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# Why Triangular Membership Functions Are So Efficient in F-Transform Applications: A Global Explanation to Supplement the Existing Local One

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**Abstract:** The main ideas of F-transform came from representing expert rules. It would be therefore reasonable to expect that the more accurately the membership functions describe human reasoning, the more efficient will be the corresponding F-transform formulas. We know that an adequate description of our reasoning corresponds to complicated membership functions – however, somewhat surprisingly, most efficient applications of F-transform use the simplest possible triangular membership functions. There exist some explanations for this phenomenon which are based on local behavior of the signal. In this paper, we supplement this local explanation by a global one: namely, we prove that triangular membership functions are the only one that provide the accurate description of appropriate global characteristics of the signal.

**Keywords:** F-transform; triangular membership function; optimal global characteristics

## 1. Formulation of the Problem

**F-transforms: a brief reminder.** In many application areas, it turned to be very efficient to transform the original signal  $x(t)$  into the values proportional to

$$x_i = \int A\left(\frac{t-t_i}{h}\right) \cdot x(t) dt,$$

where  $t_i = t_0 + i \cdot h$  for appropriate  $t_0$  and  $h > 0$ , and  $A(t)$  is a non-negative function:

- which is equal to 0 outside the interval  $[-1, 1]$ ,
- which, starting at  $t = -1$ , increases to 1 until it reaches  $t = 0$ ,
- which then decreases to 0, and
- for which

$$\sum_i A\left(\frac{t-t_i}{h}\right) = 1$$

for all  $t$ ; this last property is known as the *fuzzy partition property*.

This transformation is known as *F-transform*; see, e.g., [8,9,11–14].

This transform comes from the general fuzzy approach (see, e.g., [2,3,5,7,10,15]), namely, from the idea of describing imprecise (fuzzy) expert knowledge, of the type “if  $t$  is close to  $t_i$ , then  $x(t)$  is close to  $x(t_i)$ ”. From this viewpoint, the function  $A(t)$  is a membership function that corresponds to the word “close”.

**A somewhat unexpected empirical fact.** Intuitively, one would expect that the closer the function  $A(t)$  to how we actually think, the more efficient would be the results. Empirical studies show that

rather complex membership functions are needed to represent our reasoning; see, e.g., [10]. However, surprisingly, in many of these applications, very efficient results are obtained when we use a very simple triangular membership function  $A(t) = 1 - |t|$ . Why?

One possible “local” explanation – based on uncertainty – was proposed in [4]; however, not everyone was convinced, so this empirical fact still remains somewhat a mystery.

**What we do in this paper.** In this paper, we propose an alternative “global” explanation for this efficiency, an explanation based on the need to correctly reconstruct global characteristics of the signal.

## 2. Local Vs. Global Characteristics: Main Idea

**What we mean by local and global characteristics.** No measuring instrument can provide an instantaneous value of a physical quantity. No matter at what time  $t$  we perform our measurement, the measurement result depends not only on the value of the signal  $x(t)$  at this moment of time, but also on the values  $x(s)$  at nearby moments of time.

In some cases, we are interested in the local behavior of the signal. In this case, we try to measure values which are as close to  $x(t)$  as possible. F-transform values are an example of such a local analysis.

In other cases, we are interested in the global trend. In such cases, instead of concentrating on a short-term time interval, we deliberately measure the signal over a long period of time.

**Resulting idea.** To most adequately reconstruct the signal, we should be able to adequately reproduce both its local and its global characteristics. By definition, F-transform adequately represents the local characteristics, no matter what membership function  $A(t)$  we select. So, it is reasonable to select a membership function which most adequately represents global characteristics.

Let us describe this idea in precise terms.

## 3. Which Global Characteristics Should We Represent: Discussion

**Need for linearization.** Signals are usually weak. Thus, for any quantity  $q$  that depends on this signal  $x(t)$  – be it local or global – we should be able to ignore terms which are quadratic or higher order in terms of  $x(t)$  and thus retains only the linear terms in the corresponding dependence. As a result, we should only consider linear quantities, i.e., quantities of the type  $q = \int q(t) \cdot x(t) dt$ .

**Which linear quantities should we select?** Of course, when we perform F-transform, we lose some information about the signal. Indeed, on each time interval, we replace infinitely many values  $x(t)$  corresponding to infinitely many moments of time  $t$  from this interval, with finite many values of the corresponding F-transform. Thus, we cannot perfectly reconstruct all possible global characteristics  $q$  – since from the values of all these characteristics, e.g., of the integrals  $\int_{-\infty}^t x(s) ds$  – we would be able to uniquely reconstruct all the values  $x(t)$ .

