Bipolar and Bivariate Models in Multicriteria Decision Analysis: Descriptive and Constructive Approaches

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Multicriteria decision analysis studies decision problems in which the alternatives are evaluated on several dimensions or viewpoints. In the problems we consider in this article, the scales used for assessing the alternatives with respect to a viewpoint are bipolar and univariate or unipolar and bivariate. In the former case, the scale is divided in two zones by a neutral point; a positive feeling is associated to the zone above the neutral point and a negative feeling to the zone below this point. On unipolar bivariate scales, an alternative can receive both a positive evaluation and a negative evaluation, reflecting contradictory feelings or stimuli. The article discusses procedures and models that have been proposed to aggregate multicriteria evaluations when the scale of each criterion is of one of these two types. We present both a constructive view and a descriptive view on this question; the descriptive approach is concerned with characterizations of models of preference, whereas the constructive approach aims at building preferences by questioning the decision maker. We show that these views are complementary. © 2008 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

1. INTRODUCTION

Multicriteria decision aid (or support) is concerned with the process of helping a decision maker (henceforth DM) understand a decision problem and clarify his preferences; helping him is required since the decision is obscured by the presence of several objectives and the fact that the alternatives show contrasted behavior with respect to these objectives. The alternatives are usually described by their evaluation on a set of attributes; the latter are selected in such a way as to provide a description of the alternatives in all the aspects that are relevant for the decision that has to be made. Very often, at some stage of the process, each alternative has been associated with a vector, the coordinates of which represent the assessments of the alternative on a set of criteria that encode the objectives of the DM. A crucial technical operation at this stage consists in producing a synthesis of the various aspects relevant to the

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decision; this is often called *aggregation*. The result of this operation may take different forms; it can be an evaluation of each alternative on a supercriterion; it can also be a relation on the set of alternatives, a pair of alternatives being in the relation if the comparison of the performances of both elements of the pair on the relevant criteria shows that the first element should be preferred over the second one.

The points of view on which the alternatives have been assessed may often be considered as being bipolar; for instance, there may exist a natural neutral point on the evaluation scale associated to the criteria; above this “zero” lies the zone of evaluations corresponding to a good performance, and below the zone corresponding to bad performance. Taking into account the bipolar nature of the scale often amounts to treating the good and the bad performances differently.

An example of the considered situation is the evaluation of a car on the basis of features such as maximum speed, acceleration, fuel consumption, price, and so on. From a psychological viewpoint, these features constitute a set of stimuli that combine to form the DM’s preferences on the set of alternatives. From the decision analysis point of view, these features are the attributes on which a comprehensive evaluation is based. Modeling the DM’s preferences on each attribute amounts to translating the effect of the stimulus into a level on the scale associated to the corresponding criterion. The simplest way to do so is to consider a *unipolar scale* on which it is not possible to identify a reference point separating positive and negative evaluations. A *bipolar scale* is appropriate when the DM is able to say whether he perceives each alternative positively or negatively with respect to each viewpoint; for each criterion, we have either a positive or a negative evaluation on a bipolar but univariate scale. In this case, the positive or the negative sign of the evaluation derives from the comparison with a neutral reference point, such that all the values over the reference point are considered positive and all the values under the reference point are considered negative. For example, if we consider the maximum speed of a car, the reference neutral level can be 150 km/h. In this case, a maximum speed of more than 150 km/h is considered positive, whereas a maximum speed of less than 150 km/h is considered negative.

In some cases, a DM might be unable to make a synthesis of possibly contradictory stimuli relative to a single viewpoint, which leads to using two scales for the evaluation of the alternatives on such a viewpoint: one for the positive stimulus and one for the negative stimulus associated to the same alternative. In a *bivariate context*, one can consider two different reference points, one for the positive values and another for the negative ones. Coming back to the example of the car, a maximum speed of 120 km/h can be considered as an undesirable level, whereas a maximum speed of 180 km/h is a desirable level. Now, consider a car with a maximum speed of 150 km/h. In this case, we have both a positive evaluation, because the maximum speed is more than the lower level of 120 km/h, and a negative evaluation, because the maximum speed is less than the higher level of 180 km/h. In case the DM is not able to make a synthesis of the good and the bad aspects on each viewpoint, two evaluations are needed for each criterion: one related to the positive part and another to the negative part.

Also with respect to the comprehensive evaluation, one can consider a unipolar setting, a bipolar setting, or a bivariate setting. In a unipolar setting, for each
alternative $x$, there is only one comprehensive evaluation $CE(x)$ and it is not meaningful to distinguish between positive and negative comprehensive evaluations. In a bipolar setting, there is only one $CE(x)$, but it is meaningful to distinguish between a positive $CE(x) > 0$, a negative $CE(x) < 0$, or a neutral $CE(x) = 0$. Nevertheless, in a bipolar setting, it is not possible to decompose the comprehensive evaluation $CE(x)$ as the net result of the aggregation of a comprehensive positive evaluation and a negative comprehensive evaluation. In a bivariate setting, there are two evaluation axes, one for a comprehensive positive evaluation and the other for a comprehensive negative evaluation. Therefore, for each alternative $x$, the evaluations with respect to the considered criteria are aggregated in a comprehensive positive evaluation $CPE(x)$, a comprehensive negative evaluation $CNE(x)$, and a comprehensive final evaluation $CE(x)$ resulting from a further aggregation of $CPE(x)$ and $CNE(x)$, representing the final net evaluation.

In this article, we mainly examine procedures and models that have been proposed for aggregating multicriteria information when the scales of the criteria are viewed as bipolar and univariate or unipolar and bivariate.

Two different approaches exist for analyzing aggregation procedures. One is the so-called descriptive approach that tries to model the observed behavior of DMS. It states conditions under which a preference can be represented in a given family of models. Relying on such results, it proposes methods for eliciting the parameters of a particular model in a specific family of models. The second approach is called constructive. It proposes procedures for building a preference relation taking into account the available information. In Section 2, we briefly review the notion of a bipolar scale as a scale of evaluation of alternatives relatively to a particular point of view (criterion); we distinguish two ways of representing bipolarity: the bipolar univariate model and the (unipolar) bivariate model. Section 3 analyzes, in a descriptive perspective, the notion of bipolarity in a variety of preference models; models for the aggregation of bivariate scales are also described. In Section 4, we present a number of procedures for constructing a preference based on assessments on bipolar univariate scales. Section 5 offers a broad view on all the models that can be thought of to describe preferences resulting from the aggregation of bivariate scales associated to criteria; the case where the global or the comprehensive evaluation itself is bivariate is also envisaged. The article ends with some comments on the complementary views brought by both the descriptive and the constructive approaches.

## 2. Bipolar Scales in Multicriteria Decision Analysis

In this section, we describe two ways of modeling the preferences of a DM on a criterion, taking into account the bipolar nature of the affect.

### 2.1. Two Possible Models

Many experiments in psychology have shown that our way of evaluating alternatives, objects, and making decision is guided by affect. According to Slovic, affect
is the “specific quality of ‘goodness’ and ‘badness,’ as it is felt consciously or not by the decision maker, and demarcating a positive or negative quality of stimulus.” This definition clearly reflects the bipolar nature of the affect, since it is built on two opposite poles (good/bad, positive/negative). Hence, the way we represent quantities on a scale in a given model of decision making, such as scores, preferences, etc., should reflect this bipolar nature. Measurement theory\(^2\),\(^3\) introduces scales as homomorphisms between a set of objects of interest equipped with some (e.g., binary) relation \(\succeq\) and the set of real numbers equipped with another relation \(\geq\) (e.g., the usual order). However, the distinction between bipolar scales and unipolar scales (i.e., with only one pole, which could be either positive or negative) is not considered in this theory.

There are basically two ways of representing a bipolar notion on a scale: the bipolar univariate model, called Type I\(^4\), and the unipolar bivariate model, called Type II\(^5\). Scales of Type I consist of a single axis with a central 0 value, ranging from negative to positive values (see Figure 1). On this scale, the intensity of the affect is encoded by a number greater than 0 if it is felt as good or positive in some sense and smaller than 0 if it is felt as bad or negative. The central 0 value is used to encode the neutral affect, which is neither good nor bad. More recently, the tendency is to use the unipolar bivariate model introduced by Cacioppo et al.\(^5\) As shown in Figure 2, this model uses two independent unipolar scales bounded below by 0. The horizontal axis encodes the intensity of the positive affect, whereas the vertical axis encodes the negative affect. Hence, one can have independent components for both the positive and the negative parts of the affect. The motivation for such a model is that a subject may feel at the same time for a given object (alternative etc.) a positive feeling and a negative one. Yet, the subject does not have a resulting feeling, which would be in some sense the summation of both. For example, eating chocolate gives some gustative pleasure (positive affect), while the subject may feel some greediness (negative affect).\(^a\)

\(^a\) See however Section 4. A closer analysis of this example shows that it is better modelized in a multicriteria framework, that is, gustative pleasure and greediness (we may also speak of “effect on diet”) are considered as two criteria, each one being evaluated on a scale that is bipolar univariate.
Coming back to the definition of the affect, besides the notion of poles, another important notion that is characteristic of the affect—and indeed a consequence of the presence of two opposite poles—is the notion of neutral level. The neutral level is the point where the two sides (negative, positive) of the axis meet, that is, it is the point that is felt by the DM with neither a positive nor a negative affect. Formally, let us consider a set $A$ of objects and some binary relation $\succeq$ on $A$, expressing, for example, the preference of a DM. We assume that $\succeq$ is reflexive, complete, and transitive. We consider a numerical scale $f : (A, \succeq) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \geq)$, that is, an order-preserving function. A neutral level is an object in $A$ denoted by 0 such that for each object $a \in A$, if $a \succeq 0$, then $a$ is considered as “good” by the DM (positive affect), and if $a \preceq 0$, then $a$ is considered as “bad” (negative affect). Usually, we set $f(0) = 0$, which means that the value 0 on the scale represents the neutral level.

Our definition of a neutral level is rooted in the notion of affect, and so always corresponds to the frontier between two paired and opposite notions of natural language related to the affect. Hence, a neutral level exists in particular with the following examples of binary relations: “more attractive than,” “better than,” and “preferred than,” whose corresponding opposite pairs are respectively “attraction/repulsion,” “good/bad,” and “like and dislike.” On the contrary, the relations “more permitted than,” and “more prioritary than” are not related to affect, and thus have no neutral level in our sense (although they may have in another context, such as logic).

Another interesting feature of scales is boundedness. We say that a scale is bounded above (resp. below) if there exists an object $a$ such that $a \succeq a$ for every $a \in A$ (resp. there exists $a$ such that $a \preceq a$ for every $a \in A$). If a unipolar scale is bounded below, which is most often the case, we denote the lower bound by $0$, and we usually set $f(0) = 0$. When an upper bound exists for a scale (unipolar or bipolar), we may denote it by 1 and set $f(1) = 1$. In the rest of the article, the lower bound of a bipolar scale is denoted by $-1$ when it exists, and we set $f(-1) = -1$. In the previous examples, relations “more attractive than,” “better than,” “preferred than,” and “more prioritary than” are not bounded since it is always possible to find something more attractive, or better, or preferred to, or more prioritary than a given object. Besides, relation “more permitted than” is bounded, with greatest element “completely permitted.”

### 2.3. Net Prediposition and the Cumulative Prospect Theory Model

Let us consider a unipolar bivariate model, taking as illustration the “chocolate example.” We said that the subject feels at the same time a negative affect and or possibly only unipolar univariate. Indeed, “gustative pleasure” has a neutral level corresponding to the absence of taste, and two poles that could be called “delicious” and “disgusting, inedible.” Greediness in this context may be considered as unipolar, whereas “effect on diet” is bipolar with a neutral level separating good effects from bad effects. A good argument to be convinced that the chocolate example is not suited to unipolar bivariate scales is to replace “chocolate” by “steamed brocoli.” Many people do not consider steamed brocoli as giving a gustative pleasure, but everybody agrees that it is good for diet.
a positive affect, without mixing them in a kind of overall resulting feeling. The simultaneous presence of positive and negative affects makes any decision difficult. Suppose now that the subject is forced to act, for example, he must decide whether to buy or not to buy some chocolate in a shop or to order or not to order some desert with chocolate in a restaurant. Then, the subject resolves the ambiguity caused by the presence of positive and negative affects by mapping them on to a bipolar univariate scale. The resulting feeling is called the net predisposition. Then, if no other factor can influence the decision, the subject will act according to the position of the net predisposition with respect to the neutral level of the scale.

