



UNIVERSITY OF JAÉN

School of Engineering and Computing  
Computer Science Department

EMERGENCY DECISION MAKING UNDER UNCERTAINTY

THESIS MEMORY PRESENTED BY

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TO OBTAIN THE PHD DEGREE IN COMPUTER SCIENCE

SUPERVISORS

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The Thesis entitled *Emergency decision making under uncertainty*, presented by D. Liang Wang to obtain the PhD degree in Computer Science, has been carried out in the Computer Science Department of the University of Jaén with the supervisors Dr. Luis Martínez López and Dra. Rosa María Rodríguez Domínguez. To be evaluated, this research memory is presented as a set of published articles, according to Article 23, point 3, Regulation of Doctoral Studies of the University of Jaén, approved in February 2012.

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Motivation

Emergency events (EEs) are defined as events that suddenly take place, causing or having the possibility of provoking intense death and injury, property losses, ecological damages and social hazards [105], which are often characterized as destructiveness, abruptness, complexity, changeability, diffuseness and so on. By its nature, EEs can be divided into four categories [63]: natural disasters, accident disasters, public health incidents and social hazards.

In recent years, various EEs, such as earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, and terrorist attacks, etc., have caused huge losses and severe negative impacts on human life and socio-economic development. When an EE occurs, Emergency decision making (EDM) is a very important activity, in which some measures should be taken to mitigate and reduce the damages or losses (property, lives, environment etc.) caused by EEs [136]. In real world situation, a decision maker (DM) is usually in charge of the EDM process, who takes the responsibility for the decision outcomes and plays a very crucial role in dealing successfully with EEs.

Since DM and EDM play crucial roles in mitigating the damages or losses caused by EEs, it has become a very active and important research direction in current emergency management study [33, 54, 69, 109, 126, 129].

As a result of the study of EDM, different works have been proposed in the literature to discuss related topics, such as:

- ◇ Number of involved individuals in the EDM process, i.e., classical EDM problems in which just one DM involved in the decision process [27, 54, 57, 68], and group emergency decision making (GEDM) problems [39, 60, 96, 117, 129, 137] in which multiple experts involved who play a role of think tank to support the DM to make a decision. The general schemes of them are shown in Figure

1.1 and Figure 1.2, respectively.

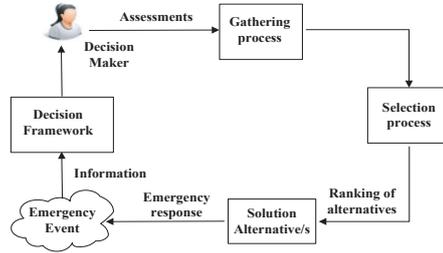


Figure 1.1: General scheme of classic EDM

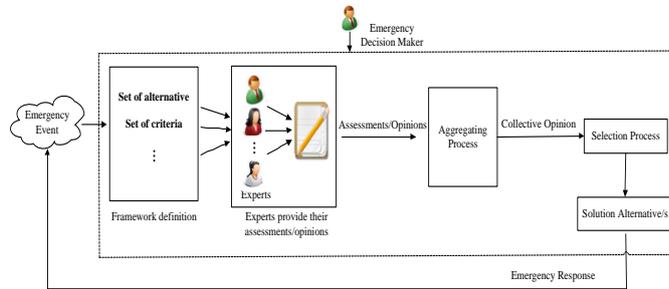


Figure 1.2: General scheme of GEDM

- ◇ DM's psychological behavior in the EDM process [33, 69, 107, 109], and aggregation of experts' assessments/opinions in the GEDM process [123, 124, 125, 126, 127]
- ◇ Elements of EEs in the EDM process [61], specifically uncertain, incomplete information [54, 64, 91, 109, 122], and dynamic evolution of EEs [40, 53, 107],

With the rapid development of technology, economy, and society in last decade, EEs are increasingly diversified and complicated, hence it is a big challenge for an individual DM to deal with real world complicated EEs, this is particularly true when the decision environment becomes highly complex and uncertain [70]. However, using group wisdom in the EDM process might be a powerful and effective way to cope with complex and damaging EEs, in which multiple experts with diverse professional background (e.g., hydrological, meteorological, sociological, and demographic) act as a think tank supporting the DM in the decision process, these methods lead to group emergency decision making (GEDM) problems, and the general scheme of GEDM has been shown in Figure 1.2.

Due to the fact that in other decision making problems, behavior experiments [14, 55, 103] have shown that human beings are usually bounded rational under risk and uncertainty, particularly, when they are under pressure, time restriction and risk decision environments, their psychological behavior will affect their decision behavior (risk-seeking, risk-aversion, neutral) directly [55]. Therefore, human beings psychological behavior also should play an important role in the decision making process, and must be considered in all types of EDM problems.

There is a proverb in Chinese culture, i.e., "*Know yourself and know your enemy, you will win every war*", this proverb means that if someone wants to win every war, he/she must know not only himself/herself, but also know his/her enemy's features or characteristics. Similarly, for EDM problems, such proverb does also work. In order to make the emergency response more pertinently, effectively, and successfully, a large number of EDM approaches have considered the features of EEs [61] from various aspects, such as uncertain, incomplete information [54, 64, 91, 109, 122], dynamic evolution [40, 53, 107, 128], historical records [91, 137], domino effects [138] and so forth.

Despite the large amount of models and approaches have been proposed by a variety of authors to deal with EDM relevant problems, and have made significant contributions to emergency management. Up to date, the research results obtained in this field of study are not sufficient when dealing with real world complicated EDM problems: new difficulties and challenges arise, which require further and deep study for the improvements of existing studies. Some of these difficulties and challenges described below are the main motivation of this research memory:

- ◇ *Inclusion of experts' psychological behavior in GEDM process*: As aforementioned previously, due to human beings are usually bounded rational under risk and uncertainty, their psychological behavior is a very crucial factor in decision making processes, however, such an important issue has not been yet considered in existing GEDM approaches [39, 60, 96, 117, 129, 137]. For this practical and important problem, it seems necessary to propose a model, which is capable of dealing with GEDM problems more effectively.
  - ◇ *Experts' hesitation in the GEDM process*: Hesitation is a quite common and inevitable behavior in our daily life, especially, in real world situations, due to the complexity and time restriction of decision problems, and the possibility of decision outcomes resulting in serious consequences, when experts are not good at or not familiar with one specific aspect of the given decision problem, they might hesitate to provide either their assessments or opinions. Nevertheless, such practical and interesting topic has not been discussed in existing GEDM
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approaches [39, 60, 96, 117, 129, 137] so far. Therefore, it is a big challenge and meaningful to consider such a practical and inevitable topic.

- ◇ *Experts' opinions fusion*: Due to the importance of experts' opinions to deal with the decision problems successfully or not, it is necessary to handle experts' opinions quickly, properly and keep as much knowledge as possible. Existing GEDM approaches [123, 124, 126, 127] show that different consensus models and methods are employed to aggregate experts' opinions from various perspectives, however, there are obvious shortcomings that existing models and methods are not suitable for dealing with GEDM problems, i.e., loss of information in early stages of the decision problem [126, 127], time cost consensus models [123, 124] and information domains not suitable for handling fuzzy information [60, 39, 125, 129]. While, information is extremely valuable, because it means lives and chances. Thus, it might be difficult to obtain accurate decision results without a proper fusion model for GEDM problems.
  - ◇ *Dynamic evolution considered in GEDM problems*: As a result obtained through analysis on existing dynamic studies [53, 107], it was found that only the time changes is considered in existing dynamic studies, however, with the evolution of EEs, not only changes the time, but also the information related to the EEs (alternative, criteria, etc.). It needs to point out that dynamic evolution of EEs is related to various aspects rather than just with time changes, which is a practical issue in real world, and should be also considered.
  - ◇ *Information types tackled in GEDM problems*: Information plays a crucial part in all different types of decision problems no exception for GEDM problems. Existing GEDM approaches deal with the information employing only one expression domain: numerical values [123], interval values [109] or linguistic information [54]. Nevertheless, the information about the EEs in real world includes various types (numerical, interval, linguistic, hesitant information) at the same time rather than one specific type, but none existing GEDM proposals considers multiple types of information at the same time.
  - ◇ *Determination of criteria weights in GEDM problems*: There are three categories of methods that have been proposed to determine criteria weights [38, 112]: subjective, objective and hybrid methods. Subjective methods use the preferences of a DM to determine criteria weights [36, 110]; objective methods use a decision matrix to determine attribute weights [21, 22]; hybrid methods combine the preferences of a DM with a decision matrix to determine criteria weights [72, 114]. Subjective methods are widely used in existing EDM
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studies [33, 53, 68, 69, 107, 109], in which DM provides the criteria weights. When facing complex EEs in real world, it is difficult for DM to provide reasonable criteria weights, particularly, when DM is under pressure and hesitate in EDM problems. Therefore, it is a challenge to find out a more effective and suitable way to determine the criteria weights for GEDM problems.

Previous challenges found in existing GEDM problems make that current EDM approaches can not satisfy the situations and needs demanded by real world GEDM problems, such as *experts' psychological behavior and hesitation, experts' opinions fusion, dynamic evolution, heterogeneous information, determination of criteria weights* as mentioned above. For those reasons and challenges, this research memory conducts further and deep researches to fill those gaps.

## 1.2 Objectives

According to the challenges pointed out in existing GEDM approaches stated at the previous section, the purpose of this research is focused on the improvements of current GEDM approaches.

Based on such a purpose, the following four research objectives are considered:

1. To develop a novel GEDM approach that considers experts' psychological behavior [108] neglected in current studies. To illustrate the advantages, validity and feasibility of the new proposed method, a case study and related comparisons with existing EDM approaches are carried out.
  2. To define a new perspective of dynamic evolution that considers not only the time changes, information related to EEs updated, but also problem structure changes (alternative, criteria, etc.) and considers different types of uncertainty in the EEs. Afterwards, a new dynamic GEDM approach [106] will be proposed for overcoming the limitations in current GEDM approaches by including this new dynamic view and heterogeneous information that will be applied to an explosion emergency decision problem illustrating its novelty, advantages, and validity.
  3. To define a GEDM framework in which multiple types of uncertainty will be modelled by intervals, fuzzy and hesitant information. Additionally, a consensus model with low-time cost will be explored to aggregate experts' opinions that is also suitable for dealing with fuzzy information. A new way for determination criteria weights will be defined. Afterwards, a novel GEDM method will be proposed [105] that deals with heterogeneous information and looks
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for agreed solution in a low time cost way together with taking into account experts' psychological behavior. Such a proposal will be applied to a real world case study of GEDM to show its validity and performance.

4. Improving information fusion in GEDM and considering hesitant uncertainty together experts' behavior [136] in order to build a GEDM method able to obtain better results because the information fusion process keeps more information than classical aggregation processes. Such a GEDM method will be applied to a real-world emergency problem.

### 1.3 Structure

To achieve these objectives presented in Section 1.2, and taking into account the article 23, point 3, of the current regulations for Doctoral Studies at the University of Jaén, in accordance with the program established in the RD 99/2011, this research memory will be presented as a compendium of published articles by the Ph.D student during his Ph.D period.

Three articles have been published in international journals indexed by JCR database, produced by ISI. And one article has been published in the international journal, *Complex Intelligent Systems* indexed in the Emerging Sources Citation Index. In summary, the report is composed of a total of four articles which have been published in high quality international journals.

The structure of this research memory is briefly described below:

- ◇ Chapter 2: Some basic concepts and methods such as, related concepts of decision making, emergency decision making, prospect theory, fuzzy TODIM method, hesitant fuzzy sets (HFS), hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets (HFLTS) and so on; that are used in our proposals to achieve the different objectives pointed out in Section 1.2 are revised.
  - ◇ Chapter 3: The published proposals that compose the research memory will be introduced briefly, in addition, discussions of each result obtained are presented in short to clarify the achievements reached in our research.
  - ◇ Chapter 4: This chapter acts as the core of the doctoral thesis, which includes the publications obtained as the research results. For each publication, the detailed information of the journals in which the proposals have been published is indicated.
  - ◇ Chapter 5: Final conclusions regarding this research and possible promising future works are pointed out.
-

## Chapter 2

# Basics Concepts and Background

This chapter establishes the framework of concepts and tools related to our research across this memory. Due to the fact that, the different papers that composed this research memory introduce and revise the necessary background for understanding our proposals, in this chapter we have just provided a brief and structured revision of the main necessary concepts related to our proposals including some related concepts about decision making and emergency decision making, the modelling and managing of uncertainty in decision making and several multicriteria decision-making methods under uncertainty, such as Fuzzy TOPSIS and Fuzzy TODIM. All these concepts, tools and methods are further detailed in each specific paper of the compendium provided in this research memory (Chapter 4), when they are required.

### 2.1 Decision Making: Introduction and Classification

In this section, a brief introduction and a classification of decision making are revised as the basic knowledge of this thesis, which pave the way for our coming researches.

#### 2.1.1 Introduction

Decision making involves the selection of a course of action from among two or more possible alternatives in order to arrive at a solution for a given problem [100]. According to the definition of decision making, it not only exists in human beings daily life, but also includes modern management both organizational and managerial activities [100]. Based on the foregone definition, a decision can be understood as a course of action purposely chosen from a set of alternatives to achieve organizational or managerial objectives or goals.

A decision making process is a continuous and indispensable component of managing any organization or business activities in which organizational or business goals

are achieved [50]. To achieve specific goals, either organisations or companies may face lots of obstacles in administrative, marketing wings and operational domains. Such problems are sorted out through a comprehensive decision making process. No decision comes as end in itself, since it may evolve new problems to be solved. When one problem is solved another arises and so on, such that this is why decision making, as aforementioned, is a continuous and dynamic process.

Generally speaking, a decision cannot be taken abruptly in a management setting, it should follow a series of steps as the following ones that can be shown in Figure 2.1 [50]:

1. Defining the problem: The structure of given problem, features, terminology etc. are defined in this phase;
2. Gathering information and collecting data: Information and data about given problem are gathered;
3. Developing and weighting the options: Alternatives and criteria are developed, and criteria weights are determined;
4. Choosing the best possible option: Specific method is employed to select the best alternative concerning different criteria;
5. Planning and executing: To plan and execute the selected best alternative for solving the given problem;
6. Taking follow up action: According to the executing performance of the alternative, follow up action is taken to improve next possible decision problems.

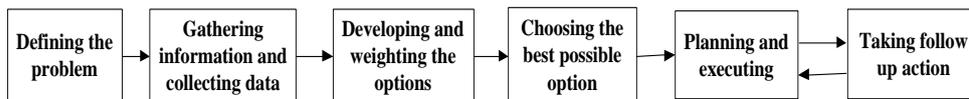


Figure 2.1: General decision making process

Even though, there are different types of decision problems, the general processes are almost the same like those ones shown in Figure 2.1.

### 2.1.2 Classification

Decision making is a quite common mankind activity in daily life. Human beings usually face different situations in which there exist several options or alternatives, in some situations, they must choose one among them as the best option or alternative.

Such activities widely exist in various fields, such as economy, engineering, health etc.

Despite there are various decision making problems, they share the following common features [49]:

- multiple criteria: each problem has multiple criteria, which can be objectives or attributes;
- conflicting criteria: multiple criteria may conflict with each other;
- incommensurable units: criteria may have different units of measurement;
- design/selection: solutions to multicriteria decision-making (MCDM) problems are either to design the best alternative(s) or to select the best one among previously specified finite alternatives.

According to the different situations or contexts in which the decision problem is conducted, decision problems can be classified into different types, such as based on *types of criteria* [70], *number of involved individuals* [76], *decision environment* [119] and so on.

(1) *Types of criteria*

Considering the common features shared in various decision problems mentioned above, two *types of criteria* can be distinguished: *objectives* and *attributes*. Therefore, MCDM problems can be classified into two wide classes [70]:

- multiobjective decision making;
- multiattribute decision making.

The main difference between these two classes is that the first concentrates on continuous solution decision spaces and the second focuses on problems with discrete solution decision spaces.

Multiobjective decision-making is known as the continuous type of multicriteria decision making and its main characteristics are that DMs need to achieve multiple objectives while these objectives are noncommensurable and conflict with each other. A multiobjective decision-making model includes a vector of decision variables, objective functions that describe the objectives, and constraints. DMs attempt to maximize or minimize the objective functions.

Multiattribute decision-making is related to making a preference decision (that is, comparison, choice, prioritization, and/or ordering) over the available alternatives that are characterized by multiple, usually conflicting, attributes. The main peculiarity of multiattribute decision making problems is that there are usually a

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limited number of predetermined alternatives (solutions), which are associated with attribute values and involve the selection of the best alternative from a pool of preselected alternatives described in terms of their attributes.

In almost all multiobjective decision making models, the alternatives can be generated automatically by the models. However, in the case of multiattribute decision making models, it is necessary to generate alternatives manually.

(2) *Number of involved individuals*

According to the involved number of individuals, decision making can be classified into two categories [76]:

- Individual decision making: such decisions are usually taken by a single individual, which can be quickly taken and less costly. Although decisions are based on individual thinking and limited information gathered by decision makers (managers), they are high-quality if the individual has expertise and experience in making such decisions.
- Group decision making: it has been defined in various ways, including as "*a decision situation in which more than one individual is involved, each with their own attitudes and viewpoints, recognizing the existence of a common problem and attempting to make a common decision together*" [70]. Such decisions are usually smarter than individual decision making, and they are frequently utilized in many complex real-life decision situations that are difficult for individual decision making. The solution to a group decision making (GDM) problem can be obtained by applying either a direct approach or an indirect approach in the selection process [44]. A direct approach obtains the solution directly from experts' information, whereas in an indirect approach, collective information is computed before the solution is determined. Regardless of the approach considered, the selection process to solve GDM problems consists of two phases (see Figure 2.2) [79]: (1) an aggregation phase, in which individual information is aggregated, and (2) an exploitation phase, in which an alternative or subset of alternatives is obtained as the solution to the problem.

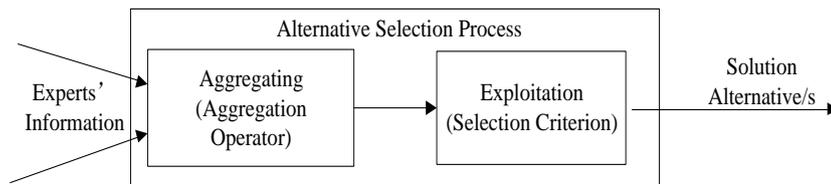


Figure 2.2: General scheme of group decision making

*(3) Decision environment*

According to different decision environments in which the decision problem is carried out, it can be classified into three types [119]:

- Decision making under certain environment: in decision making problems defined in such environment, the DM will have a clear state of alternatives, for example, what the alternatives are, what conditions are associated with each alternative, and the outcome of each alternative. In such decision environment, accurate, measurable, and reliable information on which to base decisions is available. In addition, the cause and effect relationships are known and the future is highly predictable.
- Decision making under risk environment: in decision making problems defined under risk environment, the DM has incomplete information about available alternatives but has a good idea of the probability of outcomes for each alternative. When making a decision under risk environment, DM must determine the probability associated with each alternative on the basis of the available information and his/her experiences.
- Decision making under uncertainty environment: in these decision making problems, the DM has no complete information about problems, the future environment is unpredictable and everything is in a state of flux. DM is not aware of all available alternatives, the risks associated with each alternative, and the outcome of each alternative or their probabilities.

Due to the complex situations and incomplete information, most decisions made in real world are usually under uncertainty in which DMs make decisions depending on their judgments, knowledge and experiences. Because EDM problems are typically characterized by at least uncertainty, time pressure, and lack of information, resulting in potentially serious consequences [60, 105], they are typical decision problems defined in the uncertainty context. Therefore, *decision making under uncertainty* is the main topic discussed in this research memory, which will be emphatically introduced in next section.

## 2.2 Decision making under uncertainty

As aforementioned, most decision problems in real world are defined in uncertainty context, this is particularly true for EDM problems. Therefore, this subsection introduces the basic knowledge of *decision making under uncertainty* in short in order that readers understand the principles comprehensively.

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It needs to clarify that decision making under uncertainty can be divided into: *pure uncertainty* and *uncertainty* [28].

Under the *pure uncertainty* environment, DM has absolutely no knowledge, even not about the likelihood of occurrence for any state of nature. In such situation, decisions made are usually based on DM's expertise, experiences, and attitude toward the unknown [28, 31]. According to DM's attitudes toward the unknown, the decision problems can be carried out as follows [46]:

1. Pessimism, or Conservation (MaxMin Criterion): This model selects the alternative or option with the result that is the maximum of the minimum rewards. In this situation, DM assumes that the minimum reward occurs for each alternative or option, and then selects the alternative or option with the maximum of these minimum rewards;
2. Optimism, or Aggressive (MaxMax Criterion): This model selects the alternative or option with the result that is the maximum of the maximum rewards. In this situation, DM assumes that the most favorable state of nature for each alternative or option will occur;
3. Equal Likelihood Criterion (Laplace decision criterion): Assuming that all states of nature are equally likely to occur, the decision is made based on the highest *average reward* of alternatives or options. *Average reward* is calculated as: the sum of all rewards divided by the number of states of nature;
4. Coefficient of Optimism, or weighted average (Hurwicz Criterion): This decision model is a compromise between an optimistic and pessimistic decision. A coefficient,  $\alpha$ , is selected by the DM to indicate the degree of optimism or pessimism about the future,  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ . When  $\alpha$  is equal to 1, the DM is purely optimistic; when  $\alpha$  is equal to 0, the DM is purely pessimistic. The weighted reward is determined as:  $\alpha(\text{maximum rewards}) + (1 - \alpha)(\text{minimum rewards})$ , then the alternative or option with the highest weighted reward is selected;
5. Minimize Regret (Regret/Opportunity Loss): This decision model focuses on the difference between the optimal reward and the actual reward received. It determines the maximum regret for each alternative, and selects the alternative with the minimum value.

Previous decision models under uncertainty from 1 to 4 can be represented by an OWA operator [113].

**Definition 1** [113] *An OWA operator of dimension  $n$  is a mapping  $F : \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  with an associated weight vector  $W = (w_1, \dots, w_n)^T$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$ ,  $0 \leq w_i \leq 1$ , and  $F(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i b_i$ , where  $b_i$  is the  $i$ -th largest of  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ .*

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Different OWA operators are distinguished by their weight vectors. The following OWA operators lead to the well-known decision criteria for decision making under uncertainty:

1.  $F_*$ : In this case  $W = W_* = (0, \dots, 0, 1)^T$  and  $F_*(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \min_i(a_i)$ , which is the purely pessimistic decision (maxmin criterion);
2.  $F^*$ : In this case  $W = W^* = (1, 0, \dots, 0)^T$  and  $F^*(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \max_i(a_i)$ , which is the purely optimistic decision (maxmax criterion);
3.  $F_A$ : In this case  $W = W_A = (1/n, \dots, 1/n)^T$  and  $F_A(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n(a_i)$ , which is the equally likely decision (Laplace decision criterion);
4.  $F_H$ : In this case  $W = W_H = (\alpha, 0, \dots, 0, 1-\alpha)^T$  and  $F_H(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \alpha \max_i(a_i) + (1-\alpha) \min_i(a_i)$ , which is the Hurwicz criterion.

Under the *uncertainty* environment, the problems defined are different from the ones in *pure uncertainty* environment, in which the information about the problem is vague and imprecise [74], this situation is also known as decision making problems in a fuzzy context or fuzzy decision making [9]. Fuzzy sets theory [58, 131], intervals [75], intuitionistic fuzzy sets [3], hesitant fuzzy sets (HFS) [98], fuzzy linguistic approach [130], hesitant fuzzy linguistic terms sets (HFLTTS) [88], etc. have proven to be effective ways to cope with uncertain information in decision problems.

In this memory, the EDM problems are defined in uncertainty environment, i.e., fuzzy context, in which different extensions of fuzzy sets [98, 130, 88] will be employed in our proposals to overcome the difficulties and challenges pointed out in Section 1.1.

## 2.3 Emergency decision making: State of art and limitations

In this section, the state of art of EDM is briefly revised because EDM will be the driving force of our research, and the limitations in current EDM approaches are then pointed out to highlight the importance and necessity of our proposals.

### 2.3.1 Emergency decision making

When an EE occurs, how to take effective and appropriate measures to make an emergency response immediately, to mitigate or reduce the losses caused by EE has drawn great attention of researchers all over the world. Through a plenty collection

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of literature, reading and a comprehensive review, the following main topics related to EDM have been discussed in current EDM studies [2, 23, 51, 52, 84]:

### (1) Related studies on emergency plan

Emergency plan [84] is a formal written plan based on identified potential accidents together with their consequences. This plan describes how such accidents and their consequences should be handled both on-site and off-site. The main aim of the plan is to limit the negative effects of an accident by being prepared with a plan and facilities ready to react without delay. Because emergency plans play an extremely important role in the process of dealing with the accidents, it has drawn great attention and actively explored all over the world.

Using Web of Science Core Collection and Science Citation Index Expanded (SCIE) & Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) index database, searching 'emergency plan' or 'emergency planning' as the title keywords from January 2000 to June 2018, all the publication results of each year are shown in Figure 2.3 and Table 2.1.

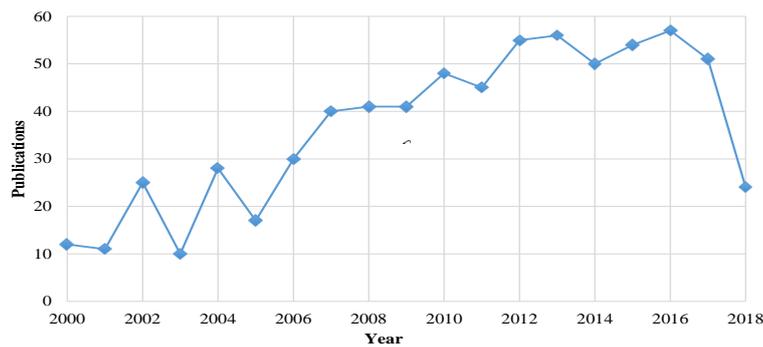


Figure 2.3: Publications of each year on emergency plan

Table 2.1: Publications of each year on emergency plan

Year	Publications	Year	Publications	Year	Publications	Year	Publications
2000	12	2001	11	2002	25	2003	10
2004	28	2005	17	2006	30	2007	40
2008	41	2009	41	2010	48	2011	45
2012	55	2013	56	2014	50	2015	54
2016	57	2017	51	2018	10		

It can be seen clearly that the related studies on emergency plan represents increasing tendency in recent years, and has become one of the active research topics in emergency management.

By analytical induction of current studies on emergency plan, it is found that the main researches focus on the following topics:

*(a) Research on the formulation of emergency plans for different subjects*

Some studies focus on the researches on the formulation of emergency plans for toxic gas (materials) release, such as ammonia release accident [84], toxic gas release accident occurred in big cities [135], chlorine gas release in processing plant [101], high temperature gas release in nuclear power plant [30]. Some studies are about the researches on the formulation of emergency plan for specific industry or area, such as chemical industry accidents [47], carbon capture and storage in North American [93], hospitality and tourism industry in Malaysian [2], metro operation accidents [71], bombing terrorist attack on Manchester's city centre [118]. There are others researches on the standard (framework) about the formulation of emergency plan for different objectives, such as the framework of national gas emergency plan in European Union [134], top-level design of the emergency plan framework for China [67], framework of compilation of emergency plan for work accidents in enterprise [19], framework of emergency plan for different objectives ( individual, regional, and national) in Brazil [13].

Previous works clearly show that current studies on the formulation of emergency plan have obtained fruitful results, and related research results have been widely applied in practical production or real life. The EDM based on emergency plan has been widely used in practical coping processes of EEs, which establishes the solid foundation for emergency management.

*(b) Research on the affected elements and supporting tools used in the design of emergency plans*

Some studies focus on the different methods or ways to design the emergency plan considering related features of EEs such as, design the emergency plan based on hierarchical task network (HTN) planning considering features of incomplete information, concurrent execution and uncertain execution durations [64], considering resources and temporal constraints [82], and considering emergency command operation requirements [97], design the emergency plans for different scenarios considering limited human resources and materials [51, 52], design the emergency plans for civil protection considering land use and related elements [81], design the emergency plans based on test and practice experiences of on-site and off-site [85]. Others researches on the design of emergency plan by using computers or related assistant systems, such as design the emergency plan through the computer simulations of different scenarios [45], design the emergency plan for urban fire risk by using geographical information systems [35], design and improve the capacity and validity of emergency plan by using self-protection management support system [15].

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According to above review, we can see that current studies on emergency plan have achieved abundant and relevant results from different perspectives by using various methods and ways.

*(c) Research on the evaluation about emergency plan performance*

When emergency plans are designed, it is necessary to evaluate their feasibility and validity in order to find out immediately the problems and modify/improve the plans to ensure their effectiveness [40]. Therefore, different evaluation approaches are proposed, such as combination of analytic hierarchy process (AHP) and fuzzy theories [18], fuzzy comprehensive evaluation method [23], combination of fuzzy cognitive maps and AHP method [57], fuzzy AHP and 2-tuple fuzzy linguistic approach [54], timed colored hybrid Petri-net based method [138].

Current evaluation studies have evaluated emergency plans by using various methods from different perspectives, the problems in existing emergency plans are immediately modified and improved through the evaluation process to improve the coping capacity of emergency plans. Such kind of research contents replenish and perfect the current related studies of emergency plans.

**(2) Studies on related features of emergency events**

Similarly, using Web of Science Core Collection and Science Citation Index Expanded (SCIE) & Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) index database, searching 'emergency decision making' as the title keywords from January 2000 to June 2018 in "Operations research management science or Management", all the publication results of each year are shown in Figure 2.4 and Table 2.2

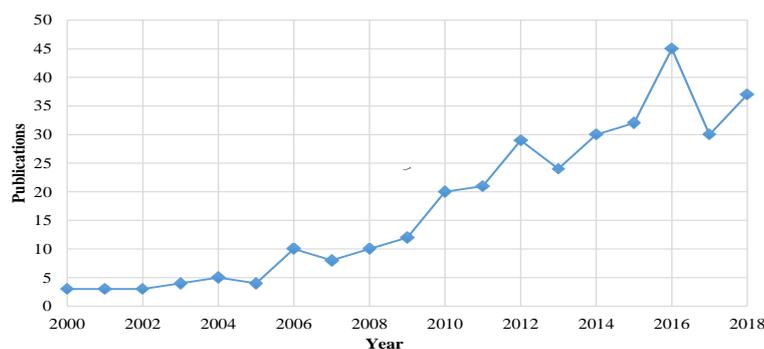


Figure 2.4: Publications of each year on EDM

EEs are usually featured by uncertain, incomplete and inadequate information, dynamic evaluation and so on. Existing EDM approaches have considered these features from various aspects in order to make the emergency response pertinently, effectively, and successfully.

Some studies have proposed various methods to deal with the related problems

Table 2.2: Publications of each year on EDM

Year	Publications	Year	Publications	Year	Publications	Year	Publications
2000	3	2001	3	2002	3	2003	4
2004	5	2005	4	2006	10	2007	8
2008	10	2009	12	2010	20	2011	21
2012	29	2013	24	2014	30	2015	32
2016	45	2017	30	2018	37		

of information features, such as incomplete and inadequate information problems [32, 54, 91, 109, 137]. Others have developed different approaches on the related problems of dynamic evaluation of EEs, such as dynamic decision models based on game theory [128], fault tree analysis method [68], the combination of entropy principle and dissipative structure theory [61], machine learning [139] and so forth.

Through the previous review, it can be clearly seen that different studies have discussed the related features of EEs from different points of view and achieved successful achievements, which make significant and important contributions to the development of emergency management. However, based on this review, it is found that there are some problems that have not been solved yet and also there are still some limitations in current studies. For sake of clarity, the coming subsection describes in further detail such limitations.

### 2.3.2 Limitations in current emergency decision making

As it has been previously pointed out, there are several limitations in current EDM studies, which are listed as follows:

1. Regarding the related information features of EEs, current studies only consider single type of information (numerical values [123], interval values [109], linguistic variables [54]) to deal with the uncertain information, it is seldom to consider different types of information at the same time. However, in real world EE, it is common that heterogeneous information contexts appear in the EE management.
2. Regarding the dynamic evaluation of EEs, current studies just discuss the dynamic feature only from the perspective of time changes [53, 107], do not consider the updated information along with the evolution of EEs, that it is common in EEs because not only the time changes but also information related the EEs (alternatives, criteria, experts etc.).
3. It is seldom to consider the DM's or experts' personal different behaviors (bounded rational, hesitation) in current EDM approaches [39, 60, 117, 123],

## **2.2.4. Group emergency decision making and consensus reaching process**

however, such behaviors are key and inevitable problems in real world and must be considered in EDM problems.

With respect to the previous limitations, this research memory will conduct a series of deep researches on these limitations and related topics in order to fill these gaps and enrich the theoretical basis and methods of current EDM.

## **2.4 Group emergency decision making and consensus reaching process**

We have pointed out in Section 2.1.2 the usefulness and necessity of GDM process in those decision situations in which the group is smarter than the individual and several points of view can contribute to achieve a better solution. Therefore, when in real world, it is facing complex EEs, the difficulty to make comprehensive and reasonable judgements in short time based on individual DM's wisdoms increase, while using group wisdoms to solve such kind of complex problems is a reasonable and effective way because of including a wide knowledge and expertise in addition to multiple perspectives to solve the EDM. Regarding the diversity and complexity of EEs, related problems about group emergency decision making (GEDM) have drawn increasing attention from all over the world [105, 106, 123, 126, 127].

In this section, some basic concepts and knowledge about GEDM are reviewed in order to show the tendency and developments of current GEDM.

### **2.4.1 Group emergency decision making**

Group emergency decision making consists of the evolution of the emergency decision making to a scheme that considers multiple experts with diverse professional backgrounds (e.g., hydrological, geological, meteorological, sociological, and demographic) who act as a think tank supporting the DM in the decision process.

Unlike other group decision-making (GDM) problems, such as supplier selection [24, 83], supply-chain risk management [6, 11], and large construction projects [56], GEDM problems are always defined under strong time constraints [27], which implies high risk and uncertainty [70], and their outcomes might result in extremely serious social consequences in the form of loss of lives and property [60]. Therefore, a GEDM process whose decisions are made among all experts should avoid conflicts and useless solutions [70] in order to obtain higher-quality decisions with timely response [12, 94]. Usually, in GEDM problems, experts play the role of think tank in supporting the DM who is in charge of the EE by means of a two-step decision solving process that consists of [79]:

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- An aggregation process, in which individual information provided by experts is aggregated;
- A selection process, in which alternatives are obtained as solutions to the problems.

Such a general scheme of GEDM process is shown in Figure 1.2.

Through a comprehensive analysis on current GEDM studies, there are two main topics that have been discussed so far in specialized literature. One is related to studies on how to deal with group opinions [39, 96, 125, 127, 129], the another one is related to studies on large-scale GEDM problems [122, 123, 124, 126].

The main limitations in current GEDM studies have been pointed out in Section 1.1, such as *experts' psychological behavior*, *experts' hesitation*, *experts' opinions fusion* etc., this research memory will carry out a series of related studies to overcome them by using prospect theory, HFS, HFLTS and so forth.

#### 2.4.2 Consensus reaching process

Experts' opinions play an important and crucial role in GEDM process, which determines the quality and impacts of decision making, therefore, their opinions should be properly considered. There are two different kinds of ways for dealing with a GDM problem (see Figure 2.5): a direct approach and an indirect approach [79]. A direct approach obtains the solution directly from experts' information, whereas in an indirect approach, collective information is computed before the solution is determined.

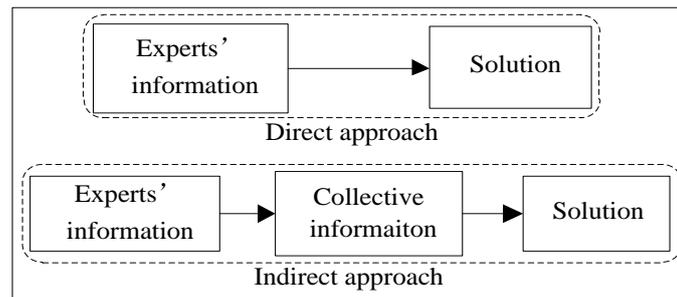


Figure 2.5: Two different ways for dealing with a GDM problem

In both cases to obtain a useful solution in the selection process, it is convenient to reach an acceptable agreement among all involved experts, otherwise, some experts might refuse the solution or feel frustrated on the decision results because they can think that their opinions have not been considered sufficiently. Therefore, how

## 2.4.4. Group emergency decision making and consensus reaching process

to achieve an acceptable agreement among all involved experts is an interesting and worthy topic to study. Consensus reaching process (CRP) is the process in which experts' opinions bring closer to each other and finally obtain an acceptable agreement among all involved experts, which is defined [12] as a dynamic and iterative process consisting of several rounds of discussion in which experts adjust their initial opinions in order to make themselves closer to each other and then reach a collective opinion that is used to make the final decision [12, 94]. A general scheme of CRP is shown in Figure 2.6, which consists of four main phases:

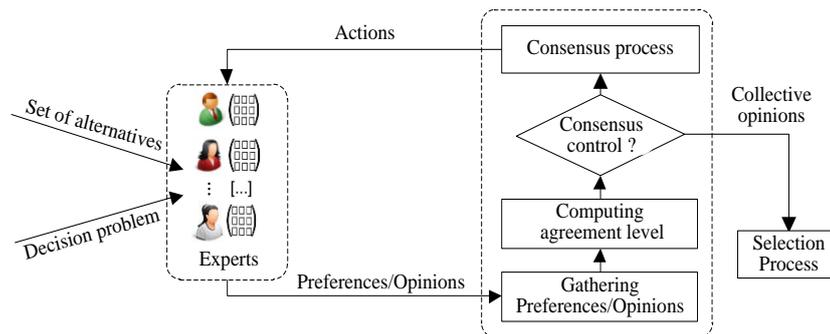


Figure 2.6: General scheme of CRP

1. Gathering preferences/opinions

The preferences/opinions regarding the given decision problem provided by experts are gathered in this phase.

2. Computing agreement level

There are two different measures that can be used to compute agreement level [78]: one is based on distances from individual expert to collective preference; another is based on distances between preferences of different pairs of experts.

3. Consensus control

Consensus threshold is set in this phase, which denotes the minimum value of acceptable agreement. If the agreement level obtained in previous phase is greater than the consensus threshold that means the collective opinions have been reached, and then the process moves into selection process; otherwise, it moves into consensus process.

4. Consensus process

If the agreement level is not enough, a procedure should be conducted to increase the level of agreement in another discussion round. The procedure can

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be classified into two categories [78]: 1) with feedback procedure [73, 94], in which a moderator identifies the farthest assessments from consensus in the current round, and then some suggestions for experts are generated to modify their assessments to get closer to the rest of the group in a new round; 2) without feedback procedure [66, 120], in which experts' assessments are updated automatically to increase the agreement level, in such procedure, experts only provide their initial preferences/opinions, experts are no necessary to be involved in a new discussion round. In this phase, the number of maximum rounds should be set in order to avoid an endless process.

CRP is one of the most studied topics [78] in current GDM and GEDM problems, important and relevant results have been recently achieved [39, 78, 96, 125, 127, 129].

CRPs in GEDM is not our main aim in this research but in Section 4.3 it will be introduced a novel CRP model for GEDM under uncertain information that overcome several limitations of current CRPs in GEDM for dealing timely with different types of uncertainty.

## 2.5 Methods and models

Here, different methods and models used across this research memory are briefly revised in following subsections, including prospect theory, fuzzy TODIM, fuzzy TOPSIS based on alpha-level sets, and hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets and so on. All of them are relevant for the different proposals that will be developed in this research to achieve our goals.

### 2.5.1 Prospect theory

Prospect theory (PT) was first introduced in 1979 [55] and extended in 1992 [103] by Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky as a behavior economic theory, which describes the way in which people choose between probabilistic alternatives that involve risk when the probabilities of outcomes are known. According to this theory, people make decisions based on the potential value of losses and gains rather than the final outcome.

PT is regarded as the most influential theory among different behavioral decision making theories such as regret theory [7], disappointment theory [8], third-generation PT [95]. Since PT was proposed, it has been studied [95, 102, 103] and widely applied to solve various decision-making problems, such as asset allocation [10], health domains [4, 5], portfolio insurance [29], traffic management [62, 140], multi-attribute decision making [34], and emergency decision making [69, 109], considering humans' psychological behavior under uncertainty.

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The first key concept in PT is the "*reference point*" (RP), which is defined as a neutral position asset or expectation value of people who want to gain an amount or not to lose it. RP determines the feeling of gains or losses based on the difference between expectation and outcomes; the value of the RP is affected by the expectations of people [55].

In multi-attribute decision-making problems, the attributes can be classified into two types: benefits and costs [72]. The higher a benefit attribute is, the better the situation is, while the higher a cost attribute is, the worse the situation is.

According to different types of attributes, a RP changes with people's expectations with respect to the predefined amounts to gains or losses. For a better understanding of the RPs in PT, see Figure 2.7 (benefit attributes versus cost attributes). According to Figure 2.7, RP is analogously defined for cost attributes.

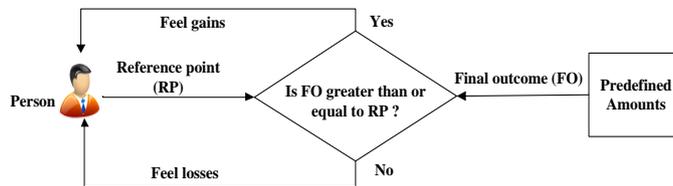


Figure 2.7: Gains and losses based on reference point and predefined amounts

In Kahneman and Tversky [55] and Tversky and Kahneman [103], it has shown that people's psychological behavior exhibits a risk-aversion tendency for gains and a risk-seeking tendency for losses. Therefore, PT describes the decision process in the following three stages.

1. In the editing phase, people decide which outcomes they consider are equivalent, set an RP, consider less outcomes as losses and greater outcomes as gains for the benefit attribute, and consider less outcomes as gains and greater outcomes as losses for the cost attribute.
2. In the evaluation phase, people behave as if they would compute a prospect value by using a value function based on the potential outcomes and then calculate the overall prospect values.
3. In the selection phase, the alternative of having a higher overall prospect value is finally selected.

The PT involves the following three important principles [55]:

- Reference dependence. Experts perceive gains and losses according to an RP. Thus, the prospect value function can be divided into a gain domain and a loss domain regarding the RP.

- Diminishing sensitivity. Experts exhibit a risk-aversion tendency for gains and a risk-seeking tendency for losses. According to the principle of diminishing sensitivity, the prospect value function is concave in the loss domain and convex in the gain domain, that is, the marginal value of both gains and losses is decreasing with size.
- Loss aversion. The experts are more sensitive to losses than to equal gains [1]. In accordance with the principle of loss aversion, the prospect value function is steeper in the loss domain than in the gain domain.

According to these three principles, an S-shaped value function is proposed in PT (see Figure 2.8), which shows a prospect value function with a convex S-shape for losses and a concave S-shape for gains. Prospect values are calculated for measuring the magnitude of gains and losses by using a value function in PT, which is defined on deviations from the RP, and expressed in the form of a power law according to the following expression [103].

$$v(x) \in \begin{cases} x^\alpha, & x \geq 0 \\ -\lambda(-x)^\beta, & x < 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are power parameters related to gains and losses, respectively,  $0 \leq \alpha, \beta \leq 1$ , where  $x$  denotes the gains or losses with  $x \geq 0$  or  $x < 0$ , respectively, and  $\lambda$  is the risk-aversion parameter, which has the characteristic of being steeper for losses than for gains,  $\lambda > 1$ .

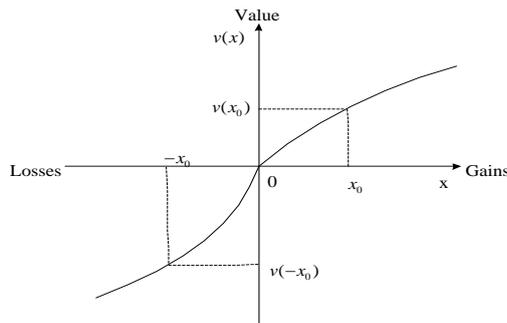


Figure 2.8: S-shaped value function of prospect theory

### 2.5.2 TODIM and Fuzzy TODIM method

TODIM (an acronym in Portuguese "TOMada de Deciso Iterativa Multicritrio") method, proposed by Gomes and Lima [42, 43], is a popular MCDM method based

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on prospect theory [55] to capture human being's psychological behavior, which is defined for dealing with the MCDM problems in which the criteria representatives are in the format of crisp values. It has been widely applied to solve different decision problems [41, 80]. The TODIM [42, 43] method is briefly reviewed as follows.

