

BDMA - Decision Modeling

Jose Antonio Lorenzo Abril

Fall 2023



Professor: Brice Mayag

Student e-mail: jose-antonio.lorenco-abril@student-cs.fr

This is a summary of the course *Decision Modeling* taught at the Université Paris Saclay - CentraleSupélec by Professor Brice Mayag in the academic year 23/24. Most of the content of this document is adapted from the course notes by Mayag, [1], so I won't be citing it all the time. Other references will be provided when used.

Contents

1	Introduction	3
1.1	Models	3
1.2	Decision Theory and Decision Analysis	3
1.3	Main Steps of Developing a Decision Model	4
1.4	Decision's Algorithm & Transparency	4
2	Preferences as binary relations	6

1 Introduction

1.1 Models

There are many definition of what a model is, depending on the perspective used. For example, a model can be understood as a '*standard or example for imitation or comparison*' or as a '*person employed to wear clothing of pose with a product for purposes of display and advertising*'. Nonetheless, in the context of decision modeling, which is the one in which we are interested, the definition of model is:

Definition 1.1. A **model** is a *simplified representation of a system or phenomenon, with any hypotheses required to describe the system or explain the phenomenon, often mathematically.*

Models are useful to enhance our understanding of the world to improve our decision making, and they enable us to elaborate a scientific methodology to solve a problem in a duplicable way and with the aim of reducing bias in mind.

A model is said to be **deterministic** if the outcomes are precisely determined through known relationships among states and events. This kind of models always produce the same output when given the same input. On the other hand, a model is **probabilistic** (or stochastic) when all the data that it tries to explain is not known with certainty.

For example, the Newtonian model for gravity is deterministic, while a prediction model for college acceptance is probabilistic.

Deterministic models are used in domains such as Multi-Attribute Decision Making or Linear Programming, among others; while probabilistic models are used in queuing problems, simulations, etc.

We can also classify the data that is used to define a model into **qualitative** and **quantitative**. The former refers to data that is expressed in terms of words, while the latter is data easily expressed using numbers. An example of qualitative data is the hair color of people in class, and for quantitative data is the height of people in class.

We can be more precise in our wording, and call the models that we are talking about **formal models**, which refer to those models that provide a precise statement of the components of the model and their relationships, usually by means of mathematical equations. This make them easy to communicate precisely and the ability to give replicable results. However, being formal does not mean being true. A model can fail to represent the reality that it tries to describe.

1.2 Decision Theory and Decision Analysis

Definition 1.2. A **decision** is a choice that is made about something after thinking about several possibilities.

Decisions appear in many domains, including Mathematics, Economics, Computer Sciences, Psychology,...

Definition 1.3. Decision Analysis consists in trying to provide answers to questions raised by actors involved in a decision process using a model.

B. Roy

In the previous definition, a **Decision Process** refers to a strategy of intervention, such as aid, communication or justification, among others. There are many ways to provide decision aid and no single way to compare methods. This, together with the fact that different models may llead to different recommendations, makes it hard to assess when a Decision Analysis model is 'good' or, more appropriately, 'suitable'.

Therefore, we cannot compare decision making to solving a well-defined problem, as the former is highly dependent on opinions, interests and, more generally, different human factors involved. In every decision process,

there are several possible interventions, among which we can find imagining compromises, communicating, coordinating, controlling, motivating or conducting change.

There are many different models used in Decision Analysis nowadays, with the [advantages](#) of:

- Providing a clear language that can be leveraged as a communication tool
- Capturing the essence of a situation, acting a structuration tool
- Answering '*what-if*' questions, serving as a exploration tool

On the other hand, their [drawbacks](#) are their high complexity and opaqueness. In addition, in many situations people could argue that such models are not necessary because they already know how to take decisions and they would over-complicate the process; or would ask for higher-level explanations or ideas that are not suitable for formalization; or would rather rely on their intuition.

1.3 Main Steps of Developing a Decision Model

1. **Formulation:** translate the problem scenario into a mathematical model.

This involves the definition of the problem and the development of a decision model, i.e., the definition of the **variables** or measurable quantities that vary, and the **parameters** or measurable quantities inherent to the problem.

2. **Solution:** solve the mathematical expressions from the formulation.

This process involves the development of the solutions by correctly manipulating the model to arrive at the best solution, and the testing of the solution, to check that it works as expected and meets the expectations.

