Computational Social Choice: Spring 2017

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Plan for Today

Elections often have a *combinatorial structure*:

- Electing a committee of $k$ members from amongst $n$ candidates.
- Voting on $n$ propositions (yes/no) in a referendum.

Clearly, the number of alternatives can quickly become *very large*. So we face both a *choice-theoretic* and a *computational challenge*.

Today we are going to highlight some of the problems associated with voting in combinatorial domains and introduce several of the approaches that have been proposed to address them.

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The Paradox of Multiple Elections

13 voters are asked to each vote yes or no on three issues:

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

If we use the *simple majority* rule *issue-by-issue*, then NNN wins, because on each issue 7 out of 13 vote no.

This is an instance of the *paradox of multiple elections*: the winning combination received not a single vote!

Voting in Combinatorial Domains

The problem of voting in combinatorial domains:

- Domain: variables \( X_1, \ldots, X_p \) with finite domains \( D_1, \ldots, D_p \)
- Voters have preferences over set of combinations \( D_1 \times \cdots \times D_p \).
- What should be the winning combination in \( D_1 \times \cdots \times D_p \)?

Today we focus on binary variables: \( D_k = \{ x_k, \bar{x}_k \} \).

We saw that voting issue-by-issue can lead to paradoxical outcomes. In this lecture we review four alternative approaches . . .
**Approach 1: Vote on Combinations**

**Idea:** Vote for combinations directly. Could ask each voter for her most preferred combination and apply the *plurality rule*.

This avoids the paradox we have seen and is computationally light.

**Problem:** This may lead to almost “random” decisions, unless domains are fairly small and there are many voters.

**Example:** Suppose there are 10 binary issues and 20 voters. Then there are $2^{10} = 1024$ combinations to vote for. Under the plurality rule, chances are very high ($\sim 83\%$) that no combination receives more than one vote (so the tie-breaking rule decides everything).

**Remark:** Similar comments apply for other voting rules that only elicit a small part of the voter preferences (e.g., $k$-approval with small $k$).
Using More Expressive Voting Rules

Idea: Vote for combinations directly, using your favourite voting rule with the full set of combinations as the set of alternatives.

If we use a voting rule that elicits *more information* than the plurality rule, then we can avoid the arbitrariness problem noted before.

Problem: This will only be possible for very small domains, certainly when the voting rule requires a complete ranking of all the candidates (such as the Borda rule).

Example: Suppose there are six binary issues. This makes $2^6 = 64$ possible combinations. Hence, under the Borda rule, each voter has to choose from amongst $64! \approx 1.27 \cdot 10^{89}$ possible ballots.
Approach 2: Distance-based Aggregation

Idea: Elicit preferred choices issue-by-issue (as in the paradox), but find a better way to aggregate this information.

Distance-based approaches are promising candidates:

- Define a *distance* metric on ballots (0-1 vectors).
- Extend it to measure distance of a ballot/outcome to a profile.
- Choose the outcome that *minimises* the distance to the profile.
- Possibly restrict attention to outcomes from some *admissible set* (e.g., the set of ballots submitted by at least one voter).
Example: The Minimax Rule

Brams et al. (2007) propose to elect the combination that minimises the maximal Hamming distance to any of the voter ballots:

- Distance between two vectors = no. of issues on which they differ
- Distance between vector and profile = maximum of distances
- Admissible set of outcomes = all outcomes

That is, if your unhappiness is proportional to the number of issues on which you do not get your way, then the minimax rule maximises the happiness of the unhappiest voter.

Compare this to the “minisum rule”: choose the outcome that minimises the sum of the Hamming distances to the individual ballots (insight: this is just issue-by-issue majority!).

Approach 3: Sequential Voting

Idea: Vote separately on each issue, but do so sequentially to give voters the opportunity to make their vote for one issue dependent on other issues already decided upon.