### 2.5.2.1 TODIM method

Let  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  be a set of alternatives,  $a_i$  denotes the  $i$ -th alternative,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .  $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n\}$  be a set of criteria/attributes,  $w_c = (w_{c_1}, w_{c_2}, \dots, w_{c_n})$  be the weighting vector of criteria/attributes,  $w_{c_j}$  denotes the weight of  $j$ -th criterion/attribute,  $c_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Let  $X = (x_{ij})_{m \times n}$  be the decision matrix,  $x_{ij}$  denotes the assessment provided by decision maker regarding alternative  $a_i$  concerning criterion  $c_j$ .

Step 1: Normalize decision matrix,  $X = (x_{ij})_{m \times n}$  into  $\bar{X} = (\bar{x}_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , using the normalization method regarding different types of criterion (cost or benefit).

Step 2: The reference criterion  $c_r$  is determined and the relative weight  $w_{j_r}$  of  $c_j$  can be obtained, i.e.,

$$w_{j_r} = \frac{w_{c_j}}{w_r} \quad (2.2)$$

where  $w_r = \max\{w_{c_j} | j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

Step 3: The dominance degree,  $\Phi_j(a_i, a_k)$ , of alternative  $a_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) over the rest of alternatives  $a_k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) regarding criterion  $c_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) is calculated, i.e.,

$$\Phi_j(a_i, a_k) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{(\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_{kj})w_{j_r} / (\sum_{j=1}^n w_{j_r})}, (\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_{kj}) \geq 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\theta} \sqrt{(\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_{kj})(\sum_{j=1}^n w_{j_r}) / w_{j_r}}, (\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_{kj}) < 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.3)$$

where  $(\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_{kj}) \geq 0$  and  $(\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_{kj}) < 0$  represents the gain and loss of alternative  $a_i$  over  $a_k$  regarding criterion  $c_j$ , respectively.  $\theta$  denotes the attenuation factor of the losses,  $\theta > 0$ .

Step 4: The dominance degree,  $\delta(a_i, a_k)$ , of alternative  $a_i$  over the rest of alternatives  $a_k$  is calculated, i.e.,

$$\delta(a_i, a_k) = \sum_{j=1}^n \Phi_j(a_i, a_k) \quad (2.4)$$

Step 5: The overall dominance degree,  $\eta(a_i)$ , of alternative  $a_i$  is calculated, i.e.,

$$\eta(a_i) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(a_i, a_k) - \min_i \{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(a_i, a_k)\}}{\max_i \{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(a_i, a_k)\} - \min_i \{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(a_i, a_k)\}} \quad (2.5)$$

Step 6: According to the overall dominance degree of each alternative, the corresponding ranking can be determined. The greater  $\eta(a_i)$ , the better alternative  $a_i$ .

### 2.5.2.2 Fuzzy TODIM method

To cope with complex problems and uncertain information in the real world, the TODIM method has been extended to deal with fuzzy MCDM problems [99, 115]. The fuzzy TODIM method [99, 59] is briefly reviewed below.

Let  $P = (p_{ij})_{m \times n}$  be a fuzzy decision matrix,  $p_{ij} = (p_{ij}^1, p_{ij}^2, p_{ij}^3, p_{ij}^4)$  denotes the rating of alternative  $a_i$  concerning  $c_j$ . Due to the main differences between TODIM and fuzzy TODIM are Step 1 and Step 3, to save space, only those two steps are introduced as follows:

Step 1: The fuzzy decision matrix,  $P = (p_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , is normalized into  $\bar{P} = (\bar{p}_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , according to the cost and benefit criteria.

Step 3: The dominance degree,  $\Phi_j(a_i, a_k)$ , of  $a_i$  over the rest of alternatives  $a_k (k = 1, 2, \dots, m)$  regarding  $c_j$  is calculated, i.e.,

$$\Phi_j(a_i, a_k) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{w_{jr} / (\sum_{j=1}^n w_{jr})} d(\bar{p}_{ij}, \bar{p}_{kj}), \\ F(\bar{p}_{ij}) - F(\bar{p}_{kj}) \geq 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\theta} \sqrt{(\sum_{j=1}^n w_{jr}) / w_{jr}} d(\bar{p}_{ij}, \bar{p}_{kj}), \\ F(\bar{p}_{ij}) - F(\bar{p}_{kj}) < 0 \end{cases} \quad (2.6)$$

where  $d(\bar{p}_{ij}, \bar{p}_{kj})$  represents the distance between two fuzzy numbers  $\bar{p}_{ij}$  and  $\bar{p}_{kj}$ .  $\theta$  denotes the attenuation factor of the losses,  $\theta > 0$ .  $F(*)$  is a defuzzification function [59].

In this memory, we will use the fuzzy TODIM method [99] based on prospect theory [55] to consider experts' psychological behavior in fuzzy environment because of its advantage and capability of capturing such behavior under fuzzy environment.

### 2.5.3 TOPSIS and Fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets

For easy understanding of fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets, the TOPSIS method is first reviewed.

#### 2.5.3.1 TOPSIS method

TOPSIS (Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution) method was first proposed by Huwang and Yoon [48], which is a very popular MADM method and has been widely applied to solve different decision problems [16, 17, 48, 111].

To avoid repeated expressions, the notations and related meanings about alternatives, criteria, and criteria weights are as same as that defined in Section 2.5.2.1. Let  $X = (x_{ij})_{m \times n}$  be the decision matrix,  $x_{ij}$  denotes the values/ratings assigned to alternative  $a_i$  with respect to criterion  $c_j$ . Then, the TOPSIS method is briefly reviewed below.

Step 1: Normalize the decision matrix  $X = (x_{ij})_{m \times n}$  using the following equation:

$$\bar{x}_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij}^2}}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m; j = 1, \dots, n \quad (2.7)$$

Normalized decision matrix  $\bar{X} = (\bar{x}_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , where  $\bar{x}_{ij}$  is the normalized criteria rating.

Step 2: Calculate the weighted normalized decision matrix  $V = (v_{ij})_{m \times n}$

$$v_{ij} = w_{c_j} \bar{x}_{ij}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m; j = 1, \dots, n \quad (2.8)$$

where  $w_{c_j}$  is the relative weight of the  $j$ -th criterion.

Step 3: Determine the ideal and negative-ideal solutions:

$$\begin{aligned} A^* &= \{v_1^*, \dots, v_m^*\} \\ &= \{(\max_j v_{ij}, j \in \Omega_b), (\min_j v_{ij}, j \in \Omega_c)\} \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^- &= \{v_1^-, \dots, v_m^-\} \\ &= \{(\min_j v_{ij}, j \in \Omega_b), (\max_j v_{ij}, j \in \Omega_c)\} \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

where  $\Omega_b$  and  $\Omega_c$  are the sets of benefit criteria/attributes and cost criteria/attributes, respectively.

Step 4: Calculate the Euclidean distances of each alternative from the ideal solution and the negative-ideal solution, respectively:

$$D_i^* = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (v_{ij} - v_j^*)^2}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \quad (2.11)$$

$$D_i^- = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (v_{ij} - v_j^-)^2}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \quad (2.12)$$

Step 5: Calculate the relative closeness  $RC_i$  for each alternative with respect to the ideal solution. The relative closeness of the alternative  $a_i$  with respect to  $A^*$  is defined as:

$$RC_i = \frac{D_i^-}{D_i^* + D_i^-}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \quad (2.13)$$

Step 6: Rank the alternatives according to their relative closeness to the ideal solution. The greater  $RC_i$  is, the better alternative  $a_i$ . The best alternative is the one with the greatest relative closeness to the ideal solution.

### 2.5.3.2 Fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets

The fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets [111] is a distinctive and powerful approach among other fuzzy TOPSIS versions [16, 17, 25, 26, 111] due to its prominent advantages of keeping the uncertain information in a better way. This is the significant difference between the fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets and other versions. Due to such advantages, the fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets will be used in this research, therefore, it will be reviewed in short [111].

Let  $\tilde{X} = (\tilde{x}_{ij})_{m \times n}$  be a fuzzy decision matrix characterized by membership functions  $\mu_{\tilde{x}_{ij}}(x)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, m, j = 1, \dots, n$ ) and  $\tilde{W} = (\tilde{w}_1, \dots, \tilde{w}_n)$  be the fuzzy weights characterized by  $\mu_{\tilde{w}_j}(x)$  ( $j = 1, \dots, n$ ). If all the criteria/attributes,  $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$ , are assessed by using linguistic term sets with the same syntax and semantics, then the fuzzy decision matrix  $\tilde{X}$  has the same dimension and therefore it is not necessary any normalization. Otherwise,  $\tilde{X}$  has to be normalized.

If  $\tilde{x}_{ij} = (a_{ij}, b_{ij}, c_{ij}, d_{ij})$  ( $i = 1, \dots, m, j = 1, \dots, n$ ) are trapezoidal fuzzy numbers, then the normalization process can be carried out by (the same normalization process for triangular fuzzy numbers),

$$\tilde{r}_{ij} = \left( \frac{a_{ij}}{d_j^*}, \frac{b_{ij}}{d_j^*}, \frac{c_{ij}}{d_j^*}, \frac{d_{ij}}{d_j^*} \right), \quad i = 1, \dots, m; j \in \Omega_b \quad (2.14)$$

$$\tilde{r}_{ij} = \left( \frac{a_j^-}{d_{ij}}, \frac{a_j^-}{c_{ij}}, \frac{a_j^-}{b_{ij}}, \frac{a_j^-}{a_{ij}} \right), \quad i = 1, \dots, m; j \in \Omega_c \quad (2.15)$$

where

$$d_j^* = \max_i d_{ij}, \quad j \in \Omega_b, \quad (2.16)$$

$$a_j^- = \min_i a_{ij}, \quad j \in \Omega_c \quad (2.17)$$

where  $\Omega_b$  and  $\Omega_c$  denotes the sets of benefit and cost criteria/attributes, respectively.

It can be seen that  $\tilde{r}_{ij}$  belong to  $[0,1]$ , thus, positive and negative ideal solutions can be defined as  $A^* = \{1, \dots, 1\}$  and  $A^- = \{0, \dots, 0\}$ , respectively. For a fuzzy decision matrix  $\tilde{X} = (\tilde{x}_{ij})_{m \times n}$  without normalization, the positive and negative ideal solutions can be obtained as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} P^* &= \{x_1^*, \dots, x_m^*\} \\ &= \{(\max_j d_{ij}, j \in \Omega_b), (\min_j a_{ij}, j \in \Omega_c)\} \end{aligned} \quad (2.18)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P^- &= \{x_1^-, \dots, x_m^-\} \\ &= \{(\min_j a_{ij}, j \in \Omega_b), (\max_j d_{ij}, j \in \Omega_c)\} \end{aligned} \quad (2.19)$$

Let  $(r_{ij})_\alpha = [(r_{ij})_\alpha^L, (r_{ij})_\alpha^U]$  and  $(w_j)_\alpha = [(w_j)_\alpha^L, (w_j)_\alpha^U]$  be alpha-level sets of  $\tilde{r}_{ij}$  and  $\tilde{w}_j$ , respectively. Then, Eq. (2.13), the relative closeness (RC),  $RC_i$  of the alternative  $a_i$  with respect to  $A^*$  can be written as:

$$RC_i = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (w_j r_{ij})^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (w_j r_{ij})^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n (w_j (r_{ij} - 1))^2}} \quad (2.20)$$

where

$$(w_j)_\alpha^L \leq w_j \leq (w_j)_\alpha^U, j = 1, \dots, n \quad (2.21)$$

$$(r_{ij})_\alpha^L \leq r_{ij} \leq (r_{ij})_\alpha^U, j = 1, \dots, n, i = 1, \dots, m \quad (2.22)$$

$RC_i$  is an interval value based on Eq. (2.20), its upper and lower bounds can be calculated by utilizing the following simplified pair of fractional programming models (see [111] for further details):

$$(RC_i)_\alpha^U = \text{Max} \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (w_j (r_{ij})_\alpha^U)^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (w_j (r_{ij})_\alpha^U)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n (w_j ((r_{ij})_\alpha^U - 1))^2}} \quad (2.23)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad (w_j)_\alpha^L \leq w_j \leq (w_j)_\alpha^U, j = 1, \dots, n$$

$$(RC_i)_\alpha^L = \text{Min} \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (w_j (r_{ij})_\alpha^L)^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (w_j (r_{ij})_\alpha^L)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n (w_j ((r_{ij})_\alpha^L - 1))^2}} \quad (2.24)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad (w_j)_\alpha^L \leq w_j \leq (w_j)_\alpha^U, j = 1, \dots, n$$

When different alpha levels are set, then,  $(RC_i)_\alpha = [(RC_i)_\alpha^L, (RC_i)_\alpha^U]$  can be obtained by solving Eqs. (2.23) and (2.24) respectively. According to Zadeh's extension principle ( $\tilde{A} = \bigcup_\alpha \alpha A_\alpha, 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ ,  $\tilde{A}$  is a fuzzy number) [141],  $\tilde{RC}_i$  can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{RC}_i &= \bigcup_\alpha \alpha \cdot (RC_i)_\alpha \\ &= \bigcup_\alpha \alpha [(RC_i)_\alpha^L, (RC_i)_\alpha^U], 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \end{aligned} \quad (2.25)$$

where  $\tilde{RC}_i$  represents the fuzzy RC of alternative  $a_i$  based on corresponding alpha levels from 0 to 1.

For  $n$  alternatives, there are usually  $n$  fuzzy relative closenesses, which are all expressed by their alpha-level sets. In order to select a best alternative, these fuzzy RC need to be defuzzified. The averaging level cuts [77] is used in this memory because of its the simplest defuzzification method based on alpha-level sets.

Let  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K$  be different alpha levels, the static rating,  $m(\tilde{RC}_i)$ , of alternative  $a_i$  can be determined by [77]

$$m(\tilde{RC}_i) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \left( \frac{(RC_i)_{\alpha_k}^L + (RC_i)_{\alpha_k}^U}{2} \right), i = 1, \dots, m \quad (2.26)$$

where  $K$  is the number of alpha levels.

Finally, the alternatives can be ranked according to the defuzzified value  $m(\tilde{RC}_i)$ , of each alternative.

#### 2.5.4 Hesitant fuzzy sets and hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets

As mentioned previously, hesitation is quite common in mankind daily life, particularly, when people are in complex or time restriction environment, they are usually under pressure and hesitate about their choices or decisions. Such an issue must be handled to make the decision process close to the real world situations. On such a background, hesitant fuzzy sets (HFS) [98] and hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets (HFLTS) [88], as the most two popular fuzzy extended theories, were proposed to deal with the hesitant information in quantitative and qualitative context, respectively. Due to the fact that DMs or experts might hesitate when they provide their assessments/opinions in real world EDM problems. Therefore, it seems necessary to deal with such practical and inevitable issue. Thus, in our research, HFS and HFLTS will be employed to handle expert' hesitation for quantitative and qualitative information respectively, which will be reviewed in short as follows.

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### 2.5.4.1 Hesitant fuzzy sets

Hesitant fuzzy sets was introduced by Torra [98] that is the extension of fuzzy sets to model the hesitancy in quantitative contexts reviewed in depth [86, 90]. It is defined as below:

**Definition 2** [98] *Let  $M = \{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n\}$  be a set of  $n$  membership functions. The HFS associated to  $M$ ,  $h_M$ , is defined as:*

$$h_M : X \rightarrow \wp([0, 1]) \quad (2.27)$$

$$h_M(x) \rightarrow \bigcup_{\mu \in M} \{\mu(x)\} \quad (2.28)$$

where  $X$  is a reference set,  $x \in X$ .

This definition was extended and formalized with the concept of hesitant fuzzy element (HFE) by Xia and Xu [121]. In their proposal, the HFS was expressed by following mathematical representation, i.e.,

$$E = \{\langle x, h_E(x) \rangle : x \in X\} \quad (2.29)$$

where  $h_E(x)$  is a set of values in  $[0, 1]$ , denoting the possible membership degrees of the element  $x \in E$  to the set  $E$ . For convenience, they defined  $h_E(x)$  as the HFE and  $H = \cup h(x)$  as the HFSs, a HFE is a subset of HFSs (see [121] for further details).

Torra introduced in [98] the concept of the envelop of a HFE and proved that is an intuitionistic fuzzy value (IFV) according to the following definition:

**Definition 3** [98] *Let  $h$  be a HFE, the IFV  $A_{env}(h)$  is the envelop of  $h$ , in which  $A_{env}(h)$  can be represented as  $(h^-, 1 - h^+)$  being  $h^- = \min \{\sigma | \sigma \in h\}$  and  $h^+ = \max \{\sigma | \sigma \in h\}$ .*

Different operations and properties has been defined for HFSs [98] such operations together the managing of intuitionistic fuzzy sets and intervals [90] allow us to interpret HFEs like an interval.

### 2.5.4.2 Hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets

Different studies [87, 88, 89] show that when people hesitate under uncertain or pressure environment, they prefer to use natural language to express such hesitant information. To model the hesitant information in qualitative contexts, the concept of hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets (HFLTS) [88] was introduced and it has drawn great attention recently [65, 104, 106, 115, 116]

The basic concepts and knowledge of HFLTS are introduced in short as follows in order that not-familiar readers understand it easily.

**Definition 4** [88] Let  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  be a linguistic term set, a HFLTS,  $H_S$ , on  $S$  is an ordered finite subset:

$$H_S = \{s_i, s_{i+1}, \dots, s_\varsigma\}, s_\varsigma \in S, \varsigma \in \{i, \dots, j\} \quad (2.30)$$

**Example 1** Let  $S = \{\text{absolute weak, very weak, weak, medium, good, very good, excellent}\}$  be a linguistic term set and  $\delta$  be a linguistic variable, then,  $H_S^1(\delta) = \{\text{good, very good}\}$  and  $H_S^2(\delta) = \{\text{very weak, weak, medium}\}$  are two HFLTSs on  $S$ .

HFLTS is a powerful and useful tool to model the experts' hesitation and the use of context-free grammars [88] allows to generate complex linguistic expressions close to the natural language utilized by human beings in real world [88, 89], which can be modelled by HFLTS. This approach has been widely applied to deal with different decision problems.

**Definition 5** [88] Let  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  be a linguistic term set and  $G_H$  be a context-free grammar. The elements of  $G_H = (V_N, V_T, I, P)$  are defined as below:

$$V_N = \{\langle \text{primary term} \rangle, \langle \text{composite term} \rangle, \langle \text{unary relation} \rangle, \langle \text{binary relation} \rangle, \langle \text{conjunction} \rangle\}$$

$$V_T = \{\text{lower than, greater than, at least, at most, between, and, } s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$$

$$I \in V_N$$

$$P = \{I ::= \langle \text{primary term} \rangle | \langle \text{composite term} \rangle$$

$$\langle \text{composite term} \rangle ::= \langle \text{unary relation} \rangle \langle \text{primary term} \rangle | \langle \text{binary relation} \rangle$$

$$\langle \text{primary term} \rangle \langle \text{conjunction} \rangle \langle \text{primary term} \rangle$$

$$\langle \text{primary term} \rangle ::= s_0 | s_1 | \dots | s_g$$

$$\langle \text{unary relation} \rangle ::= \text{lower than} | \text{greater than} | \text{at least} | \text{at most}$$

$$\langle \text{binary relation} \rangle ::= \text{between}$$

$$\langle \text{conjunction} \rangle ::= \text{and}\}$$

$S_u$  denotes the comparative linguistic expressions generated by  $G_H$ , which might be either complex linguistic expressions or single linguistic terms.

**Example 2** Considering the context-free grammar,  $G_H$ , introduced in Definition 5 and the linguistic term set  $S$  from Example 1, the following complex linguistic expressions might be obtained:

$$S_{u_1} = \text{at least good}$$

$$S_{u_2} = \text{at most medium}$$

$$S_{u_3} = \text{between good and very good}$$

In order to deal with the comparative linguistic expressions,  $S_u$ , provided by DMs or experts,  $S_u$  are first transformed into  $H_S$  by utilizing the transformation function  $E_{G_H}$ .

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**Definition 6** [89] Let  $E_{G_H}$  be a transformation function that transforms  $S_U$  into  $H_S$ .

$$E_{G_H} : S_U \rightarrow H_S \quad (2.31)$$

Based on  $E_{G_H}$ , different expressions,  $S_U$ , can be transformed into HFLTSs in different ways according to their meaning:

$$E_{G_H}(s_i) = \{s_i | s_i \in S\},$$

$$E_{G_H}(\text{at most } s_i) = \{s_j | s_j \leq s_i \text{ and } s_i \in S\},$$

$$E_{G_H}(\text{at least } s_i) = \{s_j | s_j \geq s_i \text{ and } s_i \in S\},$$

$$E_{G_H}(\text{between } s_i \text{ and } s_j) = \{s_k | s_i \leq s_k \leq s_j \text{ and } s_k \in S\},$$

In this research, to carry out computations with complex linguistic expressions and avoid losing the initial information, fuzzy numbers are used as the transformed information from  $H_S$ .

Once the expressions are represented by  $H_S$ , their fuzzy envelop can be obtained [65].

**Definition 7** [65] Let  $env_F(\cdot)$  be a fuzzy envelop function that transforms  $H_S$  into its fuzzy membership function.

$$env_F(H_S) = T(a, b, c, d) \quad (2.32)$$

$T(a, b, c, d)$  being a trapezoidal fuzzy membership function (see [65] for further details).

In order to facilitate to not-familiar readers the understanding of the process to obtain the fuzzy envelop based on  $H_S$  easily, the process will be briefly reviewed as follows. According to [65], there are four steps (see Figure 2.9) to obtain the fuzzy envelop of the HFLTS:

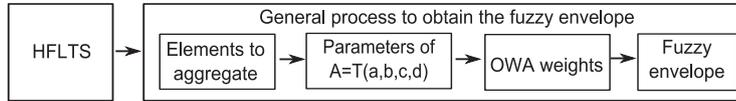


Figure 2.9: General process to obtain the fuzzy envelop

(1) *Obtain the elements to aggregate*: Assume that all linguistic terms  $s_k \in S$  are defined by trapezoidal (triangular) membership functions  $A^k = T(a_L^k, a_M^k, a_M^k, a_R^k)$ ,  $k = 0, 1, \dots, g$ , therefore, the set of points of all membership functions of the linguistic terms in the HFLTS  $H_s = \{s_i, s_{i+1}, \dots, s_j\}$ ,

$$T = \{a_L^i, a_M^i, a_L^{i+1}, a_R^i, a_M^{i+1}, a_L^{i+2}, a_R^{i+1}, \dots, a_L^j, a_R^{j-1}, a_M^j, a_R^j\}$$

can be regarded as the set of elements to aggregate.

According to the fuzzy partitions [92], it obtains  $a_R^{k-1} = a_M^k = a_L^{k+1}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, g-1$ , based on this, the elements to aggregate can be expressed as:

$$T = \{a_L^i, a_M^i, a_M^{i+1}, \dots, a_M^j, a_R^j\}.$$

(2) *Compute the parameters of the trapezoidal fuzzy membership function:* Due to  $A = T(a, b, c, d)$  is a trapezoidal fuzzy membership and  $T = \{a_L^i, a_M^i, a_M^{i+1}, \dots, a_M^j, a_R^j\}$  is an ordered set, therefore,  $a$  and  $d$  can be computed by using min and max operator respectively, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \min\{a_L^i, a_M^i, a_M^{i+1}, \dots, a_M^j, a_R^j\} = a_L^i, \\ d &= \max\{a_L^i, a_M^i, a_M^{i+1}, \dots, a_M^j, a_R^j\} = a_R^j. \end{aligned}$$

The parameters  $b$  and  $c$  can be computed by using OWA operator, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} b &= OWA_{w^s}(a_M^i, a_M^{i+1}, \dots, a_M^j), \\ c &= OWA_{w^t}(a_M^i, a_M^{i+1}, \dots, a_M^j). \end{aligned}$$

where  $s, t = 1, 2$ ,  $s \neq t$  or  $s = t$ .

(3) *Obtain the OWA weights:* There are different ways to determine the OWA weights, the following approach defined in Definition 8 is employed (see [37, 65] for further details)

**Definition 8** [37] Let  $\alpha$  be a parameter belonging to the unit interval  $[0,1]$ , the first kind of OWA weights  $W^1 = (w_1^1, w_2^1, \dots, w_n^1)^T$  is defined as:

$$w_1^1 = \alpha, w_2^1 = \alpha(1-\alpha), w_3^1 = \alpha(1-\alpha)^2, \dots, w_{n-1}^1 = \alpha(1-\alpha)^{n-2}, w_n^1 = (1-\alpha)^{n-1}.$$

The second type of OWA weights  $W^2 = (w_1^2, w_2^2, \dots, w_n^2)^T$  is defined as:

$$w_1^2 = \alpha^{n-1}, w_2^2 = (1-\alpha)\alpha^{n-2}, w_3^2 = (1-\alpha)^2\alpha^{n-3}, \dots, w_{n-1}^2 = (1-\alpha)^{n-2}\alpha, w_n^2 = (1-\alpha).$$

(4) *Obtain the fuzzy envelop:* According to previous steps, for a HFLTS  $H_s$ , its fuzzy envelop  $env_F(H_s)$  can be obtained as the trapezoidal fuzzy membership function  $T(a, b, c, d)$ , (see Figure 2.10), i.e.,

$$env_F(H_s) = T(a, b, c, d)$$

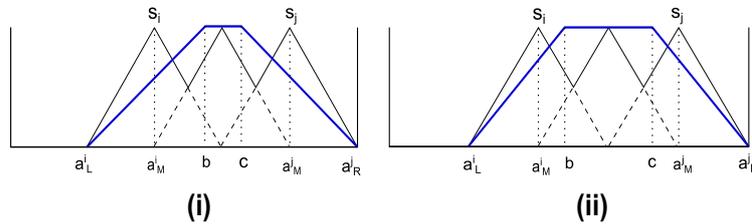


Figure 2.10: The fuzzy envelop of  $H_s$



## Chapter 3

# Research Results

This chapter provides a summary of the main proposals developed in this research memory. Research findings and results will be discussed for each proposal in short. There are four proposals which are related with the different objectives presented in the Introduction chapter:

1. A group decision method based on prospect theory for emergency situations.
2. A dynamic multi-attribute group emergency decision making method considering experts' hesitation.
3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making.
4. A hesitant group emergency decision making method based on prospect theory.

### **3.1 Prospect theory for emergency situations under group decision context**

In order to achieve the first objective pointed out in Section 1.2, we highlight the importance of experts' psychological behavior in EDM process, and then analyse the limitations in current GEDM approaches neglecting its consideration. Afterwards, a group decision method based on prospect theory is proposed to improve current GEDM approaches and tested on a real-world problem.

#### **3.1.1 Experts' psychological behavior in EDM**

As mentioned previously, due to humans' psychological behavior affects their decision making performance, therefore, it plays a very important role in dealing successfully with decision problems under uncertainty [55, 103]. Consequently, several EDM

studies [33, 34, 107] have considered DM's psychological behavior achieving successful results [105, 109, 136].

Nevertheless, the increasing complexity of EDM problems makes that single individuals cannot cope with such processes in many real world EEs [70]. Therefore, a group wisdom view makes easier and more effective the decision processes on real-world complex EEs. However, experts' psychological behavior in these situations has been neglected in extant GEDM problems [39, 60, 129] so far, and it seems necessary to consider it in a similar way to EDM approaches.

To address such a limitation in GEDM problems, we have introduced a new proposal that aims to develop a GEDM method based on prospect theory that considers experts' psychological behavior in the group decision process.

### **3.1.2 Group emergency decision making method based on prospect theory**

This new GEDM method includes several novelties in addition to the use of PT, all of them are enumerated and briefly explained below (further detail can be seen in Chapter 4):

1. This proposal considers a suitable and reasonable group decision scheme for dealing with the complex EEs that hardly would be successfully managed by a single DM. Such a kind of decision scheme collects and fuses each experts' wisdom into a group one. The decision results will be more reliable and reasonable by using a group decision scheme, especially high complex EE.
2. To manage uncertain, vague and imperfect information that is inherent to expert's judgements in these complex GEDM problems, interval-valued modelling is used.
3. Experts' psychological behavior is considered in the GEDM process by using prospect theory. The use of PT in GEDM implies the necessity of defining the Group Reference Point (GRP) concept that reflects the RP of the group. On top of this concept, the GRP model is defined and calculation of gains and losses are determined.

In addition, for carrying out fair comparisons with current studies, we have described an experimental process on a real case study about a barrier lake emergency problem. Eventually, several comparisons are carried out to highlight the validity, feasibility and advantages of this proposal, which not only outstands its importance, but also enriches the current GEDM approaches.

The article associated to this proposal is the following one:

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L. Wang, Y. M. Wang, L. Martínez. A group decision method based on prospect theory for emergency situations. *Information Sciences*, 2017, 418, 119-135.

### 3.2 A dynamic multi-attribute group emergency decision making method considering experts' hesitation

The dynamic evolution of EEs is fact that has not been comprehensively addressed so far. Therefore, it has been necessary to analyse which are the main elements that affect in a relevant way to the successful management of EEs. From this analysis, different elements can evolve dynamically and change across time in the decision process of the EE, there are two distinct features among them, i.e., dynamic and uncertainty. On such basis, it has been introduced and developed a novel dynamic multi-attribute group emergency decision making (MAGEDM) method under uncertainty that considers all those features for a better managing of the EDM.

#### 3.2.1 Analysis on the features of EEs and related limitations in current studies

Different features have diverse impacts on the EEs, key features are usually playing a determinant factor in dealing successfully with the EEs. Therefore, it is necessary to analyse comprehensively these key features of EEs in order to make the emergency response more effectively and pertinently. The main results of the analysis and some related outcomes obtained are briefly enumerated:

1. There are several characteristics of EEs, such as destructiveness, abruptness, complexity, diffuseness, dynamic evolution, inadequacy, uncertainty and so on, which from a comprehensive analysis on real world EE problems results in dynamic evolution and uncertainty that are the most crucial ones in the process of emergency response and they should be considered with a higher priority.
  2. Regarding the dynamic evolution, current EDM studies have discussed about it from the perspective of the time variable, however, the EE time evolution may imply other changes in the features of the EDM problem such as alternatives, criteria and so forth. Nevertheless, current dynamic EDM proposals consider that such features remain unchanged across time. It is an obvious defect in current studies that should be overcome with a novel proposal that can deal with the changes of all these features.
-

3. Finally, the uncertainty modelling has been discussed in EDM literature by using interval values for quantitative contexts, and fuzzy linguistic term sets for qualitative contexts. However, other types of uncertainty can appear in EDM because of lack of information and time pressure, sometimes it is hard for experts to elicit their knowledge with single assessments because they may hesitate among multiple values for assessing alternatives and criteria. Consequently, the modelling of experts' hesitancy should be provided by EDM models when such a type of uncertainty appears, though it is not any model so far that can manage it.

### **3.2.2 Dynamic MAGEDM method considering experts' hesitation**

To overcome previous barriers, we have proposed a new dynamic MAGEDM method that deals with the dynamic evolution of EEs considering both the time changeableness and elements of the decision framework (alternatives, criteria, and experts). At the same time, our proposal deals with different types of uncertainty that are modelled by using interval values, linguistic term sets, and linguistic expressions based on HFLTS, so imprecision, vagueness, and hesitancy can be managed with this MAGEDM method that has the following novelties:

1. Dynamic evolution is considered in this proposal from a new perspective, this proposal enlarges the concept of dynamic scope. Additionally, the modelling of uncertainty based on experts' hesitancy is first proposed for EDM in this proposal. The new perspectives of dynamic evolution and the inclusion of new uncertainties make closer the EDM method to the real world situation, easy to be accepted and understood.
  2. Transformation functions for unifying different uncertain information are defined, which provide the convenience for managing different types of uncertainties. Hence, a simple, correct and flexible way for aggregating experts' opinions is provided, which keeps as much information as possible during the decision process.
  3. A novel method for computing criteria weights by using experts' assessments on the importance of each criteria is presented, which facilitates this process for the problems with high uncertainty.
  4. A fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets is employed due to its advantages of keeping uncertain information in the decision process.
  5. A new selection rule for choosing the best alternative is defined, the new selection rule not only considers each alternative's performance at current decision
-

moment, but also considers its performance in previous decision moments, obtaining a comprehensive result of each alternative, which provides a different view from current dynamic EDM studies.

To highlight the performance, feasibility and validity of our proposal, we have conducted several comparisons with different previous methods that are carried out from different perspectives.

The article associated to this proposal is the following one:

L. Wang, R. M. Rodríguez, Y. M. Wang. A dynamic multi-attribute group emergency decision making method considering experts' hesitation. *International Journal of Computational Intelligence Systems*, 2018, 11(1): 163-182.

### 3.3 Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

During the research developed for previous proposals regarding GEDM, it was detected that there are still several issues that have not been successfully addressed yet, such as the following ones:

(1) In real world emergency problems, there are different types of information regarding the EEs, however, none previous proposals considers different types information at the same time, therefore, it seems necessary and convenient to propose a new decision model to deal with such an issue.

(2) Experts' psychological behavior has been proven that is crucial in the GEDM process, however, there is no proposal considering such an important issue in fuzzy emergency decision environment so far, therefore, it will be included and managed in this proposal.

(3) The CRPs used in GEDM approaches deal just with numerical values, and are not suitable for fuzzy information, additionally, they have a high time cost because of the supervised feedback mechanism that should be softening in GEDM problems due to time restrictions.

(4) The criteria weights determined in existing EDM approaches [33, 68, 107, 109] are provided by DMs, however, it is a big challenge for DM to provide reasonable and scientific criteria weights, especially, when he/she is under pressure in time restriction decision environment, therefore, a novel way for determining criteria weights seems necessary to be explored.

In order to address previous issues, a new GEDM proposal will be developed with the aim of filling these gaps in existing GEDM studies. Therefore, the third

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objective mentioned in Section 1.2 can be reached. Such a new method is composed by the different phases depicted in Figure 3.1 and briefly explained below.

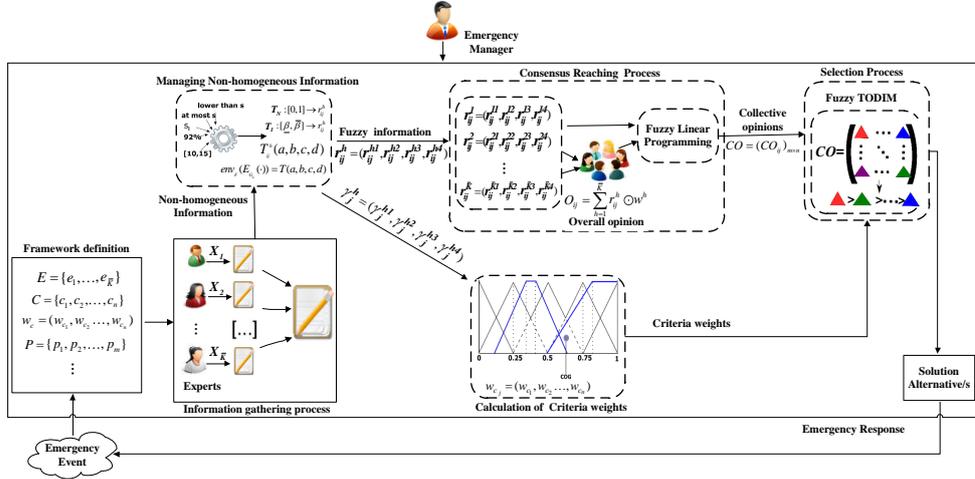


Figure 3.1: Scheme of the processes of our proposal for GEDM

### 3.3.1 Managing non-homogeneous information

To enrich and enlarge the types of information that can be used in GEDM studies, four types of information (numerical values ( $N$ ), interval values ( $I$ ), linguistic terms ( $S$ ), comparative linguistic expressions ( $S_{ll}$ )) are considered in this proposal. To operate with such a non-homogeneous information, an unification process will be applied and corresponding transformation functions used as defined if needed.

In this proposal, different types of information are unified by trapezoidal fuzzy numbers, in order to keep the uncertain information as much as possible during the decision process. The transformation functions for different types of information are shown in Figure 3.2.

Several transformation functions have been already introduced in previous research [106], but they are adopted for our needs in this proposal as follows:

1. For numerical values  $N$ , they are first normalized into the interval  $[0,1]$  and then a transformation function  $T_N$  is utilized to transform them into trapezoidal fuzzy numbers.

Let  $R$  be the domain of the numerical values,  $N_{ij}^h$  be the numerical value provided by the  $h$ -th expert over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion,  $N_{ij}^h$  is normalized into the interval  $[0,1]$ , as follows:

$$\vartheta = \frac{N_{ij}^h}{N^*}$$

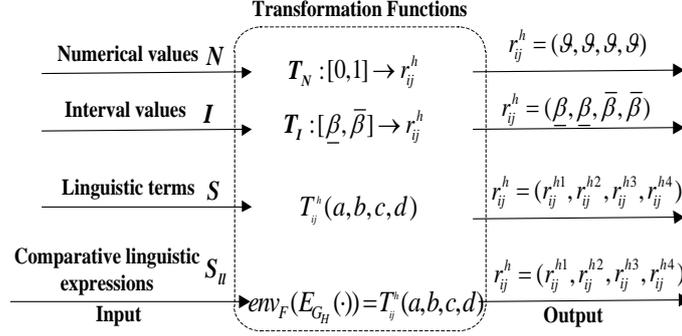


Figure 3.2: Transformation functions for different types of information

where  $\vartheta \in [0, 1]$ ,  $N^* = \max_{h=1,2,\dots,K} \{N_{ij}^h\}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

**Definition 9** [105] A numerical value is transformed into a trapezoidal fuzzy number by utilizing a transformation function  $T_N$ :

$$T_N : [0, 1] \rightarrow r_{ij}^h$$

$$T_N(\vartheta) = r_{ij}^h = (\vartheta, \vartheta, \vartheta, \vartheta)$$

2. The interval values  $I$  are first normalized into  $[0, 1]$  and then a transformation function  $T_I$  is utilized to transform them into trapezoidal fuzzy numbers.

Let  $[\xi^L, \xi^U]$  be the domain of the interval values, let  $[d^L, d^U]_{ij}^h$  be the interval values provided by the  $h$ -th expert over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion, where  $[d^L, d^U]_{ij}^h \in [\xi^L, \xi^U]$ . The interval values  $[d^L, d^U]_{ij}^h$  are normalized into  $[\underline{\beta}, \overline{\beta}]$  as follows:

$$\underline{\beta} = \frac{d^L - \xi^L}{\xi^U - \xi^L} \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{\beta} = \frac{d^U - \xi^L}{\xi^U - \xi^L}$$

The transformation function  $T_I$  is defined as follows:

**Definition 10** [105] An interval value is transformed into a trapezoidal fuzzy number by utilizing a transformation function  $T_I$ :

$$T_I : [\underline{\beta}, \overline{\beta}] \rightarrow r_{ij}^h$$

$$T_I(\underline{\beta}, \overline{\beta}) = r_{ij}^h = (\underline{\beta}, \underline{\beta}, \overline{\beta}, \overline{\beta})$$

where  $\underline{\beta}, \overline{\beta} \in [0, 1]$  and  $\underline{\beta} \leq \overline{\beta}$ .

3. The linguistic terms  $s_k \in S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  are represented by trapezoidal fuzzy numbers that we assume that are normalized in  $[0,1]$ . Therefore, the expert  $e_h$  provides his/her opinions over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion as a linguistic term  $s_k$  that is represented by a trapezoidal fuzzy number  $r_{ij}^h = (r_{ij}^{h1}, r_{ij}^{h2}, r_{ij}^{h3}, r_{ij}^{h4})$ .
4. The comparative linguistic expressions,  $x_{ij}^h \in S_{ll}$  are transformed into HFLTS by  $E_{GH}(\cdot)$  and its fuzzy envelop  $env_F(\cdot)$  obtained by [65],

$$env_F(E_{GH}(x_{ij}^h)) = T_{ij}^h(a, b, c, d) = r_{ij}^h$$

$E_{GH}$  is a function that transforms the linguistic expressions obtained by using  $G_H$ , into HFLTS [89].  $T_{ij}^h(a, b, c, d)$  is a trapezoidal fuzzy membership function (see Section 2.5.4.2) corresponding to the trapezoidal fuzzy number  $r_{ij}^h = (r_{ij}^{h1}, r_{ij}^{h2}, r_{ij}^{h3}, r_{ij}^{h4})$ .

### 3.3.2 Fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model

It has been already pointed out the lack of GEDM approaches applying low-cost consensus reaching processes and able to deal with fuzzy information. Therefore, to achieve agreed solutions in our GEDM method, we propose a CRP before the application of the TODIM able to deal with fuzzy information and that guarantees minimum cost to achieve the agreement. Hence, we will use a fuzzy linear programming based consensus model presented in [66].

The fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model introduced in [66] was defined as:

$$\begin{cases} \min \sum_{h=1}^{\bar{K}} (w^h)^\chi (c - S_p(\tilde{A}_h, \tilde{O})) \\ s.t. \quad d_p(\tilde{A}_h, \tilde{O}) \leq \varepsilon_h, \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K} \end{cases} \quad (3.1)$$

where  $\chi$  is an integer  $\geq 1$ ,  $w^h$  denotes the  $h$ -th experts' importance.  $\varepsilon_h$  denotes a threshold that means the maximum change that the  $h$ -th expert can make, where  $\tilde{A}_h = (a_{h1}, a_{h2}, a_{h3}, a_{h4})$  be the  $h$ -th experts' individual opinion and  $\tilde{O}$  be the overall opinion obtained by aggregating experts' individual opinions.  $d_p(\tilde{A}_h, \tilde{O})$  denotes the distance between  $\tilde{A}_h$  and  $\tilde{O}$ ,  $S_p(\tilde{A}_h, \tilde{O})$  is the similarity between  $\tilde{A}_h$  and  $\tilde{O}$ ,  $c$  is a constant  $> 1$  (see [66, 105] for further information). The scheme of the CRP model in this proposal is shown in Figure 3.3.

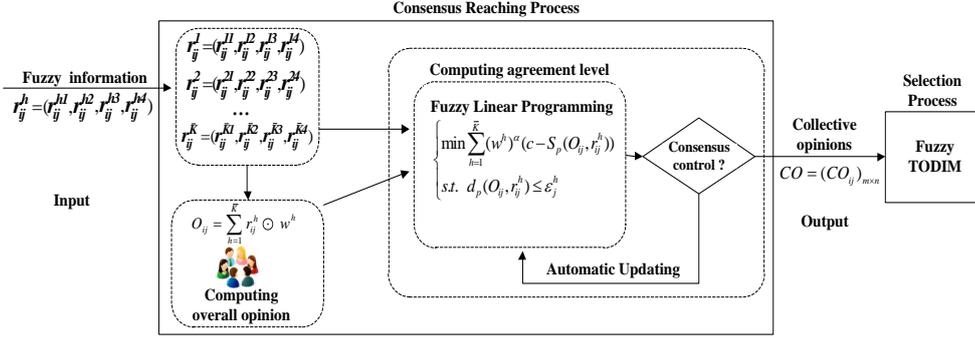


Figure 3.3: CRP model of fuzzy linear programming-based employed in our proposal

### 3.3.3 Experts' psychological behavior in fuzzy emergency decision environment

We have already seen that experts' psychological behavior could be critical for EDM and prospect theory has been widely used for dealing with experts' psychological behavior. In Section 3.1 we have already developed a GEDM method with prospect theory and interval values. However, such a model cannot deal with the trapezoidal fuzzy numbers that is the input information of this proposal.

Nevertheless, there exists a MCDM method based on PT able to deal with fuzzy information namely, fuzzy TODIM (revised in Section 2.5.2.2) that will be the method used in our proposal to deal with the fuzzy unified information and take into account experts' psychological behavior.

### 3.3.4 Determination of criteria weights

Determination of criteria weights is a complex task in MCDM and consequently in EDM too. In spite of the existence of multiple proposals for computing criteria weights they are not fully satisfactory. So, we have proposed a new three-step process to determine criteria weights based on fuzzy experts' opinions [105].

Figure 3.4 depicts this process:

(1) *Global fuzzy weights.* The fuzzy weights obtained for the criterion  $c_j$  are aggregated by using a max-min composition [132, 133]:

$$\mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(\sigma) = \sup_{\sigma = \max(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{\tilde{K}})} \min(\mu_{\tilde{T}_j^1}(t_1), \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^2}(t_2), \dots, \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^{\tilde{K}}}(t_{\tilde{K}})) \quad (3.2)$$

where  $\tilde{T}_j^h$  is the fuzzy membership function of  $w_j^h$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , and  $\Gamma$  is the universe of discourse.

