# Social Choice Theory for Logicians ESSLLI 2016

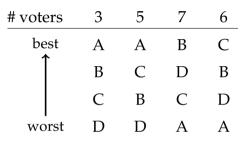
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University of Maryland, College Park
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## Plan

- ► Introduction, Background, Voting Theory, May's Theorem, Arrow's Theorem
- Social Choice Theory: Variants of Arrow's Theorem, Weakening Arrow's Conditions (Domain Conditions), Harsanyi's Theorem, Characterizing Voting Methods
- Strategizing (Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem) and Iterative Voting/ Introduction to Judgement Aggregation
- Aggregating Judgements (linear pooling, wisdom of the crowds, prediction markets), Probabilistic Social Choice.
- ► Logics for Social Choice Theory (Modal Logic, Dependence/Independence Logic, First Order Logic)

# **Voting Situations**



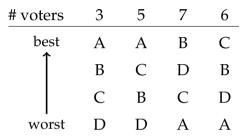
▶ 21 voters and 4 candidates: Ann (*A*), Bob (*B*), Charles (*C*) and Dora (*D*)

# **Voting Situations**

# voters	3	5	7	6
best	A	A	В	C
Ī	В	C	D	В
	C	В	C	D
worst	D	D	A	A

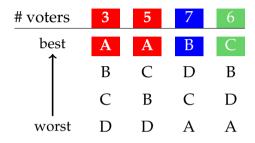
- ► 21 voters and 4 candidates: Ann (*A*), Bob (*B*), Charles (*C*) and Dora (*D*)
- ► Each voter ranks the candidates from best (at the top of the list) to worst (at the bottom of the list) resulting in the 4 voting blocks given in the above table

# **Voting Situations**



Who should win the election?

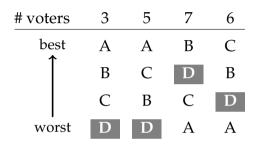
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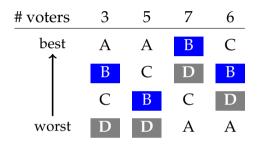
► Candidate *A*: More people (8) rank *A* first than any other candidate

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	В	C	D	В
	C	В	C	D
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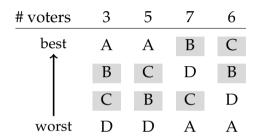
- ► **Candidate** *A*: More people rank *A* first than any other candidate
- ► Candidate A should not win: more than half rank A last



- ► Candidate A: More people rank A first than any other candidate
- ► Candidate D should not win



- ► Candidate A: More people rank A first than any other candidate
- ► **Candidate** *D* **should** *not* **win**: *everyone* ranks *B* higher than *D*



▶ Which of *B* or *C* should win?

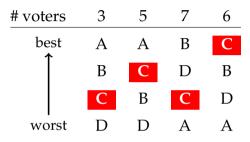


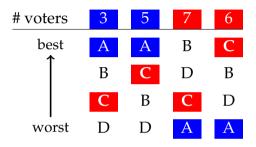
VS.

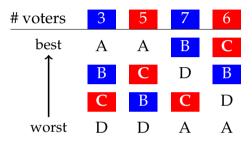


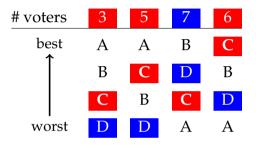
Marquis de Condorcet (1743 - 1794)

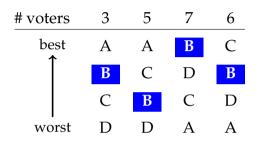
Jean-Charles de Borda (1733 -1799)



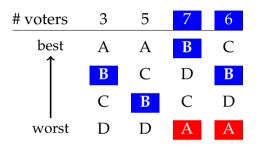




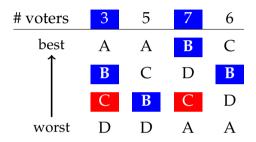




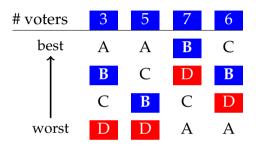
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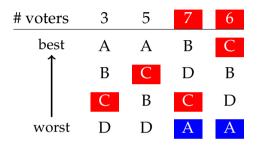
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- ► *B* gets 13 (vs. *A*)



