroid(\tilde{Y}_{LWA(a_i)}) \\ &= [10 - c_r(\tilde{Y}_{LWA(a_i)}), 10 - c_l(\tilde{Y}_{LWA(a_i)})] \end{aligned}$$

Frequently, an investor is asked to provide a numerical value of the risk that he/she associates with an investment alternative, so that optimal allocations can be determined to minimize risk while achieving a prescribed level of profit (return). Such numerical values of risk are usually quite uncertain and may therefore be un-reliable. One of the very interesting by-products of the IJA is a numerical risk band; hence, by using the IJA it should no longer be necessary to ask an investor for a numerical value of the risk that he/she associates with an investment alternative. Additionally, optimal allocations can now be performed using risk bands instead of risk values, so that the uncertainties about the risk bands flow through the calculations of the optimal allocations.

B. Social Judgment Advisor (SJA)

According to Mendel et al. [14]:

In everyday social interaction, each of us is called upon to make judgments about the meaning of another's behavior. Such judgments are far from trivial, since they often affect the nature and direction of the subsequent social interaction and communications. But, how do we make this judgment? Although a variety of factors may enter into our decision, behavior is apt to play a critical role in assessing the level of the variable of interest.

Some examples of behavior are kindness, generosity, flirtation, jealousy, harassment, vindictiveness, morality, etc. In this subsection we focus on flirtation, and the result is called a *social judgment advisor* (SJA).

1) *Encoder*: Suppose the only¹ indicator of importance of flirtation is *touching*. The following *user friendly 10-word vocabulary* could be established for both touching and flirtation: *none to very little, very little, little, small amount, some, a moderate amount, a considerable amount, a large amount, very large and a maximum amount*. Surveyed subjects could be asked a question such as: “On a scale of zero to ten where would you locate the endpoints of an interval for this word?” These data are then mapped by means of the Encoder and the IA into an IT2 FS model for each word (Box 3).

2) *Rulebase Construction*: For the SJA the CWW engine uses IF-THEN rules. A small set of, e.g., five, rules could be established, using a subset of five of the 10 words, e.g., *none to very little* (NVL), *some* (S), *moderate amount* (MOA), *large amount* (LA), and *maximum amount* (MAA). One such rule might be: *IF touching is a moderate amount, THEN the level of flirtation is some*.

Another survey could be conducted in which subjects choose one of these five flirtation terms for each rule (i.e., for the rule’s consequent). Because all respondents do not agree on the choice of the consequent, this introduces uncertainties into this IF-THEN rule-based CWW engine. The top half of Table IV provides the data collected from 47 respondents to such a survey. Observe that there are bad responses defined below and outliers in the survey histograms. So the *challenge* was how to remove these bad data and outliers by data preprocessing when the data are words. Our *solution* consisted of three steps: 1) bad data processing, 2) outlier processing, and, 3) tolerance limit processing. Rule 2 in the top half of Table IV is used below as an example to illustrate the details of these three steps.

TABLE IV
HISTOGRAM OF SURVEY RESPONSES FOR SINGLE-ANTECEDENT RULES BETWEEN INDICATOR $x = \text{TOUCHING LEVEL}$ AND CONSEQUENT $y = \text{FLIRTTATION LEVEL}$. ENTRIES DENOTE THE NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS OUT OF 47 THAT CHOSE THE CONSEQUENT, (ADAPTED FROM J. M. MENDEL [10] ©2001, PRENTICE-HALL). THE TOP HALF SHOWS THE HISTOGRAMS BEFORE PRE-PROCESSING, AND THE BOTTOM HALF SHOWS THE HISTOGRAMS AFTER PRE-PROCESSING

	Touching	Flirtation				
		NVL	S	MOA	LA	MAA
Before data preprocessing	1. NVL	42	3	2	0	0
	2. S	33	12	0	2	0
	3. MOA	12	16	15	3	1
	4. LA	3	6	11	25	2
	5. MAA	3	6	8	22	8
After data preprocessing	1. NVL	42	0	0	0	0
	2. S	33	12	0	0	0
	3. MOA	12	16	15	3	0
	4. LA	0	6	11	25	2
	5. MAA	0	6	8	22	8

- *Bad Data Processing*: This removes gaps (a zero between two non-zero values) in a group of subject’s responses. In Table IV, for the question “*IF there is some touching, THEN there is _____ flirtation,*” three different consequents were obtained: *none to very little,*

some, and *large*. A gap exists between *some* and *large amount*. Let $G_1 = \{\text{none to very little, some}\}$ and $G_2 = \{\text{large amount}\}$. Because G_1 has considerably more responses than G_2 , it is passed to the next step of data pre-processing and G_2 is discarded.

