

# Computational Social Choice: Autumn 2010

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## 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”?

$\triangle \succ_1 \circ \succ_1 \square$

$\square \succ_2 \triangle \succ_2 \circ$

$\circ \succ_3 \square \succ_3 \triangle$

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

## Introduction

The course will cover issues at the interface of *computer science* and *mathematical economics*, including in particular:

- (computational) logic
- multiagent systems
- artificial intelligence
- social choice theory
- game theory
- decision theory

There has been a recent *trend* towards research of this sort.

The broad philosophy is generally the same, but people use different names to identify various flavours of this kind of work, e.g.:

- Algorithmic Game Theory
- Social Software
- *and*: Computational Social Choice

Very few specific *prerequisites* are required to follow the course.

Nevertheless, we will frequently touch upon *current research* issues.

## Organisational Matters

- **Lecturer:** Ulle Endriss (u.endriss@uva.nl), Room C3.140
- **TA:** Umberto Grandi (u.grandi@uva.nl), Room C3.119
- **Timetable:** Tuesdays 11–13 in Room G3.13 (+ a few tutorials)
- **Examination:** There will be several *homework* assignments on the material covered in the course. In the second block, every student will have to study a *recent paper*, write a short essay on the topic, and present their findings in a talk.
- **Website:** Lecture slides, coursework assignments, and other important information will be posted on the course website:  
  
<http://www.illc.uva.nl/~ulle/teaching/comsoc/2010/>
- **Seminars:** There are occasional talks at the ILLC that are directly relevant to the course and that you are welcome to attend (e.g., at the Computational Social Choice Seminar).

## Topics

The main topic for 2010 will be *voting theory* (8-10 lectures), which we will investigate from all sorts of angles. Some keywords:

- axiomatic method: impossibility theorems, characterisation results
- complexity of voting (computational, communication, ...)
- strategic manipulation
- voting in combinatorial domains and preference modelling
- maybe: proportional representation, electronic voting

The remaining lectures will be spent on other topics, such as:

- judgment aggregation
- stable matchings
- fair division

If interested, you can arrange *(individual) projects* on some of these (and related) topics with members of the COMSOC Group later on.

## Prerequisites

There are no formal prerequisites. But: you should be comfortable with *formal* material and you will be asked to *prove* stuff.

There are two areas for which we will assume some background knowledge that some of you may not yet have. This material will be covered in two *tutorials* in the first few weeks:

- **Complexity Theory:** definition of complexity classes such as P and NP; completeness with respect to a complexity class; proving NP-completeness via reduction
- **Game Theory:** non-cooperative games in strategic form; Pareto optimal outcomes; dominant strategies; pure and mixed Nash equilibria; computing Nash equilibria for small games

## Related Courses

- Strategic Games  
*Krzysztof Apt*
- Cooperative Games  
*Stéphane Airiau*
- Games and Complexity  
*Peter van Emde Boas*
- Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems (MSc AI)  
*Shimon Whiteson*

## Plan for Today

This course is about *collective decision making*: How can we map individual inputs of a group of agents into a joint decision?

Today we will see some examples, problems, ideas, paradoxes, or just *issues* that illustrate the main question addressed in the course:

- ▶ *How does collective decision making work?*

The remainder of the course will then be devoted to developing (some of) these rather vague ideas in a rigorous manner.

## Three Voting Procedures

*Voting* is the prototypical form of collective decision making.

Here are three *voting procedures* (there are many more):

- *Plurality*: elect the candidate ranked first most often (i.e., each voter assigns one point to a candidate of her choice, and the candidate receiving the most votes wins)
- *Borda*: each voter gives  $m-1$  points to the candidate she ranks first,  $m-2$  to the candidate she ranks second, etc., and the candidate with the most points wins
- *Approval*: voters can approve of as many candidates as they wish, and the candidate with the most approvals wins

## Example

Suppose there are three *candidates* (A, B, C) and 11 *voters* with the following *preferences* (where boldface indicates *acceptability*, for AV):

5 voters think: **A**  $\succ$  B  $\succ$  C

4 voters think: **C**  $\succ$  B  $\succ$  A

2 voters think: **B**  $\succ$  **C**  $\succ$  A

Assuming the voters vote *sincerely*, who *wins* the election for

- the plurality rule?
- the Borda rule?
- approval voting?

Conclusion: We need to be very clear about which *properties* we are looking for in a voting procedure ...

## The Axiomatic Method: May's Theorem

Three attractive properties (“axioms”) of voting procedures:

- *Anonymity*: voters should be treated symmetrically
- *Neutrality*: candidates should be treated symmetrically
- *Positive Responsiveness*: if a (sole or tied) winner receives increased support, then she should become the sole winner

One of the classical results in voting theory:

**Theorem 1 (May, 1952)** *A voting procedure for two candidates satisfies anonymity, neutrality and positive responsiveness if and only if it is the plurality rule.*

K.O. May. A Set of Independent Necessary and Sufficient Conditions for Simple Majority Decisions. *Econometrica*, 20(4):680–684, 1952.