Experiments in psychology have shown that the net predisposition has a typical shape when represented as a function of the positive and negative affects (see Figure 3). One can remark that the slope is steeper on the negative part, since in general the negative affect has more weight than the positive affect. This is clearly shown by point A, where both positive and negative affects have their maximal value, but the net predisposition is strictly negative.

Cumulative Prospect Theory (CPT) introduced by Tversky and Kahnemann is an example of decision-making model computing a net predisposition in a simple way. This model is detailed in Section 4 and is expressed as follows:

\[
\text{CPT}(f) := C_{\mu_1}(f^+) - C_{\mu_2}(f^-),
\]

where \( f \) is a function expressing scores, \( f^+, f^- \) being their positive and negative parts, and \( C_{\mu_i} \) is a function aggregating scores into an overall score. Hence, \( C_{\mu_1}(f^+) \) represents the intensity of positive affect, whereas \( C_{\mu_2}(f^-) \) represents the negative one, and the net predisposition is simply computed as a difference of the two parts. This is represented in Figure 4. Note that this model is a very simple example of net predisposition and does not exhibit a steeper slope for the negative part.
3. A DESCRIPTIVE APPROACH BASED ON CONJOINT MEASUREMENT

As anticipated in the introduction, the descriptive approach to MCDM, is a behaviorist one: it aims to describe the behavior of a DM facing a decision problem. The only thing that can actually be observed is the preference that the DM expresses by choosing an object instead of another. This preference is usually represented by a relation on a set of objects (alternatives) and constitutes the main primitive of the theory. The role of the models is to relate the observable preference of the DM to a description of the objects in terms of their attributes. The conditions under which a model is applicable are formulated in terms of properties of the preference; they may thus be tested in practical situations by asking the DM whether he prefers or not some alternative over another alternative (most of the time, the compared alternatives are chosen in such a way that some answers or sequences of answers imply that a property is not satisfied, and, consequently, lead to reject the model).

3.1. The Additive Value Function Model

Suppose that in a given context, the alternatives can be described by means of $n$ relevant attributes; an alternative is thus well represented by a vector $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, where $x_i$ describes the alternative on attribute $i$; $x_i$ ranges in a set $X_i$, which we call the domain of attribute $i$. The set of all attributes is denoted by $N = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. The set $X_i$ can be a set of numbers but it can also be a set of labels, ordered (e.g., “bad,” “average,” “good”) or unstructured (i.e., nominal labels). A preference $\succsim$ is supposed to be a relation that contains all pairs $(x, y)$ of alternatives (each of them corresponding to a $n$-dimensional vector) such that the DM would choose $x$ rather than $y$. Any combination of levels in $X_i$ is supposed to correspond to an alternative, so that the set of all alternatives $X$ can be identified with the Cartesian product $\prod_{i=1}^{n} X_i$. The following notation is useful in the sequel; let $a = (a_1, \ldots, a_i, \ldots, a_n)$ be any alternative; we denote by $a_{-i}$ the $n - 1$
components vector having the same components as \( a \) except on the \( i \)th dimension that is lacking; \( X_{-i} \) is the set of all such vectors. We denote by \((x_i, a_{-i})\) the alternative \((a_1, \ldots, x_i, \ldots, a_n)\), which is obtained from \( a \) by substituting its \( i \)th component value by a level \( x_i \in X_i \). In the same spirit, for any subset of attributes \( I \subset N \), we denote by \( a_I \) (resp. \( a_{-I} \)) the vector of components of \( a \) corresponding to the attributes in \( I \) (resp. in the complement \(-I\) of \( I \) in \( N \)); \((x_I, a_{-I})\) is thus the alternative that has the same evaluations as \( x \) on the attributes in \( I \) and the same evaluations as \( a \) on the attributes that do not belong to \( I \).

The model of preferences that is dominant is the **additive value function model**. A preference \( \succcurlyeq \) on \( X \) is representable in the additive value function model (also called additive utility model) if there are functions \( u_i : X_i \to \mathbb{R} \) such that

\[
x \succcurlyeq y \iff \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i(x_i) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i(y_i). \tag{1}
\]

Sufficient conditions on \( \succcurlyeq \) are known from the literature, guaranteeing that a preference is representable in this model.\(^2\,8\,9\) Some necessary conditions are obvious, among which the fact that \( \succcurlyeq \) must be a weak order (a reflexive, complete, and transitive relation) and that \( \succcurlyeq \) must fulfill the full preference independence property, that is, for all \( x, y, a, b \) in \( X \) and for all subsets of attributes \( I \):

\[
(x_I, a_{-I}) \succcurlyeq (y_I, a_{-I}) \implies (x_I, b_{-I}) \succcurlyeq (y_I, b_{-I}). \tag{2}
\]

The particular case in which \( I \) is a single attribute \( \{i\} \) gives rise to the property known as weak preference independence, that is, for all \( x, y, a, b \) in \( X \) and for all attribute \( i \in N \):

\[
(x_i, a_{-i}) \succcurlyeq (y_i, a_{-i}) \implies (x_i, b_{-i}) \succcurlyeq (y_i, b_{-i}). \tag{3}
\]

Preference independence allows for ceteris paribus reasoning. This implies in particular when preferences are supposed to be weak orders that the functions \( u_i \) in model (1) are numerical representations of relations \( \succcurlyeq_i \) on \( X_i \) called marginal preferences and defined by:

\[
x_i \succcurlyeq_i y_i \iff \forall a_{-i} \in X_{-i}, (x_i, a_{-i}) \succcurlyeq (y_i, a_{-i}). \tag{4}
\]

A typical result in conjoint measurement is the following (see Krantz et al.\(^2\) Theorem 13, p. 302) for additional definitions and proof).

**Theorem 1.** *Let \( \succcurlyeq \) be a relation on the Cartesian product \( X = \prod_{i=1}^{n} X_i \), with \( n \geq 3 \). If \( \succcurlyeq \) is an independent weak order that satisfies two additional conditions (restricted solvability and an Archimedean property) and provided the preference \( \succcurlyeq \) is nondegenerated (at least three components are “essential”), then there exist*
real-valued functions $u_i$ on $X_i$ such that for all $x, y \in X$,

$$x \succneq y \iff \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i(x_i) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i(y_i).$$

Moreover, the functions $u_i$ are unique up to a positive affine transformation, that is, if $u'_i$ is another such family of functions, then there exist numbers $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for $i \in N$, such that:

$$u'_i = \alpha u_i + \beta_i.$$

The practical interest of such results is that they provide a sound basis to the elicitation process of the model: in the present case, the independence hypothesis allows us to look for pairs of indifferent alternatives that differ only on two dimensions (all their other levels being equal) and this leads to building the $u_i$ functions used in the model; once these functions have been obtained, we know that we have found the “right” ones since Theorem 1 states that they are (essentially) unique.\(^b\)

### 3.2. Bipolarity in the Additive Value Model

It should first be noted that formulating a bipolarity property in a conjoint measurement (descriptive) approach is not straightforward. Why is it so? Because in the models alluded to above, no a priori structure, not even an ordering, is postulated on the attributes scales $X_i$; the structure on $X_i$ is eventually induced by the preference relation $\succneq$ on $X$. For example, in the additive value model (1), $\succneq$ induces a marginal preference relation $\succneq_i$ on $X_i$; the marginal preference orders the levels of the set $X_i$ that may initially be linguistic labels. If bipolarity is to be considered relevant in a descriptive model, it must be revealed by, for instance, the marginal preferences or, in other terms, it must be “contained” in the global preference $\succneq$.

In the additive value model (1) for instance, a form of bipolarity, namely, bipolar univariate scales, can possibly be detected in the articulation of a pre-existing structure on the scales $X_i$ with the marginal preferences. Consider the following example. Suppose that $X_i$ is the set $\mathbb{R}$ of the real numbers. Suppose further that the elicitation process of the preference $\succneq$ of the DM yields an additive value model in which function $u_i : (X_i = \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is shaped as illustrated in Figure 5. The piece of the graph corresponding to positive values of $x_i$ is not symmetric to that corresponding to negative values with respect to the origin; in other words, $u_i$ is not an odd function. This dissymmetry of $u_i$ w.r.t. $x_i = 0$ can be interpreted as revealing that the scale is bipolar: a distortion in the a priori ordering of the real numbers is needed to correctly reflect the DM’s marginal preferences on $X_i$ (this is similar to the modeling of the

\(^b\) This is the main result on which relies the elicitation method using the so-called standard sequences.\(^{11}\)
attitude of the DM in decision making under risk: risk prone in case of gains; risk averse in case of losses; see, e.g., Raiffa\cite{Raiffa10}).

This simple example prompts two observations:

- There is room for bipolarity in the context of the additive value model but this supposes taking into account some pre-existing structure on the scales of the attributes.
- Bipolarity is related to an interpretation of the relationship between marginal preferences and an a priori structure on the scale; this interpretation focuses on the behavior of the marginal preference above and below a “special point” of the scale.

### 3.2.1. Pre-existing Structure on $X_i$

In the example above, we supposed that $X_i = \mathbb{R}$. Which features of the pre-existing structure on $X_i$ make it possible to interpret the link with the marginal preference $\succeq_i$ as a manifestation of bipolarity? The ingredients needed are the following:

- $X_i$ has to be an ordered set; let $\succeq_i$ denote the order on $X_i$; this a priori structure is supposed to be “compatible” with marginal preferences $\succeq_i$, that is, if $x_i \succeq_i y_i$, one should not have $y_i >_i x_i$ otherwise the a priori structure would be unrelated to the marginal preference;
- we need a “breakpoint” that separates $X_i$ in two subsets $X_i^-$ and $X_i^+$. Denoting the breakpoint by $0_i$ (it is actually the number 0 that plays this role in our example), we call
  - $X_i^-$ the set of levels $x_i < 0_i$,
  - $X_i^+$ the set of levels $x_i > 0_i$;
- finally, we need a bijective application $\tau_i : X_i^+ \rightarrow X_i^-$ associating levels above and below $0_i$ by pairs; this application has to be antitone w.r.t. the order $\succeq_i$, which means that for all $x_i, y_i \in X_i^+$,
  \[
  x_i \succeq_i y_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tau_i(y_i) \succeq_i \tau_i(x_i). \tag{5}
  \]
Using the inverse $\tau_i^{-1}$, we may extend $\tau_i$ to be defined on $X_i^-$: for $x_i \in X_i^-$, we define $\tau_i(x_i)$ as being $\tau_i^{-1}(x_i)$, which makes $\tau_i$ an involution on $X_i^- \cup X_i^+$. The fixed point of this involution is $0$. In other words, $\tau_i$ is the formalization of a symmetry of $X_i$ w.r.t. 0, and we shall refer to it as such; the symmetric $\tau_i(x_i)$ of a level $x_i$ on scale $X_i$ is denoted by $x_i^\tau$, for short.

**Remark.** It can happen in practice that $|X_i^+| \neq |X_i^-|$. Such a case is a priori not compatible with the existence of a symmetry $\tau_i$ unless $X_i^+$ and $X_i^-$ can be augmented by adding the “mirror levels” of $X_i^-$ and $X_i^+$, respectively; this requires that the DM must be able to tell where he would locate the “mirror level” $\tau_i(x_i^+)$ corresponding to any $x_i^+ \in X_i^+$ in between levels of the scale $X_i^+$, and conversely, for the mirror levels $\tau_i(x_i^-)$. This leads finally to working with the augmented level sets $\tilde{X}_i^+ = X_i^+ \cup \tau_i(X_i^-)$ and $\tilde{X}_i^- = X_i^- \cup \tau_i(X_i^+)$ on which the involution, or symmetry, $\tau_i$ is well defined.

