

6.3: Game Theory – Making Group Decisions

AI6125: Multi-Agent System

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Social Choice

- In the previous sub-module, we learned how agents make decisions in two-agent games
 - Nash Equilibrium
- In this sub-module, we will learn about how a group of agents make decisions
 - Social choice theory is concerned with group decision making.
 - Classic example of social choice theory: voting.
 - Formally, the issue is combining preferences to derive a social outcome.

Components of a Social Choice Model

- Assume a set $Ag = \{1, \dots, n\}$ of *voters*.
These are the entities who will be expressing preferences.
- Voters make group decisions wrt a set $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$ of *outcomes*.
Think of these as the *candidates*.
- If $|\Omega| = 2$, we have a *pairwise election*.

Preferences

- Each voter has preferences over Ω : an *ordering* over the set of possible outcomes Ω .
- Example. Suppose

$$\Omega = \{gin, rum, brandy, whisky\}$$

then we might have agent *mjw* with preference order:

$$\varpi_{mjw} = (brandy; rum; gin; whisky)$$

meaning

$$brandy \succ_{mjw} rum \succ_{mjw} gin \succ_{mjw} whisky$$

Preference Aggregation

- The fundamental problem of social choice theory:
given a collection of preference orders, one for each voter, how do we combine these to derive a group decision, that reflects as closely as possible the preferences of voters?
 - Two variants of preference aggregation:
 - *social welfare functions;*
 - *social choice functions.*
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Social Welfare Functions

- Let $\pi(\Omega)$ be the set of preference orderings over Ω .
- A *social welfare function* takes the voter preferences and produces a *social preference order*:

$$f: \underbrace{\pi(\Omega) \times \dots \times \pi(\Omega)}_{n \text{ times}} \rightarrow \pi(\Omega)$$

- We let \succ^* denote to the outcome of a social welfare function
- Example: beauty contest.

Social Choice Functions

- Sometimes, we just want to select *one* of the possible candidates, rather than a social order.
- This gives *social choice functions*:

$$f: \underbrace{\pi(\Omega) \times \dots \times \pi(\Omega)}_{n \text{ times}} \rightarrow \Omega$$

- Example: presidential election.

Voting Procedures: Plurality

- Social choice function: selects a single outcome.
 - Each voter submits preferences.
 - Each candidate gets one point for every preference order that ranks them first.
 - Winner is the one with largest number of points.
 - Example: Political elections in UK.
 - If we have only two candidates, then plurality is a *simple majority election*.
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Anomalies with Plurality

- Suppose $|Ag| = 100$ and $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3\}$ with:
 - 40% voters voting for ω_1
 - 30% of voters voting for ω_2
 - 30% of voters voting for ω_3
- With plurality, ω_1 gets elected even though a *clear majority* (60%) prefer another candidate!