Suppose that three experts provide their opinions  $w_1^1$ ,  $w_1^2$  and  $w_1^3$  concerning the criterion  $c_1$ , the corresponding fuzzy membership functions are  $\tilde{T}_1^1$ ,  $\tilde{T}_1^2$ , and  $\tilde{T}_1^3$  respectively. According to Eq. (3.2),  $\mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(\sigma)$  is the area under the bold black line shown in Figure (3.4a).

(2) *Defuzzification.* The center of gravity (COG) method [20] is utilized to calculate the weighting value of the global fuzzy weights:

$$COG_j = \frac{\int t * \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(t) dt}{\int \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(t) dt}, t \in \Gamma \tag{3.3}$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the universe of discourse.

For criterion  $c_1$ , Eq. (3.3) means that the center of gravity for each small trapezoid (see Figure 3.4b) is computed and the  $COG_1$  can be obtained by the arithmetic mean of the sum of center of gravity of all small trapezoids.

(3) *Normalization.* When  $COG_j$  of all criteria are obtained, the criteria weights  $w_{c_j}$  are calculated by using the following equation:

$$w_{c_j} = \frac{COG_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n COG_j} \tag{3.4}$$

where  $\sum_{j=1}^n w_{c_j} = 1$ ,  $w_{c_j} \in [0, 1]$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

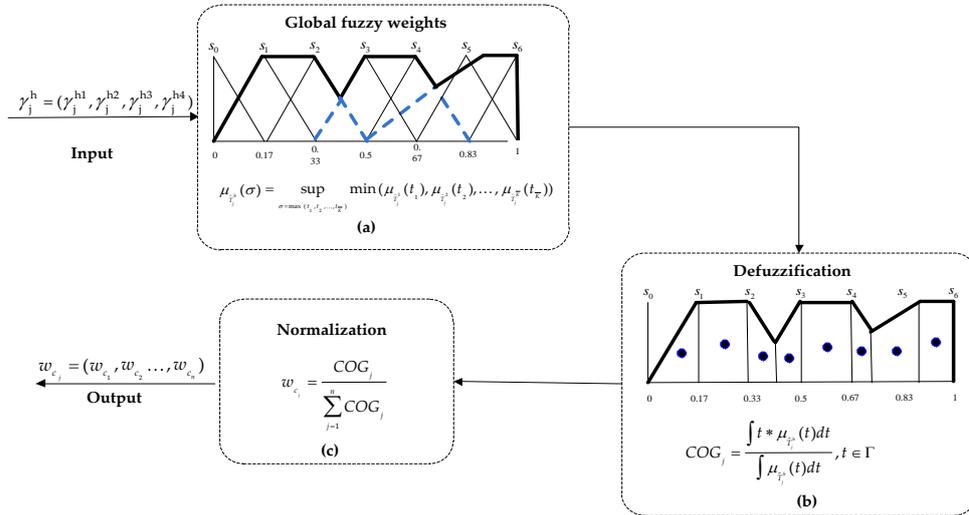


Figure 3.4: Process of determination criteria weights in our proposal

Finally, once the GEDM method was developed, a case study was provided to illustrate the feasibility and validity of this proposal, in addition, sensitivity analysis is carried out to show the robustness of this proposal.

The article associated to this proposal is the following one:

L. Wang, Á. Labella, R. M. Rodríguez, Y. M. Wang, L. Martínez. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making. *Symmetry-Basel*, 2017, 9(10), 234.

### 3.4 A hesitant group emergency decision making method based on prospect theory

The complexity and constraints under which experts should manage EDM, makes that experts may hesitate when providing their knowledge about the alternatives and criteria of the problem. For experts' hesitation, it has been previously considered in this memory in qualitative contexts by using HFLTS. Whilst, hesitation in quantitative contexts together with experts' psychological behavior have not been studied in current GEDM studies yet. It seems convenient the development of a novel GEDM method able to deal with experts' psychological behavior and hesitation in quantitative contexts too. Therefore, this proposal provides a new GEDM method to facilitate the modelling of hesitancy in quantitative contexts by means of hesitant fuzzy sets (HFSs) together with experts' psychological behavior by using prospect theory. The fourth objective presented in Section 1.2 can be then reached. For sake of clarity, just remind that related information about prospect theory and HFS used in this proposal have been revised in Section 2.5.1 and Section 2.5.4.1, respectively.

#### 3.4.1 Hesitant group emergency decision making method considering experts' psychological behavior

The aim of this proposal is to keep as much information as possible in the early stages of the decision process by employing HFS that will represent the group hesitation by HFE built by fusing experts' assessments. Such HFSs will be integrated as inputs of the GEDM process that also considers the experts' psychological behavior using prospect theory. A graphical scheme of this proposal is shown in Figure 3.5 and the novel fusion process is further detailed below.

The fusion processes are given as follows:

Step 1: Expert  $e_h$  provides his/her assessments,  $c_j^h(a_i)$ , on emergency alternative  $a_i$  concerning criterion  $c_j$ .

Step 2: Based on  $c_j^h(a_i)$  provided by experts, the experts' preference,  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$ , on the effective control scope of alternative  $a_i$  concerning criterion  $c_j$  is determined as

---

$$\bar{c}_j^h(a_i) = \frac{c_j^h(a_i)}{\max_h \left\{ \max_h c_j^h(a_i) \right\}}, i = 1, 2, \dots, m; j = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (3.5)$$

Step 3: Based on  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$ , the HFEs  $\bar{c}_j(a_i)$  for the  $j$ -th criterion with respect to the  $i$ -th alternative and the HFS  $h_M(a_i)$  can be formed and managed according to their envelopes as interval values.

Step 4: Based on Step 3, the lower bound  $E_{ij}^L(a_i)$  and upper bound  $E_{ij}^U(a_i)$  of the effective control scope  $E_{ij}$  can be determined by following two equations:

$$E_{ij}^L = \min_h \left\{ \bar{c}_j^1(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^h(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^H(a_i) \right\} \quad (3.6)$$

$$E_{ij}^U = \max_h \left\{ \bar{c}_j^1(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^h(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^H(a_i) \right\} \quad (3.7)$$

The interval value  $E_{ij} = [E_{ij}^L, E_{ij}^U]$  is the result of fusion information that means group hesitation in which all experts' assessments are included. Afterwards, the GEDM method proposed in Section 3.1 will be then employed in this proposal to consider experts' psychological behavior based on prospect theory with interval values.

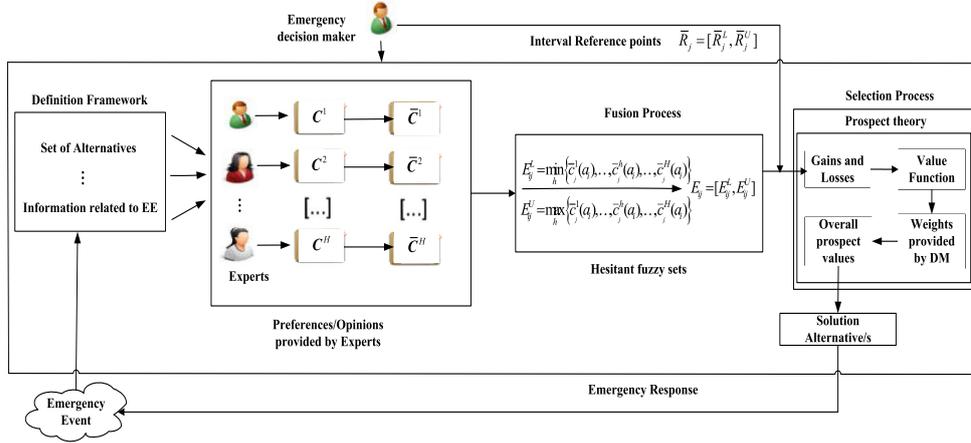


Figure 3.5: Scheme of the processes of GEDM method coping quantitative hesitancy and experts' psychological behavior

A case study and relevant comparisons with previous GEDM studies have been conducted to illustrate the superiority, feasibility and validity of our proposal, consequently, the fourth objective of our researches is reached.

The article associated to this proposal is the following one:

Z. X. Zhang, L. Wang, R. M. Rodríguez, Y. M. Wang, L. Martínez. A hesitant group emergency decision making method based on prospect theory. *Complex & Intelligent Systems*, 2017, 3, 177-187.

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## Chapter 4

# Publications

### 4.1 A group decision method based on prospect theory for emergency situations

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## A group decision method based on prospect theory for emergency situations

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### ABSTRACT

Urgent and critical situations or so-called emergency events, such as terrorist attacks and natural disasters, often require crucial decisions. When an emergency event occurs, emergency decision making plays an important role in dealing with it, and hence, its importance nowadays is increasing. In the real world, it is difficult for only one decision maker to take a comprehensive decision for coping with an emergency event. Consequently, many practical emergency problems are often characterized by a group emergency decision making (GEDM) scheme. Different studies show that human beings are usually bounded rational under risk and uncertainty, and their psychological behavior is very important in the decision-making process. However, such behavior is neglected in current GEDM studies. Therefore, this study proposes a novel GEDM method that considers experts' psychological behavior in the GEDM process. The method is then applied to a case study and compared with other related approaches. Finally, discussions are presented to illustrate the novelty, feasibility, and validity of the proposed GEDM method, showing the importance of experts' psychological behavior in GEDM.

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### 1. Introduction

In recent years, various emergency events (EEs), such as earthquakes, the missing Malaysian Air flight "MH370," hurricanes, and terrorist attacks, have exerted severely negative impacts on human life and socio-economic development. When a devastating incident occurs, emergency decision making (EDM) is typically characterized by at least time pressure and lack of information, resulting in potentially serious consequences [12,21]. Since EDM plays a crucial role in mitigating the losses of properties and lives caused by EEs, it has received increasing attention from both government and academia, becoming a very active and important research field [12,17,21].

Most EDM models [23,40] assume only one emergency decision maker (DM) and several studies [15,41] have taken the DM's psychological behavior into account, because of its influence on the final decision [40,41]. However, real-world EDM usually requires multiple perspectives of different experts, and just one DM might not be enough to deal effectively with the decision problem. This is particularly true when the decision environment becomes more complex and uncertain [24]. Thus, EDM approaches have evolved to a scheme that considers multiple experts with diverse professional backgrounds (e.g., hydrological, geological, meteorological, sociological, and demographic) who act as a think tank supporting the DM in the decision process, which leads to a group emergency decision-making (GEDM) problem.

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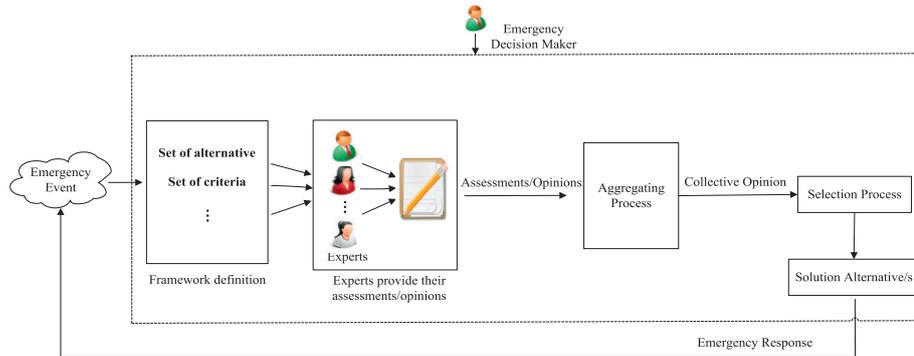


Fig. 1. General scheme of a GEDM process.

Unlike other group decision-making (GDM) problems, such as supplier selection [11,29], supply-chain risk management [5,7], and large construction projects [20], GEDM problems are always defined under strong time constraints [12], which implies high risk and uncertainty [24], and their outcomes might result in extremely serious social consequences in the form of loss of lives and property [21]. Therefore, a GEDM process whose decisions are made among all experts should avoid conflicts and useless solutions [24] in order to obtain higher-quality decisions with timely response [9,33]. Usually, in a two-step decision solving process for GEDM, experts play the role of think tank in supporting the DM who is in charge of the EE, and the process consists of [27] (see Fig. 1): (i) an aggregation process, in which individual information provided by experts is aggregated, and (ii) a selection process, in which alternatives are obtained as solutions to the problems.

Even though existing studies on GEDM [17,21,42,43] have made significant contributions to emergency management, there is one key issue that has not been well addressed so far, namely, *experts' psychological behavior*. Current GEDM approaches [17,21,42,43] neglect this topic. Because experts are always bounded rational under risk and uncertainty, their psychological behavior plays an important role in the GEDM process and must be considered.

To address such a key issue, this study aims to develop a new GEDM method based on prospect theory (PT) to include experts' psychological behavior in the group decision process. Thereafter, this study aims to compare this new method with other GEDM and EDM approaches to show its validity and usefulness.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 briefly introduces different theories and methods used in our proposed method together with related works. Section 3 presents the proposed GEDM method based on PT. In Section 4, a case study is provided and a comparison with other approaches and related discussions are presented. The conclusions and future works are presented in Section 5.

## 2. Background

This section provides a brief introduction about concepts related to PT and GDM that are used in our proposed method, and reviews some related works to illustrate the importance of this research.

### 2.1. Prospect theory

Experts' psychological behavior in GEDM is dealt with in this study using PT. It was introduced in 1979 [19] and extended in 1992 [39] by Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky as behavior economic theory, which describes the way in which people choose between probabilistic alternatives that involve risk when the probabilities of outcomes are known. According to the theory, people make decisions based on the potential value of losses and gains rather than the final outcome. PT is regarded as the most influential theory; it has been studied [34,38,39] and widely applied to solve various decision-making problems, such as asset allocation [6], health domains [3,4], portfolio insurance [13], traffic management [22,47], multi-attribute decision making [16], and emergency decision making [23,41], considering humans' psychological behavior under uncertainty.

The first key concept in PT is the *reference point* (RP), which is defined as a neutral position asset or expectation value of people who want to gain an amount or not to lose it. RP determines the feeling of gains or losses based on the difference between expectation and outcomes; the value of the RP is affected by the expectations of people [19].

In multi-attribute decision-making problems, the attributes can be classified into two types: benefits and costs [25]. The higher a benefit attribute is, the better the situation is, while the higher a cost attribute is, the worse the situation is.

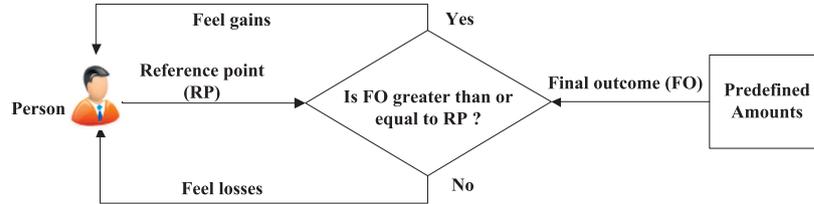


Fig. 2. Gains and losses based on reference point and predefined amounts.

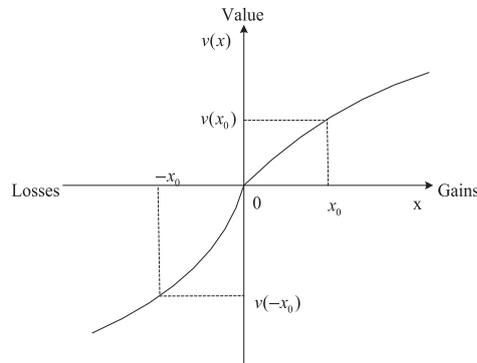


Fig. 3. S-shaped value function of prospect theory.

According to different types of attributes, RP changes with people's expectations with respect to the predefined amounts to gain or lose. For a better understanding of RP in PT, see Fig. 2 (benefit attributes versus cost attributes).

According to Fig. 2, RP is analogously defined for cost attributes.

In Kahneman and Tversky [19] and Tversky and Kahneman [39], it was shown that people's psychological behavior exhibits a risk-averse tendency for gains and a risk-seeking tendency for losses. Therefore, PT describes the decision process in the following three stages.

- (i) In the *editing phase*, people decide which outcomes they consider are equivalent, set an RP, consider lesser outcomes as losses and greater outcomes as gains for the benefit attribute, and consider lesser outcomes as gains and greater outcomes as losses for the cost attribute.
- (ii) In the *evaluation phase*, people behave as if they would compute a prospect value by using *value function* based on the potential outcomes and then calculate the overall prospect values.
- (iii) In the *selection phase*, the alternative of having a higher overall prospect value is finally selected.

The PT involves the following three important principles [19].

- *Reference dependence*. Experts perceive gains and losses according to an RP. Thus, the prospect value function can be divided into a gain domain and a loss domain regarding the RP.
- *Diminishing sensitivity*. Experts exhibit a risk-averse tendency for gains and a risk-seeking tendency for losses. According to the principle of diminishing sensitivity, the prospect value function is concave in the loss domain and convex in the gain domain, that is, the marginal value of both gains and losses is decreasing with size.
- *Loss aversion*. The experts are more sensitive to losses than to equal gains [1]. In accordance with the principle of loss aversion, the prospect value function is steeper in the loss domain than in the gain domain.

According to these three principles, an S-shaped value function is proposed in PT (see Fig. 3), which shows a prospect value function with a convex S-shape for losses and a concave S-shape for gains. Prospect values are calculated for measuring the magnitude of gains and losses by using a value function in PT, which is defined on deviations from the RP, and is expressed in the form of a power law according to the following expression [39].

$$v(x) = \begin{cases} x^\alpha, & x \geq 0 \\ -\lambda(-x)^\beta, & x < 0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

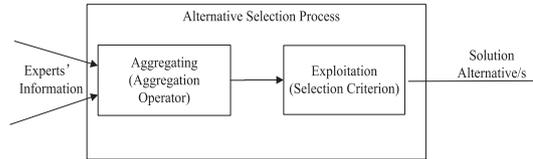


Fig. 4. Classical process for the resolution of group decision-making problem.

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are power parameters related to gains and losses, respectively,  $0 \leq \alpha, \beta \leq 1$ , where  $x$  denotes the gains or losses with  $x \geq 0$  or  $x < 0$ , respectively, and  $\lambda$  is the risk-aversion parameter, which has the characteristic of being steeper for losses than for gains,  $\lambda > 1$ . For parameters  $\alpha, \beta$ , and  $\lambda$  in Eq. (1), previous studies [1,8,23,39] have determined their values. For example, Abdellaoui et al. [1] suggest  $\alpha = 0.725$ ,  $\beta = 0.717$ , and  $\lambda = 2.04$ ; Liu et al. [23] suggest  $\alpha = 0.85$ ,  $\beta = 0.85$ , and  $\lambda = 4.1$ ; and Tversky and Kahneman [39] suggest  $\alpha = 0.89$ ,  $\beta = 0.92$ , and  $\lambda = 2.25$ .

2.2. Group decision making

GDM has been defined variously, including as “a decision situation in which more than one individual is involved, each with their own attitudes and viewpoints, recognizing the existence of a common problem and attempting to make a common decision together” [24].

GDM problems are frequently utilized in many complex real-life decision situations, such as supplier selection [11,29], supply-chain risk management [5,7], and humanitarian logistics [2,36]. The solution to a GDM problem can be obtained by applying either a direct approach or an indirect approach in the selection process [18]. A direct approach obtains the solution directly from experts’ information, whereas in an indirect approach, collective information is computed before the solution is determined. Regardless of the approach considered, the selection process to solve GDM problems consists of two phases (see Fig. 4) [27]: (1) an aggregation phase, in which individual information is aggregated, and (2) an exploitation phase, in which an alternative or subset of alternatives is obtained as the solution to the problem.

2.3. Related works

In order to show the importance of GEDM in the real world, this subsection highlights several important studies in the literature that are related to our research [10,21,43,45,46].

These studies have approached GEDM problems from different angles. For example, Levy and Taji [21] utilized a group analytic network process to construct a group decision support system to support hazard planning and emergency management under incomplete information. Yu and Lai [46] proposed a distance-based multi-criteria group decision-making method to support multi-person emergency decision problems. Xu et al. [45] proposed a new conflict-eliminating model for emergency group decision to overcome the drawbacks of existing conflict-eliminating models. Chen et al. [10] proposed a belief structure to represent partially ordered preferences with belief degrees, and used evidential reasoning to combine the partially ordered preferences provided by experts under uncertainty. Xu et al. [43] proposed a consensus model that considers non-cooperative behavior and minority opinions, and proposed a dynamic consensus method for large group emergency decision making in Xu et al. [44].

Experts’ psychological behavior is neglected in current GEDM studies [17,21,30,43], and thus, while experts’ psychological behavior plays an important role in the group decision process under risk and uncertainty, our proposed method aims to overcome this limitation and shows the importance of this research.

3. Group emergency decision-making method based on prospect theory

The need to make good decisions in GEDM situations drives us to improve the limitation of previous GEDM problems in which experts’ behavior is neglected. Therefore, we aim to address such a problem using PT to consider experts’ behavior. Here, we introduce a novel GEDM framework to deal with this issue.

To achieve our objectives, the proposed method consists of the following seven phases, depicted graphically in Fig. 5.

- (a) *Framework definition*: this defines the notations and structure of the proposed GEDM problem (experts, alternatives, and criteria) as well as the expression domains in which assessments are elicited.
- (b) *Information-gathering process*: individual RPs over the alternatives concerning different attributes provided by experts are gathered.
- (c) *Aggregation process*: this aggregates the gathered individual RPs are aggregated to obtain the group reference points (GRPs).
- (d) *Calculation of gains and losses*: gains and losses are calculated with respect to the GRPs of the different alternatives.

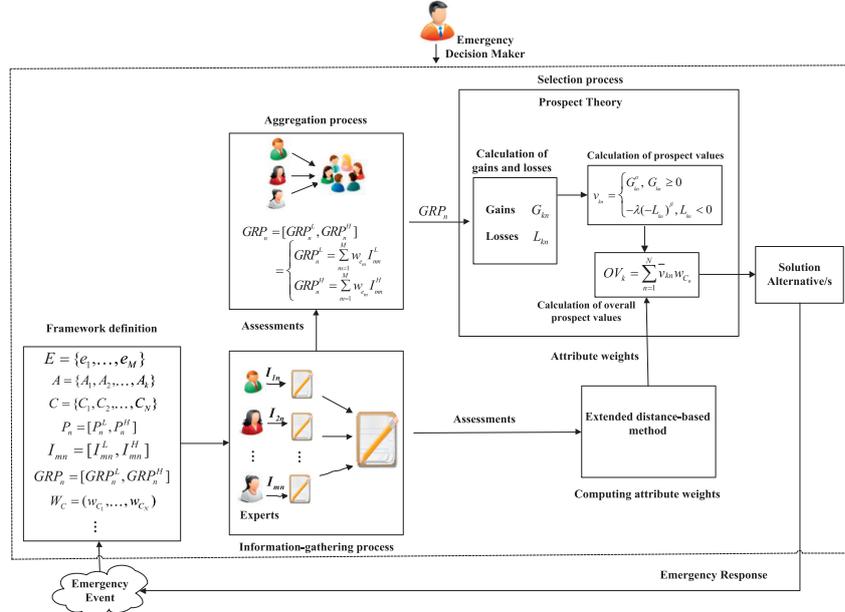


Fig. 5. General scheme of proposed group emergency decision-making method based on prospect theory.

- (e) *Calculation of prospect values*: prospect values denote the magnitudes of gains and losses, reflecting the different feelings of experts.
- (f) *Computing attribute weights*: attribute weights are computed to weight the importance of each attribute.
- (g) *Overall prospect values*: overall prospect value of each alternative is calculated to obtain the solution set of alternatives of the GEDM.

The details of these phases are provided in the following subsections.

### 3.1. Framework definition of group emergency decision-making problem

The following elements and notations are used in the proposed GEDM method:

- $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_M\}$ : the emergency panel of experts, where  $e_m$  denotes the  $m$ th expert,  $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$ .
- $W_E = (w_{e_1}, w_{e_2}, \dots, w_{e_M})$ : the weighting vector of relative importance of each expert in the emergency panel, where  $w_{e_m}$  denotes the relative weight of the  $m$ th expert, satisfying  $w_{e_m} \in [0, 1]$ ,  $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , and  $\sum_{m=1}^M w_{e_m} = 1$ .
- $A = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_K\}$ : the set of emergency alternatives, where  $A_k$  is the  $k$ th emergency alternative,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ .
- $C = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_N\}$ : set of criteria/attributes, where  $C_n$  denotes the  $n$ th criterion/attribute,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ .
- $W_C = (w_{C_1}, \dots, w_{C_N})$ : the weighting vector for attributes, where  $w_{C_n}$  denotes the attribute weight of  $n$ th attribute, satisfying,  $w_{C_n} \in [0, 1]$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^N w_{C_n} = 1$ .
- $I_{mn} = [I_{mn}^L, I_{mn}^H]$ ,  $I_{mn}^H > I_{mn}^L$ : an interval value, where  $I_{mn}$  denotes the individual RPs provided by  $m$ th expert with respect to the  $n$ th criterion/attribute,  $m = 1, 2, \dots, M, n = 1, 2, \dots, N$  (see Remark 1).
- $P_n = [P_n^L, P_n^H]$ ,  $P_n^H > P_n^L$ : the predefined *effective control scope* [41] of alternatives with respect to attribute  $C_n$ , which means that the alternative can prevent losses from EE regarding  $C_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ .
- $GRP_n = [GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H]$ ,  $GRP_n^H > GRP_n^L$ : the GRP, where  $GRP_n$  denotes the GRP with respect to the  $n$ th criterion/attribute,  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . GRP is a similar concept to RP in PT, which is used in a group decision process. Without loss of generality, we assume  $GRP_n^L \geq 0$ ,  $I_{mn}^L \geq 0$ ,  $P_n^L \geq 0$ .

**Remark 1.** In the real world, owing to inadequate or incomplete information, especially in the early stage of emergency event occurrence, and the complexity of emergency situations, it is difficult for experts to estimate damages, losses, or costs

**Table 1**  
Individual RPs over attribute  $C_n$  provided by experts.

Experts	Assessments
$e_1$	$\{I_{11}, \dots, I_{1N}\}$
$e_2$	$\{I_{21}, \dots, I_{2N}\}$
.....	.....
$e_M$	$\{I_{M1}, \dots, I_{MN}\}$

of emergency alternatives using crisp and precise numbers. Thus, interval values are more suitable for uncertainty modeling [41].

3.2. Information-gathering process

Experts provide their individual RPs with respect to each attribute  $C_n$  (see Table 1).

The individual RPs  $I_{mn}$  provided by expert  $e_m$  with respect to attribute  $C_n$  are interval values, according to Remark 1.

3.3. Aggregation process

Section 2.1 points out the importance of RPs in PT. Similarly, in GEDM based on PT, GRP denotes the expectations of all experts and is obtained by aggregating experts' individual RPs.

Our proposed method obtains GRPs by means of a weighted average in which each expert  $e_m$  is weighted by  $w_{e_m}$  to aggregate the individual RPs,  $I_{mn}$ , as follows:

$$GRP_n = [GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H] = \begin{cases} GRP_n^L = \sum_{m=1}^M w_{e_m} I_{mn}^L \\ GRP_n^H = \sum_{m=1}^M w_{e_m} I_{mn}^H \end{cases}, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \tag{2}$$

If all experts were equally important, then, Eq. (2) could be rewritten as follows:

$$GRP_n = [GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H] = \begin{cases} GRP_n^L = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M I_{mn}^L \\ GRP_n^H = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M I_{mn}^H \end{cases}, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \tag{3}$$

$GRP_n = [GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H]$ , which represents the expectations of all experts with respect to the  $n$ th attribute, which is the result of the aggregation process.  $GRP_n$  not only comprehensively considers all experts' individual RPs but also aggregates experts' individual RPs in a simple way with low time cost.

3.4. Calculation of gains and losses

According to PT, gains or losses depend on experts' psychological behavior, like risk aversion or risk seeking [19,39]. To evaluate different alternatives according to the obtained  $GRP_n$  and the predefined effective control scopes,  $P_n$ , of alternatives, it is necessary to determine the relationship between  $GRP_n$  and  $P_n$ . Because we are dealing with interval values, there are six possible cases of positional relationship, as shown in Table 2.

For the different cases presented in Table 2, Tables 3 and 4 present the equations for calculating the gains and losses for cost and benefit attributes, respectively, which are further detailed in the Appendix.

Based on Tables 3 and 4, the gain-loss matrix (GLM) can be constructed for the calculation of prospect values of emergency alternatives in the following subsection.

3.5. Calculation of prospect values

As stated in Section 2.1, prospect values are measured by using a value function, reflecting experts' behavior. When a prospect value is equal to or greater than zero, the expert is satisfied with his/her judgment; otherwise, the expert feels regret about his/her judgment. By using PT, the psychological behavior of experts can be described clearly and easily.

Let  $GLM = (x_{kn})_{k \times n}$  be the GLM, where  $x_{kn}$  denotes  $G_{kn}$  or  $L_{kn}$ . The prospect value,  $v_{kn}$ , of each attribute,  $C_n$ , with respect to each alternative,  $A_k$ , is obtained as

$$v_{kn} = \begin{cases} C_{kn}^\alpha, & G_{kn} \geq 0 \\ -\lambda(-L_{kn})^\beta, & L_{kn} < 0 \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

Accordingly, prospect value matrix,  $V = (v_{kn})_{k \times n}$ , is obtained.

**Table 2**  
Possible cases of positional relationship between  $GRP_n$  and  $P_n$ .

Cases	Positional relationship between $GRP_n$ and $P_n$
Case 1 $P_n^H < GRP_n^L$	
Case 2 $GRP_n^H < P_n^L$	
Case 3 $P_n^L < GRP_n^L \leq P_n^H < GRP_n^H$	
Case 4 $GRP_n^L < P_n^L \leq GRP_n^H < P_n^H$	
Case 5 $P_n^L < GRP_n^L < GRP_n^H < P_n^H$	
Case 6 $GRP_n^L \leq P_n^L < P_n^H \leq GRP_n^H$	

**Table 3**  
Gains and losses for all possible cases (cost attribute).

Cases	Gain $G_{kn}$	Loss $L_{kn}$
Case 1 $P_n^H < GRP_n^L$	$GRP_n^L - 0.5(P_n^L + P_n^H)$	0
Case 2 $GRP_n^H < P_n^L$	0	$GRP_n^H - 0.5(P_n^L + P_n^H)$
Case 3 $P_n^L < GRP_n^L \leq P_n^H < GRP_n^H$	$0.5(GRP_n^L - P_n^L)$	0
Case 4 $GRP_n^L < P_n^L \leq GRP_n^H < P_n^H$	0	$0.5(GRP_n^H - P_n^H)$
Case 5 $P_n^L < GRP_n^L < GRP_n^H < P_n^H$	$0.5(GRP_n^L - P_n^L)$	$0.5(GRP_n^H - P_n^H)$
Case 6 $GRP_n^L \leq P_n^L < P_n^H \leq GRP_n^H$	0	0

**Table 4**  
Gains and losses for all possible cases (benefit attribute).

Cases	Gain $G_{kn}$	Loss $L_{kn}$
Case 1 $P_n^H < GRP_n^L$	0	$0.5(P_n^L + P_n^H) - GRP_n^L$
Case 2 $GRP_n^H < P_n^L$	$0.5(P_n^L + P_n^H) - GRP_n^H$	0
Case 3 $P_n^L < GRP_n^L \leq P_n^H < GRP_n^H$	0	$0.5(P_n^L - GRP_n^L)$
Case 4 $GRP_n^L < P_n^L \leq GRP_n^H < P_n^H$	$0.5(P_n^H - GRP_n^H)$	0
Case 5 $P_n^L < GRP_n^L < GRP_n^H < P_n^H$	$0.5(P_n^H - GRP_n^H)$	$0.5(P_n^L - GRP_n^L)$
Case 6 $GRP_n^L \leq P_n^L < P_n^H \leq GRP_n^H$	0	0

Since gains and losses of different attributes are usually incommensurate,  $V$  needs to be normalized into comparable values. This is achieved by normalizing each element in  $V$  into a corresponding element in matrix  $\bar{V} = (\bar{v}_{kn})_{k \times n}$  by using

$$\bar{v}_{kn} = \frac{v_{kn}}{v^*}, k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N, \tag{5}$$

where  $v^* = \max_{n \in N} \{ |v_{kn}| \}$ .

3.6. Computing attribute weights

Determination of attribute weights is an essential step in the GEDM process. There are different methods to determine the attribute weights, such as the analytic hierarchy process method [37], entropy-based method [35], and distance-based method [46].

In our proposed method, in order to undertake a fair comparison with the current distance-based GEDM method [46] in Section 4.2, the attribute weights are computed by using the distance-based method in [46]. Because the distance-based method deals with crisp values for computing attribute weights, which is not suitable for our method coping with the interval values, a transformation is provided for interval values.

With respect to the individual RPs,  $I_{mn}$ , provided by each expert, the following definition is provided.

**Definition 1.** [14] For interval value  $I_{mn}$ , let  $\sigma$  be an arbitrary value in interval number  $[I_{mn}^L, I_{mn}^H]$ , regarded as a random variable with uniform distribution. The probability density function of  $\sigma$  is

$$f(\sigma) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{I_{mn}^H - I_{mn}^L}, & I_{mn}^L \leq \sigma \leq I_{mn}^H, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad m = 1, \dots, M, n = 1, \dots, N \quad (6)$$

where  $\int_{I_{mn}^L}^{I_{mn}^H} f(\sigma) d\sigma = 1$  and  $f(\sigma) \geq 0$  for all  $\sigma \in [I_{mn}^L, I_{mn}^H]$ .

According to Definition 1, an information matrix  $Y = [y_{mn}]_{m \times n}$  can be obtained by Eq. (7), that is,

$$y_{mn} = \int_{I_{mn}^L}^{I_{mn}^H} \sigma f(\sigma) d\sigma, \quad m = 1, \dots, M, n = 1, \dots, N \quad (7)$$

Therefore, an extended distance-based method to calculate the attribute weights is introduced as follows.

- (a) Based on  $I_{mn}$ , we obtain information matrix,  $Y = [y_{mn}]_{m \times n}$  according to Eqs. (6) and (7).
- (b)  $Y = [y_{mn}]_{m \times n}$  is normalized. For each attribute  $C_n$ , all the values are divided by  $\sum_{m=1}^M y_{mn}$ , that is,

$$\bar{y}_{mn} = \frac{y_{mn}}{\sum_{m=1}^M y_{mn}}, \quad n = 1, \dots, N \quad (8)$$

In this way, all values are normalized into the interval [0,1]. The purpose of normalization is to remove the effect of magnitude of data.

- (c) Positive and negative values for each attribute,  $C_n$ , are determined. For each attribute,  $C_n$ , positive and negative values are defined as follows.

$$\text{Positive values: } y^+ = (y_1^+, y_2^+, \dots, y_N^+) \quad (9)$$

$$\text{Negative values: } y^- = (y_1^-, y_2^-, \dots, y_N^-). \quad (10)$$

where

$$y_n^+ = \begin{cases} \max_{1 \leq m \leq M} \{\bar{y}_{mn}\}, & n \in N_1 \\ \min_{1 \leq m \leq M} \{\bar{y}_{mn}\}, & n \in N_2 \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

$$y_n^- = \begin{cases} \min_{1 \leq m \leq M} \{\bar{y}_{mn}\}, & n \in N_1 \\ \max_{1 \leq m \leq M} \{\bar{y}_{mn}\}, & n \in N_2 \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

respectively, where  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  represent the benefit and cost attributes, respectively.

- (d) Distance between  $\bar{y}_{mn}$  and  $y^+/y^-$  is computed. The distance between  $\bar{y}_{mn}$  and  $y^+/y^-$  can be obtained by

$$d_n^+ = \sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M (\bar{y}_{mn} - y_n^+)^2} \quad (13)$$

$$d_n^- = \sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M (\bar{y}_{mn} - y_n^-)^2} \quad (14)$$

- (e) Dispersion for each attribute is measured. In the distance-based method, the dispersion measurement for each attribute,  $C_n$ , is expressed as

$$\xi_n = \frac{d_n^+}{d_n^+ + d_n^-}. \quad (15)$$

According to Eq. (13), the larger is the value of  $\xi_n$ , the larger is the dispersion measurement and accordingly, the more important is attribute  $C_n$ , which is consistent with the generic rule of attribute weight determination [35].

- (f) Attribute weight  $w_{C_n}$  is determined. For each attribute  $C_n$ , the weight can be determined based on the dispersion measurement as

$$w_{C_n} = \frac{\xi_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N \xi_n}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N. \quad (16)$$

**Table 5**  
Description of alternatives.

Alternative	Description
A <sub>1</sub>	Open small sluice to meet the requirements of the barrier lake floods discharged.
A <sub>2</sub>	Open half of the number of sluices, and increase the joint scheduling of the barrier lake and hydropower station in the upstream and downstream areas to reduce the pressure of the barrier lake.
A <sub>3</sub>	Open all the sluices, mobilize large, heavy machinery and implement small-scale blasting to reduce the water level of the barrier lake as much as possible to lower the risk of dam break.
A <sub>4</sub>	Open all the sluices, and increase the joint scheduling of the barrier lake and hydropower station in the upstream and downstream areas. Meanwhile, mobilize large, heavy machinery and implement large-scale blasting to reduce the water level of the barrier lake as much as possible to lower the risk of dam break.

### 3.7. Calculation of overall prospect values

Once the attribute weights  $w_{C_n}$  and normalized matrix  $\bar{V} = (\bar{v}_{kn})_{k \times n}$  are obtained, the overall prospect value of each emergency alternative can be calculated using the simple additive weighting method, that is,

$$OV_k = \sum_{n=1}^N \bar{v}_{kn} w_{C_n}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (17)$$

The greater  $OV_k$  is, the better alternative  $A_k$ . Based on the values of  $OV_k$ , the ranking of alternatives can be obtained. According to the ranking of alternatives, the DM can select the best alternative to cope with the EE.

In summary, the procedures for the GEDM method based on PT are as follows.

- Step 1. Define the framework of the GEDM problem.
- Step 2. Each expert involved in EE provides his/her individual RP values  $I_{mn}$ .
- Step 3.  $GRP_n$  can be calculated by aggregating  $I_{mn}$  using Eqs. (2) or (3).
- Step 4. Gains  $G_{kn}$  and losses  $L_{kn}$  are calculated for cost/benefit attributes based on Tables 3 and 4, respectively, obtaining the GLM matrix.
- Step 5. Based on the GLM matrix, the prospect values  $V = (v_{kn})_{k \times n}$  are calculated by using Eq. (4) and are normalized as  $\bar{V} = (\bar{v}_{kn})_{k \times n}$  by using Eq. (5).
- Step 6. From  $I_{mn}$ , an information matrix  $Y = [y_{mn}]_{m \times n}$  is calculated by using Eqs. (6)–(7) and the attribute weights  $w_{C_n}$  are obtained by using Eqs. (8)–(16).
- Step 7. Eventually, an overall prospect value  $OV_k$  for each alternative is calculated by using Eq. (17) and is used for ranking the alternatives.

## 4. Case study and comparison with other approaches

To demonstrate the applicability of the proposed method for solving the GEDM problem, this section presents a case study that is taken from Wang et al. [41]. Comparisons with other approaches and related discussions are provided.

### 4.1. Case study

To undertake a fair comparison and show the performance of our proposal, a previous case study involving a "barrier lake emergency" published in [41] is reconsidered, because the problem framework is close to the decision framework of our proposed approach (see [41] for further details). Based on such an EE, it is assumed that five experts are invited to participate in the GEDM process.

#### 4.1.1. Framework definition

In the case study, four potential emergency states of the barrier lake were possible in the coming 72 hours:

- (1) the dam body of the barrier lake would not break;
- (2) 1/3 of the dam body of the barrier lake would break;
- (3) 1/2 of the dam body of the barrier lake would break; and
- (4) the entire dam body of the barrier lake would break.

For such an emergency situation, the local government organized people in the most dangerous areas upstream and downstream of the barrier lake to evacuate to safe areas, and informed people in potentially dangerous areas to prepare for evacuation.

Four emergency alternatives were proposed with three attributes considered in [41], which are described in Tables 5 and 6.

The three attributes considered in this EE are described in Table 6.

The predefined effective control scopes  $P_n$  of each alternative with respect to different attributes and its costs are shown in Table 7 following Wang et al. [41].

**Table 6**  
Description of attributes.

Attribute	Description
People affected ( $C_1$ )	EE might have impacts on the number of people.
Property loss ( $C_2$ )	EE might cause direct and indirect property losses.
Cost of alternative ( $C_3$ )	If one alternative is taken, its related cost needs to be considered.

**Table 7**  
Predefined effective control scopes  $P_n$  and cost of each alternative from Wang et al. [41].

Alternatives	Criteria/attributes		
	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$
$A_1$	[3000,3500]	[2500,3500]	[300,350]
$A_2$	[3500,4000]	[3500,4500]	[350,450]
$A_3$	[4000,4500]	[4500,5500]	[450,550]
$A_4$	[5000,5500]	[5500,6500]	[550,650]

**Table 8**  
 $I_{mn}$  provided by different experts.

Attribute	Experts				
	$e_1$	$e_2$	$e_3$	$e_4$	$e_5$
$C_1$	[3500,8000]	[4000,6000]	[6000,7000]	[4000,7000]	[5000,8000]
$C_2$	[3000,4000]	[5000,5500]	[2000,3750]	[3000,3750]	[4000,5250]
$C_3$	[550,650]	[500,550]	[450,500]	[500,550]	[500,570]

**Table 9**  
The values of  $GRP_n$  for different attributes.

GRP	Criteria/attributes		
	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$
$GRP_n$	[4500,7200]	[3400,4450]	[500,564]

4.1.2. Information-gathering process

The experts provide their individual RPs,  $I_{mn}$ , based on their professional knowledge and experience of the possible losses caused by EE with respect to different attributes (see Table 8).

4.1.3. Aggregation process

$GRP_n$  are obtained by aggregating individual RPs,  $I_{mn}$ . Without loss of generality, we assume equal weight  $w_{e_m}$  for each expert (see Table 9).

4.1.4. Calculation of gains and losses

Based on the positional relationship between  $GRP_n$  and  $P_n$  shown in Table 2, the gains and losses can be calculated according to Tables 3 and 4 for cost and benefit attributes, respectively. The GLM, obtained for this case is

$$GLM = \begin{bmatrix} -1250 & -450 & 175 \\ -750 & 25 & 100 \\ -250 & 550 & 25 \\ 0 & 1550 & -43 \end{bmatrix}$$

For the sake of clarity, the computation of  $G_{13}$  is detailed as follows:

$$GRP_3 = [500, 564] \text{ the cost of } A_1 \text{ is } [300, 350].$$

Based on Table 2, their positional relationship is Case 1. Then, according to Table 3,

$$GRP_n^L - 0.5(P_n^L + P_n^H) \Rightarrow G_{13} = 500 - 0.5(300 + 350) = 175.$$

4.1.5. Calculation of prospect values

As Section 2.1 points out, the values of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\lambda$  have been studied in the existing literature. In order to undertake a fair comparison with existing studies in the following Section 4.2, the following values are set in this case study in accordance with Wang et al. [41]:  $\alpha = 0.89$ ,  $\beta = 0.92$ , and  $\lambda = 2.25$ .

**Table 10**  
Overall prospect values  $OV_k$  and corresponding ranking.

	Alternatives			
	$A_1$	$A_2$	$A_3$	$A_4$
$OV_k$	-0.3316	-0.0283	<b>0.0976</b>	0.0842
Rank	4	3	<b>1</b>	2

Based on GLM, the prospect value matrix,  $V = (v_{kn})_{k \times n}$ , is computed using Eq. (4):

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} -1589.7899 & -621.0664 & 99.1525 \\ -993.6625 & 17.5455 & 60.2560 \\ -361.6490 & 274.7406 & 17.5455 \\ 0 & 690.8682 & -71.6100 \end{bmatrix}$$

Following the details of computation for  $v_{13}$ , given that  $G_{13} = 175$  ( $175 > 0$ ), based on Eq. (4), we obtain

$$v_{13} = C_{13}^{0.89} = 175^{0.89} = 99.1525.$$

The corresponding normalized matrix  $\bar{V} = (\bar{v}_{kn})_{k \times n}$  is:

$$\bar{V} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.0000 & -0.8990 & 1.0000 \\ -0.6250 & 0.0254 & 0.6077 \\ -0.2275 & 0.3977 & 0.1770 \\ 0 & 1.0000 & -0.7222 \end{bmatrix}$$

4.1.6. Computing attribute weights

Based on  $I_{mn}$  (Table 8), the information matrix  $Y = [y_{mn}]_{m \times n}$  is computed as follows:

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} 5750 & 3500 & 600 \\ 5000 & 5250 & 525 \\ 6500 & 2875 & 475 \\ 5500 & 3375 & 525 \\ 6500 & 4625 & 535 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using Eqs. (8)–(16), the attribute weights  $w_{C_n}$  are obtained as  $w_{C_1} = 0.3676$ ,  $w_{C_2} = 0.3141$ , and  $w_{C_3} = 0.3183$ .

