# INTRODUCTION TO MULTICRITERIA DECISION ANALYSIS (MCDA)

04 – Fuzzy Analytical Hierarchical Process (FAHP) Fellipe Martins





Today we are going to explore the most famous method in MCDA (probably) – the Analytical Hierarchical Process (AHP).

I hope you had time to read the corresponding materials, and let's dive in!

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**RECAP** Let's take a look on what we already saw in previous classes

**AHP** Understading the method and its mechanics

**PRACTICE** We will practice two ways of performing AHP in Google Sheets

**SUPERDECISIONS** Short tutorial on the best free software for AHP

**RESEARCH TIME** Let's evaluate how to build an introduction to an MCDA paper TABLE OF CONTENTS



#### Recap

- As is the set of alternatives  $(A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\})$ .
- These alternatives can be analyzed through a set of orderable criteria X<sub>g</sub>: (<<sub>g</sub>, X<sub>g</sub>).
- Each criterion g(a) may be used in a quantitative way to inform us about its importance
- Criteria can thus be compared g(a) > g(b).
- Comparisons can take many forms, according to each method (dominance): preference (strict or pure versus weak), indifference, or incomparability.
- In most methods, we can also gauge the intensity or degree of preference.
- Given that  $g_1(a), \dots, g_n(a)$  and  $g_1(b), \dots, g_n(b)$ , a logic of aggregation will somehow compare both alternatives
- Other inter-criterion and technical parameters (weights, scales, constraints, etc.) can also be parts of the method.





### Recap - AHP

- As is the set of alternatives  $(A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\})$ .
- The ratio between criteria ( $C_1$  and  $C_2$ ) or alternatives ( $A_1$  and  $A_2$ ) is inferred from the Saaty Scale (1 = equal value or  $C_1 = C_2$ ; 9 = absolute difference, or  $C_1$  is absolutely  $> C_2$ ).
- The reciprocals (or inverse) of any  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$  ratio is 1/r with r being the ratio in the Saaty Scale.
- In its simplest (but not classical) form by averaging and normalizing each row (and there are more than one way of doing these two steps).
- Alternatives and criteria are non-distinguishable in the calculations, alternatives being the bottom level in the hierarchy.
- As such alternatives are optional.
- This method allows ranking of alternatives, and obtaining ranking / weights of criteria.





## FUZZY ANALYTICAL HIERARCHICAL PROCESS (FAHP)

A nice extension to AHP



# What does FAHP stand for?

FAHP stands for *Fuzzy* Analytic Hierarchy Process.

Here we are going to learn the **Chang Extent Analysis Method** (as there are other FAHP approaches).

It is an extension of the traditional AHP method, but with a twist – changing the base of calculations from real (usually discrete/continuous) numbers to fuzzy numbers.

- Discrete (1, 2, 3, 4, ....)
- Continuous (1.567, 3.917, 9.348, ...)

But what are fuzzy numbers?





Fuzzy numbers are a generalization of real numbers, **but** accounting for uncertainty and vagueness.

Let's compare them to real numbers:

- A number "4" is precise in the sense that 3.9999999 is not 4 and 4.0000001 is also not 4.
- But *in practice* we could *assume* they are equal to 4 because they are within a range of *acceptability*.
- This is wrong in math (all of them are, indeed, different numbers), but from an engineering perspective it could be understood as "tolerance", "margin of error", etc.

In a way, fuzzy numbers allow numbers to be more than "one-dimensional", and to accept a range of acceptable values.





A fuzzy number M is an element of F(R) - i.e., M is a fuzzy set over the real number R.

#### **Definition 1**

- $x_o \in R$  exists such that  $\mu_M(x_o) = 1$ , i.e.,
- This means that there is a specific point  $x_o$  where the **membership function**  $\mu_M(x)$  reaches **its maximum value of 1**.
- In simple terms, there is (at least) one most "true" value for the fuzzy number.





This means that for each real number, there is at least one point where it is optimally member of the fuzzy set.

- The real number 6 can be understood as a fuzzy number 6, 6, 6 (i.e., 6  $\pm$  0).
- The real number 4 can be understood as a fuzzy number ranging from values under and over 4 (here, 4  $\pm$  1).

Triangular Fuzzy Numbers with a Crisp Value (6,6,6)







This simple explanation serves to introduce the notion of *membership*, i.e, while a fuzzy number typically refers to a range, the numbers in the range vary in terms of membership to the real number to which they refer to.

