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# BIVARIATE GRID SCALE BASED MULTIPLE ATTRIBUTE EVALUATION TECHNIQUE (GAMETE) WITH INCOMPLETE INFORMATION ON WEIGHTS

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Abstract. In this paper, we have devised a novel Multiple Attribute Decision Making (MADM) method referred to as the bivariate Grid Scale based Multiple Attribute Evaluation Technique (GAMETE) method to deal with MADM decision problems involving tangible and intangible attributes under incomplete weight information. The proposed method innovatively incorporates an Attractiveness GRID Scale (AGRIDS) to evaluate intangible attributes, grounded in cognitive psychological principles - particularly the separability and independence of positive and negative aspects in human judgement. Additionally, a new bidimensional positional advantage operator (bi-pao) is introduced to compute the intangible attractiveness index. Further, linear programming models are formulated in order to construct the pairwise dominance matrix. Afterwards, we rank alternatives using a dominance intensity measure and the Boolean matrix. Furthermore, the proposed method is illustrated through a logistics center location problem. We also perform a comparison with several state-of-the-art linguistic Intuitionistic Fuzzy Sets (LIFS) and linguistic Pythagorean Fuzzy Sets (LPFS) based MADMs with the aim of showing the applicability and feasibility of the method suggested. Notably, GAMETE provides a multidimensional decision-making framework suitable for addressing complex technological and economic challenges where both quantitative and qualitative factors coexist. Its flexibility and interpretability make it a promising tool for real-world strategic decision scenarios.

Keywords: dominance measure, intangible attributes, incomplete weight information, Grid scale, Multiple Attribute Decision Making.

JEL Classification: C41, C61, D81.

## 1. Introduction

#### 1.1. General context

The Multiple Attribute Decision Making (MADM) refers to a process of evaluating a set of alternatives described with respect to multiple (usually conflicting) attributes. A large number of MADM methods have been designed and used in various application areas (Filip et al., 2017; Zavadskas et al., 2016; Hisoğlu et al., 2025). For instance, Wen et al. (2020) have proposed a Mixed Aggregation by Comprehensive Normalization Technique (MACONT) to select sustainable third-party reverse logistics providers. Ecer and Hashemkhani Zolfani (2022) have used the removal effects of criteria (MEREC) and the double normalization-based mul-

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ti-aggregation (DNMA) to specify the ranking of countries according to economic freedom. Hasheminasab et al. (2021) have designed an integrated model combining the extended stepwise weight assessment ratio analysis extended SWARA (E-SWARA) method and the Ranking according to COmpromise Solution (MARCOS) method for implementing the circular economic in fossil fuel development to minimize the unsustainable effects and ensure the environment's resiliency. Wang et al. (2022) combine the Best Worst Method (BWM) and the technique for ordering preference by similarity to the ideal solution (TOPSIS) methods. Zakeri et al. (2023) proposed a novel MCDM method called alternative ranking with elected nominee (ARWEN) to solve the supplier selection problem.

The attributes considered within the MADM decision problems are generally grouped into tangible (i.e., clearly defined) and intangible attributes. The decision-makers, through positive and negative aspects, generally subjectively assess the values of the intangible attributes, often imprecisely defined. Under these circumstances, decision-makers are usually inclined to use linguistic terms to represent their opinions, which are similar to natural language and close to human cognitive processes. These categories pose fundamental problems. Firstly, they resonate rather with the way humans think and communicate. Secondly, they tend to express subjective judgements that reduce a full spectrum into positive (favourable) and negative (unfavourable) dimensions. Such dual-sided assessments reflect the predominant double-judgment thinking pattern of human cognition, in which acceptance and rejection are not necessarily mutually exclusive, as they may coexist simultaneously (Zayas et al., 2017). Therefore, an effective decision-making method should not only support inherently language-bound, imprecise data but also facilitate the independent modelling of positive and negative evaluations so as to grasp the nuanced nature of human judgement with more accuracy.

#### 1.2. Problem statement

Despite the remarkable progress in MADM, most methods still rely on unipolar evaluations that consider only the positive aspects of alternatives. Drawbacks are either ignored or inadequately accounted for. In real-life situations, decision-making depends on a series of overlapping circumstances with positive and negative perspectives or facets of information set in at the same time. Human decisions depend on double-sided judgement, considering positive as well as negative aspects. Positive evaluation suggests that the information is deemed satisfactory or desirable. Nonetheless, the negative evaluation expresses what is impossible, unfavourable, rejected, or forbidden (Al-Sharqi et al., 2024). According to several psychological studies, positive and negative information are not necessarily complementary and should be processed separately (Cacioppo et al., 2012; Norris et al., 2010). In fact, analyses of human neuroimaging literature provide evidence for the independence and separability of positive and negative evaluations. These studies show that positive and negative affect are supported by distinct brain systems (Lindquist et al., 2016).

To integrate positive and negative evaluations, there are basically two models: the univariate bipolar model and the bivariate unipolar model. The former conceptualizes evaluation as a single continuum with a neutral midpoint distinguishing between positive and negative evaluations (Franco et al., 2017). A major limitation of this model is its inability to process

ambivalence where positivity and negativity exist simultaneously. With positive and negative evaluations being regarded as mutually exclusive, an alternative cannot be judged as both positive and negative at the same time, making the univariate bipolar model inadequate for mixed and two-sided judgements (Luo & Hu, 2023).

The bivariate unipolar model, by Cacioppo and Berntson (1994), supports both positivity and negativity through two distinct unipolar scales. Each scale ranges from a minimum positive (respectively negative) to a maximum positive (respectively negative). A concept may bear positive, negative, neither positive nor negative, or both positive and negative meanings at the same time. By handling two-sided evaluations, where decision-makers assess alternative aspects as both favorable and unfavorable simultaneously, this model accurately reflects the complexity of human cognition in situations involving conflicting information (Franco et al., 2015). This paper uses a multidimensional bivariate model of evaluative space introduced by Cacioppo and Berntson (1994) and Cacioppo et al. (2012) to evaluate intangible attributes under double-sided appraisal.

To cope with MADM problems comprising double-sided information, sophisticated models such as Intuitionistic Fuzzy Sets (IFS) (Atanassov, 1986) and Pythagorean Fuzzy Sets (PFS) (Yager & Abbasov, 2013) have been devised. IFS and PFS are particularly effective in handling uncertainty and responding to the dual nature of human reasoning, making it easier for decision-makers to select the most appropriate alternative. Both IFS and PFS feature information using a pair of values within the unit interval: a positive-membership degree (expressing preference or acceptance) and a negative-membership degree (indicating rejection or non-preference). The main distinction between the two lies in their mathematical constraints: in IFS, the sum of membership and non-membership degrees must not exceed one, while in PFS, the sum of their squares must remain within unity.

Nevertheless, these mathematical constraints limit their flexibility, especially when positive and negative evaluations coexist and exert generally antagonistic effects. As a result, existing decision-making methods often struggle to capture the nuances of human judgment, particularly in scenarios where alternatives have both favorable and unfavorable features. Furthermore, the realism and applicability of many models in cognitively complex decision contexts are limited due to the lack of an ex-ante psychological foundation.

## 1.3. Motivation

Decision-making tools that accurately reflect human cognitive processes are particularly needed in applications involving subjective evaluations – such as service quality, software feasibility, and policy impact assessments. However, current MADM methods often fail to capture human judgment accurately, especially when evaluating aspects that are simultaneously positive and negative. As a result, these methods do not effectively address the complexity of ambivalent or conflicting evaluations, which are common in real-world decision-making. Furthermore, as real-life problems become increasingly complex – particularly in the digital economy and service-based industries – models that recognize nuanced evaluations such as indifference, ambivalence, and partial favorability offer superior decision support and greater behavioral realism. Filling this methodological gap is both timely and critical for advancing theory and practice in decision science.

## 1.4. Aim, novelty, and contribution

This paper proposes a novel MADM method called Grid Scale based Multiple Attribute Evaluation Technique (GAMETE), with Bivariate Attractiveness GRID Scale (AGRIDS) that enables a dual-axis evaluation of alternatives based on the psychological separability of positive and negative judgments. GAMETE incorporates a newly developed operator – the Bidimensional Positional Advantage Operator (bi-PAO) – aimed to quantify intangible attractiveness indices. A dedicated ranking strategy is also introduced, relying on linear programming and interval dominance matrices.

GAMETE's contributions mainly include:

- Introducing a psychologically grounded evaluative model for MADM.
- Enabling the simultaneous and separate representation of positive and negative assessments.
- Providing a new ranking system adapted to interval-valued dominance relations.
- Offering flexibility to handle both tangible and intangible attributes with no restrictive assumptions on evaluative inputs.
- The validity of the newly defined approach is established by applying it to the MADM problem of logistics center location.
- We perform a comparison with several state-of-the-art LIF-MADMs and LPF-MADM with the aim of showing the applicability and feasibility of the approach suggested.