4.1.7. Calculation of overall prospect values

The overall prospect value  $OV_k$  of each emergency alternative is calculated by Eq. (17). The results and ranking obtained are shown in Table 10.

Table 10 shows that the overall prospect values,  $OV_k$ , vary from negative to positive values. If  $OV_k$  are greater than or equal to zero, then the experts feel gains and are satisfied with their assessments of the alternatives. Otherwise, the experts feel losses and regret. According to the principle of PT, the greater is the value  $OV_k$ , the better is alternative  $A_k$ . Thus, in this case study, alternative  $A_3$ , with the greatest overall prospect value, is the best alternative for coping with the EE. Such a selection is fully consistent with the actual emergency response alternative of the barrier lake, which verifies to some extent the validity and feasibility of the proposed approach.

4.2. Comparison with other approaches

To further illustrate the novelty, validity, and feasibility of the proposed method, the following two comparisons are performed.

- (1) The proposed method (PT-GEDM) is compared with the distance-based group emergency decision-making (DB-GEDM) method [46], which neglects experts' psychological behavior in the decision process.
- (2) The proposed method (PT-GEDM) is compared with the PT-based emergency decision-making (PT-EDM) method [41], which did not apply a group decision scheme to the emergency problem.

Different aspects are outlined in further detail in the following subsections.

**Table 11**  
Comparison results between the prospect theory-based group emergency decision-making method and the distance-based group emergency decision-making method.

Alternative	PT-GEDM		DB-GEDM method					
	OV <sub>k</sub>	Rank	Lower bound		Upper bound		Middle point	
			Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank
A <sub>1</sub>	-0.3316	4	0.5254	4	0.5204	4	0.3295	4
A <sub>2</sub>	-0.0283	3	0.6488	3	0.6418	3	0.4216	3
A <sub>3</sub>	<b>0.0976</b>	<b>1</b>	0.8045	2	0.7633	2	0.5270	2
A <sub>4</sub>	0.0842	2	<b>0.9898</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.9120</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.6324</b>	<b>1</b>

**Table 12**  
Comparison results between the prospect theory-based group emergency decision-making method and the prospect theory-based emergency decision-making method.

Alternative	PT-GEDM method		PT-EDM method Experts				
	OV <sub>k</sub> (Rank)	Rank	e <sub>1</sub>	e <sub>2</sub>	e <sub>3</sub>	e <sub>4</sub>	e <sub>5</sub>
			OV <sub>k</sub> (Rank)				
A <sub>1</sub>	-0.3316 (4)	4	-0.1799 (4)	-0.6436 (4)	-0.3676 (4)	-0.3634 (4)	-0.3634 (4)
A <sub>2</sub>	-0.0283(3)	3	0.4095 (2)	-0.2544 (3)	<b>0.1308 (1)</b>	0.1741 (2)	-0.1640 (3)
A <sub>3</sub>	<b>0.0976 (1)</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.6205 (1)</b>	<b>-0.0314 (1)</b>	-0.0946 (3)	<b>0.2367 (1)</b>	<b>-0.0944 (1)</b>
A <sub>4</sub>	0.0842 (2)	2	0.3141 (3)	-0.0784 (2)	0.0660 (2)	0.0402 (3)	-0.1273 (2)

4.2.1. Comparison with group emergency decision-making method without experts' psychological behavior

In order to show the performance of the proposed PT-GEDM method, this subsection compares it with the DB-GEDM method [46], which does not consider experts' psychological behavior.

Because the DB-GEDM method in [46] dealt with crisp numbers, in order to undertake a fair comparison, we use the lower bound, upper bound, and middle point of the interval values in Tables 7 and 8 for computing the decision results and the corresponding attribute weights, respectively. The results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11 shows that both methods, PT-GEDM and DB-GEDM, provide similar but different results for this case, and the best alternatives are A<sub>3</sub> and A<sub>4</sub>, respectively, while the 3rd- and 4th-best alternatives remain consistent.

Therefore, the use of PT to reflect the experts' psychological behavior (positive values: gains; negative values: losses) makes the decision different, which shows the importance of considering the experts' psychological behavior in GEDM. Doing so can lead to decisions that better reflect humans' way of thinking in real-world situations. However, the DB-GEDM method does not consider such information, because it does not consider the experts' psychological behavior in the GEDM process.

4.2.2. Comparison with a prospect theory-based emergency decision-making method

To illustrate the importance of the group decision process in EDM, the proposed PT-GEDM method is compared with the PT-EDM method in [41], which uses the individual RPs, I<sub>mn</sub>, provided by each expert in Table 8. The comparison results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12 shows that the results obtained by the PT-EDM method vary from one expert to another and are different from those obtained by the PT-GEDM method. Since the behavior of one expert can bias the decision about the EDM situation, the use of a group view that integrates individual information and different psychological behavior can soften extreme bias and produce more balanced decision results.

Therefore, the inclusion of experts' behavior in GEDM problems leads to more reliable decisions than not including them does, and can avoid extreme bias with respect to EDM approaches.

To further illustrate the reliability and validity of the result obtained using the PT-GEDM method, if we were to apply the majority-based method [26,28] to the results obtained by the PT-EDM method shown in Table 12, we would obtain the same solution as our proposal, which is in accordance with our intuition. Even though an expert's individual subjectivity is inevitable during the decision process, the use of group information can soften individual bias and subjectivity, and make the decision more reasonable and reliable. This is the dominant advantage of group decision making, which is an indirect way to demonstrate the advantage and validity of our proposed PT-GEDM method.

4.3. Discussions

From the comparative analysis conducted in Section 4.2, the main novelty and advantages of our proposed PT-GEDM method over current studies can be summarized as follows.

- (1) The PT-GEDM method is the first to consider and address experts' psychological behavior under risk and uncertainty using PT in the GEDM problems, compared with current GEDM versions that do not consider experts' psychological behavior. This is a significant difference between our proposal and current GEDM versions.
- (2) The PT-GEDM method fully considers experts' subjectivity and bounded rationality on judgments. Each expert's judgments (individual RPs) can be assessed with interval values, owing to their useful and simple technique for representing uncertainty, which is suitable and adequate for emergency situations.
- (3) The PT-GEDM method utilizes group information (GRPs) in a more complete way, considering each expert's opinion in the GEDM process and producing a more reasonable and reliable result than the PT-EDM method in [41]. In GEDM problems, the decision becomes more robust, since the information is assessed by multiple experts. Generally, the use of multiple experts in the GEDM process leads to better decisions.
- (4) The PT-GEDM method is easy to understand, acceptable to experts, and closer to the real-world situation. In addition, its computation process is simple and fast.

### 5. Conclusions and future works

This study proposes a new GEDM method based on PT for emergency situations. The method is based on *bounded rationality* using PT and takes into account experts' psychological behavior in decision processes, which overcomes the limitations of previous GEDM methods that have not considered experts' psychological behavior, despite its influence in real-world decision-making processes. Therefore, the proposed PT-GEDM method significantly differs from the previous GEDM approaches and can provide better decision results. In our proposed method, interval numbers are utilized by experts to provide their individual RPs regarding their expectations about potential damages, losses, or costs of alternatives, which are more suitable for uncertainty modeling than crisp and precise numbers are, owing to incomplete information and the complexity of emergency situations. Compared with the PT-EDM method, the use of group information can lead to a more reasonable and reliable decision result, because the viewpoints of multiple experts are considered. An extended distance-based method for determining the attribute weights is provided, and is used to undertake a fair comparison with the previous DB-GEDM method in the case study to demonstrate the novelty, feasibility, and validity of the proposed method. The proposed GEDM method is expected to have more potential applications in the near future.

For future works, a promising research direction is the use of different types of information modeling [31,32] to flexibly assess the features of an emergency event that are usually elicited by experts under a GEDM situation. In addition, the management of time constraints in GEDM seems a promising and fruitful research line.

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### Appendix

In order to ensure that the equations for calculating the gains and losses are easily understood in [Tables 3](#) and [4](#), different cases in [Table 2](#) are discussed.

As stated in [Section 3.4](#), we deal with interval values  $GRP_n$  and  $P_n$ . Similar to [Definition 1](#), the following definition is provided.

**Definition 2.** [14] For the predefined effective control scope  $P_n$  of alternatives, let  $x$  be an arbitrary value in interval value  $[P_n^L, P_n^H]$ , regarded as a random variable with uniform distribution. The probability density function of  $x$  is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L}, & P_n^L \leq x \leq P_n^H, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (18)$$

where  $\int_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} f(x) dx = 1$  and  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in [P_n^L, P_n^H]$ .

Let  $L_{kn}$  and  $G_{kn}$  denote the loss and gain, respectively, of the  $k$ th alternative over the  $n$ th attribute. The following discussion is for cost attribute only.

**Case 1:** since  $P_n^H < GRP_n^L$ , there is no loss to experts, that is,

$$L_{kn} = 0, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, K, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (19)$$

According to Definition 2,  $x$  is an arbitrary value in interval value  $[P_n^L, P_n^H]$ , and the perceived gains to experts between  $[P_n^L, P_n^H]$  and  $[GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H]$  can be given as the following Eq. (20)

$$G_{kn} = (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \int_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} (P_n^H - x)f(x)dx \quad (20)$$

which can be rewritten by Eq. (18) as

$$\begin{aligned} G_{kn} &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \int_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} (P_n^H - x)f(x)dx \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \int_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} (P_n^H - x) \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} dx \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} \left( P_n^H * x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right) \Big|_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} \left[ \left( P_n^H * P_n^H - \frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} \right) - \left( P_n^H * P_n^L - \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2} \right) \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} \left[ \frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} - P_n^H * P_n^L + \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2} \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \frac{2}{2(P_n^H - P_n^L)} \left[ \frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} - P_n^H * P_n^L + \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2} \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \frac{1}{2(P_n^H - P_n^L)} \left[ (P_n^H)^2 - 2P_n^H * P_n^L + (P_n^L)^2 \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \frac{1}{2(P_n^H - P_n^L)} (P_n^H - P_n^L)^2 \\ &= (GRP_n^L - P_n^H) + \frac{(P_n^H - P_n^L)}{2} \\ &= GRP_n^L - 0.5(P_n^L + P_n^H), k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

**Case 2:** since  $GRP_n^H < P_n^L$ , there is no gain to experts, that is,

$$G_{kn} = 0, k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (22)$$

The perceived losses to experts between  $[P_n^L, P_n^H]$  and  $[GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H]$  can be given as the following Eq. (23):

$$\begin{aligned} L_{kn} &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) + \int_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} (P_n^L - x)f(x)dx \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) + \int_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} (P_n^L - x) \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} dx \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) + \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} \left( P_n^L * x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right) \Big|_{P_n^L}^{P_n^H} \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) + \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} \left[ \left( P_n^L * P_n^H - \frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} \right) - \left( P_n^L * P_n^L - \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2} \right) \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) + \frac{1}{P_n^H - P_n^L} \left[ P_n^L * P_n^H - \frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} - \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2} \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) + \frac{2}{2(P_n^H - P_n^L)} \left[ P_n^L * P_n^H - \frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} - \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2} \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) + \frac{1}{2(P_n^H - P_n^L)} \left[ 2P_n^L * P_n^H - (P_n^H)^2 - (P_n^L)^2 \right] \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) - \frac{1}{2(P_n^H - P_n^L)} (P_n^H - P_n^L)^2 \\ &= (GRP_n^H - P_n^L) - \frac{(P_n^H - P_n^L)}{2} \\ &= GRP_n^H - 0.5(P_n^H + P_n^L), k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

**Case 3:** since the interval  $[GRP_n^L, P_n^H] \subset [GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H]$ , there are no losses to experts, that is,

$$L_{kn} = 0, k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \tag{24}$$

Let  $y$  be an arbitrary value in interval value  $[GRP_n^L, P_n^H]$ , and any possible value of  $y$  in interval value  $[GRP_n^L, P_n^H]$  is equally acceptable to experts [14], which means that the perceived gains or losses to experts are equal to 0; in other words, experts feel neither gains nor losses. Thus, we need to consider only the perceived gains between the interval value  $[P_n^L, GRP_n^L]$ . Let  $t$  be an arbitrary value in interval value  $[P_n^L, GRP_n^L]$ . According to Definition 2, the gains to experts are given as the following Eq. (25):

$$\begin{aligned} G_{kn} &= \int_{P_n^L}^{GRP_n^L} (GRP_n^L - t) f(t) dt \\ &= \int_{P_n^L}^{GRP_n^L} (GRP_n^L - t) \frac{1}{GRP_n^L - P_n^L} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{GRP_n^L - P_n^L} (GRP_n^L * t - \frac{t^2}{2}) \Big|_{P_n^L}^{GRP_n^L} \\ &= \frac{1}{GRP_n^L - P_n^L} \left[ (GRP_n^L * GRP_n^L - \frac{(GRP_n^L)^2}{2}) - (GRP_n^L * P_n^L - \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2}) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{GRP_n^L - P_n^L} \left[ \frac{(GRP_n^L)^2}{2} - GRP_n^L * P_n^L + \frac{(P_n^L)^2}{2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2(GRP_n^L - P_n^L)} (GRP_n^L - P_n^L)^2 \\ &= 0.5(GRP_n^L - P_n^L), k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

When  $GRP_n^L = P_n^H$ , the interval number  $[GRP_n^L, P_n^H]$  is a crisp number, that is,  $y = GRP_n^L = P_n^H$ . Then, Eq. (25) is a special case of Eq. (21).

**Case 4:** since  $GRP_n^L < P_n^L \leq GRP_n^H < P_n^H$ , there is no gain to experts, that is,

$$G_{kn} = 0, k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \tag{26}$$

Since  $[P_n^L, GRP_n^H] \subset [GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H]$ , similar to Case 3, let  $\delta$  be an arbitrary value in interval value  $[GRP_n^H, P_n^H]$ . According to Definition 2, the losses to experts are given as the following Eq. (27):

$$\begin{aligned} L_{kn} &= \int_{GRP_n^H}^{P_n^H} (\delta - P_n^H) f(\delta) d\delta \\ &= \frac{1}{P_n^H - GRP_n^H} (\frac{\delta^2}{2} - P_n^H * \delta) \Big|_{GRP_n^H}^{P_n^H} \\ &= \frac{1}{P_n^H - GRP_n^H} \left[ (\frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} - P_n^H * P_n^H) - (\frac{(GRP_n^H)^2}{2} - P_n^H * GRP_n^H) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{P_n^H - GRP_n^H} \left[ P_n^H * GRP_n^H - \frac{(GRP_n^H)^2}{2} - \frac{(P_n^H)^2}{2} \right] \\ &= \frac{-1}{2(P_n^H - GRP_n^H)} (P_n^H - GRP_n^H)^2 \\ &= -0.5(P_n^H - GRP_n^H) \\ &= 0.5(GRP_n^H - P_n^H), k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

**Case 5:** since  $P_n^L < GRP_n^L < GRP_n^H < P_n^H$ , let  $\varphi$  be an arbitrary value in interval value  $[P_n^L, GRP_n^L]$ . Similar to Case 3, the perceived gains to experts are given as the following Eq. (28):

$$\begin{aligned} G_{kn} &= \int_{GRP_n^L}^{P_n^L} (GRP_n^L - \varphi) f(\varphi) d\varphi \\ &= 0.5(GRP_n^L - P_n^L), k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

Let  $\xi$  be an arbitrary value in interval value  $[GRP_n^H, P_n^H]$ . Similar to Case 4, the perceived losses to experts can be given as the following Eq. (29):

$$L_{kn} = \int_{GRP_n^H}^{P_n^H} (\xi - P_n^H) f(\xi) d\xi = 0.5(GRP_n^H - P_n^H), k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \tag{29}$$

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When the possible positional relationship between  $GRP_n$  and  $P_n$  is similar to Case 5, the final outcomes are gains or losses, which depends on the summation of Eqs. (28) and (29).

**Case 6:** since  $GRP_n^L \leq P_n^L < P_n^H \leq GRP_n^H$ , that is,  $[P_n^L, P_n^H] \subseteq [GRP_n^L, GRP_n^H]$ , any arbitrary value in interval  $[P_n^L, P_n^H]$  is equally acceptable to experts, which means that the experts feel neither gains nor losses. Thus, the gains and losses are given by the following Eqs. (30) and (31), respectively:

$$G_{kn} = 0, k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (30)$$

$$L_{kn} = 0, k = 1, 2, \dots, K, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (31)$$

According to Eqs. (18)–(31), the equations for calculating the gains and losses for the “cost attribute” of different possible cases are summarized in Table 3. Similarly, Table 4 shows the equations for calculating the gains and losses for the “benefit attribute.”

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## 4.2 A dynamic multi-attribute group emergency decision making method considering experts' hesitation

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## A dynamic multi-attribute group emergency decision making method considering experts' hesitation

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### Abstract

Multi-attribute group emergency decision making (MAGEDM) has become a valuable research topic in the last few years due to its effectiveness and reliability in dealing with real-world emergency events (EEs). Dynamic evolution and uncertain information are remarkable features of EEs. The former means that information related to EEs is usually changing with time and the development of EEs. To make an effective and appropriate decision, such an important feature should be addressed during the emergency decision process; however, it has not yet been discussed in current MAGEDM problems. Uncertain information is a distinct feature of EEs, particularly in their early stage; hence, experts involved in a MAGEDM problem might hesitate when they provide their assessments on different alternatives concerning different criteria. Their hesitancy is a practical and inevitable issue, which plays an important role in dealing with EEs successfully, and should be also considered in real world MAGEDM problems. Nevertheless, it has been neglected in existing MAGEDM approaches. To manage such limitations, this study intends to propose a novel MAGEDM method that deals with not only the dynamic evolution of MAGEDM problems, but also takes into account uncertain information, including experts' hesitation. A case study is provided and comparisons with current approaches and related discussions are presented to illustrate the feasibility and validity of the proposed method.

**Keywords:** Multi-attribute group decision making, Emergency situation, Dynamic evolution, Experts' hesitation

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## 1. Introduction

With the increasing occurrence of various emergency events (EEs)—such as production accidents, natural disasters, and terrorist attacks—emergency decision making (EDM) has drawn wide attention across the world in the past few years, and especially due to its prominent part in reducing the property loss and casualties in different EEs. Hence, it has become a pressing and important research topic<sup>10,18,29,31</sup>.

When an EE occurs, the information related to it changes across time, leading to dynamic evolution. Furthermore, its information is usually uncertain, especially in the early stages. Therefore, EE information plays an important role in the EDM process; it is necessary to take into account both its dynamic evolution and its uncertainty<sup>10,29</sup> to deal with it satisfactorily.

For executing effective emergency responses using updated information to control the situation and mitigate losses caused by EEs, the dynamic evolution<sup>13,29</sup> and uncertain information<sup>14,31</sup> features have been already discussed in current EDM approaches. Nevertheless, these studies<sup>13,29</sup> examines dynamic evolution considering only time changes; the information regarding the alternatives and criteria<sup>13,29</sup> remain unchanged, even though the EE information changes along with the time. Discrete and dynamic decisions with the latest information might make the EDM more effective and appropriate. On the other hand, current EDM approaches deal with the uncertain information using interval values<sup>31</sup> for quantitative contexts, and linguistic term sets<sup>14</sup> for qualitative contexts. However, due to lack of information and time pressure in EDM, decision makers might hesitate when they have to assess the alternatives and criteria. Thus, hesitant information should be considered in these types of problems<sup>27</sup>.

Usually, in classical EDM approaches<sup>10,13,14,18,29,31</sup>, only one emergency decision maker (DM) is in charge of the EE. However, it is highly challenging for an individual DM<sup>19</sup> to deal with these complicated emergency situations in real world problems. Consequently, multi-attribute group emergency decision making (MAGEDM) might be a powerful and effective way to cope with

complex and damaging EEs. A general scheme of a MAGEDM problem is shown in Fig. 1.

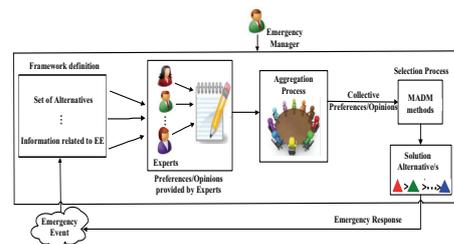


Fig. 1. General scheme of a MAGEDM problem

MAGEDM is a vital decision activity for dealing with real world EEs<sup>11,16,30</sup>, wherein experts play the role of think tanks to provide their opinions or assessments of different alternatives regarding different criteria; experts' individual wisdoms are aggregated into a group to help the DM make a final decision.

As far as we know, until now, no proposal in current MAGEDM approaches<sup>35,36,37,38</sup> considers the dynamic evolution of EEs dealing with both the updated information about alternatives and criteria along with the time and the experts' changes (quit or invited to join in the decision process), in addition to the modelling of experts' hesitancy due to uncertain information. Therefore, it is practically significant to address these issues in order to make satisfactory and reasonable decisions in real world MAGEDM problems.

This study aims to develop a new dynamic MAGEDM method that deals with the dynamic evolution of EEs considering both the time changeableness and updated information (alternatives, criteria, and experts). At the same time, it deals with uncertain information by using interval values, linguistic term sets, and linguistic expressions based on hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets (HFLTS)<sup>27</sup>, which are able to model experts' hesitancy.

In dynamic MAGEDM problems, the alternatives are ranked according to the dynamic rating of each alternative at different decision moments. Dynamic rating of each alternative is usually deter-



mined by the static rating of the alternative at the current decision moment and its dynamic rating in previous one<sup>4</sup>. Therefore, the ranking obtained by using the dynamic ratings could be different from the static ratings. Static ratings are usually obtained by using different multi-attribute decision making methods (MADM)<sup>3,42</sup>. In order to retain uncertain information as much as possible and generate more reasonable decision results, fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets is regarded as the static MADM method in the proposal to obtain the static rating of alternatives at each decision moment because of its capacity and advantages of using uncertain information across the decision process.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 briefly introduces different concepts that will be used in the proposed method. Section 3 presents a novel dynamic MAGEDM method considering experts' hesitancy. In section 4, a case study is introduced, and comparisons with current approaches and related discussions are presented. The conclusions and prospective research areas are offered in section 5.

**2. Preliminaries**

This section briefly revises basic concepts regarding imprecise and hesitant information and dynamic decision making to understand the proposed dynamic MAGEDM method easily. It also introduces the fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets, which will be utilized as the static MADM in the *computing static rating* process in our proposal to obtain the static rating of alternatives at each decision moment.

**2.1. Dealing with imprecise and hesitant information**

Uncertain information is one of the remarkable features of EEs. It is very important to deal with such type of information to cope with EEs successfully. Therefore, information domains utilized by experts to provide their opinions/assessments in quantitative and qualitative contexts are revised.

(1) *Information domain for quantitative contexts*

In real world problems, it is difficult for experts to provide their assessments using numerical values, when the EE information is uncertain, such as people affected, property losses, or costs of alternatives. However, in such situations, interval values<sup>15,22,31</sup> are suitable for experts to provide their assessments due to their useful and simple technique for representing uncertainty. Thus, interval values are utilized as the information domain for quantitative contexts in our proposal.

**Definition 1.**<sup>23</sup> *Let  $[\eta^L, \eta^U]$  be a domain of the interval value; an interval value  $I$  belongs to  $[\eta^L, \eta^U]$ :*

$$I \in [\eta^L, \eta^U] \tag{1}$$

where  $\eta^L$  and  $\eta^U$  are the lower and upper bounds of the domain, respectively.

(2) *Information domain for qualitative contexts*

A fairly common approach to model qualitative information is the fuzzy linguistic approach<sup>39</sup> based on the fuzzy set theory. Different linguistic models have been discussed in different approaches<sup>20,21,26</sup>. In our proposal, linguistic term sets are utilized to model the uncertain information in qualitative contexts (see Fig. 2).

**Definition 2.**<sup>27</sup> *Let  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  be a linguistic term set; a linguistic term,  $s_i$ , belongs to  $S$ :*

$$s_i \in S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}, i = 0, 1, \dots, g \tag{2}$$

where  $g + 1$  is the granularity of  $S$ .

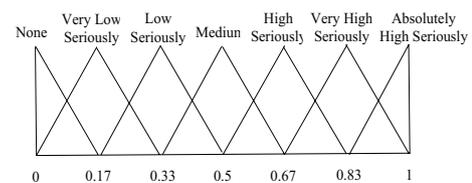


Fig. 2. Linguistic term set

Usually the information of MAGEDM problems is uncertain; experts involved in such problems are bounded by cognition<sup>2</sup> and under pressure because of the urgent time constraints in an emergency response. Moreover, their decision might provoke potentially serious results<sup>16</sup>. Hence, in such situations,



it is common for experts to hesitate when they provide their assessments. Therefore, it seems necessary to deal with experts' hesitation in MAGEDM problems.

To model the hesitant information in qualitative contexts, the concept of HFLTS<sup>27</sup> was introduced, drawing increased attention recently<sup>25,27</sup>.

**Definition 3.**<sup>27</sup> Let  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  be a linguistic term set; a HFLTS,  $H_S$ , on  $S$  is an ordered finite subset:

$$H_S = \{s_i, s_{i+1}, \dots, s_\zeta\}, s_\zeta \in S, \zeta \in \{i, \dots, j\} \quad (3)$$

**Example 1.** Let  $S = \{\text{absolute weak, very weak, weak, medium, good, very good, excellent}\}$  be a linguistic term set and  $\delta$  be a linguistic variable; then,  $H_S^1(\delta) = \{\text{good, very good}\}$  and  $H_S^2(\delta) = \{\text{very weak, weak, medium}\}$  are two HFLTSs on  $S$ .

HFLTS is a powerful and useful tool to model experts' hesitation; the use of context-free grammars<sup>27</sup> allows generation of complex linguistic expressions close to the natural language utilized by human beings in the real world<sup>27,28</sup>, which can be modeled by HFLTS. This approach has been widely applied to deal with different decision problems<sup>1,33,34</sup>.

**Definition 4.**<sup>27</sup> Let  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  be a linguistic term set and  $G_H$  be a context-free grammar. The elements of  $G_H = (V_N, V_T, I, P)$  are defined as below:

$V_N = \{\langle \text{primary term} \rangle, \langle \text{composite term} \rangle, \langle \text{unary relation} \rangle, \langle \text{binary relation} \rangle, \langle \text{conjunction} \rangle\}$

$V_T = \{\text{lower than, greater than, at least, at most, between, and, } s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$

$I \in V_N$

$P = \{I ::= \langle \text{primary term} \rangle | \langle \text{composite term} \rangle\}$

$\langle \text{composite term} \rangle ::= \langle \text{unary relation} \rangle \langle \text{primary term} \rangle | \langle \text{binary relation} \rangle$

$\langle \text{primary term} \rangle \langle \text{conjunction} \rangle \langle \text{primary term} \rangle$

$\langle \text{primary term} \rangle ::= s_0 | s_1 | \dots | s_g$

$\langle \text{unary relation} \rangle ::= \text{lower than} | \text{greater than} | \text{at least} | \text{at most}$

$\langle \text{binary relation} \rangle ::= \text{between}$

$\langle \text{conjunction} \rangle ::= \text{and}$

$S_{\mu_i}$  denotes the expression domain generated by  $G_H$ , which might be either complex linguistic expressions or single linguistic terms.

**Example 2.** Considering the context-free grammar,  $G_H$ , introduced in Definition 4 and the linguistic term set  $S$  from example 1, the following complex linguistic expressions might be obtained:

$S_{\mu_1} = \text{at least good}$

$S_{\mu_2} = \text{at most medium}$

$S_{\mu_3} = \text{between good and very good}$

Taking into account that experts can provide their assessments by utilizing quantitative and qualitative information in order to make computations with different types of information, it is necessary to unify them into a unique domain. The process of unifying different types of information is presented in section 3.3.

## 2.2. Dynamic decision making

Some existing dynamic MADM methods<sup>3,4</sup>, which have the following remarkable features, are revised:

- (i) The alternatives are changeable because they might be deemed non-available or removed; meanwhile new alternatives might be considered and added.
- (ii) The criteria are not immobilized, since their values might change along with time, and also, the current criteria might be removed or new criteria might be taken into account.
- (iii) The temporal profile of an alternative matters for comparison with other alternatives. This point is referred as the notion of feedback<sup>3,42</sup>.

According to these three features, dynamic MADM methods should be capable of managing interdependent decisions in a changing environment, wherein not only alternatives, but criteria might also change (non-available, removed or added new ones, etc.) and the final decisions at each decision moment must consider the feedback from previous ones. Due to the dynamic evolution of EEs, a reasonable and effective MAGEDM method should consider not only the three aforementioned features, but also the changes of experts because they might give up the decision process or new experts might be invited to join the decision process in real world situations.

To make the proposed MAGEDM method understandable, some necessary concepts are first given,



and then the dynamic MADM method<sup>3,4,42</sup> is briefly revised.

**Definition 5.**<sup>3</sup> **(Historical set)** *The historical set of alternatives as decision moment,  $t \in T$ , is a subset of all alternatives that have ever been available up to and including that decision moment,*

$$H_t \subseteq \bigcup_{s \leq t} P_s, \quad s, t \in T \quad (4)$$

**Remark 1.**<sup>3</sup> *In practical applications, the historical set is updated incrementally. Let  $H_0 = \phi$ , at each decision moment,  $t \in T$ . Then, the historical set can be defined as*

$$H_t \subseteq P_t \cup H_{t-1}, \quad t \in T \quad (5)$$

Let  $T = \{1, 2, \dots\}$  be a set of discrete decision moments (possibly infinite), and  $P_t$  be the set of alternatives that are usable at each decision moment,  $t, t \in T$ . Suppose that a static MADM method is being utilized at each decision moment,  $t \in T$ , to compute ratings for each available alternative,  $p \in P_t$ , concerning the assessments of all criteria,  $C_t = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m\}$ . The ratings obtained by the static MADM method are called static ratings or non-dynamic ratings, denoted by  $R_t(p)$ . The dynamic rating of alternatives is computed based on its static rating obtained in the previous stages to which it belonged.

The dynamic decision process deals with a feedback mechanism from previous ones. For any alternative,  $p$ , its dynamic rating function,  $E_t(p)$ , is defined as<sup>3,4,42</sup>:

$$E_t(p) = \begin{cases} R_t(p), & p \in P_t \setminus H_{t-1} \\ \Phi(R_t(p), E_{t-1}(p)), & p \in P_t \cap H_{t-1} \\ E_{t-1}(p), & p \in H_{t-1} \setminus P_t \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

where  $\Phi$  is an aggregation function (operator).

For each alternative,  $p$ , either belonging to the existing set of alternatives,  $P_t$ , or carried over from the previous one by means of the historical set,  $H_{t-1}$ , there are three different situations.

- (i) if the alternative,  $p$ , belongs only to the current set of alternatives,  $P_t$ , but not to the historical set,  $H_{t-1}$ , that is,  $p \in P_t \setminus H_{t-1}$ , its dynamic rating,  $E_t(p)$ , is equal to its static rating,  $R_t(p)$ ;

- (ii) if the alternative,  $p$ , belongs not only to the current, but also the historical set of alternatives, that is,  $p \in P_t \cap H_{t-1}$ , its dynamic rating,  $E_t(p)$ , is calculated by aggregating its static rating,  $R_t(p)$ , with its dynamic rating,  $E_{t-1}(p)$ , at the former decision moment; and
- (iii) if the alternative,  $p$ , belongs to the historical set of alternatives only, that is,  $p \in H_{t-1} \setminus P_t$ , its dynamic rating,  $E_t(p)$ , is equal to  $E_{t-1}(p)$ .

The dynamic decision process can be conducted for several decision moments. The moment wherein the process is stopped depends on the problem and the DM's assessments.

### 2.3. Fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets

TOPSIS (Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution) method was first proposed by Huwang and Yoon<sup>12</sup>; it is a popular MADM method been widely applied to solve different decision problems<sup>5,6,12,32</sup>. To cope with complex problems and uncertain information in the real world, the TOPSIS method has been extended to deal with fuzzy MADM problems<sup>5,6,32</sup>.

The fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets<sup>32</sup> is a distinctive and powerful approach among other fuzzy TOPSIS versions<sup>5,6,8,9</sup> due to its prominent advantages of keeping uncertain information in a better way. This is the significant difference between the fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets and other versions. Due to such advantages, the fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets will be used as the static MADM method in order to calculate the static rating of each alternative at different decision moments in our proposal.

In fuzzy MADM problems, criteria/attribute values and the relative weights are usually characterized by fuzzy numbers<sup>6,32</sup>. The most commonly used fuzzy numbers are trapezoidal fuzzy numbers,  $\tilde{A} = (a, b, c, d)$ , or triangular fuzzy numbers,  $\tilde{A} = (a, b, d)$ , with a degree of membership between 0 and 1. When  $b = c$ , the triangular fuzzy number is a special case of a trapezoidal fuzzy number.

According to Zadeh's extension principle<sup>41</sup>, a fuzzy number/set,  $\tilde{A}$ , can be also expressed by its in-



tervals, that is,

$$\tilde{A} = \bigcup_{\alpha} \alpha A_{\alpha}, 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \tag{7}$$

where

$$A_{\alpha} = \{x \in X | \mu_{\tilde{A}}(x) \geq \alpha\} = [\min\{x \in X | \mu_{\tilde{A}}(x) \geq \alpha\}, \max\{x \in X | \mu_{\tilde{A}}(x) \geq \alpha\}] \tag{8}$$

$\alpha$ -level sets or  $\alpha$ -cuts of  $\tilde{A}$  denoted as  $A_{\alpha}$ .  $\mu_{\tilde{A}}(x)$  is the membership function of fuzzy number  $\tilde{A}$  <sup>32</sup>.

Based on the short revision of fuzzy numbers aforementioned, the fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets <sup>32</sup> is briefly introduced.

Let  $\tilde{X} = (\tilde{x}_{ij})_{n \times m}$  be a fuzzy decision matrix characterized by membership functions,  $\mu_{\tilde{x}_{ij}}(x)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, m$ ), and  $\tilde{W} = (\tilde{w}_1, \dots, \tilde{w}_m)$  be the fuzzy weights characterized by  $\mu_{\tilde{w}_j}(x)$  ( $j = 1, \dots, m$ ). If all the criteria/attributes,  $\{c_1, \dots, c_m\}$ , are assessed by using linguistic term sets with the same syntax and semantics, then the fuzzy decision matrix,  $\tilde{X}$ , has the same dimension, and therefore, it is not necessary any normalization. Otherwise,  $\tilde{X}$  has to be normalized.

If  $\tilde{x}_{ij} = (a_{ij}, b_{ij}, c_{ij}, d_{ij})$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, m$ ) are trapezoidal fuzzy numbers, then the normalization process can be carried out by (the same normalization process for triangular fuzzy numbers)

$$\tilde{r}_{ij} = (\frac{a_{ij}}{d_j^*}, \frac{b_{ij}}{d_j^*}, \frac{c_{ij}}{d_j^*}, \frac{d_{ij}}{d_j^*}), i = 1, \dots, n; j \in \Omega_b \tag{9}$$

$$\tilde{r}_{ij} = (\frac{a_j^-}{d_{ij}^-}, \frac{a_j^-}{c_{ij}^-}, \frac{a_j^-}{b_{ij}^-}, \frac{a_j^-}{a_{ij}^-}), i = 1, \dots, n; j \in \Omega_c \tag{10}$$

where

$$d_j^* = \max_i d_{ij}, j \in \Omega_b, \tag{11}$$

$$a_j^- = \min_i a_{ij}, j \in \Omega_c \tag{12}$$

where  $\Omega_b$  and  $\Omega_c$  denote the sets of benefit and cost criteria/attributes, respectively.

It can be seen that  $\tilde{r}_{ij}$  belong to  $[0,1]$ ; thus, positive and negative ideal solutions can be defined as  $P^* = \{1, \dots, 1\}$  and  $P^- = \{0, \dots, 0\}$ , respectively.

For a fuzzy decision matrix,  $\tilde{X} = (\tilde{x}_{ij})_{n \times m}$ , without normalization, the positive and negative ideal solutions can be obtained as follows:

$$P^* = \{x_1^*, \dots, x_m^*\} = \{(\min_j d_{ij}, j \in \Omega_b), (\min_j a_{ij}, j \in \Omega_c)\} \tag{13}$$

$$P^- = \{x_1^-, \dots, x_m^-\} = \{(\min_j a_{ij}, j \in \Omega_b), (\max_j d_{ij}, j \in \Omega_c)\} \tag{14}$$

Let  $(r_{ij})_{\alpha} = [(r_{ij})_{\alpha}^L, (r_{ij})_{\alpha}^U]$  and  $(w_j)_{\alpha} = [(w_j)_{\alpha}^L, (w_j)_{\alpha}^U]$  be alpha-level sets of  $\tilde{r}_{ij}$  and  $\tilde{w}_j$ , respectively. Then, the relative closeness (RC),  $RC_i$ , of the alternative,  $p_i$ , with respect to  $P^*$  can be written as:

$$RC_i = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j r_{ij})^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j r_{ij})^2} + \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j (r_{ij} - 1))^2}} \tag{15}$$

where

$$(w_j)_{\alpha}^L \leq w_j \leq (w_j)_{\alpha}^U, j = 1, \dots, m \tag{16}$$

$$(r_{ij})_{\alpha}^L \leq r_{ij} \leq (r_{ij})_{\alpha}^U, j = 1, \dots, m, i = 1, \dots, n \tag{17}$$

$RC_i$  is an interval value based on Eq. (15); its upper and lower bounds can be calculated by utilizing the following simplified pair of fractional programming models (see <sup>32</sup> for further details):

$$(RC_i)_{\alpha}^U = \text{Max} \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j (r_{ij})_{\alpha}^U)^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j (r_{ij})_{\alpha}^U)^2} + \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j ((r_{ij})_{\alpha}^U - 1))^2}} \tag{18}$$

$$s.t. \quad (w_j)_{\alpha}^L \leq w_j \leq (w_j)_{\alpha}^U, j = 1, \dots, m$$

$$(RC_i)_{\alpha}^L = \text{Min} \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j (r_{ij})_{\alpha}^L)^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j (r_{ij})_{\alpha}^L)^2} + \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_j ((r_{ij})_{\alpha}^L - 1))^2}} \tag{19}$$

$$s.t. \quad (w_j)_{\alpha}^L \leq w_j \leq (w_j)_{\alpha}^U, j = 1, \dots, m$$

When different alpha levels are set, then  $(RC_i)_{\alpha} = [(RC_i)_{\alpha}^L, (RC_i)_{\alpha}^U]$  can be obtained by solving Eqs. (18) and (19), respectively. According to Eq. (7),  $\tilde{RC}_i$  can be expressed as:

$$\tilde{RC}_i = \bigcup_{\alpha} \alpha \cdot (RC_i)_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\alpha} \alpha [(RC_i)_{\alpha}^L, (RC_i)_{\alpha}^U], 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \tag{20}$$



where  $\widetilde{RC}_i$  represents the fuzzy RC of alternative,  $p_i$ , based on corresponding alpha levels from 0 to 1.

According to Eq. (6), the dynamic ratings of alternatives are related not only to their static ones, but also their performance in previous stages if it has one. In order to calculate the dynamic ratings of alternatives, it is firstly necessary to compute the static ratings of alternatives. The averaging level cuts<sup>24</sup> are used in this paper for sake of simplicity to obtain the static ratings of alternatives.

Let  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K$  be different alpha levels; the static rating,  $m(\widetilde{RC}_i)$ , of alternative,  $p_i$ , can be determined by<sup>24</sup>

$$m(\widetilde{RC}_i) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \left( \frac{(RC_i)_{\alpha_k}^L + (RC_i)_{\alpha_k}^U}{2} \right), i = 1, \dots, n \quad (21)$$

where  $K$  is the number of alpha levels.

### 3. Dynamic MAGEDM method considering experts' hesitation

This section introduces a novel dynamic MAGEDM method that is able to: (a) consider the dynamic evolution feature of EEs in MAGEDM problems; and (b) deal with uncertain information using interval values in quantitative contexts, linguistic terms in qualitative contexts, and model experts' hesitation by means of complex linguistic expressions based on HFLTS.

This proposal extends the general scheme of the MAGEDM process shown in Fig. 1 by adding two new phases to unify the information provided by experts (*unification process*), and then, compute the dynamic rating (*computing dynamic rating*). The aggregation process has been modified, and the selection process is replaced by a new phase adapted to dynamic MAGEDM problem (*computing static rating*). These phases are highlighted in Fig. 3 by using dash lines.

The proposed dynamic MAGEDM method consists of six main phases:

(a) *Framework definition*. It defines the structure of the dynamic MAGEDM problem (notions for decision moments, experts, alternatives, etc.) and the expression domains for quantitative and

qualitative contexts wherein assessments can be elicited by involved experts.

- (b) *Gathering information*. Assessments of or opinions on different alternatives concerning different criteria and criteria importance are provided by experts at each decision moment.
- (c) *Unification process*. The information provided by experts at each decision moment is unified into a fuzzy domain to carry out the computations.
- (d) *Aggregation process*. In this process, the unified fuzzy information about the opinions, and criteria importance provided by experts are aggregated.
- (e) *Computing static rating*. Fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets is utilized as the static MADM method to calculate the static rating of each alternative at each decision moment.
- (f) *Computing dynamic rating*. Dynamic rating for each alternative at each decision moment takes into account not only its static rating in the current stage, but also its performance in previous ones.

These phases are further detailed in the following subsections.

#### 3.1. Framework definition

The following notions and terminology will be used in the proposed dynamic MAGEDM method.

- $T = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ : the set of discrete decision moments (possible infinite), for each decision moment,  $t \in T$ .

- $P_t = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ : the set of available alternatives at decision moment,  $t$ , where  $p_i$  denotes the  $i$ -th alternative,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

- $C_t = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m\}$ : the set of criteria/attributes at decision moment,  $t$ , where  $c_j$  denotes the  $j$ -th criterion/attribute,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

- $E_t = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_H\}$ : the set of experts at decision moment,  $t$ , where  $e_h$  denotes the  $h$ -th expert,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ . In dynamic MAGEDM problems, the experts might leave or be added during the decision process according to expert's willingness or decision problems.

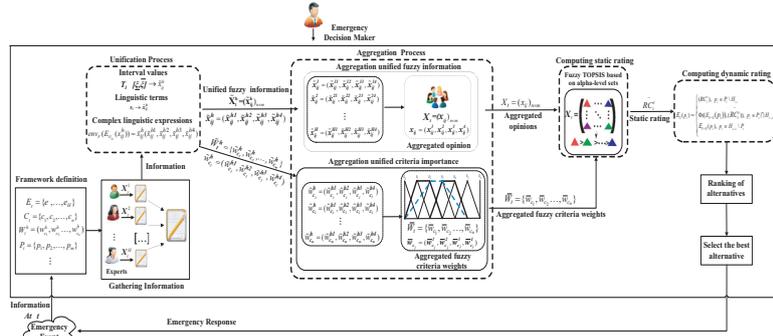


Fig. 3. Dynamic MAGEDM method considering experts' hesitation

- $X_t^h = (x_{ij}^h)_{n \times m}$ : the information matrix provided by the expert,  $e_h$ , at decision moment,  $t$ , where  $x_{ij}^h$  denotes the opinions/assessments provided by the  $h$ -th expert over the  $i$ -th alternative regarding  $j$ -th criterion,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ;  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$  (see Remark 2).

- $\tilde{X}_t^h = (\tilde{x}_{ij}^h)_{n \times m}$ : the unified information matrix with respect to  $X_t^h$ , where  $\tilde{x}_{ij}^h$  denotes the unified fuzzy information corresponding to  $x_{ij}^h$ ,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ;  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

- $X_t = (x_{ij})_{n \times m}$ : denotes the aggregated information matrix regarding  $\tilde{X}_t^h$ , at decision moment,  $t$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ;  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

- $W_t^h = (w_{c_1}^h, w_{c_2}^h, \dots, w_{c_m}^h)$ : the assessments vector regarding the criteria importance provided by the  $h$ -th expert at decision moment,  $t$ , where  $w_{c_j}^h$  denotes the  $h$ -th expert's assessments on the criterion  $c_j$ ,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$  (see Remark 3).