### 3.2.2. Using Bipolarity for Elicitation Purposes

If we know (or assume) that the symmetry of the scale is linked with the marginal preferences, this can help in the elicitation of $u_i$. The most favorable case is of course when function $u_i$ can be assumed to be antisymmetric w.r.t. the zero of the scale $0$, that is, when

$$u_i(x_i^\tau) = -u_i(x_i). \quad (6)$$

In the antisymmetric case, it suffices to elicit $u_i$, for instance, on the positive part of the scale, $X_i^+$, and to extend $u_i$ to the negative part, $X_i^-$, using (6) (the dashed curve on Figure 6). Note that, in this case, there is no “distortion of the preference” around 0. The shape of the preference on the “negative consequences” is the mirror image of that on the “positive consequences” (see Figure 6); distortion is not necessary for bipolarity.

![Figure 6](https://example.com/figure6.png)

**Figure 6.** Bipolar univariate scale without distortion.
In case the antisymmetry of \( u_i \) cannot be postulated, the benefits are more tiny yet they exist. The gain of complexity in the elicitation process is reduced since \( u_i \) has to be built on both parts of the scale. However, knowing in advance whether \( u_i(x_i^T) \geq -u_i(x_i) \) or, on the contrary, \( u_i(x_i^T) < -u_i(x_i) \), reduces both the cognitive effort of the DM and the risk of errors in his answers. This case is illustrated in Figure 7; having elicited \( u_i \) on the positive part \( X_{i+} \), we use the symmetric image of the curve (the dashed line) to serve as a reference curve in the elicitation of \( u_i \) on the negative part \( X_{i-} \).

From the descriptive point of view adopted in this section, there is nevertheless a theoretical difficulty: the antisymmetry of \( u_i \) must be expressed in terms of preference relations. This is not possible in terms of marginal preferences, but requires the definition of relations on marginal preference differences. Let us denote by \( \succeq_i^* \) the relation induced by \( \succeq_i \) on \( X_{i+}^2 \), which allows us to compare preference differences between pairs of levels of \( X_i \); its formal definition is as follows:

\[
(x_i, y_i) \succeq_i^* (z_i, w_i) \iff \forall a_{-i}, b_{-i} \in X_{-i}, \quad (z_i, a_{-i}) \succeq (w_i, b_{-i}) \Rightarrow (x_i, a_{-i}) \succeq (y_i, b_{-i}).
\]  

From this relation, we define another one \( \succeq_i^{**} \) that establishes a connection between a difference of preference \( (x_i, y_i) \) and the “opposite” difference \( (y_i, x_i) \):

\[
(x_i, y_i) \succeq_i^{**} (z_i, w_i) \iff (x_i, y_i) \succeq_i^* (z_i, w_i) \text{ and } (w_i, z_i) \succeq_i^* (y_i, x_i).
\]

The antisymmetric condition (6) could be expressed by: for all \( x_i \in X_i \),

\[
(\emptyset_i, x_i) \sim_i^{**} (x_i^T, \emptyset_i),
\]
where $\sim_{i}^{**}$ denotes the symmetric part of the relation $\succsim_{i}^{**}$. In words, (9) expresses that the differences $(0, x_i)$ and $(x_i', 0)$ are equal in terms of preference.

This formalism can of course be also used for expressing that differences of preference are not equal. However, there may be a way—provided $X_i$ has sufficient richness—to turn $u_i$ into an antisymmetric function. Provided a form of solvability is satisfied, for all $x_i$, we can find a level $x'_i$ in $X_i$ such that the difference of preference between $0$ and $x_i$ is perceived as equal to that between $x'_i$ and $0$. Then, defining (or redefining) $\tau_i$ by putting $x'_i = x_i'$ yields a bipolar scale on $X_i$ that satisfies (9).

If this type of “pre-processing” can be performed (in a reliable manner), we need to elicit only marginal preferences (or the functions $u_i$) on either the positive or the negative part of the corresponding scale.

### 3.3. The Nonstrict Decomposable Model

Clearly, the type of bipolarity considered in the framework of the additive value model corresponds to the bipolar univariate model (see Section 2.1). To deal with other forms of bipolarity and to take into account other models, we introduce in this section a wider framework, the (nonstrict) decomposable value function model. Certain preferences that are described in Section 4 do not admit a representation in the additive value model. Consider for instance the following procedure for comparing vectors of $\mathbb{R}^n$ using the “min” operator, that is,

$$x \succsim y \iff \min_{i \in N} x_i \geq \min_{i \in N} y_i. \tag{10}$$

The resulting preference is not independent. Indeed, let $x = (5, 6, 7)$ and $y = (4, 6, 7)$; we have $x \succsim y$ and $Not[y \succsim x]$; if we change the levels in common between $x$ and $y$, namely, 6 and 7, respectively, into 3 and 7, then $x' = (5, 3, 7) \sim y' = (4, 3, 7)$ since $\min_{i \in N} x'_i = 3 = \min_{i \in N} y'_i$. Condition (2) is not satisfied since we have $y' \succsim x'$ but not $y \succsim x$; ceteris paribus reasoning is not permitted. In reality, the “min” satisfies a weaker form of independence: a strict preference cannot be transformed into the opposite strict preference only by changing common levels; strict preference can be changed only into indifference. This weak form of independence is called separability.13–15 A preference $\succsim$ is separable if for all $x, y, a, b$ in $X$ and for all set of attributes $I$: 

$$(x_I, a_{-I}) \succ (y_I, a_{-I}) \implies Not[(y_I, b_{-I}) \succ (x_I, b_{-I})]]. \tag{11}$$

To deal with such preferences, we have to widen the range of models that we consider. A rather general family is the nonstrict decomposable model (NSDM), introduced (in its strict form) in Krantz et al.2 A preference $\succsim$ is representable in the NSDM...
if there are functions $u_i : X_i \to \mathbb{R}$ and a nondecreasing function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ such that:

$$x \succeq y \iff F(u_1(x_1), \ldots, u_n(x_n)) \geq F(u_1(y_1), \ldots, u_n(y_n)).$$

(12)

One verifies directly that such a preference is separable; it is independent as soon as $F$ is an increasing function (instead of a nondecreasing one); the case in which $F$ is increasing corresponds to the decomposable model²; we call it here the strict decomposable model. Obviously, the additive value model is a particular case of (strict) decomposable preference in which $F$ is the sum of its arguments.

In the NSDM, the $u_i$’s do not represent marginal preferences but more refined relations that are called marginal traces.¹⁴ The marginal trace $\succsim^\pm_i$ on $X_i$ is defined by:

$$x_i \succsim^\pm_{i} y_i \iff \begin{cases} 
\forall a_{-i} \in X_{-i}, b \in X, 
(y_i, a_{-i}) \succeq b \Rightarrow (x_i, a_{-i}) \succeq b \\
b \succsim (x_i, a_{-i}) \Rightarrow b \succsim (y_i, a_{-i}).
\end{cases}$$

(13)

In the (nonstrict) decomposable model, marginal traces are weak orders that refine the marginal preferences, that is, $x_i \succsim^\pm_{i} y_i$ implies $x_i \succeq_{i} y_i$; the $u_i$ functions can be chosen to be numerical representations of the marginal traces $\succsim^\pm_i$.

The NSDM is general enough to encompass the models that are analyzed in Section 4 since it can be proved that any separable preference that is a weak order can be represented in model (12) (see Bouyssou and Pirlot,¹⁴ Proposition 8, for more detail)

Note that there is considerably more freedom in the choice of $F$ and $u_i$ than it was the case with the additive value model. If $F$ and $u_i$ can be used for representing a preference $\succeq$ in the NSDM, one can apply increasing transformations to each of the $u_i$’s and to $F$ independently and use the resulting functions to represent the same preference $\succeq$ in the NSDM. In more specific models, within the framework of NSDM, one may however hope for stronger uniqueness properties of the representation.

### 3.3.1. Bipolarity and the NSDM

What has been said about bipolarity (more precisely about bipolar univariate scales) in the additive value model remains essentially valid with the NSDM. Marginal preferences have to be substituted by marginal traces and the $u_i$ functions represent the latter. Because the presence of bipolarity on (some of) the scales $X_i$ might help in the elicitation of the $u_i$’s provided, we can assume some relationship between the pre-existing bipolar structure on $X_i$ and the marginal traces $\succsim^\pm_{i}$.

However, an important difference exists that is linked with the (lack of) uniqueness properties of the representation in NSDM. In the additive value model, the $u_i$’s are essentially unique (determined up to a positive affine transformation, see Theorem 1), whereas in NSDM, any representation of the weak order $\succsim^\pm_{i}$ can do

International Journal of Intelligent Systems DOI 10.1002/int
and these are determined up to an *increasing* transformation. This has the following consequence. Suppose that a preference on a product of bipolar scales has a representation in the NSDM with \( u_i \) satisfying (6); this is by no means the unique one and, in particular, for any increasing transformation applied to \( u_i \) and yielding \( u'_i \), there is a representation using \( u'_i \); in general, \( u'_i \) does not satisfy (6). So, in view of exploiting the bipolarity, one may be interested in representations within a model—for instance, the NSDM, or a family that particularizes the NSDM—that satisfy additional constraints such as (6).

We emphasize that satisfying (6) is not a necessary condition for a representation of \( \succsim \) in NSDM, even when \( \succsim \) satisfies (9). Formally, from a descriptive point of view, respecting the bipolarity information could be translated into the following conditions expressed in terms of \( \succsim \) and its derived relations \( \succsim_{\tilde{=}^i} \) and \( \succsim_{**}^i \):

\[
\begin{align*}
x_i \geq_i y_i & \Rightarrow x_i \succsim_{\tilde{=}^i} y_i \quad (14) \\
(0_i, x_i) & \sim_{**}^i (x_i^*, 0_i) \quad (15)
\end{align*}
\]

For satisfying these requirements, it is not necessary in the NSDM to impose that

\[
u_i(0_i) - u_i(x_i) = u_i(x_i^*) - u_i(0_i). \quad (16)\]

Indeed, if there is a representation of a preference \( \succsim \) within the NSDM that respects the bipolar information (14, 15) and in addition satisfies (16), then there are also other representations of the same preference that do not satisfy (16): namely, most of those obtained through applying an increasing transformation to the \( u_i \)'s; since the preference represented remains unchanged, property (15) remains satisfied. The explanation for this is that we have enough degree of freedom in the determination of the function \( F \) so that we can also take care of the fulfillment of (15).

This being said, in view of facilitating the elicitation process or diminishing the cognitive burden of the DM, one may think of forcing the \( u_i \)'s to satisfy (16) and determine \( F \) on the basis of that version of the \( u_i \)'s considered as fixed. This is possible only if that additional constraint is compatible with the other ones. Essentially, imposing (16) will be compatible with representing \( \succsim \) in a parameterized family of models if, among the representations of \( \succsim \) in that family, there is one in which differences of values of the function \( u_i \) can be used to represent the relation \( \sim_{**}^i \) that is, if

\[
(x_i, y_i) \sim_{**}^i (z_i, w_i) \Leftrightarrow u_i(x_i) - u_i(y_i) = u_i(z_i) - u_i(w_i). \quad (17)
\]

In NSDM, this raises no difficulty, since increasing transformations leave enough freedom to take this constraint into account; the case of the “min” is similar. The same is true for the additive value model, in which all determinations of the \( u_i \)'s fulfill condition (17).
The NSDM offers good potential for the analysis of bivariate scales (unipolar and bipolar; see Section 2.1 and other articles in this issue). This track has not been explored in detail so far; we limit ourselves to indicate two research directions in our descriptive framework; we borrow their denomination to P. Perny. Section 5 presents specific models that fall into one or the other of the approaches described as follows.

3.3.2.1. Compare Then Aggregate. A straightforward approach could consist in duplicating each dimension, yielding a model on $2n$ components. Instead of $X_i$, we consider two subdimensions, the positive part of dimension $i$, $X_i^+$, and the negative one, $X_i^-$. An alternative $x$ is represented by a $n$-pairs of components vector $x = ((x_1^+, x_1^-), \ldots, (x_n^+, x_n^-))$. As soon as a preference $\succeq$ is a weak order that is separable w.r.t. the $n$ dimensions, there is a representation in the NSDM, that is, there are $n$ functions $u_i : (X_i^+, X_i^-) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (of the pair of variables $(x_i^+, x_i^-)$) and a nondecreasing function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that:

$$x \succeq y \iff F(u_1(x_1^+, x_1^-), \ldots, u_n(x_n^+, x_n^-)) \geq F(u_1(y_1^+, y_1^-), \ldots, u_n(y_n^+, y_n^-)).$$

(18)

The (bivariate) marginal traces, represented by the functions $u_i(x_i^+, x_i^-)$, offer much potential to model various types of connections between the positive and the negative parts of attribute $i$. Note that $u_i$ makes a synthesis, for dimension $i$, of the positive and the negative aspects of an alternative along that dimension; it induces a complete ranking of the alternatives along that dimension.

