#### COMPUTER AND INFORMATION SCIENCE

# On Decision Tables

by

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Summary. This paper is an extended and modified version of previous papers in which the rough set approach as a basis for decision tables theory is proposed.

1. Introduction. We show in this article (cf. [3-4]) that the concept of the rough set [2] can be used as a basis for the decision tables theory [5]. The ideas introduced in this paper have been applied to the implementation of cement kiln control algorithm [1] and showed considerable practical advantages as compared to other methods.

## 2. Decision tables

2.1. Concept of a decision table. In this section we recall after [3] and [4] a formal definition of a decision table which will be used throughout this paper.

A decision table is a system

S = (Univ, Att, Val, f)

where:

Univ — is a finite set of states, called the universe,

Att = Con∪Dec — is the set of attributes; Con — is the set of conditions attributes and Dec — is the set of decisions attributes,

 $Val = \bigcup_{a \in Att} Val_a$ , where  $Val_a$  is the set of values of an attribute  $a \in Att$ 

(domain of a),

 $f: Univ \times Att \rightarrow Val$  — is a total function, called the decision function, such that  $f(x, a) \in Val_a$  for every  $x \in Univ$  and  $a \in Att$ .

A decision rule in S is a function  $f_x$ : Att  $\rightarrow$  Val, such that  $f_x(a) = f(x, a)$  for every  $x \in U$  niv and  $a \in A$ tt.

If  $f_x$  is a decision rule in S then  $f_x/\text{Con}$  and  $f_x/\text{Dec}$  are called conditions and decisions of the decision rule  $f_x$ , respectively.

A decision rule  $f_x$  in S is deterministic (consistent) if for every  $y \in U_{min}$ ,  $y \neq x$ ,  $f_x/\text{Con} = f_y/\text{Con}$  implies  $f_x/\text{Dec} = f_y/\text{Dec}$ ; otherwise the decision rule  $f_x$  is nondeterministic (inconsistent).

A decision table S is deterministic (consistent) if all its decision rules are deterministic, otherwise the decision table S is nondeterministic consistent).

A decision table  $S' = (X, \operatorname{Att}, \operatorname{Val}', f')$  is said to be an X-restriction of the decision table  $S = (\operatorname{Univ}, \operatorname{Att}, \operatorname{Val}, f)$ , if  $X \subseteq \operatorname{Univ}, f' = f/X \times \operatorname{And} \operatorname{Val}' = \{v \in \operatorname{Val}: \bigvee_{x \in X} f_x(a) = v\}$ .

**2.2.** Rough sets. Let S = (Univ. Att. Val. f) be a decision table and  $\exists a \in \text{Att. } y \in \text{Univ.}$ 

With every subset of attributes  $A \subseteq Att$  we associate the equivalence relation  $\tilde{A}$  defined thus

$$(x, y) \in \tilde{A}$$
 iff  $f_x(a) = f_y(a)$  for every  $a \in A$ .

If  $(x, y) \in \tilde{A}$  we say that x and y are indiscernible with respect to  $\tilde{A}$  in S (A-indiscernible) and  $\tilde{A}$  is called an indiscernibility relation in S. Equivalence classes of the indiscernibility relation  $\tilde{A}$  are called A-elementary sets in S and the family of all equivalence classes of  $\tilde{A}$  is denoted by  $A^*$ .

Let  $A \subseteq Att$  and  $X \subseteq Univ$  in a decision table S = (Univ, Att, Val, f). By A-lower (A-upper) approximation of X in S we mean the sets

$$AX = \{x \in \text{Univ: } [x]_{\mathcal{X}} \subseteq X\}$$
$$AX = \{x \in \text{Univ: } [x]_{\mathcal{X}} \cap X \neq \emptyset\}.$$

Set  $Bn_A(X) = AX - AX$  will be called A-boundary of X in S.

We shall use also the following definitions: A-positive region of set X is the set AX; A-doubtful region of set X is the set  $Bn_A(X)$ ; A-negative region of set X is the set  $Neg_A X = Univ - AX$ .

If AX = AX we say that set X is A-definable in S; otherwise set X is A-nondefinable in S.

