MERGING SUCCESSIVE POSSIBILITY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR TRUST ESTIMATION UNDER UNCERTAINTY IN MULTI-AGENT SYSTEMS

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Abstract: In social networks, estimation of the degree of trustworthiness of a target agent through the information acquired from a group of advisor agents, who had direct interactions with the target agent, is challenging. The estimation gets more difficult when, in addition, there is some uncertainty in both advisor and target agents’ trust. The uncertainty is tackled when (1) the advisor agents are self-interested and provide misleading accounts of their past experiences with the target agents and (2) the outcome of each interaction between agents is multi-valued. In this paper, we propose a model for such an evaluation where possibility theory is used to address the uncertainty of an agent’s trust. The trust model of a target agent is then obtained by iteratively merging the possibility distributions of: (1) the trust of the estimator agent in its advisors, and (2) the trust of the advisor agents in a target agent. Extensive experiments validate the proposed model.

1 INTRODUCTION

Social networking sites have become the preferred venue for social interactions. Despite the fact that social networks are ubiquitous on the Internet, only few websites exploit the potential of combining user communities and online marketplaces. The reason is that users do not know which other users to trust, which makes them suspicious of engaging in online business, in particular if many unknown other parties are involved. This situation, however, can be alleviated by developing trust metrics such that a user can assess and identify trustworthy users. In the present study, we focus on developing a trust metric for estimating the trust of a target agent, who is unknown, through the information acquired from a group of advisor agents who had direct experience with the target agent, subject to possible trust uncertainty.

Each entity in a social network can be represented as an agent who is interacting with its network of trustees, which we refer to as advisors, where each advisor agent in turn is in interaction with an agent of interest, which we refer to as a target agent. Each interaction can be considered as a trust evaluation between the trustee agent, i.e., the agent who trusts another entity, and the trustee agent, i.e., the agent whom is being trusted. In the context of interactions between a service provider (trustee) and customers (trustors), some companies (e.g., e-bay and amazon) provide means for their customers to provide their feedback on the quality of the services they receive, under the form of a rating chosen out of a finite set of discrete values. This leads to a multi-valued domain of trust, where each trust rating represents the level of trustworthiness of the trustee agent as viewed by the service provider. While most of the web applications ask users to provide their feedbacks within such a multi-valued rating domain, most studies (Jøsang, 2001), (Wang and Singh, 2010), (Reece et al., 2007) and (Teacy et al., 2006) are restricted to binary domains. Thus, our motivation for developing a multi-valued trust domain where each agent can be evaluated within a multi-valued set of ratings.

An agent may ask its advisors to provide information on a target agent who is unknown to him. The advisors are not necessarily truthful (e.g., competition among market shares, medical records when buying a life insurance) and therefore may manipulate their information before reporting it. In addition, the advisor agents’ trustworthy behavior may differ from one interaction to another, leading to some uncertainty about the advisors’ trustworthiness and the
accuracy of information revealed by them.

Possibility distribution is a flexible tool for modeling an agent’s trust considering such uncertainties where the agent’s trust arises from an unknown probability distribution. Possibility theory was first introduced by (Zadeh, 1978) and further developed by Dubois and Prade (Dubois and Prade, 1988). It has been utilized, e.g., to model reliability (Delmotte and Borne, 1998). We use possibility distributions to represent the trust of an agent in order to consider the uncertainties in the agent’s trustworthiness. Later, we propose merging of the possibility distributions of an agent’s trust in its advisors with the reported possibility distributions by the advisors on a target agent’s trust. The resulted possibility distribution is an estimation of the target agent’s trust. Finally, we introduce 2 evaluation metrics and provide extensive experiments to validate our proposed tools.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the related works. In Section 3, we provide a detailed description of our problem environment. Section 4 discusses some fusion rules for merging possibility distributions considering the agents’ trust. In Section 6, we propose our merging approach of the possibility distributions in order to estimate the target agent’s trust. Extensive experimental evaluations are presented in Section 7 to validate the proposed trust model.

2 RELATED WORK

Considerable research has been accomplished in multi-agent systems providing models of trust and reputation, a detailed overview of which is provided in (Ramchurn et al., 2004). In reputation models, an aggregation of opinions of members towards an individual member which is usually shared among those members is maintained. Starting with (Zacharia et al., 2000), the reputation of an agent can be evaluated and updated by agents over time. However, it is implicitly assumed that the agent’s trust is a fixed unknown value at each time slot which does not capture the uncertainties in an agent’s trust. Regret (Sabater and Sierra, 2001) is another reputation model which describes different dimensions of reputation (e.g. “individual dimension”, “social dimension”). However, in this model the manipulation of information and how it can be handled is not addressed.