## 1.5. Technological and economic development of economy relevance

The proposed method enhances decision-making quality in tasks where subjective judgments prevail – such as logistics optimization, investment evaluation, human resource assessment, and sustainable planning. With optimized sensing of human judgment, GAMETE aims to guide organizations in selecting non-dominated alternatives that balance risk, desirability, and feasibility and eventually support more efficient resource allocation, reduced risk of implementation failure, and improved stakeholder satisfaction – critical for economic competitiveness and innovation.

#### 1.6. Structure

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 reviews related work. Section 3 introduces some basic concepts. Section 4 presents the GAMETE method with relevant illustrations. Section 5 compares the proposed method with other recent models through two case studies. Section 6 discusses the main features and issues of GAMETE. Section 7 concludes the paper and outlines directions for future research.

#### 2. Related work

The evaluation of attributes in decision-making is inherently vague and ambiguous, particularly when dealing with intangible attributes. It is difficult for decision-makers to express their preferences with precise numerical values. Decision-makers usually use natural language reflecting human cognitive processes. The words opinion or preference suggest positive (fa-

vorable) and negative (unfavorable) sides that coexist simultaneously. These assessments typically involve both favourable (positive) and unfavourable (negative) judgements.

Recent psychological research provides compelling evidence for the functional independence of positive and negative evaluations. The Evaluative Space Model (ESM), developed by Cacioppo and Berntson (1994) and Cacioppo et al. (2012), suggests that affective responses are best understood as occurring along two independent dimensions: positivity and negativity. Empirical studies (e.g., Larsen et al., 2009; Zayas et al., 2017) maintain that humans often give positive and negative appraisals simultaneously, particularly in subtle situations.

In the rest of this Section, we review the use of classical fuzzy set theory and its extensions in modeling positive and negative judgments.

## 2.1. Modeling positive and negative judgments with classical fuzzy set theory

The fuzzy set theory (FST), proposed by Zadeh (1965), is a useful tool to reflect human judgements. Integrated with MADM methods, FST theory has been applied in several real-world problems. For instance, Hashemkhani Zolfani et al. (2021) integrated F-SWARA and Fuzzy Multi-Attribute Border Approximation Area Comparison (F-MABAC) to select the best logistics village. Ulutaş et al. (2021) introduced three fuzzy MADM methods to cope with the transportation company selection problem. These methods include Fuzzy Plvot Pairwise RElative Criteria Importance Assessment (F-PIPRECIA) used to achieve the subjective weights of attributes; the fuzzy-PSI method to obtain the objective weights of attribute; and the Fuzzy-CoCoSo to rank alternative transportation companies according to their respective performances. Pamucar et al. (2022) employed the Fuzzy Measuring Attractiveness by a Categorical Based Evaluation TecHnique (MACBETH) and fuzzy Weight Aggregated Sum Product ASsessment (WASPAS) to select the most suitable location for a recovery center.

Rifle et al. (2024) proposed the fuzzy Simple Weight Calculation (F-SIWEC) and fuzzy COmpromise Ranking from Alternative SOlutions (CORASO) methods to select the most suitable spraying drone for a foodstuff business. The F-SIWEC method was used for determining the weights of the criteria and the fuzzy CORASO method to select the best drone. Demir and Ulusoy (2024) used F-WENSLO (Fuzzy Weight by Envelope and Slope) and the fuzzy Ranking Alternatives with Weights of Criterion (F-RAWEC) methods to evaluate potential locations for wind farms. Katranci et al. (2025) used the F-SIWEC-RAWEC to determine the most suitable sustainable solid waste disposal technology.

Despite their effectiveness in managing uncertainty, traditional fuzzy MADM methods predominantly focus only one side of the evaluation – most often the favorable aspect – while overlooking unfavorable dimensions. However, in many real-world decision-making problems, especially under ambiguous or complex environments, it is essential to consider both positive and negative assessments. For instance, the appraisal of a nation's economic performance requires the measurement of both positive and negative indicators. The traditional unidimensional assessment of FST – focused mainly on positive appraisals – was found insufficient (Ali et al., 2024).

FST is usually deployed within a bipolar univariate model where each alternative is represented by a single membership value  $u(x) \in [0,1]$ . This value stands for the degree of

positive assessment. The negative assessment is tacitly derived as its complement, 1 - u(x). This model poses a strict inverse relationship between positivity and negativity, implying that an increase in one dimension implies a decrease in the other. In other words, the bipolar univariate model inherently assumes mutual exclusivity and full complementarity between acceptance and rejection.

## 2.2. Modeling positive and negative judgments with orthopair fuzzy sets

Generalized orthopair fuzzy sets constitute effective tools to grasp the intricacy of human cognitive processes by comprising both positive membership and negative membership degrees (Campagner & Ciucci, 2017) and enabling a more comprehensive representation of vague or conflicting information. These sets fall under the bivariate unipolar model since they use two partially independent unipolar scales bounded in the interval [0,1]. Perhaps the most prominent orthopair fuzzy sets are the Intuitionistic Fuzzy Set (IFS) theory (Atanassov, 1986) and Pythagorean Fuzzy Set (PFS) theory (Yager & Abbasov, 2013).

A number of recent MADM methods have been designed to tackle intricate decision problems under the IFS environment. For example, Uyanik et al. (2020) combined DEMA-TEL with IF-TOPSIS methodology to determine the optimal location for a logistics centre. Patel et al. (2023) proposed an intuitionistic fuzzy version of the Elimination and Choice Translating Reality (EM) method followed by SWARA and TOPSIS to select the best medical waste treatment technique. Chakraborty et al. (2024) proposed intuitionistic fuzzy weighted sum product assessment (WASPAS), Combinative distance-based assessment (CODAS), and combined compromise solution (COCOSO) to determine the optimal healthcare supplier. Işik and Adalar (2024) introduced the intuitionistic fuzzy compromise ranking of alternatives from distance to ideal solution (IF-CRADIS) to appraise and rate the performance of non-life insurance companies. Yesilcayir et al. (2024) proposed IF-AHP-TOPSIS to select the most suitable transit warehouse location. Hezam et al. (2024) showcased the selection of hospital sites using the compromise solution (IF-MARCOS).

IFS imposes a limitation where the sum of membership and non-membership degrees must not exceed one. More advanced structures like PFS have been developed, where the squared sum of membership and non-membership degrees is restricted to one. This approach has been successfully applied in various fields. For example, Liao et al. (2020) utilized CoCoSo, the cumulative prospective theory, and a combined weight determining the methods under the PFS for the selection of a cold chain logistics distribution center. Rani et al. (2020) combined the SWARA with the VIKOR approach for panel selection in PFS environment. Ayyildiz (2022) merged SWARA with CODAS using the PF environment to determine the best location for an e-scooter charging station. Yalcin Kavus et al. (2023) combined the Bayesian Best Worst Method (B-BWM) with PF-WASPAS to evaluate five sites in Istanbul. Nila and Roy (2024) propose an enhanced PF-DEMATEL approach for logistics centers 4.0.

The Pythagorean fuzzy decision analysis and geographic information systems were combined by Çalış Boyacı and Şişman (2024) to determine optimal locations for the disposal of face masks and gloves waste boxes during the COVID-19 pandemic in Samsun city, Turkey.

Although IFS and PFS are effective in managing uncertainty and modelling dual aspects of human reasoning, they exhibit limitations when dealing with highly ambiguous or conflicting evaluations. For example, if a decision-maker assigns a membership degree of 0.8 and a non-membership degree of 0.7, the squared sum in PFS is  $0.8^2 + 0.7^2 = 1.13 > 1$ , violating the model's fundamental constraint requiring the sum of squares not to exceed unity. This example illustrates that PFS, despite advantages over IFS, fails to accommodate evaluations where strong positive and negative perceptions coexist. Consequently, these frameworks may not fully reflect the nuanced and often ambivalent nature of human judgement, especially in decision scenarios involving alternatives with both favourable and unfavourable characteristics.

Moreover, many existing MADM methods lack robust psychological grounding, which limits their realism and practical applicability in cognitively complex decision-making environments. To achieve higher fidelity in modelling real-world human evaluations, a more flexible and psychologically consistent framework is needed.