A simple example of such a model is the case in which $u_i(x_i^+, x_i^-)$ obtains as a difference of “utilities”:

$$u_i(x_i^+, x_i^-) = v_i^+(x_i^+) - v_i^-(x_i^-),$$

where $v_i^+$ and $v_i^-$ are numerical representations of the positive and negative levels, respectively, on a numerical scale. In a more general model, we have:

$$u_i(x_i^+, x_i^-) = \varphi_i(v_i^+(x_i^+), v_i^-(x_i^-)),$$

where $\varphi_i$ is a real-valued function defined on $\mathbb{R}^2$ (or a subset of it) that is nondecreasing in its first argument and nonincreasing in the second; it models the intuitive idea that an alternative is all the better because its positive aspects are stronger and its negative aspects are weaker. If there is a “zero” level on both scales (bivariate bipolar scale), $0_i^+$ on $X_i^+$ and $0_i^-$ on $X_i^-$, one could set, without being restrictive, $u_i(0_i^+, 0_i^-) = 0 = \varphi_i(0, 0)$. Some forms of symmetry of $\varphi_i$ around $(0, 0)$ could facilitate the elicitation of the marginal trace on dimension $i$.

These two sets cannot be considered being complementary subsets of a scale $X_i$, such as in univariate bipolar scales; in bivariate bipolar scales, there is no such scale $X_i$. 

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3.3.2.2. Aggregate Then Compare. Another line of research could focus on another decomposition of the numerical representation of the preference relation \( \succeq \). Let us consider the case in which each dimension \( i \) has a positive set of levels \( X_i^+ \) and a negative one \( X_i^- \), but the synthesis of the positive aspects and the negative ones is not done for each dimension; instead, a synthesis of the positive aspects is done through the various dimensions and similarly for the negative aspects; finally, the preference results from comparing the synthesis of the positive aspects to the synthesis of the negative ones. Formally, this is expressed by the following model:

\[
x \succeq y \iff F(u^+(x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+), u^-(x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^-)) \geq F(u^+(y_1^+, \ldots, y_n^+), u^-(y_1^-, \ldots, y_n^-)).
\]  

(19)

In this definition, \( u^+ \) (resp. \( u^- \)) represents the marginal trace of the preference on the \( n \)-dimensional space of positive aspects (resp. negative aspects) and \( F \) is a function of two variables that is nondecreasing in its first argument and nonincreasing in its second. The CPT model introduced in Section 2.3 clearly pertains to this framework; in the CPT, \( F \) is the difference of its arguments and \( u^+ \) (resp. \( u^- \)) represents the intensity of the positive (resp. negative) affect.

3.4. Models Based on Preference Differences

Although Sections 4 and 5 need only the NSDM model, we briefly describe, to conclude the present section, another important class of models in which bipolarity receives a very natural interpretation. There are conjoint measurement models that are based on a balance of differences of preference observed on each dimension. In these models, the main scale attached to each dimension \( i \) is the univariate scale of differences of preference \( X_i^2 \); the levels on this scale are (directed) pairs \((x_i, y_i)\) of levels belonging to another scale that is used for assessing the alternatives on dimension \( i \). The scale of differences \( X_i^2 \) is naturally bipolar because the difference \((x_i, x_i) = (y_i, y_i)\), for all \( x_i, y_i \), is a natural zero of this scale. Also, a natural symmetry \( \tau_i \) exists on this scale, since the difference \((x_i, y_i)\) is associated with an “opposite” difference \((y_i, x_i)\); one could thus define \( \tau_i(x_i, y_i) \) as being \((y_i, x_i)\). This, however, does not mean that the difference \((y_i, x_i)\) is necessarily perceived in terms of preference as “\(-(x_i, y_i)\)”\); \( \tau_i \) is just an a priori correspondence between elements of a scale (see the discussion on the elicitation of a univariate bipolar scale in Section 3.2.2).

A general model of preference based on preference differences is as follows:

\[
x \succeq y \iff G(p_1(x_1, y_1), \ldots, p_n(x_n, y_n)) \geq 0.
\]  

(20)

Conditions are known\(^{12,17}\) under which the functions \( G \) and \( p_i \) in the model have a number of natural properties. In particular, if the marginal traces on differences \( \succ \)** defined by (7) are representable weak orders, one can assume that function \( G \) is nondecreasing in its \( n \) arguments and that functions \( p_i \) are numerical representations.
of $\succeq^*_i$. We present three examples of well-known procedures that fit into such a model and see how bipolarity appears in the corresponding instantiations of the model. Note that there is in general no guarantee of transitivity for preference relations described by models based on the aggregation of preference differences, as is well-known for majority rules.

### 3.4.1. Majority Rule or Concordance Relation

Let $X_i$ be the set of real numbers $\mathbb{R}$. The weighted majority preference rule can be defined by means of a “concordance” index $c(x, y)^{18,19}$:

$$c(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i(x_i, y_i), \quad (21)$$

where

$$p_i(x_i, y_i) = \begin{cases} w_i & \text{if } x_i \geq y_i \\ 0 & \text{if } x_i < y_i \end{cases}$$

the numbers $w_i$’s are the weights that are positive and sum up to 1.

The preference is defined through comparing the concordance index to a majority threshold $K$, a number lying between 0.5 and 1; we have:

$$x \succeq y \iff c(x, y) \geq K. \quad (22)$$

In this example, $p_i$ determines a very simple univariate bipolar scale; the pairs $(x_i, y_i)$ ordered by means of the weak order $\succeq^*_i$ are represented on the horizontal axis; all pairs corresponding to the same difference $x_i - y_i$ are indifferent with respect to $\succeq^*_i$ and are thus represented by the same point labeled “$x_i - y_i$” on the horizontal axis; the function $p_i(x_i, y_i)$ is represented in Figure 8. Only positive differences matter in this model and all such differences turn out to be equivalent; the negative differences are not at all taken into account.

### 3.4.2. Concordance-Discordance Rule à La Electre

Building on the majority rule that has just been defined, we add vetoes that will prevent declaring that $x$ is preferred to $y$ as soon as there is at least one dimension on which $y$ is “much much better” than $x$. A veto is often described as the application of a discordance rule that operates in conjunction with a majority rule. This type of rule is at the basis of the ELECTRE methods.$^{18,19}$ More formally, the preference $\succeq$ fits into the model described by Equations 22 and 21 using the following definition for $p_i$:

$$p_i(x_i, y_i) = \begin{cases} w_i & \text{if } x_i \geq y_i \\ 0 & \text{if } y_i - v_i \leq x_i < y_i \\ -M & \text{if } x_i < y_i - v_i \end{cases}$$

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where $M$ is a large positive number, for instance, $M$ is larger than 1 if the weights $w_i$’s sum up to 1; $v_i$ is a threshold used to determine discordance or veto: if $x_i < y_i - v_i$, this corresponds to the feeling that $y_i$ is so much better than $x_i$ on dimension $i$ that it would make no sense to pretend that $x$ could be globally preferred to $y$. The value of $M$ must be chosen large enough in order to guarantee that inequality $c(x, y) < K$ is never fulfilled as soon as at least one of the $p_i$’s is equal to $-M$. Figure 9 shows the shape of $p_i$.

3.4.3. Tversky’s Model of Additive Differences

The preferences that are obtained using these rules cannot be supposed to be transitive in general. Indeed, it is well known that performing pairwise comparisons of alternatives by means of majority rules may lead to preferences that have cycles (Condorcet paradox). This is obviously an undesirable feature if those preferences are to be used for decision purposes. However, on the basis of empirical evidence, several authors have argued that preferences cannot always be assumed to be transitive, and A. Tversky was one of the first to propose a model generalizing the additive value model and able to encompass preferences that lack transitivity. His model is known as the additive difference model in which,

$$x \succeq y \iff \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Phi_i(u_i(x_i) - u_i(y_i)) \geq 0,$$

where $\Phi_i$’s are increasing and odd functions.

Preferences that satisfy (23) may be intransitive but they are complete (due to the postulated oddness of $\Phi_i$). This model of preferences, as compared with those based on majority rules, allows for taking preference differences into consideration more gradually. These are represented as algebraic differences of marginal utility.
functions $u_i$. Contrary to what happens with majority rules, the influence of $(y_i, x_i)$ is exactly the opposite of that of $(x_i, y_i)$ because of the oddness of the functions $\Phi_i$. Figure 6 can be used to illustrate this model if we view it as representing preference differences instead of levels.

A slightly more general model that encompasses the majority rule is the so-called nontransitive additive model\textsuperscript{21–25} in which:

$$x \succsim y \iff \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i(x_i, y_i) \geq 0,$$

where the $p_i$’s are real-valued functions on $X_i^2$ and may have several additional properties (e.g., $p_i(x_i, x_i) = 0$, for all $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ and all $x_i \in X_i$). In this model, what corresponds to the oddness of the $\Phi_i$’s is the skew-symmetry of the $p_i$’s, that is, $p_i(x_i, y_i) = -p_i(y_i, x_i)$. In case the skew-symmetry of the $p_i$’s is not postulated, Figure 7 is a good illustration of the model if we represent all pairs $(x_i, y_i)$ on the horizontal axis; these pairs can be ordered by means of the relation $\succsim$ and we can decide as a convention that the points representing $(x_i, y_i)$ and $y_i, x_i$ will be symmetric w.r.t. the origin. In case $p_i$’s are not skew-symmetric, we then get the typical shape illustrated in Figure 7.
4. A CONSTRUCTIVE APPROACH TO DECOMPOSABLE MODELS
BASED ON CAPACITIES AND RELATED CONCEPTS

We take as a starting point the NSDM given in (12). In this section, we show how to construct such a model by taking into account the bipolarity of the affect if any. We show that more general models can be thought of depending on the type of bipolarity.

To build an NSDM, we need to solve two problems:

- build scales $u_i$’s on criteria in a unique way,
- build aggregation function $F$.

A cornerstone in our construction is the determination on each criterion of two particular levels having an absolute meaning (i.e., which does not depend on a particular criterion). One of them is the neutral level, already introduced in Section 2.2. It has an absolute meaning independent of the criteria since it corresponds for the DM to a state of feeling that is neither good nor bad. The second absolute level is introduced hereafter.

4.1. The Satisficing Level

A natural choice for the second absolute level would be to take the upper bound $1$ of each criterion (see Section 2.2), since it corresponds to the maximum satisfaction of the DM.

However, in many cases, there is no upper (or lower) bound for a scale. For example, the binary relations “is more prioritary than” and “is more attractive than” have no upper bound since one can always find something more prioritary (attractive) than a given object, so we have to find a substitute. This is given by the theory of satisficing bounded rationality of H. Simon. The theory asserts that faced to a decision problem (e.g., which move to do in a chess game [chess player], where to go to find food [animal], etc.), due to the limited amount of information and limited resources (time, memory, intelligence, etc.), we are not able to optimize the decision w.r.t. some criterion, but only to reach a satisficing solution, that is, which meets our level of satisfaction or aspiration. The search for a solution is stopped once such a satisficing solution has been found. The DM is aware that better solutions may exist, but limitations of resources prevent the DM to verify their existence. Coming back to unbounded scales, we denote by $1$ the satisficing level on a (unipolar or bipolar) scale that is not bounded above. By a kind of symmetry, we assume the existence of an unacceptable level, denoted by $-1$, which is such that the DM rejects all objects $a$ such that $a \preceq -1$. Clearly, $-1 \prec 0$.