- $\tilde{W}_t^h = (\tilde{w}_{c_1}^h, \tilde{w}_{c_2}^h, \dots, \tilde{w}_{c_m}^h)$ : the unified fuzzy information vector with respect to  $W_t^h$ , where  $\tilde{w}_{c_j}^h$  denotes the unified fuzzy information corresponding to  $w_{c_j}^h$ ,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

- $\bar{W}_t = (\bar{w}_{c_1}, \bar{w}_{c_2}, \dots, \bar{w}_{c_m})$ : the aggregated information vector regarding  $\tilde{W}_t^h$ , at decision moment,  $t$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**Remark 2.** The expression domains used by experts to express their assessments,  $x_{ij}^h$ , will be interval values ( $I$ ) for quantitative contexts and linguistic

terms and complex linguistic expressions for qualitative contexts, which have been revised in section 2.1.

$$x_{ij}^h \in \begin{cases} I \in [\eta^L, \eta^U] \\ s_i \in S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\} \\ S_{ll} \end{cases} \quad (22)$$

**Remark 3.** The expression domains for the criteria importance are either single linguistic terms,  $s_i \in S$ , or complex linguistic expressions,  $S_{ll}$ , because they are close to the natural language employed by people in real world.

$$w_{c_j}^h \in \begin{cases} s_i \in S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\} \\ S_{ll} \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

### 3.2. Gathering information

The opinions/assessments,  $x_{ij}^h$ , over the alternatives,  $p_i$ , regarding criteria,  $c_j$ , and the assessments over the criteria importance,  $w_{c_j}^h$ , provided by the expert,  $e_h$ , at decision moment,  $t$ , are gathered below.

$$X_t^h = \begin{matrix} & c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_m \\ p_1 & \begin{bmatrix} x_{11}^1 & x_{12}^1 & \dots & x_{1m}^1 \\ x_{21}^1 & x_{22}^1 & \dots & x_{2m}^1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ x_{n1}^1 & x_{n2}^1 & \dots & x_{nm}^1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$



where  $x_{ij}^h \in \begin{cases} I \in [\eta^L, \eta^U] \\ S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \\ S_{ll} \\ j = 1, 2, \dots, m; h = 1, 2, \dots, H. \end{cases}$

$$W_t^h = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_m \\ w_{c_1}^h & w_{c_2}^h & \dots & w_{c_m}^h \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $w_{c_j}^h \in \begin{cases} S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}, j = 1, 2, \dots, m; \\ S_{ll} \\ h = 1, 2, \dots, H. \end{cases}$

3.3. Unification process

In this proposal, the expression domains used by experts can be interval values ( $I$ ), linguistic terms ( $s_i$ ), or complex linguistic expressions ( $S_{ll}$ ).

- *Interval values.* Assessments represented by interval values,  $I$ , belong to a special domain,  $[\eta^L, \eta^U]$ , that is,  $I \in [\eta^L, \eta^U]$ .
- *Linguistic terms.* Assessments represented by linguistic terms  $s_i$ , belong to a linguistic term set  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$ , that is,  $s_i \in S$ , where  $g + 1$  is the granularity of  $S$ .
- *Complex linguistic expressions.* Assessments represented by  $S_{ll}$ , generated by  $G_H$  (see Definition 4).

As mentioned in section 2.1, to deal with quantitative and qualitative information, a unification process is needed to facilitate the computations.

In order to retain uncertain information, including experts' hesitation, and obtain more reliable results, the assessments,  $X_t^h = (x_{ij}^h)_{n \times m}$ , and criteria importance,  $W_t^h = (w_{c_1}^h, w_{c_2}^h, \dots, w_{c_m}^h)$ , are transformed into its corresponding fuzzy domains,  $\tilde{X}_t^h = (\tilde{x}_{ij}^h)_{n \times m}$  and  $\tilde{W}_t^h = (\tilde{w}_{c_1}^h, \tilde{w}_{c_2}^h, \dots, \tilde{w}_{c_m}^h)$ , by using transformation functions (see Fig. 4).

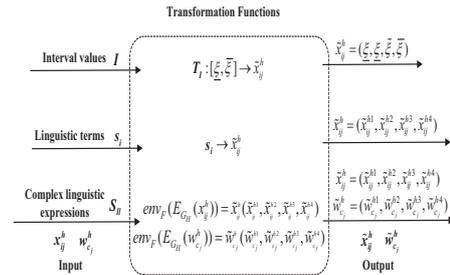


Fig. 4. Transformation functions

The transformation functions are detailed below:

1) Interval values,  $I$ , are first normalized into  $[0, 1]$ , and then, transformed into trapezoidal fuzzy numbers by using a transformation function,  $T_I$ . Let  $[\eta^L, \eta^U]$  be the domain of the interval values for quantitative contexts; let  $x_{ij}^h = [d^L, d^U]$  be the information provided by the expert,  $e_h$ , over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion at decision moment,  $t$ , where  $x_{ij}^h = [d^L, d^U] \in [\eta^L, \eta^U]$ . The interval values,  $[d^L, d^U]$ , are normalized into  $[\underline{\xi}, \bar{\xi}] \in [0, 1]$  as follows:

$$\underline{\xi} = \frac{d^L - \eta^L}{\eta^U - \eta^L} \text{ and } \bar{\xi} = \frac{d^U - \eta^L}{\eta^U - \eta^L} \quad (24)$$

The transformation function,  $T_I$ , is defined as follows.

**Definition 6.** Transformation function,  $T_I$ , transforms an interval value into a trapezoidal fuzzy number:

$$\begin{aligned} T_I : [\underline{\xi}, \bar{\xi}] &\rightarrow \tilde{x}_{ij}^h \\ T_I(\underline{\xi}, \bar{\xi}) &= \tilde{x}_{ij}^h(\underline{\xi}, \xi, \bar{\xi}, \bar{\xi}) \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

where  $\underline{\xi} \leq \bar{\xi}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ .

2) Linguistic terms,  $x_{ij}^h$  and  $w_{c_j}^h$ , belonging to  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$ , are represented by trapezoidal fuzzy numbers. Therefore, their corresponding fuzzy domains are  $\tilde{x}_{ij}^h(\tilde{x}_{ij}^{h1}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h2}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h3}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h4})$  and  $\tilde{w}_{c_j}^h(\tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h1}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h2}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h3}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h4})$ , respectively.



3) Complex linguistic expressions,  $x_{ij}^h$  and  $w_{c_j}^h$ , belonging to  $S_{ll}$ , are transformed into HFLTS using the transformation function,  $E_{GH}(\cdot)$ <sup>27</sup>, and its fuzzy envelop,  $env_f(E_{GH}(\cdot))$ , is obtained by<sup>17</sup>:

$$\begin{aligned} env_f(E_{GH}(x_{ij}^h)) &= \tilde{x}_{ij}^h(\tilde{x}_{ij}^{h1}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h2}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h3}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h4}) \\ env_f(E_{GH}(w_{c_j}^h)) &= \tilde{w}_{c_j}^h(\tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h1}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h2}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h3}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h4}) \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

According to Eqs. (24)–(26), the gathered information,  $X_t^h = (x_{ij}^h)_{n \times m}$  and  $W_t^h = (w_{c_1}^h, w_{c_2}^h, \dots, w_{c_m}^h)$ , can be transformed into its corresponding fuzzy domain  $\tilde{X}_t^h = (\tilde{x}_{ij}^h)_{n \times m}$  and  $\tilde{W}_t^h = (\tilde{w}_{c_1}^h, \tilde{w}_{c_2}^h, \dots, \tilde{w}_{c_m}^h)$ , respectively.

### 3.4. Aggregation process

The aggregation process is the process wherein experts' opinions are aggregated to obtain collective values for each alternative and criteria weights.

The unified information,  $\tilde{X}_t^h$  and  $\tilde{W}_t^h$ , are aggregated to calculate the static rating of alternatives at each decision moment,  $t$ . This phase consists of two sub-aggregation processes (see Fig.5): 1) *aggregation of unified fuzzy information* and 2) *aggregation of unified criteria importance*, which are explained as:

#### 1) Aggregation of unified fuzzy information.

The aggregated fuzzy information matrix at decision moment,  $t$ ,  $X_t = (x_{ij})_{n \times m}$ , where  $x_{ij} = (x_{ij}^1, x_{ij}^2, x_{ij}^3, x_{ij}^4)$  is obtained by means of the unified fuzzy information,  $\tilde{X}_t^h = (\tilde{x}_{ij}^h)_{n \times m}$ , where  $\tilde{x}_{ij}^h = (\tilde{x}_{ij}^{h1}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h2}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h3}, \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h4})$  is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{ij}^1 &= \min_h \{\tilde{x}_{ij}^{h1}\}, & x_{ij}^2 &= \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h2} \\ x_{ij}^3 &= \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H \tilde{x}_{ij}^{h3}, & x_{ij}^4 &= \max_h \{\tilde{x}_{ij}^{h4}\} \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

where  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ;  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

#### 2) Aggregation of unified criteria importance.

The aggregated fuzzy criteria weights at decision moment,  $t$ ,  $\bar{W}_t = \{\bar{w}_{c_1}, \bar{w}_{c_2}, \dots, \bar{w}_{c_m}\}$ , where  $\bar{w}_{c_j} = (\bar{w}_{c_j}^1, \bar{w}_{c_j}^2, \bar{w}_{c_j}^3, \bar{w}_{c_j}^4)$  can be obtained according to  $\tilde{W}_t^h = \{\tilde{w}_{c_1}^h, \tilde{w}_{c_2}^h, \dots, \tilde{w}_{c_m}^h\}$ , where  $\tilde{w}_{c_j}^h = (\tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h1}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h2}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h3}, \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h4})$ , utilizing similar equations to Eq. (27):

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{w}_{c_j}^1 &= \min_h \{\tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h1}\}, & \bar{w}_{c_j}^2 &= \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h2} \\ \bar{w}_{c_j}^3 &= \frac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H \tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h3}, & \bar{w}_{c_j}^4 &= \max_h \{\tilde{w}_{c_j}^{h4}\} \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

where  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

The advantages of the aggregation equations above are not only to retain uncertain information as much as possible and take into account all involved experts' opinions in the dynamic MAGEDM process, but also to ease computation.

### 3.5. Computing static rating

As noted earlier, the fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets is utilized as the static MADM method to obtain the static ratings of alternatives at each decision moment,  $t$ , in our proposal. Since the aggregated fuzzy information matrix,  $X_t = (x_{ij})_{n \times m}$  and  $\bar{W}_t$ , have been already normalized in the *unification process*, it is not necessary to normalize  $X_t = (x_{ij})_{n \times m}$  and  $\bar{W}_t$  again. Thus, the positive and negative ideal solutions are  $P^* = \{1, \dots, 1\}$ , and  $P^- = \{0, \dots, 0\}$ , respectively.

Let  $(y_{ij})_\alpha = [(y_{ij})_\alpha^L, (y_{ij})_\alpha^U]$  and  $(w_{c_j})_\alpha = [(w_{c_j})_\alpha^L, (w_{c_j})_\alpha^U]$  be the alpha-level sets of  $x_{ij}$  and  $\bar{w}_{c_j}$ , respectively, at decision moment,  $t$ . The RC of the alternative,  $p_i$ , based on different alpha levels,  $(RC_i^t)_\alpha^U$ , and  $(RC_i^t)_\alpha^L$  can be obtained by using Eqs. (29) and (30), respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} (RC_i^t)_\alpha^U &= \text{Max} \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_{c_j} (y_{ij})_\alpha^U)^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_{c_j} (y_{ij})_\alpha^U)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^m (w_{c_j} ((y_{ij})_\alpha^U - 1))^2}} \quad (29) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad (w_{c_j})_\alpha^L &\leq w_{c_j} \leq (w_{c_j})_\alpha^U, j = 1, \dots, m \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (RC_i^t)_\alpha^L &= \text{Min} \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_{c_j} (y_{ij})_\alpha^L)^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^m (w_{c_j} (y_{ij})_\alpha^L)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^m (w_{c_j} ((y_{ij})_\alpha^L - 1))^2}} \quad (30) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad (w_{c_j})_\alpha^L &\leq w_{c_j} \leq (w_{c_j})_\alpha^U, j = 1, \dots, m \end{aligned}$$

Similar to Eqs. (20) and (21), the fuzzy RC of the alternative,  $p_i$ , with different alpha-level sets at decision moment,  $t$ , with our notation can be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{RC}_i^t &= \bigcup_\alpha \alpha \cdot (RC_i^t)_\alpha \\ &= \bigcup_\alpha \alpha [(RC_i^t)_\alpha^L, (RC_i^t)_\alpha^U], 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

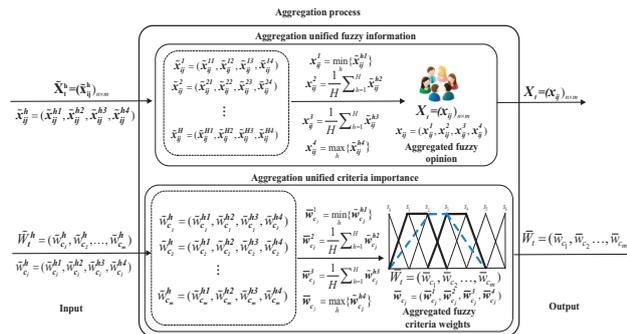


Fig. 5. Aggregation process

According to Eq. (21), the static ratings of alternatives in this study can be obtained as follows:

$$m(\tilde{RC}_i^t) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \left( \frac{(RC_i^t)^L \alpha_k}{2} + (RC_i^t)^U \alpha_k \right), i = 1, \dots, n \quad (32)$$

3.6. Computing dynamic rating

Since EE information changes along with time (alternatives, criteria, and experts), leading to dynamic evolution, it seems necessary to consider the dynamic rating of each alternative. This is a comprehensive factor that indicates the performance of the alternative not only in its current stage, but also in the previous one. In this proposal, the dynamic rating of alternatives based on Eq. (6) is as follows:

$$E_t(p_i) = \begin{cases} m(\tilde{RC}_i^t), & p_i \in P_t \setminus H_{t-1} \\ \Phi((E_{t-1}(p_i), m(\tilde{RC}_i^t))), & p_i \in P_t \cap H_{t-1} \\ E_{t-1}(p_i), & p_i \in H_{t-1} \setminus P_t \end{cases} \quad (33)$$

where  $\Phi$  is an associative aggregation operator that can apply different types of reinforcements (such as, downward reinforcement, upward reinforcement, and full reinforcement) for enhancing different performances in the dynamic context. (see Ref. 4 for details).

The operator selection and reinforcement depend on the characteristics of the problem.

† Background Information. <http://www.safehoo.com/Case/Case/Blow/201602/428723.shtml>

**Definition 7.** <sup>42</sup> A probabilistic sum function,  $\Phi$ , is defined as:

$$\Phi((E_{t-1}(p_i), m(\tilde{RC}_i^t))) = E_{t-1}(p_i) + m(\tilde{RC}_i^t) - E_{t-1}(p_i) \times m(\tilde{RC}_i^t)$$

The ranking of the alternatives is obtained according to the dynamic ratings,  $E_t(p_i)$ ; the higher dynamic rating the better alternative.

4. Case study, comparison with other approaches and discussions

In order to illustrate the feasibility and validity of the proposed dynamic MAGEDM method, a case study adapted from a big explosion<sup>†</sup> that occurred in China is provided, followed by comparisons with other approaches and related discussions.

4.1. Case study

A big explosion took place at a container storage station at the Port of Tianjin, which contained hazardous and flammable chemicals, including sodium nitrate, calcium carbide, and ammonium nitrate, among others. The local government organized relevant departments (fire department, traffic management department, hygiene department, etc.) to collaborate in order to address the emergency situation. Short messages were sent to inform citizens within



one kilometer to evacuate to safe areas. In this example, when the explosion occurred, the decision moment,  $t = 1$ .

4.1.1. Decision moment  $t=1$

Step 1. Framework definition

Assume that three experts  $E_1 = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$  are invited to join in the MAGEDM process to help the DM to make a decision. Three available alternatives,  $P_1 = \{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$ , were put forward concerning three criteria,  $C_1 = \{c_1, c_2, c_3\}$ , which are given in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 1. Description of available alternatives at  $t = 1$

Alternatives	Description
$p_1$	Inform and evacuate citizens, and meanwhile assign 10 fire squadrons, 300 fire fighters, and 40 fire engines to deal with the explosion.
$p_2$	Increase to 30 fire squadrons, 900 fire fighters, and 55 fire engines; at the same time, report the latest news to the citizens to avoid panic and riots.
$p_3$	Ask the professional emergency rescue military for emergency rescue with more than 300 soldiers carrying specific equipment join in the rescue.

Table 2. Description of criteria at  $t = 1$

Criteria	Expression domain	Description
People affected ( $c_1$ )	$I$	It means the alternative, $p_i$ , can protect the number of people from the effects caused by EE in domain [0,1000].
Environment affected ( $c_2$ )	$S_1, S_{II}$	It is evaluated by experts by using $s_i \in S_1 = \{\text{None (N), Very Low Seriously (VLS), Low Seriously (LS), Medium (M), High Seriously (HS), Very High Seriously (VHS), Absolutely High Seriously (AHS)}\}$ and $S_{II}$ generated by $G_{II}$ on $S_1$ (see Fig. 2).
Property loss ( $c_3$ )	$I$	It means that the alternative, $p_i$ , can protect the direct and indirect property losses caused by EE in domain [0,10] (in billion RMB).

Step 2. Gathering information

The criteria importance,  $W_1^h$ , provided by the three experts using linguistic terms  $s_i \in S_2 = \{\text{None (N), Very Low Importance (VLI), Low Importance (LI), Medium Importance (MI), High Importance (HI), Very High Importance (VHI), Absolutely High Importance (AHI)}\}$ , and  $S_{II}$  generated by  $G_H$  on the  $S_2$ , are shown in Table 3 (“bt” stands for “between”).

Table 3. Criteria importance  $W_1^h$  provided by experts at  $t = 1$

$W_1^h$	Criteria		
	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
$W_1^1$	VHI	HI	LI
$W_1^2$	VHI	HI	LI
$W_1^3$	VHI	bt MI and HI	VLI

The assessments,  $X_1^h$ , provided by the three experts over three available alternatives concerning the three criteria at  $t = 1$  are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Assessments  $X_1^h$  provided by experts at  $t = 1$

$X_1^h$		Criteria		
		$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
$X_1^1$	$x_{1j}^1$	[50,80]	VLS	[0.3,0.5]
	$x_{2j}^1$	[80,100]	M	[0.4,0.5]
	$x_{3j}^1$	[45,55]	M	[0.25,0.35]
$X_1^2$	$x_{1j}^2$	[40,60]	LS	[0.2,0.3]
	$x_{2j}^2$	[80,110]	M	[0.3,0.5]
	$x_{3j}^2$	[30,40]	HS	[0.2,0.25]
$X_1^3$	$x_{1j}^3$	[50,60]	LS	[0.18,0.25]
	$x_{2j}^3$	[70,120]	M	[0.45,0.6]
	$x_{3j}^3$	[35,45]	At most HS	[0.2,0.3]

Step 3. Unification process

The experts' assessments,  $X_1^h$  and  $W_1^h$ , at  $t = 1$  are transformed into a fuzzy domain by means of the transformation functions defined in section 3.3. The unified results are shown in Tables 5 and 6, respectively.

Table 5. Unified results  $\tilde{X}_1^h$  regarding  $X_1^h$  at  $t = 1$

$\tilde{X}_1^h$		Criteria		
		$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
$\tilde{X}_1^1$	$\tilde{x}_{1j}^1$	(0.05,0.05,0.08,0.08)	(0.0,0.17,0.17,0.33)	(0.03,0.03,0.05,0.05)
	$\tilde{x}_{2j}^1$	(0.08,0.08,0.1,0.1)	(0.33,0.5,0.5,0.67)	(0.04,0.04,0.05,0.05)
	$\tilde{x}_{3j}^1$	(0.045,0.045,0.055,0.055)	(0.33,0.5,0.5,0.67)	(0.025,0.025,0.035,0.035)
$\tilde{X}_1^2$	$\tilde{x}_{1j}^2$	(0.04,0.04,0.06,0.06)	(0.17,0.33,0.33,0.5)	(0.02,0.02,0.03,0.03)
	$\tilde{x}_{2j}^2$	(0.08,0.08,0.11,0.11)	(0.33,0.5,0.5,0.67)	(0.03,0.03,0.05,0.05)
	$\tilde{x}_{3j}^2$	(0.03,0.03,0.04,0.04)	(0.5,0.67,0.67,0.83)	(0.02,0.02,0.025,0.025)
$\tilde{X}_1^3$	$\tilde{x}_{1j}^3$	(0.05,0.05,0.06,0.06)	(0.17,0.33,0.33,0.5)	(0.018,0.018,0.025,0.025)
	$\tilde{x}_{2j}^3$	(0.07,0.07,0.12,0.12)	(0.33,0.5,0.5,0.67)	(0.045,0.045,0.06,0.06)
	$\tilde{x}_{3j}^3$	(0.035,0.035,0.045,0.045)	(0.0,0.59,0.84)	(0.02,0.02,0.03,0.03)

Table 6. Unified results  $\tilde{W}_1^h$  regarding  $W_1^h$  at  $t = 1$

$\tilde{W}_1^h$		Criteria		
		$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
$\tilde{W}_1^1$		(0.67,0.83,0.83,1)	(0.5,0.67,0.67,0.83)	(0.17,0.33,0.33,0.5)
$\tilde{W}_1^2$		(0.67,0.83,0.83,1)	(0.5,0.67,0.67,0.83)	(0.17,0.33,0.33,0.5)
$\tilde{W}_1^3$		(0.67,0.83,0.83,1)	(0.34,0.5,0.67,0.84)	(0.0,0.17,0.17,0.33)

Step 4. Aggregation process

Based on Tables 5 and 6, the aggregated results,  $X_1$  and  $\bar{W}_1$ , at  $t = 1$  are shown in Table 7 by using the Eqs. (27) and (28), respectively.

Table 7. Aggregated results  $X_1$  and  $\bar{W}_1$  regarding  $\tilde{X}_1^h$  and  $\tilde{W}_1^h$  at  $t = 1$

Aggregated results	Criteria			
		$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
$X_1$	$x_{1j}$	(0.040,0.047,0.067,0.080)	(0.0,0.277,0.277,0.500)	(0.018,0.023,0.035,0.050)
	$x_{2j}$	(0.070,0.077,0.110,0.120)	(0.330,0.500,0.500,0.670)	(0.030,0.038,0.053,0.060)
	$x_{3j}$	(0.030,0.037,0.047,0.055)	(0.0,0.390,0.587,0.840)	(0.020,0.022,0.030,0.035)
$\bar{W}_1$	$\bar{w}_{e_j}$	(0.670,0.830,0.830,1)	(0.340,0.613,0.670,0.840)	(0.0,0.277,0.277,0.500)



Step 5. Computing static rating

In this case study, 11 alpha-levels are set for computing the fuzzy RC of each alternative <sup>32</sup>, that is,  $\alpha = \{0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0\}$ . According to Eqs. (29)–(32), the results  $\widetilde{RC}_i^1$  and  $m(\widetilde{RC}_i^1)$  are shown in Table 8 and the fuzzy RC of alternatives graphically shown in Fig. 6.

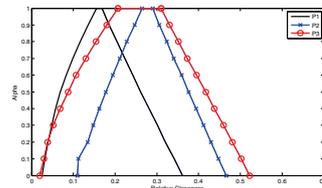


Figure 6: The fuzzy RC of  $p_i$  at  $t = 1$

Table 8. Alpha-level sets of fuzzy relative closenesses of the three alternatives at  $t = 1$

Alpha	Alternatives		
	$p_1$	$p_2$	$p_3$
0	[0.025, 0.362]	[0.110, 0.466]	[0.019, 0.522]
0.1	[0.032, 0.342]	[0.112, 0.448]	[0.030, 0.502]
0.2	[0.040, 0.321]	[0.134, 0.430]	[0.039, 0.481]
0.3	[0.048, 0.301]	[0.148, 0.412]	[0.052, 0.460]
0.4	[0.057, 0.281]	[0.162, 0.394]	[0.068, 0.438]
0.5	[0.069, 0.261]	[0.178, 0.376]	[0.087, 0.417]
0.6	[0.083, 0.242]	[0.194, 0.359]	[0.107, 0.395]
0.7	[0.099, 0.223]	[0.211, 0.341]	[0.130, 0.373]
0.8	[0.117, 0.204]	[0.228, 0.324]	[0.154, 0.352]
0.9	[0.135, 0.186]	[0.247, 0.306]	[0.180, 0.331]
1	[0.155, 0.169]	[0.265, 0.290]	[0.207, 0.310]
Static rating $m(\widetilde{RC}_i^1)$	0.171	<b>0.279</b>	0.257
Static ranking	3	<b>1</b>	2
Dynamic rating $E_1(p_i)$	0.171	<b>0.279</b>	0.257
Dynamic ranking	3	<b>1</b>	2

Step 6. Computing dynamic rating

Since  $t = 1$  and  $p_i \in P_1 \setminus H_0 (i = 1, 2, 3)$ , there is no historical available alternative. According to Eq. (33), the dynamic rating of each alternative,  $E_1(p_i)$ , is equal to its corresponding static rating,  $m(\widetilde{RC}_i^1)$ . Therefore, the dynamic ranking of alternatives is the same as the static ranking of alternatives. The results are shown from rows 14 to 17 of Table 8, respectively.

Since the dynamic rating,  $E_1(p_i)$ , is equal to its corresponding static ratings,  $m(\widetilde{RC}_i^1)$ , according to the static ranking of alternatives in Table 8, the DM can select the best alternative,  $p_2$ , with the greatest

rating among  $P_1 = \{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$  at decision moment,  $t = 1$ , to cope with the EE.

While the alternative,  $p_2$ , is selected and implemented to cope with the explosion for a while, the information related to the explosion is simultaneously changing because of its dynamic evolution. Hence, in order to make the emergency response pertinent and effective, the latest information about the explosion should be considered in the MAGEDM process. This is regarded as decision moment  $t = 2$  in this case study.

4.1.2. Decision moment at  $t=2$

Step 1. Framework definition

At decision moment,  $t = 2$ , one more expert,  $e_4$ , is invited to participate in the decision process, that is,  $E_2 = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$ . Furthermore, a new alternative,  $p_4$ , and criterion,  $c_4$ , are added, that is,  $P_2 = \{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4\}$  and  $C_2 = \{c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4\}$ , which are given in Tables 9 and 10, respectively.

Table 9. Description of alternatives at  $t = 2$

Alternatives	Relationship with $H_1$	Description
$p_1$	$p_1 \in P_2 \cap H_1$	Inform and evacuate citizens; meanwhile assign 10 fire squadrons, 300 fire fighters, and 40 fire engines to deal with the EE.
$p_2$	$p_2 \in P_2 \cap H_1$	Increase to 30 fire squadrons, 900 fire fighters, and 55 fire engines; at the same time, report the latest news to the citizens to avoid panic and riots.
$p_3$	$p_3 \in P_2 \cap H_1$	Ask the professional emergency rescue military for emergency rescue with more than 300 soldiers carrying specific equipment join in the rescue.
$p_4$	$p_4 \in P_2 \setminus H_1$	Ask neighboring cities for their fire police to provide support; at the same time, fire police and military must collaborate to deal with the problems.

Table 10. Description of the added criterion  $c_4$  at  $t = 2$

Criteria	Expression domain	Description
Social impacts ( $c_4$ )	$S_3, S_H$	It means the impacts on social development or people's daily life, and so on, which are evaluated by experts by using linguistic terms $s_i \in S_3 = \{\text{None (N), Very Low (VL), Low (L), Medium (M), High (H), Very High (VH), Absolutely High (AH)}\}$ , and $S_H$ generated by $G_H$ on the $S_3$ (Same granularity with criterion $c_2$ ).

Step 2. Gathering information

The assessments,  $X_2^h$ , provided by the four experts over the four alternatives concerning the four criteria, and criteria importance,  $W_2^h$ , at  $t = 2$  are

given in Tables 11 and 12, respectively.

Table 11. Assessments  $X_2^h$  provided by experts at  $t = 2$

$X_2^h$	Criteria				
	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$	
$X_2^1$	$x_{1j}^1$	[30,40]	VLS	[0.2,0.25]	VL
	$x_{2j}^1$	[50,60]	LS	[0.2,0.3]	VL
	$x_{3j}^1$	[40,60]	LS	[0.3,0.35]	L
	$x_{4j}^1$	[90,120]	At least HS	[0.55,0.65]	H
$X_2^2$	$x_{1j}^2$	[40,50]	VLS	[0.25,0.35]	VL
	$x_{2j}^2$	[60,70]	LS	[0.3,0.35]	VL
	$x_{3j}^2$	[30,50]	M	[0.2,0.3]	L
	$x_{4j}^2$	[100,140]	VHS	[0.6,0.7]	VH
$X_2^3$	$x_{1j}^3$	[30,50]	LS	[0.2,0.3]	VL
	$x_{2j}^3$	[40,50]	LS	[0.25,0.3]	L
	$x_{3j}^3$	[40,60]	M	[0.15,0.25]	L
	$x_{4j}^3$	[90,130]	HS	[0.5,0.7]	VH
$X_2^4$	$x_{1j}^4$	[40,50]	VLS	[0.2,0.35]	VL
	$x_{2j}^4$	[60,70]	VLS	[0.2,0.3]	VL
	$x_{3j}^4$	[50,60]	M	[0.3,0.45]	L
	$x_{4j}^4$	[100,150]	At least HS	[0.65,0.8]	VH

Table 12. Criteria importance  $W_2^h$  provided by experts at  $t = 2$

$W_2^h$	Criteria			
	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$
$W_2^1$	HI	MI	LI	HI
$W_2^2$	VHI	HI	LI	bt MI and HI
$W_2^3$	HI	MI	LI	HI
$W_2^4$	VHI	bt MI and HI	LI	HI

Step 4. Aggregation process

Similar to decision moment,  $t = 1$ , to save space, only the aggregated results,  $X_2$  and  $W_2$ , at  $t = 2$ , are given in Table 13.

Step 5. Computing static rating

Based on 11 alpha-levels, the results,  $\widetilde{RC}_i^2$ ; static rating,  $m(\widetilde{RC}_i^2)$ ; and static ranking of alternatives are given in Table 14 according to Eqs. (29)–(32), and the fuzzy RC of alternatives is graphically shown in Fig. 7.

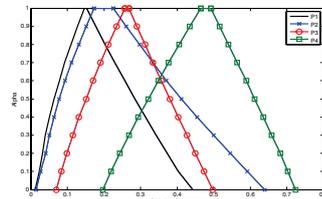


Figure 7: The fuzzy RC of  $p_i$  at  $t = 2$

Table 14. Alpha-level sets of the fuzzy relative closenesses of the four alternatives at  $t = 2$

Alpha	Alternatives			
	$p_1$	$p_2$	$p_3$	$p_4$
0	[0.012,0.443]	[0.015,0.639]	[0.070,0.498]	[0.197,0.724]
0.1	[0.023,0.403]	[0.027,0.592]	[0.084,0.474]	[0.219,0.703]
0.2	[0.032,0.373]	[0.041,0.545]	[0.099,0.450]	[0.243,0.682]
0.3	[0.040,0.343]	[0.051,0.500]	[0.115,0.427]	[0.268,0.659]
0.4	[0.051,0.314]	[0.063,0.455]	[0.132,0.403]	[0.294,0.636]
0.5	[0.063,0.285]	[0.077,0.412]	[0.151,0.380]	[0.321,0.612]
0.6	[0.078,0.257]	[0.094,0.371]	[0.170,0.357]	[0.349,0.589]
0.7	[0.093,0.230]	[0.111,0.334]	[0.191,0.334]	[0.377,0.564]
0.8	[0.110,0.203]	[0.131,0.297]	[0.212,0.312]	[0.406,0.540]
0.9	[0.128,0.178]	[0.151,0.261]	[0.234,0.290]	[0.435,0.516]
1	[0.146,0.153]	[0.173,0.226]	[0.257,0.269]	[0.465,0.492]
Static rating $m(\widetilde{RC}_i^2)$	0.179	0.253	0.269	0.468
Static ranking	4	3	2	1
Dynamic rating $E_2(p_i)$	0.319	0.461	0.457	<b>0.468</b>
Dynamic ranking	4	2	3	<b>1</b>

Step 6. Computing dynamic rating

Due to  $p_i \in P_2 \cap H_1 (i = 1, 2, 3)$ , their dynamic ratings,  $E_2(p_i) (i = 1, 2, 3)$ , should be calculated according to Eq. (33). In this case study, the associative aggregation operator utilized is the *probabilistic sum function* (a t-conorm exhibiting upward reinforcement, see Ref. 42 for details).

According to **Definition 7**,  $E_2(p_1)$  is computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Since } E_1(p_1) &= 0.171 \text{ and } m(\widetilde{RC}_1^2) = 0.179 \\
 E_2(p_1) &= E_1(p_1) + m(\widetilde{RC}_1^2) - E_1(p_1) \times m(\widetilde{RC}_1^2) \\
 &= 0.171 + 0.179 - 0.171 \times 0.179 = 0.319
 \end{aligned}$$

The dynamic rating,  $E_2(p_i)$ , of each available alternative and the dynamic ranking of alternatives at  $t = 2$  are given in Table 14 from rows 16 to 17, respectively.

According to Table 14, it can be seen that the dynamic ranking is different from the static one because the dynamic method considers the alternative behavior across the time. Therefore, based on the dynamic ranking, the DM can select the best alternative,  $p_4$ , with the highest dynamic rating among  $P_2 = \{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4\}$  at decision moment,  $t = 2$ , to deal with the explosion. It can be seen that the best alternative has changed at  $t = 2$  because the latest information about the explosion has been considered in the decision process.

While, the alternative,  $p_4$ , is being carried out to deal with the explosion for a period, more information related to the explosion is collected along the time. The latest collected information should be also considered in the MAGEDM process. It is regarded as decision moment,  $t = 3$ .



Table 13. Aggregated results  $X_2$  and  $\bar{W}_2$  at  $t = 2$

Aggregated results	Criteria			
	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$
$X_2$ $x_{1j}$	(0.030,0.035,0.048,0.050)	(0.0,0.210,0.210,0.500)	(0.020,0.021,0.031,0.035)	(0.0,0.170,0.170,0.330)
$x_{2j}$	(0.040,0.053,0.220,0.700)	(0.0,0.290,0.290,0.500)	(0.020,0.024,0.031,0.035)	(0.0,0.210,0.210,0.500)
$x_{3j}$	(0.030,0.040,0.058,0.060)	(0.170,0.458,0.458,0.670)	(0.015,0.024,0.034,0.045)	(0.170,0.330,0.330,0.500)
$x_{4j}$	(0.090,0.095,0.135,0.150)	(0.500,0.805,0.805,1)	(0.050,0.058,0.071,0.080)	(0.500,0.790,0.790,1)
$\bar{W}_2$ $\bar{w}_{c_j}$	(0.500,0.750,0.750,1)	(0.330,0.543,0.585,0.840)	(0.170,0.330,0.330,0.500)	(0.350,0.628,0.670,0.840)

4.1.3. Decision moment at  $t=3$

Step 1. Framework definition

At decision moment,  $t = 3$ , alternative,  $p_1$ , is removed due to its ineffectiveness; meanwhile a new criterion,  $c_5$ , and one new alternative,  $p_5$ , are added, that is,  $C_3 = \{c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5\}$ ,  $P_3 = \{p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5\}$ , which are given in Tables 15 and 16, respectively.

Table 15. Description of the added criterion  $c_5$  at  $t = 3$

Criteria	Expression domain	Description
Cost of alternative ( $c_5$ )	$I$	It means the cost of alternative, $p_i$ , ( $i = 2, 3, 4, 5$ ), including all the direct and indirect expenses in domain [0,100] (in million RMB).

Table 16. Description of alternatives at  $t = 3$

Alternatives	Relationship with $H_2$	Description
$p_2$	$p_2 \in P_3 \cap H_2$	Increase to 30 fire squadrons, 900 fire fighters, and 55 fire engines; at the same time, report the latest news to the citizens to avoid panic and riots.
$p_3$	$p_3 \in P_3 \cap H_2$	Ask the professional emergency rescue military for emergency rescue with more than 300 soldiers carry/inh specific equipment join in the rescue.
$p_4$	$p_4 \in P_3 \cap H_2$	Ask neighbor cities for their fire police in order to provide support; at the same time, fire police and military must collaborate to deal with the problems.
$p_5$	$p_5 \in P_3 \setminus H_2$	Block the boundary of the explosion areas; let the material in the explosion areas burn down.

Step 2. Gathering information

The criteria importance,  $W_3^h$ , and the assessments,  $X_3^h$ , provided by experts at  $t = 3$  are given in Tables 17 and 18, respectively.

Table 17. Criteria importance  $W_3^h$  provided by experts at  $t = 3$

$W_3^h$	Criteria				
	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$	$c_5$
$W_3^1$	HI	MI	LI	HI	MI
$W_3^2$	VHI	HI	LI	HI	MI
$W_3^3$	VHI	LI	VLI	MI	VLI
$W_3^4$	HI	MI	LI	MI	VLI

Table 18. Assessments  $X_3^h$  provided by experts at  $t = 3$

$X_3^h$		Criteria				
		$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$	$c_5$
$X_3^1$	$x_{1j}^1$	[80,90]	M	[0.3,0.4]	L	[30,50]
	$x_{2j}^1$	[50,70]	M	[0.25,0.35]	M	[40,60]
	$x_{3j}^1$	[90,120]	bt M and HS	[0.35,0.45]	H	[70,80]
	$x_{4j}^1$	[70,100]	VHS	[0.4,0.5]	VH	[25,45]
$X_3^2$	$x_{1j}^2$	[60,80]	LS	[0.15,0.25]	VL	[50,60]
	$x_{2j}^2$	[70,90]	LS	[0.3,0.4]	L	[40,55]
	$x_{3j}^2$	[90,110]	At most M	[0.4,0.5]	M	[60,80]
	$x_{4j}^2$	[50,70]	HS	[0.25,0.4]	VH	[35,50]
$X_3^3$	$x_{1j}^3$	[40,50]	VLS	[0.2,0.25]	L	[40,60]
	$x_{2j}^3$	[60,75]	M	[0.15,0.2]	L	[30,50]
	$x_{3j}^3$	[80,100]	M	[0.4,0.45]	H	[70,90]
	$x_{4j}^3$	[30,45]	VHS	[0.1,0.25]	VH	[25,45]
$X_3^4$	$x_{1j}^4$	[45,65]	LS	[0.35,0.4]	VL	[35,55]
	$x_{2j}^4$	[40,60]	bt LS and M	[0.5,0.55]	L	[30,45]
	$x_{3j}^4$	[70,80]	M	[0.6,0.7]	M	[60,75]
	$x_{4j}^4$	[30,50]	HS	[0.3,0.5]	H	[30,35]

Step 4. Aggregation process

To save space, similar to  $t = 2$ , only the aggregated results,  $X_3$  and  $\bar{W}_3$ , at  $t = 3$  are given in Table 19.

Step 5. Computing static rating

Based on 11 alpha-levels, the fuzzy RC,  $\widetilde{RC}_i^3$ ; static rating,  $m(\widetilde{RC}_i^3)$ ; and static ranking of alternatives are given in Table 20 according to Eqs. (29)–(32), and the fuzzy RC of alternatives is graphically shown in Fig. 8.

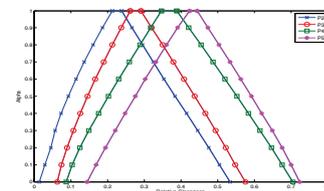


Fig. 8. The fuzzy relative closeness of  $p_i$  at  $t = 3$



Table 19. Aggregated results  $X_3$  and  $\bar{W}_3$  at  $t = 3$

Aggregated results	Criteria	Criteria				
		$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$	$c_5$
$X_3$	$x_{2j}$	(0.040,0.056,0.071,0.090)	(0.0,333,0.333,0.670)	(0.015,0.025,0.033,0.040)	(0.0,250,0.250,0.500)	(0.300,0.388,0.563,0.600)
	$x_{3j}$	(0.040,0.055,0.074,0.090)	(0.170,0.418,0.458,0.670)	(0.015,0.030,0.038,0.055)	(0.170,0.373,0.373,0.670)	(0.300,0.350,0.525,0.600)
	$x_{4j}$	(0.070,0.083,0.103,0.120)	(0.0,375,0.508,0.840)	(0.035,0.044,0.053,0.070)	(0.330,0.585,0.585,0.830)	(0.600,0.650,0.813,0.900)
	$x_{5j}$	(0.030,0.045,0.066,0.100)	(0.500,0.750,0.750,1)	(0.010,0.026,0.041,0.050)	(0.500,0.790,0.833,1)	(0.250,0.288,0.438,0.500)
$\bar{W}_3$	$\bar{w}_{c_j}$	(0.500,0.750,0.750,1)	(0.170,0.500,0.500,0.830)	(0.0,290,0.290,0.500)	(0.330,0.585,0.585,0.830)	(0.0,335,0.335,0.670)

Table 20. Alpha-level sets of the fuzzy relative closenesses of the four alternatives at  $t = 3$

Alpha	Alternatives			
	$p_2$	$p_3$	$p_4$	$p_5$
0	[0.015,0.534]	[0.063,0.575]	[0.088,0.704]	[0.145,0.723]
0.1	[0.030,0.505]	[0.075,0.548]	[0.104,0.675]	[0.169,0.700]
0.2	[0.046,0.475]	[0.090,0.522]	[0.125,0.646]	[0.194,0.675]
0.3	[0.058,0.445]	[0.107,0.494]	[0.149,0.615]	[0.221,0.648]
0.4	[0.074,0.415]	[0.126,0.466]	[0.176,0.584]	[0.248,0.620]
0.5	[0.093,0.384]	[0.146,0.437]	[0.203,0.552]	[0.276,0.592]
0.6	[0.114,0.354]	[0.167,0.408]	[0.231,0.520]	[0.303,0.562]
0.7	[0.137,0.324]	[0.190,0.379]	[0.260,0.487]	[0.331,0.533]
0.8	[0.161,0.295]	[0.213,0.350]	[0.288,0.454]	[0.361,0.503]
0.9	[0.186,0.267]	[0.237,0.320]	[0.317,0.421]	[0.391,0.473]
1	[0.213,0.239]	[0.262,0.291]	[0.347,0.388]	[0.423,0.444]
Static rating $m(RC_i^3)$	0.244	0.294	0.379	0.433
Static ranking	4	3	2	1
Dynamic rating $E_3(p_i)$	0.593	0.617	<b>0.670</b>	0.433
Dynamic ranking	3	2	<b>1</b>	4

Step 6. Computing dynamic rating

Similar to  $t = 2$ , the dynamic rating,  $E_3(p_i)$ , and the dynamic ranking of alternatives at  $t = 3$  are given in Table 20 from rows 16 to 17, respectively. Again, dynamic and static rankings are different. Therefore, based on the dynamic ranking of the four alternatives in Table 20,  $p_4$  is the best one with the highest dynamic rating among  $P_3 = \{p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5\}$  at  $t = 3$  to cope with the explosion.

It can be seen that the best alternative,  $p_4$ , at  $t = 3$ , is consistent with the best one at  $t = 2$ . This interesting phenomenon can be explained by the fact that the dynamic rating here consists of not only each alternative's performance at current stage, but also at previous stage.

To save space, only three different decision moments have been conducted in this case study. In real world problems, the proposed dynamic MAGEDM method can be applied for more than three decision moments until the problems are solved.

4.2. Comparison with other approaches

To further demonstrate the feasibility and validity of the proposed dynamic MAGEDM method, a comparison with the approach introduced by Cam-

panella et al. <sup>4</sup> is carried out, along with their discussions.

1) A brief summary of current dynamic EDM methods is provided to highlight the advantages of our proposal.

2) A current dynamic MADM approach <sup>4</sup> is utilized for the comparison with our proposed method.

4.2.1. Comparison with current dynamic EDM methods

Due to the fact that there is no any existing MAGEDM approach to deal with dynamic evolution of EEs considering updated information (alternative, criteria and experts) and experts' hesitation, some characteristics have been studied to highlight the advantages of our proposal in comparison with other approaches <sup>13,29,31,40</sup> (see Table 21).

Table 21. Comparison with current dynamic EDM methods

Literature	Type of decision	Perspective of dynamic	Hesitant information
Refs. 13,29	Individual DM	Time changes and executive effect of alternative, without updated information (alternative, criteria)	No
Refs. 31	Individual DM	Time changes and dynamic reference points, without updated information (alternative, criteria)	No
Refs. 40	Group decision	Time changes and similarity between predicated scenario and historical scenario, without updated information (alternative, criteria, expert)	No
Our proposal	Group decision	Time changes with updated information (alternative, criteria, experts)	Yes

According to Table 21, we can see that current dynamic EDM methods are mainly focused on the perspective of time changes. However, our proposal deals with the dynamic evolution of EEs not only from the perspective of time, but also considering the updated information (alternative, criteria, and experts) along with the time and development of EEs. Therefore, the decision processes are more close to real world situations than the current dynamic EDM methods.