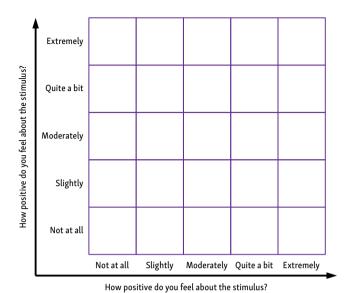
## 2.3. Summary

This review draws attention to the difficulties in assessing intangible qualities while making decisions, especially when both favorable and unfavorable assessments are present at the same time. Although it offers fundamental tools, classical fuzzy set theory is constrained by its one-dimensional methodology. More complex modeling of dual evaluations is possible using orthopair fuzzy sets, such as Intuitionistic and Pythagorean fuzzy sets. These frameworks are applied in a variety of real-world applications by different MADM techniques. However, when it comes to managing extremely unclear or contradictory judgments, both IFS and PFS have intrinsic limits. The need for more adaptable and realistic models that are in line with human cognitive processes is further highlighted by the fact that many present MADM techniques lack adequate psychological foundation.

## 3. Preliminaries

## 3.1. The evaluative space grid

The semantic differential scale, originating from the work of Osgood et al. (1967), is the traditional technique for attitude measurement. It is considered a simple way for measuring attitude where individuals are asked to indicate if a given object is perceived as being positive, neutral, or negative. It is a bipolar rating scale composed of a pair of antagonistic adjectives at two extremities of a continuum. This scale, which corresponds well to the typical bipolar univariate model (Montero et al., 2014), ranges from maximally positive (minimally negative) to maximally negative (minimally positive) and assumes that positive and negative attitudes are reciprocally activated. The negative side of the scale is the inverse mirror of the positive one; it cannot be positive and negative at the same time. This structure is a characteristic of a symmetric univariate bipolarity type that focuses on one side of judgment (negative/positive) and ignores the other. Moreover, psychological studies indicate that positive and negative attitudes are not complementary to each other (Cacioppo et al., 2012).



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Figure 1. The evaluative space grid (GRID scale)

One way to model the non-complementary positive and negative attitudes is to use the ESG proposed by Larsen et al. (2009) (Figure 1), which is based on the Evaluative Space Model (Cacioppo et al., 2012; Zayas et al., 2017). The ESG suggests that assessing positivity and negativity involves two separable and partially distinct mechanisms. It comprises a 5 × 5 grid measuring both the degree of positivity and negativity of an evaluation within a two-dimensional matrix. In practice, a single dimension is assigned to measure the respondent's degree of negativity (from "not at all negative" to "extremely negative"). The other dimension is intended to measure the respondent's degree of positivity (from "not at all positive" to "extremely positive"). Considering these two dimensions, respondents are asked to choose which of the 25 cells best describes their evaluation.

The rationale of using ESG relies on the evidence substantiating that the dimensions of positivity and negativity are functionally separable. It also points out that an increase in one dimension does not necessarily lead to an equal reduction in the other dimension, which may or may not reduce at all. The ESG scale has been validated in psychology with respect to the unipolar measurement of positivity and negativity via combining the levels of positivity and negativity (Larsen et al., 2009). It provides a separate measure of indifference (low positivity, low negativity) and ambivalence (moderate to high positivity and moderate to high negativity).

## 3.2. The bounded-difference operation

Let us introduce some definitions and notation related to the bounded-difference operation.

**Definition 1.** Let a and b be two real numbers, then the *bounded-difference* of a and b, written  $a \ominus b$ , is defined by (Zadeh, 1975):

$$a \ominus b = \begin{cases} a - b, & \text{if } a > b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (1)

**Definition 2.** Let A and B be two alternatives with respective performance vectors  $(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n)$  and  $(b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n)$ , then

■ The *favorable* bounded-difference vector to A, written  $A \ominus B$ , is defined by:

$$A \ominus B = (a_1 \ominus b_1, a_2 \ominus b_2, \cdots, a_n \ominus b_n). \tag{2}$$

■ The *unfavorable* bounded-difference vector to A, written  $B \ominus A$ , is defined by:

$$B \ominus A = (b_1 \ominus a_1, b_2 \ominus a_2, \cdots, b_n \ominus a_n). \tag{3}$$

**Definition 3.** Let A and B be two alternatives with respective performance vectors  $(a_1,a_2,a_3,\cdots,a_n)$  and  $(b_1,b_2,b_3,\cdots,b_n)$ . Alternative A will be said to dominate alternative B if and only if:

$$|A \ominus B| > |B \ominus A|, \tag{4}$$

where

$$\left|A \odot B\right| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{j} \left(a_{j} \odot b_{j}\right), \tag{5}$$

and

$$\left|B \ominus A\right| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{j} \left(b_{j} \ominus a_{j}\right), \tag{6}$$

with  $w_j > 0(j = 1,...,n)$  and  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} w_j = 1$ .

## 4. Presentation of GAMETE

Let  $A = \{x\}_{i=1}^{i=n}$  be a finite set of n alternatives described with respect to a finite set  $Q = \{q_j\}_{j=1}^{i=m}$  of mattributes. GAMETE has been designed to primordially dealt with intangible attributes but it can also deal with tangible attributes. Thus, we assume that set Q is divided into a subset  $Q_T$  of tangible attributes and a subset  $Q_I$  of intangible attributes, such that  $Q_T \cup Q_I = Q$  and  $Q_T \cap Q_I = \varnothing$ . We also assume that there is at least one intangible attribute. Tangible attributes refer to regular attributes defined over one dimension. Each alternative will have one score with respect to each tangible attributes. Intangible attributes are assumed to be bi-dimensional. That is, the evaluations of any alternative with respect to the intangible attributes are of two different types: positive (i.e., favorable) evaluations and negative (i.e., unfavorable) ones. The ratings of each alternative  $x_i$  with respect to each intangible attribute  $Q_I$  are obtained by using the so-called attractiveness GRID described earlier.

#### 4.1. The Attractiveness GRID Scale

Building on the ideas discussed in Section 2.1, GAMETE uses a new Attractiveness GRID Scale (AGRIDS) to assess intangible attributes. AGRIDS is defined as a two-dimensional  $11 \times 11$  matrix (see Figure 2) with a view to obtain a joint measure of favorableness and unfavorableness.

Unlike the original ESG scale, AGRIDS is made up of two 11-point-semantic differential scales: one for rating favorableness and the other for rating unfavorableness. This manner yields an attribute-wise attractiveness joint index for each alternative.

From this perspective, AGRIDS offers advantages over the original semantic differential scale because it differentiates between four different types of evaluation reactions:

- Indifference. Exceptionally low to below the favorableness average and exceptionally low to below the unfavorableness average;
- Ambivalence. Average to exceptionally high favorableness and average to exceptionally high unfavorableness;
- Positive attitude. Average to exceptionally high favorableness and exceptionally low to below-average unfavorableness;
- Negative attitude. Exceptionally low to below the favorableness average and average to exceptionally high unfavorableness.

Hereinafter, favorableness and unfavorableness are treated as linguistic variables with a set of eleven terms S as follows:

$$S = \begin{cases} s_1 : \text{ Exeptionally Low}(\text{XL}) & s_2 : \text{ Extremely Low}(\text{EL}) & s_3 : \text{ Very Low}(\text{VL}) & s_4 : \text{ Low}(\text{L}) \\ s_5 : \text{ Below Average}(\text{BA}), & s_6 : \text{ Average}(\text{A}) & s_7 : \text{ Above Average}(\text{AA}) & s_8 : \text{ High}(\text{H}) \\ s_9 : \text{ Very High}(\text{VH}) & s_{10} : \text{ Extremely High}(\text{EH}) & s_{11} : \text{ Exceptionally High}(\text{XH}) \end{cases}. \tag{7}$$

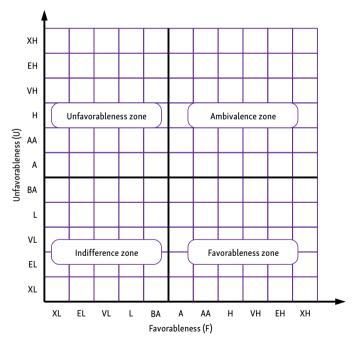


Figure 2. Attractiveness GRID Scale (AGRIDS)

## 4.2. Bidimensional positional advantage operator

In this subsection, we introduce the bidimensional positional advantage operator (bi-pao) as an extension of the definition of positional advantage operator (Rebai et al., 2006) to the bidimensional case.

**Definition 4.** Let  $\left[L_1,U_1\right]$  and  $\left[L_2,U_2\right]$  be two intervals of real numbers such that the endpoints  $L_1,L_2,U_1$  and  $U_2$  satisfy  $0 \le L_1 < U_1 < +\infty$  and  $0 \le L_2 < U_2 < +\infty$ .

