

# Granular Computing Based on a Generalized Approximation Space

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**Abstract.** A family of overlapping granules can be formed by granulating a finite universe under a binary relation in a set-theoretic setting. In this paper, we granulate a universe by a binary relation and obtain a granular universe. And then we define two kinds of operators between these two universes, study properties of them. By combining these two kinds of operators, we get two pairs of approximation operators. It is proved that one kind of combination operators is just the approximation operators under a generalized approximation space defined according to Pawlak's rough set theory.

**Keywords:** Generalized approximation space,  $L$ -lower approximation operator,  $H$ -upper approximation operator, Similarity relation.

## 1 Introduction

Granular computing is a label of theories, methodologies, techniques, and tools that makes use of granules, i.e., groups, classes, or clusters of a universe, in the process of problem solving [10, 14, 16]. Since Pawlak introduced the theory of rough sets [7, 8], it has made granular computing popular. Hobbs [2] introduced the concepts of granularity in 1985. Later the concept "granular computing" was suggested by Zadeh [15, 16] for the first time in 1996. The basic ideas of information granulation have been explored in many fields, such as rough sets, fuzzy sets, cluster analysis, database, machine learning, data-mining, and so on. There is a renewed and fast growing interest in the study of granular computing [3, 4, 10, 13].

As a concrete theory of granular computing, rough set model enables us to precisely define and analyze many notions of granular computing. The results provide an in-depth understanding of granular computing. Many models of granular computing have been proposed and studied [16, 11]. However, there are many fundamental issues in granular computing, such as granulation of the universe, description of granules, relationships between granules, and computing with granules.

Yao [12] proposed a concrete model of granular computing based on a simple granulation structure, namely, a partition of a universe. Results from rough sets, quotient space theory, belief functions, and power algebra are reformulated, re-interpreted, and combined for granular computing. For the universe and the coarse-grained universe induced by an equivalence relation, two basic operation called zooming-out and zooming-in operations are introduced. And Computations in these universes can be connected through the two operations.

Because the equivalence relation in [12] is too strong to be obtained in general, we only consider a reflexive relation on a universe which is easy to obtain usually. Then a covering model can be obtained by granulating a finite set of a universe based on the reflexive relation [6]. And we cited definitions of zooming-out and zooming-in operations in [12] and discussed the covering model of granular computing [6]. However, relationships between subsets of a coarse-grained universe would not hold in the universe. Furthermore, although rough set approximations of a classical subset of a universe in a generalized approximation space [17] can be obtained by a combination of these operations, the duality may not hold.

In this paper, we first granulate a finite set of a universe into a family of overlapping granules based on a general binary relation. We introduce two kinds of operators between a universe and the granulated universe, and study their properties. Then we combine them to two pairs of approximation operators, which are used to study connections between computations in the two universes. It is also proved that approximation representations of a generalized approximation space can be obtained by combining them, and the duality always holds for the different combinations.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces two kinds of operators between a universe and a granulated universe, and studies their properties. Section 3 shows new operations formed by different combining the two operations, investigates their properties, and discusses connections between computations in the two universes. Finally, Section 4 concludes the paper.

## 2 Preliminaries

Let  $U$  be a finite and nonempty set called a universe, and  $r \subseteq U \times U$  a binary relation on the universe  $U$ . For any  $x \in U$ , the set  $r(x) = \{y \in U; (x, y) \in r\}$  is called the successor neighborhood of  $x$ . The relation  $r$  is referred to as serial if for any  $x \in U$ , there exists  $y \in U$  such that  $y \in r(x)$ .  $r$  is referred to as reflexive if for all  $x \in U$ ,  $x \in r(x)$ ;  $r$  is referred to as symmetric if for all  $x, y \in U$ ,  $x \in r(y)$  implies  $y \in r(x)$ ;  $r$  is referred to as transitive if for all  $x, y, z \in U$ ,  $x \in r(y)$  and  $y \in r(z)$  implies  $x \in r(z)$ ;  $r$  is referred to as Euclidean if for all  $x, y, z \in U$ ,  $y \in r(x)$  and  $z \in r(x)$  implies  $z \in r(y)$  [9, 17]. Furthermore,  $r$  is referred to as a similarity relation on  $U$  if it is reflexive and transitive;  $r$  is referred to as a tolerance relation on  $U$  if it is reflexive and symmetric. For any binary relation  $r \subseteq U \times U$ , the pair  $(U, r)$  is referred to as a generalized approximation space.