Since membership varies from 0 - 1, a fuzzy number 2, 3, 4, refering to the real number 3 has the maximum membership (it reaches 1 at the membership function) at the peak of 3 (i.e., there is is the closer to the real mccoy).

This  $\mu$  function (membership) is an indicator of how much a real number belongs to the fuzzy number [0, 1].

- $\mu_M(x) = 1$  it means it is fully valid
- $\mu_M(x) = 0.5$  it means it is partially valid
- $\mu_M(x) = 0$  it means it is fully outside the fuzzy range





Let's imagine we are programmers and we are tasked to define the range of temperatures for air conditioners.

We need to use verbal descriptors to match the actual degrees in the physical AC system.

#### What is "hot"?

- Given that the AC can produce temperatures from 16 to 30 how would you define hot?
- Warm could be a a fuzzy number ranging from 25° C to the maximum 30° C.
- However, here in Brazil 25° C is kind of starting to become hot but it really is hot to our perception when it gets closer to 30° C.
- Thus, all real numbers from 25-30 can be considered hot, however the nearer they are to 30 the more they truly "belong" to "hot".





For any  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , the  $\alpha$ -cut  $A_{\alpha}$  forms a closed interval

• The  $\alpha$ -cut represents the set of values where the membership function is greater than or equal to  $A_{\alpha}$ :

$$A_{\alpha} = [x, \mu_A(x) \ge \alpha]$$

- This ensures that **fuzzy numbers behave in a structured way**, forming intervals rather than arbitrary sets.
- Eg.: in the AC case, "warm" ranges from 25-30 but it could go on forever, as long as for each real value is greater or equal to the previous one: 25 → 25.5 → 27 → 30 → 120







So far, we have seen **Triangular Fuzzy Numbers (TFNs)** and in the last slide trapezoidal ones, but fuzzy numbers can take several shapes (after all, they are functions or distributions):



We are going to use TFNs only today.





#### **Definition 2**

A triangular fuzzy number M is defined by three values:

$$M = (l, m, u)$$

where:

• *l* (lower bound): The smallest possible value in the fuzzy set.

• m (mode): The most representative or "true" value, where  $\mu_M(x) = 1$ .

• u (**upper bound**): The largest possible value in the fuzzy set.

These values must be monotonic, i.e.,  $l \le m \le u$ . This makes real numbers a subcase of fuzzy numbers (as (3, 3, 3) = 3





#### Definition 2

Triangular fuzzy numbers can take many forms









We will use the following Scale for the examples today (as per Chang, 1996).

However, there is some criticism for the crisp treatment of the cut offs (1,1,1 and 9,9,9 do now allow imprecisions or vagueness).

The relative importance of the two sub-	Fuzzy		
elements	triangular		
Equally important	111		
intermediate value between 1 and 3	123		
Slightly important	234		
intermediate value between 3 and 5	3 4 5		
Important	456		
intermediate value between 5 and 7	567		
Strongly important	678		
intermediate value between 7and	789		
Extremely important	999		





The **membership function**  $\mu_M(x)$  follows this piecewise formula:

$$\mu_M(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-l}{m-l}, & x \in [l,m] \\ \frac{u-x}{u-m}, & x \in [m,u] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

What does this mean?

- If x is between l and m, the function increases linearly from 0 to 1.
- If x is between m and u, the function decreases linearly from 1 to 0.
- If x is outside [l, u], the membership is 0 (completely outside the fuzzy set).





Consider we have two TFNs  $M_1 = (l_1, m_1, u_1), \quad M_2 = (l_2, m_2, u_2)$ 

We can have the following operations:

$$(l_1, m_1, u_1) \oplus (l_2, m_2, u_2) = (l_1 + l_2, m_1 + m_2, u_1 + u_2)$$
  

$$(l_1, m_1, u_1) \odot (l_2, m_2, u_2) \approx (l_1 l_2, m_1 m_2, u_1 u_2)$$
  

$$(\lambda, \lambda, \lambda) \odot (l_1, m_1, u_1) = (\lambda l_1, \lambda m_1, \lambda u_1)_{\text{where}} \quad \lambda > 0, \lambda \in R.$$
  

$$(l_1, m_1, u_1)^{-1} \approx (1/u_1, 1/m_1, 1/l_1)$$

Notice that the in the reciprocals we **invert the order** from  $l_1 < m_1 < u_1$  to  $1/u_1 < 1/m_1 < 1/l_1$  otherwise it would violate the monotonicity rule in TFNs.