Then the mapping is a bi-dimensional positional advantage operator (bi-pao) defined over the Cartesian product  $[L_1, U_1] \times [L_2, U_2]$  if and only if it satisfies the following essential requirements:

- $(U_1, U_2) \otimes (L_1, L_2) = 1$  (boundary condition),
- For  $a_1, a_1, b_1$  and  $b_1 \in [L_1, U_1]$ ,  $a_2, a_2, b_2$  and  $b_2 \in [L_2, U_2]$ :
  - $a_1 < a_1' \Rightarrow (a_1, a_2)$  p  $(b_1, b_2) < (a_1', a_2) \textcircled{p} (b_1, b_2)$  (i.e., p is strictly increasing in the first place of the first pair),
  - $a_2 < a_2' \Rightarrow (a_1, a_2) \otimes (b_1, b_2) < (a_1, a_2') \otimes (b_1, b_2)$  (i.e.,  $\odot$  is strictly increasing in the second place of the first pair),
  - $b_1 < b_1' \Rightarrow (a_1, a_2) \otimes (b_1, b_2) < (a_1, a_2) \otimes (b_1', b_2)$  (i.e., p is strictly decreasing in the first place of the second pair),
  - $b_2 < b_2^{'} \Rightarrow (a_1,a_2) \oplus (b_1,b_2) < (a_1,a_2) \oplus (b_1,b_2)$  (i.e., p is strictly decreasing in the second place of the second pair),
  - $[(b_1, b_2) \odot (a_1, a_2)] + [(a_1, a_2) \odot (b_1, b_2)] = 1$  (i.e., adding up to unity property)

The following are two bi-pao examples defined for  $a_1$ ,  $b_1 \in [L_1, U_1]$  and  $a_2$ ,  $b_2 \in [L_2, U_2]$ :

$$(a_1, b_1) \otimes (a_2, b_2) = \frac{a_1 + a_2 - b_1 - b_2 + U_1 + U_2 - L_1 - L_2}{2(U_1 + U_2 - L_1 - L_2)},$$
(9)

## 4.3. Intangible and tangible attractiveness indexes

#### 4.3.1. Intangible attractiveness index

The assessment of attractiveness of an alternative  $x_i$  with respect to intangible attribute  $I_j \in Q_l$  relies on the AGRIDS. Thus, each potential alternative  $x_i$  will be characterized by a pair of ratings  $\left(R_j^F(x_i), R_j^U(x_i)\right)$ , where  $R_j^F\left(x_i\right)$  denotes the j-th favorableness rating and  $R_j^U\left(x_i\right)$  denotes the j-th unfavorableness rating. One possible way to compute the intangible attractiveness index is to compare any alternative  $x_i$  to all other alternatives on each of the points of view. Following Rebai (1994), we define the superiority (resp. inferiority) score of alternatives  $x_i$  with

respect to intangible attribute  $I_j \in Q_I$  as the number of alternatives beaten by (resp. beating)  $x_i$ . Thus, for each alternative  $x_i$ , the superiority and inferiority scores with respect to the j-th favorableness rating  $R_j^F(x_i)$  of intangible attribute  $I_j \in Q_I$  are given by Equation (11) and Equation (12), respectively:

$$S_{j}^{F}\left(x_{i}\right) = \left|\left\{x_{k} \in L / R_{j}^{F}\left(x_{i}\right) \succ R_{j}^{F}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\}\right|,\tag{11}$$

$$I_{j}^{F}\left(x_{i}\right) = \left|\left\{x_{k} \in L / R_{j}^{F}\left(x_{k}\right) \succ R_{j}^{F}\left(x_{i}\right)\right\}\right|. \tag{12}$$

Analogically, the superiority and inferiority scores of alternative  $x_i$  with respect to j-th unfavorableness rating  $R_j^U(x_i)$  of intangible attribute  $I_j$  are given by Equation (13) and Equation (14), respectively:

$$S_{j}^{U}(x_{i}) = \left| \left\{ x_{k} \in L / R_{j}^{U}(x_{i}) \succ R_{j}^{U}(x_{k}) \right\} \right|, \tag{13}$$

$$I_{j}^{U}\left(x_{i}\right) = \left|\left\{x_{k} \in L / R_{j}^{U}\left(x_{k}\right) \succ R_{j}^{U}\left(x_{i}\right)\right\}\right|,\tag{14}$$

where the symbol  $\succ$  stands for strict preference and  $|\cdot|$  indicates cardinality.

The intangible attractiveness index  $\rho_j(x_i)$  of alternative  $x_i$  with respect to intangible attribute can be computed using the bi-pao introduced in Section 3.2 as follows:

$$\rho_{j}(x_{i}) = \left(S_{j}^{F}(x_{i}), I_{j}^{F}(x_{i}), S_{j}^{U}(x_{i}), I_{j}^{U}(x_{i})\right). \tag{15}$$

*Example.* (*Clarifying example*) let us consider six alternatives  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{i=6}$  evaluated with respect to a given intangible attribute as shown in Figure 3.

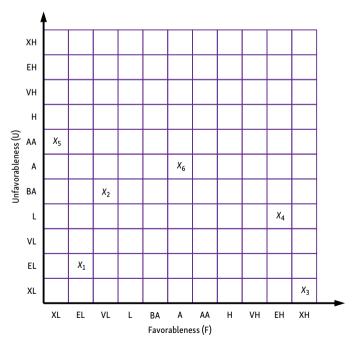


Figure 3. Evaluation of alternatives on intangible attribute

After eliciting the decision maker's judgment for each alternative using the Attractiveness Grid, each alternative is represented by two linguistic rating vectors. We then compute the superiority and inferiority scores for each alternative by comparing it with all other available alternatives across each point of view, as defined in Equations (11) to (14). The results are presented in the third to sixth columns of Table 1. Next, we calculate the intangible attractiveness index for each alternative with respect to each intangible attribute using Equation (16). These results are provided in the seventh column of Table 1.

$$\rho_{I}(x_{i}) = \frac{S_{I}^{F}(x_{i}) + S_{I}^{u}(x_{i}) - I_{I}^{F}(x_{i}) - I_{I}^{u}(x_{i}) + 2(n-1)}{4(n-1)}.$$
(16)

Table 1. Intangible attractiveness indexes

x <sub>i</sub>	$R_{I}^{F}\left(x_{i}\right), R_{I}^{U}\left(x_{i}\right)$	$S_{I}^{F}(x_{i})$	$I_{I}^{F}\left(x_{i}\right)$	$S_{I}^{U}(x_{i})$	$I_{I}^{U}(x_{i})$	$\rho_I(x_i)$
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	1	4	4	1	0.5
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	2	3	2	3	0.4
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	(s <sub>11</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	5	0	5	0	1
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	(s <sub>10</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	4	1	3	2	0.7
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	(s <sub>1</sub> , s <sub>7</sub> )	0	5	0	5	0
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	3	2	1	4	0.7

#### 4.3.2. Tangible attractiveness index

Let  $T_j \in Q_T$  be a tangible attribute and  $f_j\left(x_i\right)$  be the score of alternative  $x_i$  with respect to  $T_i$ . To avoid scaling issues, scores  $f_j\left(x_i\right)$   $\left(T_j \in Q_T, i=1,\cdots,n\right)$  need to be normalized using a linear max transformation. Thus, the tangible attractiveness index  $\gamma_j\left(x_i\right)$  of alternative  $x_i$  with respect to tangible attribute  $T_i$  is given by:

$$\gamma_{j}(x_{i}) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_{ij}}{\max_{k} f_{j}(x_{k})}, & \text{for a benefit attribute} \\ 1 - \frac{f_{ij}}{\max_{k} f_{j}(x_{k})}, & \text{for a cost attribute.} \end{cases}$$
 (17)

## 4.4. Ranking of alternatives on the basis of a dominance measure

To rank order the alternatives, GAMETE needs to compute a global overall score for all the alternatives. Generally, MADM methods use a pre-defined set of relative weights for the attributes in order to combine partial evaluations (i.e., with respect to a single attribute) into a global evaluation. Attribute weights are important parameters in decision-making problems because they directly influence the accuracy of the final results. However, due to the increasing complexity of many real decision situations, there are often challenges for decision-makers in providing precise and complete weight information. This may arise from several factors, including time pressure, lack of data, and human cognitive limitations. The decision-makers are not confident in providing exact value weights to all attributes. Thus, GAMETE assumes that information about attribute weights is either partially or incompletely

known. This means that the decision maker provides only some linear relations to express incomplete information about the weights, such as ranking, interval description, and so on.

There are five basic forms of incomplete weights information (IWI) specification (Souissi & Hnich, 2022).

- Form 1. Weak ranking:  $w_1 \ge \cdots \ge w_m$ .
- Form 2. Strict ranking:  $w_i w_{i+1} \ge \alpha_i > 0$  for j = 1 to m 1.