Nondefinable sets will be called also rough sets in S. The number

$$\alpha_A(X) = \frac{\operatorname{card} AX}{\operatorname{card} \bar{A}X}$$

will be called the accuracy of the X with respect to A in S, and the number

$$\varrho_A(X) = 1 - \alpha_A(X)$$

will be called the roughness of the set X with respect to A in S

Let us notice that each subset of attributes  $A \subseteq Att$  in a decision table S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) defines uniquely the topological space  $T_S = (Univ, Def_A(S))$ , where  $Def_A(S)$  is the family of all A-definable sets in S, and the lower and upper approximations are interior and closure in the topological space  $T_S$ , thus approximations have the following properties:

- 1)  $AX \subseteq X \subseteq \overline{AX}$
- 2)  $A\emptyset = \overline{A}\emptyset = \emptyset$ ;  $A \text{ Univ} = \overline{A} \text{ Univ} = \text{Univ}$ ,
- 3)  $A(X \cup Y) \supseteq AX \cup AY$
- 4)  $\bar{A}(X \cup Y) = \bar{A}X \cup \bar{A}Y$
- 5)  $A(X \cap Y) = AX \cap AY$
- 6)  $\bar{A}(X \cap Y) \subseteq \bar{A}X \cap \bar{A}Y$
- 7)  $A(-X) = -\bar{A}(X)$
- 8)  $\bar{A}(-X) = -A(X)$ .

Moreover in this topological space we have the following two properties:

- 9)  $AAX = \bar{A}AX$
- 10)  $\bar{A}\bar{A}X = A\bar{A}X$ .

From the topological view the rough sets can be classified as follows:

- a) Set X is roughly A-definable in S if  $AX \neq \emptyset$  and  $\bar{A}X \neq \text{Univ}$ ,
- b) Set X is internally A-nondefinable in S if  $AX = \emptyset$  and  $AX \neq Univ$ ,
- c) Set X is externally A-nondefinable in S if AX = Univ and  $AX \neq \emptyset$ ,
- d) Set X is totally A-nondefinable in S if  $AX = \emptyset$  and  $\bar{A}X = \text{Univ}$ .

**2.3.** Dependence of attributes. Let S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) be a decision table,  $F = \{X_1, X_2, ..., X_n\}$ , where  $X_i \subseteq \text{Univ}$ , a family of subsets of Univ and  $A \subseteq \text{Att}$ .

By A-lower (A-upper) approximation of F in S we mean the families

$$\underline{AF} = \{\underline{AX}_1, \underline{AX}_2, ..., \underline{AX}_n\}$$
$$\bar{AF} = \{\bar{AX}_1, \bar{AX}_2, ..., \bar{AX}_n\},$$

The A-positive region of a family F is the set

$$\operatorname{Pos}_{A}\left(F\right)=\bigcup_{X_{i}\in F}\underline{A}X_{i}.$$

The A-doubtful region of a family F is the set

$$Bn_{A}\left( F\right) =\bigcup_{X_{i}\in F}Bn_{A}\ X_{i}.$$

The A-negative region of a family F is the set

$$\operatorname{Neg}_{A}\left(F\right)=\operatorname{Univ}-\bigcup_{X,eF}\bar{A}X_{I}.$$

The number

$$\gamma_A(F) = \frac{\text{card Pos}_A(F)}{\text{card Univ}}$$

will be called the quality at the approximation of F by A in S

Let  $B, C \subseteq Att$  be two subsets of attributes in S = (Univ, Att, Val. f) and k—real number such that  $0 \le k \le 1$ .

We say that C depends in a degree k on B in S, in symbols  $B \to \mathbb{C}$ , if  $k = \gamma_B(C^*)$ .

If k = 1 we say that C totally depends on B in S and we also  $B \to C$  instead of  $B \to C$ . If 0 < k < 1 we say that C roughly depends on B in S. If k = 0 we say that C is totally independent on B in S.

The following properties are valid:

Property 2.3.1. A decision table S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) is deterministic iff  $Con \rightarrow Dec$  in S.

A decision table S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) is called roughly deterministic if  $Con \xrightarrow{k} Dec$  and 0 < k < 1.

Property 2.3.2. The following properties are true:

- Con <sup>1</sup>→ Dec in S/Pos<sub>Con</sub> (Dec\*)
- Con <sup>0</sup>→ Dec in S/Bn<sub>Con</sub> (Dec\*).

Note. The above property says that every decision table can be decomposed into two parts (possibly empty) such that one is deterministic and the second totally nondeterministic.

