Incoherent majorities: the McGarvey problem in judgement aggregation

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- ▶ Social choice theory asks: what are good (democratic) methods to 'aggregate' the beliefs or preferences of the voters, to arrive at a collective decision which is 'fair', 'just', 'rational', etc. ?
- ▶ Also, what can wrong with these methods?

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Finally, the rule F is *monotone* if the following is true: for all $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{I}}$ if $v_i \geq w_i$ for all $i \in \mathcal{I}$, then $F(\mathbf{v}) \geq F(\mathbf{w})$.

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Theorem (May, 1952) Majority vote is the only binary voting rule which is anonymous, neutral, and monotone.

Electorate Profile								
Preferences	#							
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10							
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9							
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11							
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22							
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23							
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25							
Total	100							

Consider an election with four candidates A, B, C, and D. (e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.)

Plurality Vote											
Preferences	#	Α	В	С	D						
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10									
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9									
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11									
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22								
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23							
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25				25						
Total	100	30	22	23	25						
Ve	rdict:		Αw	ins.							

Consider an election with four candidates A, B, C, and D. (e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.) Clearly A wins under plurality vote, with 30% of the vote.

A versus B, C, and D										
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10				
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9				
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11				
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25			
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70			
Ve	B>	- A	C>	- <i>A</i>	D>	- <i>A</i>				

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Problem: 70% prefer *B* to *A*....



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Verdict:		B>	$B \succ A$		- A	D≻A				

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Problem: 70% prefer B to A.... 70% prefer C to A.... 70% prefer D to A...



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For example, consider the following profile:

Condorcet Pairwise Votes											
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$				
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33					
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33				
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34				
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67				
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▶ 67% of the voters prefer A to B.

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The majority's apparently 'cyclical' preference ordering

$$\cdots \succ A \succ B \succ C \succ \cdots$$

is called a Condorcet cycle.



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- ► However, we will now turn to a completely different social choice problem...

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- Let $\mathcal N$ be a set of voters. For each $n\in\mathcal N$, let $\mathbf y^n\in\mathcal X$ be the judgement of voter n. We wish to aggregate the individual judgements $\{\mathbf y^n\}_{n\in\mathcal N}$ into a collective judgement in $\mathcal X$ —this is the problem of judgement aggregation.

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Committee selection & truth-functional aggregation (9/37)

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Committee selection & truth-functional aggregation (9/3

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Let $0 \le I \le J \le |\mathcal{K}|$. Then

$$\mathcal{X}_{I,J}^{\text{com}} := \{\mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}} ; I \leq \#(\mathbf{x}) \leq J\}.$$

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Thus, \mathcal{X}_f is the set of all logically consistent assignments of truth-values to the 'premises' (x_1,\ldots,x_J) and the 'conclusion' x_{J+1},\ldots,x_{J+1}

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This is called propositionwise majority vote.



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Unfortunately, it is susceptible to paradoxical outcomes similar to the Condorcet paradox. For example, let p and q be two statements, and let $\mathcal{K}:=\{p,\ q,\ p\&q\}$. Consider the following profile of three voters:

#	р	q	p&q
Alice	Т	Т	Т
Bob	Т	F	F
Carl	F	Т	F
Majority	Т	Т	F

← Contradiction

This is called the *doctrinal paradox* (Kornhauser & Sager, 1986) or the discursive dilemma (List & Pettit, 2002).

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Let $\mathcal{X}^{pr}_{\mathcal{A}} \subset \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ be the set of all *transitive* tournaments —i.e. strict preference relations on \mathcal{A} . ($\mathcal{X}^{pr}_{\mathcal{A}}$ is called the *permutahedron*.)