- *Outlier processing*: Outlier processing uses a Box and Whisker test [22]. Outliers are points that are unusually too large or too small. A Box and Whisker test is usually stated in terms of first and third quartiles and an interquartile range. The first and third quartiles, $Q(0.25)$ and $Q(0.75)$, contain 25% and 75% of the data, respectively. The inter-quartile range, IQR , is the difference between the third and first quartiles; hence, IQR contains 50% of the data between the first and third quartiles. Any datum that is more than $1.5 IQR$ above the third quartile or more than $1.5 IQR$ below the first quartile is considered an outlier [22]; however, rule consequents are words modeled by IT2 FSs, thus the Box and Whisker test cannot be directly applied to them. So, the *challenge* is how to perform the Box and Whisker test on IT2 FSs. In our *solution*, the Box and Whisker test is applied to the *set of centers of centroids* formed by the centers of centroids of the rule consequents. Focusing again on Rule 2, the centers of centroids of the consequent IT2 FSs NVL, S, MOA, LA and MAA are first computed, and are 0.48, 4.50, 4.95, 8.13 and 9.68, respectively. Then the set of centers of centroids is

$$\underbrace{\{0.48, \dots, 0.48\}}_{33}, \underbrace{\{4.50, \dots, 4.50\}}_{12} \quad (4)$$

where each center of centroid is repeated a certain number of times according to the number of respondents after bad data processing. The Box and Whisker test is then applied to this crisp set, where $Q(0.25) = 0.48$, $Q(0.75) = 4.50$, and $1.5 IQR = 6.03$. For Rule 2, no data are removed in this step. On the other hand, for Rule 1, the three responses to *some* and the two responses to *moderate amount* are removed.

- *Tolerance limit processing*: Let m and σ be the mean and standard deviation of the remaining histogram data after outlier processing. If a datum lies in the tolerance interval $[m - k\sigma, m + k\sigma]$, then it is accepted; otherwise, it is rejected [22]. k is determined such that one is 95% confident that the given limits contain at least 95% of the available data. For Rule 2, tolerance limit processing is performed on the *set of centers of centroids* in (4), for which $m = 1.55$, $\sigma = 1.80$ and $k = 2.41$. No word is removed for this particular example; so, two consequents, *none to very little* and *some*, are accepted for this rule.

The final pre-processed responses for the histograms in the top half of Table IV are given in its bottom half. Observe that most responses have been preserved; however, most rule consequents are still histograms instead of a single word. The next *challenge* was how to use a histogram of consequent words in rulebase construction. Our *solution* was to preserve the distributions of the responses for each rule by using a NWA to obtain the rule consequents, as illustrated by the following:

Example: Observe from the bottom half of Table IV

¹Multi-antecedent SJAs are discussed in Section III-B5 and also Chapter 8 of [17].

that when the antecedent is MOA there are four valid consequents, so that the following four rules will be fired:

R_1^3 : IF touching is MOA, THEN flirtation is NVL.

R_2^3 : IF touching is MOA, THEN flirtation is S.

R_3^3 : IF touching is MOA, THEN flirtation is MOA.

R_4^3 : IF touching is MOA, THEN flirtation is LA.

These four rules should not be considered of equal importance because they have been selected by different numbers of respondents. An intuitive way to handle this is to assign weights to the four rules, where the weights are proportional to the number of responses, e.g., the weight for R_1^3 is 12/46, and the weight for R_2^3 is 16/46. The aggregated consequent \tilde{Y}^3 is

$$\tilde{Y}^3 = \frac{12NVL + 16S + 15MOA + 3LA}{12 + 16 + 15 + 3}$$

\tilde{Y}^3 is computed by the NWA. The result is shown in Fig. 4. Observe that the shape of \tilde{Y}^3 looks like the shape of MOA; however, it is shifted somewhat leftwards along the flirtation-level axis, so \tilde{Y}^3 is not the same as MOA.

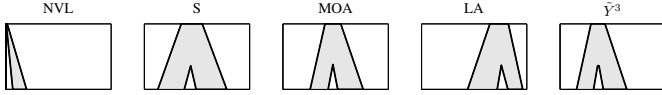


Fig. 4. \tilde{Y}^3 obtained by aggregating the consequents of $R_1^3 - R_4^3$.

