

IS 301 DECISION SUPPORT SYSTEMS

DECISION SUPPORT SYSTEMS AND INTELLIGENT SYSTEMS,  
Seventh Edition

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# Chapter 1

## **DECISION-MAKING SYSTEMS, MODELING, AND SUPPORT**

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# DECISION-MAKING SYSTEMS, MODELING, AND SUPPORT

## Learning Objectives

- Understand the **conceptual foundations** of decision-making
- Understand the systems **approach**
- Understand the **phases** of decision-making: **intelligence**, **design**, **choice**, and **implementation**
- Differentiate between the concepts of **making a choice** and establishing a **principle of choice**
- Recognize how decision style, cognition (reasoning), management style, personality, and other factors **influence** decision-making

# DECISION-MAKING

- Decision-making is a process of **choosing among alternative** courses of action for the purpose of attaining a **goal or goals**.
- According to Simon (1977), managerial decision-making is synonymous with the whole process of management.
- Consider the important managerial function of planning that **involves** a series of decisions:
  - What should be **done? When? Where? Why? How? By whom?**
  - Managers set **goals**, or **plan**; hence, planning **implies** decision-making.

# DECISION-MAKING AND PROBLEM-SOLVING

- A problem **occurs** when a system **does not meet its goals, predicted results**, or does **not** work as planned.
- **Problem-solving** may also deal with identifying **new opportunities**.
- Differentiating the **terms** decision-making and problem-solving can be **confusing**.
- One way to **distinguish** between the two is to examine the phases of the decision process:  

(1) **intelligence**, (2) **design**, (3) **choice**, (4) **implementation**.
- Some consider (phases 1-4) as **problem-solving**, with the **choice** phase as the real **decision-making**.
- Others view phases 1-3 as formal decision-making **ending** with a **recommendation**. Problem-solving includes the actual implementation of the recommendation (phase 4).

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

Decision-making is directly **influenced** by several major disciplines, some behavioral and some scientific in nature.

**Behavioral** disciplines include :

1. Anthropology
2. Law
3. Philosophy
4. Political science
5. Psychology
6. Social psychology
7. Sociology

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

Decision-making is directly **influenced** by several major disciplines, some behavioral and some scientific in nature.

**Scientific** disciplines include :

1. Computer science
2. Decision analysis
3. Economics
4. Engineering
5. Hard sciences: biology, chemistry, physics, etc.
6. Management science/operations research
7. Mathematics
8. Statistics.

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

- Each discipline has its **own set** of **assumptions** about reality and **methods**. Also **contributes** a unique, **valid** view of how **people make decisions**. Finally, there is a lot of **variation** in successful decision in practice.
- A **system** is a **collections** of objects such as people, resources, concepts, and procedures **intended to perform** an identifiable function or to serve a **goal**.

For example, a university is a system of students, faculty, staff, administrators, buildings, equipment, ideas, and rules with the goal of educating students, producing **research**, and providing **service** to the community .

- The interconnections and interactions among the subsystems are called **interfaces**.

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

## THE STRUCTURE OF A SYSTEM

- **Systems** (Figure 2.1) are divided into three distinct parts: **inputs**, **processes**, and **outputs**. They are surrounded by an environment and often include a **feedback** mechanism. In addition, a **human decision-maker** is considered part of the system.
- **INPUTS** : Inputs are elements that **enter** the system. Examples of inputs are **raw materials** entering a chemical plant, **students** admitted to a university, and **data** input into a Web page for a database query.



# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

## FEEDBACK

- There is a **flow** of information from the **output** component to the decision-maker concerning the system's output or Performance.
- The decision-maker **compares** the outputs to the expected outputs and adjusts the inputs and possibly the processes to move closer to the output targets.