- Form 3. Interval form: α<sub>j</sub> ≤ w<sub>j</sub> ≤ α<sub>j</sub> + ε<sub>j</sub> for j = 1 to m.
  Form 4. Ranking with multiples: w<sub>j</sub> ≥ α<sub>j</sub> w<sub>j+1</sub> for j = 1 to m-1.
  Form 5. Ranking differences of adjacent weights: w<sub>1</sub> w<sub>2</sub> ≥ w<sub>2</sub> w<sub>3</sub> ≥ ··· ≥ w<sub>m</sub> w<sub>m+1</sub>, with  $w_{m+1} = 0$ .

Forms 1–2 and 4–5 are well known types of IWI, whereas form 3 is a ranking of differences of adjacent weights obtained by ranking between two parameters that can be constructed based on form 1.

In the situations where the information on attribute weights provided by the decision makers is incomplete. We formulate two linear programming problems P1 and P2 to check the dominance relation between each pair of alternatives based on the bounded-difference operation. These are the following:

$$(P1) = \begin{cases} \min(\max) Z_1(Z_2) = \sum_{I_j \in Q_I} w_j \left[ \rho_j(x_i) \odot \rho_j(x_k) \right] + \sum_{T_j \in Q_T} w_j \left[ \gamma_j(x_i) \odot \gamma_j(x_k) \right] \\ \text{Subject to} \\ w = (w_1, \cdots, w_m) \in W \\ \sum_{j=1}^m w_j = 1 \\ w_j \in [0, 1]; \end{cases}$$
 (18)

$$(P2) = \begin{cases} \min(\max) Z_3(Z_4) = \sum_{I_j \in Q_I} w_j \left[ \rho_j(x_k) \odot \rho_j(x_i) \right] + \sum_{T_j \in Q_T} w_j \left[ \gamma_j(x_k) \odot \gamma_j(x_i) \right] \\ \text{Subject to} \\ w = (w_1, \cdots, w_m) \in W \\ \sum_{j=1}^m w_j = 1 \\ w_j \in [0, 1], \end{cases}$$
 (19)

where W stands for the feasible weight space defined based on the incomplete weight information provided by the user.

By solving the linear programming problems P(1) and P(2) for n (n - 1) ordered pairs of alternatives, we can assign to each pair of alternatives  $(x_i, x_k)$  with i < k, an interval of the form  $ID(x_i, x_k) = |\underline{D}(x_i, x_k), \overline{D}(x_i, x_k)|$  such that:  $\underline{D}(x_i, x_k) = Z_1^*$  and  $\overline{D}(x_i, x_k) = Z_2^*$  with  $Z_1^*$ (resp.  $Z_2^*$  ) is the optimal solution for the min (resp. max) version of linear program (P1).

Similarity, we assign to each pair of alternatives  $(x_k, x_i)$  with i > k, an interval of the form  $ID(x_k, x_i) = \left[\underline{D}(x_k, x_i), \overline{D}(x_k, x_i)\right]$  such that  $\underline{D}(x_k, x_i) = Z_3^*$  and  $\overline{D}(x_k, x_i) = Z_4^*$  with  $Z_3^*$  (resp.  $Z_4^*$ ) is the optimal solution for the min (resp. max) version of linear program (P2).

The pairwise dominance matrix can then be defined using the intervals  $ID(x_i, x_k)$  and  $ID(x_k, x_i)$  as entries as follows:

$$ID = \begin{pmatrix} - & ID_{12} & \cdots & ID_{1\left(n-1\right)} & ID_{1n} \\ ID_{21} & - & \cdots & ID_{2\left(n-1\right)} & ID_{2n} \\ ID_{31} & ID_{32} & - & ID_{3\left(n-1\right)} & ID_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ ID_{n1} & ID_{n2} & \cdots & ID_{n\left(n-1\right)} & - \end{pmatrix}.$$

We notice that if  $\underline{D}(x_k, x_i) > \overline{D}(x_i, x_k)$ , then alternative  $x_k$  will be said to strictly dominate  $x_i$  while if  $\underline{D}(x_k, x_i) > \underline{D}(x_i, x_k)$  and  $\overline{D}(x_k, x_i) > \overline{D}(x_i, x_k)$ , then alternative  $x_k$  will be said to weakly dominate  $x_i$ . If it is not possible to differentiate the alternatives on this basis, a dominance intensity measure is proposed to calculate the preference intensities. The dominance intensity measure is defined as follows ( Li et al., 2018):

$$DI(x_i, x_k) = \max \left\{ 1 - \max \left\{ \frac{\overline{D}(x_k, x_i) - \underline{D}(x_i, x_k)}{\left(\overline{D}(x_k, x_i) - \underline{D}(x_k, x_i)\right) + \left(\overline{D}(x_i, x_k) - \underline{D}(x_i, x_k)\right)}, 0 \right\}, 0 \right\}. \tag{20}$$

Afterwards, we can establish a Boolean matrix  $B = \left(b_{ij}\right)_{m \times m}$  with following entries of B is defined as follows:

$$b_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{si } DI(x_i, x_k) \ge 0.5\\ 0 & \text{si } DI(x_i, x_k) < 0.5 \end{cases}$$
 (21)

Then, the global score  $\pi(x_i)$  of alternative  $x_i$  can then be calculated simply by summing up the entries  $b_{ii}$  in i-th row of matrix B:

$$\pi(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^m b_{ij} \quad . \tag{22}$$

At last, we can rank the potential alternative according to the decreasing order of  $\pi(x_i)$ , where the most suitable potential location with the maximum value among all  $\pi(x_i)$  values.

## 4.5. The GAMETE method steps

GAMETE is structured into five steps, as shown in Figure 4. The algorithm begins by evaluating each alternative  $x_i$  with respect to both tangible and intangible attributes. This is done by computing the measures  $\rho_j(x_i)$  for each  $x_i$  using Equations (16) and (17), respectively (Step 1). Once the individual attribute scores are determined, the algorithm proceeds with pairwise dominance analysis (Step 2). For each pair of alternatives  $x_i$ , it assesses their relative strength by solving optimization problems that yield the lower and upper dominance bounds:  $\underline{D}(x_i,x_k)$ , and  $\overline{D}(x_i,x_k)$  for k>i and  $\underline{D}(x_k,x_i)$  and  $\overline{D}(x_k,x_i)$  for i>k. These values quantify the extent to which one alternative dominates another. Next, the dominance intensity measure  $DI(x_i,x_k)$  is computed to quantify the strength of dominance between alternatives (Step 3).

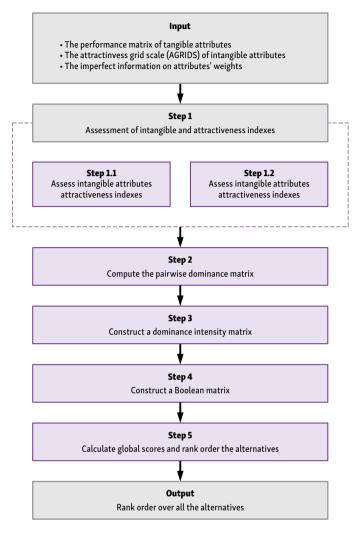


Figure 4. GAMETE five steps process

A Boolean matrix B is then constructed according to Equation (22), representing the pairwise comparisons (Step 4). Finally, the algorithm computes a global score  $\pi(x_i)$  for each alternative  $x_i$  by aggregating the dominance relationships into a final ranking (Step 5). The alternatives are then sorted in descending order based on their global scores.

## 4.6. Illustrative application

A logistics center is a specific area that acts as the core of a specific area within which all activities related to logistics, such as distribution, storage, transportation, consolidation, handling, customs clearance, imports, exports, transit processes, infrastructural services, insurance, and banking, occur (Moroza & Jurgelane-Kaldava, 2019). A wide range of names has been used to refer to different versions of logistics centers. These include distribution center,

freight village, dry port, inland port, load center, logistics node, gateway, central warehouse, freight/transport terminal, transport node, logistics platform, logistics depot, or Distri-park (Yazdani et al., 2018).

The logistic center location selection is one of the most critical issues to affect organizations survival, performance and competitiveness in the long term. It consists basically of determining the most suitable placement of infrastructural components in a considered area where a firm can perform its logistics, production, and procurement functions, keep its inventories, and sustain its economic objectives. The optimal logistic center location assures a good transport system performing in logistics activities and bringing benefit not only to the service quality but also to the company's competitiveness. The goal is to identify the location that operates at minimal cost and maximum efficiency while meeting operational and strategic requirements (Pamucar et al., 2018).

The location decision is critical for both short- and long-term planning, as it involves substantial costs and is difficult to reverse. Thus, the decision maker must select the location for a logistics center that will not only deliver high performance but also be flexible enough to accommodate the necessary future change. A bad choice of location might result in excessive transportation costs, a loss of competitive advantage, inadequate supplies of raw materials, or some similar conditions that would be detrimental to the operations. The evaluation and selection of a suitable logistics center location is a critical decision involving complexity due to the existence of numerous intangible and tangible attributes. Hence, it is considered as a multi-attribute decision making problem.