Furthermore, our proposal considers experts' hesitation due to lack of information and time pressure, which is inevitable in EDM problems.

4.2.2. Comparison with a current dynamic MADM method

To make a comparison with the recent dynamic MADM method proposed by Campanella et al. <sup>4</sup>, the aggregated results,  $X_t$  and  $\bar{W}_t$  ( $t = 1, 2, 3$ ), in Tables 7, 13, and 19 are defuzzified into crisp numbers using the equation  $\frac{a+2b+2c+d}{6}$  because it is an easy defuzzification <sup>7</sup> method, wherein a fuzzy number,  $A = (a, b, c, d)$ . The results are shown in Table 22.

Table 22. Defuzzified values of  $X_t$  and  $\bar{W}_t$

Decision moment		Criteria				
		$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$	$c_5$
$t = 1$	$p_1$	0.058	0.268	0.031	-	-
	$p_2$	0.094	0.500	0.046	-	-
	$p_3$	0.042	0.466	0.026	-	-
	weights	0.832	0.624	0.268	-	-
$t = 2$	$p_1$	0.041	0.223	0.027	0.168	-
	$p_2$	0.214	0.277	0.028	0.223	-
	$p_3$	0.048	0.445	0.029	0.332	-
	$p_4$	0.117	0.787	0.065	0.777	-
weights	0.750	0.571	0.332	0.631	-	
$t = 3$	$p_2$	0.064	0.333	0.028	0.250	0.467
	$p_3$	0.065	0.432	0.034	0.388	0.442
	$p_4$	0.093	0.434	0.050	0.583	0.738
	$p_5$	0.059	0.750	0.033	0.791	0.367
weights	0.750	0.500	0.277	0.583	0.335	

- means the criteria unavailable in specific decision moment

As the sum of defuzzified criteria weights in Table 22 at each decision moment is greater than 1, and it must be equal to 1, it is necessary to normalize the weights. The normalized criteria weights at each decision moment are given in Table 23.

Table 23. Normalized criteria weights at each decision moment

Decision moment	Normalized criteria weights				
	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$	$c_4$	$c_5$
$t = 1$	0.483	0.362	0.155	-	-
$t = 2$	0.329	0.250	0.145	0.276	-
$t = 3$	0.307	0.204	0.113	0.239	0.137

- means the criteria unavailable in specific decision moment

Based on Tables 22 and 23, static and dynamic ratings for each alternative at different decision moments are computed with the *weighted mean operator* and *probabilistic sum operator* (e.g., associative) according to the method presented in Ref. 4. The results are given in Table 24.

Table 24. The results obtained by the method in Ref. 4

Decision moment		Alternatives				
		$p_1$	$p_2$	$p_3$	$p_4$	$p_5$
$t = 1$	Static rating	0.130	0.144	0.237	-	-
	Static ranking	3	2	1	-	-
	Dynamic rating	0.130	0.144	<b>0.237</b>	-	-
$t = 2$	Static rating	0.120	0.205	0.223	0.459	-
	Static ranking	4	3	2	1	-
	Dynamic rating	0.234	0.319	0.407	0.459	-
$t = 3$	Static rating	-	0.215	0.265	0.363	0.414
	Static ranking	-	4	3	2	1
	Dynamic rating	-	0.466	0.564	0.655	0.414

- means the alternative unavailable in specific decision moment

For the sake of clarity, an example, the static rating of  $p_1$  at  $t = 1$  in Table 24, can be computed as below:

$$\text{static rating } p_1 = 0.058 \times 0.483 + 0.268 \times 0.362 + 0.031 \times 0.155 = 0.130.$$

The dynamic rating of  $p_1$  at  $t = 2$  can be calculated based on its static rating (0.120) at  $t = 2$ , and its dynamic rating (0.130) at  $t = 1$ , as shown below:

$$\text{dynamic rating } p_1 = (0.120 + 0.130) - 0.120 \times 0.130 = 0.234$$

From Table 24, it can be seen that, although the method in Ref. 4 leads to the same best alternatives at different decision moments ( $t = 2, 3$ ), it is obvious that the values obtained by the method in Ref. 4 are significantly lower than those obtained by our proposed method at each decision moment. This is because our proposal deals with uncertain information, including experts' hesitation. Additionally, the computation process retains as much information as possible. Therefore, the proposed method shows its validity and feasibility through the comparison.

4.2.3. Discussions

To overcome the limitations pointed out in section 1, this paper proposes a dynamic MAGEDM method to deal with the dynamic evolution of EEs and uncertain information including experts' hesitation. A case study and comparisons with current approaches have been conducted to demonstrate the novelty and validity of the proposed dynamic MAGEDM method.

Compared to existing MAGEDM approaches <sup>11,16,30,35,36,37,38</sup>, the advantages of the proposed dynamic MAGEDM method are as follows:

- 1) The proposed dynamic MAGEDM method considers the dynamic evolution feature of EEs, which is a crucial factor in real world problems;



it fully takes into account the updated information across the time and the development of EEs. The proposed method is close to the real-world situations and easy to understand. This is the significant difference between our proposal and other versions<sup>13,29</sup>, wherein the alternatives and criteria are fixed without considering the updated information along the time.

2) Hesitancy is a quite normal behavior in human beings daily life particularly in uncertain environment. Experts involved in MAGEDM problems featured by lack of information and time pressure might hesitate among several values when they provide their opinions, however, such a practical issue is neglected in existing MAGEDM approaches<sup>11,16,30,35,36,37,38</sup>. To fill the gap in current MAGEDM approaches, the proposed method has taken into account the experts' hesitation by using complex linguistic expressions based on HFLTS.

3) To keep the uncertain and hesitant information provided by experts as much as possible, a fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets is utilized to obtain the static ratings of alternatives at each decision moment, which can provide much more information for each alternative and is suitable for the problems defined in fuzzy environment.

## 5. Conclusion and future works

Dynamic evolution and uncertain information are the outstanding features of EEs, they are the key factors in the process of dealing with the EEs successfully. Information plays a crucial part in all different types of decision problems no exception for MAGEDM problems. Due to the dynamic evolution of EEs, the information is updating along with the time and the development of EEs. However, the dynamic methods in current EDM approaches are mainly focused on changeable time; they neglect information changes along with the evolution of EEs. The information is usually uncertain in MAGEDM problems—particularly in the early occurrence stage—in such a fuzzy environment that experts might hesitate about their assessments. However, this important issue is not considered in current MAGEDM problems. Thus, this paper proposes a dynamic MAGEDM method that

considers not only the dynamic evolution of EEs, including the updated information (alternatives, criteria, and experts), but also the experts' hesitation. A fuzzy TOPSIS method based on alpha-level sets is applied to obtain the static ratings of available alternatives, which deals with fuzzy information across the decision process, and is suitable for the problems defined in fuzzy environments. Comparisons with other approaches and related discussions have been provided to illustrate the novelty and advantages of our proposal.

Future research could investigate use of decision support systems with big data based on computer science and the Internet.

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### 4.3 Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

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Article

## Managing Non-Homogeneous Information and Experts' Psychological Behavior in Group Emergency Decision Making

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**Abstract:** After an emergency event (EE) happens, emergency decision making (EDM) is a common and effective way to deal with the emergency situation, which plays an important role in mitigating its level of harm. In the real world, it is a big challenge for an individual emergency manager (EM) to make a proper and comprehensive decision for coping with an EE. Consequently, many practical EDM problems drive group emergency decision making (GEDM) problems whose main limitations are related to the lack of flexibility in knowledge elicitation, disagreements in the group and the consideration of experts' psychological behavior in the decision process. Hence, this paper proposes a novel GEDM approach that allows more flexibility for preference elicitation under uncertainty, provides a consensus process to avoid disagreements and considers experts' psychological behavior by using the fuzzy TODIM method based on prospect theory. Eventually, a group decision support system (GDSS) is developed to support the whole GEDM process defined in the proposed method demonstrating its novelty, validity and feasibility.

**Keywords:** group emergency decision making; non-homogeneous information; psychological behavior; group decision support system

### 1. Introduction

Emergencies are defined as events that suddenly take place, causing or having the possibility of provoking intense death and injury, property loss, ecological damage and social hazards. In recent years, various emergency events, such as earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, terrorist attacks, etc., have exerted severely negative impacts on human life and socio-economic development. When an emergency event (EE) occurs, Emergency Decision Making (EDM) is typically characterized by at least uncertainty, time pressure, and lack of information, resulting in potentially serious consequences [1]. Since EDM plays a crucial role in alleviating the losses of properties and lives caused by EEs, it has received increasing attention from both government and academia because of the frequent occurrence of EEs, becoming a very active and important research field in recent years [1–5].

When an EE occurs, it is hard to collect the information related to the event and predict its evolution particularly in the early stage because of the inadequate and uncertain information. Consequently, it is too complex for just one emergency manager (EM) to make comprehensive judgments under emergency situations. Therefore, EDM requires multiple experts from diverse professional backgrounds (such as hydrological, geological, meteorological, sociological, demographic, etc.) to help the EM make a decision. This leads to Group EDM (GEDM) problems. Figure 1 shows

### 4.3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

a graphical general scheme for GEDM problems, in which experts play a role of think tank in supporting the EM who is in charge of the EE.

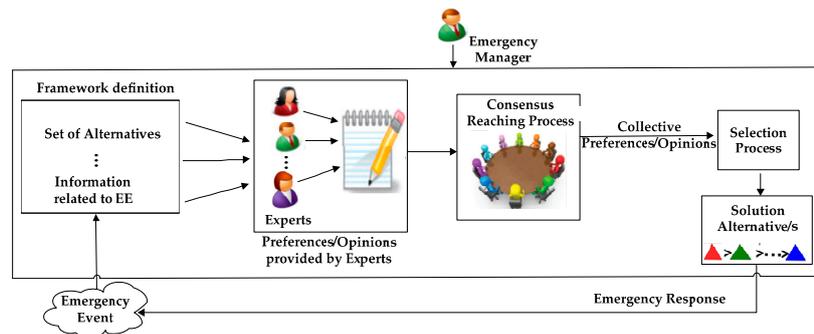


Figure 1. The general scheme of GEDM process.

In the real world, it is common that experts with different background and knowledge might have different attitudes or opinions over different alternatives concerning different criteria. Moreover, criteria defined in a GEDM problem might have different nature, qualitative or quantitative. Therefore, experts might hesitate and express their opinions or assessments by using different types of information according to their knowledge and criteria nature. The complexity of GEDM problems could imply not only the use of a non-homogeneous context in which multiple information types can be utilized by experts to elicit their knowledge and expertise, but also the modeling of uncertain assessments including hesitancy. However, current EDM approaches deal with the information using only one expression domain: numerical values [4], interval values [3] or linguistic information [6].

Traditionally, group decision making (GDM) approaches have shown that a solution can be obtained under disagreement among experts [7,8], however several experts may not accept the decision made because they might consider that their individual opinions have not been taken into account sufficiently [9,10]. Such a situation could be very serious in GEDM driving either to deadlock in the decision or in a harmful decision. Hence, it seems necessary and reasonable to achieve a consensus among all experts involved in the GEDM problem before making the decision. The Consensus Reaching Process (CRP) is a way to integrate group wisdom into one and then reach an agreement among all experts in the GEDM problem. There are already different approaches [1,4,11] focused on how to reach as much agreement as possible among all experts participating in the problem. However, they have strict expression domains [1,11]; or time cost [4,5]. However, time is extremely valuable, because it means lives and chances, thus emergency responses cannot afford a time-consuming consensus model.

Different behavioral experiments [12–14] show that human beings are usually bounded rationally in decision-making processes under risk and uncertainty. Therefore, psychological behavior plays a crucial role in the decision processes. Nevertheless, as far as we know, experts' psychological behavior is neglected in current GEDM [1,4,5,11,15] approaches.

According to the previous limitations presented in current GEDM methods, the aim of this paper is to propose a new GEDM method that overcomes them. Such a method is able:

1. To allow more flexibility for eliciting information by dealing with non-homogeneous information including hesitancy.
2. To include a consensus model with low time cost to achieve an agreement among experts involved in the GEDM problem.
3. To take into account experts' psychological behavior by means of the fuzzy TODIM method [16–18] based on prospect theory [14].

Furthermore, the proposed method is implemented into a Group Decision Support System (GDSS) named GENESIS (Group EmergEncy dEcision SupportIng System) based on FLINTSTONES (Fuzzy LINGuisTic DeciSion Tools eNhacemEnt Suite) [19,20] that supports the whole GEDM process effectively and in a timely way, as shown in an illustrative example.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 revises briefly different concepts about non-homogeneous information, CRPs and the fuzzy TODIM, which will be used in our proposal together with some related works. Section 3 presents the new GEDM method that integrates the novelties pointed out previously. Section 4 introduces the structure and components of the GDSS, GENESIS, and shows an example to illustrate the feasibility and validity of the proposed method. A sensitive analysis is also presented to study the robustness of the proposal. Section 5 presents some conclusions and future works.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section, some basic concepts about non-homogeneous information and CRPs are revised in short in order that readers can understand easily the proposed GEDM model. It also reviews the fuzzy TODIM method that is used in the selection process of the proposal to obtain the ranking of alternatives considering experts' psychological behavior. Eventually, some related works to illustrate the importance of this research are reviewed.

### 2.1. Non-Homogeneous Information in Decision Making

Nowadays, real-world decision-making problems are more diversified and complex because of rapid socio-economic development, such as EDM problems [2,3], GEDM problems [1,15], and Intelligent GEDM problems [11]. Those problems are usually defined under uncertainty because of inadequate and uncertain information. The complexity of these problems implies multiple experts with different backgrounds and knowledge participating in the decision process.

To model the uncertainty and non-homogeneous information, such as numerical values, interval values and linguistic terms elicited by experts, several approaches have been discussed in current GDM approaches. Some of them [21–25] make the computations using directly the non-homogeneous information [26] and others unify the information into one domain [24,27], being the most common one the linguistic information. Recently, the inclusion of hesitancy is becoming more important [28,29].

The concept of hesitant fuzzy linguistic term sets (HFLTS) [30] has been introduced to model experts' hesitation in qualitative settings and it has been applied in decision making problems obtaining successful results. It is defined as follows.

**Definition 1** [30]. Let  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  be a linguistic term set, a HFLTS  $H_S$ , is defined as an ordered finite subset of consecutive linguistic terms of  $S$ :

$$H_S = \{s_i, s_{i+1}, \dots, s_j\}, s_k \in S, k \in \{i, \dots, j\}$$

Nevertheless, when experts provide their opinions and they feel hesitation among several linguistic terms, they do not use multiple linguistic terms, but linguistic expressions close to the natural language used by human beings. Hence, Rodríguez et al. [30] proposed the use of context-free grammars  $G_H$  to build complex linguistic expressions more flexible and richer than single linguistic terms [29,30]. The expressions produced by the context-free grammar  $G_H$ , may be either a single linguistic term  $s_i \in S$ , or comparative linguistic expressions  $S_{ij}$  (see [29,30] for further detail).

In our proposal, the non-homogeneous information including experts' hesitancy will be transformed into a unified fuzzy domain to facilitate the computations (see Section 3.3).

2.2. Consensus Reaching Processes

GDM problems are usually solved by a selection process that obtains the best alternative as a solution to the problem. However, sometimes the goal of the problem is not to obtain the best solution, but an accepted one for all involved experts in the problem. In such a situation, it seems necessary to apply a CRP. Consensus can be defined as [9] “a state of mutual agreement among members of a group in which the decision made satisfies all of them”. Therefore, a consensus process requires that experts modify their opinions making them closer to each other and this way to obtain a collective opinion that is satisfactory for all of them [10,31–34].

In GEDM process, experts play a role of think tank in supporting EM to make a decision, recently several proposals [1,4,5,11,15,34] integrate CRP into GEDM to deal with experts' opinions in order to achieve an agreement among all experts involved and make a right decision. However, these approaches deal just with numerical values [1,5,25] and are not suitable for other types of information, additionally, they have a high time cost [4,5] because of the supervised feedback mechanism that should be avoided in GEDM problems.

Due to these reasons and the type of information used in our proposal, a fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model [34] with low time cost will be utilized to achieve consensus in our proposal. Before introducing the fuzzy linear programming model, it is necessary to revise the definition of the distance between fuzzy numbers, which will be used.

**Definition 2** [34]. Let  $A = (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4)$  and  $B = (b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4)$  be two trapezoidal fuzzy numbers. The distance between  $A$  and  $B$  can be obtained as follows, the measure of  $d_p$  can also be called as  $l_p$  metric:

$$d_p(A, B) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^4 (|a_i - b_i|)^p \right)^{1/p} \tag{1}$$

where  $p$  is an integer  $\geq 1$ . Let  $U$  be the universe of discourse and  $u = \max(U) - \min(U)$ . The similarity between  $A$  and  $B$  can be defined as [34,35]:

$$S_p(A, B) = 1 - \frac{1}{4u^p} (d_p(A, B))^p \tag{2}$$

The dissimilarity is defined as  $c - S_p(A, B)$ , where  $c$  is a constant  $>1$ . The selection of  $c$  will influence in the final result of the aggregation.

Let  $\tilde{A}_h = (a_{h1}, a_{h2}, a_{h3}, a_{h4})$  be the  $h$ -th expert's individual opinion and  $\tilde{O}$  be the overall opinion obtained by aggregating experts' individual opinions.

The fuzzy linear programming model is [34]:

$$\begin{cases} \min \sum_{h=1}^{\bar{K}} (w^h)^\alpha (c - S_p(\tilde{A}_h, \tilde{O})) \\ \text{s.t. } d_p(\tilde{A}_h, \tilde{O}) \leq \varepsilon_h, h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K} \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

where  $\alpha$  is an integer  $\geq 1$ ,  $w^h$  denotes the  $h$ -th experts' importance.  $\varepsilon_h$  denotes a threshold that means the maximum change that the  $h$ -th expert can make.  $d_p(\tilde{A}_h, \tilde{O})$  denotes the distance between  $\tilde{A}_h$  and  $\tilde{O}$ , which can be obtained according to Equation (1).

2.3. Fuzzy TODIM Method

Some studies [12–14] have shown that human beings are bounded rationally especially in risk and uncertain decision processes and their psychological behavior is very important in the decision process. Therefore, it seems necessary to consider experts' psychological behavior in GEDM problem.

TODIM method was proposed by Gomes and Lima [36,37]; it is a popular multi-criteria decision making (MCDM) method based on prospect theory [13] considering humans psychological behavior. It has been widely applied to solve different decision problems [38,39]. To cope with complex problems and uncertain information in the real world, the TODIM method has been extended to deal with fuzzy MCDM problems [16,17].

In our proposal, we will use fuzzy TODIM method [16–18] based on prospect theory [14] because of its advantage and capability of capturing the experts' psychological behavior under fuzzy environment.

The fuzzy TODIM was introduced in [18] and briefly summarized below:

Let  $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m\}$  be a set of alternatives,  $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n\}$  be a set of criteria and  $w_c = (w_{c_1}, w_{c_2}, \dots, w_{c_n})$  be a weighting vector for criteria, where  $w_{c_j}$  denotes the weight of criterion  $c_j$ . Let  $A = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$  be a fuzzy decision matrix, where  $a_{ij} = (a_{ij}^1, a_{ij}^2, a_{ij}^3, a_{ij}^4)$  denotes the rating of the alternative  $p_i$  with respect to criterion  $c_j$ .

Step 1: To normalize the fuzzy decision matrix  $A = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$  into the correspondent normalized fuzzy decision matrix  $G = (g_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , according to the cost and benefit criteria.

Step 2: To determine the reference criterion  $c_r$  and calculate the relative weight  $w_{jr}$  of criterion  $c_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ), i.e.,

$$w_{jr} = w_{c_j} / w_r \quad (4)$$

where  $w_r = \max\{w_{c_j} | j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

Step 3: To calculate the dominance degree,  $\Phi_j(p_i, p_k)$ , of alternative  $p_i$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) over the remaining alternatives  $p_k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) concerning criterion  $c_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ), i.e.,

$$\Phi_j(p_i, p_k) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{w_{jr} / (\sum_{j=1}^n w_{jr})} d(g_{ij}, g_{kj}), \mathbb{F}(g_{ij}) - \mathbb{F}(g_{kj}) \geq 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\theta} \sqrt{(\sum_{j=1}^n w_{jr}) / w_{jr}} d(g_{ij}, g_{kj}), \mathbb{F}(g_{ij}) - \mathbb{F}(g_{kj}) < 0 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where  $\theta$  is the attenuation factor of the losses,  $\theta > 0$ .  $d(g_{ij}, g_{kj})$  denotes the distance between two fuzzy numbers  $g_{ij}$  and  $g_{kj}$  and  $\mathbb{F}(\ast)$  is a defuzzification function [18].

Step 4: To calculate the dominance degree,  $\delta(p_i, p_k)$ , of alternative  $p_i$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) over the remaining alternatives  $p_k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ), i.e.,

$$\delta(p_i, p_k) = \sum_{j=1}^n \Phi_j(p_i, p_k) \quad (6)$$

Step 5: To calculate the overall dominance degree,  $\eta(p_i)$ , of alternative  $p_i$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ), i.e.,

$$\eta(p_i) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(p_i, p_k) - \min_i \{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(p_i, p_k)\}}{\max_i \{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(p_i, p_k)\} - \min_i \{\sum_{k=1}^m \delta(p_i, p_k)\}} \quad (7)$$

Step 6: According to the overall dominance degrees of each alternative, the corresponding ranking can be determined such that the bigger  $\eta(p_i)$ , the better alternative  $p_i$ .

#### 2.4. Related Works

In order to show the importance of GEDM in the real world, this subsection reviews several important studies in the literature that are related to our research [1,4–6,40].

These studies have approached GEDM problems from different aspects. For example, Wang et al. [40] proposed a group emergency decision method based on prospect theory by using interval values. Xu et al. [4] proposed a consensus model for multi-criteria large group emergency decision making considering non-cooperative behaviors and minority opinions, wherein numerical

value is employed to represent experts' assessments. Ju et al. [6] presented a model to evaluate emergency response capacity by using 2-tuple fuzzy linguistic information. Xu et al. [5] proposed a conflict-eliminating approach for GEDM problem. Levy and Taji [1] utilized a group analytic network process to construct a group decision support system to support hazard planning and emergency management under incomplete information.

So far, there is not any proposal in previous GEDM approaches [1,4,5,11,40] that considers the non-homogeneous information together with the experts' hesitation due to uncertain information. In addition, those GEDM approaches [1,4,5,11] dealing with the consensus process; just make use of it with strict expression domains or high time cost. However, time is extremely valuable in EDM process, which means life and opportunity. Furthermore, experts' psychological behavior is neglected in current GEDM approaches [1,4,5] that plays an important role in the GEDM process under risk and uncertainty.

As pointed out in Introduction, our proposed method aims to overcome such limitations and shows the relevance of this research.

### 3. Managing Non-Homogeneous Information and Experts' Psychological Behavior in GEDM

This section introduces a new GEDM method to overcome the limitations pointed out in the Introduction regarding the current GEDM methods. This proposal is able: (i) to manage non-homogeneous information, including hesitant information (ii) to achieve consensus with low time cost, (iii) to take into account the experts' psychological behavior in the GEDM process.

Our proposal extends the general scheme of a GEDM process shown in Figure 1 by adding two new phases to deal with non-homogeneous information and calculate the criteria weights, and modifying another two phases (CRP and selection process), they are highlighted in Figure 2 by using dashed lines.

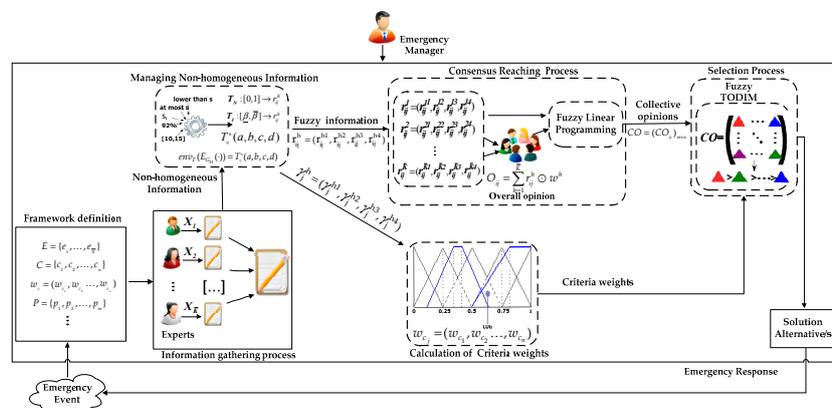


Figure 2. Scheme of proposed GEDM method.

It consists of six main phases:

1. Definition framework. The main features, terminology and expression domains utilized in the proposed GEDM problem are defined.
2. Information gathering process. Opinions or assessments over different alternatives concerning different criteria and importance of criteria provided by experts using multiple types of information are gathered.

3. Managing non-homogeneous information. The non-homogeneous information gathered is unified into a fuzzy domain to deal with the decision computations.
4. Consensus reaching process. A fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model [34] is utilized to deal with fuzzy information and achieve an agreement among all the experts involved in the GEDM problem.
5. Calculation of criteria weights. Criteria weights are calculated by using experts' opinions.
6. Selection process-fuzzy TODIM method. Fuzzy TODIM method is applied to manage experts' psychological behavior in GEDM processes and obtain the ranking of alternatives.

According to the ranking of alternatives, the EM can select the best or more suitable alternative to cope with the EE. These phases are further detailed in the following subsections.

### 3.1. Definition Framework

The framework for GEDM problem is established by defining its main features and terminology.

- $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m\}$ : the set of emergency alternatives, where  $p_i$  is the  $i$ -th emergency alternative,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .
- $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n\}$ : the set of criteria/attributes, where  $c_j$  denotes the  $j$ -th criterion/attribute,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .
- $w_c = (w_{c_1}, w_{c_2}, \dots, w_{c_n})$ : the weighting vector for the criteria, where  $w_{c_j}$  denotes the criterion weight of the  $j$ -th criterion/attribute, satisfying  $\sum_{j=1}^n w_{c_j} = 1, w_{c_j} \in [0, 1] j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .
- $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_{\bar{K}}\}$ : the set of experts, where  $e_h$  denotes the  $h$ -th expert,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}$ .
- $X_h = (x_{ij}^h)_{m \times n}$ : the information matrix provided by the  $h$ -th expert, where  $x_{ij}^h$  represents the assessments/opinions provided by the  $h$ -th expert over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}, i = 1, 2, \dots, m, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$  (see Remark 1).
- $w_h = (w_1^h, w_2^h, \dots, w_n^h)$ : the assessment vector of criteria importance provided by the expert  $e_h$ , where  $w_j^h$  represents the importance provided by the  $h$ -th expert on the importance of criterion  $c_j$ ,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$  (see Remark 2).
- $r_{ij}^h$ : denotes the experts' assessments,  $x_{ij}^h$ , unified in a fuzzy domain,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}, i = 1, 2, \dots, m, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .
- $\gamma_j^h$ : denotes the experts' opinions regarding the criteria importance,  $w_j^h$ , unified in a fuzzy domain,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

**Remark 1.** In our method, experts can provide their opinions/assessments by utilizing multiple expression domains (numerical values (N), interval values (I), linguistic terms (S) and comparative linguistic expressions ( $S_{II}$ )) according to their background, degree of knowledge, hesitancy and criteria nature.

$$x_{ij}^h \in \begin{cases} N \in \mathbb{R} \\ I \in [\xi^L, \xi^U] \\ S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\} \\ S_{II} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

**Remark 2.** In GEDM problems, the criteria need to be weighted. However, due to the complexity of EEs, it is not easy to collect the related information about the criteria, especially at the early stage of EE. In such situation, a possible way is to calculate the criteria weights from experts' knowledge and experience. In this proposal, experts can express their opinions about the criteria importance by utilizing either  $S_{II}$  or  $S$ , because  $S_{II}$  and  $S$  are

### 4.3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

more flexible and similar to the natural language utilized by human beings in real-world EE situations, and they are suitable for GEDM problems defined in uncertain contexts.

$$w_j^h \in \begin{cases} S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\} \\ S_{ll} \end{cases} \tag{9}$$

#### 3.2. Information Gathering Process

Once the framework of GEDM problem is defined, experts can provide their judgments over the emergency alternatives  $p_i$  concerning each criterion  $c_j$  and the importance over different criteria (see Tables 1 and 2) by using the expression domains defined previously.

**Table 1.** Assessments over alternative  $p_i$  concerning criterion  $c_j$ .

Experts	Assessments
$e_1$	$\{x_{ij}^1, \dots, x_{im}^1\}$
$e_2$	$\{x_{ij}^2, \dots, x_{im}^2\}$
...	...
$e_{\bar{K}}$	$\{x_{ij}^{\bar{K}}, \dots, x_{im}^{\bar{K}}\}$

**Table 2.** Importance over criteria  $c_j$ .

Experts	Assessments
$e_1$	$\{w_1^1, \dots, w_n^1\}$
$e_2$	$\{w_1^2, \dots, w_n^2\}$
...	...
$e_{\bar{K}}$	$\{w_1^{\bar{K}}, \dots, w_n^{\bar{K}}\}$

For example, the information on alternatives with respect to criteria provided by expert  $e_1$  can be expressed as:

$$X_1 = \begin{matrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ \vdots \\ p_m \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_n \\ x_{11}^1 & x_{12}^1 & \dots & x_{1n}^1 \\ x_{21}^1 & x_{22}^1 & \dots & x_{2n}^1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ x_{m1}^1 & x_{m2}^1 & \dots & x_{mn}^1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $x_{ij}^1 \in \begin{cases} N \in R \\ I \in [\zeta^L, \zeta^{UL}] \\ S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\} \\ S_{ll} \end{cases}, i = 1, 2, \dots, m, j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$

The information on the importance of criterion  $c_j$  provided by expert  $e_1$  can be expressed as:

$$w_1 = \begin{matrix} c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_n \\ [w_1^1 & w_2^1 & \dots & w_n^1] \end{matrix}$$

where  $w_j^1 \in \begin{cases} S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\} \\ S_{ll} \end{cases}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$

3.3. Managing Non-Homogeneous Information

As it was stated in Section 2.1, our proposal deals with non-homogeneous information including hesitant information. Therefore, the expression domains used by experts to provide their assessments in this proposal are the following ones:

- *Numerical value.* Assessments represented as numerical values  $N$  belonging to a specific numerical scale  $R$ , i.e.,  $N \in R$ .
- *Interval value.* Assessments represented as interval values  $I$ , belonging to a specific domain  $[\xi^L, \xi^U]$ , i.e.,  $I \in [\xi^L, \xi^U]$ .
- *Linguistic terms.* Assessments represented as linguistic terms  $s_k \in S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$ ,  $k \in \{0, \dots, g\}$ , with granularity  $g + 1$ .
- *Comparative linguistic expressions.* Assessments represented as comparative linguistic expressions  $S_{II}$  generated by a context-free grammar  $G_H$  [29,30].

In order to make computations with non-homogeneous information elicited by experts, it is necessary to conduct the different types of information into a unique expression domain. Most approaches unify the non-homogeneous information into linguistic information [23,24]. Nevertheless, in order to keep the uncertainty provided by experts involved in a GEDM problem, we unify the information into a fuzzy domain  $r_{ij}^h$ , by introducing some transformation functions (see Figure 3).

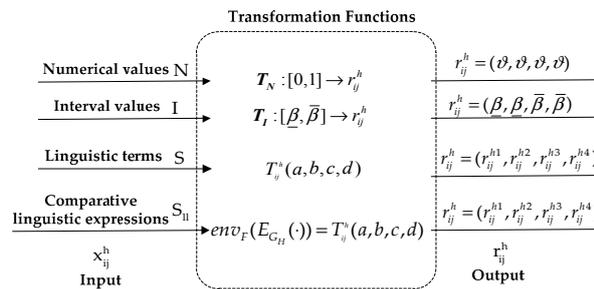


Figure 3. Unification process for non-homogeneous information.

The following transformation functions are defined to unify the information into a fuzzy domain.

1. For numerical values  $N$ , they are first normalized into the interval  $[0, 1]$  and then a transformation function  $T_N$  is utilized to transform them into trapezoidal fuzzy numbers. Let  $R$  be the domain of the numerical values,  $N_{ij}^h$  be the numerical value provided by the  $h$ -th expert over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion,  $N_{ij}^h$  is normalized into the interval  $[0, 1]$ , as follows:

$$\vartheta = \frac{N_{ij}^h}{N^*}$$

where  $\vartheta \in [0, 1]$ ,  $N^* = \max_{h=1,2,\dots,K} \{N_{ij}^h\}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

**Definition 3.** A numerical value is transformed into a trapezoidal fuzzy number by utilizing a transformation function  $T_N$ :

$$T_N : [0, 1] \rightarrow r_{ij}^h \tag{10}$$

$$T_N(\vartheta) = r_{ij}^h = (\vartheta, \vartheta, \vartheta, \vartheta)$$

- The interval values  $I$  are first normalized into  $[0, 1]$  and then a transformation function  $T_I$  is utilized to transform them into trapezoidal fuzzy numbers. Let  $[\zeta^L, \zeta^U]$  be the domain of the interval values, let  $[d^L, d^U]_{ij}^h$  be the interval values provided by the  $h$ -th expert over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion, where  $[d^L, d^U]_{ij}^h \in [\zeta^L, \zeta^U]$ . The interval values  $[d^L, d^U]_{ij}^h$  are normalized into  $[\underline{\beta}, \bar{\beta}]$  as follows:

$$\underline{\beta} = \frac{d^L - \zeta^L}{\zeta^U - \zeta^L} \text{ and } \bar{\beta} = \frac{d^U - \zeta^L}{\zeta^U - \zeta^L} \tag{11}$$

The transformation function  $T_I$  is defined as follows.

**Definition 4.** An interval value is transformed into a trapezoidal fuzzy number by utilizing a transformation function  $T_I$ :

$$T_I : [\underline{\beta}, \bar{\beta}] \rightarrow r_{ij}^h \tag{12}$$

$$T_I(\underline{\beta}, \bar{\beta}) = r_{ij}^h = (\underline{\beta}, \underline{\beta}, \bar{\beta}, \bar{\beta})$$

where  $\underline{\beta}, \bar{\beta} \in [0, 1]$  and  $\underline{\beta} \leq \bar{\beta}$ .

- The linguistic terms  $s_k \in S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$ , are represented by trapezoidal fuzzy numbers. Therefore, the expert  $e_h$  provides his/her opinions over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion as a linguistic term  $s_k$  that is represented by a trapezoidal fuzzy number  $r_{ij}^h = (r_{ij}^{h1}, r_{ij}^{h2}, r_{ij}^{h3}, r_{ij}^{h4})$ .
- The comparative linguistic expressions,  $x_{ij}^h \in S_{\Pi}$ , are transformed into HFLTS by  $E_{G_H}(\cdot)$  and its fuzzy envelop  $env_F(\cdot)$  obtained by [41],

$$env_F(E_{G_H}(x_{ij}^h)) = T_{ij}^h(a, b, c, d) = r_{ij}^h \tag{13}$$

$E_{G_H}$  is a function that transforms the linguistic expressions obtained by using  $G_H$ , into HFLTS [30].  $T_{ij}^h(a, b, c, d)$  is a trapezoidal fuzzy membership function corresponding to the trapezoidal fuzzy number  $r_{ij}^h = (r_{ij}^{h1}, r_{ij}^{h2}, r_{ij}^{h3}, r_{ij}^{h4})$ .

### 3.4. Consensus Reaching Process

As stated in Section 2.2, a fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model [34] is used in our proposal to achieve an agreement among all the experts involved in the problem. This model is able to deal with fuzzy information and update experts' opinions automatically without a supervised feedback mechanism [33], which is adequate for GEDM problems defined in fuzzy environment (see Figure 4).

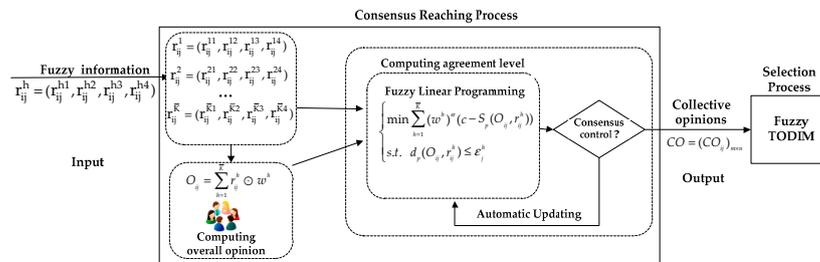


Figure 4. The process of fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model.

The fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model is given by,

$$\begin{cases} \min \sum_{h=1}^{\bar{K}} (w^h)^\alpha (c - S_p(O_{ij}, r_{ij}^h)) \\ \text{s.t. } d_p(O_{ij}, r_{ij}^h) \leq \epsilon_j^h, h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}; j = 1, 2, \dots, n, i = 1, 2, \dots, m. \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

According to Figure 4, the input information is represented in a fuzzy domain, which is obtained from the previous phase. It consists of three steps that are further detailed as follows:

1. *Computing overall opinion.* As introduced in Section 2.2, before applying fuzzy linear programming model, the overall opinions,  $O_{ij}$ , are obtained by aggregating the individual expert opinions,  $r_{ij}^h$ . Let  $O_{ij}$  be the overall opinion over the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion. It can be obtained as follows:

$$O_{ij} = \sum_{h=1}^{\bar{K}} r_{ij}^h \odot w^h, h = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n, i = 1, 2, \dots, m. \quad (15)$$

where  $\odot$  is an aggregation operator. For example, suppose that  $r_{12}^1 = (0.17, 0.34, 0.5, 0.67)$ ,  $r_{12}^2 = (0, 0.17, 0.34, 0.5)$  and  $(w^1, w^2) = (0.6, 0.4)$ , then  $O_{12}$  could be computed by a weighted average operator:

$$\begin{aligned} O_{12} &= 0.6 \odot (0.17, 0.34, 0.5, 0.67) + 0.4 \odot (0, 0.17, 0.34, 0.5) \\ &= (0.102, 0.272, 0.436, 0.602) \end{aligned}$$

2. *Computing agreement level.* In this step, there are two processes:
  - (i) *Computing the distance and similarity.* The distance,  $d_p(O_{ij}, r_{ij}^h)$ , between the overall opinion,  $O_{ij}$ , and the individual opinion,  $r_{ij}^h$ , and its similarity,  $S_p(O_{ij}, r_{ij}^h)$ , can be computed according to Equations (1) and (2) respectively.
  - (ii) *Determining the threshold values.* The threshold value,  $\epsilon_j^h$ , is an important factor in the fuzzy linear programming model, which means the maximum change that the expert  $e_h$  can make concerning the  $j$ -th criterion. There are different ways to determine the threshold value  $\epsilon_j^h$  [34,35]. In this paper,  $\epsilon_j^h$  will be calculated by the  $h$ -th experts' familiarity degree concerning the  $j$ -th criterion using a linguistic term set  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_q\}$ , because the linguistic terms are flexible and able to deal with uncertain and vague information. The more familiar the expert is with the criterion, the less change he/she will make. Therefore, a negative operator is applied to the familiarity degree to obtain the threshold, which is defined as follows:

### 4.3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

**Definition 5.** Let  $S = \{s_0, s_1, \dots, s_g\}$  be a linguistic term set, a negative operator:

$$Neg(s_k) = \tilde{s}_q, \text{ such that } q = g - k, k = \{0, \dots, g\}. \tag{16}$$

where  $g + 1$  is the cardinality of  $S$ .

Thus, the  $\epsilon_j^h$  can be computed by using the center of gravity (COG) method [42], i.e.,  $\epsilon_j^h = COG(\tilde{s}_q)$  (see Equation (18)).

3. *Control consensus.* When all constraints meet the conditions in Equation (14), it means that the consensus has been reached, and the final overall opinion,  $O_{ij}$ , is the aggregated collective opinion denoted as  $CO = (CO_{ij})_{m \times n}$ . Which will be used as input in the selection process.

#### 3.5. Calculation of Criteria Weights

In this phase, the weights of criteria,  $w_{c_j}$ , are calculated by utilizing the experts' assessments provided over the criteria importance which were unified into a fuzzy domain. Figure 5 shows the process of computing criteria weights.

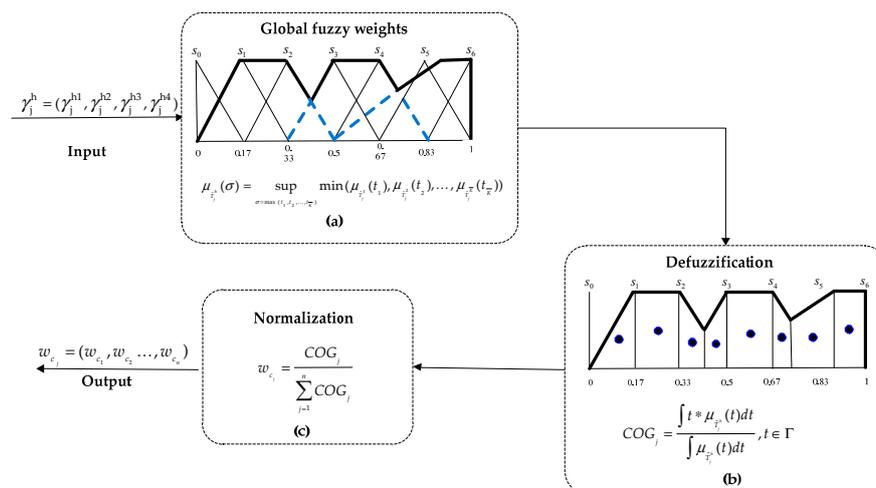


Figure 5. Computing criteria weights.

Three steps are comprised:

1. *Global fuzzy weights.* The fuzzy weights obtained for the criterion  $c_j$  are aggregated by using a max-min composition [43,44]:

$$\mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(\sigma) = \sup_{\sigma = \max(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_K)} \min(\mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(t_1), \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(t_2), \dots, \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(t_K)), t_h \in \Gamma, h \in \{1, 2, \dots, \bar{K}\} \tag{17}$$

where  $\tilde{T}_j^h$  is the fuzzy membership function of  $w_j^h$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , and  $\Gamma$  is the universe of discourse.

Suppose that three experts provide their opinions  $w_1^1, w_1^2$  and  $w_1^3$  concerning the criterion  $c_1$ , the corresponding fuzzy membership functions are  $\tilde{T}_1^1, \tilde{T}_1^2$  and  $\tilde{T}_1^3$  respectively. According to Equation (17),  $\mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(\sigma)$  is the area under the bold black line shown in Figure 5a.

2. *Defuzzification.* The COG method [42] is utilized to calculate the weighting value of the global fuzzy weights:

$$COG_j = \frac{\int t * \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(t) dt}{\int \mu_{\tilde{T}_j^h}(t) dt}, t \in \Gamma \tag{18}$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the universe of discourse.

For criterion  $c_1$ , Equation (18) means that the center of gravity for each small trapezoid (see Figure 5b) is computed and the  $COG_1$  can be obtained by the arithmetic mean of the sum of center of gravity of all small trapezoids.

3. *Normalization.* When  $COG_j$  of all criteria are obtained, the criteria weights  $w_{c_j}$  are calculated by using the following equation:

$$w_{c_j} = \frac{COG_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n COG_j} \tag{19}$$

where  $\sum_{j=1}^n w_{c_j} = 1, w_{c_j} \in [0, 1] j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

3.6. Selection Process—Fuzzy TODIM Method

As it was pointed out in Introduction, the experts' psychological behavior are neglected in current GEDM approaches. However, our proposal takes into account experts' psychological behavior by means of fuzzy TODIM based on prospect theory dealing with the problem defined in a fuzzy environment.

Once the criteria weights  $w_{c_j}$  and the aggregated collective opinions  $CO = (CO_{ij})_{m \times n}$  are obtained, the fuzzy TODIM method is applied to obtain a ranking of alternatives and select the best one. To do so, the fuzzy TODIM method introduced in Section 2.3 is used. The step 1 is not necessary to do it, because the collective opinion matrix  $CO = (CO_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , is already normalized and the step 3 has been modified to adapted it to GEDM problem as it is shown below:

Step 3: To calculate the dominance degree,  $\Phi_j(p_i, p_k)$ , of alternative  $p_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) over the remaining alternatives  $p_k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) concerning criterion  $c_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ), i.e.,

$$\Phi_j(p_i, p_k) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})w_{jr} / (\sum_{r=1}^n w_{jr})}, \tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) \geq 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\theta} \sqrt{d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})(\sum_{r=1}^n w_{jr}) / w_{jr}}, \tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) < 0 \end{cases} \tag{20}$$

$CO_{ij}$  denotes the trapezoidal fuzzy number  $CO_{ij} = (CO_{ij}^1, CO_{ij}^2, CO_{ij}^3, CO_{ij}^4)$  that represents the information about the  $i$ -th alternative concerning the  $j$ -th criterion.  $\tilde{m}(CO_{ij})$  and  $\tilde{m}(CO_{kj})$  denotes the defuzzified value of the fuzzy number  $CO_{ij}$  and  $CO_{kj}$ , respectively, where  $\tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) = \frac{CO_{ij}^1 + 2CO_{ij}^2 + 2CO_{ij}^3 + CO_{ij}^4}{6}$  [42].  $d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})$  denotes the gains or losses of the alternative  $p_i$  over  $p_k$  concerning the criterion  $c_j$ , where  $d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj}) = \sqrt{\sum_{\ell=1}^4 (CO_{ij}^\ell - CO_{kj}^\ell)^2}$  [45].