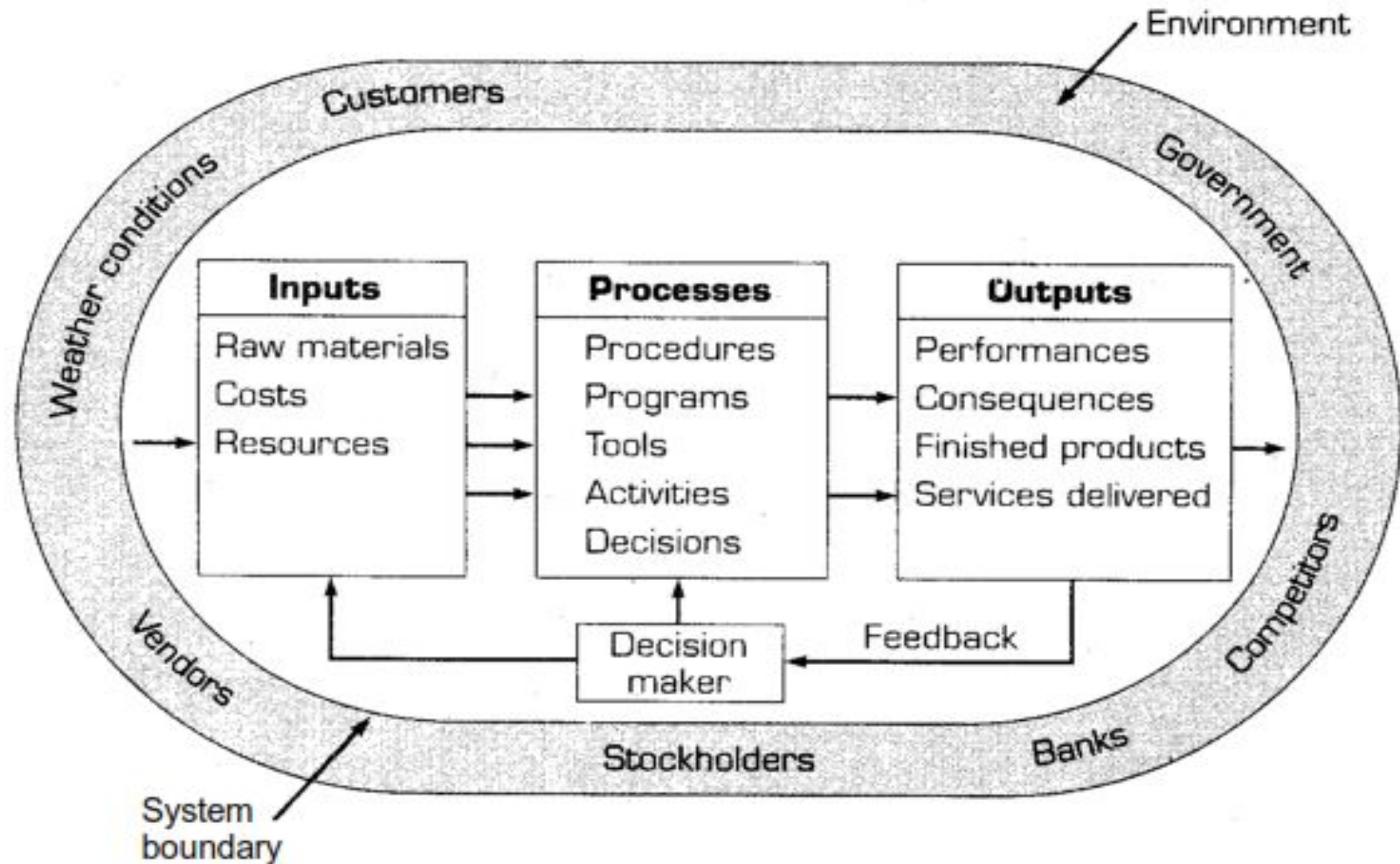
# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

## THE ENVIRONMENT

The environment of the system is **composed** of several elements that lie **outside** it. One way to identify the elements of the environment is by posing two:

- Does the element matter **relative** to the system's goals?
- Is it possible for the decision-maker to significantly **manipulate** this element?
- If and only if the **answer** to the first question is **yes**, and the answer to the second is **no**, is the element in the environment. Environmental elements can be **social**, **political**, legal **physical**, or **economic**. Often they consist of other systems.

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES



# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

## PROCESSES

- Processes are all the elements necessary to **convert** or **transform** inputs into outputs. For example, a process in a chemical plant may include **heating** the materials. In a university, a process may include holding classes, doing library work, and Web searching.