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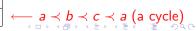
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In this setting, the 'doctrinal paradox' takes the following form:

#	$a \prec b$	$b \prec c$	a ≺ c
Alice $(a \prec b \prec c)$	Т	Т	Т
Bob $(c \prec a \prec b)$	Т	F	F
Carl $(b \prec c \prec a)$	F	Т	F
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Theorem 1. Let $\mathcal{X} \subset \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$. Then

(a) $\operatorname{Maj}(\mathcal{X}) = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}} ; \mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{x}} \cap \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{X}) \neq \emptyset \}.$

Let $\operatorname{Maj}(\mathcal{X}) := \{\operatorname{Maj}(\widetilde{\mu}) \; ; \; \widetilde{\mu} \in \Delta(\mathcal{X})\} = \text{the set of all 'social judgements'}$ that can result from propositionwise majority vote.

In particular, $\operatorname{Maj}(\mathcal{X}) \setminus \mathcal{X}$ is the range of possible 'voting paradoxes' which can occur under propositionwise majority vote.

We say $\mathcal X$ is $\mathit{McGarvey}$ if $\mathrm{Maj}(\mathcal X) = \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal K}$. ('Every paradox is possible')

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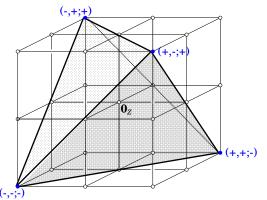
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For example, consider the 'truth functional' judgement space:

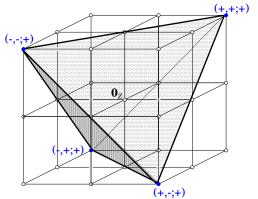
$$\mathcal{X}_{XOR} := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^3 ; x_3 = (x_1 XOR x_2) \}.$$



Clearly, $\mathbf{0} \in \operatorname{int} [\operatorname{conv} (\mathcal{X})]$; thus, \mathcal{X}_{XOR} is McGarvey.

Next consider the 'truth functional' judgement space:

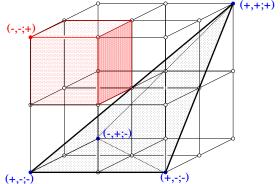
$$\mathcal{X}_{\equiv} := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^3 ; x_3 = (x_1 \equiv x_2) \}.$$



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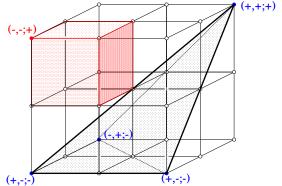
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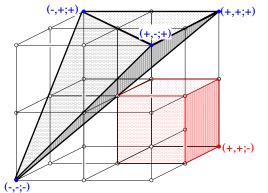
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If $\mathbf{x}:=(-1,-1;+1)$, then $\mathrm{conv}(\mathcal{X}_{\mathrm{AND}})$ does not intersect $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{x}}$. Thus, $\mathcal{X}_{\mathrm{AND}}$ is not McGarvey.

Finally, consider the 'truth functional' judgement space:

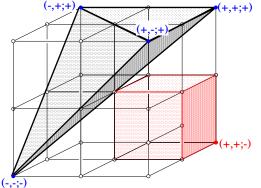
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If $\mathbf{x}:=(+1,+1;-1)$, then $\mathrm{conv}(\mathcal{X}_{\mathrm{OR}})$ does *not* intersect $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{x}}$. Thus, $\mathcal{X}_{\mathrm{OR}}$ is *not* McGarvey.

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The set $\mathfrak C$ of all convex subsets of $\mathcal K$ is then a convexity structure on $\mathcal K$.

For any $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$, define $\chi^{\mathcal{J}} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ by $\chi_j^{\mathcal{J}} := 1$ for all $j \in \mathcal{J}$ and $\chi_k^{\mathcal{J}} := -1$ for all $k \in \mathcal{K} \setminus \mathcal{J}$.

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(For example, the metric graph convexity is McGarvey.)

For any $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{K}}$, the *symmetry group* of \mathcal{X} is the set $\Gamma_{\mathcal{X}}$ of all invertible linear transformations $\gamma : \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{K}} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{K}}$ such that $\gamma(\mathcal{X}) = \mathcal{X}$.