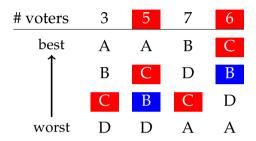
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- ► *B* gets 13 (vs. *A*) + 10 (vs. *C*)



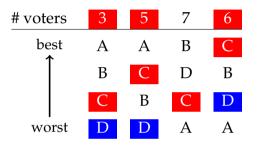
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- ► B gets 13 (vs. A) + 10 (vs. C) + 21 (vs. D) = 44 points



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- C get 13 (vs. A) + 11 (vs. B) + 14 (vs. D) = 38 points



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- ► Candidate *A* should *not* win: more than half rank *A* last
- ► Candidate *D* should *not* win: *everyone* ranks *B* higher than *D*
- ► Candidate *C*: *C* beats every other candidate in head-to-head elections (*C* is the *Condorcet winner*)
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Conclusion: there are many ways to answer the above question!

(C is the Condorcet winner)

► **Candidate** *B*: Taking into account the *entire* ordering, *B* has the most "support" (*B* is the *Borda winner*)

# Preference

#### **Preferences**

Preferring or choosing x is different that "liking" x or "having a taste for x": one can prefer x to y but *dislike* both options

In utility theory, preferences are always understood as comparative: "preference" is more like "bigger" than "big"

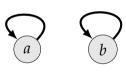
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E.g., 
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**Irreflexive relation**: for all  $x \in X$ ,  $x \not R$  x (i.e.,  $(x, x) \notin R$ )

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 $\overbrace{a}$ 

(b)

 $\bigcirc$ 

d

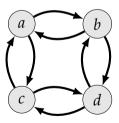
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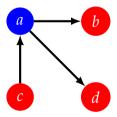
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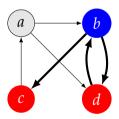
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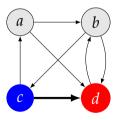
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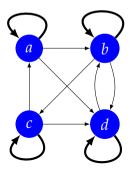
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**Transitive relation**: for all  $x, y, z \in X$ , if x R y and y R z, then x R z

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(a)

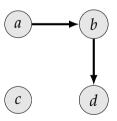
(b)

c

d

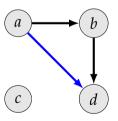
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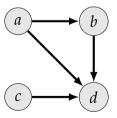
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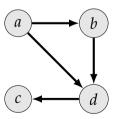
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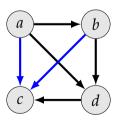
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#### Maximal elements, Cycles

Suppose that  $R \subseteq X \times X$  is a relation.

 $x \in X$  is **maximal** with respect to R provided there is no  $y \in X$  such that y R x.

For  $Y \subseteq X$ , let  $\max_R(Y) = \{x \in Y \mid \text{ there is no } y \in Y \text{ such that } y \mid R \mid X \}$ 

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A **cycle** is a set of distinct elements  $x_1, ..., x_n$  such that

$$x_1 R x_2 \cdots x_{n-1} R x_n R x_1$$

*R* is **acyclic** if it does not contain any cycles.

Let *X* be a set of options/outcomes. A decision maker's *preference* over *X* is represented by a *relation*  $\geq \subseteq X \times X$ .

Given  $x, y \in X$ , there are four possibilities:

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Suppose that  $\geq$  is a preference relation. Then,

- ► Strict preference: x > y iff  $x \ge y$  and  $y \not\ge x$
- ► **Indifference**:  $x \sim y$  iff  $x \ge y$  and  $y \ge x$

- What is the relationship between choice and preference?
- ► Why *should* preferences be complete and transitive?
- ► *Are* people's preferences complete and transitive?

Invoking someone's preferences will suffice to explain why some choices were not made (i.e. in terms of rational impermissibility) but not typically why some particular choice was made. To take up the slack, explanations must draw on factors other than preference: psychological one such as the framing of the choice problem or the saliency of particular options, or sociological ones such as the existence of norms or conventions governing choices of the relevant kind.

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What properties does such a preference ordering have?

