

Computational Social Choice 2024

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Opening Example

Five *voters* express their *preferences* over three *alternatives*. We need to find a *good* ranking of the alternatives to reflect this information:

Voter 1: $a \succ b \succ c$

Voter 2: $b \succ c \succ a$

Voter 3: $c \succ a \succ b$

Voter 4: $c \succ a \succ b$

Voter 5: $b \succ c \succ a$

?

What is Computational Social Choice?

Social choice theory is about methods for *collective decision making*, such as *political* decision making by groups of *economic* agents.

Its methodology ranges from the *philosophical* to the *mathematical*. It is traditionally studied in *Economics* and *Political Science* and it is a close cousin of both *decision theory* and *game theory*.

Its findings are relevant to multiple *applications*, such as these:

- How to fairly allocate resources to the members of a society?
- How to fairly divide computing time between several users?
- How to elect a president given people's preferences?
- How to combine the website rankings of multiple search engines?
- How to aggregate the views of different judges in a court case?
- How to extract information from noisy crowdsourced data?

Computational social choice, the topic of this course, emphasises the fact that any method of decision making is ultimately an *algorithm*.

Plan for Today

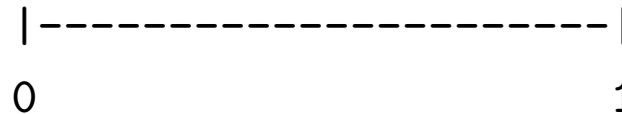
The purpose of today's lecture is to give you enough information to decide whether you want to take this course.

- Examples for domains (and techniques) in COMSOC research:
 - fair allocation of goods
 - preference modelling
 - voting in elections
 - judgment aggregation
- Organisational matters: planning, expectations, assessment, . . .

Cake Cutting

A classical example for a problem of collective decision making:

*We have to divide a **cake** with different toppings amongst **n agents** by means of parallel cuts. Agents have different preferences regarding the toppings (**additive utility functions**).*



The exact details of the formal model are not important for this short exposition. You can look them up in my lecture notes (cited below).

Exercise: *Can you think of a suitable method for **$n = 2$** agents?*

U. Endriss. *Lecture Notes on Fair Division*. Institute for Logic, Language and Computation, University of Amsterdam, 2009.

Cut-and-Choose

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

- ▶ One agent *cuts* the cake into two pieces (of equal value to her), and the other *chooses* one of them (the piece she prefers).

The cut-and-choose protocol is *fair* in the sense of guaranteeing a property known as *proportionality*:

- Each agent is *guaranteed* at least one half (general: $1/n$), according to her own valuation, however the other one plays.
- Discussion: In fact, the first agent (if she is risk-averse) will receive exactly $1/2$, while the second will usually get more.

Exercise: *What about three agents? Or more?*

The Banach-Knaster Last-Diminisher Protocol

In the first ever paper on fair division, Steinhaus (1948) reports on a *proportional* protocol for n agents due to Banach and Knaster.

- (1) Agent 1 cuts off a piece (that she considers to represent $1/n$).
- (2) That piece is passed around. Each agent either lets it pass (if she finds it too small) or trims it 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. Last agent takes what’s left. ✓

Observe that each agent is guaranteed a *proportional* piece. (*Why?*)

Exercise: *How many cuts do we require in the worst case?*

H. Steinhaus. The Problem of Fair Division. *Econometrica*, 1948.

The Even-Paz Divide-and-Conquer Protocol

So the last-diminisher protocol requires $O(n^2)$ cuts. *Can we do better?*

Even and Paz (1984) introduced the divide-and-conquer protocol:

- (1) Ask each agent to put a (cut) *mark* on the cake.
- (2) *Cut* the cake at the $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ *th mark* (counting from the left).

Associate the agents who made the *leftmost* $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ *marks* with the *lefthand part*, and the *remaining agents* with the *righthand part*.

- (3) *Repeat* for each group, until only one agent is left.

Also here, each agent is guaranteed a *proportional* piece. (*Why?*)

Exercise: *How many cuts/marks do we need now (Big-O notation)?*

S. Even and A. Paz. A Note on Cake Cutting. *Discrete Appl. Mathematics*, 1984.

Preference Modelling

For the cake-cutting scenario, we made some very specific assumptions regarding the *preferences* of individual agents:

- preferences are modelled as *utility functions* (so: using numbers)
- those preferences are *additive* (severe restriction)

Discussion: *cardinal* utility function vs. *ordinal* preference relation

We also did not worry about what formal *language* to use to *represent* an agent's preferences, e.g., to be able to say *how much information* you need to exchange when eliciting an agent's preferences.