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Lemma 4. Let $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$. Suppose, for every $j \in \mathcal{K}$, there exist $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{X}$ such that $x_j \neq y_j$, but $x_k = y_k$ for all $k \in \mathcal{K} \setminus \{j\}$. Then $\operatorname{span}(\mathcal{X}) = \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{K}}$.

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- ▶ For any $(a,b) \in \mathcal{K}$, there exist $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{N}}^{\mathrm{pr}}$ such that $x_{a,b} \neq y_{a,b}$, but \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} agree in every other coordinate. (Example:
 - ▶ let **x** represent an ordering of the form $a \prec b \prec c_3 \prec c_4 \prec \cdots \prec c_N$,
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- ► Thus, Proposition 3(b) yields McGarvey's original result: $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathrm{pr}}$ is McGarvey.

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A binary relation " \succ " on $\mathcal A$ is *separable* if, for each $\mathcal M\subseteq [1\dots L]$, there is a binary relation " \succsim " on $\mathcal A_{\mathcal M}$ such that, for all $\mathbf a_{\mathcal M}, \mathbf b_{\mathcal M}\in \mathcal A_{\mathcal M}$ and all $\mathbf c_{\mathcal M^\complement}\in \mathcal A_{\mathcal M^\complement}$, we have

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In particular, a preference order " \succ " is *additively separable* if there is a set of 'utility functions' $u_\ell: \mathcal{A}_\ell {\longrightarrow} \mathbb{R}$ for $\ell \in [1 \dots L]$ such that, for all $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}$, we have

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Every additively separable preference relation is separable (but not conversely).

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- ▶ Let $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathrm{add}} \subsetneq \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathrm{sepr}}$ be the space of additively separable preferences.
- ► Can be shown: $\operatorname{Maj}(\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{sep}}) = \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{sep}}$; thus, $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{sepr}}$ and $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{add}}$ are *not* McGarvey.

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- **Explanation:** $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{sep}}$ has many 'redundant' coordinates, which always agree in value because of the separability constraints.
- ▶ Idea: Eliminate redundant coordinates, to obtain a subset $\widetilde{\mathcal{K}} \subset \mathcal{K}$ such that no two coordinates of $\widetilde{\mathcal{K}}$ are related by separability constraints.

▶ Recall: $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{sep}} \subset \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ is set of all separable tournaments over \mathcal{A} . $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{sepr}} \subset \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{sep}}$ is the set of all separable preference orders. $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{add}} \subset \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{sepr}}$ is the space of additively separable preferences, $\widetilde{\mathcal{K}} \subset \mathcal{K}$ is 'nonredundant' set of coordinates.

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- $lackbox{\sf Can}$ use Lemma 4 to show that $\mathrm{span}(\widetilde{\mathcal{X}}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathrm{add}})=\mathbb{R}^{\widetilde{\mathcal{K}}}.$
- ▶ Thus, Proposition 3(b) says $\operatorname{Maj}(\widetilde{\mathcal{X}}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{add}}) = \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$. Corollary: $\operatorname{Maj}(\widetilde{\mathcal{X}}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{sepr}}) = \{\pm 1\}^{\widetilde{\mathcal{K}}}$ (result of Hollard, le Breton & Vidu).

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Theorem (Shelah, 2009) Suppose $|A| \ge 3$. Let T be a symmetric set of tournaments on A. Then

 $\left(\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{T}} \text{ is McGarvey}\right) \iff \left(\exists \mathbf{T} \in \mathcal{T} \text{ with no directed Eulerian circuit}\right).$

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We can derive Shelah's result as an easy consequence of Proposition 3(a). (Most of the work: showing that RHS implies that $\operatorname{span}(\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{T}}) = \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{K}}$.)

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Let \mathcal{N} be a set.

Any $\mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ encodes a symmetric, reflexive binary relation " \sim " (for any $\{n,m\} \in \mathcal{K}$, we have $n \sim m$ if $x_{n,m} = 1$ and $n \not\sim m$ if $x_{n,m} = -1$).