3. **Interpretation:** discover the implications of the results.

This is usually done by conducting **sensitivity analysis**, i.e., testing the different outcomes obtained under a variety of states; and **implementing results**, enacting the solutions and monitoring the performance.

The outlined process is very high level, and there are many possible problems that can arise:

- Defining the problem: we can find conflicting viewpoints that impact differently the stakeholders.
- Model development: it is not always easy to find the formal model that describes the problem at hand, and it is usual to make adaptations.
- Acquiring data: can be hard in some scenarios, as well as checking its validity and correctness.
- Developing a solution: we can find many limitations, such as only finding one answer, finding approximate answers, prohibitive computing times,...
- Implementation: it is crucial that the solution is feasible to be implemented, both from a managerial point of view and from the user perspective.

1.4 Decision's Algorithm & Transparency

Decisions made by algorithms can be opaque because of technical and social reasons, in addition to being made purposely opaque to protect intellectual property.

Definition 1.4. An **algorithm** is a sequence of instructions, typically used to solve a class of problems or perform a computation.

It must be:

- **Finite:** it must eventually solve the problem.
- **Well-defined:** the series of step must be precise and understandable.
- **Effective:** it must solve all cases of the problem for which it was defined.

Usually, we find contradictory objectives when developing an algorithm, because simpler algorithms are usually time intensive, while algorithms that are very efficient are very complex are hard to understand.

Definition 1.5. Algorithmic Transparency is the principle that the factors that influence the decisions made by algorithms should be transparent to the people who use, regulate and are affected by systems that employ those algorithms.

This concept is openness about the purpose, structure and underlying actions of the algorithms used to search for, process and deliver information. Two important properties of transparency are:

- **Explanability:** systems and institutions that use algorithm decision making are encouraged to produce explanations regarding both the procedures followed by the algorithm and the specific decisions that are made. This is specially relevant in public policy contexts.
- **Accountability:** institutions should be held responsible for decisions made by the algorithms they use, even if it is not feasible to explain in detail how the algorithms produce their results.

2 Preferences as binary relations

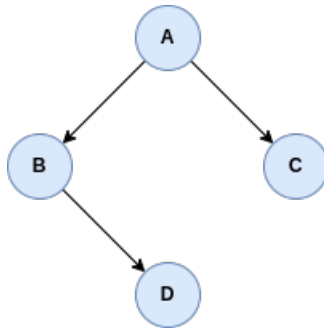
Definition 2.1. Given a set X , a **binary relation**, R , is a subset of ordered pairs of elements in X :

$$R \subseteq X \times X.$$

We can write $(x, y) \in R$ or, equivalently, xRy .

Relations can be expressed as directed graphs. For instance, a relation R of a set X can be represented as the graph $G_R = (N_X, E_R)$, where N_X are the nodes, representing each element in X and E_R are the edges, representing each pair in R . The edges are constructed in such a way that $e = (x, y) \in E_R \iff xRy$.

Example 2.1. Let $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $R = \{(a, b), (a, c), (b, d)\}$, then we can represent this by G_R as:



Another way to represent relations is using matrices. We can construct a matrix M_R by

$$M_R = (m_{xy})_{(x,y) \in X},$$

where

$$m_{xy} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } xRy \\ 0 & \text{if not } (xRy) \end{cases}.$$

Example 2.2. The previous example can be represented with the following matrix:

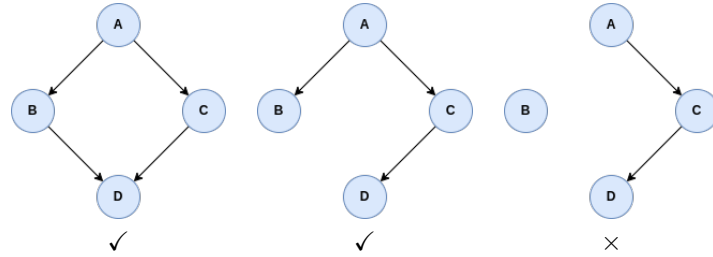
$$M_R = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} a & b & c & d \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{matrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix}.$$

Depending on how a relation is constructed, it can possess different properties. Some interesting properties are defined as follows:

Definition 2.2. A binary relation R on a set X is said to be:

- **Reflexive** if $xRx, \forall x \in X$.
- **Irreflexive** if $\text{not}(xRx), \forall x \in X$.
- **Complete** if for every $x, y \in X$, we have xRy or yRx (or both).
- **Weakly complete** if for every $x, y \in X, x \neq y$, we have xRy or yRx (or both).
- **Symmetric** if $[xRy \implies yRx], \forall x, y \in X$.
- **Asymmetric** if $[xRy \implies \text{not}(yRx)], \forall x, y \in X$.
- **Antisymmetric** if $[xRy \wedge yRx \implies x = y], \forall x, y \in X$.
- **Transitive** if $[xRy \wedge yRz \implies xRz], \forall x, y, z \in X$.
- **Negatively transitive** if $[\text{not}(xRy) \wedge \text{not}(yRz) \implies \text{not}(xRz)], \forall x, y, z \in X$.
- **Semi-transitive** if $[xRy \wedge yRz \implies xRt \vee tRz], \forall x, y, z, t \in X$.

Example 2.3. A semi-transitive relation example.



In addition, we can define paths and cycles on relations, analogously as how it is done in graph theory:

Definition 2.3. A **path** from $x \in X$ to $y \in X$ exists if there are $x_1, \dots, x_n \in X$ such that

$$x = x_1 R x_2 R \dots R x_{n-1} R x_n = y.$$

A path is called a **cycle** if it goes from x to x .

For every relation, we can extract two subrelations, as its symmetric part and its asymmetric part:

Definition 2.4. Given a binary relation R on X , we can define its **symmetric part**, I , as

$$xIy \iff [xRy \wedge yRx],$$

and its **asymmetric part**, P , as

$$xPy \iff [xRy \wedge \text{not}(yRx)].$$

The symmetric part is denoted by I because we can understand this as the all the indifferent pairs of R . In others words, if we understand a relation as a preference over the elements in X , then xRy would mean x is at least as convenient as y . Therefore, if we have xRy and yRx , we could think of them as equally convenient, so the decision between them is indifferent. On the other hand, the asymmetric part is denoted by P , from preference, following a similar reasoning.

When we have two different relations, R and R' , on the same set, X . We can define their concatenation:

Definition 2.5. Let R and R' be two relations on X . We define their **concatenation** as

$$xR \bullet R'y \iff \exists z \in X : [xRz \wedge zR'y].$$

The following proposition establishes different relationships between the concepts we have seen so far:

Proposition 2.1. Let R be a binary relation on X . Then:

- R transitive $\implies R \bullet R \subset R$.
- R asymmetric $\implies R$ irreflexive.
- R complete $\iff R$ reflexive and weakly complete.
- R asymmetric and negative transitive $\implies R$ transitive.
- R complete and transitive $\implies R$ negative transitive.

Proof. Let's go one by one:

- By definition, we have $xR \bullet Ry \iff \exists z : xRz \wedge zRy$. Since R is transitive, then it must be xRy . Therefore $R \bullet R \subset R$.
- If R is not irreflexive, then there exists $x \in X$ such that xRx , but this is a symmetric relationship, so R cannot be asymmetric.
- Trivial.
- By reduction ad absurdum, seeking a contradiction, let's assume that R is not transitive. This means that there exist $x, y, z \in X$ such that $xRy \wedge yRz$ but $\text{not}(xRz)$. By hypothesis, R is asymmetric, so $xRy \implies \text{not}(yRx)$. If we combine these two facts, and use the hypothesis that R is negative transitive, we find that

$$\text{not}(yRx) \wedge \text{not}(xRz) \xrightarrow{\text{neg trans}} \text{not}(yRz) \#$$

This is a contradiction, because we assumed that yRz . Therefore, R must be transitive.

- By reduction ad absurdum, seeking a contradiction, let's assume that R is not negative transitive. This means that there exist $x, y, z \in X$ such that $\text{not}(xRy) \wedge \text{not}(yRz)$, but xRz . By hypothesis, R is complete, so $\text{not}(yRz) \implies zRy$. If we combine the two facts, xRz and zRy , then the transitivity of R gives us xRy , which is a contradiction with our assumption, $\text{not}(xRy)$. Therefore, R must be negative transitive.

□

References

- [1] Brice Mayag. Decision modeling. Lecture Notes.