For a generalized approximation space  $(U, r)$ , the family of all successor neighborhood, denoted by  $\mathcal{A} = \{r(x); x \in U\}$ , is commonly known as the granulated set. If  $r$  is reflexive, it forms a covering of  $U$ , namely, a family of overlapping subsets whose union is  $U$ . For any  $x \in U$ , the successor neighborhood  $r(x)$  is considered as a whole granule instead of many individuals [12]. It is a subset of  $U$  and an element of  $\mathcal{A}$ . We use  $|r(x)|$  to denote the whole granule  $r(x)$ , and call  $A = \{|r(x)|; x \in U\}$  a granulated universe. We denote by  $2^U$  the power set of the universe  $U$ , and by  $^c$  the set complement operator.

**Definition 1.** Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space. For any  $B \subseteq A$ , the mapping  $f : 2^A \rightarrow 2^U$  is given by

$$f(B) = \{x \in U; |r(x)| \in B\}.$$

Then we can get the following properties: for any  $B, C \subseteq A$ ,

- (1)  $f(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ ;
- (1)  $f(A) = U$ ;
- (2)  $f(B \cup C) = f(B) \cup f(C)$ ;
- (3)  $f(B \cap C) = f(B) \cap f(C)$ ;
- (4)  $f(B^c) = f(B)^c$ ;
- (5)  $B \subseteq C \Leftrightarrow f(B) \subseteq f(C)$ .

**Definition 2.** Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space and  $X \subseteq U$ . A pair  $(L, H)$  of mappings  $L, H : 2^U \rightarrow 2^A$  is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} L(X) &= \{|r(x)|; r(x) \subseteq X\}, \\ H(X) &= \{|r(x)|; r(x) \cap X \neq \emptyset\}. \end{aligned}$$

They are called  $L$ -lower and  $H$ -upper approximation of  $X$ , respectively.

By Definition 2 we can easily get that for a generalized approximation space  $(U, r)$ ,  $X, Y \subseteq U$ ,

- (LH1)  $H(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ ;
- (LH2)  $L(U) = A$ ;
- (LH3)  $L(X^c) = H(X)^c$ ,  $H(X^c) = L(X)^c$ ;
- (LH4)  $L(X \cap Y) = L(X) \cap L(Y)$ ,  $H(X \cap Y) \subseteq H(X) \cap H(Y)$ ;
- (LH5)  $L(X \cup Y) \supseteq L(X) \cup L(Y)$ ,  $H(X \cup Y) = H(X) \cup H(Y)$ ;
- (LH6)  $X \subseteq Y \Rightarrow L(X) \subseteq L(Y)$ ,  $H(X) \subseteq H(Y)$ ;
- (LH7) Let  $B_n(X) = H(X) - L(X)$ , then  $B_n(X^c) = B_n(X)$ .

If  $r$  is serial, we have  $L(X) \subseteq H(X)$ ,  $L(\emptyset) = \emptyset$  and  $H(U) = A$ .

*Remark 1.* In fact, there exists  $X \subseteq U$  and  $X \neq \emptyset$  such that  $L(X) = \emptyset$ ; and there is  $X \neq U$  such that  $H(X) = A$ .

In general, the following formulas may not hold:

$$\begin{aligned} H(X \cap Y) &= H(X) \cap H(Y), \\ L(X \cup Y) &= L(X) \cup L(Y). \end{aligned}$$

*Example 1.* Suppose  $U = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}$ , and  $r \subseteq U \times U$  be a binary relation on  $U$  satisfying:  $r(x_1) = \{x_3, x_4\}$ ,  $r(x_2) = \{x_1, x_2, x_4\}$ ,  $r(x_3) = \{x_3\}$ ,  $r(x_4) = \{x_4\}$ ,  $r(x_5) = \{x_2, x_5\}$ .

(1) Take  $X = \{x_3, x_4\}$  and  $Y = \{x_2, x_3\}$ . Then  $X \cap Y = \{x_3\}$  and  $H(X \cap Y) = \{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_3)|\}$ , but  $H(X) \cap H(Y) = \{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_2)|, |r(x_3)|, |r(x_4)|\} \cap \{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_2)|, |r(x_3)|, |r(x_5)|\} = \{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_2)|, |r(x_3)|\}$ . Hence  $H(X \cap Y) \subset H(X) \cap H(Y)$ .

(2) Take  $X = \{x_1, x_2\}$  and  $Y = \{x_3\}$ . Then  $X \cup Y = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$  and  $L(X \cup Y) = \{|r(x_3)|, |r(x_5)|\}$ , however  $L(X) \cup L(Y) = \emptyset \cup \{|r(x_3)|\} = \{|r(x_3)|\}$ . Hence  $L(X) \cup L(Y) \subset L(X \cup Y)$ .