Some trust models try to capture different dimensions of trust. In (Griffiths, 2005) a multi-dimensional trust containing elements like success, cost, timelines and quality is presented. The focus in this work is on the possible criteria that is required to build a trust model. However, the uncertainty in an agent’s behavior and how it can be captured is not considered.

The work of (Huynh et al., 2006) estimates the trust of an agent considering “direct experience”, “witness information”, “role-based rules” and “third-party references provided by the target agents”. Although the latter 2 aspects are not included in our model, it is based on the assumption that the agents are honest in exchanging information with one another. In addition, despite the fact that the underlying trust of an agent is assumed to have a normal distribution, the estimated trust is a single value instead of a distribution. In other words, it does not try to measure the uncertainty associated with the occurrence of each outcome of the domain considering the results of the empirical experiments.

In all of the above works the uncertainty in the trust of an agent is not considered. We now review the works that address uncertainty. Reece et al. (Reece et al., 2007) present a multi-dimensional trust in which each dimension is binary (successful or unsuccessful) and corresponds to a service provided in a contract (video, audio, data service, etc.). This paper is mainly concentrated on fusing information received from agents who had direct observations over a subset of services (incomplete information) to derive the complete information on the target entity while our work focuses on having an accurate estimation when there is manipulation in the acquired information.

Yu and Singh (Yu and Singh, 2002) measure the probability of trust, distrust and uncertainty of an agent based on the outcome of interactions. The uncertainty measured in this work is equal to the frequency of the interaction results in which the agent’s performance is neither highly trustworthy nor highly untrustworthy which can be inferred as lack of both trust and distrust in the agent. However, the uncertainty that we capture is the change in the agent’s degree of trustworthiness regardless of how trustworthy the agent is. In other words, when an agent acts with high uncertainty it’s degree of trustworthiness is hard to predict for future interactions. We do not consider uncertainty as lack of trust or distrust, but the variability in the degree of trustworthiness. In both works of (Yu and Singh, 2002) and (Reece et al., 2007) the possibility of having malicious agents providing falsified reports is ignored.

The works of (Jøsang, 2001) and (Wang and Singh, 2010) provide probabilistic computational models measuring belief, disbelief and uncertainty from binary interactions (positive or negative). Although the manipulation of information by the reporter agents is not considered in these works, they split the interval of [0, 1] between these 3 elements.
measuring a single value for each one of them. We do not capture uncertainty in the same sense by measuring a single value, instead we consider uncertainty by measuring the likelihood of occurrence of every trust element in the domain and therefore catch the possible deviation in the degree of trustworthiness of the agents.

One of the closest works to our model which includes both uncertainty and the manipulation of information is Travos (Teacy et al., 2006). Although this work has a strong probabilistic approach and covers many issues, it is yet restricted to binary domain of events where each interaction, which is driven from the underlying probability that an agent fulfills its obligations, is either successful or unsuccessful. Our work is a generalization of this work in the sense that it is extended to a multi-valued domain where we associate a probability to the occurrence of each trust value in the domain. Extension of the Travos model from binary to multi-valued event in the probabilistic approach is quite challenging due to its technical complexity. We use possibility theory which is a flexible and strong tool to address uncertainty and at the same time it is applicable to multi-valued domains.

3 MULTI-AGENT PLATFORM

In this section, we present the components that build the multi-agent environment and the motivation behind each choice. We first discuss the set of trust values (Section 3.1), the agent’s internal trust distribution (Section 3.2) and the interactions among the agents (Section 3.3). Later, we describe the formation of the possibility distribution of an agent’s trust (Section 3.4) and the possible agent information manipulations (Section 3.5). Finally, the game scenario in this paper is discussed (Section 3.6).

3.1 Trust Values

Service providers ask customers to provide their feedbacks on the received services commonly in form of a rating selected from a multi-valued set. The selected rating indicates a customer’s degree of satisfaction or, in other words, its degree of trust in the provider’s service. This motivates us to consider a multi-valued trust domain. We define a discrete multi-valued set of trust ratings denoted by $T$, with $\tau$ being the lowest, $\tau_{\text{peak}}$ being the highest and $|T|$ representing the number of trust ratings. All trust ratings are within $[0, 1]$ and they can take any value in this range. However, if the trust ratings are distributed in equal intervals, the $i$th trust rating equals to: $(i - 1)/(|T| - 1)$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, |T|$. For example, if $|T| = 5$, then the set of trust ratings is $\{0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1\}$.