### Ordinal Utility Theory

**Fact**. Suppose that X is finite and  $\succeq$  is a complete and transitive ordering over X, then there is a utility function  $u: X \to \Re$  that represents  $\succeq$ 

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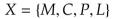
Utility is *defined* in terms of preference (so it is an error to say that the agent prefers *x* to *y because* she assigns a higher utility to *x* than to *y*).

#### Important

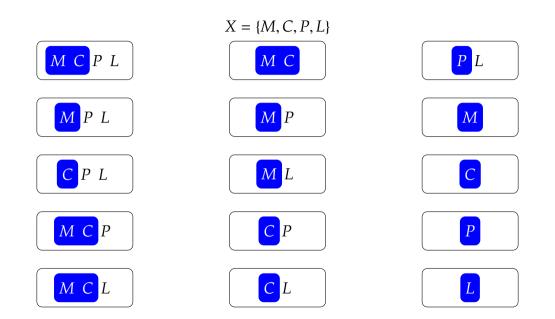
All three of the utility functions represent the preference x > y > z

Item	$u_1$	$u_2$	$u_3$
x	3	10	1000
y	2	5	99
z	1	0	1

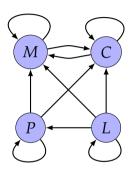
x > y > z is represented by both (3, 2, 1) and (1000, 999, 1), so one cannot say that y is "closer" to x than to z.



	$X = \{M, C, P, L\}$	
$\left[\begin{array}{cc} M & C & P & L \end{array}\right]$	M C	$\left( \begin{array}{cc} P \ L \end{array} \right)$
MPL	MP	M
C P L	$\boxed{  M \ L }$	С
M C P	C P	$\boxed{\qquad \qquad P}$
M C L	C L	

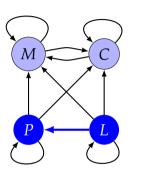


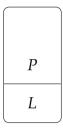
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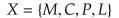
$$\geq = \{(M, C), (C, M), (M, P), (M, L), (C, P), (C, L), (P, L), (M, M), (P, P), (C, C), (L, L)\}$$

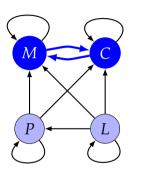
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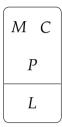




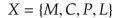
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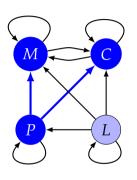






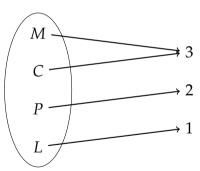
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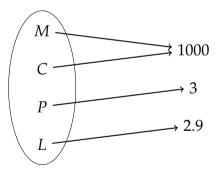


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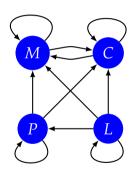


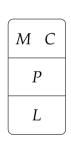


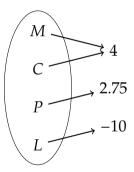
 $[M \ C]$ 

 $(\boldsymbol{P}|L)$ 



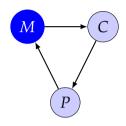




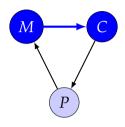


- What is the relationship between choice and preference?
- ► Why *should* preferences be complete and transitive?
- ► *Are* people's preferences complete and transitive?

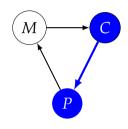
- ► Transitivity: Money-pump argument
- ► Completeness: Incommensurable options



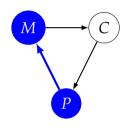
(*M*)



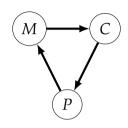
 $(M) \implies (C, -1)$ 



$$(M) \implies (C,-1) \implies (P,-2)$$



$$(M) \implies (C,-1) \implies (P,-2) \implies (M,-3)$$



$$(M) \Longrightarrow (C, -1) \Longrightarrow (P, -2) \Longrightarrow (M, -3) \Longrightarrow (C, -4) \Longrightarrow \cdots$$

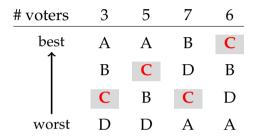
[O]f all the axioms of utility theory, the completeness axiom is perhaps the most questionable. Like others, it is inaccurate as a description of real life; but unlike them we find it hard to accept even from the normative viewpoint.