**Proposition 1.** Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space and  $X, Y \subseteq U$ . Note that  $\underline{Z}(X, Y) = \{|r(x)|; r(x) \subseteq X \cup Y, |r(x)| \in B_n(X) \cap B_n(Y)\}$ . Then

$$L(X \cup Y) = L(X) \cup L(Y) \cup \underline{Z}(X, Y).$$

*Proof.* It is easy to see that  $L(X) \cup L(Y) \subseteq L(X \cup Y)$ . Then  $|r(x)| \in L(X \cup Y) - L(X) \cup L(Y)$  if and only if  $r(x) \subseteq X \cup Y$ ,  $r(x) \not\subseteq X$  and  $r(x) \not\subseteq Y$ . Then  $|r(x)| \in L(X \cup Y) - L(X) \cup L(Y)$  if and only if  $r(x) \subseteq X \cup Y$ , and  $|r(x)| \in B_n(X) \cap B_n(Y)$ . That is  $L(X \cup Y) - L(X) \cup L(Y) = \underline{Z}(X, Y)$ . Therefore  $L(X \cup Y) = L(X) \cup L(Y) \cup \underline{Z}(X, Y)$ .

**Proposition 2.** Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space and  $X, Y \subseteq U$ . Note that  $\overline{Z}(X, Y) = \{|r(x)|; r(x) \cap (X \cap Y) = \emptyset, |r(x)| \in B_n(X) \cap B_n(Y)\}$ . Then

$$H(X \cap Y) = H(X) \cap H(Y) - \overline{Z}(X, Y).$$

*Proof.* By (LH5) we can get that  $H(X \cap Y) \subseteq H(X) \cap H(Y)$ . Then  $|r(x)| \in H(X) \cap H(Y) - H(X \cap Y)$  if and only if  $r(x) \cap X \neq \emptyset, r(x) \cap Y \neq \emptyset$  and  $r(x) \cap (X \cap Y) = \emptyset$ . Then  $|r(x)| \in H(X) \cap H(Y) - H(X \cap Y)$  if and only if  $|r(x)| \in B_n(X) \cap B_n(Y)$ , and  $r(x) \cap (X \cap Y) = \emptyset$ . Therefore  $H(X) \cap H(Y) - H(X \cap Y) = \overline{Z}(X, Y)$ . Thus  $H(X \cap Y) = H(X) \cap H(Y) - \overline{Z}(X, Y)$ .

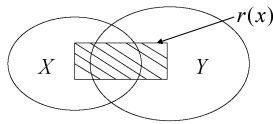


Fig. 1.  $\underline{Z}(X, Y)$

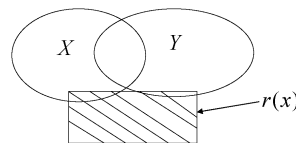


Fig. 2.  $\overline{Z}(X, Y)$

### 3 Rough Approximation Representations on $U$ and $A$

Pawlak's classical rough set theory shows that lower and upper approximations of a classical set are also subsets of the same universe. From Definition 1 and

Definition 2 we can combine these operators  $f$  and  $(L, H)$ , and get some new operators on a same universe.

By Definitions 1 and 2, one can easily obtain lower and upper approximations of a classical subset of the generalized approximation space by performing a combination of  $(L, H)$  and  $f$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} fL(X) &= f(\{|r(x)|; r(x) \subseteq X\}) = \{x; r(x) \subseteq X\}, \\ fH(X) &= f(\{|r(x)|; r(x) \cap X \neq \emptyset\}) = \{x; r(x) \cap X \neq \emptyset\}. \end{aligned}$$

Then  $fL, fH : 2^U \rightarrow 2^U$  are called  $fL$ -lower and  $fH$ -upper approximation operators, respectively.

Since we have studied properties of  $f$  and  $(L, H)$ , we can easily get the following properties for any  $X, Y \subseteq U$ :

- (fLH1)  $fH(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ ;
- (fLH2)  $fL(U) = U$ ;
- (fLH3)  $fL(X^c) = fH(X)^c, fH(X^c) = fL(X)^c$ ;
- (fLH4)  $fL(X \cap Y) = fL(X) \cap fL(Y)$ ,  
 $fH(X \cap Y) \subseteq fH(X) \cap fH(Y)$ ;
- (fLH5)  $fL(X \cup Y) \supseteq fL(X) \cup fL(Y)$ ,  
 $fH(X \cup Y) = fH(X) \cup fH(Y)$ ;
- (fLH6)  $X \subseteq Y \Rightarrow fL(X) \subseteq fL(Y), fH(X) \subseteq fH(Y)$ ;
- (fLH7) Let  $B_1(X) = fH(X) - fL(X)$ , then  $B_1(X^c) = B_1(X)$ .