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Proof. For any $\{n_1, m_1\} \in \mathcal{K}$ and $\{n_2, m_2\} \in \mathcal{K}$, let $\pi : \mathcal{N} \longrightarrow \mathcal{N}$ be any permutation such that $\pi(n_1) = n_2$ and $\pi(m_1) = m_2$.

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(Example: let \mathbf{x} represent an equivalence relation where n and m are both in singleton equivalence classes, and let \mathbf{y} represent the relation obtained from \mathbf{x} by joining n and m together into one doubleton equivalence class).

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Claim A. $\Pi_{\mathcal{X}_{A}^{eq}}$ is transitive.

Claim B. $\operatorname{span}(\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{eq}}) = \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{K}}$.

Claim C. $\pm 1 \in \mathcal{X}^{\mathrm{eq}}_{\mathcal{A}}$

Any $\mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ encodes a symmetric, reflexive binary relation " \sim " (for any $\{n,m\} \in \mathcal{K}$, we have $n \sim m$ if $x_{n,m} = 1$ and $n \not\sim m$ if $x_{n,m} = -1$). Let $\mathcal{X}_{A}^{\mathrm{eq}} \subset \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ be the set of all equivalence relations on \mathcal{A} .

Claim A. $\Pi_{\mathcal{X}_{\mathbf{A}}^{\mathrm{eq}}}$ is transitive.

Claim B. $\operatorname{span}^{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\operatorname{eq}}) = \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{K}}$.

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Proof. 1 represents the 'complete' relation " \sim " such that $n \sim m$ for all $n, m \in \mathcal{N}$, whereas -1 represents the 'trivial' relation such that $n \not\sim m$ for any $n \neq m \in \mathcal{N}$.

Let \mathcal{N} be a set. Let \mathcal{K} be the set of all subsets $\{n, m\} \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ with exactly two elements.

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Claims A, B and C and Corollary 6 imply that $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathrm{eq}}$ is McGarvey.

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The Stearns number $S(\mathcal{X})$ is the smallest integer such that, for any $\mathbf{x} \in \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$, there exists $N \leq S(\mathcal{X})$ and $\mu \in \Delta_N^*(\mathcal{X})$ with $\mathrm{Maj}(\mu) = \mathbf{x}$. $(S(\mathcal{X}) := \infty$ if \mathcal{X} is not McGarvey).

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Example. Let $A := |\mathcal{A}|$. Stearns (1959) showed that $0.55 \cdot A/\log(A) \leq S(\mathcal{X}^{\mathrm{pr}}_{\mathcal{A}}) \leq A+2$, while Erdös and Moser (1964) showed that $S(\mathcal{X}^{\mathrm{pr}}_{\mathcal{A}}) = \Theta(A/\log(A))$.

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- ▶ For any $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$, let $\sigma(\mathcal{X}) := \min\{N \in \mathbb{N}; \ \mathcal{B}(\frac{1}{N}) \subseteq \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{X})\}$. (Thus, $\sigma(\mathcal{X}) < \infty$ if and only if \mathcal{X} is McGarvey.)

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- ▶ We can improve the estimate in Theorem 7, by making further assumptions about the structure of \mathcal{X} .

For any
$$\mathbf{x}_1,\dots,\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}}\in\{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$$
, let

$$\delta(\textbf{x}_1,\ldots,\textbf{x}_{\textit{K}}) \ := \ \min \, \{ \|\textbf{c}\|_{\infty} \, ; \, \, \textbf{c} \in \operatorname{conv}(\textbf{x}_1,\ldots,\textbf{x}_{\textit{K}}) \}.$$

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Proposition 8. Let $\mathcal{X} \subset \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$.

- (a) If \mathcal{X} is McGarvey, then $\sigma(\mathcal{X}) < \lceil 1/\delta(\mathcal{X}) \rceil$.
- (b) For every McGarvey $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$, we have $S(\mathcal{X}) < 4(K+1) \lceil 1/\delta(K) \rceil$. However, there exist McGarvey $\mathcal{X} \subset \{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ with $S(\mathcal{X}) > 1/\delta(K)$.