Thus, we need to select the most appropriate global characteristics.

**How to define what is most appropriate?** In different situations, different global characteristics may be more appropriate. In this paper, instead of trying to list specific notions of appropriateness, we will consider all possible criteria of this type.

Interestingly, it turns out that all reasonable criteria of this type lead, in effect, to the same family of optimal global characteristics – and the only way to reconstruct these characteristics exactly is to use triangular membership functions.

Let us describe all this in precise terms.

## 4. Towards Precise Formulation of the Problem

**Towards describing what is more appropriate and what is less appropriate.** As we have mentioned, all global characteristics have the form  $q = \int q(t) \cdot x(t) dt$ . Thus, selecting a characteristic is equivalent to selecting the corresponding function  $q(t)$ .

68 This function  $q(t)$  may be discontinuous, as in the above example of a characteristic  $\int_{-\infty}^t x(s) ds$ .  
 69 However, at least it should be measurable (non-measurable functions cannot be defined without using  
 70 the Axiom of Choice, which means that they are not definable).

Of course, if we can reconstruct the value  $\int q(t) \cdot x(t) dt$ , then, for every real value  $c$ , we can also reconstruct the related value  $\int (c \cdot q(t)) \cdot x(t) dt$ , since this related value is simply equal to

$$c \cdot \int q(t) \cdot x(t) dt.$$

71 Thus, strictly speaking, a characteristic is represented not by a single function, but by the entire family  
 72  $\{c \cdot q(t)\}_{c \neq 0}$  of the related functions. So, we arrive at the following definition.

73 **Definition 1.** By a characteristic or, alternatively, a family, we mean a family of the type  $\{c \cdot q(t)\}_{c \neq 0}$ , where  
 74  $q(t)$  is a given measurable function, and  $c$  runs over all possible non-zero real numbers.

75 **Discussion.** What do we mean when we say that some characteristic (family) are more appropriate  
 76 and some are less appropriate? We mean that we have some criterion according to which, for every  
 77 two families  $F$  and  $G$ , we can say one of the three things:

- 78 • we can say that  $F$  is more appropriate than  $G$ ; we will denote this by  $G \prec F$ ;
- 79 • we can say that  $G$  is more appropriate than  $F$ ; we will denote this by  $F \prec G$ ;
- or we can say that the two characteristics are equally appropriateness; we will denote this by

$$F \sim G.$$

80 No matter what is the criterion, we have these relations. Thus, we can simply make these relations the  
 81 definition of a criterion.

82 Of course, we need to make sure that these relations are consistent: e.g., if  $F$  is better than  $G$  and  
 83  $G$  is better than  $H$ , then  $F$  should be better than  $H$ . Thus, we arrive at the following definition.

84 **Definition 2.** By a criterion for selecting a characteristic, we mean a pair of relations  $\langle \prec, \sim \rangle$  that satisfies the  
 85 following properties:

- for every two characteristics  $F$  and  $G$ , we have one of only one of three options:

$$F \prec G, \quad G \prec F, \quad \text{and} \quad F \sim G;$$

- 86 • if  $F \prec G$  and  $G \prec H$ , then  $F \prec H$ ;
- 87 • if  $F \prec G$  and  $G \sim H$ , then  $F \prec H$ ;
- 88 • if  $F \sim G$  and  $G \prec H$ , then  $F \prec H$ ;
- 89 • if  $F \sim G$  and  $G \sim H$ , then  $F \sim H$ ;
- 90 •  $F \sim F$ , and
- 91 • if  $F \sim G$ , then  $G \sim F$ .

92 **Discussion.** The whole purpose of selecting a criterion is to use this criterion for selecting the best  
 93 (most adequate) characteristic, i.e., a characteristic which is better – according to this criterion – than  
 94 any other characteristic.

95 So, if there is no such optimal characteristics, the corresponding criterion is useless. But what if  
 96 there are several characteristics which are all the most appropriate according to the given criterion?  
 97 In this cases, we can use this non-uniqueness to optimize something else. For example, if several  
 98 characteristics are equally good in terms of accuracy with which we can predict the future behavior  
 99 of the signal, then we can select among them the characteristic which is the easiest to compute. As a  
 100 result, we get, in effect, a new criterion, according to which  $F$  is better than  $G$  if:

- 101 • either  $F$  better than  $G$  according to the original criterion,

- 102 • or  $F$  equivalent to  $G$  in terms of the original criterion but better according to the additional  
103 criterion.