4.2. Construction of Scales

Let us consider a given criterion $i \in N$ and try to build a scale for $i$ reflecting the preference of the DM. We choose to take as underlying scale for each criterion
a bipolar univariate scale, or simply a unipolar scale if it happens that the criterion is clearly of unipolar nature. However, in the rest of the section, we consider that all criteria are bipolar since this is mathematically more general and can encompass as particular cases unipolar criteria as well. The choice between Type I and Type II is dictated by the fact that most of the time, a mixed feeling of both good and bad affects for a given object on a given criterion comes from the presence of several subcriteria hidden in the criterion (see the chocolate/broccoli example in Section 2.1). For those cases where this decomposition into subcriteria is not possible or difficult, we refer the reader to Section 5 where the case of mixed affect on a single criterion is treated. Hence, we conclude that under our assumption, a scale for criterion \( i \) can be represented by a function \( u_i : X_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \).

The problem is now to build this function \( u_i \) in a unique way. To achieve this, we make the assumption that the scales are interval scales, that is, they are uniquely defined up to a positive affine transformation (2 degrees of freedom). Since we made the assumption that on each scale \( u_i \) there exist two particular levels \( 0_i, 1_i \) having an absolute meaning, hence independent of \( i \), we fix in a unique way all scales \( u_i \) by putting \( u_i(0_i) = u_j(0_j) \) and \( u_i(1_i) = u_j(1_j) \) for all \( i \neq j \). Although this is arbitrary, it seems natural to put \( u_i(0_i) = 0 \) and \( u_i(1_i) = 1 \) for all \( i \). Scales obtained in such a way are said to be commensurate.

Since this is not the central topic of this article, we do not detail the practical construction of each scale \( u_i \), which can be done using the MACBETH methodology\(^{28,29}\) and refer the reader to Grabisch and colleagues.\(^{30-32}\) In short, the scale \( u_i \) is built from the preference of the DM over the set of fictitious alternatives \( (x_i, 0_{-i}) \) when \( x_i \) ranges in \( X_i \), that is, \( (x_i, 0_{-i}) \succ (y_i, 0_{-i}) \) iff \( u_i(x_i) \geq u_i(y_i) \), and the scale is uniquely determined by putting \( u_i(0_i) := 0 \) and \( u_i(1_i) := 1 \).

### 4.3. Construction of the Aggregation Model

We try to construct an aggregation function \( F \) sophisticated enough to take into account interaction between criteria. For doing this, the usual way to put weights \( w_i \) on criteria, determined by the intensity of preference of the alternative \( (1_i, 0_{-i}) \), is not sufficient, and we have to consider at least the set of alternatives where all possibilities of having some criteria satisfied and some other being at the neutral level.\(^{30,32}\) These are called binary alternatives \( (1_A, 0_{-A}) \), for any \( A \subseteq N \), since criteria take only two possible values.

#### 4.3.1. Determination of the Model for Binary and Ternary Alternatives

As we deal with bipolar scales, it is important to take into account the influence of the unacceptable levels, but let us consider for the moment only the above set of alternatives, which we call more precisely positive binary alternatives, since all criteria are at least at the neutral level (unipolar case). Let us define

\[
\mu_+(A) := u(1_A, 0_{-A}), \quad \forall A \subseteq N,
\]

that is, \( \mu_+ \) represents the overall score of binary alternatives. Using as before the MACBETH approach, we may suppose that the scale \( \mu_+ \) is an interval scale.
which is uniquely determined as soon as one fixes two points. It seems natural to use the two extreme binary alternatives \((1_N, 0_∅)\) and \((0_∅, 1_N)\) and assign to them respectively the values 1 (best possible binary alternative) and 0 (worst possible binary alternative). On the other hand, considering \(A \subseteq B\) we have that \((1_A, 0_{−A})\) is dominated by \((1_B, 0_{−B})\) in the sense that the latter is at least as good as the former on each criterion. Then it is natural to have \((1_A, 0_{−A}) \preceq (1_B, 0_{−B})\), which gives \(\mu^+(A) \leq \mu^+(B)\).

**Definition 1.33** A function \(\mu : 2^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+\) is a capacity or fuzzy measure if \(\mu(∅) = 0\) and it satisfies \(\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)\) whenever \(A \subseteq B\) (monotonicity). The capacity is normalized if in addition \(\mu(N) = 1\). If \(\mu\) is not monotone, then we call it a game.

Hence, the function \(\mu^+\) induced by the set of binary alternatives is a normalized capacity.

Similarly, we consider negative binary alternatives of the form \((-1_A, 0_{−A})\).

Putting

\[
\mu^-(A) := -u(-1_A, 0_{−A}), \quad \forall A \subseteq N
\]

we clearly define another capacity, which represents the overall score of negative binary alternatives.

We turn now to the general case, considering ternary alternatives, where we mix unacceptable, satisficing, and neutral values. Defining \(Q(N) := \{(A, B) \in 2^N \times 2^N \mid A \cap B = ∅\}\), the set of ternary alternatives is

\[
\{(1_A, -1_B, 0_{−(A∪B)}) \mid (A, B) \in Q(N)\}.
\]

Several methods are possible to define the score of ternary alternatives. The simplest idea is to compute a net predisposition between the positive part and the negative part of the ternary alternatives, namely:

\[
u(1_A, -1_B, 0_{−(A∪B)}) := \mu^+(A) - \mu^-(B), \quad \forall (A, B) \in Q(N).
\]

This is the solution given by the CPT model. Referring to our section on bipolar scales (Section 2), \(u\) lies on a bipolar univariate scale and can be seen as the (linear) net predisposition between the overall score attributed to the positive part of the ternary alternative and the overall score of the negative part.

A more general solution would be to define a function \(v\) on \(Q(N)\) by:

\[
v(A, B) := u(1_A, -1_B, 0_{−(A∪B)}), \quad \forall (A, B) \in Q(N).
\]

Hence, there is no longer a separation between positive and negative parts, and consequently we lose the notion of net predisposition. Using as before the MACBETH approach, it suffices to fix two points on the scale for its unique determination. We may fix, for example, \(u(1_N, -1_∅, 0_∅) = 1\) and \(u(1_∅, -1_∅, 0_N) = 0\). This gives

\[
mu^+(A) \leq \mu^+(B).
\]
\( v(N, \emptyset) = 1 \) and \( v(\emptyset, \emptyset) = 0 \). Let us consider now \((A, B)\) and \((C, D)\) in \(Q(N)\) and assume that \(A \subseteq C\) and \(B \supseteq D\). We remark that \((1_A, -1_B, 0_{-(A\cup B)})\) is dominated by \((1_C, -1_D, 0_{-(C\cup D)})\) since on each criterion the latter is at least as good as the former. Thus, it is natural to have \((1_A, -1_B, 0_{-(A\cup B)}) \preceq (1_C, -1_D, 0_{-(C\cup D)})\), which gives \(v(A, B) \leq v(C, D)\).

**Definition 2.** \(^{35,36}\) A function \(v: Q(N) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\) such that \(v(\emptyset, \emptyset) = 0\) and \(v(A, B) \leq v(C, D)\) whenever \((A, B), (C, D) \in Q(N)\) with \(A \subseteq C\) and \(B \supseteq D\) (monotonicity) is called a bicapacity. Moreover, a bicapacity is normalized if in addition \(v(N, \emptyset) = 1\) and \(v(\emptyset, N) = -1\).

Hence, the function \(v\) defined as the overall score of ternary alternatives is a bicapacity, which is not necessarily normalized since \(v(\emptyset, N)\) may be different from \(-1\). In this case too, \(u\) is a bipolar univariate scale.

A third solution would be to consider for \(u\) a unipolar bivariate scale, that is, \(u\) is a pair of nonnegative numbers:

\[
u(1_A, -1_B, 0_{-(A\cup B)}) := (\xi^+(A, B), \xi^-(A, B)), \quad \forall (A, B) \in Q(N),\]

with \(\xi^+(A, B), \xi^-(A, B) \geq 0\), the intensity of positive and negative affects felt by the DM when faced with a ternary alternative. Again, \(\xi^+\) and \(\xi^-\) have natural properties. If we consider that \(\xi^+, \xi^-\) reflect interval scales, then they can be uniquely determined by fixing two points. It is natural to put \(\xi^+(N, \emptyset) = 1\) and \(\xi^+(\emptyset, \emptyset) = 0\) for \(\xi^+\) and \(\xi^-(\emptyset, N) = 1\) and \(\xi^-(\emptyset, \emptyset) = 0\) for \(\xi^-\). Moreover, if as before we consider \((A, B)\) and \((C, D)\) in \(Q(N)\) such that \(A \subseteq C\) and \(B \supseteq D\), then because of dominance we should have \(\xi^+(A, B) \leq \xi^+(C, D)\) and \(\xi^-(A, B) \geq \xi^-(C, D)\).

**Definition 3.** \(^{37}\) A bipolar capacity is a function \(\xi: Q(N) \rightarrow [0, 1]^2\); \((A, B) \mapsto (\xi^+(A, B), \xi^-(A, B))\) such that \(\xi^+(N, \emptyset) = \xi^-(\emptyset, N) = 1\), \(\xi^+(\emptyset, \emptyset) = \xi^-(\emptyset, \emptyset) = 0\), and if \((A, B), (C, D) \in Q(N)\) with \(A \subseteq C\) and \(B \supseteq D\), then \(\xi^+(A, B) \leq \xi^+(C, D)\) and \(\xi^-(A, B) \geq \xi^-(C, D)\) (monotonicity).

Hence, we have used a bipolar capacity to represent the overall score on symmetric scales.

**4.3.2. Determination of the Model for General Alternatives**

**4.3.2.1. A General Methodology.** So far, we have determined the way to compute the overall score of ternary alternatives, not of general alternatives. A simple way to do this is to consider that the overall score of a given alternative will be obtained as an interpolation between scores of neighboring ternary alternatives. We explain the procedure first for (positive) binary alternatives. Since \(u_i(1_i) = 1\) and \(u_i(0_i) = 0\) for all \(i \in N\), vectors \((u_1(x_1), \ldots, u_n(x_n))\) describe the set of vertices of the hypercube \([0, 1]^n\) when only binary alternatives are considered. This means that the aggregation function \(F\) has a fixed and known value at all vertices, and we have to interpolate \(F\) inside the hypercube.
As many types of interpolation exist, we are looking here for a linear interpolation using as few points as possible, which are here vertices of $[0, 1]^n$. For a given $x \in [0, 1]^n$, let us denote by $\mathcal{V}(x)$ the set of vertices used for the linear interpolation, which writes

$$F(x) = \sum_{A \subseteq \{1, 0_{-A}\} \in \mathcal{V}(x)} \left[ \alpha_0(A) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i(A)x_i \right] F(1_A, 0_{-A}),$$

(25)

where $\alpha_i(A) \in \mathbb{R}$, $i = 0, \ldots, n$, $\forall A \in \mathcal{V}(x)$. To keep the meaning of interpolation, we force that the convex hull $\text{conv}(\mathcal{V}(x))$ contains $x$, and any $x \in [0, 1]^n$ should belong to a unique polyhedron $\text{conv}(\mathcal{V}(x))$ (except for common facets), and continuity should be ensured. Hence, the hypercube is partitioned into $q$ polyhedra defined by their sets of vertices $\mathcal{V}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{V}_q$, all vertices being vertices of $[0, 1]^n$. Such an operation is called a triangulation. Note that the least possible number of vertices is $n + 1$, otherwise the polyhedra would not be $n$-dimensional, and hence a finite number of them would not cover the whole hypercube.

Many different triangulations are possible, but there is one that is of particular interest, since it leads to an interpolation where all constant terms $\alpha_0(A)$ are null. This triangulation uses the $n!$ canonical polyhedra of $[0, 1]^n$:

$$\text{conv}(\mathcal{V}_\sigma) = \{x \in [0, 1]^n \mid x_{\sigma(1)} \leq \cdots \leq x_{\sigma(n)}\},$$

for some permutation $\sigma$ on $N$.

**Proposition 1.** The linear interpolation (25) using the canonical polyhedra writes

$$F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [x_{\sigma(i)} - x_{\sigma(i-1)}] \mu([x_{\sigma(i)}, \ldots, x_{\sigma(n)}]),$$

(26)

with $\mu(A) := F(1_A, 0_{-A})$. Moreover, $F$ is continuous on $[0, 1]^n$.