Preference representation is an interesting research field in its own right. A possible starting point is the survey cited below.

Y. Chevaleyre, U. Endriss, J. Lang, and N. Maudet. Preference Handling in Combinatorial Domains: From AI to Social Choice. *AI Magazine*, 2008.

Ranking Sets of Objects

Suppose we know your preferences \succsim over a finite number of *objects*:

$$a_m \succ a_{m-1} \succ \cdots \succ a_3 \succ a_2 \succ a_1$$

When you compare *sets of objects*, representing *opportunities*, what can we say about your preferences $\hat{\succsim}$ over sets of objects?

- It seems uncontroversial that $\{a_3\} \hat{\succ} \{a_1, a_2\}$.
- It seems impossible infer anything regarding $\{a_2\}$ and $\{a_1, a_3\}$.
- We might be willing to infer $\{a_1, a_3, a_4\} \hat{\succ} \{a_1, a_2, a_4\}$. (*How?*)

Suppose we accept the following two *axioms* for preference extensions:

- *Independence*: $A \hat{\succ} B$ and $c \notin A \cup B$ imply $A \cup \{c\} \hat{\succ} B \cup \{c\}$
- *Dominance*: $b \succ a$ for all $a \in A$ implies $A \cup \{b\} \hat{\succ} A$
and similarly $b \succ a$ for all $b \in B$ implies $B \hat{\succ} B \cup \{a\}$

Of course, we also want $\hat{\succsim}$ to be transitive and complete (*weak order*).

Exercise: Can you think of a way of defining $\hat{\succsim}$ that works?

The Kannai-Peleg Theorem

Rather surprisingly, our requirements are impossible to satisfy:

Kannai-Peleg Theorem: *If there are ≥ 6 objects, then no weak order on sets of objects satisfies both independence and dominance.*

Proof: We first show that $A \sim \{\max(A), \min(A)\}$ for any set A .

Clear for $|A| \leq 2$. For $|A| \geq 3$, get $A \setminus \{\max(A)\} \succ \{\min(A)\}$ from (DOM), and then $A \succ \{\max(A), \min(A)\}$ from (IND).

Show $\{\max(A), \min(A)\} \succ A$ analogously. \checkmark

Now suppose $a_6 \succ a_5 \succ a_4 \succ a_3 \succ a_2 \succ a_1$. Show $\{a_2, a_5\} \succ \{a_4\}$:

Assume not: $\{a_4\} \succ \{a_2, a_5\}$. By (IND): $\{a_1, a_4\} \succ \{a_1, a_2, a_5\}$.

By above lemma: $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4\} \succ \{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5\}$. \nexists

Thus also: $\{a_2, a_5\} \succ \{a_3\}$, and by (IND): $\{a_2, a_5, a_6\} \succ \{a_3, a_6\}$.

By above lemma: $\{a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6\} \succ \{a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6\}$. \nexists

Y. Kannai and B. Peleg. A Note on the Extension of an Order on a Set to the Power Set. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 1984.

Automated Discovery of Theorems

A major challenge in COMSOC is to facilitate *automated verification*, and possibly even the *automated discovery*, of theorems.

Works for *ranking sets of objects* (Christian Geist's MoL thesis, 2010):

- Devise logic for expressing axioms (many-sorted FOL).
- Find syntactic conditions on axioms under which any impossibility for k objects generalises to $k' > k$ objects.
- For any fixed k , axioms can be expressed in propositional logic, and impossibility for small fixed k can be checked by a SAT solver.
- Search over all combinations of axioms from some set (we used 20) and all values of k up to some bound (we used 8) to discover all impossibilities (we found 84 impossibility theorems).

C. Geist and U. Endriss. Automated Search for Impossibility Theorems in Social Choice Theory: Ranking Sets of Objects. *Journal of AI Research*, 2011.

Three Voting Rules

Suppose n *voters* choose from a set of m *alternatives* by stating their preferences in the form of *linear orders* over the 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

Exercise: *Do you know real-world elections where these rules are used?*

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):

2 *Germans*: Beer \succ Wine \succ Milk
3 *French people*: Wine \succ Beer \succ Milk
4 *Dutch people*: Milk \succ Beer \succ Wine

Recall that we saw three different voting rules:

- Plurality
- Plurality with runoff
- Borda

Exercise: For each of the rules, which beverage wins the election?