104 If for the new criterion, we still have several different optimal characteristics, we can then optimize  
105 something else, etc., until we reach a final criterion for which there is exactly one optimal characteristic.

106 **Definition 3.**

- 107 • We say that a characteristic  $F$  is optimal with respect to the criterion  $\langle \prec, \sim \rangle$  if for every characteristic  $G$ ,  
108 we have  $G \prec F$  or  $G \sim F$ .  
109 • We say that the criterion is final if there exists exactly one characteristic which is optimal with respect to  
110 this criterion.

111 **Need for scale-invariance.** A signal  $x(t)$  describes how the value of a physical quantity  $x$  depends on  
112 time. We may have a starting point for the corresponding process, which provides a natural starting  
113 point for measuring time, but in general, the numerical value of time depends on what unit we use for  
114 measuring time. We can use seconds or minutes or hours – the time interval will be the same but the  
115 numerical values will change.

116 When we replace the original unit for measuring time with a new unit which is  $\lambda$  times smaller,  
117 then all numerical values of time are *re-scaled*, i.e., multiplied by  $\lambda$ . For example, if we go from  
118 seconds to milliseconds, all numerical values are multiplied by 1000. The function  $q(t)$  in the new unit  
119 becomes  $q(\lambda \cdot t)$ .

120 It is reasonable to require that the relative quality of different characteristics should not change if  
121 we simply change the unit used for measuring time, without changing anything of substance. In other  
122 words, it is reasonable to require that the criterion be “scale-invariant”. Here is a precise definition.

123 **Definition 4.** We say that a criterion  $\langle \prec, \sim \rangle$  is scale-invariant if for every two functions  $q(t)$  and  $r(t)$  and for  
124 every  $\lambda > 0$ , the following two conditions hold:

- 125 • if  $\{c \cdot q(t)\}_c \prec \{c \cdot r(t)\}_c$ , then  $\{c \cdot q(\lambda \cdot t)\}_c \prec \{c \cdot r(\lambda \cdot t)\}_c$ ;  
126 • if  $\{c \cdot q(t)\}_c \sim \{c \cdot r(t)\}_c$ , then  $\{c \cdot q(\lambda \cdot t)\}_c \sim \{c \cdot r(\lambda \cdot t)\}_c$ .

127 **Discussion.** We want to find all membership functions that allow us to reconstruct the most adequate  
128 global characteristics. To find these functions, we will first describe which characteristics are the most  
129 adequate. Then, we will analyze which membership functions allow us to reconstruct the values of  
130 these characteristics from the results of the F-transform.

131 **5. Which Characteristics Are the Most Adequate: Preliminary Result**

132 **Discussion.** In the previous section, we argued that the most adequate global characteristic must be  
133 optimal with respect to some final scale-invariant criterion. Let us describe all such characteristics.

134 **Proposition 1.** For every final scale-invariant criterion, each optimal characteristic has the form  $\{c \cdot x^\beta\}_c$ , for  
135 some real value  $\beta$ .

136 **Proof.** Let us denote the scaling transformation that transforms a family  $F = \{c \cdot q(t)\}_c$  into a re-scaled  
137 family  $\{c \cdot q(\lambda \cdot t)\}_c$  by  $T_\lambda$ . In terms of this notation, scale-invariance means that:

- 138 • if  $F \prec G$ , then  $T_\lambda(F) \prec T_\lambda(G)$ ; and  
139 • if  $F \sim G$ , then  $T_\lambda(F) \sim T_\lambda(G)$ .

140 Let  $\langle \prec, \sim \rangle$  be the final scale-invariant criterion. Since this criterion is final, there exists exactly one  
141 optimal characteristic  $F_{\text{opt}}$ . Let us prove that this characteristic is scale-invariant, i.e., that  $T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}}) =$   
142  $F_{\text{opt}}$  for all  $\lambda > 0$ . (This proof is similar to the one given in [6].)

Indeed, since  $F_{\text{opt}}$  is optimal, it is better than or equivalent to any other characteristic. In particular,  
for every  $G$ , the characteristic  $F_{\text{opt}}$  is better than or equivalent to  $T_{1/\lambda}(G)$ :

$$T_{1/\lambda}(G) \prec F_{\text{opt}} \text{ or } T_{1/\lambda}(G) \sim F_{\text{opt}}.$$

143 By applying scale-invariance, we conclude that  $T_\lambda(T_{1/\lambda}(G)) \prec T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}})$  or  $T_\lambda(T_{1/\lambda}(G)) \sim T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}})$ .  
 144 However, one can easily check that  $T_\lambda(T_{1/\lambda}(G)) = G$ .