3.2 Internal Probability Distribution of an Agent’s Trust

In our multi-agent platform, each agent is associated with an internal probability distribution of trust, which is only known to the agent. This allows modeling a specific degree of trustworthiness in that agent where each trust rating $\tau$ is given a probability of occurrence. In order to model a distribution, given its minimum, maximum, peak, degree of skewness and peakness, we use a form of beta distribution called modified pert distribution (Vose, 2008). It can be replaced by any distribution that provides the above mentioned parameters. Well known distributions, e.g., normal distribution, are not employed as they do not allow positive or negative skewness of the distribution. In modified pert distribution, the peak of the distribution, which is denoted by $\tau_{\text{peak}}$, has the highest probability of occurrence. This means that while the predominant behavior of the agent is driven by $\tau_{\text{peak}}$ and the trust ratings next to it, there is a small probability that the agent does not follow its dominant behavior. Figure 1(a) demonstrates an example of the internal trust distribution of an agent. The more the peak of the internal distribution is closer to $\tau$, the more trustworthy the agent is and vice-versa.

3.3 Interaction between Agents

When a customer rates a provider’s service, its rating depends not only on the provider’s quality of service but also on the customer’s personal point of view. In this paper, we just model the provider’s quality of service. In each interaction a trustor agent, say $a$, requests a service from a trustee agent, say $b$. Agent $b$ should provide a service in correspondence with its degree of trustworthiness which is implied in its internal trust distribution. On this purpose, it generates a random value from the domain of $T$ by using its internal probability distribution of trust. The peak of the internal trust distribution, $\tau_{\text{peak}}$, has the highest probability of selection while other trust ratings in $T$ have a relatively smaller probability to be chosen. This will produce a mostly specific and yet not deterministic value. Agent $b$ reports the generated value to $a$ which represents the quality of service of $b$ in that interaction.
3.4 Building Possibility Distribution of Trust

Upon completion of a number of interactions between a trustor agent, α, and a trustee agent, β, agent α can model the internal trust distribution of β by usage of the values received from β during their interactions. If the number of interactions between the agents is high enough, the frequencies of each trust rating can almost represent the internal trust distribution of β. Otherwise, if few interactions are made, the randomly generated values may not represent the underlying distribution of β’s trust (Masson and Denœux, 2006). In order to model an agent α’s trust with respect to the uncertainty associated with the occurrence of each trust rating in the domain, we use possibility distributions which can present the degree of possibility of each trust rating in T. A possibility distribution is defined as: \( \Pi : T \rightarrow [0, 1] \) with max \( \Pi(\tau) = 1 \).

We apply the approach of (Masson and Denœux, 2006) to build a possibility distribution from empirical data given the desired confidence level. In this approach, first simultaneous confidence intervals for all trust ratings in the domain are measured by usage of the empirical data (which in our model are derived from interaction among agents). Then, the possibility of each trust rating \( \tau \) considering the confidence intervals of all trust ratings in \( T \) is found.

3.5 Manipulation of the Possibility Distributions

An agent, say \( a^8 \), needs to acquire information about the degree of trustworthiness of agent \( a^9 \) unknown to him. On this purpose, it acquires information from its advisors like \( a \) who are known to \( a^9 \) and have already interacted with \( a^9 \). Agent \( a \) is not necessarily truthful for reasons of self-interest, therefore it may manipulate the possibility distribution it has built about \( a^9 \)’s trust before reporting it to \( a^8 \). The degree of manipulation of the information by agent \( a \) is based on its internal probability distribution of trust. More specifically, if the internal trust distribution of agents \( a \) and \( a' \) indicate that \( a \)’s degree of trustworthiness is lower than \( a' \), then the reported possibility distribution of \( a \) is more prone to error than \( a' \). The following 2 algorithms introduced in this section are examples of manipulation algorithms:

**Algorithm I**

for each \( \tau \in T \) do
\[
\tau' \leftarrow \text{random trust rating from } T, \text{ according to agent } a \text{'s internal trust distribution}
\]
\[
\Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) = \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) + \text{error}_t
\]
end for

where \( \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) \) is the possibility distribution built by \( a \) through its interactions with \( a^9 \) and \( \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) \) is the manipulated possibility distributions. In this algorithm for each trust rating \( \tau \in T \) a random trust value, \( \tau' \), is generated following the internal trust distribution of agent \( a \). For highly trustworthy agents, the randomly generated value of \( \tau' \) is closer to \( \tau \) and the subsequent error (error_\( t \)) is closer to 0. Therefore the manipulation of \( \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) \), is insignificant. On the other hand, for highly untrustworthy agents, the value of \( \tau' \) is closer to \( \tau \) and therefore the derived error, error_\( t \), is closer to 1. In such a case, the possibility value of \( \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) \) is considerably modified causing noticeable change in the original values.