We are going to discuss two basic results for this approach:

- A simple result showing that sequential voting does address some of the problems raised by the multiple election paradox.
- A stronger result in case we can make the assumption that voter preferences are induced by “compatible” CP-nets.
Condorcet Losers

A Condorcet loser is a candidate that loses against any other candidate in a pairwise contest. Electing a CL is very bad.

But the plurality rule will sometimes elect the CL:

2 voters report: $x \succ y \succ z$
2 voters report: $y \succ x \succ z$
3 voters report: $z \succ x \succ y$

Here, $z$ is both the plurality winner and the Condorcet loser.

Remark: Another interpretation of our original multiple election paradox is that NNN could have been the Condorcet loser.
Sequential Voting and Condorcet Losers

Good news:

**Proposition 1 (Lacy and Niou, 2000)** *Sequential plurality on binary issues never results in a winning combination that is a Condorcet loser.*

Proof: Just think what happens during the election for the final issue. The winning combination cannot be a Condorcet loser, because it does, at least, win against the other combination that was still possible after the penultimate election. ✓

A stronger requirement is *Condorcet consistency*: elect the *Condorcet winner* whenever it exists. Sequential voting *cannot* guarantee this.

**Preferential Dependency Graphs**

A preference order induces a *preferential dependency graph* on issues: issue $Y$ depends on $X$ if there exist situations where you need to know the value of $X$ before you can decide on your preference regarding $Y$.

![Diagram](image)

Remark: *CP-nets*, an important language for preference representation in Artificial Intelligence with several applications in COMSOC, are directly based on this idea: dependency graph + table indicating local preferences over each variable given choices made for its parents.

Sequential Voting and Condorcet Winners

Suppose that there exists a linear order on the issues that is compatible with each voter’s preferential dependency graph (e.g., they might all have different CP-nets, but share the same underlying acyclic graph).

Idea: Vote sequentially in this order!

**Proposition 2 (Lang and Xia, 2009)** Under above assumptions, **sequential voting is Condorcet-consistent if the local voting rules are.**

Proof: Omitted (but easy).

This is useful, particularly when the issues are binary (as then any reasonable local rule will be Condorcet-consistent).

Approach 4: Combinatorial Vote

Idea: Ask voters to report their ballots using a compact preference representation language and apply your favourite voting rule to the succinctly encoded ballots received.


Discussion: A promising approach, but not too much is known to date about what would be good choices for preference representation languages or voting rules, or what algorithms to use to compute the winners. Also, complexity can be expected to be very high.

The Language of Prioritised Goals

Consider a binary comb. domain $D = D_1 \times \cdots \times D_p$, with $|D_i| = 2$. Associate $D$ with a set $PS = \{X_1, \ldots, X_p\}$ of propositional variables, i.e., identify truth assignments for $PS$ (models) with elements of $D$.

Use propositional formulas to express goals and use numbers to indicate their importance. This induces a weak order:

Suppose $(\varphi, k_1)$ has higher priority than $(\psi, k_2)$ if $k_1 > k_2$.

Under the lexicographic form of aggregation, we prefer $M$ to $M'$ if there exists a $k$ such that for all $j > k$ both $M$ and $M'$ satisfy the same number of goals of rank $j$, and $M$ satisfies more goals of rank $k$.

Other forms of aggregation are possible.

Combinatorial Vote: Example

Use the language of prioritised goals (1 has higher priority than 0) with lexicographic aggregation together with the Borda rule:

- Voter 1: \( \{X:1, Y:0\} \) induces order \( xy \succ_1 x\bar{y} \succ_1 \bar{x}y \succ_1 \bar{x}\bar{y} \)
- Voter 2: \( \{X \lor \neg Y:0\} \) induces order \( x\bar{y} \sim_2 xy \sim_2 \bar{x}y \sim_2 xy \)
- Voter 3: \( \{\neg X:0, Y:0\} \) induces order \( \bar{x}y \succ_3 \bar{x}y \sim_3 xy \succ_3 x\bar{y} \)

As the induced orders need not be strict linear orders, we use a generalisation of the Borda rule: an alternative gets as many points as she dominates other alternatives. So we get these Borda scores:

\[
xy : 3 + 1 + 1 = 5 \quad \bar{x}y : 1 + 0 + 3 = 4 \\
x\bar{y} : 2 + 1 + 0 = 3 \quad \bar{x}\bar{y} : 0 + 1 + 1 = 2
\]

So combinatorial alternative \( xy \) wins.