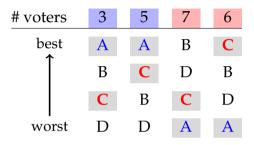
(Aumann, 1962)

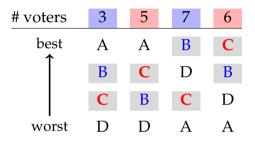
Rather than trying to provide instrumental or pragmatic justifications for the axioms of ordinal utility, it is better...to see them as constitutive of our conception of a fully rational agent....those disposed to blatantly ignore transitivity are unintelligible to us: we can't understand their pattern of actions as sensible.

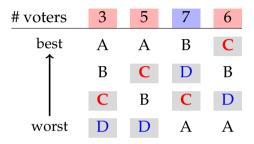
[Gaus], pg. 39

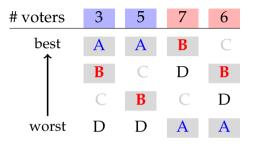
## The Condorcet Paradox

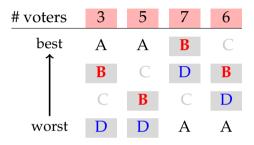


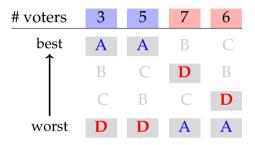












► Candidate *C* should win since *C* beats every other candidate in head-to-head elections. *B* is ranked second, *D* is ranked third, and *A* is ranked last.

$$C >_M B >_M D >_M A$$

Suppose that X and Y are candidates and  $P_i$  represents voter i's strict preference.

 $N(X P Y) = |\{i \mid X P_i Y\}|$  "the number of voters that rank X strictly above Y"

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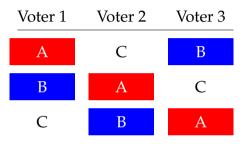
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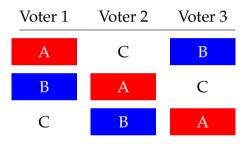
*X* is a **Condorcet winner** if *X* beats every other candidate in an head-to-head election: there is no candidate *Y* such that  $Y >_M X$ 

*X* is a **Condorcet loser** if *X* loses to every other candidate in an head-to-head elections: there is no candidate *Y* such that,  $X >_M Y$ 

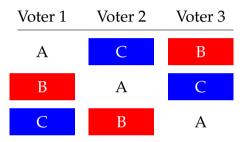
Voter 2	Voter 3
С	В
A	С
В	A
	A



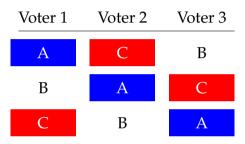
► Does the group prefer *A* over *B*?



► Does the group prefer *A* over *B*? Yes



- ► Does the group prefer *A* over *B*? Yes
- ► Does the group prefer *B* over *C*? Yes



- ► Does the group prefer *A* over *B*? Yes
- ► Does the group prefer *B* over *C*? Yes
- ► Does the group prefer *A* over *C*? No

Voter 1	Voter 2	Voter 3
A	С	В
В	A	C
С	В	A

The majority relation  $>_M$  is **not** transitive!

There is a **Condorcet cycle**:  $A >_M B >_M C >_M A$ 

#### How bad is this?

► Final decisions are extremely sensitive to institutional features such as who can set the agenda, arbitrary time limits place on deliberation, who is permitted to make motions, etc.

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W. Riker. Liberalism against Populism. Waveland Press, 1982.

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G. Mackie. Democracy Defended. Cambridge University Press, 2003.

► How *likely* is a Condorcet cycle?

## The probability of a Condorcet cycle

Give a set of *n* voters and *m* candidates, what is the probability that there is a Condorcet cycle?

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Give a set of *n* voters and *m* candidates, what is the probability that there is a Condorcet cycle?

$$Pr(m, n) = \frac{\text{"the number of preference profiles that generate a Condorcet cycle"}}{\text{"the total number of preference profiles"}}$$

(A **preference profile** is a list of preferences, one for each voter.)

# The probability of a Condorcet paradox, I

Consider a group of size *n* voting on *m* alternatives (assume that the voter's preferences are linear orders)

What is the total number of preference profiles?

