Towards Foundations of Fuzzy Utility: Taking Fuzziness into Account Naturally Leads to Intuitionistic Fuzzy Degrees

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1. Need to Help People Make Decisions

- In many practical situations, we need to make a decision.
- In other words, we need to select an alternative which is, for us, better than all other possible alternatives.
- If the set of alternatives is small, we can easily make such a decision: indeed,
 - we can easily compare each alternative with every other one, and,
 - based on these comparisons, decide which one is better.
- However, when the number of alternatives becomes large, we have trouble making decisions.



2. Need to Help People Make Decisions (cont-d)

- Even in simple situations, when we are looking for cereal in a supermarket:
 - there are usually so many selections
 - that we just ignore most of them and go with a familiar one instead of the optimal one.
- The situation is even more complicated if:
 - we are trying to make a decision not on behalf of ourselves,
 - but rather on behalf of a company or a community.



3. Need to Help People Make Decisions (cont-d)

- In this case, even comparing two alternatives is not easy:
 - it requires taking into account interests of different people involved,
 - so the decision making process becomes even more complicated.



4. Traditional Approach to Decision Making: the Notion of Utility

- The traditional approach to decision making was originally motivated by the idea of money.
- When money was invented, it was a revolutionary idea that made economic exchange much easier.
- Before money was invented, people exchanged goods by barter: chicken for a shirt, jewelry for boots, etc.
- Thus, to make a proper decision, every person needed to be able to compare every two items with each other:
 - how many chickens is this person willing to exchange for a shirt,
 - how many boots for a golden earing, etc.
- For n goods, we have $\frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2} \approx \frac{n^2}{2}$ possible pairs.

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- So, each person had to have in mind a table of $n^2/2$ numbers.
- With money as a universally accepted means of exchange, all the person needs to do is to decide:
 - for each of n items,
 - how much he or she is willing to pay for 1 unit.
- So, to successfully make decisions, it is sufficient to know n numbers the values of each of n items; then:
 - even when we want to barter,
 - we can easily decide how many chickens are worth a shirt:
 - it is sufficient to divide the price of a shirt by the price of a chicken.



- A similar idea can be used to compare different alternatives.
- All we need is to have a numerical scale, i.e., we need a 1-parametric family of "standard" alternatives
 - whose quality increases
 - with the increase in the value of the parameter.
- This can be the money amount.
- Alternatively, this can be the probability p of a lottery in which we get something very good.
- The larger the probability, the more preferable the lottery.



- Then, instead of comparing every alternative a with every other alternative, we simply compare:
 - every alternative with
 - alternatives on the selected scale.
- Thus, for each a, we find the numerical value of the standard alternative which is equivalent to a.
- This numerical value is known as the *utility* u(a) of a given alternative a.



- In terms of utility, an alternative a is better than the alternative a' if and only if u(a) > u(a'); thus:
 - once we have found the utility u(a) of each alternative,
 - then it is easy to predict which alternative the person will select:
 - he/she will select the alternative for which the utility u(a) is the largest possible.



9. How to Actually Find the Utility

- The fastest way to find the utility of a given alternative a based on binary comparisons is to use bisection.
- Usually, we have an a prior lower bound and an a priori upper bound for the desired utility u(a): $\underline{u} \leq u(a) \leq \overline{u}$.
- In other words, we know that the desired utility u(a) is somewhere in the interval $[\underline{u}, \overline{u}]$.
- In this procedure, we will narrow down this interval.
- Once an interval is given, we can:
 - compute its midpoint $\widetilde{u} = \frac{\underline{u} + \overline{u}}{2}$ and
 - compare a with the corresponding standard alternative $s(\widetilde{u})$.
- If a is exactly equivalent to $s(\widetilde{u})$, then $u(a) = \widetilde{u}$.



10. How to Actually Find the Utility (cont-d)

- However, such exact equivalences are rare; in most cases, we will find out that:
 - either a is better than $s(\widetilde{u})$; we will denote it by $s(\widetilde{u}) < a$; or
 - the standard alternative is better: $a < s(\widetilde{u})$.
- In the first case, the preference $s(\widetilde{u}) < a$ means that

$$\widetilde{u} < u(a)$$
.

