

Aggregation of preferences: a review

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This paper presents a review and a classification of the main *theoretical results* obtained up to now in the important field of the aggregation of preferences. (Let us mention that multi-criteria analysis is not considered here, as it essentially consists of *methods* for the aggregation of preferences).

Section 1 describes a tableau, each square of which corresponds to a particular type of preference aggregation problem, and gives, for each of them, a list of references. The different types of problems are obtained by considering the various kinds of informations which can be obtained concerning the global preferences of a committee and the preferences of the individual members.

Sections 2, 3 and 4 present some comments respectively on Arrow's problem (three first columns of the tableau), on the theory of choice functions (fourth column) and voting procedures (fifth column).

In the bibliography, each reference is associated, in terms of its subject, to one particular square of the tableau.

1. Classification of the preference aggregation problems

Let A be a set of possible decisions: the elements of A can be investment projects, individuals, cars, menus in a restaurant, ... : they will be called the *candidates*.

A committee of n individuals (the *voters*) has to rank them from the best to the worst, or to divide them into the good candidates and the others, or to elect one and only one candidate from A : these are in general the three main problems of decision-making.

In mathematical terms, 'to rank' means to build a complete preorder (reflexive, transitive and complete relation) on A . The problem of building a complete preorder by a committee of n individuals

will correspond to the first column of the tableau 1.

It can happen that supplementary informations is required regarding the global ranking (for example, about the intensity of preferences), so that the committee has to provide 'more than a complete preorder'. We place these situations in the second column of the tableau.

On the other hand, due to the impossibility of obtaining a complete preorder in certain cases, the committee can sometimes give a global preference relation which has not the nice properties of a complete preorder (e.g. partial order, semi-order, ...): the third column of the tableau corresponds to these cases where the answer of the committee is 'less than a complete preorder'.

The three first columns of the tableau represent what we could call 'Arrow's problem', that is the building of a global preference relation on the set of all candidates.

The fourth and fifth columns will respectively represent the problem of defining a partition of A into the 'good candidates' and the others ('problem of classification') and the problem of determining one candidate, considered as the best by the committee ('voting problem').

Similarly five kinds of information can, in general, be provided by each voter: a complete preorder, 'more than a complete preorder', 'less than a complete preorder', a partition into 'the good and the others', one candidate considered as the best by this voter.

In this way, we obtain a tableau of 25 squares which contains most of the works on preference aggregation. 12 of these squares correspond to interesting aggregation problems which have been considered in the literature. We give below, for each of them, the main references where these problems have been discussed.

A1: [1], [3], [12], [13], [14], [15], [17], [20], [25], [26], [27], [28], [33], [39], [40], [42], [44], [45], [49], [53], [55], [61], [63], [65], [67], [69], [71], [72], [73], [74], [75], [77], [79], [81], [94], [98];

A2: [10], [21], [22], [37], [43], [48], [50], [62], [82], [92], [96];

A3: [4], [59], [60];

A4: [32], [51], [52], [54], [55], [68], [90];

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Table 1

committee n voters	Ranking			Classifi- cation	Voting
	Complete preorder	More than a complete preorder	Less than a complete preorder		
Complete preorders	A1	–	A4	C1	E1
More than complete preorders	A2	A3	–	–	E2
Less than complete preorders	A6	–	A5	C2	–
Classifi- cation	–	–	–	C3	–
Voting	–	–	–	–	E3

A5: [6], [12], [18], [29], [54], [56], [78];

A6: [5], [8], [9], [47], [64], [75], [88];

C1: [35], [41], [46], [58], [80], [83], [95];

C2: [11], [19], [31], [32], [34], [36], [57], [84], [87], [89];

C3: [41], [66];

E1: [7], [24], [38], [76], [85], [86], [93];

E2: [16], [23], [99];

E3: [7], [30].

Section 2 discusses squares A1 to A6, Section 3 discusses squares C1, C2 and C3 and finally Section 4 discusses squares E1, E2 and E3. The other squares await further research.

2. Arrow's problem

The square A1 corresponds to the problem of finding a global complete preorder (which will represent the preference of the committee) from n individual complete preorders (the preferences of the n voters): it is the classic problem of Arrow.

The main result concerning this problem is obviously Arrow's theorem which asserts the impossibility of finding a procedure which associates one complete preorder to each n -uple of complete preorders and which satisfies three conditions called unanimity, non-dictatorship and independence of irrelevant alternatives.

Several authors (Blau [12,15], Guha [40], Hansson [44,45], ...) have proposed different interpretations of Arrow's theorem by modifying these conditions.

In fact, these interpretations take two different forms, each of them leading to a different line of research.

The first interpretation of Arrow's theorem is that the information contained in n complete preorders is not sufficient to determine one global complete preorder without ambiguity: information must be added. This interpretation leads to the works where the mathematical models of the individual preferences are 'more than complete preorders' (square A2). In particular, it is well known that the independence of irrelevant alternatives prohibits the interpersonal comparisons of preferences. Several authors have shown that by introducing some assumptions on these comparisons, it is possible to aggregate individual preferences and to satisfy 'rational' conditions of aggregation.

Keeney [59,60], for example, has established conditions which allow one to aggregate cardinal utilities into linear combinations of these utilities. Blackorby [10] has considered the situation where information is available about the relative importance of the individuals in the committee.