3) *CWW Engine and Decoder*: Once the rulebase is constructed, the next step is to compute the output for a new input word. We use Perceptual Reasoning (see Section II-B).

Consider single-antecedent rules of the form

$$R^i : \text{If } x \text{ is } \tilde{F}^i, \text{ Then } y \text{ is } \tilde{Y}^i \quad i = 1, \dots, N$$

where \tilde{F}^i and \tilde{Y}^i are words modeled by IT2 FSs. In PR, the Jaccard similarity measure is used to compute the firing levels of the rules, f^i , $i = 1, \dots, N$. Then, the output FOU of the SJA is computed as

$$\tilde{Y}_C = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N f^i \tilde{Y}^i}{\sum_{i=1}^N f^i}$$

The subscript C in \tilde{Y}_C stands for *consensus* because \tilde{Y}_C is obtained by aggregating the survey results from a population of people, and the resulting SJA is called a *Consensus Flirtation Advisor*. \tilde{Y}_C is then mapped to the most similar word in the 10-word codebook using the Jaccard similarity measure.

4) *How to Use the Flirtation Advisor*: A flirtation adviser could be used to train a person to better understand the relationship between touching and flirtation, so that they reach correct conclusions about such a social situation. Their perception of flirtation for each of the 10 words for touching leads to their individual flirtation level (Fig. 5) for each level of touching, and their individual flirtation level is then compared with the corresponding consensus flirtation level. If there is good agreement between the consensus and individual's flirtation level, then the individual is given positive feedback

about this; otherwise, he or she is given advice on how to re-interpret the level of flirtation for the specific level of touching. It is not necessary that there be exact agreement between the consensus and individual's flirtation levels for the individual to be given positive feedback, because the consensus and individual's flirtation levels may be similar enough. The Jaccard similarity measure can be used to quantify what is meant by "similar enough."

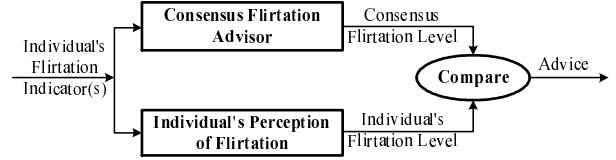


Fig. 5. One way to use the SJA for a social judgment [17].

5) *On Multiple Indicators*: Generally, people have difficulties in answering questions with more than two antecedents. So, in the survey each rule consists of only one or two antecedents; however, in practice an individual may observe one indicator or more than one indicators. The **challenge** was how to deduce the output for multiple antecedents using rulebases consisting of only one or two antecedent rules.

For the sake of this discussion, assume there are four indicators of flirtation, *touching*, *eye contact*, *acting witty* and *priming*. Ten SJAs can be created, where SJA_1 - SJA_4 are single-antecedent SJAs, and SJA_5 - SJA_{10} are two-antecedent SJAs (touching & eye contact, touching & acting witty, touching & priming, eye contact & acting witty, eye contact & priming, acting witty & priming). An example rule for SJA_{10} is: IF *acting witty* is _____ and *priming* is _____, THEN *flirtation* is _____.

Our **solution** was:

- When only one indicator is observed, only one single-antecedent SJA from SJA_1 - SJA_4 is activated.
- When only two indicators are observed, only one two-antecedent SJA from SJA_5 - SJA_{10} is activated.
- When more than two indicators are observed, the output is computed by aggregating the outputs of the activated two-antecedent SJAs². The final output is some kind of aggregation of the results from these SJAs. There are different aggregation operators, e.g., mean, linguistic weighted average, maximum, etc. An intuitive approach is to survey the subjects about the relative importance of the four indicators and hence to determine the linguistic relative importance of SJA_5 - SJA_{10} . These relative importance words can then be used as the weights for SJA_5 - SJA_{10} , and the final flirtation level can then be computed by a linguistic weighted average.

A diagram of the proposed SJA architecture for different numbers of indicators is shown in Fig. 6.

Finally, note that a missing observation is not the same as an observation of zero value; hence, even if it was possible

²Some of the four single-antecedent SJAs, SJA_1 - SJA_4 , are also fired; however, they are not used because they do not fit the inputs as well as two-antecedent SJAs, since the latter account for the correlation between two antecedents, whereas the former do not.

to create four antecedent rules, none of those rules could be activated if one or more of the indicators had a missing observation. It is therefore very important to have sub-advisors that will be activated when only one or two of these indicators are occurring.