- Thus, we know that $u(a) \in [\widetilde{u}, \overline{u}]$.
- In other words, we have a new interval containing the desired utility.
- We can obtain this new interval if we replace the previous lower bound \underline{u} with the new lower bound \widetilde{u} .



11. How to Actually Find the Utility (cont-d)

• In the second case, the preference $a < s(\widetilde{u})$ means that

$$u(a) < \widetilde{u}$$
.

- Thus, we know that $u(a) \in [\underline{u}, \widetilde{u}]$.
- In other words, we have a new interval containing the desired utility.
- We can obtain this new interval if we replace the previous upper bound \overline{u} with the new upper bound \widetilde{u} .
- In both cases, the width of the interval is decreased by a factor of 2.
- Then, we can repeat this procedure, and in k steps, we get u(a) with accuracy 2^{-k} .
- For example, in 7 steps, we get an accuracy of 1%.

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12. Need to Take Fuzziness into Account

- The above procedure works well if a person is absolutely sure about his/her preferences.
- In practice, we are often not 100% sure about our preferences.
- This is especially true when we compare alternatives of similar value.
- It is reasonable to describe this uncertainty in fuzzy terms.
- For example, if we use money as a standard scale, then for each alternative a,
 - instead of having a single amounts of money equivalent to this item,
 - we may have different amounts with different degree of certainty.

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13. Need to Take Fuzziness into Account (cont-d)

- In other words,
 - instead of the above crisp model, in which a person has an exact utility value u(a) for each a,
 - for each person and for each alternative a, we have a membership function $\mu_a(u)$,
 - this function describes, for each possible value u, to what extend s(u) is equivalent to a.



14. How to Elicit Fuzzy Utility: a Reasonable Idea

- We know how to elicit crisp utility u(a) of a given alternative a: we need to compare:
 - the alternative a
 - with different values u_0 of the scale.
- In the case of fuzzy utility, it is reasonable to apply the same procedure.
- The only difference is that:
 - now, since the utility value u(a) is fuzzy,
 - this comparison will not lead to a crisp "yes"-"no" answer;
 - instead, we will get a fuzzy answer the degree to which it is possible that a is better than u_0 ,
 - and, if needed, the degree to which it is possible that a is worse than u_0 .

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15. Remaining Open Problems

- In the crisp case, we can determine the utility value u(a) from the results of the user's comparisons.
- To deal with the more realistic fuzzy case, we need:
 - to extract the fuzzy utility
 - from the fuzzy answers to different comparisons.
- This is the question that we deal with in this talk.
- Interestingly, it turns out that in this context, intuitionistic fuzzy degrees naturally appear.
- In other words, instead of a single degree of confidence in each statement, we now get *two* degrees:
 - the degree to which this statement is true, and
 - the degree to which this statement is false.
- These degrees do not add up to 1.



16. What If We Compare the Alternative a with a Fixed Value u_0 on the Utility Scale?

- In the crisp case, each alternative a is equivalent to a single number u(a) on the utility scale.
- In general, the utility of an alternative is characterized:
 - not by a single number,
 - but rather with a membership function $\mu_a(u)$.
- This function describes, for each value u from the utility scale, to what extent a is equivalent to u.
- What will happen is we compare the alternative a to a value u_0 on the utility scale?
- In the crisp case, the changes that a is exactly equivalent to a_0 are slim.
- So, we have either $a < u_0$ or $u_0 < a$.

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17. What If We Compare a with u_0 (cont-d)

- Thus, we can ask whether a is better than u_0 , or we can ask whether u_0 is better than a.
- Whatever question we ask, we get the exact same information.
- Let us first consider the question of whether a is better than u_0 , i.e., whether $u_0 < a$.
- How can we extend this to the fuzzy case?
- It is convenient to take into account that:
 - while from math. viewpoint, < is a relation,
 - and in mathematics, relations usually treated differently than functions,
 - from the computational viewpoint, < a function.