**2.4.** Reduction of attributes. Let S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) be a decision table and let  $A \subseteq Att$ .

Set A is independent in S if for every  $B \subset A$ ,  $\tilde{B} \supset \tilde{A}$ . Set  $A \equiv$  dependent in S if there exists  $B \subset A$  such that  $\tilde{B} = \tilde{A}$ .

Set  $B \subseteq A$  is a reduct of A in S if B is the maximal independent set in S.

Subset  $B \subseteq A$  is a reduct of A with respect to  $C \subseteq A$ tt in  $S \Vdash B$  is an independent subset of A such that  $\gamma_B(C^*) = \gamma_A(C^*)$  (or  $Pos_B(C^*) = Pos_A(C^*)$ ).

Let us notice that if A = C the reduct of A with respect to C spincide with the reduct of A.

Property 2.4.1. If  $A \xrightarrow{k} B$  in S and C is a reduct of A, or reduct of A with respect to B in S, then  $C \xrightarrow{k} B$ .

In particular, if C is a reduct of conditions attributes Con in a decision able S and Con  $\stackrel{k}{\rightarrow}$  Dec, then  $C \stackrel{k}{\rightarrow}$  Dec. This is to mean that we can simplify the decision table by reducing the set of conditions attributes.

We can also define the approximate reduct (or approximate reduct with espect to a subset C) in the following way:

Let  $0 \le \varepsilon \le 1$  be a real number and let  $B \subseteq A \subseteq A$ tt in a decision able S = (Univ, Att, Val, f).

Subset B of A is a  $\varepsilon$ -reduct of A in S if B is independent in S and  $\gamma_B(A^*) = 1 - \varepsilon$ .

Subset B of A is a  $\varepsilon$ -reduct of A in S with respect to  $C \subseteq \operatorname{Att}$  if B independent in S and  $\gamma_B(C^*) = \gamma_A(C^*) = \varepsilon$ . Directly from these definitions we have

Property 2.4.2. If B is a  $\varepsilon$ -reduct of A in S then  $B \xrightarrow{1-\varepsilon} A$ .

Property 2.4.3. If B is a  $\varepsilon$ -reduct of A in S with respect to  $C \subseteq Att$ , and  $A \stackrel{k}{\longrightarrow} C$ , then  $B \stackrel{k-\varepsilon}{\longrightarrow} C$ .

In particular, if Con  $\stackrel{k}{\rightarrow}$  Dec in S and  $C \subseteq$  Con is a  $\varepsilon$ -reduct of Con S, then  $C^{k-\varepsilon}$  Dec. That is to mean that we can reduce the set of enditions attributes, in such a way that the degree of dependence between decisions and conditions attributes is decreased by the constant  $\varepsilon$ .

# 3. The decision language

3.1. Syntax of the decision language. With each decision table S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) we associate a decision language  $L_S$ , which consists of terms, formulas and decision algorithms.

Terms are built up from some constants by means of Boolean operation +, ·, -. We assume that 0, 1 are constants and Att, Val are some inite sets of constants called attributes and values of attributes, respectively.

The set of terms is the least set satisfying the conditions:

- $\square$  Constants 0 and 1 are terms in L,
- Any expression of the form (a: = v) where a∈Att and v∈Val<sub>a</sub> is a term in L,
- 3) If t and s are terms in L, so are -t, (t+s) and  $(t \cdot s)$  (or simple (ts)). The set of formulas in the information language L is the least set satisfying the conditions:

- 1) Constants T (for true) and F (for false) are formulas in L,
- 2) If t and s are terms in L, then t = s and  $t \Rightarrow s$  are formulas in L.
- 3) If  $\Phi$  and  $\Psi$  are formulas in L, then  $\sim \Phi$ ,  $(\Phi \vee \Psi)$ ,  $(\Phi \wedge \Psi)$ ,  $(\Phi \Psi)$  and  $(\Phi \leftrightarrow \Psi)$  are also formulas in L.

Any formula of the form  $t \Rightarrow s$  will be called a decision rule in  $t \Rightarrow s$  the successor of the decision rule respectively.