It is clear that when more information is available concerning the individual preferences, it is sometimes possible to obtain a global preference

which is 'more than a complete preorder': this situation corresponds to the square A3 and is illustrated by the works on the aggregation of Von Neumann–Morgenstern's utilities into utilities of the same kind.

A second interpretation of Arrow's theorem is that to ask for a global complete preorder is too much when the individual preferences are complete preorders without any other information; so, we shall ask for a global preference relation which is 'less than a complete preorder'. This attitude corresponds to the square A4 where global preference can be a partial order, a quasi-transitive relation, an acyclic relation, a tournament,.... In some cases, the Arrow's impossibility theorem becomes a possibility theorem.

Several authors think (and they are often right) that it is not always possible, for an individual, to rank the candidates in a complete preorder: their works can be placed in the squares A5 and A6.

For A5, let us mention, as examples, the works of Batra and Pattanaik [6] which consider the aggregation of quasi-transitive relations, particularly with the majority rule and the works of Brown [18] in which quasi-transitive and acyclic relations are considered; Monjardet [78] has studied the aggregation of tournaments.

In general, the resolution of problems in A6 consists in finding the complete preorder which is closest (for a given distance measure) to individual preferences or closest to the global preference relation obtained in A5. Monjardet [75], for example, has studied the properties of complete preorders at minimum distance from a set of tournaments.

To be complete, we have also to mention that a lot of papers have been written about the cases where various restrictions of the domain of aggregation are introduced.

3. The classification problem

The papers on the problem of classifying the candidates into good and bad ones are essentially concerned with the theory of choice functions.

A choice function is a function C which associates to every subset B of A , a subset $C(B)$ of B . There is in fact, a relationship between the theory of choice functions and Arrow's problem. Indeed, to each preference relation R , a choice

function can be associated such that, for instance

$$C(B) = \{a \in B \mid aRb, \forall b \in B\},$$

or

$$C(B) = \{a \in B \mid \nexists b \in B: bRa\}.$$

Results have been obtained concerning the conditions under which one can 'rationalize' a given choice function using a preference relation with specified properties.

Other results show the relationship between characteristics of R and those of C .

Different readings of Arrow's theorem can be formulated in terms of choice functions so that squares A4 and C1 on one hand, and squares A5 and C2 on the other hand, are treated simultaneously in most of the papers.

The square C3 corresponds to what Fishburn calls post-choice methods, in which good candidates are determined for each voter (eventually from their preference relation) before the good candidates for the committee are decided upon.

We have also to mention the interesting works of C. Plott [87] on the properties of 'path independence' of a selection procedure. In the papers of Pattanaik [83,84] conditions are found for the existence of choice functions for particular selection procedures such as 'majority rule' and 'non minority rule'.

4. The voting problem

For the problem of the election of one candidate by a committee, chiefly two fundamental problems have been considered in the literature. Let us illustrate each of them by an example.

Let $A = \{a, b, c\}$ and consider a committee of 9 voters, the preferences of which are as follows:

- $a > b > c$ for 3 voters,
- $b > c > a$ for 1 voter,
- $c > a > b$ for 1 voter,
- $a > c > b$ for 1 voter,
- $c > b > a$ for 2 voters,
- $b > a > c$ for 1 voter.

The election procedure is the following (it is known as the Lhuillier's voting procedure).

A candidate is elected if he is the best for more than half of the voters; if no candidate satisfies

this condition, the committee elects the candidate who is ranked first or second by the greatest number of voters. In our example, b will be elected. However, let us remark that 5 voters out of 9 prefer a to b .

So, this procedure leads to a contradiction with a comparison of the candidates two by two: this situation is possible for every election procedure. On the other hand, it is well known that the method of paired comparisons can lead to cycles which do not allow the election of one best candidate.

The first fundamental problem thus consists in the impossibility of finding an election procedure which always leads to a solution and which is never in contradiction with any of the paired comparisons.

One solution to this problem is to find a procedure which minimizes the number of contradictions involving paired comparisons. Let us also mention the works of Kelly [61], Demeyer and Plott [20], where the probabilities of obtaining 'rational' results for given aggregation and selection procedures are studied.

Let now $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and consider a committee of three voters, the preferences of which are as follows:

$a > b > c > d$ for voter I,
 $d > a > c > b$ for voter II,
 $d > a > b > c$ for voter III.

One election procedure consists of giving 4 points to a candidate who is the best for a voter, 3 points when second, and so on, and to elect the candidate who obtains the greatest score. In our example, a will be elected.

Suppose now that voter III wants to favour candidate d and knows that a is a dangerous adversary. He can 'manipulate' his vote by declaring that his preference order is

$d > b > c > a$,

and in this case d is elected. This example illustrates the fundamental problem of manipulation of voting procedures.

The most important result in this field is that of Gibbard [38], who proves the impossibility of finding a non-dictatorial and non-manipulatable election procedure. Batteau and Blin [7] have generalized Gibbard's theorem to the case of collective manipulations. The examples given by Moon are

good illustrations of the difficulties arising in the construction of election procedures.

Finally let us also mention the interesting work on the relationships between aggregation rules and properties of the decisive sets of voters (as in Brown [19]).

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* See also the bibliography of [97]. N.B. (G) means "generalities".

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