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18. What If We Compare a with u_0 (cont-d)

- Similarly:
 - the addition + is a function that takes two numbers and returns a number which is their sum,
 - the relation < is a function that takes two numbers and returns a boolean value: true or false.
- Since < can be naturally treated as function:
 - the question of how to extend this to fuzzy
 - becomes a particular case of a more general question:
 - how to extend functions to fuzzy?
- This extension is well known, it is described by Zadeh's extension principle.
- Let us recall how this principle is usually derived.

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- Suppose that:
 - we have a function $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ of n realvalued variables, and
 - we have fuzzy information about the values x_1, \ldots, x_n
 - i.e., we know membership functions $\mu_1(x_1), \ldots, \mu_n(x_n)$ that describes our knowledge about the inputs x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- Based on this information, what do we know about $y = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$?
- Intuitively, Y is a possible value of the variable y if there exists values X_1, \ldots, X_n for which:
 - the value X_1 is a possible value of x_1 and ...
 - and X_n is a possible value of x_n
 - and $Y = f(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$.

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- We know the degrees $\mu_i(X_i)$ to which each each real number X_i is a possible values of the input x_i .
- We need to combine these degrees into our degree of confidence in a composite and-statement.
- For this, we can use an "and"-operation (t-norm).
- The simplest of them is min(a, b).
- Thus, for each (X_1, \ldots, x_n) for which $Y = f(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$, our degree of confidence is the above and-statement is

$$\min(\mu_1(X_1),\ldots,\mu_n(X_n)).$$

- The existential quantifier "there exists" is, in effect, an "or".
- It means that either this property is true for one tuple, or for another tuple, etc.

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21. Zadeh's Extension Principle (cont-d)

- Thus:
 - to find the degree to which the value Y is possible,
 - we need to apply an "or"-operation (t-conorm)
 - to the degrees of confidence of the corresponding "and"-statements.
- The simplest "or"-operation is $\max(a, b)$.
- Thus, we arrive at the following formula for the degree $\mu(Y)$ to which Y is a possible value of the variable y:

$$\mu(Y) = \max\{\min(\mu_1(X_1), \dots, \mu_n(X_n)) : f(X_1, \dots, X_n) = Y\}.$$

• This formula – first proposed by L. Zadeh himself – is known as Zadeh's extension principle.

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- In our case, we have a Boolean-valued function $f(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 < x_2)$ of n = 2 real-valued variables.
- We compare an alternative a with fuzzy utility $\mu_a(u)$ with a crisp value u_0 .
- Zadeh's extension principle takes the following form:
 - for the value y = "true", the degree $\mu_+(a < u_0)$ that the statement $a < u_0$ is true is equal to

$$\mu_{+}(a < u_0) = \max(\mu_a(u) : u < u_0);$$

- for the value y = "false", the degree $\mu_{-}(a < u_0)$ that the statement $a < u_0$ is false is equal to

$$\mu_{-}(a < u_0) = \max(\mu_a(u) : u \ge u_0).$$

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- In fuzzy logic negation is represented by 1-a.
- ullet Thus, our degree of believe that A is false is estimated as 1 minus degree that A is true.
- So, we should expect that $\mu_+(a < u_0) + \mu_-(a < u_0) = 1$.
- Let us show, however, that this is not the case.
- Indeed, let us consider a typical case when $\mu_a(u)$ is a fuzzy number, i.e., when for some value U:
 - the function $\mu_a(u)$ increases to 1 when $u \leq U$, and
 - this function decreases from 1 when $u \geq U$.
- When $u_0 < U$, then the function $\mu_a(u)$ is increasing for all $u < u_0$ and thus, $\mu_+(a < u_0) = \mu_a(u_0)$.
- On the other hand, since $u_0 < U$ and for u = U, we have $\mu_a(U) = 1$, we get $\mu_-(a < u_0) = 1$; thus:

$$\mu_{+}(a < u_0) + \mu_{-}(a < u_0) = 1 + \mu_a(u) \neq 1.$$

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24. Analyzing the Resulting Formulas (cont-d)

- The only exception is, of course, we consider absolutely impossible values u for which $\mu_a(u) = 0$.
- Similarly, when $u_0 \geq U$, then the function $\mu_a(u)$ is decreasing for all $u > u_0$ and thus,

$$\mu_{-}(a < u_0) = \mu_a(u_0).$$

- On the other hand, since $u_0 \ge U$ and for u = U, we have $\mu_a(U) = 1$, we get $\mu_+(a < u_0) = 1$.
- Thus, in this case too, we have

$$\mu_{+}(a < u_0) + \mu_{-}(a < u_0) = 1 + \mu_{a}(u) \neq 1.$$

• The only exception is absolutely impossible values u for which $\mu_a(u) = 0$.