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What is the total number of preference profiles?  $(m!)^n$ For m = n = 3, there are  $(3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)^3 = 6^3 = 216$  different preference profiles.

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 and  $C >_M B >_M A >_M C$ 

$G_1$	$G_2$	$G_3$	$G_1$	$G_2$	$G_3$
$\overline{A}$	В	С	$\overline{C}$	В	A
B	C	A	В	A	C
C	A	B	A	C	B

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$G_1$	$G_2$	$G_3$	$G_1$	$G_2$	$G_3$	$G_1 + G_3 > G_2$
$\overline{A}$	В	С	$\overline{C}$	В	$\overline{A}$	$G_1 + G_3 > G_2$ $G_1 + G_2 > G_3$
B	C	A	B	A	C	
C	A	В	A	C	B	$G_2 + G_3 > G_1$

Consider a group of size *n* voting on *m* alternatives (assume that the voter's preferences are linear orders)

What is the total number of preference profiles?  $(m!)^n$ For m = n = 3, there are  $(3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)^3 = 6^3 = 216$  different preference profiles. How many of these generate intransitive group preferences? 12  $A >_M B >_M C >_M A$  and  $C >_M B >_M A >_M C$ 

$$Pr(3,3) = \frac{12}{216} = 0.0555555...$$

		Number of voters										
		3	5	7	9	11		$\infty$				
ates	3	.056	.069	.075	.078	.080		.088				
ndid	4	.111	.139	.150	.156	.160		.176				
Number of candidates	5	.160	.200	.215				.251				
nber	6	.212						.315				
Nur	:							:				
	$\infty$	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00				

(Source: W. Riker, Liberalism Against Populism, pg. 122)

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# Key assumptions

- voters are free to adopt any preference they want (there are no domain restrictions)
- all of the linear orderings are equally likely to be submitted by an individual (the voter's preferences are *independent* and drawn from an *impartial culture* over the set of all linear orderings)

## Key assumptions

"...changing the distribution in *any fashion* (whether we call it 'realistic' or not) away from an impartial culture over linear orders will automatically have the effect of reducing the probability of majority cycles in infinite samples..." (pg., 28, 29)

This means that assuming an impartial culture is a worst case analysis.

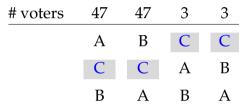
M. Regenwetter, B. Gromfan, A. Marley, and I. Tsetlin. *Behavioral Social Choice*. Cambridge University Press, 2006.

See, also,

W. Gehrlein. Condorcet's Paradox. Springer, 2006.

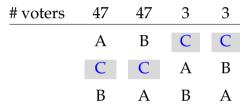
Should we select a Condorcet winner (when one exists)?

### Is the Condorcet winner the "best" choice?



*C* is the Condorcet winner

### Is the Condorcet winner the "best" choice?



C is the Condorcet winner; however, it seems that supporters of the main rivals A and B would rather see C win than their candidate's principal opponent, but this does not mean that there is "positive support" for C.

# voters	30	1	29	10	10	_1
	A	A	В	В	C	C
	В	C	A	C	A	В
	C	В	C	A	В	A

# voters	30	1	29	10	10	_1
2	A	A	В	В	C	C
1	В	C	A	C	A	В
0	C	В	C	A	В	A

$$BS(A) = 2 \times 31 + 1 \times 39 + 0 \times 11 = 101$$
  
 $BS(B) = 2 \times 39 + 1 \times 31 + 0 \times 11 = 109$   
 $BS(C) = 2 \times 11 + 1 \times 11 + 0 \times 59 = 33$ 

$$B >_{BC} A >_{BC} C$$

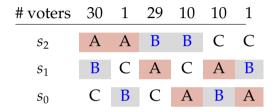
# voters	30	1	29	10	10	_1
	A	A	В	В	C	C
	В	C	A	C	A	В
	C	В	C	A	В	A

$$B >_{BC} A >_{BC} C$$

$$A >_M B >_M C$$

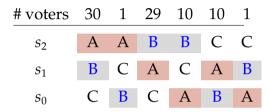
$$B >_{BC} A >_{BC} C$$
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**Condorcet's Other Paradox**: No *scoring rule* will work...