145 Thus, for every characteristic  $G$ , we have either  $G \prec T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}})$  or  $G \sim T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}})$ . By definition  
 146 of an optimal characteristic, this means that the characteristic  $T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}})$  is optimal. However, for the  
 147 final criterion, there is only one optimal characteristic, so we conclude that  $T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}}) = F_{\text{opt}}$ . Thus, the  
 148 optimal characteristic is indeed scale-invariant.

149 By definition, each characteristic has the form  $\{c \cdot q(t)\}_c$ . Let us denote the function  $q(t)$   
 150 corresponding to the optimal characteristic by  $q_{\text{opt}}(t)$ . The fact that the optimal family is scale-invariant  
 151 means, in particular, that for every  $\lambda > 0$ , the function  $q_{\text{opt}}(\lambda \cdot t)$  – which belongs to the re-scaled  
 152 family  $T_\lambda(F_{\text{opt}})$  – also belongs to the original family, i.e., has the form  $c(\lambda) \cdot q_{\text{opt}}(t)$  for some value  $c(\lambda)$ :  
 153  $q_{\text{opt}}(\lambda \cdot t) = c(\lambda) \cdot q_{\text{opt}}(t)$ . It is known that the only measurable functions satisfying this functional  
 154 equation are functions of the type  $C \cdot t^\beta$ ; see, e.g., [1]. The proposition is proven.

155 **Discussion.** Let us now find out which membership functions can allow us to reconstruct these most  
 156 adequate characteristics.

## 157 6. Which Membership Functions Enable Us to Reconstruct the Most Adequate Global 158 Characteristics

**Definition 5.** We say that for a membership function  $A(t)$ , it is possible to always reconstruct a global  
 characteristic  $\int q(t) \cdot x(t) dt$  if for every  $t_0$  and  $h$ , the value of this characteristic can be uniquely determined  
 once we know all the values

$$x_i = \int A\left(\frac{t-t_i}{h}\right) \cdot x(t) dt.$$

159

**Case of  $\beta = 0$ .** A particular case of the most adequate global characteristic is the case  $\beta = 0$ , when  
 $q(t) = \text{const}$  and the corresponding global characteristic is simply the integral  $\int x(t) dt = 1$ . This  
 characteristic can always be reconstructed from the F-transform, since we require that  $\sum_i A\left(\frac{t-t_i}{h}\right) = 1$   
 for all  $t$  and thus,

$$\int x(t) dt = \sum_i \int A\left(\frac{t-t_i}{h}\right) \cdot x(t) dt = \sum_i x_i.$$

160

161 **General case.** Thus, we should worry only about the case when  $\beta \neq 0$ . In this case, we have the  
 162 following result.

163 **Proposition 2.** The only membership function  $A(t)$  for which it is possible to always reconstruct a most  
 164 adequate global characteristic with  $\beta \neq 0$  is the triangular membership function – it can reconstruct the  
 165 characteristic  $\int t \cdot x(t) dt$  corresponding to  $\beta = 1$ .

166 *Comment.* This result provides the desired global explanation of why triangular membership functions  
 167 are so efficient in F-transform applications.

**Proof.** Let us assume that for some  $\beta \neq 0$ , the membership function  $A(t)$  enables us to always uniquely  
 reconstruct the corresponding characteristic

$$\int t^\beta \cdot x(t) dt.$$

168 Let us first consider the case when  $t_0 = 0$ ,  $h = 1$ , and the signal  $x(t)$  is equal to 0 everywhere  
 169 except for the interval  $[0, 1]$ . Then, only two F-transform values are different from 0:

- 170 • the value  $x_0 = \int_0^1 A(t) \cdot x(t) dt$ , and
- 171 • the value  $x_1 = \int_0^1 A(t-1) \cdot x(t) dt$ .

The fuzzy partition requirement implies that  $A(t) + A(t - 1) = 1$ , so

$$A(t - 1) = 1 - A(t).$$

172 The only way to be able to always reconstruct the value  $\int_0^1 t^\beta \cdot x(t) dt$  from these two values, no  
 173 matter how the signal  $x(t)$  behaves on the interval  $[0, 1]$ , is to have  $t^\beta$  equal to a linear combination of  
 174  $A(t)$  and  $A(t - 1) = 1 - A(t)$ . Thus, the function  $t^\beta$  is a linear combination of  $A(t)$  and 1, and hence,  
 175  $A(t)$  is a linear combination of  $t^\beta$  and 1, i.e.,  $A(t) = a + b \cdot t^\beta$ .