In this Section, we provide an illustrative application for logistic center location selection by using the proposed approach. There are six alternatives  $\left\{x_i\right\}_{i=1}^{i=6}$  evaluated in terms of nine attributes including: size  $(q_1)$ , investment cost  $(q_2)$ , proximity to industrial zone  $(q_3)$ , proximity to airport  $(q_4)$ , proximity to railroad system  $(q_5)$ , proximity to harbor  $(q_6)$ , safety and security  $(q_7)$ , social attractiveness  $(q_8)$ , and environmental friendliness  $(q_9)$ . Attributes  $\left\{q_j\right\}_{j=1}^{j=6}$  are tangible while attributes  $\left\{q_j\right\}_{j=7}^{j=9}$  are intangible. In this problem, the attribute weights are ranked-ordered as follows:  $w_2 > w_3 > w_8 > w_9 > w_5 > w_4 > w_7 > w_1 > w_6$ .

#### 4.6.1. Specification of input data

The initial scores of all tangible attributes  $(q_1)$  to  $(q_6)$  are shown in Table 2, along with the preference directions of these attributes.

Alternatives	<i>q</i> <sub>1</sub> (max)	q <sub>2</sub> (min)	q <sub>3</sub> (min)	q <sub>4</sub> (min)	q <sub>5</sub> (min)	<i>q</i> <sub>6</sub> (min)
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	38	100	18	21	23	22
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	47	200	2	12	4	1
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	47	900	3.4	10	1.3	1
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	30	100	6	29	4	4
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	100	300	6	55	59	47
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	100	300	0.35	65	141	3

Table 2. Initial scores of tangible attributes

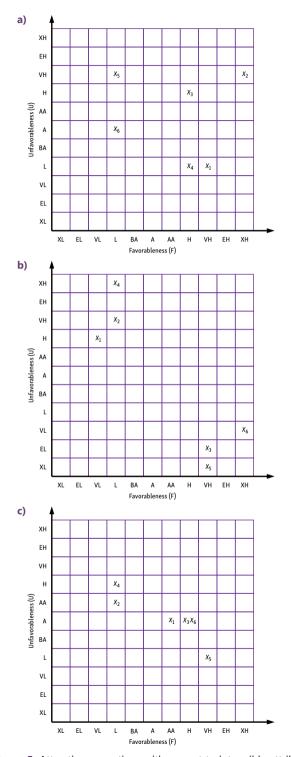


Figure 5. Attractiveness ratings with respect to intangible attributes

The attractiveness ratings with respect to intangible attributes Safety and Security  $(q_7)$ , Social Attractiveness  $(q_8)$ , and Environmental Friendliness  $(q_9)$  are given in the AGRIDSs shown in Figure 5a to 5c, respectively.

## 4.6.2. Application of GAMETE

The computational procedure of the proposed GAMETE using the data above is summarized as follows.

Step 1. Assessment of intangible and attractiveness indexes. The first step of GAMETE consists of calculating the attractiveness indexes for intangible and tangible attributes. The attractiveness indexes with respect to intangible attributes Safety and Security  $(q_7)$ , Social attractiveness  $(q_8)$ , and Environmental friendliness  $(q_9)$  are summarized in Tables 3–5, respectively. The second columns in these tables are directly extracted from the attractiveness ratings in Figure 5. The third to sixth columns in Tables 3–5, have been computed using Equations (11)–(14), respectively. The last columns in Tables 3–5 correspond to the attractiveness indexes of the alternatives computed through Equation (16).

**Table 3.** Intangible attractiveness indexes w.r.t. Safety and Security  $(q_7)$ 

Alternatives	Safety and Security							
x <sub>i</sub>	$\left( R_7^F \left( x_i \right), R_7^U \left( x_i \right) \right)$	$S_7^F(x_i)$	$I_7^F(x_i)$	$S_7^U(x_i)$	$I_7^U\left(x_i\right)$	$\rho_7(x_i)$		
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	(s <sub>9</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	4	1	4	0	0.85		
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	(s <sub>11</sub> , s <sub>9</sub> )	5	0	0	4	0.55		
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	(s <sub>8</sub> , s <sub>8</sub> )	2	2	3	2	0.55		
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	(s <sub>8</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	2	2	4	0	0.7		
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>9</sub> )	0	4	0	4	0.1		
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	0	4	3	2	0.35		

**Table 4.** Intangible attractiveness indexes w.r.t. Social Attractiveness  $(q_8)$ 

Alternatives	Social Attractiveness							
x <sub>i</sub>	$\left(R_8^F\left(x_i\right),R_8^U\left(x_i\right)\right)$	$S_8^F(x_i)$	$I_8^F(x_i)$	$S_8^U(x_i)$	$I_8^U(x_i)$	$\rho_8(x_i)$		
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>8</sub> )	0	5	2	3	0.2		
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>9</sub> )	1	3	0	5	0.15		
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	(s <sub>8</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	3	2	4	1	0.7		
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>11</sub> )	1	3	0	5	0.15		
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	(s <sub>9</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	4	1	5	0	0.9		
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	(s <sub>11</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	5	0	3	2	0.8		

Alternatives	Environmental Friendliness									
x <sub>i</sub>	$\left(R_9^F\left(x_i\right), R_9^U\left(x_i\right)\right)$	$ \overline{ \left( R_9^F\left( x_i \right), R_9^U\left( x_i \right) \right) }  S_9^F\left( x_i \right) \qquad I_9^F\left( x_i \right) \qquad S_9^U\left( x_i \right) \qquad I_9^U\left( x_i \right) \qquad \rho_9\left( x_i \right) $								
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	(s <sub>7</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	2	3	2	1	0.5				
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>7</sub> )	0	4	1	4	0.15				
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	(s <sub>8</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	3	1	2	1	0.65				
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>8</sub> )	0	4	0	5	0.05				
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	(s <sub>9</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	5	0	4	1	0.9				
X <sub>C</sub>	(So. Sc)	3	1	2	1	0.65				

**Table 5.** Intangible attractiveness indexes w.r.t. Environmental Friendliness  $(q_9)$ 

Now, we compute the tangible attractiveness index by the normalization procedure linear max are provided in Table 6.

Table 6. Tangible attractiveness index

Alternatives		Tangible attributes							
x <sub>i</sub>	91	$q_1$ $q_2$ $q_3$ $q_4$ $q_5$ $q_6$							
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	0.35	0.889	0	0.677	0.837	0.532			
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	0.47	0.778	0.889	0.815	0.972	0.979			
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	0.47	0	0.811	0.846	0.991	0.979			
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	0.3	0.889	0.667	0.554	0.972	0.915			
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	1	0.667	0.667	0.154	0.582	0			
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	1	0.667	0.981	0	0	0.936			

The results of the Intangible and Tangible attractiveness indexes are summarized in Table 7 below.

Table 7. The attribute attractiveness indexes

Alternatives			Tangible	Intangible attributes					
x <sub>i</sub>	<i>q</i> <sub>1</sub>	<b>q</b> <sub>2</sub>	<b>q</b> <sub>3</sub>	<i>q</i> <sub>4</sub>	<b>q</b> <sub>5</sub>	<b>q</b> <sub>6</sub>	<b>q</b> <sub>7</sub>	<i>q</i> <sub>8</sub>	<b>q</b> <sub>9</sub>
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	0.35	0.889	0	0.677	0.837	0.532	0.85	0.2	0.5
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	0.47	0.778	0.889	0.815	0.972	0.979	0.55	0.15	0.15
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	0.47	0	0.811	0.846	0.991	0.979	0.55	0.7	0.65
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	0.3	0.889	0.667	0.554	0.972	0.915	0.7	0.15	0.05
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	1	0.667	0.667	0.154	0.582	0	0.1	0.9	0.9
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	1	0.667	0.981	0	0	0.936	0.35	0.8	0.65

**Step 2. Compute the pairwise dominance matrix.** The computation of the pairwise dominance matrix is the core step of GAMETE. This matrix is obtained by solving the linear programs (P1) and (P2) using the attractiveness indexes in Table 7. The obtained pairwise dominance matrix is given in Table 8. This Table 8 shows for each pair of alternatives  $(x_i, x_k)$ 

the dominated and dominating degrees of the form  $\left[\underline{D}(x_i,x_k),\overline{D}(x_i,x_k)\right]$  for i < k and of the form  $\left[\underline{D}(x_k,x_i),\overline{D}(x_k,x_i)\right]$  for i > k. The bounds of the first interval are optimal solutions of the min and the max versions of (P1), respectively; while the bounds of the second interval are the optimal solutions of the min and max versions of (P2), respectively.