## OUTPUTS

- Outputs are the **finished products** or the consequences of being in the system. For example, **fertilizers** are one output of a chemical plant, **educated people** are one output of a university..

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

## THE BOUNDARY

- A system is separated from its environment by a **boundary**. The system is **inside** the boundary, whereas the environment lies **outside**.
- A boundary can be physical (defined by Building ,skin,..), or it can be some nonphysical factor (time, pollution, ..)

The boundary of an information system, especially a decision support system, is by **design**. Boundaries are related to the concepts of closed and open systems.

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

## CLOSED AND OPEN SYSTEMS

- A **closed** system is totally **independent**, whereas an **open** system is very **dependent** on its **environment**.
- An open system accepts **inputs** (information, energy, materials) from the **environment** and may deliver **outputs to** the environment.
- When determining the **impact of decisions**:
  - Open system, we must determine its **relationship** with the **environment** and with **other** systems.
  - **Closed** system, we **need not do** this because the system is considered to be **isolated**.
- A special **type** of closed system called a **black box** is one in which inputs and outputs are **well defined**, but the **process** itself **is not** specified

# DECISION-MAKING DISCIPLINES

- Decision-support systems attempt to **deal** with systems that are **fairly open**.

Factor	Management Science: EOQ (economic order quantity) (Closed System)	Inventory DSS (Open System)
Demand – الطلب	Constant	Variable-influenced by many factors
Unit cost – التكلفة	Constant	May change daily
Lead time- المهلة	Constant	Variable, difficult to predict
Vendors and users - الباعة والمستخدمين	Excluded from analysis	May be included in analysis
Weather and other environmental factors	Ignored	May influence demand and lead time

# SYSTEM EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY

Systems are **evaluated** and **analyzed** in terms of two major performance measures: **effectiveness** and **efficiency**.

- **Effectiveness** **فعالية** is the degree to which **goals** are **achieved**. It is therefore concerned with the **outputs** of a system (e.g., total sales or earnings per share – **ربحية السهم**).
- **Efficiency** **كفاءة** is a measure of the **use of inputs** (or resources) to **achieve outputs** (e.g., how much money is used to generate a certain level of sales).

Peter Drucker proposed

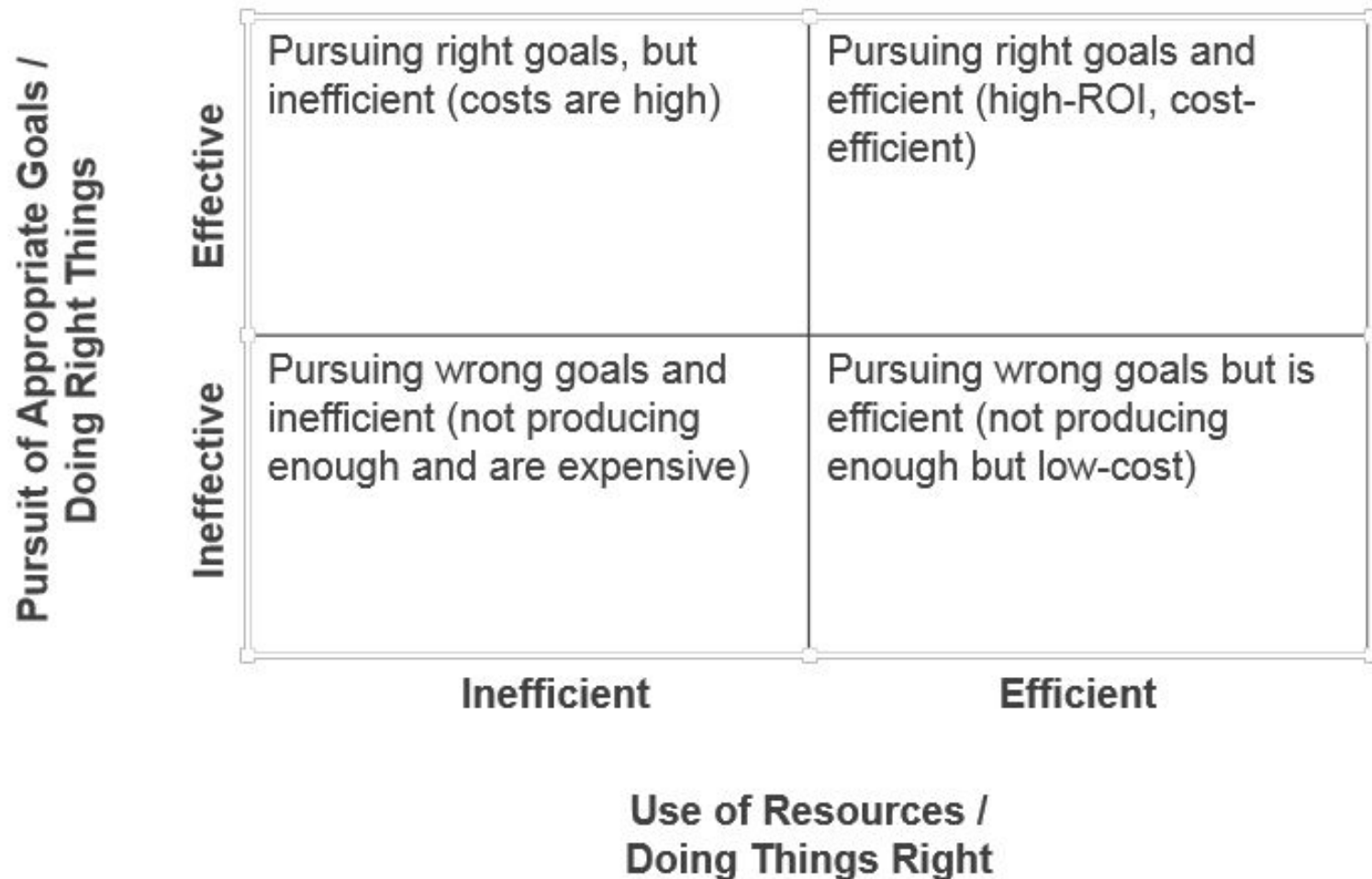
- Effectiveness **is doing the right thing.**
- Efficiency **is doing the thing right**