For benefit criteria,  $d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})$  denotes the gains with  $\tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) \geq 0$  or losses with  $\tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) < 0$ , respectively.  $\Phi_j(p_i, p_k)$  can be expressed as:

$$\Phi_j(p_i, p_k) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})w_{jr} / (\sum_{r=1}^n w_{jr})}, \tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) \geq 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\theta} \sqrt{d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})(\sum_{r=1}^n w_{jr}) / w_{jr}}, \tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) < 0 \end{cases} \tag{21}$$

### 4.3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

For cost criteria,  $d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})$  denotes the gains with  $\tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) \leq 0$  or losses with  $\tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) > 0$ , respectively,  $\Phi_j(p_i, p_k)$  can be expressed as:

$$\Phi_j(p_i, p_k) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})w_{jr} / (\sum_{j=1}^n w_{jr})}, \tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) \leq 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\theta} \sqrt{d(CO_{ij}, CO_{kj})(\sum_{j=1}^n w_{jr}) / w_{jr}}, \tilde{m}(CO_{ij}) - \tilde{m}(CO_{kj}) > 0 \end{cases} \quad (22)$$

Finally, the ranking of alternatives can be determined according to their overall dominance degree.

#### 4. Group Decision Support System for GEDM Based on GENESIS: Case Study

EEs are always characterized by complexity, risk and uncertainty, and a delayed or wrong decision may result in extremely serious consequences. Thus, it is necessary to make a decision in short time, taking into account the opinions of multiple experts involved in the problem.

In order to deal properly with real-world GEDM problems and make timely and effective decisions, we have implemented a GDSS named GENESIS to support the proposed GEDM method. This section introduces the structure and components of GENESIS (see Figure 6); and shows a case study to illustrate the applicability and robustness of the proposed method by using GENESIS.

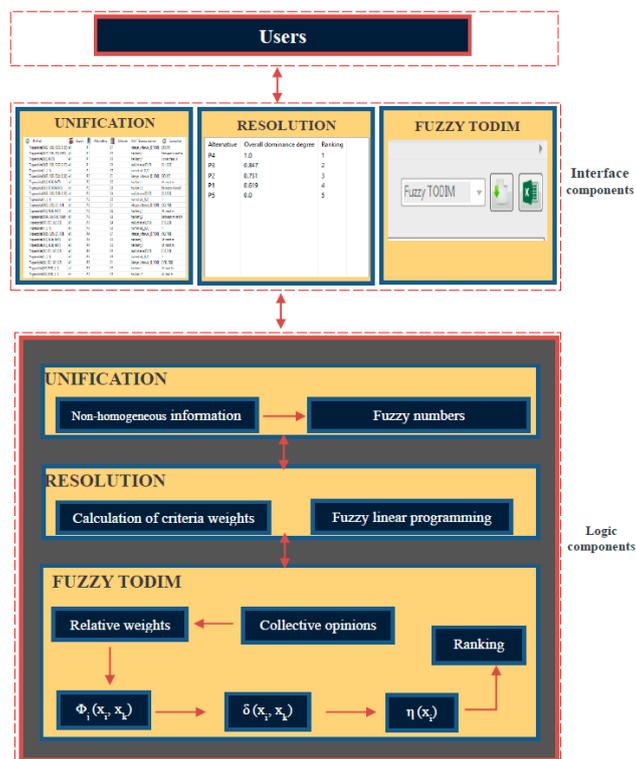


Figure 6. Structure of GENESIS.

#### 4.1. GENESIS: (Group EmergEncy dEcision SupportIng System)

Since our proposal deals with non-homogeneous and fuzzy information, in order to facilitate the transformation of non-homogeneous information and the decision process of the proposed method in a simple and fast manner, GENESIS has been implemented to use different components and specific functions based on FLINTSTONES [19,20] developed by using Eclipse Rich Client Platform (Eclipse RCP), which is a component-based application [46], a platform that builds and deploys rich client applications.

GENESIS consists of six components (see Figure 6):

- (1) Two components taken from FLINTSTONES are adapted to define different transformation functions to unify non-homogeneous information into a fuzzy domain and show its user interface respectively.
- (2) Two new components are defined for the resolution processes and show their interface to compute the criteria weights and obtain the consensus opinion based on fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model.
- (3) Two new components are introduced to carry out the steps defined in the fuzzy TODIM method such as the computation of the relative weights, dominance degree etc., and show its user interface.

#### 4.2. Case Study

In order to demonstrate the applicability of the proposed GEDM method, this section presents an example adapted from a big explosion of Tianjin Port that occurred in the north of China (Background Information Source. <http://www.safehoo.com/Case/Case/Blow/201602/428723.shtml>).

The blasts took place at a warehouse at the port that contained hazardous and flammable chemicals, including calcium carbide, sodium cyanide, potassium nitrate, ammonium nitrate and sodium nitrate, etc.

In this problem, we assume that six experts are invited to participate in the EDM process to support the EM to make the final decision. In order to solve this GEDM problem, we have used the proposed method by means of GENESIS.

##### 4.2.1. Framework Definition

When the explosion occurred, the local government organized people located within two kilometers of the explosion area, evacuated them to safety areas and sent short messages to inform people in potentially dangerous areas to prepare for evacuation and keep distances from the dangerous area. Five emergency alternatives  $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_5\}$  were put forward taking into account five criteria  $\{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_5\}$ , which are described in Tables 3 and 4, respectively.

For the criteria importance, the linguistic term set is  $S_1 = \{\text{absolutely low importance (ali), very low importance (vli), low importance (li), medium importance (mi), high importance (hi), very high importance (vhi), absolutely high importance (ahi)}\}$ . (see Figure 7 “syntax for  $S_1$ ”)

For criteria  $C_2$  and  $C_3$ , the experts provide their opinions using linguistic term sets  $S_2 = \{\text{none (n), very low seriously (vls), low seriously (ls), medium (m), high seriously (hs), very high seriously (vhs), absolutely seriously (as)}\}$  and  $S_3 = \{\text{none (n), very low (vl), low (l), medium (m), high (h), very high (vh), absolutely high (ah)}\}$  (see Figure 7 “syntax for  $C_2$ ” and “syntax for  $C_3$ ”), respectively.

### 4.3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

Table 3. Description of alternatives.

Alternative	Description
Evacuate people ( $p_1$ )	Evacuate and inform people, and at same time, assign 9 fire squadrons and 35 fire engines to deal with the emergency event.
Increase help and report ( $p_2$ )	Increase to 23 fire squadrons, 93 fire engines and more than 600 fire fighters for participating in dealing with the emergency event; at the same time, the local government report the latest news to the masses in order to avoid causing panic and riot.
Rescue military ( $p_3$ )	Local government asks the Chinese professional emergency rescue military for emergency rescue. More than 300 soldiers with professional equipment join the rescue action.
Joint rescue ( $p_4$ )	Fire squadrons and the military work together dealing with the problems, at the same time, local government asks neighbor cities for fire police to provide support.
Block boundary of explosion areas ( $p_5$ )	Block the boundary of the explosion areas; let the material in the explosion areas burn down.

Table 4. Description of criteria.

Criteria	Expression Domain	Description
People affected ( $C_1$ )	Interval values	It means that alternative $p_i$ can protect the number of people from the effects caused by EE in [0,1000].
Negative effect on the environment ( $C_2$ )	Linguistic	It is evaluated by experts on linguistic expressions.
Social impacts ( $C_3$ )	Linguistic	It means the impacts on social development or people's daily life etc. that are evaluated by experts on linguistic expressions.
Property loss ( $C_4$ )	Interval values	It means that the alternative $p_i$ can protect the direct and indirect property losses that are caused by the EE in [0,10]. (in billion RMB).
Cost of alternative ( $C_5$ )	Numerical values	The numerical values are 0 and 1. 0 means that expert $e_h$ does not care about the cost; 1 means that he/she cares about it.

Note: assume that above criteria are independent.

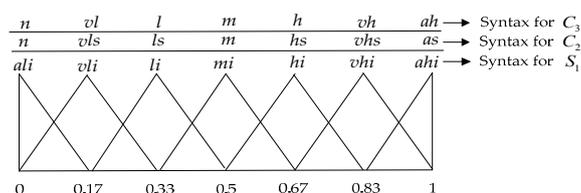


Figure 7. Linguistic term set for  $S_1$ ,  $C_2$  and  $C_3$ .

#### 4.2.2. Information Gathering Process

The assessments provided by experts over the alternatives concerning criteria, and their opinions regarding the criteria importance and the familiarity degree for each criterion are shown in Tables 5–7 respectively. This phase is supported by GENESIS to facilitate the information gathering process (see Figure 8).

Table 5. Assessments provided by all experts on different alternatives concerning each criterion.

Expert	Alternative	Criteria				
		C <sub>1</sub>	C <sub>2</sub>	C <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>4</sub>	C <sub>5</sub>
		Interval Values [0,1000]	Linguistic	Linguistic	Interval Values [0,10]	Numerical Values (0,1)
e <sub>1</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>	[20,25]	ls	l	[0.2,0.3]	1
	P <sub>2</sub>	[30,35]	ls	m	[0.2,0.35]	1
	P <sub>3</sub>	[50,80]	m	h	[0.5,0.8]	1
	P <sub>4</sub>	[100,150]	hs	bt m and h	[1.0,2.0]	1
	P <sub>5</sub>	[60,70]	vhs	vh	[0.1,0.2]	1
e <sub>2</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>	[30,50]	vls	At most vl	[0.25,0.4]	1
	P <sub>2</sub>	[40,50]	vls	vl	[0.3,0.5]	1
	P <sub>3</sub>	[100,150]	ls	m	[0.6,1.5]	1
	P <sub>4</sub>	[150,250]	m	l	[2.0,2.5]	1
	P <sub>5</sub>	[80,100]	hs	vh	[0.1,0.25]	1
e <sub>3</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>	[20,30]	vls	l	[0.1,0.15]	1
	P <sub>2</sub>	[30,60]	ls	l	[0.15,0.25]	1
	P <sub>3</sub>	[60,100]	bt ls and m	h	[0.2,0.3]	1
	P <sub>4</sub>	[200,300]	ls	m	[1.5,2.5]	1
	P <sub>5</sub>	[50,80]	hs	bt h and vh	[0.2,0.25]	1
e <sub>4</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>	[25,40]	vls	vl	[0.2,0.25]	1
	P <sub>2</sub>	[30,45]	vls	At most l	[0.4,0.5]	1
	P <sub>3</sub>	[80,150]	ls	m	[0.6,1.0]	1
	P <sub>4</sub>	[200,250]	bt ls and m	l	[1.5,3.0]	1
	P <sub>5</sub>	[50,70]	vhs	vh	[0.3,0.6]	1
e <sub>5</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>	[20,30]	vls	l	[0.25,0.3]	1
	P <sub>2</sub>	[30,40]	ls	vl	[0.3,0.4]	1
	P <sub>3</sub>	[50,80]	At most m	m	[0.5,1.0]	1
	P <sub>4</sub>	[150,300]	vls	l	[2.0,2.5]	1
	P <sub>5</sub>	[40,70]	bt hs and vhs	vh	[0.35,0.5]	1
e <sub>6</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>	[30,40]	ls	vl	[0.2,0.3]	1
	P <sub>2</sub>	[20,50]	vls	vl	[0.5,0.6]	1
	P <sub>3</sub>	[40,70]	ls	l	[0.4,0.6]	1
	P <sub>4</sub>	[200,300]	m	bt vl and l	[2.5,3.5]	1
	P <sub>5</sub>	[50,60]	hs	h	[0.3,0.5]	1

Table 6. The importance of each criterion provided by each expert.

Experts	Criteria				
	C <sub>1</sub>	C <sub>2</sub>	C <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>4</sub>	C <sub>5</sub>
e <sub>1</sub>	vhi	hi	hi	li	mi
e <sub>2</sub>	bt hi and vhi	hi	hi	mi	li
e <sub>3</sub>	hi	mi	hi	li	vli
e <sub>4</sub>	vhi	mi	mi	li	vli
e <sub>5</sub>	hi	mi	hi	mi	li
e <sub>6</sub>	At least hi	hi	hi	mi	li

Note: "bt" means between in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 7. The familiarity degree provided by all experts for each criterion.

Experts	Criteria				
	C <sub>1</sub>	C <sub>2</sub>	C <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>4</sub>	C <sub>5</sub>
e <sub>1</sub>	vs	s	vs	m	m
e <sub>2</sub>	s	m	s	vs	m
e <sub>3</sub>	m	vs	vs	m	s
e <sub>4</sub>	vs	m	s	s	m
e <sub>5</sub>	m	vs	vs	s	u
e <sub>6</sub>	s	s	s	m	m

### 4.3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

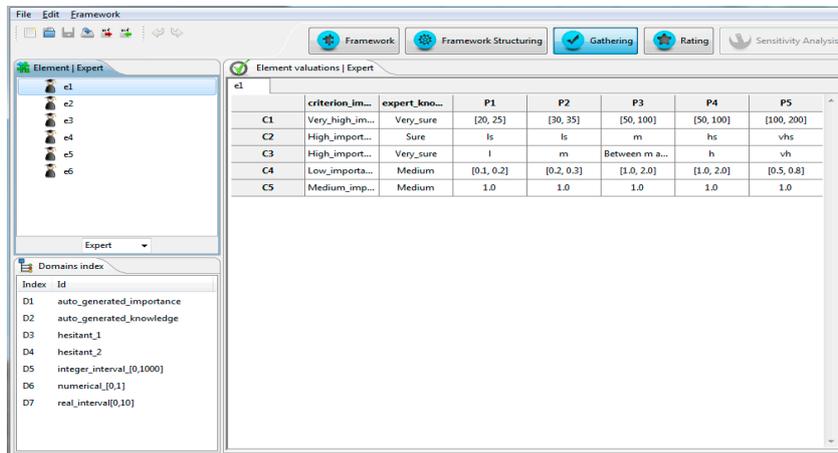


Figure 8. Gathered information in GENESIS.

#### 4.2.3. Managing Non-Homogeneous Information

All experts' assessments are transformed into trapezoidal fuzzy numbers by utilizing the transformation functions defined in Section 3.2. Therefore, GENESIS makes all the necessary computations to unify the non-homogeneous information into a fuzzy domain in a simple and fast way. Figure 9 shows the interface of such a process.

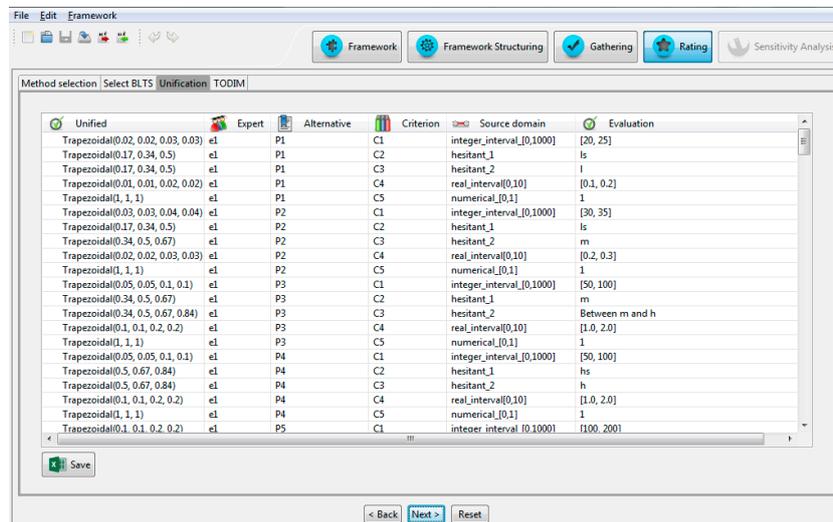


Figure 9. Unification results of non-homogeneous information.

4.2.4. Consensus Reaching Process

The fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model is utilized to achieve the consensus among all experts involved in the GEDM problem and obtain the collective opinion that will be used in the selection process. Before applying the CRP, the threshold values in Equation (14) should be determined.

Let  $S_4 = \{s_0: none (n), s_1: very\ unsure (vu), s_2: unsure (u), s_3: medium (m), s_4: sure (s), s_5: very\ sure (vs), s_6: absolutely\ sure (as)\}$  be the linguistic term set (see Figure 10) used by experts to express their familiarity degree for each criterion.

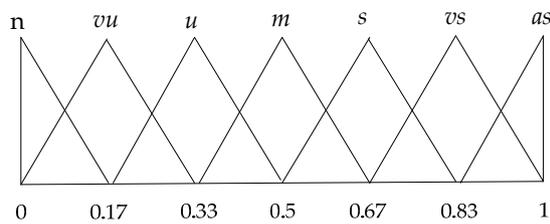


Figure 10. Linguistic term set  $S_4$ .

Expert  $e_h$  provides his/her familiarity degree for the criterion  $c_j$  by using a linguistic term  $s_k \in S_4$ . According to Equation (16),  $\tilde{s}_q = s_{6-k}$ , then, the COG of  $\tilde{s}_q$  is regarded as the threshold value for the expert  $e_h$  about the criterion  $c_j$ , shown in Table 8. Table 7 is the familiarity degree provided by all experts for each criterion.

Table 8. Threshold values for  $\tilde{s}_q$  transformed by negative operator.

$\tilde{s}_q$	Threshold Value
$\tilde{s}_0$	0
$\tilde{s}_1$	0.17
$\tilde{s}_2$	0.33
$\tilde{s}_3$	0.5
$\tilde{s}_4$	0.67
$\tilde{s}_5$	0.83
$\tilde{s}_6$	1

For example, expert  $e_1$  provides his/her familiarity degree for the criterion  $c_1$ ,  $s_5 = vs$ , then according to Equation (16),  $\tilde{s}_1 = vu$ , and, the COG of  $\tilde{s}_1$  is 0.17, i.e.,  $\varepsilon_1^1 = COG(vu) = 0.17$ , it means that the maximum change that expert  $e_1$  can make is 0.17 for the criterion  $c_1$ .

In this GEDM problem, experts' weights  $w^h$  have the same importance. The parameters  $p$ ,  $\alpha$  and  $c$  used in Equation (13) are set,  $p = 2$ ,  $\alpha = 2$  and  $c = 1.5$  respectively [36].

When all constraints meet the conditions in Equation (14), the aggregated collective opinion,  $CO = (CO_{ij})_{5 \times 5}$ , is obtained.

$$CO = \begin{bmatrix} (0.02, 0.02, 0.04, 0.04) & (0.11, 0.22, 0.22, 0.41) & (0.11, 0.22, 0.22, 0.49) & (0.02, 0.02, 0.03, 0.03) & (1, 1, 1, 1) \\ (0.03, 0.03, 0.08, 0.08) & (0.14, 0.19, 0.19, 0.60) & (0.11, 0.17, 0.17, 0.44) & (0.04, 0.04, 0.06, 0.06) & (1, 1, 1, 1) \\ (0.07, 0.07, 0.28, 0.28) & (0.18, 0.30, 0.32, 0.53) & (0.21, 0.37, 0.37, 0.79) & (0.06, 0.06, 0.25, 0.25) & (1, 1, 1, 1) \\ (0.17, 0.17, 0.50, 0.50) & (0.20, 0.38, 0.38, 0.69) & (0.15, 0.30, 0.33, 0.62) & (0.23, 0.23, 0.40, 0.40) & (1, 1, 1, 1) \\ (0.05, 0.05, 0.09, 0.09) & (0.53, 0.70, 0.70, 0.90) & (0.58, 0.73, 0.73, 0.95) & (0.02, 0.02, 0.05, 0.05) & (1, 1, 1, 1) \end{bmatrix}$$

4.2.5. Calculation of Criteria Weights

Using Table 6, the criteria weights are calculated by GENESIS (see Figure 11).

### 4.3. Managing non-homogeneous information and experts' psychological behavior in group emergency decision making

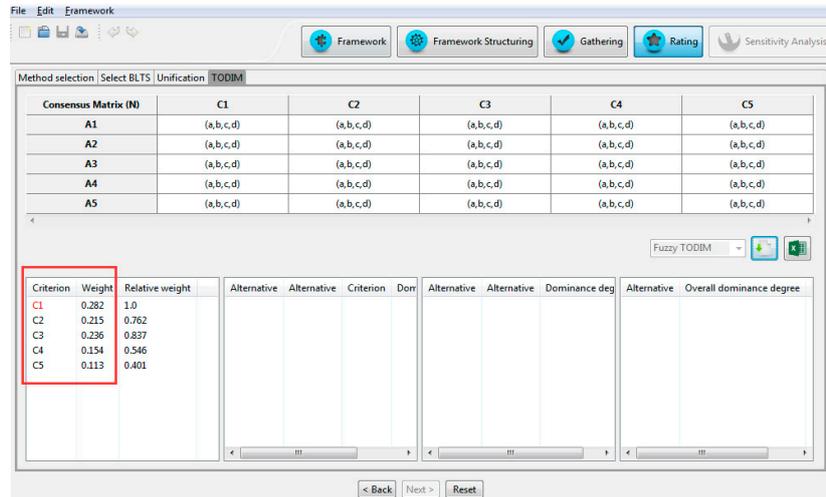


Figure 11. Criteria weights  $w_{c_j}$  obtained by GENESIS.

#### 4.2.6. Selection Process-Fuzzy TODIM Method

Once the criteria weights  $w_{c_j}$  and the aggregated collective opinion  $CO = (CO_{ij})_{m \times n}$  are obtained, fuzzy TODIM method is applied to calculate the overall dominance degree for each alternative and then the ranking of the alternative is obtained. Figure 12 shows the results obtained for each step of the fuzzy TODIM method.



Figure 12. The results of different steps based on fuzzy TODIM by using GENESIS.

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The ranking of alternatives is obtained according to the overall dominance degree for each alternative:

$$p_4 \succ p_2 \succ p_3 \succ p_1 \succ p_5$$

Finally, the EM can select  $p_4$ , “joint rescue” as the best alternative for the emergency response.

#### 4.2.7. Sensitivity Analysis

To illustrate the feasibility and validity of the proposed method, sensitivity analysis is carried out in a similar way to other TODIM-based proposals in literature [38].

In this case, two aspects of sensitivity analysis are conducted: (i) the analysis about the weight evolution of the most important criterion and (ii) the evolution of attenuation factor  $\theta$ .

For the weight evolution of the most important criterion, in this case study, it is  $C_1$ . First, let the weight of criterion  $C_1$  be equal to the second most important criterion, i.e.,  $C_1 = 0.236$ , then changing the weight of  $C_1$  from 0.236 to 1. The reason for doing this is that the most important criterion is always the same and never changes, hence the relative weights are always calculated according to the same criterion. Applying these changes, the ranking of alternatives does not change.

The attenuation factor  $\theta$  evolution, is changed from 1 to 15. When these alterations are carried out, there is no any change in the ranking of alternatives.

From the sensitivity analysis, it is easy to see that the ranking of alternatives is consistent with each other. It shows the feasibility, validity and the robustness of the proposed method.

#### 5. Conclusions and Future Works

The non-homogeneous information including experts’ hesitancy is not available in current GEDM approaches. To fill such a gap, this paper has taken into account the non-homogeneous information including experts’ hesitancy, which extends the scope of non-homogeneous information defined in previous approaches. In order to make computations with non-homogeneous information defined in our proposal, different transformation functions have been presented to unify it into fuzzy numbers. A fuzzy linear programming-based consensus model with a new way for determining the threshold values has been applied to obtain the collective opinion, which is suitable for dealing with the fuzzy information. Experts’ psychological behavior is very important in decision processes under risk and uncertainty; however, it is neglected in current GEDM approaches. To address such an important issue, fuzzy TODIM method has been utilized in our proposal due to its advantage of capturing human beings psychological behavior. Furthermore, a case study has been provided to illustrate the feasibility and validity of the proposed method by using GENESIS supporting the whole decision process.

Future research could be the use of computer science and Internet technology for supporting the EDM based on big data, which will lead to more reliable decisions. Furthermore, game theory [47,48] can be applied to deal with the emergency problems under uncertainty.

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**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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#### 4.4 A hesitant group emergency decision making method based on prospect theory

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ORIGINAL PAPER

## A hesitant group emergency decision making method based on prospect theory

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**Abstract** Group emergency decision-making (GEDM) problems have drawn great attention in past few years due to its advantages of dealing with the emergency events (EEs) effectively. Due to the fact that EEs are usually featured by lack of information and time pressure, decision makers (DMs) are often bound rational and their psychological behaviors are very crucial to the GEDM process. However, DM's psychological behaviors are neglected in current GEDM approaches. The assessments representing the individual wisdom provided by each expert are usually aggregated in the GEDM process. Nevertheless, the aggregation process always implies summarization of data that can result in loss of information. To overcome these limitations pointed out previously, this paper proposes a new GEDM method that considers the DM's psychological behaviors in the decision process using prospect theory and replaces the aggregation process by a fusion method with hesitant fuzzy set, which keeps the experts' information as much as possible.

A case study is provided to illustrate the validity and feasibility of the proposed method.

**Keywords** Group emergency decision making · Hesitant fuzzy sets · Prospect theory

### Introduction

Emergency event (EE) is defined as “events which suddenly take place, causing or having the possibility to cause intense death and injury, property loss, ecological damage and social hazards” [18], such as earthquakes, air crash, hurricanes, terrorist attacks, etc. When an EE occurs, it must be dealt with some measures to mitigate the losses of properties and lives, the process of selecting the measures is defined emergency decision making (EDM). EDM has received increasing attention and became a very active and important research field in recent years [12, 15, 20, 35–37] because it plays a crucial role in mitigating the losses of properties and lives caused by EE.

Because EDM is typically characterized by time pressure and lack of information [10, 17], it is difficult for a decision maker (DM) to predict its evolution and make comprehensive judgments under emergency situations. Therefore, EDM requires multiple experts from diverse professional backgrounds (such as hydrological, geological, meteorological, sociological, demographic, etc.) who help the DM to make a decision; this leads to GEDM problems. Usually, the GEDM consists of two processes [22, 26]: (i) the aggregation process, where the individual information provided by experts is aggregated, and (ii) a selection process, in which an alternative is obtained as the solution to response the EE (see Fig. 1).

Current GEDM studies [41–43] have made significant contributions to emergency management; however, there are still two key issues that have not been well addressed yet:

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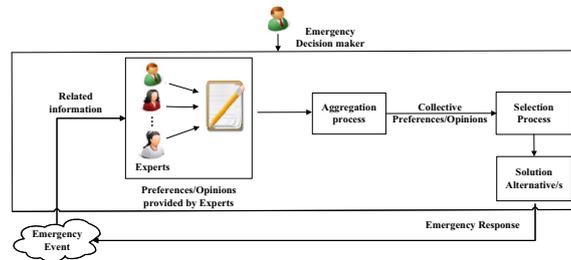
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Fig. 1 The general scheme of GEDM process



1. *Losing information in aggregation process.* Current GEDM studies [41–43], use aggregation process that may imply loss of useful information for the decision process from the very beginning. Therefore, an important challenge for GEDM is to keep as much information as possible about the group, avoiding such a lost.
2. *DM’s psychological behaviors in selection process.* Different studies [7, 8] have shown that the DM is bounded rational under risk and uncertainty and his/her psychological behavior plays an important role in GEDM processes. However, such an important issue has been neglected in current GEDM methods.

Therefore, to overcome such limitations, this paper aims at developing a new GEDM method based on hesitant fuzzy set (HFS) with the following main contributions:

1. It considers different experts’ opinions as the group hesitancy and fuses them into HFSs.
2. At the same time, it takes into account the DM’s psychological behaviors using prospect theory (PT) in the selection process, because of its advantages of capturing human beings psychological behaviors under risk and uncertainty [16].

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Sect. 2 briefly introduces the basic knowledge about HFS and PT that will be used in the proposed method. Section 3 presents a new GEDM method that includes a fusion method by using HFS to keep the experts’ information as much as possible and considers the DM’s psychological behaviors using PT in the selection process. In Sect. 4, a case study is provided. Section 5 offers the conclusions.

**Preliminaries**

This section provides a brief review of different concepts about HFS and PT that will be utilized in the proposed method and to make it understood easily.

**Hesitant fuzzy sets**

HFS was introduced by Torra [30] as an extension of fuzzy sets to model the hesitancy in quantitative contexts reviewed in depth [23, 25]. It is defined as below:

**Definition 1** [30] Let  $M = \{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n\}$  be a set of  $n$  membership functions. The HFS associated to  $M$ ,  $h_M$ , is defined as:

$$h_M : X \rightarrow \wp([0, 1])$$

$$h_M(x) \rightarrow \bigcup_{\mu \in M} \{\mu(x)\} \tag{1}$$

where  $X$  is a reference set,  $x \in X$ .

This definition was extended and formalized with the concept of hesitant fuzzy element (HFE) by Xia and Xu [40]. In their proposal, the HFS was expressed by following mathematical representation, i.e.,

$$E = \{(x, h_E(x)) : x \in X\}$$

where  $h_E(x)$  is a set of values in  $[0,1]$ , denoting the possible membership degrees of the element  $x \in E$  to the set  $E$ . For convenience, they defined  $h = h_E(x)$  as the HFE and  $H = \cup h(x)$  as the HFSs, a HFE is a subset of HFSs (see [40] for further details).

Torra introduced in [30] the concept of envelop of a HFE and proved that is a intuitionistic fuzzy value (IFV) according to the following definition:

**Definition 2** [30] Let  $h$  be a HFE, the IFV  $A_{env}(h)$  is the envelop of  $h$ , in which  $A_{env}(h)$  can be represented as  $(h^-, 1 - h^+)$  being  $h^- = \min \{\sigma | \sigma \in h\}$  and  $h^+ = \max \{\sigma | \sigma \in h\}$ .

Different operations and properties has been defined for HFSs [30] such operations together the managing of intuitionistic fuzzy sets and intervals [14, 30] allow us to interpret HFEs like an interval.

**Table 1** Summary of the related works on hesitant fuzzy set

Authors	Contributions	Year
Torra [30]	Hesitant fuzzy set (HFS)	2010
Bedregal et al. [3]	Typical hesitant fuzzy set (THFS)	2014
Xia and Xu [40]	Hesitant fuzzy element (HFE)	2011
	Hesitant fuzzy weighted average operator	2011
	Hesitant fuzzy power average operator	2011
Yu [45]	Hesitant fuzzy Choquet integral operator	2011
Zhou [48]	Distance measures for hesitant fuzzy set	2012
Wei [38]	Entropy measures for hesitant fuzzy set	2016
Rodriguez et al. [25]	Hesitant fuzzy linguistic term set (HFLTS)	2014
Cevik Onar [9]	Multi-criteria decision making AHP method	2014
Wei [39]	Multi-criteria decision making VIKOR method	2014
Xue [44]	Group decision making	2017
Yu [46]	Personal evaluation	2013
Aliahmadipour [2]	Clustering	2016

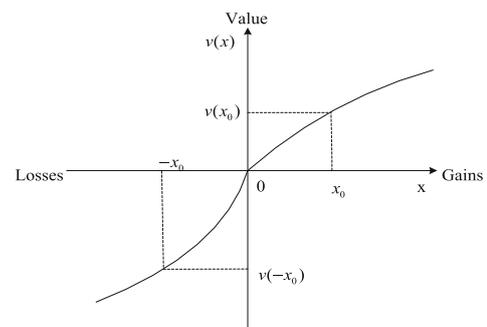
Many researchers have paid attention on HFSs because it is a useful approach to model experts' hesitation. Therefore, different proposals have been introduced in the literature. Bedregal et al. [3] presented a special case of HFS named Typical Hesitant Fuzzy Set, that introduces some restrictions, because a HFS should be a finite and nonempty set. Many aggregation operators for HFSs have been defined such as, hesitant fuzzy weighted average [40], hesitant fuzzy power average [40], hesitant fuzzy choquet integral [45] and so on [23,25]. Distance measures are widely used in different fields such as, machine learning and decision making, for this reason some of them have been extended to deal with HFS [48]. Some entropy measures have been also defined for HFS [38]. And there are many applications based on HFS such as, multi-criteria decision making [9,39], group decision making [44], evaluation [46], and clustering approaches [2].

Recently, Rodriguez et al. [27] proposed the concept of Hesitant Fuzzy Linguistic Term Set (HFLTS), which not only keeps the basis on the fuzzy linguistic approach [47], but also extends the idea of HFS to linguistic contexts [24]. It has drawn great attention since it has been applied to solve different decision problems [4,19,26].

For sake of clarity, we make a summary of the related works on hesitant fuzzy set, see the following Table 1.

**Prospect theory**

PT was firstly proposed by Kahneman and Tversky [16] in 1979, which describes the human beings behavioral characteristics and provides a way to compute gains, losses, and prospect values, which has been widely used to solve various decision making problems considering human beings psychological behaviors [13,28,29,32,33].



**Fig. 2** S-shape value function of PT

Reference point (RP) is one key element in PT, which is defined as a neutral position asset or expectation value of people who wants to obtain or not loss, and decides the feeling of gains or losses based on the actual amounts to people; the location of the RP can be affected by the expectations of the people [16].

Gains and losses are defined with regards to the RP; the DM's psychological behaviors are exhibited risk-averse tendency for gains and risk-seeking tendency for losses. For measuring the magnitude of gains and losses, a value function is used in PT, which is defined on deviations from the RP with a concave and convex S-shape for losses and gains, respectively (see Fig. 2), and it is expressed in form of a power law according to the following expression [16].

$$v(x) = \begin{cases} x^\alpha, & x \geq 0 \\ -\lambda(-x)^\beta, & x < 0 \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

where  $x$  denotes the gains or losses, with  $x \geq 0$  or with  $x < 0$  respectively.  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are power parameters related to gains and losses, respectively,  $0 \leq \alpha, \beta \leq 1$ .  $\lambda$  is the risk aversion parameter, which represents a characteristic of being steeper for losses than for gains,  $\lambda > 1$ . The values of  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\lambda$  are determined through experiments [1, 5, 6, 34].

**A hesitant group emergency decision making dealing with DM’s behaviors**

This section introduces a novel hesitant GEDM method based on PT that aims at keeping experts’ information as much as possible during the decision process and taking into account the DM’s psychological behaviors during the selection process.

The proposed method consists of three main phases and graphically in Fig. 3:

1. Definition framework;
2. Information fusion based on HFS;
3. Alternative selection based on PT.

These phases are further detailed in the following subsections.

**Definition framework**

The basic notations that will be used in our proposal are given.

- $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_i, \dots, a_I\}$ : set of alternatives, where  $a_i$  denotes the  $i$ -th alternative,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, I$ .
- $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_j, \dots, c_J\}$ : set of criteria, where  $c_j$  denotes the  $j$ -th criterion,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ .

- $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_m, \dots, s_M\}$ : set of emergency situations, where  $s_m$  denotes the  $m$ -th emergency situation,  $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$ .
- $W = (w_{c_1}, \dots, w_{c_j}, \dots, w_{c_J})$ : vector of criteria weights, where  $w_{c_j}$  denotes the weight of the  $j$ -th criterion,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ .
- $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_h, \dots, e_H\}$ : set of experts, where  $e_h$  denotes the  $h$ -th expert,  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ .
- $C^h = \{c_j^h(a_i)\}$ : set of opinions provided by expert  $e_h$ , where  $c_j^h(a_i) \in R$  denotes the preference over the  $i$ -th alternative regarding to the  $j$ -th criterion,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, I$ ;  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ;  $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ .
- $\bar{C}^h = \{\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)\}$ : denotes the normalization of  $C^h$ , where  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i) \in [0, 1]$   $i = 1, 2, \dots, I$ ;  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ;  $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ .
- $h_M(a_i) = \{\bar{c}_1(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_J(a_i)\}$ : denotes the HFS of experts’ preference, where  $\bar{c}_j(a_i)$  is the hesitant fuzzy element (HFE) and  $\bar{c}_j(a_i) = \{\bar{c}_j^1(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^H(a_i)\}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, I$ ;  $h = 1, 2, \dots, H$ ;  $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ .
- $E_{ij} = [E_{ij}^L, E_{ij}^U]$ : be an interval value, where  $E_{ij}$  denotes the effective control scope [37] over the  $i$ -th alternative with respect to the  $j$ -th criterion.
- $R_j = [R_j^L, R_j^U]$ : be an interval value, where  $R_j^L, R_j^U$  are preferences, and  $R_j$  denotes the RP provided by the DM with respect to the  $j$ -th criterion.
- $\bar{R}_j = [\bar{R}_j^L, \bar{R}_j^U]$ : denotes the normalization of  $R_j$ , where  $\bar{R}_j \in [0, 1]$   $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ .

**Information fusion based on HFS**

As it was pointed out in the introduction, the aggregation always implies a summarization of original experts’ opin-

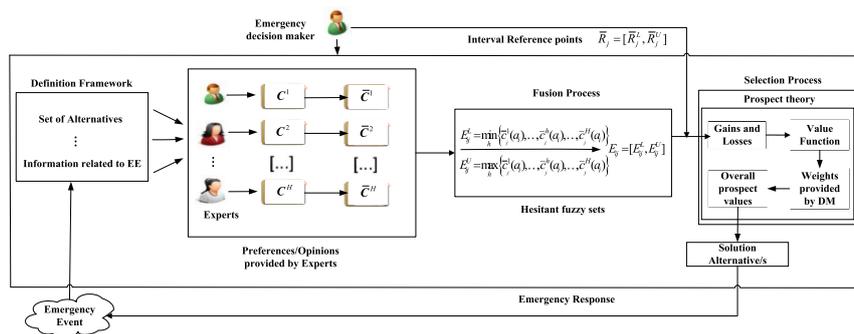


Fig. 3 General framework of proposed method

ions that can imply loss of information from different points of view such as distribution, diversity of data, etc. This loss of information can either bias or lead to wrong decisions regardless the aggregation operator. To overcome such a limitation, the experts' preferences in the GEDM problem are considered as the group hesitation about the alternatives and they will be fused by utilizing a HFS to keep as much information as possible.

Keeping in mind this idea, the effective control scopes of alternatives and the RP must be determined. The effective control scope of alternatives can be obtained by considering the group hesitation about it as a HFS, which is introduced in detail as follows:

- Step 1: The experts involved in the GEDM problem provide the related information  $c_j^h(a_i)$  about the emergency alternative with regarding to different criteria through analyzing the emergency alternatives
- Step 2: Based on information  $c_j^h(a_i)$  provided by experts, the preference of experts  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$  of effective control scope of the  $i$ -th alternative with respect to the  $j$ -th criterion can be calculated by Eq. (3):

$$\bar{c}_j^h(a_i) = \frac{c_j^h(a_i)}{\max_h \left\{ \max_h c_j^h(a_i) \right\}}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J \quad (3)$$

- Step 3: From  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$  calculated by Eq. (3), the HFEs  $\bar{c}_j(a_i)$  for the  $j$ -th criterion with respect to the  $i$ -th alternative and the HFS  $h_M(a_i)$  can be formed and managed according to their envelopes as interval values.
- Step 4: Based on step 3, the lower bound  $E_{ij}^L$  and upper bound  $E_{ij}^U$  of the effective control scope  $E_{ij}$  can be calculated by Eqs. (4), (5) [31].

$$E_{ij}^L = \min_h \left\{ \bar{c}_j^L(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^h(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^H(a_i) \right\} \quad (4)$$

$$E_{ij}^U = \max_h \left\{ \bar{c}_j^L(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^h(a_i), \dots, \bar{c}_j^H(a_i) \right\} \quad (5)$$

The interval value  $E_{ij}$  is the result of fusion information that can avoid the loss of information and keep the experts' opinions as much as possible. In order to facilitate the computations, the preferences  $R_j$  need to be transformed into  $\bar{R}_j$  by utilizing the Eqs. (6), (7):

$$\bar{R}_j^L = \frac{R_j^L}{\max_h \left\{ \max_h c_j^h(a_i) \right\}} \quad (6)$$

$$\bar{R}_j^U = \frac{R_j^U}{\max_h \left\{ \max_h c_j^h(a_i) \right\}} \quad (7)$$

**Alternative selection based on PT**

Due to the fact that DM's psychological behaviors play an important role in GEDM process, this proposal uses PT to address such an important issue, because of its advantages to capture the psychological behaviors.

*Calculation of gains and losses*

According to the RP  $\bar{R}_j$  and the effective control scope  $E_{ij}$  of emergency alternatives, gains and losses can be obtained.

Due to the fact that, we are dealing with interval values, before obtaining the gains and losses, the relationship between  $\bar{R}_j$  and  $E_{ij}$  should be determined. There are six possible cases of positional relationship between  $\bar{R}_j$  and  $E_{ij}$  as shown in Table 2.

To obtain the gains and losses with respect to each alternative, the following definition is provided.

**Definition 3** For the effective control scope  $E_{ij}$  of alternatives, let  $x$  be an arbitrary value in interval number  $[E_{ij}^L, E_{ij}^U]$ , regarded as a random variable with uniform distribution [11]. The probability density function of  $x$  is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{E_{ij}^U - E_{ij}^L}, & E_{ij}^L \leq x \leq E_{ij}^U \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J \quad (8)$$

where  $\int_{E_{ij}^L}^{E_{ij}^U} f(x) dx = 1$  and  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in [E_{ij}^L, E_{ij}^U]$ .

From Table 2, the calculation of gains and losses is discussed. In general, the criteria can be classified into two types: benefit and cost [21]. A benefit criterion means the higher the better while a cost criterion the higher the worse. Note that for cost criteria, if  $E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^L$ , the expert feels gains, and if  $E_{ij}^L > \bar{R}_j^U$ , the expert feels losses. The following discussion is for cost criterion only.

Case 1: obviously, there is no loss to the expert, since  $E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^L$ ,

$$L_{ij} = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J \quad (9)$$

According to Definition 3, the gain to the expert is given by

$$G_{ij} = \int_{E_{ij}^L}^{E_{ij}^U} (\bar{R}_j^L - x) f(x) dx, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J \quad (10)$$

**Table 2** Possible cases of positional relationship between  $\bar{R}_j$  and  $E_{ij}$

Cases	Positional relationship between $\bar{R}_j$ and $E_{ij}$
Case 1	$E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^L$
Case 2	$\bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^L$
Case 3	$E_{ij}^L < \bar{R}_j^L \leq E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^U$
Case 4	$\bar{R}_j^L < E_{ij}^L \leq \bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^U$
Case 5	$E_{ij}^L < \bar{R}_j^L < \bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^U$
Case 6	$\bar{R}_j^L \leq E_{ij}^L < E_{ij}^U \leq \bar{R}_j^U$

**Table 3** Gains and losses for all possible cases (cost criteria)

Cases	Gain $G_{ij}$	Loss $L_{ij}$	
Case 1	$E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^L$	$\bar{R}_j^L - 0.5(E_{ij}^L + E_{ij}^U)$	0
Case 2	$\bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^L$	0	$\bar{R}_j^U - 0.5(E_{ij}^L + E_{ij}^U)$
Case 3	$E_{ij}^L < \bar{R}_j^L \leq E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^U$	$0.5(\bar{R}_j^L - E_{ij}^L)$	0
Case 4	$\bar{R}_j^L < E_{ij}^L \leq \bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^U$	0	$0.5(\bar{R}_j^U - E_{ij}^U)$
Case 5	$E_{ij}^L < \bar{R}_j^L < \bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^U$	$0.5(\bar{R}_j^L - E_{ij}^L)$	$0.5(\bar{R}_j^U - E_{ij}^U)$
Case 6	$\bar{R}_j^L \leq E_{ij}^L < E_{ij}^U \leq \bar{R}_j^U$	0	0

Obviously, by Eqs. (9), (10) can be rewritten as:

$$G_{ij} = \bar{R}_j^L - 0.5(E_{ij}^L + E_{ij}^U), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J \tag{11}$$

Similar to Case 1, the rest cases can be calculated respectively. The calculation formulae of gain and loss for all possible cases are summarized in Table 3, which shows the gain and loss for all possible cases for “cost criteria”.

Similar to cost criterion, the calculation formulae of gain and loss for all possible cases with respect to the benefit criterion are summarized in Table 4:

Furthermore, based on Tables 3 and 4, the gain and loss matrix GM and LM can be constructed, which are used to calculate prospect values using value function.