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lable	8.	The	pairwise	dominance	matrix

Alternatives	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	-	[0.07 0.117]	[0.162 0.614]	[0.032 0.113]	[0.094 0.221]	[0.117 0.286]
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	[0.073 0.357]	-	[0.128 0.565]	[0.03 0.101]	[0.122 0.269]	[0.094 0.279]
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	[0.107 0.386]	[0.06 0.228]	-	[0.084 0.291]	[0.056 0.246]	[0.069 0.265]
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	[0.052 0.265]	[0.024 0.083]	[0.148 0.643]	-	[0.093 0.237]	[0.115 0.272]
<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	[0.115 0.407]	[0.088 0.328]	[0.185 0.51]	[0.945 0.351]	_	[0.046 0.166]
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	[0.116 0.453]	[0.076 0.274]	[0.162 0.503]	[0.098 0.348]	[0.027 0.134]	-

For instance, the dominance relations between alternatives  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  is formulated as follows:

• The dominated degrees  $ID(x_2, x_1)$  is defined by:

$$ID(x_1, x_2) = \min(\max) Z_1(Z_2) = 0.111w_2 + 0.3 w_7 + 0.05w_8 + 0.35w_9$$
 . Subject to:

$$w_2 - w_3 \ge 0.01$$
;  $w_3 - w_8 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_8 - w_9 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_9 - w_5 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_5 - w_4 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_4 - w_7 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_7 - w_4 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_4 - w_6 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_6 > 0$ ;  $w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + w_4 + w_5 + w_6 + w_7 + w_8 + w_9 = 1$ .

• The dominating degrees  $ID(x_2, x_1)$  is defined by:

$$ID(x_2, x_1) = \min(\max)Z_3(Z_4) = 0.12w_1 + 0.889 w_3 + 0.138w_4 + 0.135w_5 + 0.447w_6.$$
 Subject to:

$$w_2 - w_3 \ge 0.01$$
;  $w_3 - w_8 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_8 - w_9 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_9 - w_5 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_5 - w_4 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_4 - w_7 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_7 - w_4 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_4 - w_6 \ge 0.01$ ;  $w_6 > 0$ ;  $w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + w_4 + w_5 + w_6 + w_7 + w_8 + w_9 = 1$ .

**Step 3. Construct a dominance intensity matrix.** The dominance intensity is computed by applying Equation (21). The calculations have resulted in the data shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Dominance intensity

Alternatives	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	0.5	0	1	0	0	0.336
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	1	0.5	1	1	0.468	1
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	0	0	0.5	0	0	0
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	1	0	1	0.5	0	0.427
<i>X</i> <sub>5</sub>	1	0.532	1	1	0.5	1

**Step 4. Construct a Boolean matrix.** The Boolean matrix is computed using Equation (22). The Boolean matrix for the considered example is given in Table 10.

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Alternatives	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>5</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>
<i>X</i> <sub>1</sub>	0.5	0	1	0	0	0
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	1	0.5	1	1	0	1
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	0	0	0.5	0	0	0
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	1	0	1	0.5	0	0
<i>X</i> <sub>5</sub>	1	1	1	1	0.5	1
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	1	0	1	1	0	0.5

Step 5. Calculate global scores and rank order the alternatives. GAMETE then calculates the global scores  $\pi(.)$  for all alternative by applying Equation (23) using the data in the Boolean matrix. The result of this step is summarized in Table 11. According to the global scores, the final ranking of alternative location is:  $x_5 > x_2 > x_6 > x_4 > x_1 > x_3$ .

Table 11. Global scores and ranks

Alternatives	Global score $\pi(x_i)$	Rank
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	1.5	5
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	4.5	2
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	0.5	6
	2.5	4
<i>X</i> <sub>5</sub>	5.5	1
<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	3.5	3

## 5. Comparative analysis

This section aims to compare the prescriptions of GAMETE against some other well-known MADM methods running on Linguistic Intuitionistic fuzzy and Linguistic Pythagorean fuzzy. The comparison made shows the applicability and feasibility through two real case studies.

## 5.1. Case study 1: building materials selection problem

This first case concerns the problem of selecting sustainable indoor flooring materials (Meng & Dong, 2022). Four alternative types of sustainable indoor flooring materials are considered, namely Terrazzo flooring  $(x_1)$ , Solid hardwood flooring  $(x_2)$ , Luxury vinyl planks  $(x_3)$ , and Ceramic tiles  $(x_4)$ . The four alternatives are evaluated using 17 intangible attributes: Initial cost  $(q_1)$ , Maintenance cost  $(q_2)$ , Disposal cost  $(q_3)$ , Energy saving and thermal insulation  $(q_4)$ , Potential for recycling and reuse  $(q_5)$ , Energy and water consumption  $(q_6)$ , CO<sub>2</sub> emission and air pollution  $(q_7)$ , damage to natural resources  $(q_8)$ , Usage of local material  $(q_9)$ , Labor availability  $(q_{10})$ , Esthetics  $(q_{11})$ , Safety and health  $(q_{12})$ , Maintainability  $(q_{13})$ , Buildability  $(q_{14})$ , Life expectancy  $(q_{15})$ , Corrosion resistance  $(q_{16})$  and Fire resistance  $(q_{17})$ . The ranking of weights of attributes is as follows:  $q_{16} \ge q_1 \ge q_2 \ge q_1 \ge q_1$ 

Table 12. Ratings of alternatives

Attributes	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>
91	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )
$q_2$	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )
$q_3$	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )
$q_4$	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )
<b>q</b> <sub>5</sub>	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )
96	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )
<b>9</b> 7	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )
<i>q</i> <sub>8</sub>	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )
$q_9$	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )
q <sub>10</sub>	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )
q <sub>11</sub>	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>0</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )
q <sub>12</sub>	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )
q <sub>13</sub>	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )
q <sub>14</sub>	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>6</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )
q <sub>15</sub>	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>3</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>6</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )
<i>q</i> <sub>16</sub>	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	(s <sub>5</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>4</sub> )	(s <sub>3</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )
q <sub>17</sub>	(s <sub>7</sub> , s <sub>1</sub> )	(s <sub>4</sub> , s <sub>2</sub> )	(s <sub>1</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )	(s <sub>2</sub> , s <sub>5</sub> )

## 5.1.1. Application of GAMETE

The results of the application of Step 1 to Step 4 are summarized in Tables 13–16. These Tables 13–16 show the attractiveness indexes, pairwise dominance matric, the dominance intensity matrix and the Boolean matrix.

Table 13. Attractiveness indexes

Attributes	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>
$q_1$	0.333	1,000	0,083	0,583
$q_2$	0.667	0,250	0,083	1.000
$q_3$	0.500	0.833	0.083	0.750
$q_4$	0.333	0.750	0.917	-
<i>q</i> <sub>5</sub>	0.750	0.167	0.917	0.167
$q_6$	_	0.667	1.000	0.333
<b>q</b> <sub>7</sub>	0.500	-	1.000	0.500
$q_8$	0.833	0.333	-	0.833
$q_9$	-	0.417	0.583	1.000
q <sub>10</sub>	0.417	0.667	-	0.916
q <sub>11</sub>	0.917	0.333	0.750	-
q <sub>12</sub>	0.417	0.917	0.750	0.083
q <sub>13</sub>	0.500	0.750	-	0.750
q <sub>14</sub>	_	0.667	0.333	1.000
<b>q</b> <sub>15</sub>	0.917	0.250	0.083	0.750
9 <sub>16</sub>	0.917	0.750	0.250	0.083
q <sub>17</sub>	1.000	0.667	0.083	0.250

Table 14. Pairwise dominance matrix

Alter.	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	-	[0.174; 0.358]	[0.313; 0.63]	[0.241; 0.771]
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	[0.028; 0.25]	-	[0.26; 0.48]	[0.234;0.622]
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	[0.0174;0.212]	[0.016;0.345]	-	[0.165; 0.434]
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	[0.023;0.273]	[0.021; 0.214]	[0.041; 0.38]	-

Table 15. Dominance intensity matrix

Alter.	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	-	0.813	1	0.95
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	0.187	-	0.845	1
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	0	0.155	-	0.646
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	0.04	0	0.354	-

Table 16. Boolean matrix

Alter.	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	$\pi(x_i)$
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	-	1	1	1	3
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	0	-	1	1	2
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	0	0	_	1	1
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	0	0	0	_	0

The Boolean matrix in Table 16 is used to compute the global scores, which are shown in Table 17 along with ranks of all alternatives. According to these global scores, the rank of alternatives is as follows:  $x_1 > x_2 > x_3 > x_4$ . This means that Terrazzo flooring  $(x_1)$  is the best sustainable indoor flooring materials to be used.