## SYSTEM EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY

- Companies usually **seek to increase** and **improve** the **efficiency** of their operations and sales processes. After all, when working with limited resources, they would prefer to **maximize** the use of each of these resources, from budget and technology to time and sales reps.
- However, by **pursuing** efficiency at all costs (irony intended), some of these companies are **missing** a valuable chance to take a step back and look at their overall **effectiveness** from a big picture perspective.

# SYSTEM EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY



## SYSTEM EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY

So, **emphasis** on the **effectiveness**, or "goodness," of the decision produced, **rather** than on the computational **efficiency** of obtaining it-usually a major concern of a transaction processing system.

# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

- An information system **collects, processes, stores, analyzes,** and **disseminates** information **for a specific purpose.**
- Information systems are at the **heart** of most organizations. For example, **banks** and **airlines** would be **unable to function** without their information systems.
- The basic idea is to perform the DSS analysis on a **model** of reality rather than on the **real system**. A model is a **simplified** representation or abstraction of reality.

# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

The models are **classified**, based on their **degree of abstraction**, as **iconic**, **analog**, or **mathematical**, or simulation

## 1-ICONIC (SCALE) MODELS

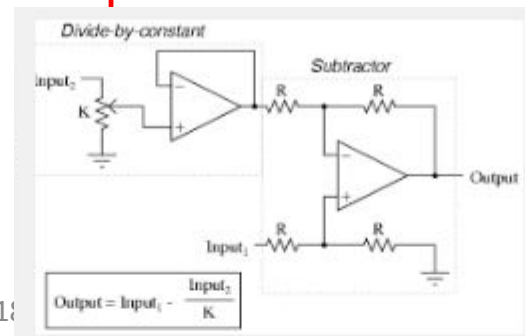
An iconic model is an exact physical representation and may be larger or smaller than what it represents.

- An iconic model is a **physical replica** of a system, usually on a **different scale** from the original. (e.g. a house) “
- An iconic model may be **three dimensional**, such as that of an **airplane**, **car**, **bridge**, or **production line**. Photographs are **two-dimensional** iconic-scale models.

# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

**2-Analog model:** use one set of physical movements to represent another set of physical movements. An analogue model may be in the form of a diagram such as a demand curve, histogram, etc. **behaves like the real system** but **does not look like it**.

