Computational Social Choice: Autumn 2013

Ulle Endriss
Institute for Logic, Language and Computation University of Amsterdam

## Organisational Matters

Prerequisites: This is an advanced course: I assume mathematical maturity, we'll move fast, and we'll often touch upon recent research. On the other hand, little specific background is required (just a bit of complexity theory).

Examiniation: Homework (best $n-1$ of $n, 80 \%$ ) + presentation (20\%).
Website: Lecture slides, homework assignments, papers to present, and other important information will be posted on the course website:
http://www.illc.uva.nl/~ulle/teaching/comsoc/2013/

Seminars: There are occasional talks at the ILLC that are relevant to the course and that you are welcome to attend (e.g., at the COMSOC Seminar).

## Social Choice Theory

SCT studies collective decision making: how should we aggregate the preferences of the members of a group to obtain a "social preference"?


SCT is traditionally studied in Economics and Political Science, but now also by "us" : Computational Social Choice.

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## Plan for Today

Today's lecture has two parts:

- Part I. Informal introduction to some of the topics of the course
- Part II. A classical result: Arrow's Theorem


## Part I: Examples, Problems, Ideas

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Introduction

## Example: Choosing a Beverage for Lunch

Consider this election with nine voters having to choose from three alternatives (namely what beverage to order for a common lunch):

| 4 Dutchmen: | Milk $\succ$ Beer $\succ$ Wine |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 Frenchmen: | Wine $\succ$ Beer $\succ$ Milk |
| 2 Germans: | Beer $\succ$ Wine $\succ$ Milk |

Which beverage wins the election for

- the plurality rule?
- plurality with runoff?
- the Borda rule?


## Three Voting Rules

How should $n$ voters choose from a set of $m$ alternatives?
Here are three voting rules (there are many more):

- Plurality: elect the alternative ranked first most often (i.e., each voter assigns 1 point to an alternative of her choice, and the alternative receiving the most points wins)
- Plurality with runoff: run a plurality election and retain the two front-runners; then run a majority contest between them
- Borda: each voter gives $m-1$ points to the alternative she ranks first, $m-2$ to the alternative she ranks second, etc.; and the alternative with the most points wins

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## Example: Electing a President

Remember Florida 2000 (simplified):

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 49\%: } & \text { Bush } \succ \text { Gore } \succ \text { Nader } \\
20 \%: & \text { Gore } \succ \text { Nader } \succ \text { Bush } \\
20 \%: & \text { Gore } \succ \text { Bush } \succ \text { Nader } \\
11 \%: & \text { Nader } \succ \text { Gore } \succ \text { Bush }
\end{array}
$$

Questions:

- Who wins?
- Is that a fair outcome?
- What would your advice to the Nader-supporters have been?


## Example: Voting in Multi-issue Elections

Suppose 13 voters are asked to each vote yes or no on three issues; and we use the plurality rule for each issue independently:

- 3 voters each vote for YNN, NYN, NNY.
- 1 voter each votes for YYY, YYN, YNY, NYY.
- No voter votes for NNN.

But then NNN wins: 7 out of 13 vote no on each issue (paradox!).
What to do instead? The number of (combinatorial) alternatives is exponential in the number of issues (e.g., $2^{3}=8$ ), so even just representing the voters' preferences is a challenge ...
S.J. Brams, D.M. Kilgour, and W.S. Zwicker. The Paradox of Multiple Elections. Social Choice and Welfare, 15(2):211-236, 1998.

## Fair Division

Fair division is the problem of dividing one or several goods amongst two or more agents in a way that satisfies a suitable fairness criterion. One instance of this problem is cake cutting.
For two agents, we can use the cut-and-choose procedure:

- One agent cuts the cake in two pieces (she considers to be of equal value), and the other chooses one of them (the piece she prefers).

The cut-and-choose procedure is proportional:

- Each agent is guaranteed at least one half (general: $1 / n$ ) according to her own valuation.
What if there are more than two agents? Is proportionality the best way of measuring fairness? What about other types of goods?


## Judgment Aggregation

Preferences are not the only structures we may wish to aggregate. In JA we aggregate people's judgments regarding complex propositions.

|  | $p$ | $p \rightarrow q$ | $q$ |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | ---: |
| Judge 1: | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Judge 2: | Yes | No | No |
| Judge 3: | No | Yes | No |
| $?$ |  |  |  |

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## Computational Social Choice

Research can be broadly classified along two dimensions -
The kind of social choice problem studied, e.g.:

- electing a winner given individual preferences over candidates
- aggregating individual judgements into a collective verdict
- fairly dividing a cake given individual tastes
- finding a stable matching of students to schools

The kind of computational technique employed, e.g.:

- algorithm design to implement complex mechanisms
- complexity theory to understand limitations
- logical modelling to fully formalise intuitions
- knowledge representation techniques to compactly model problems
- deployment in a multiagent system
Y. Chevaleyre, U. Endriss, J. Lang, and N. Maudet. A Short Introduction to Computational Social Choice. Proc. SOFSEM-2007.