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$$\frac{K^{K/2}}{2^{2K+O(K)}} \le \frac{1}{\delta(K)} \le \frac{K^{2+K/2}}{2^{K-1}}$$
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The inequalities in Proposition 8(c) are derived from inequalities obtained by Alon and Vũ (1997) for the inverses of $\{0,1\}$ -matrices. They imply that the Stearns numbers of some McGarvey spaces can be extremely large.

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The inequalities in Proposition 8(c) are derived from inequalities obtained by Alon and Vũ (1997) for the inverses of $\{0,1\}$ -matrices. They imply that the Stearns numbers of some McGarvey spaces can be extremely large. However, for the McGarvey spaces typically encountered in practice, the Stearns numbers are often much smaller, as we now illustrate...

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If $\mathcal{X}_{\mathfrak{C}}$ is McGarvey, then Proposition 2(b) says $\chi^k \in \mathcal{X}$ for all $k \in \mathcal{K}$; thus, Proposition 9 says $S(\mathcal{X}_{\mathfrak{C}}) \leq 2\mathcal{K} - 3$.

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Consider a random subset $\mathcal{X} \subset \{\pm 1\}^K$ obtained by drawing N independent, uniformly distributed random elements from $\{\pm 1\}^K$ (e.g. the K coordinates of each $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ are generated by independent fair coin tosses).

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Consider a random subset $\mathcal{X} \subset \{\pm 1\}^K$ obtained by drawing N independent, uniformly distributed random elements from $\{\pm 1\}^K$ (e.g. the K coordinates of each $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ are generated by independent fair coin tosses).

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Theorem. (Füredi, 1986) Let $\{N_K\}_{K=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence in \mathbb{N} , and let $\epsilon > 0$.

- (a) If $N_K \ge (2 + \epsilon)K$ for all $K \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\lim_{K \to \infty} P_0(N_K, K) = 1$.
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Let P(N, K) := probability that \mathcal{X} is McGarvey, given that $|\mathcal{X}| = N$. (=probability that $\mathbf{0} \in \operatorname{int} [\operatorname{conv} (\mathcal{X})]$).

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This seems obvious. But random polytopes in $\{\pm 1\}^{\mathcal{K}}$ have stochastically 'thick' boundaries. There is a big difference between "generically, $\mathbf{0} \in \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{X})$ " and "generically, $\mathbf{0} \in \operatorname{int}\left[\operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{X})\right]^{-1}$ ".

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Question. When does $\operatorname{Maj}(\mathcal{X}) = \operatorname{med}^{\infty}(\mathcal{X})$?

Merci.

These presentation slides are available at http://euclid.trentu.ca/pivato/Research/mcgarvey.pdf>.

The paper is available at

<http://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/14823>.

It will appear in Discrete Applied Mathematics in 2011.

DOI: <10.1016/j.dam.2011.03.014>.

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Introduction
   What is social choice theory?
   May's theorem
   Plurality vote gone wrong
   Pairwise majority vote
   Condorcet's Paradox
   McGarvey's theorem
Judgement aggregation
   Definition
   Examples: Committee selection & truth-functional aggregation
   Propositionwise majority vote
   Discursive dilemma
   Preference aggregation
   The McGarvey Problem and Theorem 1
Examples: truth-functional aggregation in \mathbb{R}^3
   (XOR)
   (≡)
   (AND)
```

Convexities

Definitions.

Proposition 2

Symmetric spaces

Definitions, Proposition 3, and Lemma 4

Example: Preference aggregation

Example: Additively separable preferences

Definitions Complications

Result

Example: Symmetric sets of tournaments (Shelah's Theorem)

Coordinate permutations; Proposition 5

Example: Symmetric binary relations

Stearns Number

Definitions

A geometric bound (Theorem 7)

Estimates (Proposition 8)

Small Stearns numbers (Proposition 9)

The Füredi problem
The generalized McGarvey Problem