After measuring the distribution of \( \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) \), it is normalized and then reported to \( a^8 \). The normalization satisfies: (1) the possibility value of every trust rating \( \tau \) in \( T \) is in \([0, 1]\), and (2) the possibility value of at least one trust rating in \( T \) equals to 1. Let \( \Pi(\tau) \) be a non-normalized possibility distribution. Either of the following formulas (Delmotte and Borne, 1998) generates a normalized possibility distribution of \( \Pi(\tau) \):

(1) \( \Pi(\tau) = \Pi(\tau) / h \),
(2) \( \Pi(\tau) = \Pi(\tau) + 1 - h \),

where \( h = \max_{\tau \in T} \Pi(\tau) \).

Here is the second manipulation algorithm:

**Algorithm II**

for each \( \tau \in T \) do
\[
\tau' \leftarrow \text{random trust rating from } T, \text{ according to agent } a \text{'s internal trust distribution}
\]
\[
\text{max_error}_t = 1 - \tau'
\]
\[
\text{error}_t = \text{random value in } [0, \text{max_error}_t]
\]
\[
\Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) = \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) + \text{error}_t
\]
end for

As for algorithm I, the distribution of \( \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) \) is normalized before being reported to \( a^8 \). In algorithm II, an additional random selection value is added where the random value is selected uniformly in \([0, \text{max_error}_t]\). In algorithm I, the trust rating of \( a^8 \) is PEAK and the trust values next to it have a high probability of being selected. The error added to \( \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^8}(\tau) \)
may be neglected when the distribution is normalized. However, in algorithm II, if an agent is highly untrustworthy the random trust value of $\tau$ is close to $\bar{\tau}$ and thereupon the error value of $\text{max} \text{ error}_t$ is close to 1. This causes the uniformly generated value in $[0, \text{max} \text{ error}_t]$ considerably random and unpredictable which makes the derived possibility distribution highly erroneous after normalization. On the other hand, if an agent is highly trustworthy, the error value of $\text{max} \text{ error}_t$ is close to $\tau$ and the random value generated in $[0, \text{max} \text{ error}_t]$ would be even smaller, making the error of the final possibility distribution insignificant. While incorporating some random process, both algorithms manipulate the possibility distribution based on the agent’s degree of trustworthiness causing the scale of manipulation by more trustworthy agents smaller and vice-versa. However, the second algorithm acts more randomly. We provide these algorithms to observe the extent of dependency of the derived results in respect to a specific manipulation algorithm employed.

3.6 Game Scenario

In this paper, we study a model arising in social networks where agent $a^t$ makes a number of interactions with each agent $a$ in a set $A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\}$ of $n$ agents (agent $a^t$’s advisors), assuming each agent $a \in A$ has carried out some interactions with agent $a^t$. Agent $a^t$ builds a possibility distribution of trust for each agent in $A$ by usage of the empirical data derived throughout their interactions. Each agent in $A$, in turn, builds an independent possibility distribution of trust through its own interactions with agent $a^t$. When $a^t$ wants to evaluate the level of trustworthiness of $a^s$, who is unknown to him, it acquires information from its advisors, $A$, to report their measured possibility distributions on $a^s$’s trust. Agents in $A$ are not necessarily truthful. Therefore, through usage of the manipulation algorithms, they manipulate their own possibility distributions of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ in correspondence with their degree of trustworthiness and report the manipulated distributions to $a^t$. Agent $a^t$ uses the reported distributions of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ by each agent $a \in A$ and its trust distribution in agent $a$, represented by $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a}(\tau)$, in order to estimates the possibility distribution of $a^s$’s trust.

4 FUSION RULES CONSIDERING THE TRUST OF THE AGENTS

Let $\tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t} \in [0, 1]$ be a single trust value of agent $a^s$ in agent $a$ and $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau), \tau \in T$ represent the possibility distribution of agent $a^s$’s trust in agent $a^t$ as reported by $a$ to $a^t$. We now look at different fusion rules for merging the possibility distributions of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau), a \in A$, with respect to the trust values of $\tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}, \forall a \in A$, in order to get a possibility distribution of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau), \tau \in T$, representing $a^s$’s trust in $a^t$. We explore three fusion rules, which are the most commonly used. The first one is the ‘Trade-off’ (To) rule (Yager, 1996), which builds a weighted mean of the possibility distributions:

$$\Pi^{To}_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau) = \sum_{a \in A} \omega_a \times \Pi_{a \rightarrow a^t}(\tau),$$

where $\omega_a = \tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t} / \sum_{a \in A} \tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}$ for $\tau \in T$, and $\Pi^{To}_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ indicates the trust of $a^s$ in $a^t$ measured by Trade-off rule. Note that the trade-off rule considers all of the possibility distributions reported by the agents in $A$. However, the degree of influence of the possibility distribution of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ is weighted by the normalized trust of agent $a^s$ in each agent $a$ (which is $\omega_a$).