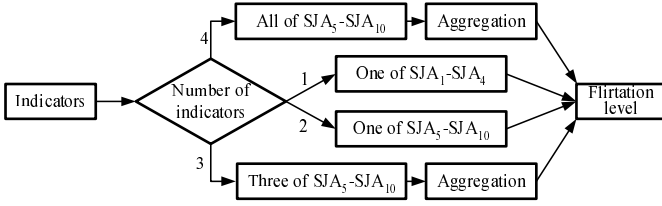


Fig. 6. An SJA architecture for one-to-four indicators [17].

C. Procurement Judgment Advisor (PJA)

This subsection is directed at the following hierarchical multi-criteria missile evaluation problem [19]:

A contractor has to decide which of three companies is going to get the final mass production contract for a missile. The contractor uses five criteria to base the decision, namely: tactics, technology, maintenance, economy and advancement. Each of these criteria has some associated technical sub-criteria (see Table V). The contractor creates a performance evaluation table, Table V, in order to assist in choosing the winning system. The sub-criteria evaluations range from numbers to words, and the weights for the sub-criteria and criteria are T1 fuzzy numbers, e.g., around seven, around five, etc. Somehow the contractor has to aggregate this disparate information to determine the winning company.

The missile evaluation problem is summarized in Fig. 7, a figure that is adopted from [19] where it first appeared. It is very clear from this figure that this is a multi-criteria and two-level decision making problem. At the first level each of the three systems (A, B and C) is evaluated for its performance on five criteria: tactics, technology, maintenance, economy and advancement. The second level in this hierarchical decision making problem involves a weighted aggregation of the five criteria for each of the three systems.

Next we introduce our Per-C approach for the PJA.

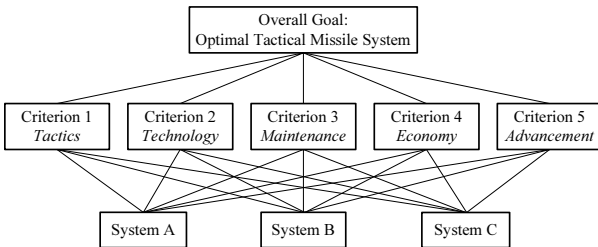


Fig. 7. Structure of evaluating competing tactical missile systems from three companies [19].

1) *Encoder*: In this application, mixed data are used — crisp numbers, T1 fuzzy numbers and words. The codebook contains the crisp numbers, the T1 fuzzy numbers with their associated T1 FS models, and the words and their IT2 FS models.

TABLE V
PERFORMANCE EVALUATION TABLE: CRITERIA WITH THEIR WEIGHTS, SUB-CRITERIA WITH THEIR WEIGHTS AND SUB-CRITERIA PERFORMANCE VALUATION DATA FOR THE THREE SYSTEMS [17]

Item	Weight (\tilde{W}_i)	System A (\tilde{X}_{Ai})	System B B (\tilde{X}_{Bi})	System C (\tilde{X}_{Ci})
Criterion 1: Tactics	9			
1. Effective range (km)	$\tilde{7}$	43	36	38
2. Flight height (m)	$\tilde{1}$	25	20	23
3. Flight velocity (M. No)	$\tilde{9}$	0.72	0.80	0.75
4. Reliability (%)	$\tilde{9}$	80	83	76
5. Firing accuracy (%)	$\tilde{9}$	67	70	63
6. Destruction rate (%)	$\tilde{7}$	84	88	86
7. Kill radius (m)	$\tilde{6}$	15	12	18
Criterion 2: Technology	3			
8. Missile scale (cm)				
($1 \times d$ -span)	$\tilde{4}$	521×35-135	381×34-105	445×35-120
9. Reaction time (min)	$\tilde{9}$	1.2	1.5	1.3
10. Fire rate (round/min)	$\tilde{9}$	0.6	0.6	0.7
11. Anti-jam (%)	$\tilde{8}$	68	75	70
12. Combat capability	$\tilde{9}$	Very Good	Good	Good
Criterion 3: Maintenance	1			
13. Operation condition				
requirement	$\tilde{5}$	High	Low	Low
14. Safety	$\tilde{6}$	Very Good	Good	Good
15. Defilade	$\tilde{2}$	Good	Very Good	Good
16. Simplicity	$\tilde{3}$	Good	Good	Good
17. Assembly	$\tilde{3}$	Good	Good	Poor
Criterion 4: Economy	5			
18. System cost (10,000)	$\tilde{8}$	800	755	785
19. System life (years)	$\tilde{8}$	7	7	5
20. Material limitation	$\tilde{5}$	High	Low	Low
Criterion 5: Advancement	7			
21. Modularization	$\tilde{5}$	Average	Good	Average
22. Mobility	$\tilde{7}$	Poor	Very Good	Good
23. Standardization	$\tilde{3}$	Good	Good	Very Good