Note that (fLH7) means simply that if we cannot decide when an object is in  $X$ , we obviously cannot decide whether it is in  $X^c$  either. (fLH3) shows that  $fL$  and  $fH$  are the dual approximation operators.

If  $r$  is reflexive, then  $fL(X) \subseteq X \subseteq fH(X), fL(\emptyset) = \emptyset, fH(U) = U$ .

**Proposition 3.** *Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space. If  $r$  is reflexive and Euclidean, for any  $X \subseteq U$ , we have*

- (1)  $fH(X) = fL(fH(X))$ ;
- (2)  $fL(X) = fH(fL(X))$ .

*Proof.* Since  $r$  is reflexive, we have  $fL(fH(X)) \subseteq fH(X)$ . Take  $x \in fH(X)$ . Then  $r(x) \cap X \neq \emptyset$ . For any  $y \in r(x)$ , we have  $r(x) \subseteq r(y)$  because  $r$  is Euclidean. Hence  $r(y) \cap X \neq \emptyset$  and  $y \in fH(X)$ . By the arbitrariness of  $y$  we can get  $r(x) \subseteq fH(X)$  which leads to  $x \in fL(fH(X))$ . Therefore  $fL(fH(X)) = fH(X)$ . By (1) and (fLH3) we can easily get (2).

According to Propositions 1 and 2 we can get:

**Proposition 4.** *Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space. Then for any  $X, Y \subseteq U$ , we have*

- (1)  $fL(X \cup Y) = fL(X) \cup fL(Y) \cup \underline{Z}_1(X, Y)$ , where  
 $\underline{Z}_1(X, Y) = \{x \in U; r(x) \subseteq X \cup Y, r(x) \subseteq B_1(X) \cap B_1(Y)\}$ .
- (2)  $fH(X \cap Y) = fH(X) \cap fH(Y) - \overline{Z}_1(X, Y)$ , where  
 $\overline{Z}_1(X, Y) = \{x \in U; r(x) \cap (X \cap Y) = \emptyset, r(x) \subseteq B_1(X) \cap B_1(Y)\}$ .

For a subset  $B \subseteq A$  we can obtain a subset  $f(B) \subseteq U$ , and then obtain a pair of subsets  $Lf(B)$  and  $Hf(B)$  as follows:

$$Lf(B) = \{|r(x)|; r(x) \subseteq f(B)\} = \{|r(x)|; r(x) \subseteq \{y; |r(y)| \in B\}\},$$

$$Hf(B) = \{|r(x)|; r(x) \cap f(B) \neq \emptyset\} = \{|r(x)|; \exists y \in r(x), |r(y)| \in B\}.$$

Then  $Lf, Hf : 2^A \rightarrow 2^A$  are called  $Lf$ -lower and  $Hf$ -upper approximation operators, respectively. And these two approximation operators give out the approximation representations of  $B$  in the granulated universe  $A$ .

So for any  $B, C \subseteq A$  we have the following properties:

$$(LHf1) \quad Hf(\emptyset) = \emptyset;$$

$$(LHf2) \quad Lf(A) = A;$$

$$(LHf3) \quad Lf(B^c) = (Hf(B))^c, \quad Hf(B^c) = (Lf(B))^c;$$

$$(LHf4) \quad Lf(B \cap C) = Lf(B) \cap Lf(C), \\ Hf(B \cap C) \subseteq Hf(B) \cap Hf(C);$$

$$(LHf5) \quad Lf(B \cup C) \supseteq Lf(B) \cup Lf(C), \\ Hf(B \cup C) = Hf(B) \cup Hf(C);$$

$$(LHf6) \quad B \subseteq C \Rightarrow Lf(B) \subseteq Lf(C), \quad Hf(B) \subseteq Hf(C);$$

$$(LHf7) \quad \text{Let } B_2(B) = Hf(B) - Lf(B), \text{ then } B_2(B^c) = B_2(B).$$

If  $r$  is serial,  $Lf(\emptyset) = \emptyset$  and  $Hf(A) = A$ ; if  $r$  is reflexive, we have  $Lf(B) \subseteq B \subseteq Hf(B)$ .