- Organization **charts** that depict **structure**, **authority**, and responsibility relationships
- Maps on which **different colors** represent objects, such as bodies of **water** or **mountains**
- Stock market charts that represent the **price movements** of stocks
- **Blueprints** of a machine or a house
- **Animations**, **videos**, and **movies**



# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

## 3-MATHEMATICAL (QUANTITATIVE) MODELS

The **complexity** of relationships in many organizational systems **cannot** be represented by icons or analogically because such representations would soon become cumbersome, and using them would be **time-consuming**. Therefore, more abstract models are described mathematically. Most DSS analyses are performed numerically with mathematical or other quantitative models.

**e.g.**, Let the prey population at time **t** be given by **y<sub>1</sub>(t)**, and the predator population by **y<sub>2</sub>(t)**. Assume that, in the absence of predators, the prey will **grow exponentially** according to **y'<sub>1</sub> = ay<sub>1</sub>** for a certain **a > 0**. We also assume that the **death rate** of the prey due to **interaction** is proportional to **y<sub>1</sub>(t) y<sub>2</sub>(t)**, with a positive proportionality constant. So:

$$y'_1(t) = a y_1(t) - b y_1(t) y_2(t) \quad (1)$$

# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

Without **prey**, **predators** will die exponentially according to  $y_2'(t) = -r y_2 dt$  for a certain  $r > 0$ . Their birth strongly depends on both population sizes, so we finally find for a certain  $c > 0$ :

$$y_2'(t) = -r y_2(t) + c y_1(t) y_2(t) \quad (2)$$

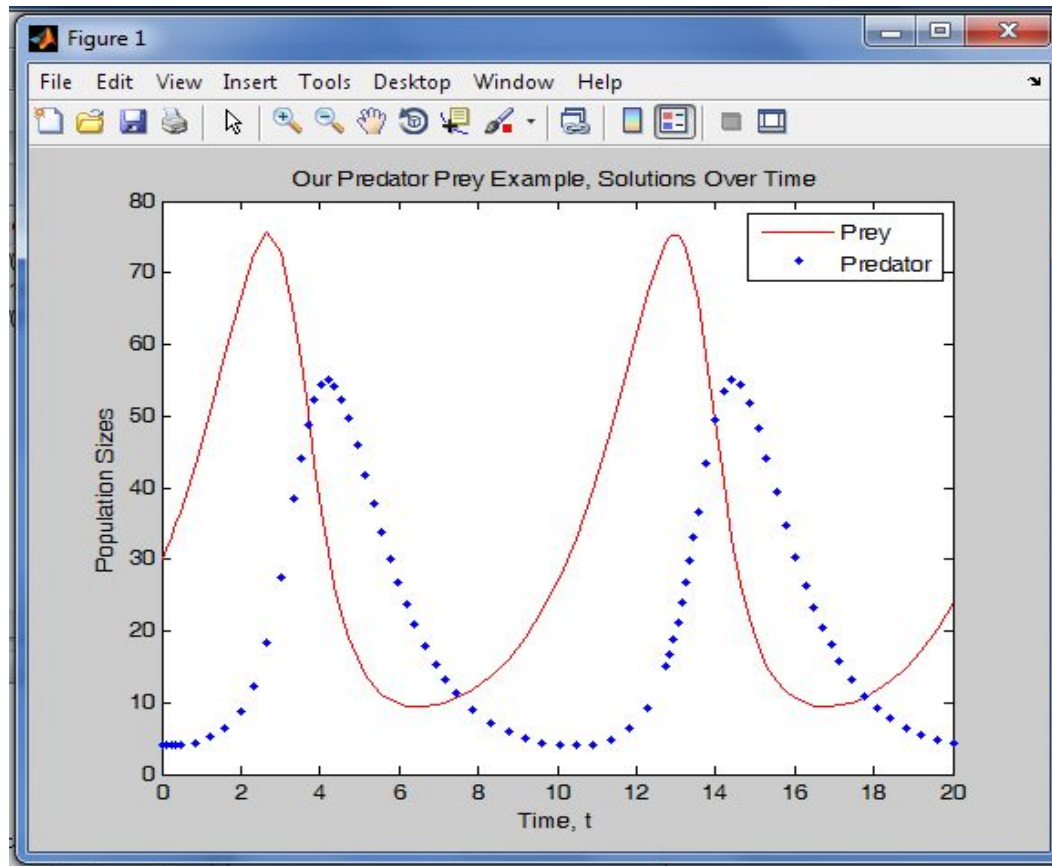
These equations (1) and (2), lead to the following system differential equations:

$$y_1'(t) = a y_1(t) - b y_1(t) y_2(t)$$

$$y_2'(t) = -r y_2(t) + c y_1(t) y_2(t)$$



# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS



# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

## 4. Simulation Models

**Simulations** models are **used** when the systems under study are **complex** and **all other models cannot satisfactorily** represent the system.

**Simulation** modeling is the process of **creating** and **analyzing** a digital prototype of a physical model to **predict its performance** in the real world.

Simulation modeling is used to **help designers and engineers** understand whether, under what conditions, and in which ways a part **could fail** and what loads it can **withstand**.

# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

**THE BENEFITS OF MODELS:** uses models for the following reasons:

- Model manipulation (changing decision variables or the environment) is much easier than manipulating the real system. Experimentation is easier and does not interfere with the daily operation of the organization.
- Models enable the compression of time. Years of operations can be simulated in minutes or seconds of computer time.
- The cost of modeling analysis is much less than the cost of a similar experiment conducted on a real system.
- The cost of making mistakes during a trial-and-error experiment is much less when models are used rather than real systems.
- The business environment involves considerable uncertainty. With modeling, a manager can estimate the risks resulting from specific actions.
- Mathematical models enable the analysis of a very large, sometimes infinite, number of possible solutions. Even in simple problems, managers often have a large number of alternatives from which to choose.
- Models enhance and reinforce learning and training.
- Models and solution methods are readily available over the Web.
- There are many Java applets (and other Web programs) that readily solve models.

# INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND MODELS

## In addition

- Viewing systems from multiple perspectives
- Discovering causes and effects using model traceability
- Improving system understanding through visual analysis
- Discovering errors earlier and reducing system defects
- Exploring alternatives earlier in the system lifecycle
- Improving impact analysis, identifying potential consequences of a change, or estimating modifications to implement a change
- Simulating system solutions without code generation

## 2.5 PHASES OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

- Simon says that three major phases: **intelligence**, **design**, and **choice**. He later **added** a **fourth** phase, **implementation**. **Monitoring** can be considered a **fifth** phase-a form of **feedback**. However, we view monitoring as the intelligence phase applied to the implementation phase.
- The decision-making process **starts** with the **intelligence** phase. Reality is **examined**, and the problem is **identified** and **defined**. Problem **ownership** is established as well.
- In the design **phase**, a model that represents the system is **constructed**.

## 2.6 DECISION-MAKING:

### THE INTELLIGENCE PHASE

- Intelligence in decision-making involves **scanning** the environment, either intermittently (discrete) or continuously. It includes **several activities** aimed at identifying problem situations or **opportunities** and **monitoring** the results of the implementation phase of a decision-making process.

## PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

- The intelligence phase begins with the identification of organizational goals and objectives and determination of whether they are being met.
- Problems occur because of dissatisfaction with the status quo الوضع.
- The existence of a problem can be determined by monitoring and analyzing the organization's productivity level.
- Some issues that may arise during data collection and estimation, and thus plague (disaster) decision-makers, are :

# PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

1. Data are **not** available. As a result, the model is made with, and relies on.
2. Obtaining data may be **expensive**.
3. Data may **not be accurate** or precise enough.
4. Data estimation is often **subjective**.
5. Data may be **insecure**.
6. Important data that influence the results may be **qualitative** (soft).
7. There may be too many data (information **overload**).
8. Outcomes (or results) may occur over an **extended** period. As a **result**, **revenues**, **expenses**, and **profits** will be **recorded** at different points in time.
9. It is assumed that **future data** will be similar to **historical data**.