## Example with Three Candidates

Suppose the *plurality rule* is used to decide an election: the candidate receiving the highest number of votes wins.

Assume the preferences of the people in, say, Florida are as follows:

49%: Bush  $\succ$  Gore  $\succ$  Nader  
20%: Gore  $\succ$  Nader  $\succ$  Bush  
20%: Gore  $\succ$  Bush  $\succ$  Nader  
11%: Nader  $\succ$  Gore  $\succ$  Bush

So even if nobody is cheating, Bush will win this election. But:

- In a *pairwise contest*, Gore would have defeated anyone.
- It would have been in the interest of the Nader supporters to *manipulate*, i.e., to misrepresent their preferences.

Is there a better voting procedure that avoids these problems?

## The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem

More properties of voting procedures:

- A voting procedure is *manipulable* if it may give a voter an incentive to misrepresent her preferences.
- A voting procedure is *dictatorial* if the winner is always the top candidate of a particular voter (the dictator).

Another classical result (not stated 100% precisely here):

**Theorem 2 (Gibbard-Satterthwaite)** *For more than two candidates, every voting procedure is either dictatorial or manipulable.*

A. Gibbard. Manipulation of Voting Schemes: A General Result. *Econometrica*, 41(4):587–601, 1973.

M.A. Satterthwaite. Strategy-proofness and Arrow's Conditions. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 10:187–217, 1975.

## Complexity as a Barrier against Manipulation

By the Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem, any voting procedure for  $\geq 3$  candidates can be manipulated (unless it is dictatorial).

Idea: So it's always *possible* to manipulate, but maybe it's *difficult!*

Tools from *complexity theory* can be used to make this idea precise.

- For *some* procedures this does *not* work: if I know all other ballots and want  $X$  to win, it is *easy* to compute my best strategy.
- But for *others* it does work: manipulation is *NP-complete*.

Recent work in COMSOC has expanded on this idea:

- NP is a worst-case notion. What about average complexity?
- Also: complexity of winner determination, control, bribery, ...

J.J. Bartholdi III, C.A. Tovey, and M.A. Trick. The Computational Difficulty of Manipulating an Election. *Soc. Choice and Welfare*, 6(3):227–241, 1989.

P. Faliszewski and A.D. Procaccia. AI's War on Manipulation: Are We Winning? *AI Magazine*. In press (2010).

## Vickrey Auctions

We have seen that *manipulation* is a serious problem in voting.

In domains other than voting we can sometimes do better.

Suppose we want to sell a single item in an auction.

- *First-price sealed-bid auction*: each bidder submits an offer in a sealed envelope; highest bidder wins and pays what they offered
- *Vickrey auction*: each bidder submits an offer in a sealed envelope; highest bidder wins but pays *second highest price*

In the Vickrey auction each bidder has an incentive to submit their *truthful valuation* of the item!

William Vickrey received the 1996 Nobel Prize in Economic Sciences for “contributions to the economic theory of incentives”.

W. Vickrey. Counterspeculation, Auctions, and Competitive Sealed Tenders. *Journal of Finance* 16(1):8–37, 1961.

## Yet Another Example

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

- 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.

This is an instance of the *paradox of multiple elections*: the winning combination received the fewest number of (actually: *no*) votes.

S.J. Brams, D.M. Kilgour, and W.S. Zwicker. The Paradox of Multiple Elections. *Social Choice and Welfare*, 15(2):211–236, 1998.

## Combinatorial Domains

Many social choice problems have a *combinatorial structure*:

- During a *referendum* (in Switzerland, California, places like that), voters may be asked to vote on  $n$  different propositions.
- Elect a *committee* of  $k$  members from amongst  $n$  candidates.
- Find a good *allocation* of  $n$  indivisible goods to agents.

Seemingly small problems generate huge numbers of alternatives:

- Number of 3-member committees from 10 candidates:  $\binom{10}{3} = 120$  (i.e.  $120! \approx 6.7 \times 10^{198}$  possible rankings)
- Allocating 10 goods to 5 agents:  $5^{10} = 9765625$  allocations and  $2^{10} = 1024$  bundles for each agent to think about

We need good *languages* for representing preferences!

## Preference Representation Languages

There are many different languages for representing preferences. When choosing a language, we should consider these criteria:

- *Cognitive relevance*: How close is a given language to the way in which humans would express their preferences?
- *Elicitation*: How difficult is it to elicit the preferences of an agent so as to represent them in the chosen language?
- *Expressive power*: Can the chosen language encode all the preference structures we are interested in?
- *Succinctness*: How compact is the representation of (typical) preferences? Is one language more succinct than another?
- *Complexity*: What is the computational complexity of related decision problems, such as comparing two alternatives?

Y. Chevaleyre, U. Endriss, J. Lang, and N. Maudet. Preference Handling in Combinatorial Domains: From AI to Social Choice. *AI Magazine*, 29(4):37–46, 2008.