The aggregation function $F(x)$ defined in (26) is in fact the Choquet integral of $x$ w.r.t. the capacity $\mu$, which we denote by $\mathcal{C}_\mu(x)$, considering $x$ as a function over $N$. This way of introducing the Choquet integral as the simplest linear interpolation is given in Grabisch. It was also discovered by Lovász, considering the problem of extending the domain of pseudo-Boolean functions to $\mathbb{R}^n$ (for this extension problem, see also Singer). The fact that the so-called Lovász extension was the Choquet integral was remarked by Marichal.

It remains to apply this result to our different models established for ternary alternatives.

**4.3.2.2. The CPT Model.** The simplest model for ternary alternatives is to use two capacities $\mu^+, \mu^-$. Applying the above methodology, we interpolate $F$ between vertices of $[0, 1]^n$ and $[-1, 0]^n$, corresponding respectively to positive
and negative binary alternatives, and we are led to what is called the CPT model, proposed by Tversky and Kahnemann:\footnote{7}

\[
CPT_{\mu^+, \mu^-}(x) := C_{\mu^+}(x^+) - C_{\mu^-}(x^-),
\]

where \(x^+ := x \lor 0\) and \(x^- := (-x)^+\).

4.3.2.3. The Choquet Integral for Bicapacities. In this case, we consider the hypercube \([-1, 1]^n\) and all points of the form \((1_A, -1_B, 0_{-(A \cup B)})\), which correspond to ternary alternatives. Let us apply again an interpolation approach and call \(F\) the function we obtain by interpolation. To do this, we examine in detail the case \(n = 2\) (Figure 10). Let us take any point \(x\) such that \(x_1 \geq 0, x_2 \leq 0,\) and \(|x_1| \leq |x_2|\). Then, for \(|x|\), which is in the first (positive) quadrant, we already know that the best linear interpolation is the Choquet integral. It suffices to use the formula with the adequate vertices:

\[
F(x_1, x_2) := |x_1|F(1, -1) + (|x_2| - |x_1|)F(0, -1).
\]

This is a Choquet integral w.r.t a game \(\nu_1\) defined by:

\[
\nu_1([1, 2]) = F(1, -1)
\]

\[
\nu_1([2]) = F(0, -1).
\]

Let us consider now the general case. Defining \(N^+_x := \{i \in N \mid x_i \geq 0\}, N^-_x = N \setminus N^+_x\), with similar considerations of symmetry, we obtain:

\[
F(x) = |x_{\sigma(1)}|F(1_{N^+_x}, -1_{N^-_x}, 0_{-(N^+_x \cup N^-_x)})
\]

\[
+ \sum_{i=2}^{n} (|x_{\sigma(i)}| - |x_{\sigma(i-1)}|)F(1_{\{\sigma(i), \ldots, \sigma(n)\} \cap N^+_x}, -1_{\{\sigma(i), \ldots, \sigma(n)\} \cap N^-_x}, 0_{-(\sigma(i), \ldots, \sigma(n))}),
\]
where $\sigma$ is a permutation on $N$ such that $|x_{\sigma(1)}| \leq \cdots \leq |x_{\sigma(n)}|$. This expression is the Choquet integral of $|x|$ w.r.t. a game $\nu_{N^+}$ defined by:

$$\nu_{N^+}(A) := F \left( 1_{A \cap N^+}, -1_{A \cap N^-}, 0_{-A} \right).$$

Recalling that $F(1_A, -1_B, 0_{-(A \cup B)}) =: v(A, B)$, we finally come up with the following definition.

**Definition 4.** Let $v$ be a bicapacity and $x$ be a real-valued function on $N$. The (general) Choquet integral of $x$ w.r.t. $v$ is given by

$$C_v(x) := C_{\nu_{N^+}}(|f|),$$

where $\nu_{N^+}$ is a game on $N$ defined by

$$\nu_{N^+}(C) := v(C \cap N^+, C \cap N^-)$$

and $N^+ := \{i \in N \mid x_i \geq 0\}$, $N^- = N \setminus N^+$.

### 4.3.2.4. The Choquet Integral for Bipolar Capacities.

In this case, the Choquet integral w.r.t. a bipolar capacity $\xi$ is calculated as follows:

$$C_\xi(x) := C_{\nu_{N^+}}(|f|) - C_{\nu_{N^-}}(|f|),$$

(27)

with $N^+$ and $N^-$ as above, and $\nu_{N^+}(A) := \xi^+(A \cap N^+, A \cap N^-)$ and $\nu_{N^-}(A) := \xi^-(A \cap N^+, A \cap N^-)$. Of course, if $v(A, B) = \xi^+(A, B) - \xi^-(A, B)$, we get

$$C_v(x) = C_\xi(x).$$

### 5. THE BIVARIATE SETTING

In this section, we introduce a set of models describing multiple criteria evaluations in terms of possible negative and positive evaluations with respect to the same criterion. In psychological terms, this model represents the positive, the negative, and the net affect resulting from a multiplicity of stimulus, each of them characterized by a negative and a positive affect. The proposed models can be considered as a generalization to a multiplicity of dimensions (stimuli) of the bivariate evaluative space model. To be more precise, while the bivariate evaluative space model analyzes the activation of positive and negative evaluations with respect to a single criterion (stimulus) (e.g., the simultaneous presence of sadness and happiness, hot and cold feelings, and so on), we consider the cases in which comprehensive evaluations are drawn from a multiplicity of criteria (stimuli). Both at the level of single criterion and at the level of comprehensive evaluation, positive and negative
evaluations are considered independent and therefore they are represented in terms of a bivariate scale, rather than in terms of a bipolar scale. This means that positive and negative evaluations with respect to both a single criterion (stimulus) and to the comprehensive evaluations are present simultaneously.

The proposed model admits as specific particular cases the decomposable model and the CPT model presented in Section 2 and the Choquet integral model for bicapacities presented in Section 4. These are bipolar models at the level of a single criterion, that is, they rely on the assumption that each criterion has only a positive or a negative evaluation and cannot simultaneously receive a positive evaluation and a negative evaluation. As explained in Section 3, in one of these models (the CPT model), the simultaneous presence of a positive evaluation and a negative evaluation is considered only at the level of the comprehensive evaluation. However, the comprehensive positive evaluation and the comprehensive negative evaluation are aggregated in the simplest way, that is, obtaining the comprehensive evaluation as a simple algebraic difference between the positive and the negative comprehensive evaluations, neither considering any form of different weighting of the positive and the negative evaluations nor any form of nonlinearity. This is very intuitive, but perhaps too simple and not general enough. Let us remark that within the bivariate evaluative space model, even if only at the level of a single criterion stimulus, both the effect of the different weighting and of the nonlinearity of positive and negative evaluations are investigated and quantitatively measured. More precisely, Cacioppo et al. proposes the following representation of the net result of the aggregation of the positive evaluation $x^+_i$ and negative evaluation $x^-_i$ with respect to criterion stimulus $i$:

$$u_i(x^+_i, x^-_i) = w^+_i v^+_i(x^+_i) - w^-_i v^-_i(x^-_i) + v^{+-}_i(x^+_i, x^-_i) + c_i,$$

where $w^+_i$ is the weight of the positive evaluation, $w^-_i$ is the weight of the negative evaluation, $v^+_i(x^+_i)$ is the activation function for positivity, $v^-_i(x^-_i)$ is the activation function for negativity, $v^{+-}_i(x^+_i, x^-_i)$ represents the nonadditive effects, and $c_i$ is a constant. Starting from a general model coherent with model (28), we first propose a general multiple criteria model representing bivariate evaluations at the level of single criteria and at the level of comprehensive evaluation. Then, we recall a generalization of bipolar Choquet integral that permits to take into account the bivariate nature of the evaluations both at the level of single criteria and at the level of comprehensive evaluation. Finally, we briefly discuss the introduction of bivariate scales in models based on difference of preferences.

### 5.1. A General Bivariate Multicriteria Model

As anticipated in Section 3.3.2, in a bivariate setting, each alternative is represented by $n$-pairs of components vectors $x = ((x^+_1, x^-_1), \ldots, (x^+_n, x^-_n))$ or equivalently as a $2n$-component vector $x = (x^+_1, \ldots, x^+_n, x^-_1, \ldots, x^-_n)$ that results from putting together the two $n$-vectors $x^+ = (x^+_1, \ldots, x^+_n)$ and $x^- = (x^-_1, \ldots, x^-_n)$, such that $x = (x^+, x^-)$. In very general terms, in this bivariate setting, $CPE(x)$, $CNE(x)$,
and \( CE(x) \) can be represented as follows:

\[
CPE(x) = F^+ \left( x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+, x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^- \right),
\]

\[
CNE(x) = F^- \left( x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+, x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^- \right),
\]

\[
CE(x) = G \left( F^+ \left( x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+, x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^- \right), F^- \left( x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+, x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^- \right) \right),
\]

where \( F^+: \mathbb{R}^{2n}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \) and \( F^-: \mathbb{R}^{2n}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \) are functions nondecreasing with respect to their first \( n \) arguments and nonincreasing with respect to their last \( n \) arguments, whereas \( G: \mathbb{R}^{2n}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) is a function nondecreasing in its first argument and nonincreasing in its second argument.

Let us observe that in this very general model, \( CPE(x) \) depends not only on the positive evaluations \( (x_i^+, i \in N) \) but also on the negative evaluations \( (x_i^-, i \in N) \). Coming back to the example of car evaluation outlined in the introduction, this means that the comprehensive positive evaluation depends on the positive aspects of the cars \( (x_i^+, i \in N) \), such as a good maximum speed and a good acceleration, but it depends also on the negative aspects \( (x_i^-, i \in N) \), such as a high price and an high fuel consumption. Analogously, the comprehensive negative evaluation depends on the negative aspects of the car \( (x_i^-, i \in N) \), but it also depends on the positive aspects \( (x_i^+, i \in N) \). A special case of this very general model is the following one, where the comprehensive positive evaluation depends only on the positive evaluations and the comprehensive negative evaluation depends only on the negative evaluations:

\[
CPE(x) = F^+ \left( x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+ \right)
\]

\[
CNE(x) = F^- \left( x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^- \right)
\]

\[
CE(x) = G \left( F^+ \left( x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+ \right), F^- \left( x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^- \right) \right)
\]

### 5.2. The Choquet Integral in a Bivariate Setting

For the sake of simplicity, in this subsection, each alternative \( x \) is represented by a \( 2n \)-vector \( (x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+, x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^-) \in [0, 1]^{2n} \), such that

- \( x_i^+ = 0 \) means that the positive evaluation with respect to criterion \( i \) is null,
- \( x_i^+ = 1 \) means that the positive evaluation with respect to criterion \( i \) is maximal,
- \( x_i^- = 0 \) means that the negative evaluation with respect to criterion \( i \) is null, and
- \( x_i^- = 1 \) means that the negative evaluation with respect to criterion \( i \) is maximal.
In this bivariate setting, as an interesting specific case, one can consider a very simple model formulated as

\[ CPE(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{++} x_{i}^{+} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{--} x_{i}^{-}, \]

\[ CNE(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{--} x_{i}^{-} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{++} x_{i}^{+}, \]

\[ CE(x) = CPE(x) - CNE(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [w_{i}^{++} + w_{i}^{--}] x_{i}^{+} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} [w_{i}^{++} + w_{i}^{--}] x_{i}^{-}, \]

where \( w_{i}^{++}, w_{i}^{--} \in \mathbb{R}^{+} \) are nonnegative weights. In these representation, the possibility of some interactions between different criteria is not considered at all. A possible specific model representing these types of interaction can be formulated as follows:

\[ CPE(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{++} x_{i}^{+} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{--} x_{i}^{-} + \]

\[ + \sum_{i,j \in N, i < j} v_{i,j}^{++} (x_{i}^{+}, x_{j}^{+}) + \sum_{i,j \in N} v_{i,j}^{++} (x_{i}^{+}, x_{j}^{+}) \]

\[ CNE(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{--} x_{i}^{-} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{++} x_{i}^{+} + \]

\[ + \sum_{i,j \in N, i < j} v_{i,j}^{--} (x_{i}^{-}, x_{j}^{-}) + \sum_{i,j \in N} v_{i,j}^{--} (x_{i}^{-}, x_{j}^{-}) \]

\[ CE(x) = CPE(x) - CNE(x) \]