# PROGRAMMED VERSUS NONPROGRAMMED PROBLEMS

- Simon (1977) distinguished **two extremes** issues. At one end of the **spectrum** are **well-structured** problems that are repetitive and routine and for which standard models , Simon calls these **programmed** problems. Such as
  - weekly **scheduling** of employees,
  - monthly **determination** of cash flow, and
  - selection of an **inventory** level
- Other **end** of the spectrum are **unstructured** problems, called **non-programmed** problems, such as undertaking a **complex** research and development project, evaluating an electronic commerce initiative, determination about what to put on a Web site, ..

# PROGRAMMED VERSUS NONPROGRAMMED PROBLEMS

- Semi-structured problems **fall between** the two extremes. Generally, a structured or semi-structured problem **tends to** gain structure as it is solved..

**From Internet** .. Here's an example: A **Word document** is generally considered to be **unstructured** data. However, you can add **metadata tags** in the form of **keywords** and make it **easier** to be found -- the data is **now semi-structured**. Nevertheless, the document still lacks the complex organization of the **database**, so falls short of being fully structured data.

# PROBLEM DECOMPOSITION

- Many complex problems can be **divided** into **sub-problems**.
- Solving the **simpler sub-problems** may help in solving the complex problem.
- **Poorly** structured problems sometimes have highly **structured sub-problems**.
- Semi-structured problem results when **some** phases of decision-making are structured while **other** phases are **unstructured**, so when some sub-problems of a decision-making problem are **structured with others unstructured**, the problem itself is **semi-structured**.

## PROBLEM OWNERSHIP

- In the **intelligence** phase, it is important to establish problem **ownership**.
- A problem exists in an organization only if **someone** or some **group** takes on the **responsibility** of attacking it and if the organization has the **ability** to solve it.

## 2.7 DECISION-MAKING: THE DESIGN PHASE

- The design phase involves **finding** or **developing** and **analyzing** possible courses of **action**. These include **understanding** the problem and **testing** solutions for **feasibility**. A **model** of the decision-making problem is **constructed**, **tested**, and **validated**
- Modeling involves **conceptualizing** the problem and **abstracting** it to quantitative and/or qualitative form.
- **Simplifications** are made through **assumptions**.
- A **proper balance** between the level of model **simplification** and the representation of **reality** must be **obtained** because of the "benefit/cost trade-off". apperception

## SELECTION OF A PRINCIPLE OF CHOICE

- A principle of choice is a **criterion that describes** the **acceptability** of a solution approach.
- In a model, it is a **result variable**.
- Involves **how** we **establish** our decision-making objectives
- Are we willing to assume **high risk**, or do we prefer a **low-risk** approach? Are we attempting to **optimize** or **satisfice**?
- Among the many principles of choice, **normative** (standard) and **descriptive** are of prime importance.

## NORMATIVE MODELS النماذج المعيارية

- In which the chosen alternative is the **best** of all possible alternatives.
- One should **examine** all the alternatives and prove that the one selected is indeed the best. This process is basically **optimization**
- Optimization can be achieved in one of **three** ways:
  - Get the **highest** level of goal meat from resource.. (**maximum profit**)
  - Find the alternative with the **highest ratio** of a goal **attainment** to cost.
  - Find the alternative with **lowest cost**.

# NORMATIVE MODELS

Normative decision theory is based on the following assumptions:

- **Maximize** the attainment of goals. (More of a good thing is better than less.)
- A decision-making situation, all **viable** (workable) alternative courses of action and their consequences are **known**.
- Decision-makers have an **order** or **preference** that **rank** the desirability of all consequences of the analysis (**best to worst**).



# SUBOPTIMIZATION

- **Optimization** requires a decision-maker to consider the **impact** of each alternative course of action on the **entire** organization because a decision made in one area may have **significant effects** (positive or negative) in **other areas**.
- Thus, the marketing department should **make** its plans in **conjunction with other departments**. Such an approach require a complicated, expensive, time consuming analysis.
- If a **suboptimal** decision is made in **one part** of the organization **without** considering the **rest of the organization**, then an optimal solution from the point of view of that part may be **inferior** (lower) for the whole.
- Sub-optimization may also apply when **simplifying** assumptions are used in **modeling** a specific problem.