*Calculation of overall prospect values*

Let  $GM = (G_{ij})_{I \times J}$  be the gain matrix,  $LM = (L_{ij})_{I \times J}$  be the loss matrix,  $VM = (v_{ij})_{I \times J}$  be the value matrix, where

$$v_{ij} = (G_{ij})^\alpha + [-\lambda(-L_{ij})^\beta], \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J \tag{12}$$

different values can be used for the parameters of Eq. (12) according to [32] we will use,  $\alpha = 0.88, \beta = 0.92, \lambda =$

**Table 4** Gains and losses for all possible cases (benefit criteria)

Cases		Gain $G_{ij}$	Loss $L_{ij}$
Case 1	$E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^L$	0	$0.5(E_{ij}^L + E_{ij}^U) - \bar{R}_j^L$
Case 2	$\bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^L$	$0.5(E_{ij}^L + E_{ij}^U) - \bar{R}_j^U$	0
Case 3	$E_{ij}^L < \bar{R}_j^L \leq E_{ij}^U < \bar{R}_j^U$	0	$0.5(E_{ij}^L - \bar{R}_j^L)$
Case 4	$\bar{R}_j^L < E_{ij}^L \leq \bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^U$	$0.5(E_{ij}^U - \bar{R}_j^U)$	0
Case 5	$E_{ij}^L < \bar{R}_j^L < \bar{R}_j^U < E_{ij}^U$	$0.5(E_{ij}^U - \bar{R}_j^U)$	$0.5(E_{ij}^L - \bar{R}_j^L)$
Case 6	$\bar{R}_j^L \leq E_{ij}^L < E_{ij}^U \leq \bar{R}_j^U$	0	0

2.25; and  $v_{ij}$  denotes the value of the  $i$ -th alternative with respect to the  $j$ -th criterion. In PT, magnitude of gains and losses are measured by Eq. (12), the prospect values reflect the different feelings of DM, the higher  $v_{ij}$  is, the better DM feels. It means that the DM is satisfied with the decisions what he/she has done; otherwise, the DM feels regret or depressed with the decisions what he/she has done. By using PT, the psychological behaviors of DM can be described clearly and easily understood.

The attribute weights are provided by DM, using the simple additive weighting method, the Overall Prospect Value (OPV) of each alternative can be obtained, i.e.,

$$OPV_i = \sum_{j=1}^J v_{ij} w_{c_j}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J \tag{13}$$

Obviously, the bigger  $OPV_i$ , the better alternative  $a_i$ . Based on the  $OPV_i$ , the ranking of alternatives can be obtained. According to the ranking of alternatives, the DM can select the best alternative to cope with the EE.

**Case study and comparison**

**Case study**

To illustrate the validity and feasibility of the proposed method, this section presents an adapted real case about a barrier lake emergency caused by a huge earthquake that occurred in southwestern China.

A barrier lake, formed by fallen rocks and a landslide after a huge earthquake, threatened the lives and properties of thousands of people both upstream and downstream. When a barrier lake formed, the DM must obey the principles of immediate response, timeously rescue, evacuating and blasting, so as to control the situation effectively and prevent it from further deterioration. The following criteria are concerned in our proposal:

$c_1$ : The cost of alternatives (10,000 RMB which is the acronym of “renminbi”, the official currency of the People’s Republic of China).

$c_2$ : The number of casualties.

$c_3$ : Property loss (10,000 RMB).

The emergency alternatives are described as follows:

$a_1$ : Evacuate people from the most dangerous upstream and downstream areas of the barrier lake to safe areas, and inform people in potentially dangerous areas to prepare for evacuation. At the same time, combine repeated small batch quantities of artificial blasting and excavation of drain grooves to meet the requirements of the discharged barrier lake floods;

$a_2$ : Based on  $a_1$ , increase the joint scheduling of the reservoir and hydropower station in the upstream and downstream areas to reduce the pressure of the barrier lake;

$a_3$ : Based on  $a_2$ , mobilize large, heavy machinery and implement large-scale blasting to reduce the water level of the barrier lake as much as possible to lower the risk of dam break;

$a_4$ : Based on  $a_3$ , increase the joint scheduling of the reservoir and hydropower station in the upstream and downstream areas. Meanwhile, mobilize large, heavy machinery and implement large-scale blasting to reduce the water level of the barrier lake as much as possible to lower the risk of dam break.

Analyzing by professional experts, the barrier lake might be evolve into four possible emergency situations in 72 h, the emergency situations are as follows:

- $s_1$ : The dam body of the barrier lake will not break;
- $s_2$ : 1/3 of the dam body of the barrier lake will break;
- $s_3$ : 1/2 of the dam body of the barrier lake will break;
- $s_4$ : The entire dam body of the barrier lake will break.

Assume that three experts are invited to participate in the decision process to help DM makes a final decision. First, they are asked to define the effective control scope of the four emergency alternatives mentioned above. Through analyzing these emergency alternatives, the preferences  $c_j^h(a_i)$  and  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$  of the effective control scopes for alternatives are given (see Table 5), where  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$  is calculated by Eq. (3).

### 4.4. A hesitant group emergency decision making method based on prospect theory

**Table 5**  $c_j^h(a_i)$  and  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$  of effective control scope for alternatives

Alternatives	Experts	Criteria (weights)					
		$c_1(0.3)$		$c_2(0.4)$		$c_3(0.3)$	
		$c_1^h(a_i)$	$\bar{c}_1^h(a_i)$	$c_2^h(a_i)$	$\bar{c}_2^h(a_i)$	$c_3^h(a_i)$	$\bar{c}_3^h(a_i)$
$a_1$	$e_1$	250	0.42	5000	0.59	3500	0.64
	$e_2$	280	0.47	5000	0.59	3000	0.55
	$e_3$	300	0.50	4000	0.47	4000	0.73
$a_2$	$e_1$	300	0.50	6500	0.76	4000	0.73
	$e_2$	300	0.50	5500	0.65	4000	0.73
	$e_3$	350	0.58	5000	0.59	4500	0.82
$a_3$	$e_1$	400	0.67	7000	0.82	4500	0.82
	$e_2$	350	0.58	7500	0.88	4500	0.82
	$e_3$	400	0.67	6500	0.76	5000	0.91
$a_4$	$e_1$	600	1.00	8000	0.94	5000	0.91
	$e_2$	500	0.83	8500	1.00	5300	0.96
	$e_3$	550	0.92	7500	0.88	5500	1.00

**Table 6** The HFEs  $\bar{c}_j(a_i)$  and the effective control scope  $E_{ij}$  for the alternatives

Alternatives	Criteria					
	$c_1$	$c_2$		$c_3$		
	$\bar{c}_1(a_i)$	$E_{i1}$	$\bar{c}_2(a_i)$	$E_{i2}$	$\bar{c}_3(a_i)$	$E_{i3}$
$a_1$	$\langle \bar{c}_1(a_1), \{0.42, 0.47, 0.50\} \rangle$	[0.42, 0.50]	$\langle \bar{c}_2(a_1), \{0.59, 0.59, 0.47\} \rangle$	[0.47, 0.59]	$\langle \bar{c}_3(a_1), \{0.64, 0.55, 0.73\} \rangle$	[0.55, 0.73]
$a_2$	$\langle \bar{c}_1(a_2), \{0.50, 0.50, 0.58\} \rangle$	[0.40, 0.58]	$\langle \bar{c}_2(a_2), \{0.76, 0.65, 0.59\} \rangle$	[0.59, 0.76]	$\langle \bar{c}_3(a_2), \{0.73, 0.73, 0.82\} \rangle$	[0.73, 0.82]
$a_3$	$\langle \bar{c}_1(a_3), \{0.67, 0.58, 0.67\} \rangle$	[0.58, 0.67]	$\langle \bar{c}_2(a_3), \{0.82, 0.88, 0.76\} \rangle$	[0.76, 0.88]	$\langle \bar{c}_3(a_3), \{0.82, 0.82, 0.91\} \rangle$	[0.82, 0.91]
$a_4$	$\langle \bar{c}_1(a_4), \{1.00, 0.83, 0.92\} \rangle$	[0.83, 1.00]	$\langle \bar{c}_2(a_4), \{0.94, 1.00, 0.88\} \rangle$	[0.88, 1.00]	$\langle \bar{c}_3(a_4), \{0.91, 0.96, 1.00\} \rangle$	[0.91, 1.00]

Based on the data  $\bar{c}_j^h(a_i)$  in Table 5, the HFEs  $\bar{c}_j(a_i)$  can be obtained and the effective control scope for the alternatives with respect to different criteria can be calculated by Eqs. (4), (5). Table 6 shows the results.

According to the four possible emergency situations of the barrier lake, the DM provided the RP according to his/her professional knowledge and experience by using interval values. The  $R_j$  and  $\bar{R}_j$  are shown in Table 7, where  $\bar{R}_j$  are obtained by Eqs. (6), (7).

According to the effective control scope  $E_{ij}$  and the RP  $\bar{R}_j$  in Tables 6 and 7, respectively, and the positional relationship between  $\bar{R}_j$  and  $E_{ij}$  in Table 2, the gain matrix (GM) and loss matrix (LM) can be constructed based on the equations in Tables 3 and 4, respectively, the GM and LM are as follows,

$$GM = \begin{bmatrix} 0.04 & 0 & 0.09 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.23 \\ 0 & 0.03 & 0.32 \\ 0 & 0.12 & 0.41 \end{bmatrix}, \quad LM = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -0.18 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.06 & 0 \\ -0.04 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.33 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Table 7** The RP  $R_j$  and  $\bar{R}_j$

RP	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
$R_j$	[300, 350]	[6000, 7000]	[2000, 3000]
$\bar{R}_j$	[0.5, 0.58]	[0.71, 0.82]	[0.36, 0.55]

For sake of clarity, the computation of  $G_{13}$  is detailed:

$\bar{R}_3 = [0.36, 0.55]$ , the effective control scope on property loss of  $a_1$  is [0.55, 0.73], based on Table 2, their positional relationship is case 2, then:

$$0.5(E_{13}^L + E_{13}^H) - \bar{R}_3 \Rightarrow G_{13} = 0.5(0.55 + 0.73) - 0.55 = 0.09,$$

according to Table 4.

Based on the GM and LM, the value matrix (VM) can be obtained directly by Eq. (12), just because both the  $R_j$  and  $E_{ij}$  are dimensionless. The VM is

**Table 8** Overall prospect values and the ranking of alternatives

Alternatives	$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$	$a_4$
OPV <sub><i>i</i></sub>	-0.1278	0.0150	<b>0.0912</b>	-0.04823
Ranking	4	2	<b>1</b>	3

$$VM = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0611 & -0.4562 & 0.1212 \\ 0 & -0.1662 & 0.2715 \\ -0.1210 & 0.0450 & 0.3561 \\ -0.8191 & 0.1522 & 0.4554 \end{bmatrix}$$

Following the details of computation for  $v_{13}$ , given that,  $G_{13} = 0.09(0.09 > 0)$ , based on Eq. (12):

$$v_{13} = G_{13}^{0.88} = 0.09^{0.88} = 0.1212.$$

The OPV<sub>*i*</sub> of each alternative can be obtained by Eq. (13) and the weighting vector provided by DM (see Table 5), the results of OPV<sub>*i*</sub> and the ranking of alternatives based on OPV<sub>*i*</sub> are shown in Table 8.

Following the details of computation for  $a_1$ , based on Eq. (13):

$$\begin{aligned} OPV_1 &= 0.3 * 0.0611 + (-0.4562) * 0.4 + 0.1212 * 0.3 \\ &= -0.1278. \end{aligned}$$

According to Table 8, the alternative  $a_3$  with the highest OPV is the best one (values are in bold) for coping with the barrier lake emergency situation.

**Comparison**

To illustrate the validity and feasibility of the proposed method, a comparison between the new information fusion process using HFSs and the aggregation process using weighted average method is performed.

The weighted average method is widely used to aggregate the experts' opinion in the aggregation process of the group decision making problem. In the weighted average method, the weight is assigned to each expert. In this paper, we assume that three experts' opinions are equally important, i.e., (1/3, 1/3, 1/3). Let  $\tilde{E}_{ij}$  be the aggregated information of the effective control scope. In order to make a validity comparison between the results of the two different methods, the  $\tilde{c}_1^h(a_i)$  will be utilized to generate the effective control scope  $\tilde{E}_{ij}$ , where  $\tilde{E}_{ij} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{h=1}^3 \tilde{c}_j^h(a_i)$ . The results are shown in Table 9.

According to the RP  $\tilde{R}_j$  and the effective control scope  $\tilde{E}_{ij}$  in Tables 7 and 9, respectively, and the positional relationship between  $\tilde{R}_j$  and  $E_{ij}$  in Table 2, the gain matrix  $\tilde{GM}$  and loss matrix  $\tilde{LM}$  can be constructed based on the equations in Tables 3 and 4, respectively, the  $\tilde{GM}$  and  $\tilde{LM}$  are given as follows,

$$\tilde{GM} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.04 & 0 & 0.0909 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.2118 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.3027 \\ 0 & 0.1176 & 0.4116 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\tilde{LM} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -0.1565 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.0382 & 0 \\ -0.0558 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.3342 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Table 9** The aggregated information of the effective control scope  $\tilde{E}_{ij}$

Alternatives	Experts (weights)	Criteria (weights)					
		$c_1$ (0.3)		$c_2$ (0.4)		$c_3$ (0.3)	
		$\tilde{c}_1^h(a_i)$	$\tilde{E}_{i1}$	$\tilde{c}_2^h(a_i)$	$\tilde{E}_{i2}$	$\tilde{c}_3^h(a_i)$	$\tilde{E}_{i3}$
$a_1$	$e_1(1/3)$	0.42		0.59		0.64	
	$e_2(1/3)$	0.47	0.4607	0.59	0.5494	0.55	0.6364
	$e_3(1/3)$	0.50		0.47		0.73	
$a_2$	$e_1(1/3)$	0.50		0.76		0.73	
	$e_2(1/3)$	0.50	0.5275	0.65	0.6676	0.73	0.7573
	$e_3(1/3)$	0.58		0.59		0.82	
$a_3$	$e_1(1/3)$	0.67		0.82		0.82	
	$e_2(1/3)$	0.58	0.6392	0.88	0.8235	0.82	0.8482
	$e_3(1/3)$	0.67		0.76		0.91	
$a_4$	$e_1(1/3)$	1.00		0.94		0.91	
	$e_2(1/3)$	0.83	0.9175	1.00	0.9412	0.96	0.9571
	$e_3(1/3)$	0.92		0.88		1.00	

**Table 10** Overall prospect values and the ranking of alternatives

Alternatives	Our proposal		Weighted average method	
	OPV <sub>i</sub>	Ranking	$\widetilde{OPV}_i$	Ranking
a <sub>1</sub>	-0.1278	4	-0.1096	4
a <sub>2</sub>	0.0150	2	0.0319	2
a <sub>3</sub>	<b>0.0912</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.0573</b>	<b>1</b>
a <sub>4</sub>	-0.0482	3	-0.0480	3

The bold values highlight the optimal results of the proposed method and the weighted average method

Based on the  $\widetilde{GM}$  and  $\widetilde{LM}$ , the value matrix  $\widetilde{VM}$  can be obtained directly by Eq. (12), i.e.,

$$\widetilde{VM} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0580 & -0.4084 & 0.1212 \\ 0 & -0.1117 & 0.2552 \\ -0.1582 & 0 & 0.3494 \\ -0.8208 & 0.1521 & 0.4579 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The  $\widetilde{OPV}_i$  of each alternative can be obtained by Eq. (13), similar to the calculation of OPV<sub>i</sub>. The results of  $\widetilde{OPV}_i$  and corresponding ranking of alternatives are shown in Table 10 from column 4–5.

As it can be seen that the ranking of alternatives obtained by different methods is the same, it verifies the validity and feasibility of our proposal.

The value obtained for the best alternative based on our proposal is greater than the value obtained based on the weighted average method because the proposal considers all the information provided by experts avoiding the loss of information.

**Conclusion**

Current GEDM approaches aggregate experts’ individual assessments that may incur in loss of information that bias the decision process. Therefore, to take all the experts’ opinions into account and also, DM’s psychological behaviors during the GEDM process, this paper has introduced a new GEDM that considers DM’s psychological behaviors using PT and the aggregation process is replaced by a fusion process using HFSs. Eventually, a case study and a comparison with the weighted average method about a barrier lake EE that happened in real world is provided to illustrate the validity and feasibility of the proposed method.

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## Chapter 5

# Conclusions and Future Works

Chapter 5 concludes our research memory by revising the conclusions about the main proposals and results obtained, and pointing out possible promising future works.

### 5.1 Conclusions

Emergency decision making problems have gained special importance, due to the frequently occurrence of EEs in recent years that have caused important losses for mankind activities and social development.

Since the importance of EDM in mitigating and reducing the various losses and damages (property, lives, environment etc.) caused by EEs, many models and approaches for EDM problems have been proposed by different researchers. However, due to the complexity and diversity of nowadays EEs, contemporary EDM problems still face important challenges related to the management of uncertainty and experts' behaviors together with a more comprehensive view of their dynamics among others pointed out in Chapter 1.

Therefore, across our research we have obtained novel, remarkable and relevant results regarding those challenges that not only fulfill the objectives indicated in Section 1.2, but also provide new views in the solving processes of GEDM and new research opportunities for the future.

Consequently, we should conclude from our research results that:

1. The use of prospect theory for considering experts' psychological behavior is a useful tool that may improve GEDM resolution providing more accurate solutions because experts' behavior can modify solutions in an important manner and PT shows us how to manage such an issue in GEDM problems in which pressure on experts could be really tough.

2. EDM usually implies multiple decision situations across time about some EEs, so the management of the dynamics of the decision making problems has been a challenge, it has been just studied from assessments changes during time. But it has been shown in this memory other elements of the EDM can evolve and must be also considered to achieve more accurate and comprehensive results in the dynamic EDM.
3. The complexity of EEs and EDM problems may imply the managing of multiple types of uncertainties. Therefore, the development of EDM frameworks able to deal with multiple types of information makes more flexible and reliable the gathering of experts' information in order to achieve better solutions as it has been shown in our results.
4. Among the different types of uncertainties that could be managed in EDM, the hesitancy should be also considered. Therefore different models and tools have been introduced in our memory to deal with it.

## 5.2 Future Works

Even though several methods, tools and approaches have been proposed in this research, there are still challenges within EDM and GEDM problems that should be further studied. In near future, we will focus on the extension of the proposals presented and the development of solution for new problems:

1. An initial straight extension of our research is the integration of our models with an emergency decision support system that facilitates the use of our results into real world EDM management.
2. A promising research in this topic might be the study of data-driven decision models that facilitate, automatize and improve current EDM models.
3. Finally, a more ambitious research direction might be the integration of IoT devices stream data, data-driven models and our emergency decision support system into a more comprehensive and hybrid solution for supporting EDM decision makers.

### Additional Publications

Regarding the diffusion of our scientific results, besides the publications included in this memory, we highlight the following contributions:

- International Journals
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- L. Wang, Z. X. Zhang, Y. M. Wang. A prospect theory-based interval dynamic reference point method for emergency decision making. *Expert Systems with Applications*, vol. 42, issue 23, pp. 9379-9388, 2015.
  - Z. X. Zhang, L. Wang, Y. M. Wang. An emergency decision making method based on prospect-theory for different emergency situations. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Science*. vol. 9, issue 3, pp. 407-420, 2018.
  - L. Chen, Y. M. Wang, L. Wang. Congestion measurement under different policy objectives: an analysis of Chinese industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 112, issue 1, pp. 2943-2952, 2016.
  - J. F. Chu, X. W. Liu, L. Wang, Y. M. Wang. A group decision making approach based on newly defined additively consistent interval-valued intuitionistic preference relations. *International Journal of Fuzzy Systems*, vol. 20, issue 3, pp. 1027-1046, 2018.
  - Z. L. Wang, Y. M. Wang, L. Wang. Tri-level multi-attribute group decision making based on regret theory in multi-granular linguistic contexts. *Journal of Intelligent and Fuzzy Systems*, vol. 35, issue 1, pp. 793-806, 2018.
- International Conferences
    - L. Wang, Y. M. Wang, R. M. Rodríguez, L. Martínez. A hesitant fuzzy linguistic model for emergency decision making based on fuzzy TODIM method. 2017 IEEE International Conference on Fuzzy Systems, IEEE-FUZZ 2017, July 9, 2017 - July 12, 2017. Naples, Italy.
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## Appendix A

# Resumen escrito en Español

**Título de la tesis:** *Toma de decisión en situaciones de emergencia bajo incertidumbre*

Este apéndice incluye el título, índice, introducción, resumen y conclusiones escritas en español, como parte de los requisitos necesarios para obtener el doctorado según el artículo 23.2 del Reglamento de Estudio de Doctorado de la Universidad de Jaén.

En primer lugar, se presenta el índice de la memoria. A continuación, se introduce de forma breve la investigación llevada cabo, indicando motivación, objetivos y la estructura de los capítulos que la componen. Seguidamente, se presenta un resumen de la misma, para finalmente concluir con el apartado de conclusiones obtenidas y trabajos futuros.



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## A.1 Motivación

Las situaciones de emergencia (SEs) se definen como aquellas situaciones que ocurren de forma inesperada y que pueden causar un gran número de pérdidas humanas, materiales, daños medioambientales y a la sociedad [105]. Dichas situaciones normalmente se caracterizan por su capacidad destructiva, carácter repentino, complejidad, variabilidad, incertidumbre etc. Dependiendo de su naturaleza, las SEs se pueden clasificar en 4 categorías [63], desastres naturales, desastres causados por accidentes, incidentes de salud pública y amenazas de carácter social.

En los últimos años, SEs como terremotos, inundaciones, huracanes, ataques terroristas etc., han causado enormes pérdidas y daños que han impactado negativamente en la vida de los seres humanos y en el desarrollo socio-económico de los países que las han sufrido. La Toma de Decisión en situaciones de Emergencia (TDE) es un proceso fundamental a la hora de mitigar y reducir los daños o pérdidas (materiales, vidas, medioambientales etc.) en este tipo de situaciones [136]. Cuando se produce un evento de esta índole, un decisor toma el mando del proceso de TDE, asumiendo la responsabilidad y consecuencias de las decisiones tomadas y jugando un papel crucial en el éxito de la gestión de una SE.

Debido al papel fundamental que desempeñan los decisores y la TDE a la hora de mitigar los daños y pérdidas causadas por SEs, ha surgido una activa e importante rama de investigación orientada al estudio de la gestión de este tipo de situaciones [33, 54, 69, 109, 126, 129]. Este profundo interés en la TDE ha provocado la aparición de numerosas publicaciones de diversos autores en la literatura especializada, que analizan diferentes aspectos a tener en cuenta cuando hablamos de TDE, por ejemplo:

- ◇ Número de expertos involucrados en el proceso de TDE, ya sean problemas clásicos de TDE donde un único decisor participa en el proceso de decisión [27, 54, 57, 68], o, por otra parte, la Toma de Decisión en Grupo en situaciones de Emergencia (TDGE) [39, 60, 96, 117, 129, 137] donde múltiples expertos apoyan al decisor en la toma de decisión. Los esquemas generales para ambos tipos de problemas se muestran en la Figure A.1 y en la Figure A.2, respectivamente.
  - ◇ El comportamiento psicológico del decisor en el proceso de TDE [33, 69, 107, 109] y la agregación de las opiniones/valoraciones de los expertos en el proceso de TDGE [123, 124, 125, 126, 127].
  - ◇ Elementos relativos a las SEs a tener en cuenta en el proceso de TDE [61], especialmente la incertidumbre, la información incompleta o vaga [54, 64, 91, 109, 122] y la evolución dinámica de las SEs [40, 53, 107].
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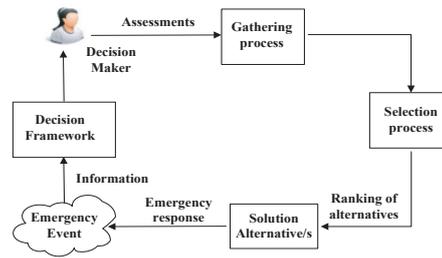


Figure A.1: Esquema general clásico de TDE

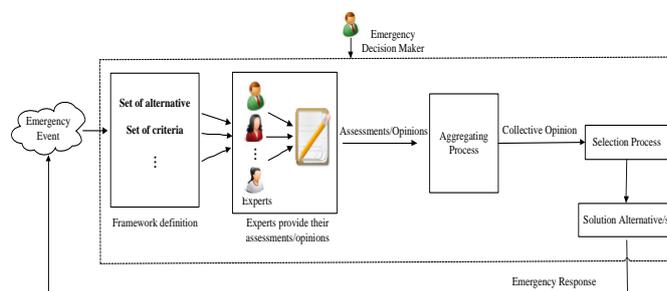


Figure A.2: Esquema general de TDGE

A consecuencia del rápido desarrollo de la tecnología, economía y en general de la sociedad en la última década, las SEs son cada vez más variadas y complejas, lo que supone un enorme reto para el decisor gestionar dichas situaciones con éxito, particularmente cuando el entorno de decisión resulta complejo e incierto [70]. Sin embargo, la participación de un grupo de expertos multidisciplinar con conocimientos en diversos campos (hidrología, meteorología, sociología y demografía) podría servir como un punto de apoyo para el decisor en el proceso de decisión, surgiendo de esta forma los problemas de TDGE, cuyo esquema general es representado en la Figure A.2.

Diferentes experimentos que analizan el comportamiento humano en situaciones de toma de decisión [14, 55, 103] han demostrado que éstos tienen dificultades para tomar decisiones racionales cuando se encuentran bajo presión o en condiciones donde el tiempo juega en su contra. Es evidente que el comportamiento psicológico de las personas afecta directamente a su forma de actuar frente a una SE (asunción del riesgo, aversión al riesgo, neutro) [55], por lo tanto, el comportamiento psicológico también desempeña un rol muy importante en el proceso de toma de decisión y debe ser considerado en cualquier tipo de problema de TDE.

Existe un proverbio en la cultura China que reza “*Conócete a ti mismo y conoce a tu enemigo, ganarás todas las guerras*”, este proverbio nos enseña, que para vencer

a nuestros enemigos en cualquier guerra, debemos conocernos no sólo a nosotros mismos, sino también a ellos. Esta enseñanza también puede aplicarse a problemas de TDE. Numerosos enfoques para la TDE se han propuesto con el principal objetivo de dar respuesta a las SEs de forma pertinente, efectiva y exitosa, analizando sus peculiares características [61] desde diferentes puntos de vista, como la incertidumbre, la información incompleta [54, 64, 91, 109, 122], registros históricos [91, 137], efectos dominó [138] entre otros.

A pesar de la gran cantidad de modelos y enfoques existentes orientados al tratamiento de problemas de TDE, propuestos por una extensa variedad de autores, y que han contribuido a mejorar la gestión de SEs, hoy en día, aún queda un largo camino por recorrer en la gestión de problemas reales de TDE, cada vez más complejos y que requieren de un estudio más profundo y exhaustivo y una mejora de las propuestas existentes. Algunas de las dificultades y retos que plantean este tipo de problemas son descritos a continuación, siendo la principal motivación para desarrollar esta memoria de investigación:

- ◇ *Inclusión del comportamiento psicológico de los expertos en el proceso de TDGE:* Como ya se mencionó anteriormente, el comportamiento psicológico de los expertos desempeña un rol fundamental en el proceso de decisión, especialmente en situaciones de incertidumbre y riesgo donde se ha demostrado que los seres humanos tiene dificultades a la hora de tomar decisiones. Sin embargo, a pesar del evidente papel protagonista del comportamiento psicológico de los decisores en la TDE, ninguno de los enfoques actuales de TDE han considerado esta cuestión [39, 60, 96, 117, 129, 137]. Por lo tanto, resulta necesario proponer un modelo que sea capaz de tratar los problemas de TDGE de una manera más efectiva y que considere este tipo de cuestiones.
  - ◇ *Indecisión de los expertos en los procesos de TDGE:* La indecisión es un comportamiento común e inevitable en nuestro día a día, y que aparece habitualmente en problemas de TDE debido a su complejidad y a las restricciones de tiempo y donde las decisiones tomadas pueden causar graves pérdidas humanas y/o materiales. Cuando los expertos no poseen los conocimientos necesarios o no están familiarizados con algún aspecto específico del problema, lo habitual es que éstos duden a la hora de proporcionar sus valoraciones u opiniones. A pesar de la evidente importancia de esta cuestión en los problemas de TDE, hasta ahora no ha sido tratada en los actuales enfoques de TDGE [39, 60, 96, 117, 129, 137] . Por lo tanto, resulta un importante y trascendente reto a considerar.
  - ◇ *Agregación de la opinión de los expertos:* Debido a la importancia de la opinión
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de los expertos para tratar con los problemas de decisión de forma exitosa, es necesario manejar la opinión de los mismos de forma rápida, apropiada y conservando la mayor cantidad de conocimiento posible. Existen diversos enfoques de TDGE [123, 124, 126, 127] que presentan diferentes modelos de consenso y métodos que agregan la opinión de los expertos desde diferentes puntos de vista. Sin embargo, existen limitaciones que dichos modelos y métodos no pueden gestionar, como por ejemplo, la pérdida de información en las etapas iniciales del problema de decisión [126, 127], el coste temporal de los modelos de consenso [123, 124] y dominios de información que resultan inadecuados para manejar información difusa [60, 39, 125, 129]. Por lo tanto, obtener resultados de decisión precisos sin un modelo de agregación adecuado para problemas de TDGE es casi imposible.

- ◇ *Evolución dinámica en problemas de TDGE*: Después de llevar a cabo un análisis de los existentes estudios sobre la evolución dinámica en problemas de TDE [53, 107], se detectó que éstos solo consideran los cambios producidos por el paso del tiempo, sin embargo, la evolución de las SEs no solo afecta a los cambios temporales sino también a la información relativa a las propias SEs (alternativas, criterios, etc.). Por lo tanto, la evolución dinámica de las SEs está relacionada con más aspectos que únicamente los cambios temporales, algo habitual en el mundo real y que se debería tener en cuenta en la resolución de estos problemas.
  - ◇ *Tipos de información a tratar en problemas de TDGE*: La información resulta un elemento crucial en cualquier tipo de problema de toma de decisión, y los problemas de TDGE no son una excepción. Los actuales enfoques de TDGE propuestos tratan con información que se representa mediante un único dominio de expresión: valores numéricos [123], valores en intervalos [109] o información lingüística [54]. Sin embargo, la información que rodea a las SEs del mundo real suele ser de diferente naturaleza (numérica, intervalar, lingüística, información dudosa) y diferentes tipos suelen aparecer de forma simultánea. Sin embargo ninguna propuesta actual de TDGE maneja múltiples tipos de información al mismo tiempo.
  - ◇ *Cálculo de la importancia de los criterios en problemas de TDGE*: El cálculo de la importancia de los criterios puede clasificarse en base a tres categorías diferentes, dependiendo del método que se utilice [38, 112]: métodos subjetivos, objetivos e híbridos. Los métodos subjetivos usan las preferencias de un decisor para determinar el peso de los criterios [36, 110]; los métodos objetivos usan una matriz de decisión para determinar los pesos de los cri-
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terios [21, 22]; los métodos híbridos combinan las preferencias de un decisor con una matriz de decisión para determinar la importancia de los criterios [72, 114]. Los métodos subjetivos se usan habitualmente en los estudios de TDE [33, 53, 68, 69, 107, 109], en los cuales se emplea diferentes pesos para los criterios. En SEs realmente complejas, es difícil para el decisor proporcionar pesos razonables para los criterios, particularmente, cuando el decisor se encuentra en situaciones bajo presión y/o duda. Por consiguiente, sería un reto definir una forma más efectiva y adecuada de determinar la importancia de los criterios en problemas de TDGE.

Los retos anteriormente expuestos para problemas de TDGE evidencian que los actuales enfoques de TDE no satisfacen las necesidades que demandan los problemas de TDGE del mundo real, como el *comportamiento psicológico y duda de los expertos*, la *fusión de las opiniones de los expertos*, la *evolución dinámica*, *información heterogénea*, *determinación de la importancia de los criterios*. Por esta razón, en esta memoria de investigación se lleva a cabo una investigación que nos permita superar estos desafíos.

## A.2 Objetivos

Una vez introducidos los retos que plantean los problemas de TDE en la sección anterior, esta investigación se centrará en la superación de dichos retos. Teniendo en mente dicho propósito, se pretende alcanzar 4 objetivos principales:

1. Desarrollar un nuevo enfoque para la TDGE que considere el comportamiento psicológico de los expertos [108] obviado en los recientes estudios. Para ilustrar las ventajas, validez y viabilidad del nuevo método propuesto, dicho enfoque se aplicará a un caso de estudio y se llevará a cabo un análisis comparativo con otros enfoques de TDE existentes.
  2. Definir un nuevo enfoque en cuanto a evolución dinámica para problemas de TDE se refiere que considere, no sólo los cambios temporales, sino también aquellos cambios relativos a la estructura del problema (alternativas, criterios, etc.) y diferentes tipos de incertidumbre. Seguidamente, se propondrá un nuevo enfoque dinámico de TDGE [106] que permita superar las limitaciones en los actuales enfoques de TDGE, incluyendo esta nueva visión de dinamismo e información heterogénea que será aplicada a un problema de toma de decisión basado en una situación de emergencia provocada por una explosión, ilustrando su originalidad, ventajas y validez.
  3. Definir un esquema de TDGE que permita el modelado de diferentes tipos de
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incertidumbre mediante información intervalar, difusa y dudosa. Adicionalmente, se definirá un nuevo modelo de consenso con un bajo coste temporal, que trate las opiniones de los expertos de forma correcta y sea adecuado para tratar información difusa. También se definirá una nueva forma de determinar la importancia de los criterios. Posteriormente, se propondrá un nuevo método de TDGE [105] que trate información heterogénea y busque una solución consensuada en un intervalo corto de tiempo, teniendo en cuenta el comportamiento psicológico de los expertos. Dicha propuesta será aplicada a un caso de estudio real de TDGE para mostrar su validez y funcionamiento.

4. Mejorar la fusión de la información en TDGE y considerar la duda en el comportamiento de los expertos [136] con el objetivo de construir un método de TDGE capaz de obtener mejores resultados gracias a la conservación de una mayor cantidad de información en el proceso de agregación en comparación con los procesos de agregación clásicos. Dicho método de TDGE se aplicará a un problema real de situación de emergencia.

### A.3 Estructura

Para alcanzar los objetivos presentados en la Sección A.2, y teniendo en cuenta el artículo 23, punto 3, de la normativa vigente para los Estudios de Doctorado en la Universidad de Jaén, correspondiente al programa establecido en el RD 99/2011, esta memoria de investigación se presentará como un conjunto de artículos publicados por el estudiante de doctorado.

Tres artículos han sido publicados en revistas internacionales indexadas por la base de datos de JCR (Journal Citation Reports), producida por ISI (Institute for Scientific Information). Otro artículo ha sido publicado en la revista internacional, *Complex Intelligent Systems* indexada en el *Emergency Sources Citation Index*. Por tanto, la memoria se compone de un total de cuatro artículos que han sido publicados en revistas internacionales de reconocido prestigio.

A continuación se hace una breve descripción de la estructura de la memoria:

- ◇ Capítulo 2: Este capítulo revisa conceptos y métodos teóricos (conceptos de toma de decisión, toma de decisión en situaciones de emergencia, teoría de prospectos, el método difuso TODIM y el método difuso TOPSIS, conjuntos difusos dudosos (CDDs), conjuntos de términos lingüísticos difusos dudosos (CTLDD) etc.) que son empleados en nuestras propuestas para alcanzar los diferentes objetivos presentados en la Sección A.2.
  - ◇ Capítulo 3: Este capítulo introduce las propuestas publicadas que forman parte
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de esta memoria de investigación. Cada artículo se introduce de forma breve, además, se presentan una breve discusión de los resultados obtenidos con el objetivo de clarificar los logros alcanzados en nuestra investigación.

- ◊ Capítulo 4: Este capítulo constituye el núcleo de la memoria de investigación, incluyendo un compendio de las publicaciones desarrolladas como resultado de la investigación realizada. Para cada publicación se indican los índices de calidad de las revistas donde las propuestas han sido publicadas.
- ◊ Capítulo 5: Este capítulo expone las conclusiones finales extraídas de esta investigación y propuestas para trabajos futuros.

## A.4 Resumen

Las cada vez más comunes situaciones de emergencia (SEs) que están aconteciendo en los últimos años, han causado numerosas pérdidas y daños (materiales, vidas, medioambientales etc.) que han impactado negativamente en la vida del ser humano y en su desarrollo socio-económico. La Toma de Decisión en situaciones de Emergencia (TDE) es un proceso fundamental a la hora de mitigar y reducir los daños y pérdidas causadas por SEs y en el que un decisor es el responsable de tomar la decisión final. Debido a la importancia de la TD y la TDE a la hora de gestionar de forma exitosa SEs del mundo real, tanto el ámbito académico como el político han mostrando un gran interés en esta temática, convirtiéndose en una importante rama de investigación. Numerosos modelos y métodos se han propuesto para tratar con problemas de TDE, obteniendo satisfactorios resultados. Sin embargo, es innegable que aún existen limitaciones que deben ser estudiadas y retos que deben de ser afrontados como, por ejemplo, el *comportamiento psicológico y duda de los expertos*, la *agregación de las opiniones de los expertos*, *información heterogénea*, la *evolución dinámica* etc. Para lograr superar estos retos, en esta investigación se propone:

1. Un método de toma de decisión en grupo basado en la teoría de prospecto enfocado a situaciones de emergencia. El uso de la teoría de prospecto para la consideración del comportamiento psicológico de los expertos resulta una herramienta útil que podría mejorar la resolución de problemas de TDGE, proporcionando resultados más precisos, ya que es evidente que el comportamiento psicológico de los expertos puede influir de forma directa en las decisiones.
  2. Un método dinámico multi-atributo de toma de decisión en grupo en situaciones de emergencia que considere la vacilación de los expertos a la hora de proporcionar sus opiniones. Este método gestiona la evolución dinámica de SEs
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considerando tanto los cambios producidos a raíz del paso del tiempo como elementos del problema (alternativas, criterios y expertos). Además, este método está preparado para tratar con diferentes tipos de incertidumbre que serán modelados mediante el uso de intervalos, conjuntos de términos lingüísticos y expresiones lingüísticas basadas en conjuntos de términos lingüísticos difusos dudosos. De esta manera, la imprecisión y la falta de información pueden ser gestionadas.

3. Un método para el manejo de información no homogénea y el comportamiento psicológico de los expertos. Se consideran múltiples tipos de información, lo que facilita la labor de los expertos a la hora de dar sus valoraciones y permite obtener información más fiable. Además, el uso de múltiples tipos de información, permite aproximarse más a las SEs del mundo real.
4. Un método de toma de decisión en grupo en situaciones de emergencia que considera la duda de los expertos basado en la teoría de prospectos. Además de los diferentes tipos de incertidumbre y comportamientos psicológicos de los expertos, la duda o vacilación es una constante en nuestra vida diaria y debería ser tratada con propiedad. Este método no solamente trata con el comportamiento psicológico de los expertos, sino que también considera la duda de los mismos y que refleja sus verdaderas sensaciones a la hora de proporcionar sus valoraciones haciendo que los resultados sean más precisos y fiables.

## A.5 Conclusiones y Trabajos Futuros

Esta sección finaliza la memoria de investigación revisando las diferentes conclusiones obtenidas de las diferentes propuestas que se han realizado en las mismas y exponiendo futuras líneas de investigación que podrían iniciarse partiendo de los resultados obtenidos. Finalmente, se indican las publicaciones adicionales derivadas de la investigación realizada.

### A.5.1 Conclusiones

Los problemas de toma de decisión en situaciones de emergencia han visto incrementada su importancia debido a las frecuentes SEs acontecidas en los últimos años que han causado importantes pérdidas humanas y materiales.

Debido a la importancia de la TDE a la hora de mitigar y reducir las posibles pérdidas y daños (materiales, vidas, medioambientales etc.) causadas por las SEs, diferentes investigadores han propuesto numerosos modelos y enfoques orientados a problemas de TDE. Sin embargo, debido a su mayor complejidad y diversidad, los

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actuales problemas de TDE nos hacen afrontar importantes retos relacionados con el manejo de la incertidumbre y el comportamiento de los expertos, junto con una visión más completa de sus dinámicas, entre otros factores.

Por lo tanto, a lo largo de nuestra investigación, hemos obtenido innovadores, destacables y relevantes resultados que permiten no solo superar los retos planteados en la Sección A.2, sino que también nos han proporcionado una nueva visión en la resolución de problemas de TDGE y nuevas oportunidades de investigación para el futuro.

En consecuencia, concluimos que los resultados de nuestra investigación son:

1. La teoría de prospectos (TP) ha resultado ser una herramienta útil para considerar el comportamiento psicológico de los expertos y que mejora la resolución de problemas de TDGE, proporcionando soluciones más precisas, ya que el comportamiento de los expertos tiene una incidencia directa en las soluciones obtenidas. Además, la TP nos muestra como gestionar situaciones en problemas de TDGE donde la presión ejercida sobre los expertos pueden ser realmente alta.
2. La TDE normalmente implica tomar múltiples decisiones a lo largo del tiempo sobre una SE, por lo que la gestión del dinamismo del problema de toma de decisión ha sido un reto, sobre todo teniendo en cuenta que previamente solamente había sido estudiada en base a los cambios de valoraciones producidos a lo largo del tiempo. Sin embargo, esta memoria ha mostrado que otros elementos de la TDE pueden evolucionar y deben ser considerados para alcanzar resultados más precisos y exhaustivos en la evolución dinámica de la TDE.
3. La complejidad de las SEs y problemas de TDE podrían implicar la gestión de múltiples tipos de incertidumbre. Por lo tanto, el desarrollo de esquemas de TDE capaces de tratar con múltiples tipos de información hace más flexible y fiable la recopilación de información con el objetivo de alcanzar mejores soluciones, como se muestra en los resultados presentados.
4. Entre los diferentes tipos de incertidumbre que se podrían manejar en la TDE, es innegable que la duda o vacilación de los expertos debe de ser considerada. Por lo tanto, se han introducido diferentes modelos y herramientas para tratar este tipo de incertidumbre.

### A.5.2 Trabajos Futuros

A pesar de los métodos, herramientas y enfoques que se han propuesto en esta investigación, aún existen retos que afrontar y analizar en problemas de TDE y TDGE.

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En un futuro no muy lejano, nos centraremos en la ampliación de las propuestas presentadas y en el estudio de soluciones para nuevos problemas:

1. La integración de nuestros modelos en un sistema de soporte a la decisión que facilite el uso de nuestros resultados en la gestión de la TDG en el mundo real.
2. El estudio de modelos de decisión guiado por datos que faciliten, automaticen y mejoren los actuales modelos de TDE.
3. Finalmente, y como meta más ambiciosa, la integración de dispositivos IoT, modelos guiados por datos y nuestro sistema de soporte a la decisión en situaciones de emergencia en una única solución más completa e híbrida que sirva de apoyo a los decisores en el ámbito de la TDE.

**Publicaciones adicionales** En relación a la difusión y publicación de los resultados presentados, además de las publicaciones presentadas en esta memoria, destacamos las siguientes aportaciones:

- Revistas Internacionales
    - L. Wang, Z. X. Zhang, Y. M. Wang. A prospect theory-based interval dynamic reference point method for emergency decision making. *Expert Systems with Applications*, vol. 42, issue 23, pp. 9379-9388, 2015.
    - Z. X. Zhang, L. Wang, Y. M. Wang. An emergency decision making method based on prospect-theory for different emergency situations. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Science*, vol. 9, issue 3, pp. 407-420, 2018.
    - L. Chen, Y. M. Wang, L. Wang. Congestion measurement under different policy objectives: an analysis of Chinese industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 112, issue 1, pp. 2943-2952, 2016.
    - J. F. Chu, X. W. Liu, L. Wang, Y. M. Wang. A group decision making approach based on newly defined additively consistent interval-valued intuitionistic preference relations. *International Journal of Fuzzy Systems*, vol. 20, issue 3, pp. 1027-1046, 2018.
    - Z. L. Wang, Y. M. Wang, L. Wang. Tri-level multi-attribute group decision making based on regret theory in multi-granular linguistic contexts. *Journal of Intelligent and Fuzzy Systems*, vol. 35, issue 1, pp. 793-806, 2018.
  - Congresos Internacionales
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- L. Wang, Y. M. Wang, R. M. Rodríguez, L. Martínez. A hesitant fuzzy linguistic model for emergency decision making based on fuzzy TODIM method. 2017 IEEE International Conference on Fuzzy Systems, IEEE-FUZZ 2017, July 9, 2017 - July 12, 2017. Naples, Italy.



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