Any finite set of decision rules in L is called a decision algorithm in L. With every decision algorithm  $\mathfrak{A} = \{t_i \Rightarrow s_i\}_m$ ,  $1 \le i \le m$  in L we associate the formula  $\Psi_{\mathfrak{A}} = \bigwedge_{i=1}^m (t_i \Rightarrow s_i)$  called the decision formula of  $\mathfrak{A}$  in L.

3.2. The meaning (the semantics) of terms and formulas in L. Now we shall define formally the meaning of terms and formulas in a decision table S = (Univ, Att, Val, f). Terms are intended to mean subsets of the universe Univ and the meaning of formulas is truth or falsity. Of the meaning of a certain term or formula can be different in various information systems.

In order to define the meaning of terms and formulas we shall use the meaning function  $g_S$ : Ter  $\cup$  For  $\rightarrow \gamma$  (Univ)  $\cup$  {T, F}, where Ter and Findenote the set of all terms and formulas, respectively.

The meaning function  $g_s$  for terms is defined as follows (we omit subscript S if S is understood):

1) 
$$q(0) = \emptyset$$
;  $q(1) = Univ$ 

2) 
$$g(q := v) = \{x \in Univ : f(x, q) = v\}$$

3) 
$$g(-t) = \text{Univ} - g(t)$$

$$q(t+s) = q(t) \cup q(s)$$

$$g(ts) = g(t) \cap g(s)$$
.

The meaning of formulas is defined thus:

1) 
$$g(T) = T$$
;  $g(F) = F$ ,

2) 
$$g(t = s) = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } g(t) = g(s) \\ F, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3) 
$$g(t \Rightarrow s) = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } g(t) \subseteq g(s) \\ F, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

4) 
$$g(\sim \Phi) = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } g(\Phi) = F \\ F, & \text{if } g(\Phi) = T \end{cases}$$

5) 
$$q(\Phi \vee \Psi) = q(\Phi) \vee q(\Psi)$$

$$= g(\Phi \wedge \Psi) = g(\Phi) \wedge g(\Psi)$$

$$\mathbb{T}(\Phi \to \Psi) = g(\sim \Phi) \vee g(\Psi)$$

$$(\Phi \leftrightarrow \Psi) = q (\Phi \rightarrow \Psi) \land q (\Phi \leftarrow \Psi).$$

If  $g_s(\Phi) = T$  we say that  $\Phi$  is true in S; if  $g_s(\Phi) = F$  then  $\Phi$  is to be false in S. If  $\Phi$  is true in S we shall write  $\models_S \Phi$  or simply  $\models \Phi$   $\Longrightarrow S$  is known.

If  $\models_S (t = s)$  we say that terms t and s are equivalent in S; if  $\models_S (t \Rightarrow s)$  as any that term t implies term s in S. If  $\models_S (\Phi \leftrightarrow \Psi)$  we say that small  $\Phi$  and  $\Psi$  are equivalent in S and if  $\models_S (\Phi \to \Psi)$  we say that small  $\Phi$  implies formula  $\Psi$  in S.

For the transformation of terms we shall use the axioms of Boolean and the following specific axiom

$$(a:=v) = -\sum_{u \neq v, u \in Vul_o} (a:=u).$$

For the transformation of formulas we shall employ the axioms of mositional calculus.

A term t in L is A-elementary ( $A \subseteq Att$ ) if  $t = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (a := v_a)$ .

A term s in L is an A-normal form if  $t = \sum s$ , where all s are dementary.

Let S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) be a decision table  $A \subseteq Att$  subset of butes, and  $L_A$ —an information language with the set of attributes A.

Property 3.2.1. For every term t in  $L_P$  there exists the term s in  $L_A$  4-normal form, such that  $\models_S t = s$ ; s is referred as the A-normal form

Subset  $X \subseteq \text{Univ}$  is said to be A-definable in  $L(A \subseteq \text{Att})$  if there exists a term t in  $L_A$  such that  $g_S(t) = X$ ; the term t is called the e-description of X in L.

If set  $X \subseteq \text{Univ}$  is not A-definable in L, then the terms t and s that  $g_S(t) = AX$  and  $g_S(s) = AX$  are called the A-lower and A-upper exciptions of X in L, respectively.

3.3. Decision rules. Our basic concept is that of a decision rule. We discuss this concept in some details in this section.