The next two fusion rules belong to a family of rules which modify the possibility distribution of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ based on the trust value associated with it, $\tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}$, and then take an intersection (Zadeh, 1965) of the modified distributions. We refer to this group of fusion rules as Trust Modified (TM) rules. Therein, if $\tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t} = 1$, $\Pi^{To}_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ remains unchanged, meaning that agent $a^s$’s full trust in $a$ results in total acceptance of possibility distribution of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ reported by $a$. The less agent $a$ is trustworthy the less its reported distribution is reliable and consequently its reported distribution of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ is moved closer towards a uniform distribution by TM rules. In the context of possibility distributions, the uniform distribution provides no information as all trust values in domain $T$ are equally possible which is referred to as complete ignorance (Dubois and Prade, 1991). Indeed, nothing differentiates between the case where all elements in the domain have equal probability and the case where no information is available (complete ignorance). The more a distribution of $\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau)$ gets closer to a uniform distribution, the less likely is would get to be selected in the intersection phase (Zadeh, 1965). We selected the following 2 TM fusion rules:

Yager (Yager, 1987):

$$\Pi^{Y}_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau) = \min_{a \in A} \left[ \tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t} \times \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau) + 1 - \tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t} \right].$$

Dubois and Prade (Dubois and Prade, 1992):

$$\Pi^{DP}_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau) = \min_{a \in A} \left[ \max \left\{ \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}(\tau), 1 - \tau_{a^s \rightarrow a^t} \right\} \right].$$

In Yager’s fusion rule, the possibility of each trust value $\tau$ moves towards a uniform distribution as much
as \((1 - \tau_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha})\) which is the extent to which the agent \(\alpha\) is not trusted. In Dubois and Prade’s fusion rule, when an agent’s trust declines, the max operator would more likely select \(1 - \tau_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}\) and, hence, the information in \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\) reported by \(\alpha\) gets closer to a uniform distribution.

Once a fusion rule in this Section is applied, the resulted possibility distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau), \tau \in T\) is then normalized to represent the possibility distribution of agent \(\alpha^*\)’s trust in \(\alpha^*\).

5 MERGING SUCCESSIVE POSSIBILITY DISTRIBUTIONS

In this section, we present the main contribution, i.e., a methodology for merging the possibility distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\) (representing the trust of agent \(\alpha^*\) in its advisors) with the possibility distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha^* \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\) (representing the trust of the agent set \(A^*\) in agent \(\alpha^*\)). These 2 possibility distributions are associated to the trust of entities at successive levels in a multi-agents systems and hence giving it such a name.

In order to perform such a merging, we need to know how the distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\) changes, depending on the characteristics of the possibility distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha^* \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\). We distinguish the following cases for a proper merging of the successive possibility distributions.

Specific Case. Consider a scenario where \(\exists! \tau^{'}, \tau \leq \tau^{'}, \Pi_{\alpha^* \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau^{'}) = 1\), \(\tau = \tau^{'}, \Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau) = 0\), i.e., only one trust value is possible in the domain of \(T\) and the possibility of all other trust values is equal to 0. Then, trust of agent \(\alpha^*\) in agent \(\alpha\) can be associated with a single value of \(\tau_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha} = \tau^{'}, \Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau^{'})\) and the fusion rules described in section 4 can be applied to get the possibility distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha^* \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\).

General Case. For each agent \(\alpha\), we have a subset of trust ratings, which we refer to as \(T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\), such that:

1) \(T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}} \subset T\),
2) If \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau) > 0\), then \(\tau \in T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\),
3) If \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau) = 0\), then \(\tau \in \{T - T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\}\).

Each trust rating value in \(T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\) is possible. This means that the trust of agent \(\alpha^*\) in \(\alpha\) can possibly take any value in \(T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\) and consequently any trust rating \(\tau \in T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\) can be possibly associated with \(\tau_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}\). However, the higher the value of \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\), the higher the likelihood of occurrence of trust rating \(\tau \in T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\). We use the possibility distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha^* \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\) to get the relative chance of happening of each trust rating in \(T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\). In this approach, we give each trust rating \(\tau\), a Possibility Weight (PW) equal to:

\[
PW(\tau) = \Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau) / \sum_{\tau^{'}} \Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau^{'}).
\]

Higher value of \(PW(\tau)\) implies more occurrences chance of the \(\tau\) value. Hence, any trust rating \(\tau \in T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\) is possible to be observed with a weight of \(PW(\tau)\) and merged with \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\) using one of the fusion rules.