## Judgment Aggregation

Preferences are not the only structures we may wish to aggregate. JA studies the aggregation of judgments on logically inter-connected propositions. Example:

	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>
Judge 1:	yes	yes	yes
Judge 2:	no	yes	no
Judge 3:	yes	no	no
Majority:	yes	yes	no

*A*: witness is reliable

*B*: if witness is reliable then guilty

*C*: guilty

note that  $A \wedge B \rightarrow C$

Problem: While each individual set of judgments is logically consistent, the collective judgement produced by the majority rule is not.

C. List. The Theory of Judgment Aggregation: An Introductory Review. *Synthese*. In press (2010).

## The Stable Marriage Problem

Given: 100 men; 100 women; each with a linear preference ordering over the members of the opposite sex.

Problem: Find a *stable matching*. There should be no man and woman that would prefer each other over their assigned partners.

Solution: The Gale-Shapley algorithm works as follows.

- In each round, each man who is not yet engaged proposes to his favourite amongst the women he has not yet proposed to.
- In each round, each woman picks her favourite from the proposals she's receiving and the man she's currently engaged to (if any).
- Stop when everyone is engaged.

D. Gale and L.S. Shapley. College Admissions and the Stability of Marriage. *American Mathematical Monthly*, 69:9–15, 1962.

## Analysis

The Gale-Shapley algorithm is correct and efficient:

- The algorithm always *terminates*.
- The algorithm always returns a *stable* matching. For if not, the unhappy man would have proposed to the unhappy woman ...
- The algorithm has *quadratic complexity*: even in the worst case, no man will propose twice to the same woman. For instance:
  - each man has a different favourite  $\rightsquigarrow$  1 round ( $n$  proposals)
  - all men have the same preferences  $\rightsquigarrow \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  proposals

What about other properties? Who is better off, men or women?

## 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.

This can be considered a problem of *social choice*:

- A group of agents each have individual preferences over a collective agreement (the allocation of goods to be found).
- But: in fair division preferences are often assumed to be cardinal (*utility functions*) rather than ordinal (as in voting)
- And: fair division problems come with some *internal structure* often absent from other social choice problems (e.g., I will be indifferent between allocations giving me the same set of goods)

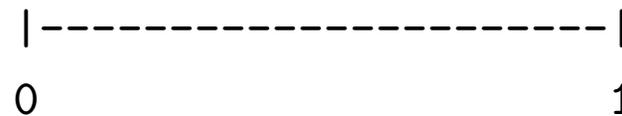
Today we'll only look into one particular subarea: cake-cutting ...

U. Endriss. *Lecture Notes on Fair Division*. ILLC, University of Amsterdam, 2010.

## Cake-Cutting

“Cake-cutting” is the problem of fair division of a single *divisible* (and heterogeneous) good between  $n$  *agents*.

The *cake* is represented by the unit interval  $[0, 1]$ :



Each agent  $i$  has a *utility function*  $u_i$  mapping finite unions of subintervals of  $[0, 1]$  to the reals, satisfying . . . some simple properties that don't really matter for this short exposition.

S.J. Brams and A.D. Taylor. *Fair Division: From Cake-Cutting to Dispute Resolution*. Cambridge University Press, 1996.

J. Robertson and W. Webb. *Cake-Cutting Algorithms: Be Fair if You Can*. A.K. Peters, 1998.

## Cut-and-Choose

The classical approach for dividing a cake between *two agents*:

- ▶ One agent *cuts* the cake in two pieces (which she considers to be of equal value), and the other one *chooses* one of the pieces (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?

## The Banach-Knaster Last-Diminisher Procedure

In the first ever paper on fair division, Steinhaus (1948) reports on a solution for *arbitrary*  $n$  proposed by Banach and Knaster.

- (1) Agent 1 cuts off a piece (that she considers to represent  $1/n$ ).
- (2) That piece is passed around the agents. Each agent either lets it pass (if she considers it too small) or trims it down further (to what she considers  $1/n$ ).
- (3) After the piece has made the full round, the last agent to cut something off (the “last diminisher”) is obliged to take it.
- (4) The rest (including the trimmings) is then divided amongst the remaining  $n-1$  agents. Play cut-and-choose once  $n = 2$ . ✓

Each agent is guaranteed a *proportional* piece.

H. Steinhaus. The Problem of Fair Division. *Econometrica*, 16:101–104, 1948.

## 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

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.

## Homework

For the voting procedure you have been assigned

- (a) find out how it works and prepare to be able to present it in 90 seconds (on the blackboard), and
- (b) find something nice to say about your procedure and prepare for explaining what that is in a further 90 seconds.

Up to 5 points for each question (all or nothing).

Read the COMSOC Survey (Chevaleyre et al., 2007) and browse through the COMSOC Website (workshops, PhD theses, ...):

<http://www.illc.uva.nl/COMSOC/>

Y. Chevaleyre, U. Endriss, J. Lang, and N. Maudet. *A Short Introduction to Computational Social Choice*. Proc. SOFSEM-2007.

## What next?

- Tutorial on complexity theory to be held later this week (only for those who think they might need it).
- No class next week (I'll be at COMSOC-2010 in Düsseldorf).
- Then we'll start with a systematic introduction to voting theory.