For any  $X \subseteq U$  and  $B \subseteq A$ , by the different combinations of  $f$  and  $(L, H)$  we can get

$$fL(f(B)) = f(Lf(B)),$$

$$Lf(L(X)) = L(fL(X)).$$

Therefore, we can easily get

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space. If  $r$  is a similarity relation, for any  $X \subseteq U$  we have*

$$(1) \quad L(fL(X)) = L(X);$$

$$(2) \quad H(fH(X)) = H(X).$$

*Proof.* Since  $r$  is reflexive,  $L(fL(X)) \subseteq L(X)$ . Conversely, take  $|r(x)| \in L(X)$ . Then  $r(x) \subseteq X$ . Since  $r$  is transitive, for any  $y \in r(x)$  we have  $r(y) \subseteq r(x)$ . Therefore  $|r(y)| \in L(X)$  and  $y \in fL(X)$ . By the arbitrariness of  $y$  we can get  $r(x) \subseteq fL(X)$ . Hence  $|r(x)| \in L(fL(X))$ , and  $L(X) \subseteq L(fL(X))$ . From which we get  $L(fL(X)) = L(X)$ . By (LHf3) we can prove (2).

However, the following formulae may not hold:

$$fL(f(B)) = f(B),$$

$$fH(f(B)) = f(B).$$

*Example 2.* Suppose  $U = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}$ , and  $r$  is a similarity relation on  $U$  satisfying:  $r(x_1) = \{x_1, x_3, x_4\}$ ,  $r(x_2) = \{x_2\}$ ,  $r(x_3) = \{x_3, x_4\}$ ,  $r(x_4) = \{x_4\}$ ,  $r(x_5) = \{x_2, x_5\}$ . Then  $A = \{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_2)|, |r(x_3)|, |r(x_4)|, |r(x_5)|\}$ .

- (1) Take  $B = \{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_3)|\}$ , then  $f(B) = \{x_1, x_3\}$ , and  $L(f(B)) = L(\{x_1, x_3\}) = \emptyset$ . But  $fL(f(B)) = f(\emptyset) = \emptyset \neq f(B)$ .
- (2) Take  $B = \{|r(x_4)|, |r(x_5)|\}$ , then  $f(B) = \{x_4, x_5\}$ , and  $H(f(B)) = \{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_3)|, |r(x_4)|, |r(x_5)|\}$ . However  $fH(f(B)) = f(\{|r(x_1)|, |r(x_3)|, |r(x_4)|, |r(x_5)|\}) = \{x_1, x_3, x_4, x_5\} \neq f(B)$ .

**Proposition 5.** *Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space. If  $r$  is a similarity relation, then for any  $B \subseteq A$  we have*

- (1)  $Lf(Lf(B)) = Lf(B)$ ;
- (2)  $Hf(Hf(B)) = Hf(B)$ .

In addition, according to Propositions 1, 2 and properties of  $f$  we can get:

**Proposition 6.** *Let  $(U, r)$  be a generalized approximation space. If  $r$  is reflexive, then for any  $B, C \subseteq A$ ,*

- (1)  $Lf(B \cup C) = Lf(B) \cup Lf(C) \cup \underline{Z}_2(B, C)$ ; where  $\underline{Z}_2(B, C) = \{|r(x)|; r(x) \subseteq f(B \cup C), r(x) \subseteq B_2(B) \cap B_2(C)\}$ .
- (2)  $Hf(B \cap C) = Hf(B) \cap Hf(C) - \overline{Z}_2(B, C)$ ; where  $\overline{Z}_2(B, C) = \{|r(x)|; r(x) \cap f(B \cap C) = \emptyset, r(x) \subseteq B_2(B) \cap B_2(C)\}$ .

Literatures [7, 17] define lower and upper approximation operators for a generalized approximation space  $(U, R)$  with  $R$  being a binary relation on  $U$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{R}(X) &= \{x \in U; R_s(x) \subseteq X\}, \\ \overline{R}(X) &= \{x \in U; R_s(x) \cap X \neq \emptyset\}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $R_s(x)$  denotes the successor neighborhood of  $x$ . Obviously, for a generalized approximation space  $(U, r)$ ,  $fL(X) = \underline{r}(X)$  and  $fH(X) = \overline{r}(X)$ . Since we have studied properties of operators  $f$  and  $(L, H)$ , we can easily get properties of  $(\underline{r}(X), \overline{r}(X))$ .

## 4 Conclusion

Granular computing is a way of thinking that relies in our ability to perceive the real world under various grain sizes, to abstract and consider only those things that serve our present interest, and to switch among different granularities. In this paper, two kinds of operators have been introduced between a universe and a granulated universe based on a generalized binary relation. Connections between the elements of a universe and the elements of a granulated universe, as well as connections between computations in the two universes are investigated by two pairs of combination operators.

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