Considering the General Case, there are a total of \(|A| = n\) agents and each agent \(\alpha\) has a total of \(T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\) possible trust values. For a possible estimation of \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\), we need to choose one trust rating of \(\tau \in T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\) for each agent \(\alpha \in A\). Having \(|A| = n\) agents and a total of \(|T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}| = K\) possible ways of getting the final possibility of \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\). This means that any distribution of \(K\) distributions is possible. However, they are not equally likely to happen. If agent \(\alpha^*\) chooses trust rating \(\tau_1\) for agent \(\alpha_1\), \(\tau_2\) for agent \(\alpha_2\), and \(\tau_n\) for agent \(\alpha_n\), then the possibility distribution of \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\) derived from these trust ratings has an Occurrence Probability (OP) of \(\prod_{\tau = 1}^{n} PW(\tau)\).

For every agent \(\alpha\), we have:

\[
\sum_{\tau \in T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}} PW(\tau) = 1, \quad \text{then considering all agents we have:}
\]

\[
\sum_{\tau_1 \in T_{\alpha_1}^{\text{POS}}} \ldots \sum_{\tau_n \in T_{\alpha_n}^{\text{POS}}} \prod_{\tau = 1}^{n} PW(\tau_1) \times \ldots \times PW(\tau_n) = 1. \tag{2}
\]

As can be observed in (2), the \(PW(\tau)\) is normalized in such a way that, by multiplying the \(PW\) (associated with the trust rating of \(\tau\) chosen in \(T_{a^*}^{\text{POS}}\) for agent \(a\)) of all the agents in \(A\), the OP of the set of trust ratings chosen for the agents in \(A\), that derive a specific \(\Pi_{\alpha \rightarrow \alpha}(\tau)\), can be estimated.

Trust Event Coefficient. The \(PW(\tau)\) value shows the relative possibility of \(\tau\) compared to other values in \(T\) of an agent \(\alpha\). However, we still need to compare the possibility of a given trust rating \(\tau\), for an agent \(\alpha\), compared to other agents in \(A\). If the possibility weights of two agents are equal, say 0.2 and 0.8 for trust ratings \(\bar{\tau}\) and \(\bar{\tau}\), and the number of interactions...
with the first agent is much higher than the second agent, we need to give more credit to the first agent’s reported distribution of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \). However, the current model is unable of doing so. Therefore, we propose to use a Trust Event Coefficient for each trust value \( \tau \), denoted by TEC(\tau), in order to consider the number of interactions, which satisfies:

1) If \( m_t = 0 \), TEC(\tau) = 0
2) If \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) = 0 \), TEC(\tau) = 0
3) If \( m_t \geq m_t' \), TEC(\tau) = TEC(\tau')
4) If \( m_t = m_t' \) and \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \geq \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau') \),
   \[ TEC(\tau) \geq TEC(\tau') \]

where \( \tau \in T_a^{POS} \), \( m_t \) is the number of the occurrences of trust rating \( \tau \) in the interactions among agents \( a^s \) and \( a \). Considering conditions 1) and 2), if the number of occurrences of trust rating \( \tau \) or its corresponding possibility is 0, then TEC is also zero. Condition 3) increases the value of TEC by increasing the number of occurrences of trust rating \( \tau \). As observed in Condition 4), if the number of observations of two trust ratings, \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) are equal, then the trust rating with higher possibility is given the priority. When comparing the number of interactions and the possibility value of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \), the priority is given first to number of the interactions, and then, to the the possibility value of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \) in order to avoid giving preference to the possibility values driven out of few interactions. The following formula is an example of a TEC function which satisfies the above conditions.

\[
TEC(\tau) = \begin{cases} 
0, & m_t = 0 \text{ or } \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) = 0 \\
\frac{1}{(\gamma \times m_t)^{1/m_t}} + \frac{\Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a}^p(\tau)}{\gamma}, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \gamma > 1 \) is the discount factor and \( \chi \gg 1 \). Higher values of \( \gamma \) impede the convergence of TEC(\tau) to one and vice-versa. \( \chi \) which is a very large value insures that the influence of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \) on TEC(\tau) remains trivial and is noticeable only when the number of interactions are equal. In this formula, as \( m_t \) grows, TEC(\tau) converges to one. TEC(\tau) can be utilized as a coefficient for trust rating \( \tau \) when comparing different agents. Note that the General Case mentioned above gives the guidelines for merging successive possibility distributions and TEC feature is only used as an attribute when the number of interactions should be considered and can be ignored otherwise.

6 POSSIBILITY DISTRIBUTION OF AGENT \( a^s \)'S TRUST IN AGENT \( a^t \)

We propose two approaches for deriving the final possibility distribution of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \) considering different available possible choices.

The first approach is to consider all \( K \) possibility distributions of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \) and take the weight mean of them by giving each \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \) a weight equal to its Occurrence Probability (OP), measured by multiplying the possibility weight of the trust values, \( PW(\tau_i) \), that are used to build \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \).