## Part II: Arrow's Theorem

## Formal Framework

Basic terminology and notation:

- finite set of individuals $\mathcal{N}=\{1, \ldots, n\}$, with $n \geqslant 2$
- (usually finite) set of alternatives $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots\right\}$
- Denote the set of linear orders on $\mathcal{X}$ by $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})$.

Preferences (or ballots) are taken to be elements of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})$.

- A profile $\boldsymbol{R}=\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{n}\right) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})^{n}$ is a vector of preferences.
- We shall write $N_{x \succ y}^{R}$ for the set of individuals that rank alternative $x$ above alternative $y$ under profile $\boldsymbol{R}$.

For today we are interested in preference aggregation mechanisms that map any profile of preferences to a single collective preference.
The proper technical term is social welfare function (SWF):

$$
F: \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})^{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})
$$

## Arrow's Theorem

This is probably the most famous theorem in social choice theory. It was first proved by Kenneth J. Arrow in his 1951 PhD thesis. He later received the Nobel Prize in Economic Sciences in 1972.

What we will see next:

- formal framework: social welfare functions
- the axiomatic method in SCT, and some axioms
- the theorem, its interpretation, and a proof
K.J. Arrow. Social Choice and Individual Values. John Wiley and Sons, 2nd edition, 1963. First edition published in 1951.

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## The Axiomatic Method

Many important classical results in social choice theory are axiomatic.
They formalise desirable properties as "axioms" and then establish:

- Characterisation Theorems, showing that a particular (class of) mechanism(s) is the only one satisfying a given set of axioms
- Impossibility Theorems, showing that there exists no aggregation mechanism satisfying a given set of axioms


## Anonymity and Neutrality

Two very basic axioms (that we won't actually need for the theorem):

- A SWF $F$ is anonymous if individuals are treated symmetrically:

$$
F\left(R_{1}, \ldots, R_{n}\right)=F\left(R_{\pi(1)}, \ldots, R_{\pi(n)}\right)
$$

for any profile $\boldsymbol{R}$ and any permutation $\pi: \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$

- A SWF $F$ is neutral if alternatives are treated symmetrically:

$$
F(\pi(\boldsymbol{R}))=\pi(F(\boldsymbol{R}))
$$

for any profile $\boldsymbol{R}$ and any permutation $\pi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$
(with $\pi$ extended to preferences and profiles in the natural manner)

## Keep in mind:

- not every SWF will satisfy every axiom we state here
- axioms are meant to be desirable properties (always arguable)


## Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)

A SWF $F$ satisfies IIA if the relative social ranking of two alternatives only depends on their relative individual rankings:

$$
N_{x \succ y}^{\boldsymbol{R}}=N_{x \succ y}^{\boldsymbol{R}^{\prime}} \text { implies }(x, y) \in F(\boldsymbol{R}) \Leftrightarrow(x, y) \in F\left(\boldsymbol{R}^{\prime}\right)
$$

In other words: if $x$ is socially preferred to $y$, then this should not change when an individual changes her ranking of $z$.
IIA was proposed by Arrow.

## The Pareto Condition

A SWF $F$ satisfies the Pareto condition if, whenever all individuals rank $x$ above $y$, then so does society:

$$
N_{x \succ y}^{\boldsymbol{R}}=\mathcal{N} \text { implies }(x, y) \in F(\boldsymbol{R})
$$

This is a standard condition going back to the work of the Italian economist Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1923).

Universal Domain
This "axiom" is not really an axiom ...
Sometimes the fact that any SWF must be defined over all profiles is stated explicitly as a universal domain axiom.

Instead, I prefer to think of this as an integral part of the definition of the framework (for now) or as a domain condition (later on).

## Arrow's Theorem

A SWF $F$ is a dictatorship if there exists a "dictator" $i \in \mathcal{N}$ such that $F(\boldsymbol{R})=R_{i}$ for any profile $\boldsymbol{R}$, i.e., if the outcome is always identical to the preference supplied by the dictator.

Theorem 1 (Arrow, 1951) Any SWF for $\geqslant 3$ alternatives that satisfies the Pareto condition and IIA must be a dictatorship.

Next: some remarks, then a proof
K.J. Arrow. Social Choice and Individual Values. John Wiley and Sons, 2nd edition, 1963. First edition published in 1951.

## Proof

We'll sketch a proof adapted from Sen (1986), using the "decisive coalition" technique. Full details are in my review paper.
Claim: Any SWF for $\geqslant 3$ alternatives that satisfies the Pareto condition and IIA must be a dictatorship.
So let $F$ be a SWF for $\geqslant 3$ alternatives that satisfies Pareto and IIA.
Call a coalition $G \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ decisive on $(x, y)$ iff $G \subseteq N_{x \succ y}^{R} \Rightarrow(x, y) \in F(\boldsymbol{R})$.
Proof Plan:

- Pareto condition $=\mathcal{N}$ is decisive for all pairs of alternatives
- Lemma: $G$ with $|G| \geqslant 2$ decisive for all pairs $\Rightarrow$ some $G^{\prime} \subset G$ as well
- Thus (by induction), there's a decisive coalition of size 1 (a dictator).
A.K. Sen. Social Choice Theory. In K.J. Arrow and M.D. Intriligator (eds.), Handbook of Mathematical Economics, Volume 3, North-Holland, 1986.
U. Endriss. Logic and Social Choice Theory. In A. Gupta and J. van Benthem (eds.), Logic and Philosophy Today, College Publications, 2011.