According to Chang's method, the next step is to find the **Fuzzy Synthetic Extent Value** (S<sub>i</sub>).

This  $S_i$  is not the final weight or rank of the alternative, but rather an intermediate value that helps in the computation.

$$S_i = \sum_{j=1}^m M_j^i \times \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m M_j^i\right)^{-1}$$

In a way, it is similar to what we did in the AHP procedure (summing rows and normalizing them) but now we are doing this using TFNs.

In this formula  $M_j^i = (l_j^i, m_j^i, u_j^i)$  is a TFN that aggregates the evaluation of each criterion  $G_j$  for each alternative  $X_i$ .



Now, given any two TFNs, we need to compare them, right?

The problem is we cannot directly compare TFNs, because they can overlap entirely, partially or one cover the other.

We can infer relationships between two TFNs by using the **Degree of Possibility** – i.e., the likelihood of a TFN being greater than another.





I hope these two figures will help you understand the intuition behind the degree of possibility (formulae on the next slide).







We can indirectly estimate the **degree of possibility** (i.e., how likely is a TFN be greater than another).

 $V(M_1 \ge M_2) = \sup[\min(\mu_{M_1}(x), \mu_{M_2}(y))]$  where  $\mu_M(x)$  is the **membership function**.

For two fuzzy numbers  $M_1 = (l_1, m_1, u_1), \quad M_2 = (l_2, m_2, u_2)$  the degree of possibility is:

$V(M_1 \ge M_2) = 1  \text{iff } m_1 \ge m_2$	$(M_1$ is clearly greater)			
$V(M_2 \ge M_1) = hgt(M_1 \cap M_2)$	(Partial overlap)			
$l_1 - u_2$				

$$V(M_2 \ge M_1) = \frac{l_1 - u_2}{(m_2 - u_2) - (m_1 - l_1)}$$

This formula gives us a degree of possibility of  $M_1 \ge M_2$  (for instance, 0, 0.25, 0.56, up to 1)



#### Case 1:

If  $m_1 \ge m_2 \rightarrow V(M_1 \ge M_2)$ , this means  $M_1$  is always greater than  $M_2$ .

• Example:

 $M_1 = (4, 6, 8), M_2 = (2, 5, 7)$ 

 $\bullet$  Since  $m_1=6~{\rm and}~m_2=5$  , we conclude  $M_1$  is greater.

• Degree of Possibility = 1 (100% sure that  $M_1 \ge M_2$ ).





#### Case 2

If  $l_2 \ge u_1 \rightarrow$  compute using the formula:  $V(M_1 \ge M_2) = \frac{(l_2 - u_1)}{(m_1 - u_1) - (m_2 - l_2)}$ 

This happens when  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  have partial overlap

Example:  $M_1 = (3, 5, 7), M_2 = (6, 8, 10)$ 

Here,  $l_2 = 6$  and  $u_1 = 7$ , so there is **partial overlap**.

$$V(M_1 \ge M_2) = \frac{(6-7)}{(5-7) - (8-6)} = \frac{-1}{-2-2} = \frac{-1}{-4} = 0.25$$

**Degree of Possibility = 0.25** (meaning  $M_1$  is 25% likely to be greater than  $M_2$ ).





#### Actually....

You can compute all  $V(M_1 \ge M_2)$  using the formula:

$$V(M_1 \ge M_2) = \frac{(l_2 - u_1)}{(m_1 - u_1) - (m_2 - l_2)}$$

However, the results will be numbers ranging from 0, but going *over* 1.

And since the maximum value has to be 1, all you have to do is convert any  $V(M_1 \ge M_2) \ge 1$  to 1.

Eg.:  $V(M_1 \ge M_2) = 1.206 \rightarrow 1$ 





Ok, so far, we have seen how to compare two TFNs but let's face it – it would be a very limited model if we had only two values to model a problem.

Now we need to compare more than two TFNs:

 $V(M_1 \ge M_2) \rightarrow V(M \ge M_1, M_2, \dots, M_k)$ 

• We want to determine how likely a fuzzy number *M* is to be greater than all other fuzzy numbers.