176 For  $t = 1$ , we must have  $A(t) = 0$ , so  $a + b = 0$  and thus,  $A(t) = a \cdot (1 - t^\beta)$ . For  $t = 0$ , we must  
 177 have  $A(0) = 1$ , so we have  $a = 1$  and  $A(t) = 1 - t^\beta$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Correspondingly, for  $s \in [-1, 0]$ , due  
 178 to  $A(t - 1) = 1 - A(t)$ , we have  $A(s) = 1 - A(s + 1) = (s + 1)^\beta$ .

179 Let us now consider a signal which is different from 0 only on the interval  $[1, 2]$ . For this signal, the  
 180 desired global characteristic has the form  $\int_1^2 t^\beta \cdot x(t) dt$ , and the only non-zero values of F-transform are  
 181  $x_1 = \int_1^2 (1 - (t - 1)^\beta) \cdot x(t) dt$  and  $x_2 = \int_1^2 (t - 1)^\beta \cdot x(t) dt$ . Thus, the only way to exactly reconstruct  
 182 the global characteristic is to have  $t^\beta$  to be a linear combination of  $1 - (t - 1)^\beta$  and  $(t - 1)^\beta$ , i.e., as a  
 183 linear combination of  $(t - 1)^\beta$  and 1:  $t^\beta = a \cdot (t - 1)^\beta + b$ .

184 Let us show that  $\beta = 1$ . For this, we need to show that cases when  $\beta > 1$  and  $\beta < 1$  are impossible.

185 Indeed, differentiating both sides by  $t$ , we get  $\beta \cdot t^{\beta-1} = a \cdot \beta \cdot (t - 1)^{\beta-1}$ . If  $\beta > 1$ , then for  $t = 1$ ,  
 186 we get  $\beta = 0$ , which contradicts the assumption that  $\beta > 1$ . If  $\beta < 1$ , then for  $t = 1$ , we get  $\beta = \infty$  -  
 187 also a contradiction.

188 Thus,  $\beta = 1$ , so  $A(t) = 1 - |t|$ , i.e., we indeed have a triangular membership function. The  
 189 proposition is proven.

190 *Comment.* Once we have a triangular membership function, it is easy to combine the F-transform  
 191 values to get an integral of a linear function. For simplicity, assume that we start with the signal which  
 192 is 0 for  $t < 0$ , and that  $h = 1$ . Then, the values  $x(t)$  corresponding to  $t \in [0, 1]$ , affect the value  $x_0$ ,  
 193 with the weight  $1 - t$ , and the value  $x_1$ , with weight  $t$ . If we take the difference  $x_1 - x_0$ , this difference  
 194 corresponds to the weight  $2t - 1$  on  $[0, 1]$  (and the weight  $2 - x$  for  $x \in [1, 2]$ ).

195 We can normalize the difference  $x_1 - x_0$  to get the coefficient at  $t$  on  $[0, 1]$  to be equal to 1. For the  
 196 resulting normalized linear combination  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot (x_1 - x_0)$ , on  $[0, 1]$ , we have the weight  $t - \frac{1}{2}$ , and on  $[1, 2]$ ,  
 197 the weight  $1 - \frac{t}{2}$ .

198 On the interval  $[1, 2]$ , the next F-transform value  $x_2$  corresponds to the coefficient  $t - 1$  (and 0  
 199 before that). Thus, by adding  $x_2$  with the appropriate coefficient, we can make sure that the linear  
 200 combination continues to have  $t$  with coefficient 1 on the interval  $[1, 2]$  as well. For that, we need to  
 201 add  $x_2$  with coefficient  $\frac{3}{2}$ . Then the resulting linear combination  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot (x_1 - x_0) + \frac{3}{2} \cdot x_2$  is equal to  $t - \frac{1}{2}$   
 202 on the whole interval  $[0, 2]$ .

On  $[2, 3]$ , this combination is equal to  $\frac{3}{2} \cdot (3 - t)$ . So, to make sure that we get a linear combination  
 which is equal to  $t - \frac{1}{2}$  on the interval  $[2, 3]$  as well, we need to add  $x_3$  with coefficient  $\frac{5}{2}$ , etc. At the  
 end, when we reach the end of the time interval on which the signal is defined, the corresponding  
 linear combination gives us the integral

$$\int \left( t - \frac{1}{2} \right) \cdot x(t) dt = \int t \cdot x(t) dt - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \int x(t) dt.$$

203 Since, as we have mentioned, we can easily determine the integral  $\int x(t) dt$  by adding all the values of  
 204 the F-transform, we can thus indeed determine the value of the desired global characteristic  $\int t \cdot x(t) dt$ .

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