Combinatorial vote proper would be to compute the winner directly from the goalbases, without the detour via the induced orders.
Single Goals and Generalised Plurality

Next a complexity result exemplifying the limitations of the approach.

We use the following language and voting rule:

- Using the language of single goals, each voter specifies just one goal (an arbitrary propositional formula) with priority 1.
- Under the generalised plurality rule, a voter gives 1 point to each undominated alternative.

Here are two examples, for the set of variables \( \{X, Y\} \):

- The goal \( \neg X \land Y \) induces the order \( \bar{xy} \succeq xy \sim x\bar{y} \sim \bar{x}\bar{y} \), so only combination \( \bar{xy} \) receives 1 point.
- The goal \( X \lor Y \) induces the order \( xy \sim \bar{xy} \sim x\bar{y} \succ \bar{x}\bar{y} \), so combinations \( xy, \bar{xy}, x\bar{y} \) receive 1 point each.
Winner Determination under Plurality

Define the following decision problem, for a preference representation language $\mathcal{L}$ and a voting rule $F$:

\[
\text{WINDet}(\mathcal{L}, F)
\]

**Instance:** Profile $R$ expressed in $\mathcal{L}$; combination $x^\ast$.

**Question:** Is $x^\ast \in F(R)$?

Bad news:

**Proposition 3 (Lang, 2004)** $\text{WINDet}$ is coNP-complete for the language of single goals and the generalised plurality rule.

Recall that coNP is the complement of the complexity class NP (i.e., it is the complexity class of checking validity in propositional logic).

Proof

We show, equivalently to the claim, that deciding whether \( x^* \) is \textit{not} a winner under plurality is \( \text{NP} \)-complete:

- \textbf{NP-membership:} Let \( \varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_n \) be the goals of the voters. The plurality score of any alternative \( x \) can be computed by adding one point for each voter \( i \) with \( x \models \varphi_i \) or \( \varphi_i \) being inconsistent (the two cases in which \( x \) is undominated). But to \textit{compare} two alternatives \( x \) and \( y \), we only need to check \( x \models \varphi_i \) and \( y \models \varphi_i \), which we can do in polynomial time. Hence, if someone claims that \( x^* \) is \textit{not} a winner and names a stronger alternative \( x \), then this can be verified in polynomial time. ✓

- \textbf{NP-hardness:} By reduction from SAT. Let \( \varphi \) be a formula for which we want to check satisfiability. Let \( p \) be a new propositional symbol; then \( \varphi \) is satisfiable \textit{iff} \( \varphi \land p \) is. Create a single voter with goal \( \varphi \land p \). Pick candidate combination \( x^* \) with \( x^* \not\models p \) (must exist), i.e., also \( x^* \not\models \varphi \land p \). Then \( x^* \) is \textit{not} a plurality winner \textit{iff} there exists another alternative \( x \) with \( x \models \varphi \land p \), i.e., \textit{iff} \( \varphi \land p \) is satisfiable. ✓
Summary

We have seen several approaches for tackling the problem of voting in combinatorial domains (i.e., voting in multi-issue elections).

To date, no clear solution has emerged. Good candidates:

- Distance-based approaches
- Sequential voting
- Voting with compactly expressed preferences

Any approach has to balance a choice-theoretic challenge (eliciting too little information from voters leads to paradoxical outcomes) and a computational challenge (eliciting too much information is intractable).

What next? Logic and social choice theory.