Strategic Manipulation by Tactical Voting

- Suppose your preferences are

$$\omega_1 \succ \omega_2 \succ \omega_3$$

while you believe 49% of voters have preferences

$$\omega_2 \succ \omega_1 \succ \omega_3$$

and you believe 49% have preferences

$$\omega_3 \succ \omega_2 \succ \omega_1$$

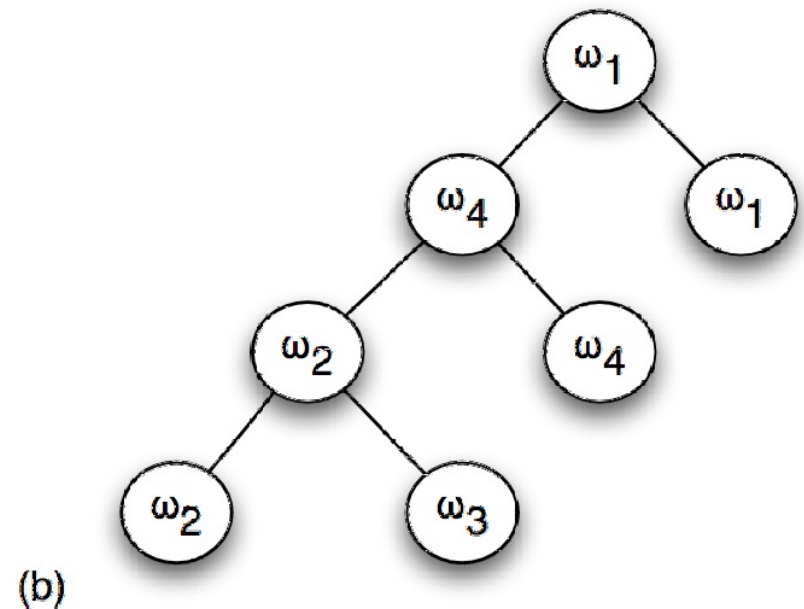
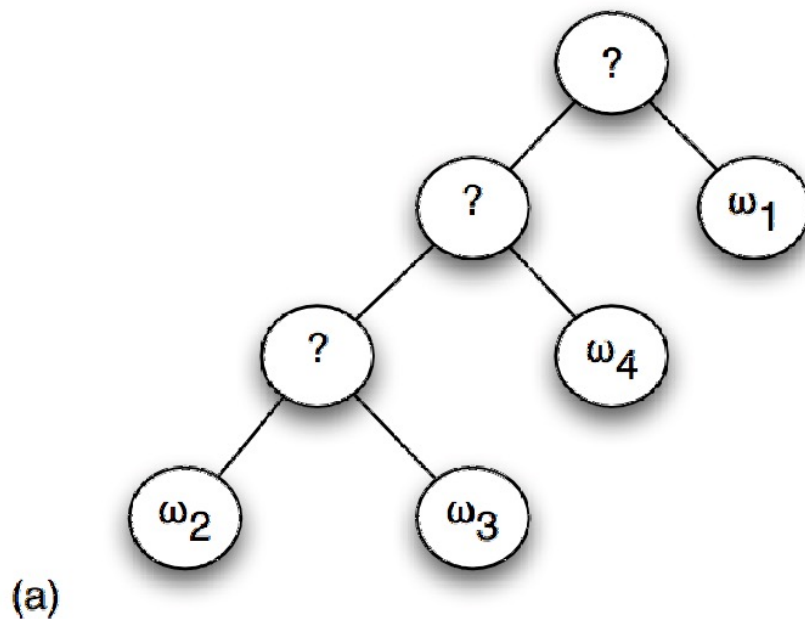
- You may do better voting for ω_2 , *even though this is not your true preference profile.*
- This is *tactical voting*: an example of *strategic manipulation* of the vote.

Condorcet's Paradox

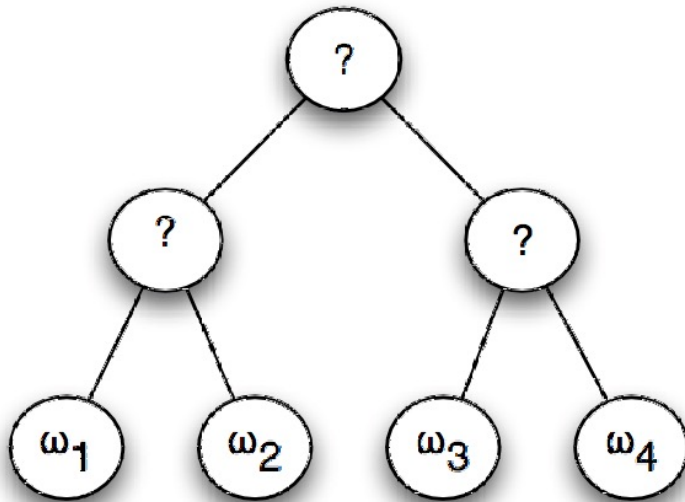
- Suppose $Ag = \{1; 2; 3\}$ and $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3\}$ with:
 $\omega_1 \succ_1 \omega_2 \succ_1 \omega_3$
 $\omega_3 \succ_2 \omega_1 \succ_2 \omega_2$
 $\omega_2 \succ_3 \omega_3 \succ_3 \omega_1$
- For every possible candidate, there is another candidate that is preferred by a majority of voters!
- This is *Condorcet's paradox*: there are situations *in which, no matter which outcome we choose, a majority of voters will be unhappy with the outcome chosen.*