Let  $t \Rightarrow s$  be a decision rule in L, and let A, B be two subsets of arributes which occurs in t and s, respectively. We shall call then  $t \Rightarrow s = (A, B)$ -decision rule. If A and B are single element sets, for the sake simplicity, we shall use the expression (a, b)-decision rule.

Let S = (Univ, Att, Val, f) be a decision table and  $t \Rightarrow s$  an (A, B)-decision table in L.

We say that an (A, B)-decision rule is B-deterministic in S if  $g_S(s) \in A$  i.e.  $g_S(s)$  is a description of some equivalence class of the equivalence relation B; otherwise the decision rule is B-nondeterministic.

We say that an (A, B)-decision rule  $t \Rightarrow s$  is in  $A \cup B$ -normal form.

Property 3.3.1. An (A, B)-decision rule  $t \Rightarrow s$  is true in S iff all non-empty  $A \cup B$ -elementary terms occurring in  $A \cup B$ -normal form of t occur also the  $A \cup B$ -normal form of s.

This property enables us to prove the validity of any decision rule in a simple syntactical way.

3.4. Decision algorithms. Now we shall discuss the most important concern of our approach — the decision algorithm.

A decision algorithm  $\mathfrak{A}$  in L is said to be correct in S if  $\models_S \Psi_{\mathfrak{A}}$ .

A decision algorithm  $\mathfrak A$  in L is A-deterministic in S ( $A \subseteq Att$ ) if all its decision rules are A-deterministic in S; otherwise the algorithm  $\cong A$ -nondeterministic.

If A and B are the sets of all attributes occurring in the predecesser and successors of the decision rules in an decision algorithm  $\mathfrak{A}$ , then  $\mathfrak{A}$  will be called the (A, B)-decision algorithm.

An (A, B)-decision algorithm is total in S if for every equivalence class X of the equivalence relation B, there exists a decision rule  $t_i = S$  in  $\mathfrak A$  such that  $g_S(s_i) \supseteq X_j$ ; otherwise the decision algorithm is partial in S

The following properties are used as transformation rules for decision algorithms:

Property 3.4.1.

1) 
$$\models_S \bigwedge_{i=1}^m (t_i \Rightarrow s) \to (\sum_{i=1}^m t_i \Rightarrow s),$$

2) 
$$\models_S ((t \Rightarrow s) \land ((t \Rightarrow s) \rightarrow (p \Rightarrow r))) \rightarrow (p \Rightarrow r).$$

Property 3.4.1. 2) can be regarded as a "modus ponens" for decision rules. The following important property establishes a relationship between dependency of attributes and the decision algorithm.

Property 3.4.2. Let  $\mathfrak{A}$  be an (A, B)-decision algorithm in L.

$$\models_S \Psi_{\mathfrak{A}}$$
 iff  $A_{\overrightarrow{S}} B$ .

 Example. Let us consider the following decision table taken from Mrózek [1], and describing cement kiln control.

Univ	a	b	c	d	е	ſ
1	3	2	2	2	2	4
2	3	2	2	1	2	4
3	3	3	2	2	2	4
4 .	2	2	2	1	1	4
5	2	2	2	2	1	4
6	3	2 -	2	3	2	3
7	3	3	2	3	2	3
8	4	3	2	3	2	3
9	4	3	3	3	2	2
10	4	4	3	3	2	2
11	4	4	3	2	2	2
12	4	3	3	2	2	2
13	4	1	3	2	2	2

where a, b, c and d are conditions attributes and e and f are decision attributes.

It is easy to check that the decision table is deterministic, i.e.  $\{a, b, c, d\} \rightarrow \{e, f\}$ , and the set of control attributes as well the set of decision attributes are independent.

The corresponding decision algorithm is the following:

$$(a: = 3) (d: \neq 3) \Rightarrow (e: = 2) (f: = 4)$$
  
 $(a: = 2) \Rightarrow (e: = 1) (f: = 4)$   
 $(c: = 2) (d: = 3) \Rightarrow (e: = 2) (f: = 3)$   
 $(c: = 3) \Rightarrow (e: = 2) (f: = 2)$ 

where  $d: \neq 3$  is an abbreviation of (d: = 0) + (d: = 1) + (d: = 2).

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## 3. Павляк, О таблицах принятия решений

Настоящая статья представляет собой расширенный и модифицированный вариант работ автора, в которых предлагалось использование приближенных множеств в качестве основы для теории таблиц принятия решений.