## DESCRIPTIVE MODELS

- Models describe things **as they are**. These models are typically **mathematically** based. Descriptive models are **extremely useful** in DSS for investigating the consequences of various alternative courses of action under different configurations of **inputs** and **processes**.
- There is no guarantee that an alternative selected with the aid of a descriptive analysis is **optimal**. In many cases, it is **only** satisfactory.
- **Simulation** is **most** common descriptive modeling method. Simulation has been **applied** to many areas of decision-making.

## Classes of descriptive models include

- Complex **inventory** decision
- **Environmental** impact analysis
- **Financial** planning
- **Information** flow
- **Markov** analysis (**prediction**)
- Scenario **analysis**
- **Simulation** (alterative types)
- Technological **forecasting**
- Waiting line (**queuing**) management

## GOOD ENOUGH OR SATISFICING

- Most human decision-making, whether organizational or individual, involves a **willingness** to settle for a satisfactory solution, "**something less than the best.**"
- The usual reasons for satisficing are **time pressure** (lose value over time). Essentially, ***satisficing*** is a form of ***sub-optimization***. There may be a **best solution**, an optimum, but it is difficult, if not impossible, to attain.

## DEVELOPING (GENERATING) ALTERNATIVES

- A significant part of the process of model building is **generating alternatives**.
- In optimization models (such as **linear programming**), the alternatives may be generated **automatically** by the model.
- The **Web-based READY portal** filters through large amounts of information to select only **relevant** items for alternative selection.
- The **outcome** of every proposed alternative **must be established**. Depending upon whether the decision-making **problem is classified** as one of **certainty**, **risk**, or **uncertainty**, different modeling approaches may be used.

## MEASURING OUTCOMES

- The value of an **alternative is evaluated** in terms of **goal attainment**.
- An outcome such as **customer satisfaction** may be **measured** by the number of **complaints**, by the **level of loyalty** to a product, or by ratings found by surveys.
- When groups make decisions, each **group participant** may have a **different agenda**.

# SCENARIOS

- A scenario is a **statement of assumptions** about the **operating environment** of a particular system at a **given time**. A scenario **describes** the decision and uncontrollable variables and parameters for a specific **modeling situation**.
- It also may provide the **procedures** and **constraints** for the modeling.
- Scenario planning and analysis is a DSS tool that can **capture a whole range of possibilities**. A manager can construct a series of scenarios (**what-if cases**), perform computerized analyses, and learn more about the system and decision-making problem while analyzing it.

# SCENARIOS

Scenarios play an important role in MSS because they:

1. Help **identify opportunities** and **problem areas**
2. Provide **flexibility** in planning
3. Identify the **leading edges** of changes that management should monitor
4. Help **validate major** modeling assumptions
5. Allow the decision-maker to **explore** the behavior of a system through a model
6. Help to check the **sensitivity** of proposed **solutions** to changes in the environment as described by the scenario



# SCENARIOS

## POSSIBLE SCENARIOS

There may be **thousands of possible** scenarios for every decision situation. However, the following are especially useful in practice:

- The **worst possible** scenario
- The **best possible** scenario
- The **most likely** scenario
- The **average** scenario

## ERRORS IN DECISION-MAKING

The model is the **critical component** in the decision-making process, but one may make a number of **errors** in its development and use. **Validating** the model before it is used is critical.

## 2.8 DECISION-MAKING: THE CHOICE PHASE

Choice is the critical act of decision-making.

- The choice phase is the **one in which the actual decision** is made
- The boundary between the **design and choice** phases is often **unclear** because certain activities can be performed during both of them and because one can return frequently from choice activities to design activities.
- A solution to a model is a **specific set of values** for the decision variables in a **selected alternative**

Note: **Solving the model is not the same as solving the problem** the model represents. The solution to the model yields a **recommended** solution to the problem.

## 2.9 DECISION-MAKING: THE IMPLEMENTATION PHASE

- The **implementation** of a proposed solution to a problem is, in effect, the **initiation of a new** order of things, or the introduction of change. User **expectations** must be managed as part of **change** management.
- implementation is somewhat **complicated** because implementation is a **long**, involved process with vague boundaries.
- Implementation means **putting a recommended** solution to work, **not** necessarily the implementation of a computer system.
- Implementation was a **little fuzzy**