• The equation

 $V(M \ge M_1, M_2, \dots, M_k) = \min V(M \ge M_i), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ 

means that the degree of possibility for M to be greater than all other fuzzy numbers is given by the minimum possibility when comparing it to each individual  $M_i$ .





#### Why take the minimum?

• If M is definitely greater than all others, its lowest comparison score still must be high.

• If even one comparison is low, then  $\boldsymbol{M}$  is not strongly dominant.

If  ${\rm V}(M_1\geq M_2)=0.5$  then  $M_1$  is 0.5 more likely to be be better than  $M_2.$ 

And if  $V(M_1 \ge M_3) = 0$  then it is definitely not better than  $M_3$ .

So, it is highly unlikely that  $M_1$  is the best option, since its lowest (min value) is 0.





This gets clearer in the next formula:

 $d\prime(A_i) = \min V(S_i \ge S_k), \quad \text{for } k \ne i$ 

- 1. The weight for each alternative takes into consideration the **worst-case comparison**.
- 2. If an alternative is **weak in even one comparison**, it lowers its overall ranking.

#### Intuition:

• If  $A_i$  is always better than the others, its lowest comparison score will be high.

• If  $A_i$  is worse in even one case, it will be ranked lower.





Once we have  $d\prime(A_i)$  for all alternatives, we construct the weight vector:

 $W' = (d'(A_1), d'(A_2), \dots, d'(A_n))^T$ 

- This stores the relative dominance of each alternative.
- Higher values mean better ranking.

• However, this is not yet normalized, meaning it doesn't sum to 1.





To ensure that the weights sum to **1**, we normalize them:

 $W = (d(A_1), d(A_2), \dots, d(A_n))^T$ 

where:

$$d(A_i) = \frac{d\prime(A_i)}{\sum d\prime(A_j)}$$

This ensures that:

 $\sum W = 1$ 





### Hands-on approach

Let's try this on Google Sheets (same spreadsheet as before):

1.1 R	emember	that there	e is a sp	ecial rul	e for the	e recipro	ocals - s	ae forr	
		~			-			-	
	,	C1			C2			C3	
C1	10	10	10	20	<i>m</i> 3.0	4.0	1 0.3	m	
C2	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.0	4.0	2.0		
C3	1.0	2.0	3.0	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0		
	1.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	110		
2 Obt	ain Si								
2.1 S	um the rov	vs (by <i>u,i</i>	n,l)						
2.2 S	um the col	umns (b	y <b>u,m,l</b> )						
2.3 Calculate the reciprocals									
2.4 M	ultiply by t	he origin	al sum c	of the ro	ws				
		C1			C2			C3	
	1	m	u	1	<i>m</i>	u	1	m	
C1	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	0.3		
C2	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0		
C3	1.0	2.0	3.0	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0		
3 Dec	aree of po	ssibilitv							
3.1 Te	est every r	elationsh	ip both v	vavs (A	> B: E	3> A)			
3.2 V	(m1>=m2)	= 1; oth	erwise u	se form	ula				
	,,								

0.370 0.356 0.2







## Hands-on approach

- This is a paid but with a free demo version of an implementation of FAHP:
- https://onlineoutput.com/fuzzy-ahp-demo/









## Hands-on approach

- This is a simple app I developed on the weekend.
- It will be taken offline by the end of this course.
- I did not test exhaustively so use it with caution!
- Also, I appreciate feedback (especially if you find errors).
- https://fuzzy-ahp-tool-fellipesilva3.replit.app/



- I have hosted on my GitHub so you can use it later on your own:
- https://github.com/fellipemartins/Enhanced-Fuzzy-AHP-Calculator





### ARGUING FOR MCDA PAPERS

Methods are slaves to theory

Multicriteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) is often associated with engineering, operations research, and technical decision-making.

However, in management studies, especially those focusing on strategy, organizational behavior, policy, and decision-making, MCDA is equally valuable.

The need to argue for MCDA in management research stems from several key challenges:

- 1. Overcoming the perception that MCDA is only for quantitative or technical problems
- 2. Addressing the complexity and uncertainty in management decisions
- 3. Strengthening theoretical contributions in management studies
- 4. Providing decision support in non-technical fields
- 5. Enhancing managerial decision-making beyond heuristics and intuition

1. Overcoming the Perception That MCDA is Only for Quantitative or Technical Problems

#### Why is this important?

- Management studies often incorporate qualitative judgments, subjective assessments, and social factors that are difficult to quantify.
- Many scholars may view MCDA as too rigid or numerical for topics related to leadership, strategy, governance, or organizational behavior.