Our first *challenge* was how to ensure NWAs are not unduly-influenced by large numbers. The *solution* was to map all of the Table V numbers into $[0, 10]$. Let x_1 , x_2 and x_3 denote the raw numbers for Systems A, B and C, respectively. For the 13 sub-criteria whose inputs are numbers, those raw numbers were transformed into:

$$x_i \rightarrow x'_i = \frac{10x_i}{\max(x_1, x_2, x_3)}. \quad (5)$$

Examining Table V, observe that the words used for the remaining 10 sub-criteria are: $\{low, high\}$ and $\{poor, average, good, very good\}$. The IA can be used to map their survey data into IT2 FSs.

As in the IJA, where it was first observed that some sub-criteria may have a positive connotation and others may have a negative connotation, a similar situation occurs here. Observe from Table V that the following six sub-criteria have a negative connotation:

- *Flight height*: The lower the flight height the better, because it is then more difficult for a missile to be detected by radar.
- *Missile scale*: A smaller missile is harder to detect by radar.
- *Reaction time*: A missile with shorter reaction time can respond more quickly.
- *System cost*: The cheaper the better.

- *Operation condition requirement*: A missile with lower operation condition requirement can be deployed more easily and widely.
- *Material limitation*: A missile with lower material limitation can be produced more easily, especially during wartime.

The inputs to the last two sub-criteria with negative connotations are words modeled by IT2 FSs, and hence their *antonyms* can be used in the aggregation, similar to the case in the IJA. The **challenge** was how to handle the first four of the six sub-criteria with negative connotations, whose inputs are numbers. In our **solution**, a preprocessing step was used to convert a large x'_i into a small number x_i^* and a small x'_i into a large number x_i^* :

$$x_i \rightarrow x_i^* = 1/x_i. \quad (6)$$

and then (5) was applied to x_i^* :

$$x_i^* \rightarrow x'_i = \frac{10x_i^*}{\max(x_1^*, x_2^*, x_3^*)}.$$

2) *CWW Engine*: Observe from Table V that the inputs to the sub-criteria consists of numbers, T1 FSs and words modeled by IT2 FSs, and the weights are T1 FSs. The NWA's are used to aggregate such disparate information. Each major criterion has an NWA computed for it. Consider System A as an example. Examining Table V, observe that the NWA for *Tactics* (Y_{A1}) is a FWA (because the weights are T1 FSs and the sub-criteria evaluations are numbers), whereas the NWA's for *Technology* (\tilde{Y}_{A2}), *Maintenance* (\tilde{Y}_{A3}), *Economy* (\tilde{Y}_{A4}) and *Advancement* (\tilde{Y}_{A5}) are LWA's (because at least one sub-criterion evaluation is a word modeled by an IT2 FS), e.g.,

$$Y_{A1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^7 X_{Ai} W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^7 W_i} \quad (7)$$

$$\tilde{Y}_{A2} = \frac{\sum_{i=8}^{12} \tilde{X}_{Ai} \tilde{W}_i}{\sum_{i=8}^{12} \tilde{W}_i} \quad (8)$$

Equations similar to (8) can be written for \tilde{Y}_{A3} , \tilde{Y}_{A4} and \tilde{Y}_{A5} . These six NWA's are then aggregated by another NWA to obtain the overall performance of System A, \tilde{Y}_A , as follows:

$$\tilde{Y}_A = \frac{\tilde{9}\tilde{Y}_{A1} + \tilde{3}\tilde{Y}_{A2} + \tilde{1}\tilde{Y}_{A3} + \tilde{5}\tilde{Y}_{A4} + \tilde{7}\tilde{Y}_{A5}}{\tilde{9} + \tilde{3} + \tilde{1} + \tilde{5} + \tilde{7}}$$

As a reminder to the reader, when $i = \{2, 8, 9, 18\}$, (6) must be used, and when $i = \{13, 20\}$, the antonyms of the corresponding word-IT2 FSs must be used. For all other values of i the numbers or word-IT2 FSs are used directly.