In the second approach, we only consider the trust ratings, \( \tau \in T_a^{POS} \) such that \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) = 1 \). In other words, we only consider the trust ratings that have the highest weight of \( PW \) in the \( T_a^{POS} \) set. Consequently, the \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \) distributions derived from these trust values have the highest OP value which makes them the most expected distributions. We denote by \( \mu_a \) the number of trust ratings, \( \tau \in T_a^{POS} \) that satisfy \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) = 1 \) for agent \( a \). In this approach, we only select the trust ratings in \( \mu_a \) for each agent \( a \in A \) and build the possibility distributions of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \) out of those trust ratings. After building \( M = \prod_{a \in A} \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \), we compute their average, since all of them have equal OP weight.

**Proposition 1.** In both approaches, the conditions of the general case described in the previous section are satisfied.

**Proof.** Proof is omitted due to lack of space, however, it can be easily done by enumerating the different cases.

Due to the computational burden of the first approach (which requires building \( K \) distributions of \( \Pi_{a^s \rightarrow a^t}^p(\tau) \), we used the second one in our experiments as it only requires building \( M \) distributions.

To conclude this section, we would like to comment on the motivation behind using possibility distribution rather than probability distributions. Indeed, if probability distributions were used instead of possibility distributions, a confidence interval should be considered in place of the single value of trust for each \( \tau \) in \( T \). Consequently, for representing the probability distribution of agent \( a^s \)'s trust in each agent \( a \in A \) a confidence interval should be measured for each \( \tau \) in \( T \) to consider uncertainty. The same representation should be used for each agent \( a \in A \)’s trust in \( a^t \). Now, in order to estimate the probability distribution of agent \( a^s \)'s trust with respect to its uncertainty, we need to find some tools for merging the
confidence intervals of the probability distributions of \(a_5\)'s trust in \(A\) with the \(A\)'s trust in \(a_0\). To the best of our knowledge, no work addresses this issue, except for the following related works. In (Destercke, 2010), the number of the occurrences of each element in the domain, which is equivalent to the number of observance of each \(\tau\) value in the interactions between agent \(a\) and \(a_5\), is reported by agents in \(A\) to \(a_5\) and then, the probability intervals on the trust of agent \(a_0\) is built. The work of (Campos et al., 1994) measures the confidence intervals of \(a_5\)'s trust out of several confidence intervals provided by agents in \(A\). In both works, the manipulation of information by the agents in \(A\) is not considered and for building the confidence intervals of \(a_0\), the trust of agent \(a_5\) in \(A\) is neglected. Although no work addresses the trust estimation problem, we study here in the probability domain, we employed possibility distributions as they offer a flexible and straightforward tool to address uncertainty.

7 EXPERIMENTS

We first introduce two metrics for evaluating the outcomes of our experiments and then present the experimental results.

7.1 Evaluation Metrics

**Metric I - How Informative is a Possibility Distribution?** In the context of the possibility theory, the uniform distribution contributes no information, as all of the trust ratings are equally possible and cannot be differentiated which is referred to as “complete ignorance” (Dubois and Prade, 1991). Consequently, the more a possibility distribution deviates from the uniform distribution, the more it contributes information. The following distribution provides the state of “complete distribution, the more it contributes information.

**Metric II - Estimated Error of the Possibility Distributions:** In this section we want to measure the difference between the estimated possibility distribution of agent \(a_5\)'s trust, as measured in Section 6, and the true possibility distribution of \(a_0\)'s trust. In order to measure the true possibility distribution of agent \(a_5\)'s trust, the true possibility distribution of agent \(a_0\)'s trust (which is its internal probability distribution of trust) should be transformed to a possibility distribution. Dubois et al. (Dubois et al., 2004) provide a probability to possibility transformation tool. Through usage of their tool, the true possibility distribution of \(a_5\)'s trust can be measured and then compared with the estimated distribution of \(\Pi_{a_0 \rightarrow a_5}(\tau)\). Let \(\Pi_{a_0 \rightarrow a_5}(\tau)\) denote an estimated distribution, as measured in Section 6, obtained from a fusion rule and let \(\Pi_F(\tau)\) represent the true possibility distribution of \(a_5\)'s trust transformed from its internal possibility distribution. The Estimated Error (EE) of \(\Pi_{a_0 \rightarrow a_5}(\tau)\) is measured by taking the average of the absolute differences between the true and estimated possibility values over all trust ratings, \(\tau \in T\). The EE metric is measured as:

\[
EE(\Pi_F(\tau)) = \frac{1}{|T|} \sum_{\tau \in T} |\Pi_{a_0 \rightarrow a_5}(\tau) - \Pi_F(\tau)|. \tag{5}
\]