where

- \( v_{i,j}^{++} (x_{i}^{+}, x_{j}^{+}) \) measures the interaction of \( x_{i}^{+} \) and \( x_{j}^{+} \) with respect to the comprehensive positive (resp. negative) evaluation \( CPE(x) \) (resp. \( CNE(x) \)),
- \( v_{i,j}^{++} (x_{i}^{+}, x_{j}^{-}) \) measures the interaction of \( x_{i}^{+} \) and \( x_{j}^{-} \) with respect to the comprehensive positive (resp. negative) evaluation \( CPE(x) \) (resp. \( CNE(x) \)),
- \( v_{i,j}^{--} (x_{i}^{-}, x_{j}^{-}) \) measures the interaction of \( x_{i}^{-} \) and \( x_{j}^{-} \) with respect to the comprehensive positive (resp. negative) evaluation \( CPE(x) \) (resp. \( CNE(x) \)).
Let us observe that the proposed model can be generalized, considering interactions not only between pairs of signed evaluations of the type \((x_i^+, x_j^-)\), \((x_i^+, x_j^-)\), or \((x_i^-, x_j^-)\) but also, in general, between pairs of sets of signed evaluations of the type \((x_i^+, i \in A, x_j^-, j \in B)\), with \(A, B \subseteq \mathbb{N}\) such that \(A \cup B \neq \emptyset\). Taking into account this aspect, we get the following model:

\[
CPE(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{++} x_{i}^{+} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{--} x_{i}^{-} + \sum_{A,B \subseteq \mathbb{N}, |A \cup B| \geq 2} v_{A,B}^{+}(x_{i}^{+}, i \in A, x_{j}^{-}, j \in B),
\]

\[
CNE(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{--} x_{i}^{-} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{++} x_{i}^{+} + \sum_{A,B \subseteq \mathbb{N}, |A \cup B| \geq 2} v_{A,B}^{-}(x_{i}^{+}, i \in A, x_{j}^{-}, j \in B),
\]

\[
CE(x) = CPE(x) - CNE(x),
\]

where \(v_{A,B}^{+}(x_{i}^{+}, i \in A, x_{j}^{-}, j \in B)\) (resp. \(v_{A,B}^{-}(x_{i}^{+}, i \in A, x_{j}^{-}, j \in B)\)) measures the interaction of \(x_{i}^{+}, i \in A\) and \(x_{j}^{-}, j \in B\), \(A, B \subseteq \mathbb{N}\) with respect to the comprehensive positive (resp. negative) evaluation \(CPE(x)\) (resp. \(CNE(x)\)).

The lower boundary condition says that in order to have an interaction effect with respect to positive evaluations on criteria from \(A\) and negative evaluations on criteria from \(B\), none of these evaluations must be null; in other words, if even only one among positive evaluations on criteria from \(A\) or negative evaluations on criteria from \(B\) is null, then there is no interaction effect. On the contrary, the upper boundary condition says that if each one of the positive evaluations on criteria from \(A\) and the negative evaluation on criteria from \(B\) is maximum, then the interaction also reaches its maximum value. Two simple formulations of functions \(v_{A,B}^{+}\) and \(v_{A,B}^{-}\) are the following:

- interaction based on product:

\[
v_{A,B}^{+}(x_{i}^{+}, i \in A, x_{j}^{-}, j \in B) = w_{A,B}^{+} \prod_{i \in A} x_{i}^{+} \prod_{j \in B} x_{j}^{-},
\]

and

\[
v_{A,B}^{-}(x_{i}^{+}, i \in A, x_{j}^{-}, j \in B) = w_{A,B}^{-} \prod_{i \in A} x_{i}^{+} \prod_{j \in B} x_{j}^{-}.
\]
• interaction based on minimum:

\[
v_{A,B}^+(x_i^+, i \in A, x_j^-, j \in B) = \max_{i \in A} \max_{j \in B} \left[ \min_{i \in A} x_i^+, \min_{j \in B} x_j^- \right]
\]

and

\[
v_{A,B}^-(x_i^+, i \in A, x_j^-, j \in B) = \max_{i \in A} \max_{j \in B} \left[ \min_{i \in A} x_i^+, \min_{j \in B} x_j^- \right],
\]

where \(w_{A,B}^+, w_{A,B}^- \in \mathbb{R}\) are weights related to the sign of the interaction (\(w_{A,B}^+ > 0, w_{A,B}^- > 0\): positive interaction; \(w_{A,B}^+ < 0, w_{A,B}^- < 0\): negative interaction) and to the strength of the effect of interaction with respect to the comprehensive evaluation.

An interesting property one could expect from a multicriteria evaluation model is the following.

**DEFINITION 5.** A bivariate multicriteria evaluation model \((CPE, CNE, CE)\), is Stable for the same Positive Linear transformations (SPL) if

\[
CPE((rx_1^+ + s, \ldots, rx_n^+ + s), (rx_1^- + s, \ldots, rx_n^- + s)) = rCPE((x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+), (x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^-)) + s
\]

\[
CNE((rx_1^+ + s, \ldots, rx_n^+ + s), (rx_1^- + s, \ldots, rx_n^- + s)) = rCNE((x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+), (x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^-)) + s
\]

\[
CE((rx_1^+ + s, \ldots, rx_n^+ + s), (rx_1^- + s, \ldots, rx_n^- + s)) = rCE((x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+), (x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^-)) + s
\]

for all \(x \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}, r > 0, s \in \mathbb{R}\).

Let us observe that the bivariate model with interactions based on minimum satisfies the SPL property, whereas the interaction based on multiplication does not. Thus, it is interesting to note that the bivariate model with interactions based on minimum corresponds to a specific generalization of the Choquet integral,\(^{42}\) which is based on the concept of generalized bipolar capacity.

Let \(Q^*(N)\) denote a set of pairs of subsets of \(N\), defined as follows,

\[
Q^*(N) = \{(C, D) : C \subseteq N, D \subseteq N\}.
\]
We define the generalized bipolar capacity $\zeta^*$ on $N$ as any function of the form,

$$
\zeta^* : Q^*(N) \rightarrow [0, 1] \times [0, 1]; (A, B) \mapsto (\zeta^+(A, B), \zeta^-(A, B)),
$$

such that:

1. $\zeta^*(C, \emptyset) = (c, 0)$ and $\zeta^*(\emptyset, D) = (0, d)$, with $c, d \in [0, 1]$;
2. $\zeta^*(N, \emptyset) = (1, 0)$ and $\zeta^*(\emptyset, N) = (0, 1)$;
3. for each $(C, D), (E, F) \in Q^*(N)$, such that $C \supseteq E$ and $D \subseteq F$, we have $\zeta^*(C, D) = (c, d)$ and $\zeta^*(E, F) = (e, f)$, $c, d, e, f \in [0, 1]$, with $c \geq e$ and $d \leq f$.

The generalized bipolar capacity, $\zeta^*$, is related to multicriteria bivariate evaluations more or less as the bicapacity is related to bipolar evaluations. Let us consider the set of alternatives on which the positive and the negative criterion evaluations can only be maximal or null. These alternatives are of the form $x^+ = (1_A, 0_{A^c})$, $x^- = (1_B, 0_{B^c})$, $(A, B) \in Q^*(N)$ ($A^c$ and $B^c$, respectively, denote the complement of $A$ and $B$ in $N$). Thus, alternative $x = (x^+, x^-) = ((1_A, 0_{A^c}), (1_B, 0_{B^c}))$ has the maximal positive evaluation on criteria from $A$ and the maximal negative evaluation on criteria from $B$, whereas positive evaluations on criteria not from $A$ and negative evaluations on criteria not from $B$ are null. These alternatives are called bivariate binary alternatives. Now let us consider the function $\phi : Q^*(N) \rightarrow [0, 1]^2$ such that $\phi = (\phi^+, \phi^-)$, where for each $(A, B) \in Q^*(N)$ we have:

$$
\phi^+(A, B) = CPE[(1_A, 0_{A^c}), (1_B, 0_{B^c})],
\phi^-(A, B) = CNE[(1_A, 0_{A^c}), (1_B, 0_{B^c})].
$$

It is natural to suppose that

- $\phi(\emptyset, N) = (0, b)$, with $b \in [0, 1]$,
- $\phi(A, \emptyset) = (a, 0)$, with $a \in [0, 1]$,
- $\phi(N, B) = (1, b)$, with $b \in [0, 1]$,
- $\phi(A, N) = (a, 1)$, with $a \in [0, 1]$.

Let us also remark that for $(A, B), (C, D) \in Q^*(N)$ such that $A \supseteq C$ and $B \subseteq D$ and $x = ((1_A, 0_{A^c}), (1_B, 0_{B^c}))$ and $y = ((1_C, 0_{C^c}), (1_D, 0_{D^c}))$, we have that $x$ is at least as good as $y$ with respect to both positive and negative evaluations on each criterion. Then, it is natural to have that $x$ is at least as good as $y$ with respect to $CPE(x) \geq CPE(y)$ and $CNE(x) \leq CNE(y)$, so that:

$$
\phi^+(A, B) \geq \phi^+(C, D) \text{ and } \phi^-(A, B) \leq \phi^-(C, D).
$$

Hence, the function $\phi$ is a generalized bipolar capacity.
It is interesting to observe the relation between the bipolar capacity \( \phi \) and the weights \( w_{i}^{++}, \ w_{i}^{+-}, \ w_{i}^{-+}, \ w_{i}^{--}, \ w_{A,B}^{+}, \) and \( w_{A,B}^{-} \):

\[
\phi^{+}(A, B) = \sum_{i \in A} w_{i}^{++} + \sum_{i \in B} w_{i}^{-+} + \sum_{C,D \subseteq N, A \cup B \neq \emptyset, C \subseteq A, D \subseteq B} w_{A,B}^{+},
\]

\[
\phi^{-}(A, B) = \sum_{i \in A} w_{i}^{+-} + \sum_{i \in B} w_{i}^{--} + \sum_{C,D \subseteq N, A \cup B \neq \emptyset, C \subseteq A, D \subseteq B} w_{A,B}^{-}.
\]

As with the CPT model and the Choquet integral for bicapacities, it is possible to pass from scores of ternary alternatives to scores on general alternatives as showed in Section 4. Also in this bivariate setting, it is possible to pass from evaluations on bivariate binary alternatives to general alternatives by means of a proper interpolation between scores of neighboring bivariate binary alternatives. In this case, we consider the hypercube \([0, 1]^n\) and all points of the form \(( (1, A), (0, B) ))\). In this way, we obtain the bipolar Choquet biintegral,\(^{42}\) which can be analytically defined as follows.

For each \((x^{+}, x^{-}) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n}, x^{+} = (x_{1}^{+}, \ldots, x_{n}^{+}) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n}\) and \(x^{-} = (x_{1}^{-}, \ldots, x_{n}^{-}) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n}\), we call \(x^{+}\) the positive part of \((x^{+}, x^{-})\), whereas \(x^{-}\) is its negative part.

For each \((x^{+}, x^{-}) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n},\) let us consider the following one-to-one correspondence,

\[
\{1, \ldots, 2n\} \rightarrow N^{*} = \{1^{+}, \ldots, n^{+}, 1^{-}, \ldots, n^{-}\},
\]

such that

\[
x_{(1)} \leq x_{(2)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{(j)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \ldots \leq x_{(2n)},
\]

where

\[
x_{(j)} = \begin{cases} 
  x_i^{+} & \text{if } (j) = i^{+} \\
  x_i^{-} & \text{if } (j) = i^{-}.
\end{cases}
\]

Intuitively, the values \(x_{(j)}\) represent the positive and the negative evaluations reordered according to their intensity.

For each \(j \in N\), let us also consider the following two subsets of \(N\):

1. \(C(j) = \{i \in N : x_i^{+} \geq x_{(j)}\}\);
2. \(D(j) = \{i \in N : x_i^{-} \geq x_{(j)}\}\).

Given a generalized bipolar capacity, \(\zeta^{*}\), on \(N\) and \((x^{+}, x^{-}) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n}\), we can define the positive part of the bipolar Choquet biintegral in the following way:

\[
C^{B^{+}}((x^{+}, x^{-}), \zeta^{*}) = \sum_{j=1}^{2n} (x_{(j)} - x_{(j-1)}) \zeta^{*+}(C(j), D(j)) = \sum_{j=1}^{2n} x_{(j)} (\zeta^{*+}(C(j), D(j)) - \zeta^{*+}(C(j+1), D(j+1))),
\]

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where \( x(0) = 0 \) and \( \zeta^+(C_{(n+1)}, D_{(n+1)}) = 0 \).