25. So, We Get Intuitionistic Fuzzy Degrees

- In the traditional fuzzy logic:
 - the sum of degrees to which each statement is true and to which this same statement is false
 - is always equal to 1.
- This means that when we compare alternatives, we get beyond the traditional fuzzy logic.
- How can we describe where we are?
- This is not the only case when the degrees of confidence in a statement and in its negation do not add up to 1.
- To describe such cases, K. Atanassov came up with an idea of *intuitionistic fuzzy logic*.



26. Intuitionistic Fuzzy Degrees (cont-d)

- In this logic, for each statement, we have *two* degrees:
 - the degree to which this statement is true, and
 - the degree to which this statement is false.
- These degrees do not necessarily add to 1.
- So, the result of comparing two alternatives is an intuitionistic fuzzy degree.



27. What We Got Is Somewhat Different From Intuitionistic Fuzzy Logic

- There is a minor difference between what we observe and the traditional intuitionistic fuzzy logic:
 - in the intuitionistic fuzzy logic, the sum of positive and negative degrees is always ≤ 1 , while
 - in our case, the sum is always greater than or equal to 1.
- However, such (minor) generalization of intuitionistic fuzzy logic has been proposed in the past.
- We can reconcile the results of comparing alternatives with the traditional intuitionstic fuzzy logic.
- Indeed, in general, Zadeh's extension principle, we compute the degree to which y is a possible value.
- In particular, $\mu_+(a < u_0)$ is the degree to which is is possible that $a < u_0$.

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- Instead, we consider degrees $n_{+}(a < u_0)$ and $n_{-}(a < u_0)$ u_0) to which it is necessary that $a < u_0$ and that $a \ge u_0$.
- They can be defined, as usual, as 1 minus the degree to which the opposite statement is possible.
- Then, we get

that $a \geq u_0$.

 $n_{+}(a < u_0) = 1 - \mu_{-}(a < u_0)$ and $n_{-}(< u_0) = 1 - \mu_{+}(a < u_0)$.

• From the fact that $\mu_+(a < u_0) + \mu_-(a < u_0) \ge 1$, we can now conclude that

 $n_{+}(a < u_{0}) + n_{-}(a < u_{0}) = 2 - (\mu_{+}(a < u_{0}) + \mu_{-}(a < u_{0})) < 1.$

• Thus, the degrees of necessity are consistent with the traditional intuionistic fuzzy logic.

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29. Reconstructing the Original Membership F-n from the Results of Expert Elicitation

- We assume that the expert's preferences are described by a membership function $\mu_a(u_0)$.
- As we have mentioned, as a result of expert elicitation, we do not get this function.
- Instead, we get instead a more complex construct, in which for each possible value u_0 , we get two degrees:

$$\mu_{+}(a < u_0)$$
 and $\mu_{-}(a < u_0)$.

• Interestingly, from these degrees, we can uniquely reconstruct the original membership function.



Reconstructing the Original Membership Func-30. tion (cont-d)

- Indeed, as have shown:
 - when $u_0 \leq U$, then we have $\mu_+(a < u_0) = \mu_a(u_0)$ and $\mu_{-}(a < u_0) = 1$; and
 - when when $u_0 \geq U$, then we have $\mu_-(a < u_0) =$ $\mu_a(u_0)$ and $\mu_+(a < u_0) = 1$.
- In both cases, we thus have

$$\mu_a(u_0) = \min(\mu_+(a < u_0), \mu_-(a < u_0)).$$

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31. Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by:

- the Perkins Grant administered by the Grants Management Office of the El Paso Community College and
- by the US National Science Foundation grant HRD-1242122.