7.2 Experimental Results

Here we perform extensive experiments to evaluate our merging approaches. We divide the set \(A\) of agents into three subsets. Each subset simulates a specific level of trustworthiness in the agents. The subsets are: \(A^{FT}\) subset of Fully Trustworthy agents where the peak of the probability trust distribution is 1, \(A^{HT}\) subset of Half Trustworthy agents where the peak is 0.5 and \(A^{NT}\) subset of Not Trustworthy agents where the peak is 0. We start with \(A = A^{NT}\) and gradually move the agents from \(A = A^{NT}\) to \(A = A^{HT}\) such that we reach the state of \(A = A^{HT}\) where all the agents belong to \(A^{HT}\). Later, we move agents from \(A = A^{HT}\) to \(A = A^{FT}\) such that we finally end up with \(A = A^{FT}\). Over this transformation, the robustness of the estimated distribution of \(\Pi_{a_0 \rightarrow a_5}(\tau)\) is evaluated with respect to the nature of trustworthiness of the agents. We carry out separate experiments by changing: (1) The number of agents in the set \(A\), (2) The number of interactions between each pair of agents, and (3) The manipulation Algorithm I and II. We intend to observe the influence of each one of these components on the final estimated distribution of \(\Pi_{a_0 \rightarrow a_5}(\tau)\). In all experiments, the number of trust rating events, \(|T|\), is equal to 5 (a commonly used value in most surveys).
7.2.1 Manipulation Algorithm I’s Experiments

In the first set of experiments, the manipulation algorithm I is used by agents in A. Diagrams of Figure 2 represent 3 different experiments where the number of agents in A and the interactions among the network of agents of Figure 1(b) have changed. Table 1 gives the distribution of agents $A$ into $A_{FT}$, $A_{NT}$, and $A_{HT}$ over $x$ axis values for Figures 2 and 3. Figure 2 demonstrates that through migration of the agents from $A_{NT}$ to $A_{HT}$ and later to $A_{FT}$, the Information level ($I$) increases and the Estimated Error ($EE$) decreases. This is a consequence of increase in the accuracy of information provided by the agents in $A$ as they become more trustworthy.

Comparing the 3 experiments of Figure 2, increase in the number of agents from Figures 2(a) to 2(b), does not improve the results over high values of $x$, where the number of the agents in $A_{FT}$ subset is high. This indicates that as long as the quality of the information reported by the agents in $A$ does not improve, increase in the number of the agents will not improve the estimated distribution of $\Pi_{a \rightarrow a_D}(t)$. However, from $x = 2$ to the case where all agents are in $A_{HT}$ subset $EE$ reduces and $I$ increases. It indicates that if agents are not completely trustworthy, an increase in the number of agents increments the quality of the estimations. Comparing Figures 2(b) and 2(c), Increase in the number of interactions in-between the agents improves the results in Figure 2(c) for both $I$ and $EE$ which is a consequence of higher information exchanged between the agents. Thus, the possibility distributions built by the agents are derived from more information which enhances the results’ accuracy.

7.2.2 Manipulation Algorithm II’s Experiments

We repeat the same experiments with manipulation algorithm II to observe the extent of influence of the manipulation algorithm chosen by the set $A$ on the final distribution of $\Pi_{a \rightarrow a_D}(t)$. Figure 3 represents the results of these experiments. The graphs in Figure 2 demonstrate the same trends as algorithm I, However, more volatility is observed in the graphs of Figure 3 compared to Figure 2 as the graphs are not monotonically changing over the $x$ axis. Indeed, this is a consequence of the increased randomization of manipulation algorithm II compared to algorithm I.

Comparing the fusion rules, DP outperforms other fusion rules in all Algorithm I and II’s experiments which is due to the fact that the DP rule is more categoric in its ignorance of the agents who are not trustworthy compared to the 2 other fusion rules. We performed additional experiments and the results show
that through a higher number of interactions, increase in the trust of agents, increment of the agents’ number in A, and decrease in the number of trust ratings (|T|), the quality of estimation results enhances.

8 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we defined tools for trust estimation in the context of uncertainty. We addressed the uncertainty, arising from the empirical data that are generated from an unknown distribution, through usage of the possibility distributions. In addition, we analyzed the properties of merging successive possibility distributions and introduced the Trust Event Coefficient for the cases where the number of agent interactions should be considered. This is the first work that merges successive possibility distributions generated at different levels in a multi-agent system which we used for estimating the trust of a target agent. Furthermore, we provided 2 metrics for evaluation of the target agent’s estimated possibility distributions. We then applied the proposed tools in intensive experiments to validate our trust estimation approach.

REFERENCES