## Remarks

- Note that this is a surprising result!
- Note that the theorem does not hold for two alternatives.
- Note that the opposite direction clearly holds: any dictatorship satisfies both the Pareto condition and IIA.
- Common misunderstanding: the SWF being dictatorial does not just mean that the outcome coincides with the preferences of some individual (rather: it's the same dictator for any profile).
- Arrow's Theorem is often read as an impossibility theorem:

There exists no SWF for $\geqslant 3$ alternatives that is Paretian, independent, and nondictatorial.

- Significance of the result: (a) the result itself; (b) general theorem rather than just another observation about a flaw of a specific procedure; (c) methodology (precise statement of "axioms").


## About Decisiveness

Recall: $G \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ decisive on $(x, y)$ iff $G \subseteq N_{x \succ y}^{R} \Rightarrow(x, y) \in F(\boldsymbol{R})$
Call $G \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ weakly decisive on $(x, y)$ iff $G=N_{x \succ y}^{R} \Rightarrow(x, y) \in F(\boldsymbol{R})$.
Claim: $G$ weakly decisive on $(x, y) \Rightarrow G$ decisive on any pair $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$
Proof: Suppose $x, y, x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}$ are all distinct (other cases: similar).
Consider a profile where individuals express these preferences:

- Members of $G: x^{\prime} \succ x \succ y \succ y^{\prime}$
- Others: $x^{\prime} \succ x$ and $y \succ y^{\prime}$ and $y \succ x$ (rest still undetermined)

From $G$ being weakly decisive for $(x, y)$ : society ranks $x \succ y$
From Pareto: society ranks $x^{\prime} \succ x$ and $y \succ y^{\prime}$
Thus, from transitivity: society ranks $x^{\prime} \succ y^{\prime}$
Note that this works for any ranking of $x^{\prime}$ vs. $y^{\prime}$ by non- $G$ individuals. By IIA, it still works if individuals change their non- $x^{\prime}$-vs.- $y^{\prime}$ rankings.
Thus, for any profile $\boldsymbol{R}$ with $G \subseteq N_{x^{\prime} \succ y^{\prime}}^{R}$ we get $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \in F(\boldsymbol{R})$. $\checkmark$

## Contraction Lemma

Claim: If $G \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ with $|G| \geqslant 2$ is a coalition that is decisive on all pairs of alternatives, then so is some nonempty coalition $G^{\prime} \subset G$.
Proof: Take any nonempty $G_{1}, G_{2}$ with $G=G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ and $G_{1} \cap G_{2}=\emptyset$.
Recall that there are $\geqslant 3$ alternatives. Consider this profile:

- Members of $G_{1}: \quad x \succ y \succ z \succ$ rest
- Members of $G_{2}: y \succ z \succ x \succ$ rest
- Others: $\quad z \succ x \succ y \succ$ rest

As $G=G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ is decisive, society ranks $y \succ z$. Two cases:
(1) Society ranks $x \succ z$ : Exactly $G_{1}$ ranks $x \succ z \Rightarrow$ By IIA, in any profile where exactly $G_{1}$ ranks $x \succ z$, society will rank $x \succ z \Rightarrow G_{1}$ is weakly decisive on $(x, z)$. Hence (previous slide): $G_{1}$ is decisive on all pairs
(2) Society ranks $z \succ x$, i.e., $y \succ x$ : Exactly $G_{2}$ ranks $y \succ x \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow$ $G_{2}$ is decisive on all pairs.

Hence, one of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ will always be decisive. $\checkmark$
This concludes the proof of Arrow's Theorem.

## What next?

Next, we will see two further classical impossibility theorems:

- Sen's Theorem on the Impossibility of a Paretian Liberal
- The Muller-Satterthwaite Theorem

Go over the proof of Arrow's Theorm once more by yourself: we will use the same approach for the Muller-Satterthwaite Theorem.

Later in the course we will revisit many of the ideas we have touched upon earlier today in much more depth

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## Summary

In the first part, we have seen examples for different types of problems in collective decision making:

- voting and preference aggregation
- judgment aggregation
- fair division

We have also hinted at some of the problems we will discuss:

- paradoxes and the need to be precise (axiomatic method)
- dealing with strategic behaviour
- the challenge of having many alternatives (combinatorial domains)

In the second part, we have seen Arrow's Theorem, the seminal result in (classical) SCT, and we have gone through a proof.