$$B >_{BC} A >_{BC} C$$
  $A >_M B >_M C$ 



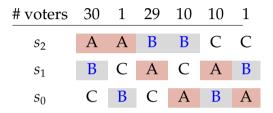
Condorcet's Other Paradox: No scoring rule will work...

$$Score(A) = s_2 \times 31 + s_1 \times 39 + s_0 \times 11$$
  
 $Score(B) = s_2 \times 39 + s_1 \times 31 + s_0 \times 11$ 

$$B >_{BC} A >_{BC} C$$
  $A >_M B >_M C$ 

Condorcet's Other Paradox: No scoring rule will work...

$$Score(A) = s_2 \times 31 + s_1 \times 39 + s_0 \times 11$$
  
 $Score(B) = s_2 \times 39 + s_1 \times 31 + s_0 \times 11$   
 $Score(A) > Score(B) \Rightarrow 31s_2 + 39s_1 > 39s_2 + 31s_1 \Rightarrow s_1 > s_2$   
 $B >_{BC} A >_{BC} C$   $A >_{M} B >_{M} C$ 



**Theorem (Fishburn 1974).** For all  $m \ge 3$ , there is some voting situation with a Condorcet winner such that every scoring rule will have at least m-2 candidates with a greater score than the Condorcet winner.

P. Fishburn. *Paradoxes of Voting*. The American Political Science Review, 68:2, pgs. 537 - 546, 1974.

# voters	30	1	29	10	10	1
	A	A	В	В	C	(
	В	C	A	C	A	E
	C	В	C	A	В	P

$$BS(A) = 2 \times 31 + 1 \times 39 + 0 \times 11 = 101$$
  
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  $A >_M B >_M C$ 

$$B>_{BC}A>_{BC}C$$
  $A>_{M}B>_{M}C$ 

## **Condorcet Triples**

If  $G_1 = G_2 = G_3$ , then this group of voters "cancel out" each other's votes

# voters	30	1	29	10	10	_1
	A	A	В	В	C	C
	В	C	A	C	A	В
	C	В	C	A	В	A

# voters	30	1	29	10	10	_1
	A	A	В	В	C	C
	В	C	A	C	A	В
	C	В	C	A	В	A
10	10	10				
A	В	C				
В	C	A				
C	A	В				

# voters	20	)	1	29	0	0	_1	
	A		A	В	В	C	C	
	В	,	C	A	C	A	В	
	C		В	C	A	В	A	
10	10	1	10_		1		1	1
A	В	(	C		A		C	В
В	C		A		C		В	A
C	A		В		В		A	C

# voters	20	0 (	28	0	0	0	
	A		В				
	В		A				
	C		C				
10	10	10	_	1		1	1
A	В	C		A		C	В
В	C	A		C		В	A
C	A	В		В		A	C

## There are many different voting methods

Many different electoral methods: Plurality, Borda Count,
Antiplurality/Veto, and k-approval; Plurality with Runoff; Single
Transferable Vote (STV)/Hare; Approval Voting; Cup Rule/Voting Trees;
Copeland; Banks; Slater Rule; Schwartz Rule; the Condorcet rule;
Maximin/Simpson, Kemeny; Ranked Pairs/Tideman; Bucklin Method;
Dodgson Method; Young's Method; Majority Judgment; Cumulative Voting;
Range/Score Voting; . . .

# **Voting Methods**

**Positional Scoring Rules**: Given the rankings of the candidates provided by the voters, each candidate is assigned a score. The candidate(s) with the highest score is(are) declared the winner(s).

Examples: Borda, Plurality

**Generalized Scoring Rules:** Voters assign scores, or "grades", to the candidates. The candidate(s) with the "best" aggregate score is(are) declared the winner(s).

Examples: Approval Voting, Majority Judgement, Range Voting

# Voting Methods

**Staged Procedures**: The winner(s) is(are) determined in stages. At each stage, one or more candidates are eliminated. The candidate or candidates that are never eliminated are declared the winner(s).

Examples: Plurality with Runoff, Hare, Coombs

**Condorcet Consistent Methods:** Voting methods that guarantee that the Condorcet winner is elected.

Examples: Copeland, Dodgson, Young

### **Voting Methods Tutorial**