3) *Decoder*: Similar to the IJA, the centroid based ranking method is applied to the final aggregation results of the three systems to identify the winner. To assess the uncertainties associated with the ranking, ranking bands of the three systems can also be computed.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Perceptual computing is a *methodology* of CWW for assisting people in making subjective judgments. The Perceptual Computer–Per-C—is our instantiation of perceptual computing;

it consists of three components—encoder, decoder and CWW engine. Stepping back from the details for designing each of these components, the *methodology of perceptual computing* is:

- 1) Focus on an application (\mathcal{A}).
- 2) Establish a vocabulary (or vocabularies) for \mathcal{A} .
- 3) Collect interval end-point data from a group of subjects (representative of the subjects who will use the Per-C) for all of the words in the vocabulary.
- 4) Map the collected word data into word-FOUs by using the Interval Approach (Box 3). The result of doing this is the *codebook* (or codebooks) for \mathcal{A} , and completes the design of the encoder of the Per-C.
- 5) Choose an appropriate CWW engine for \mathcal{A} ; it maps IT2 FSs into one or more IT2 FS.
- 6) If an existing CWW engine is available for \mathcal{A} , then use its available mathematics to compute its output(s) (Section II-B). Otherwise, develop such mathematics for your new kind of CWW engine. Your new CWW engine should be constrained so that its output(s) resemble the FOU's in the codebook(s) for \mathcal{A} .
- 7) Map the IT2 FS outputs from the CWW engine into a recommendation at the output of the decoder. If the recommendation is a word, rank or class, then use existing mathematics to accomplish this mapping (Section II-C). Otherwise, develop such mathematics for your new kind of decoder.

The constraint in Step 6, that the output FOU of the CWW engine should resemble the FOU's in the codebook(s) for \mathcal{A} , is the major difference between perceptual computing and function approximation applications of FSs and systems.

When the methodology of perceptual computing was applied to actual applications, challenges occurred that had to be overcome. In this article we have described three applications, the challenges encountered and how they were overcome. A summary of all the challenges and their occurrences in the applications is shown in Table VI. More applications of Per-C have also been reported in the literature (see [1], [2], [16] and Chapter 10 of [17]). For example, in [1] the per-C was used to evaluate the marine invasion risk caused by recreational vessels and the LWA was used to aggregate expert opinions before they were used in PR; in [16] and Chapter 10 of [17] the Per-C was used as a journal publication judgment advisor and a submethod measure was used to map the final aggregated FOU (representing the overall quality of a paper) into three decision categories (accept, rewrite, or reject); and, in [2] the Per-C was applied to a location choice problem in which the LWA was used to obtain a consensus weight for each sub-criterion when each judge provided his/her own weight.

Matlab functions for implementing the Per-C can be downloaded from the authors' websites at <http://sipi.usc.edu/~mendel/> and http://www-scf.usc.edu/~dongruiw/files/Matlab_PerceptualComputing.rar.

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TABLE VI
CHALLENGES AND THEIR OCCURRENCES IN THE APPLICATIONS

Challenges	Applications		
	IJA	SJA	PJA
How to transform words into IT2 FSs in the Encoder? (Section II-A)	✓	✓	✓
How to aggregate disparate information (numbers, intervals, T1 FSs, words) in a weighted average? (Section II-B)	✓		✓
How to use if-then rules in a CWW Engine so that the output FOU resembles the codebook FOU's? (Section II-B)		✓	
How to map the output of the CWW engine into a recommendation? (Section II-C)	✓	✓	✓
How to trim a too large codebook so that it is more user-friendly? (Section III-A1)	✓		
How to handle sub-criteria which have negative connotations and whose inputs are words? (Section III-A2)	✓		✓
How to obtain a ranking band and a risk band? (Section III-A3)	✓		
How to remove bad data and outliers when responses are words and not numbers? (Section III-B2)		✓	
How to use a histogram of consequent words in rulebase construction? (Section III-B2)		✓	
How to perform the Box and Whisker test on IT2 FSs? (Section III-B2)		✓	
How to deduce the output for multiple antecedents using rulebases consisting of only one or two antecedent rules? (Section III-B5)		✓	
How to ensure NWAs are not unduly-influenced by large numbers? (Section III-C1)			✓
How to handle sub-criteria which have negative connotations and whose inputs are numbers? (Section III-C1)			✓

their book “Perceptual Computing: Aiding People in Making Subjective Judgments.”

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