Analogously, the negative part of the bipolar Choquet biintegral can be defined as follows:

\[
C^{B+}\left((x^+, x^-), \zeta^*\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{2n} (x(j) - x(j-1))\zeta^+(C(j), D(j)) = \sum_{j=1}^{2n} x(j) (\zeta^+(C(j), D(j)) - \zeta^+(C(j+1), D(j+1))) ,
\]

where \( \zeta^+(C_{(n+1)}, D_{(n+1)}) = 0 \).

Finally, the bipolar Choquet biintegral of \((x^+, x^-) \in \mathbb{R}_+^n \times \mathbb{R}_+^n\), with respect to the generalized capacity \( \zeta^* \), is defined as follows:

\[
C^{B+}\left((x^+, x^-), \zeta^*\right) = C^{B+}((x^+, x^-), \zeta^*) - C^{B-}((x^+, x^-), \zeta^*).\]

Summarizing, we can say that \( C^{B+}((x^+, x^-), \zeta^*) \) represents the comprehensive positive evaluation, \( C^{B-}((x^+, x^-), \zeta^*) \) represents the comprehensive negative evaluation, and finally \( C^B((x^+, x^-), \zeta^*) \) represents the final net comprehensive evaluation, that is, \( CPE(x) = C^{B+}(x), CNE(x) = C^{B-}(x) \), and \( CE(x) = C^B(x) \).

Now to conclude our discussion about coincidence between \( C^{B+}(x), C^{B-}(x) \), and \( C^B(x) \) and the general bivariate model with interactions represented by minimum, after having already shown how to pass from weights \( w_{A,B}^+, w_{A,B}^- \) to a generalized bipolar capacity \( \zeta^* \) considering bivariate binary alternatives, we discuss how to pass from generalized bipolar capacity \( \zeta^* \) to weights \( w_{i}^{++}, w_{i}^{--}, w_{i}^+, w_{i}^- \), and \( w_i, i = 1, \ldots , n \), and \( w_{A,B}^+, w_{A,B}^- \), \( A, B \subseteq N \). With this aim, putting \( w_{i}^{++} = w_{i}^{+}, w_{i}^{--} = w_{i}^{-}, w_{i}^{+} = w_{i}^{+}, w_{i}^{-} = w_{i}^{-}, \) and \( w_i, i = 1, \ldots , n \), we have to consider the following generalized Möbius transform\(^{42}\):

\[
w_{A,B}^+ = \sum_{[(C,D) \in Q^*(N:C \subseteq A \text{ and } D \subseteq B)} (-1)^{|[(A\cup B)\setminus [(C\cup D)]|}} \zeta^+(C, D)
\]

\[
w_{A,B}^- = \sum_{[(C,D) \in Q^*(N:C \subseteq A \text{ and } D \subseteq B)} (-1)^{|[(A\cup B)\setminus [(C\cup D)]|}} \zeta^-(C, D)
\]

A characterization of the generalized bipolar Choquet biintegral has been presented in Greco and Figueira\(^{42}\).

Let us now investigate the relation between the bipolar Choquet biintegral and some interesting specific multiple criteria models that can be derived from it as particular cases. A specific case of the bipolar Choquet biintegral considers bivariate scales with respect to criteria, but gives only a bipolar comprehensive final net evaluation without distinguishing between the positive comprehensive evaluation and the negative comprehensive evaluation, that is, in this model, for each alternative \( x \in \mathbb{R}_+^{2n} \), the model gives \( CE(x)\) but it does not give \( CPE(x)\) and \( CNE(x)\).

\[\text{International Journal of Intelligent Systems DOI 10.1002/int}\]
In this model, we consider a generalized bicapacity $v^*$ on $N$, being a function

$$v^*: Q^*(N) \rightarrow [-1, 1]$$

such that

1. $v^*(\emptyset, \emptyset) = 0$;
2. $v^*(N, \emptyset) = 1$, and $v^*(\emptyset, N) = -1$;
3. If $C \supseteq E$ and $D \subseteq F$, then $v^*(C, D) \geq v^*(E, F)$.

Properties 1 and 2 are the boundary conditions, whereas property 3 is the monotonicity condition.

Let us observe that using the generalized bipolar capacity $\zeta^*$ on $N$, we can obtain a corresponding generalized bicapacity $v^*$ on $N$ as follows:

$$v^*(C, D) = \zeta^{*+}(C, D) - \zeta^{*-}(C, D), \quad \forall (C, D) \in Q^*(N).$$

Therefore, between the generalized bipolar capacity and the generalized bicapacity, there is the same difference as between the bipolar capacity and the bicapacity; that is, the generalized bipolar capacity permits to distinguish between the negative and the positive predisposition, whereas the generalized bicapacity considers only the net predisposition.

The Choquet integral corresponding to the generalized bicapacity is the following:

$$\mathcal{C}^B((x^+, x^-), v^*) = \sum_{j=1}^{2n} (x_{(j)} - x_{(j-1)}) v^*(C_{(j)}, D_{(j)}) =$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{2n} x_{(j)} \left( v^*(C_{(j)}, D_{(j)}) - v^*(C_{(j+1)}, D_{(j+1)}) \right),$$

where $v^*(C_{(n+1)}, D_{(n+1)}) = 0$.

Another model that can be seen as a special case of the generalized bipolar Choquet biintegral is the following extension of the CPT model. Let us consider a capacity $\mu_+$ for the positive evaluations $x^+ = (x_1^+, \ldots, x_n^+)$ and a capacity $\mu_-$ for the negative evaluations $x^- = (x_1^-, \ldots, x_n^-)$, and the corresponding Choquet integral given by:

$$CPE(x) = \mathcal{C}_{\mu_+}(x^+),$$

$$CNE(x) = \mathcal{C}_{\mu_-}(x^-),$$

$$CE(x) = \mathcal{C}_{\mu_+}(x^+) - \mathcal{C}_{\mu_-}(x^-).$$
In this model, in contrast with the CPT model, the scales of the evaluations on single criteria are bivariate and therefore we do not necessarily have \( x^+ = -x^- \); on the contrary, in general, we have \( x^+ \neq -x^- \).

5.3. Models Based on Preference Differences in a Bivariate Setting

The idea of the bivariate evaluation space model can be extended also to models based on difference of preferences.\(^{42}\) In this case, it is interesting to take into consideration the bipolar or bivariate nature of the difference of preferences and the bipolar or bivariate nature of the evaluation of comprehensive differences of preference.\(^{43}\) The following preference model based on a bipolar representation both at the level of each criterion and at the level of the comprehensive evaluation has been considered in Section 3.4:

\[
x \succ y \iff G(p_1(x_1, y_1), \ldots, p_n(x_n, y_n)) \geq 0,
\]

where \( G \) is a function nondecreasing in its arguments. A model considering a bivariate evaluation both at the level of single criterion and at the level of comprehensive evaluation\(^{42,43}\) can be written as:

\[
x \succ^+ y \iff CPE(x, y) = G^+(p_1^+(x_1, y_1), \ldots, p_n^+(x_n, y_n)),
\]

\[
p_1^-(x_1, y_1), \ldots, p_n^-(x_n, y_n)) \geq 0
\]

\[
x \succ^- y \iff CNE(x, y) = G^-(p_1^+(x_1, y_1), \ldots, p_n^+(x_n, y_n)),
\]

\[
p_1^-(x_1, y_1), \ldots, p_n^-(x_n, y_n)) \geq 0
\]

\[
x \succ y \iff CE(x, y) = V(CPE(x, y), CNE(x, y)) \geq 0,
\]

where in a given product space \( X = \prod_{i=1}^n X_i \)

- \( \succ^+ \) is a preference relation on \( X \) such that, for all \( x, y \in X \), the semantics of \( x \succ^+ y \) is “there are reasons in favor of the conclusion that \( x \) is at least as good as \( y \)”;
- \( \succ^- \) is a preference relation on \( X \) such that, for all \( x, y \in X \), the semantics of \( x \succ^- y \) is “there are reasons against the conclusion that \( x \) is at least as good as \( y \)”;
- \( p_i^+ : X_i \times X_i \to \mathbb{R}_+ \), \( i = 1, \ldots, n \), is a function such that, for all \( x_i, y_i \in X_i \), \( p_i^+(x_i, y_i) \) measures the positive part of the difference of preference of \( x_i \) over \( y_i \);
- \( p_i^- : X_i \times X_i \to \mathbb{R}_+ \), \( i = 1, \ldots, n \), is a function such that, for all \( x_i, y_i \in X_i \), \( p_i^-(x_i, y_i) \) measures the negative part of the difference of preference of \( x_i \) over \( y_i \);
- \( G^+ : \mathbb{R}_+^n \to \mathbb{R} \) is a function nondecreasing in its first \( n \) arguments and nonincreasing in its last \( n \) arguments;
- \( G^- : \mathbb{R}_+^n \to \mathbb{R} \) is a function nonincreasing in its first \( n \) arguments and nondecreasing in its last \( n \) arguments;
- \( V : \mathbb{R}_-^2 \to \mathbb{R} \) is a function increasing in its first argument and decreasing in its second argument.

This model is related to the four-valued logic approach.\(^{44}\)

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Table I. Main models and variants of Choquet integral.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Bipolarity of criteria</th>
<th>Bipolarity of the comprehensive evaluation</th>
<th>Aggregation function F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capacity $\mu$</td>
<td>Unipolar</td>
<td>Unipolar</td>
<td>Choquet integral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair of capacities $(\mu^+, \mu^-)$</td>
<td>Bipolar univariate</td>
<td>Bipolar univariate with linear net predisposition</td>
<td>CPT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicapacity $\nu$</td>
<td>Bipolar univariate</td>
<td>Bipolar univariate</td>
<td>Choquet integral w.r.t. a bicapacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bipolar capacity $\zeta$</td>
<td>Bipolar univariate</td>
<td>Unipolar bivariate</td>
<td>Choquet integral w.r.t. a bipolar capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalized bipolar capacity</td>
<td>Unipolar bivariate</td>
<td>Unipolar bivariate</td>
<td>Choquet biintegral</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A specific formulation of this bivariate model of difference of preference based on the bipolar Choquet biintegral has been proposed in Greco and Figueira.42

5.4. Summary

Table I summarizes the different aspects and types of bipolarity of the main models presented in this article; the associated type of Choquet integral is mentioned.

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This article has tried to account for several aspects of bipolarity in Multicriteria decision analysis (MCDA). Bipolarity is understood in a broad sense: the scales representing bipolar criteria (or overall evaluations) are either bipolar univariate or unipolar bivariate. In Section 3, adopting a behaviorist or descriptive perspective, we have considered various models of preference and looked for those in which bipolar scales receive their most natural representation. Section 4 has adopted a constructive approach, that is, it focuses on techniques for building bipolar scales and aggregating them within a suitable model in order to elicit a preference. Section 5 sketches a very broad panorama of models in which the bipolarity of the criteria is represented by bivariate scales; the overall evaluation itself can be bivariate. As compared with the classical additive value function model, the methods described allow for modeling criteria that interact differently in the positive and negative zones of the bipolar scales or with respect to the two variables of a bivariate scale.

Clearly, the expressive power of such models is superior to that of the usual additive value function model, that is, more preferences can find a representation within the former. Also, eliciting some of these models in practice seems not to be overly complicated (see Section 4). Since its intuitive content is easily perceived, it thus appears that bipolarity offers good perspectives for the development of new models in the field of MCDA, both on practical and on theoretical grounds.

In particular, more effort is needed in order to better understand the role of bipolarity in models of preference. The conjoint measurement approach outlined in Section 3 provides a general framework for analyzing preferences. Questions such
as producing a formal definition of bipolarity in such a framework or characterizing the aggregation methods based on bipolar scales deserve further investigation. The methods described in Sections 4 and 5 rely on the Choquet integral and some variants thereof. Getting, for example, a clearer understanding of which preferences can be represented by means of a Choquet integral but not by an additive value function surely is a question that is worth the attention of researchers.

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References