Sequential Majority Elections

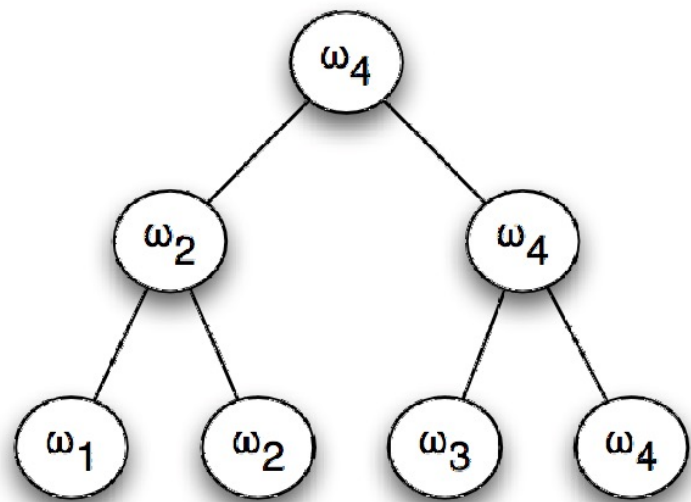
- A variant of plurality, in which players play in a series of rounds: either a *linear* sequence or a *tree* (knockout tournament).



Sequential Majority Elections



(c)



(d)

Linear Sequential Pairwise Elections

- Here, we pick an ordering of the outcomes – the *agenda* – which determines who plays against who.
- For example, if the agenda is:

ω_2 , ω_3 , ω_4 , ω_1

- then the first election is between ω_2 and ω_3 , and the winner goes on to an election with ω_4 , and the winner of this election goes in an election with ω_1 .

Anomalies with Sequential Pairwise Elections

- Suppose:

33 voters have preferences

$$\omega_1 \succ \omega_2 \succ \omega_3$$

33 voters have preferences

$$\omega_3 \succ \omega_1 \succ \omega_2$$

33 voters have preferences

$$\omega_2 \succ \omega_3 \succ \omega_1$$

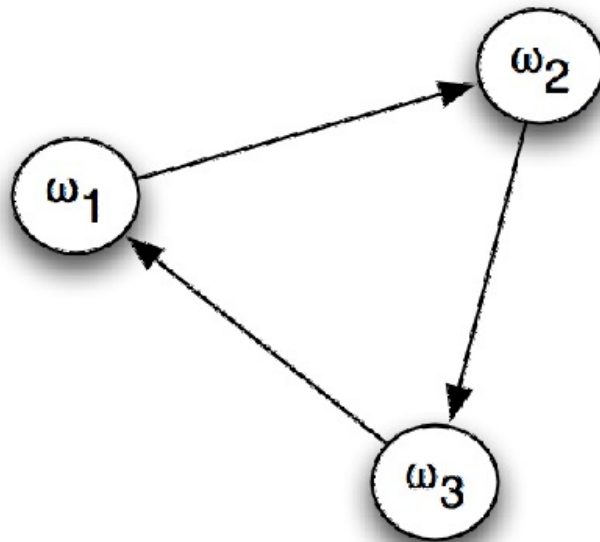
- Then *for every candidate, we can fix an agenda for that candidate to win in a sequential pairwise election!*