- MCDA is not purely quantitative: Many MCDA methods (e.g., MACBETH, fuzzy AHP, PAPRIKA) allow for qualitative judgments to be structured and transformed into more robust decision models.
- MCDA accommodates expert judgment: It systematically integrates subjective evaluations, making it ideal for studying managerial and strategic decision-making.
- **Example Argument:** "While strategic decision-making is often qualitative, MCDA enables us to structure and prioritize subjective criteria, making the decision process more transparent and replicable."

2. Addressing the Complexity and Uncertainty in Management Decisions

#### Why is this important?

- Many management studies involve **uncertainty**, **multiple stakeholders**, and **conflicting criteria** all of which are central to MCDA.
- Traditional decision-making approaches (e.g., case studies, surveys) may lack the **systematic** comparison and trade-off analysis that MCDA provides.

- MCDA helps manage complexity: It allows for structured decision-making in uncertain and multicriteria environments.
- MCDA goes beyond intuition: Instead of relying solely on heuristics or expert opinion, it provides a formalized decision framework.
- **Example Argument:** "Organizational change involves balancing financial, cultural, and operational trade-offs. MCDA enables a structured comparison of these factors, reducing the reliance on intuition and improving decision transparency."

#### 3. Strengthening Theoretical Contributions in Management Studies

#### Why is this important?

- Many management papers focus on conceptual frameworks without empirical validation of construct importance.
- MCDA offers a structured way to test and refine theoretical models, enhancing their empirical robustness.

- MCDA refines theory: By weighting criteria and analyzing sensitivity, researchers can refine theoretical constructs and ensure they are empirically grounded.
- MCDA improves replicability: Instead of relying solely on qualitative arguments, researchers can quantify and justify construct importance.
- **Example Argument:** "Existing leadership theories suggest multiple drivers of effective decisionmaking, but their relative importance remains unclear. Using MCDA, we systematically prioritize these factors based on empirical data, enhancing the theoretical model's robustness."

4. Providing Decision Support in Non-Technical Fields

#### Why is this important?

- Many managerial decisions (e.g., strategy, policy, governance) are **subjective and value-laden**, yet they still require **a structured decision-making process**.
- MCDA allows scholars to formalize decisions in areas not traditionally considered 'technical'.

- MCDA is applicable to social sciences: It helps structure and evaluate trade-offs in decision-making fields like ethics, governance, and organizational behavior.
- **MCDA allows stakeholder inclusion**: By explicitly considering different viewpoints, it improves fairness and legitimacy in decision-making.
- **Example Argument:** "Sustainability decisions in corporate governance involve balancing economic, social, and environmental priorities. MCDA provides a transparent framework for integrating these dimensions and aligning them with strategic objectives."

5. Enhancing Managerial Decision-Making Beyond Heuristics and Intuition

#### Why is this important?

- Management decisions are often made under time constraints, bias, and cognitive limitations.
- Traditional methods (e.g., case studies, surveys, qualitative models) do not always capture or mitigate biases in decision-making.

- MCDA improves decision quality: It forces decision-makers to explicitly define criteria, reducing cognitive biases.
- MCDA enhances transparency: It provides a formal methodology that justifies decisions rather than relying on intuition.
- **Example Argument:** "Boards of directors often make strategic decisions based on heuristics and past experience. MCDA introduces a structured evaluation that mitigates bias and ensures a more comprehensive assessment."







#### REFERENCES

Today's content was mainly based on

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- Greco, S., Figueira, J., & Ehrgott, M. (Eds.). (2016). Multiple criteria decision analysis: state of the art surveys. New York, Springer.
- Forman, E. H., & Selly, M. A. (2001). Decision by objectives: how to convince others that you are right. World Scientific.



#### FOOD FOR THOUGHT

This is an excerpt from (p. 297):

• Doxiadis, A., Papadimitriou, C., Papadatos, A., & Di Donna, A. (2022). Logicomix. Vuibert.

## THANKS

Does anyone have any questions? Contact me at:

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