Table 17. Global scores and ranks

Alter.	$\pi(x_i)$	Rank
<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	3	3
<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	2	2
<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	1	1
<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>	0	0

## 5.1.2. Analysis of results

To assess the effectiveness of GAMETE, we used the data in Section 4.2 to run the following methods: linguistic intuitionistic fuzzy Weighted Averaging (LIF-WA) method (Chen et al., 2015), LIF-TOPSIS (Ou et al., 2018), linguistic intuitionistic fuzzy Choquet-an acronym in Portuguese for iterative multi-criteria decision making (LIF-CTODIM) method (Liu & Shen, 2019), and linguistic intuitionistic fuzzy Preference Ranking Organization Method for Enrichment Evaluation (LIF-PROMETHE) (Meng & Dong, 2022), The obtained ranking and best solution for all these methods and GAMETE are shown in Table 18.

Method	Reference	Rank order	Best alternative
LIF-WA	Chen et al. (2015)	$x_1 > x_2 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>
LIF-TOPSIS	Ou et al. (2018)	$x_1 > x_2 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>
LIF-CTODIM	Liu and Shen (2019)	$x_2 > x_1 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
LIF-PROMETHEE	Meng and Dong (2022)	$x_2 > x_1 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
GAMETTE	The current study	$x_1 > x_2 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>

Table 18. Obtained ranking and best solution

It is noteworthy that in this illustrative application, GAMETE, LIF-WA, LIF-TOPSIS and LPF-TOPSIS produce the same ranking of the alternative. Besides, alternative  $x_1$  is ranked firstly by GAMETE, LIF-WA, and LIF-TOPSIS. At the same time,  $x_1$  is ranked second by LIF-CTODIM and LIF-PROMETHEE. In addition, LIF-CTODIM and LIF-PROMETHHE produce the same ranking and prescribe alternative  $x_2$  as the preferred choice. In fact, the produced ranking which differ only in the positions assigned to alternative  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . However, all the MADM models favored  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  as the dominant alternatives. Thus, the comparison results demonstrate that the GAMETE method performs well.

## 5.2. Case study 2: Technology security evaluation of computers systems

The second case study, extracted from Lin et al. (2019), is about the ranking of technology security evaluation of computers systems. In this case study, GAMETE is compared to recent LPFs methods including: LPF-weighted averaging (LPF-WA) method (Garg, 2018), LPF-Weighted Geometric (LPF-WG) method (Garg, 2018), LPF-TOPSIS method (Lin et al., 2019; Han et al., 2020), LPF based on Interaction Portioned Bonferroni Mean (LPF-IPBM) method (Lin et al., 2018) and LPF based on Interaction Portioned Geometric Bonferroni Mean (LPF-IGBM) method (Lin et al., 2018). Four computer systems  $\left\{x_i\right\}_{i=1}^{i=4}$  are evaluated using four intangible attributes, which are: Hardware security  $(q_1)$ , System software security  $(q_2)$ , Application software security  $(q_3)$  and Data security  $(q_4)$ . In this case study, the ranking of weights of attribute is defined as follows  $0.26 \le w_1 \le 0.29$ ,  $0.3 \le w_2 \le 0.35$ ,  $0.15 \le w_3 \le 0.22$ ,  $0.23 \le w_4 \le 0.25$ . The linguistic decision matrix is given in Table 19.

Table 20 depicts all the rankings prescribed by the various LPF- MADM methods being used. Noteworthy, in this illustration application, GAMETE, LPF-TOPSIS, LPF-WG, and LPF-WIPGM produce the same ranking of the alternatives. Besides this, as shown in Table 20, alternative  $A_2$  is ranked first of all LPF-MADM methods being used, including GAMETE.

Table 19. Decision m	natrix for case study 2	
	Y <sub>1</sub>	

	<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>3</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>4</sub>
$q_1$	(S <sub>5</sub> , S <sub>3</sub> )	(S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>1</sub> )	(S <sub>5</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> )	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> )
$q_2$	(S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>1</sub> )	(S <sub>7</sub> , S <sub>3</sub> )	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> )	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> )
$q_3$	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> )	(S <sub>5</sub> , S <sub>1</sub> )	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> )	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>1</sub> )
$q_4$	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>1</sub> )	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> )	(S <sub>6</sub> , S <sub>1</sub> )	(S <sub>5</sub> , S <sub>1</sub> )

Table 20.	Comparison	results for	case study	12

Method	Reference	Ranking orders	Best solution
LPF-TOPSIS	Lin et al. (2019)	$x_2 > x_1 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
LPF-TOPSIS	Han et al. (2020)	$x_2 > x_4 > x_3 > x_1$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
LPF-WG	Garg (2018)	$x_2 > x_4 > x_3 > x_1$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
LPF-WA	Garg (2018)	$x_2 > x_1 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
LPF-WIPBM	Lin et al. (2018)	$x_2 > x_1 > x_4 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
LPF-WIPGBM	Lin et al. (2018)	$x_2 > x_4 > x_1 > x_3$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>
GAMETE	The current study	$x_2 > x_4 > x_3 > x_1$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>

#### 6. Discussion

The results obtained from both illustrative applications demonstrate that the application of GAMETE ensures sound and defensible solutions to MADM decision problems. In our view, the GAMETE method offers several clear advantages over the LIF-MADM and LPF-MADM approaches. First, GAMETE avoids the restrictive assumptions on membership and non-membership degrees, allowing decision makers to evaluate positive and negative information independently. It is particularly adept at handling conflicting positive and negative information, which is a common characteristic of real-world decision problems. Furthermore, GAMETE is sufficiently flexible to address practical MADM scenarios involving both tangible and intangible attributes, as well as evaluatively positive and negative information regarding the alternatives. The integration of the Attractiveness Grid scale to assess intangible attributes adds predictive validity to the evaluation process by distinguishing among four types of evaluative reactions: indifference, ambivalence, positive attitude, and negative attitude. This scale is particularly well-suited for evaluating both positive and negative aspects concurrently, and it reflects key psychological factors underlying human behavior. Finally, the ranking of alternatives, based on dominance relations, dominance intensity, and a Boolean matrix, ensures the selection of the most appropriate alternative.

We acknowledge that, compared to some traditional MADM methods, GAMETE may require relatively higher computational effort due to its formulation and optimization steps. However, several key points help mitigate this concern. First, GAMETE eliminates the need for explicit preference parameters, which are often required in other MCDM methods – such as membership functions in fuzzy methods or linguistic scales in PFS/IFS approaches. By employing a simplified scoring mechanism, GAMETE reduces the cognitive burden on decision-makers. Second, it avoids the need for precise and often subjective elicitation of decision parameters, a common source of complexity in comparable methods. Third, although the optimization component may initially appear demanding, it is designed to be efficiently solvable using standard mathematical programming solvers, ensuring that practical implementation does not present a significant barrier. Finally, the slightly higher computational effort is a reasonable trade-off for the enhanced robustness, flexibility, and reduced subjectivity that the method offers.

## 7. Conclusions and future work

This research work aims at developing a new Multiple Attribute Decision Making (MADM) method named Bivariate Grid scale based on a multiple attribute evaluation technique (GAM-ETE). This method pioneers the use of an Attractiveness GRID scale (AGRIDS). It aims to assess the intangible attributes, taking into consideration cognitive psychological imperatives with reference to the separability and independence of positive and negative aspects. Additionally, the authors use a new bi-dimensional positional advantage operator (bi-pao) with the intention of calculating the intangible attractiveness index. Further, linear programming models are formulated in order to construct the pairwise dominance matrix. Afterwards, we rank alternatives, using a dominance intensity measure and the Boolean matrix. Furthermore, we illustrate the applicability of the method proposed through a logistics center location problem. Eventually, we perform a comparison with several state-of-the-art LIF-MADMs and LPF-MADM with the aim of showing the applicability and feasibility of the approach suggested.

GAMETE has three main shortcomings despite its innovative features. To start with, it lacks an effective validation with a real-life decision problem, and it uses primary data. Secondly, the computational requirements of GAMETE increase rapidly with the number of alternatives and/or attributes. The computational issues arise from the pairwise comparisons necessary to assess decision alternatives. They also arise from the need to solve 2n (n - 1) linear programs (where n is the number of alternatives) to compute the pairwise dominance matrix. Eventually, GAMETE is a failure in accounting for the interaction relationships between attributes.

Future research avenues are directly linked to these limitations. In the short term, we intend to develop a user-friendly decision tool supporting GAMETE in order to facilitate its application in real-life decision problems. In the medium and long terms, we plan to investigate the use of a reference point-based measure to reduce the computational demands of GAMETE. We also plan to design an extended version of GAMETE that takes into account the interaction relationships among the attributes.

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