Majority Graphs

- This idea is easiest to illustrate by using a *majority graph*.
 - A directed graph with:
vertices = candidates
an edge (i, j) if i would beat j in a simple majority election.
 - A *compact representation of voter preferences*.
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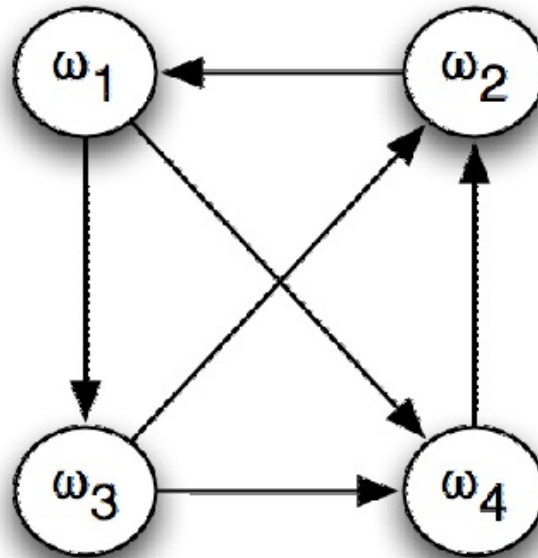
Majority Graph for the Previous Example

- with agenda $(\omega_3, \omega_2, \omega_1)$, ω_1 wins
- with agenda $(\omega_1, \omega_3, \omega_2)$, ω_2 wins
- with agenda $(\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3)$, ω_3 wins



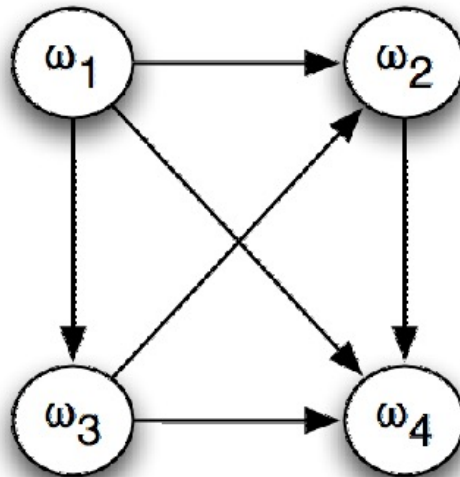
Another Majority Graph

- Give agendas for each candidate to win with the following majority graph.



Condorcet Winners

- A *Condorcet winner* is a candidate that would beat every other candidate in a pairwise election.
- Here, ω_1 is a Condorcet winner.



Voting Procedures: Borda Count

- One reason plurality has so many anomalies is that it *ignores most of a voter's preference orders: it only looks at the top ranked candidate.*
- The *Borda count takes whole preference order into account.*
- For each candidate, we have a variable, counting the strength of opinion in favour of this candidate.
- If ω_i appears first in a preference order, then we increment the count for ω_i by $k-1$; we then increment the count for the next outcome in the preference order by $k-2$, ..., until the final candidate in the preference order has its total incremented by 0.
- After we have done this for all voters, then the totals give the ranking.

Desirable Properties of Voting Procedures

- Can we classify the properties we want of a “good” voting procedure?
- Two key properties:
- *The Pareto property;*
 - *If everybody prefers ω_i over ω_j , then ω_i should be ranked over ω_j in the social outcome.*
- *Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA).*
 - *Whether ω_i is ranked above ω_j in the social outcome should depend only on the relative orderings of ω_i and ω_j in voters profiles.*

Arrow's Theorem

- *For elections with more than 2 candidates, the only voting procedure satisfying the Pareto condition and IIA is a dictatorship, in which the social outcome is in fact simply selected by one of the voters.*
- This is a *negative* result: there are fundamental limits to democratic decision making!

Strategic Manipulation

- We already saw that sometimes, voters can benefit by *strategically misrepresenting their preferences*, i.e., lying – tactical voting.
 - Are there any voting methods which are *non-manipulable*, in the sense that voters can *never* benefit from misrepresenting preferences?
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The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem

- The answer is given by the Gibbard-Satterthwaite theorem:

The only non-manipulable voting method satisfying the Pareto property for elections with more than 2 candidates is a dictatorship.

- In other words, every “realistic” voting method is prey to strategic manipulation . . .
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Computationally Complexity to the Rescue!

- Gibbard-Satterthwaite only tells us that manipulation is possible *in principle*.

It does not give any indication of *how* to *misrepresent* preferences.

- Bartholdi, Tovey, and Trick showed that there are elections that are prone to manipulation in principle, but where manipulation was *computationally complex*.
- “Single Transferable Vote” is NP-hard to manipulate!