Special Case: Two Alternatives

For the special case of $m = 2$ alternatives, all three voting rules we saw reduce to the *same* rule (*why?*), known as the *simple majority rule*.

Intuitively, this is “the right” way to run an election when $m = 2$.

Exercise: *Can you make this precise? Why is there no better rule?*

The Condorcet Jury Theorem

We'll mostly focus on axiomatic arguments, but there are also others.

The simple majority rule for two alternatives is *epistemically* attractive, in terms of *tracking the truth* (assuming there is a “correct” choice):

Condorcet-Jury Theorem (1795): *Suppose a jury of n voters need to select the better of two alternatives and each voter *independently* makes the correct decision with the same probability $p > \frac{1}{2}$. Then the probability that the *simple majority rule* returns the correct decision increases monotonically in n and *approaches 1* as n goes to infinity.*

Proof sketch: By the law of large numbers, the number of voters making the correct choice approaches $p \cdot n > \frac{1}{2} \cdot n$. ✓

Writings of the Marquis de Condorcet. In I. McLean and A. Urken (eds.), *Classics of Social Choice*. University of Michigan Press, 1995.

Example: Judgment Aggregation

Suppose three robots are in charge of climate control for this building. They need to make judgments on p (*the temperature is below 17°C*), q (*we should switch on the heating*), and the “policy” $p \rightarrow q$.

	p	$p \rightarrow q$	q
Robot 1	Yes	Yes	Yes
Robot 2	No	Yes	No
Robot 3	Yes	No	No

Exercise: *Should we switch on the heating?*

Complexity Theory

So the *majority rule* is not a good choice for judgment aggregation, given that it will sometimes return *inconsistent judgment sets*.

We could design more sophisticated rules to avoid this. Example:

Compute the *majority judgment set*. Then, from amongst all *consistent judgment sets*, return the one that is *closest* to that majority outcome, where the *distance* between two judgment sets is the number of propositions on which they differ.

Exercise: *Can you design an algorithm for this? What's its runtime?*

U. Endriss, R. de Haan, J. Lang, and M. Slavkovik. The Complexity Landscape of Outcome Determination in Judgment Aggregation. *Journal of AI Research*, 2020.

Summary

COMSOC is all about *aggregating* information supplied by *individuals* into a *collective* view. Different *domains* of aggregation:

- *fair allocation*: preferences over highly structured alternatives
- *voting*: ordinal preferences over alternatives w/o internal structure
- *judgment aggregation*: assignments of truth values to propositions

Different *techniques* used to analyse them, such as:

- axiomatic method: philosophical and mathematical
- logical modelling, automated theorem proving
- algorithm design and complexity analysis
- probability theory (e.g., for truth-tracking)
- new questions in view of applications beyond politics

F. Brandt, V. Conitzer, U. Endriss, J. Lang, and A.D. Procaccia (eds), *Handbook of Computational Social Choice*. Cambridge University Press, 2016.

Organisational Matters

Prerequisites: This is an advanced course, so I assume mathematical maturity, we'll move fast, and we'll often touch upon recent research. On the other hand, almost no specific background is required.

Information: Website for slides, homework assignments, and readings. Canvas for assignment submission, announcements, and regulations.

Schedule: Usually two meetings per week, but sometimes more.

Assessment: Homework (50%) and mini-project (50%).

Commitment: Be ready to invest ~ 20 h/week. Heavy HW regime for the first three weeks; after that the focus is on the projects.

Attendance: You should usually be present at all meetings.

Research Seminars

Make it a habit to regularly attend research seminars in multiple fields.

For COMSOC, we have a local option (irregular meetings):

COMSOC Seminar at the ILLC
(bit.ly/comsoc-seminar-amsterdam)

There also is an international online seminar happening once a month:

COMSOC Video Seminar
(comsocseminar.org)

Outlook

Plan for the rest of the course:

- application focus: voting in elections
- axiomatic method and impossibility results
- strategic behaviour and strategyproofness
- methodological focus: representation + reasoning, SAT technology
- various minor topics

Assignments for tomorrow:

- Read the non-technical parts of Chapter 1 of the *Handbook* to get an understanding of the nature and history of the field.
- Prepare a 90-second presentation about your assigned voting rule (definition + one positive property + one negative property).

What next? Classifying and axiomatically characterising voting rules.