

The Use of Knowledge in Social Algorithms

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F. Hayek

Individualism and Economic Order

Plan of Talks

In the following we shall not present any new logics of knowledge. Many such logics already exist, and more are born every day. Rather the plan is to present situations where in real life and in popular media, reasoning about knowledge enters and to present **sophisticated** examples for you to try to formalize.

Making things explicit

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But you might not.

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But you might not.

But suppose I tell you q , then you should know q since you already knew p and $p \rightarrow q$.

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Once, the Mullah was out for a walk and met some friends. In a generous mood, he invited them all for dinner.

But then he said, "Let me go ahead and tell my wife that you are coming."

When he arrived at his house, his wife said, “Mullah, there is no food in the house and anyway, I cannot make dinner so fast!”

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"I see," said the Mullah. "Why don't I hide upstairs and you tell my friends that I am not home."

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"I see," said the Mullah. "Why don't I hide upstairs and you tell my friends that I am not home."

Pretty soon the friends arrived and the Mullah's wife told them that the Mullah was not home.

“But we just saw the Mullah come in through the front door!” ,
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“Couldn’t I have gone out through the back door?” , said the Mullah.

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If someone says, “It is raining but I do not believe that it is raining” then it is paradoxical.

**I am indebted to Johan van Benthem
for the following example**

Three people A, B, C walk into a coffee shop. One of them orders cappuccino, one orders tea, and one orders icecream. The waiter goes away and after ten minutes *another* waiter arrives with three cups. "Who has the cappuccino?" "I do," says A. "Who has the tea?" "I do," says C.

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Will the waiter ask a third question?"

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- 3) TCI, 4) TIC,
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When C says that he has the tea, 1 is eliminated.

Now 2 alone is left and the waiter knows that B has the icecream.

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S1 = “The butler saw her clearly”

S2 = “The butler did not see her clearly”

The butler’s remark eliminated S1 and saved her from embarrassment.

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Why did Holmes say what he did?

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8. Conclusion: The perpetrator must be known to the dog.

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C then leaves and goes to a party where he has invited S.

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Conclusion, A was dressed in gym clothes **after** he was dead, and presumably by the killer.

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Columbo then says to C, “The last that A was seen, he was wearing business clothes. When he was found he was wearing gym clothes.”

“Since we know that he was dressed in gym clothes after he was dead, how did **you** know that he was dressed in gym clothes when you “talked” to him on the phone?”

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“Since we know that he was dressed in gym clothes after he was dead, how did **you** know that he was dressed in gym clothes when you “talked” to him on the phone?”

“You are the killer!”

Numerical Foreheads

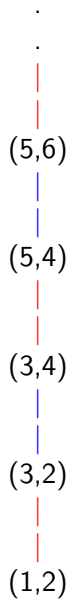
Two players Ann and Bob are told that the following will happen. Some positive integer n will be chosen and *one* of n , $n + 1$ will be written on Ann's forehead, the other on Bob's. Each will be able to see the other's forehead, but not his/her own.

Note that each can see the other's number, but not their own. Thus if Ann has 5 and Bob has 6, then Ann knows that her number is either 5 or 7 and Bob knows that his number is either 6 or 4.

After this is done, they are asked repeatedly, beginning with Ann, if they know what their own number is.

Theorem 1: In those cases where Ann has the even number, the response at the n th stage will be, “my number is $n + 1$ ”, and in the other cases, the response at the $(n + 1)$ st stage will be “my number is $n + 1$ ”. In either case, it will be the person who sees the smaller number, who will respond first.

Start situation



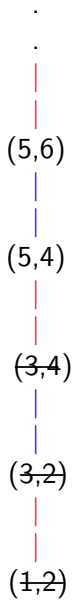
Bob has just said, I don't know my number



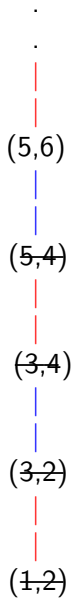
Ann said no also



Bob said a second “no”



Ann said a second “no”



Bob knows his number is 6

However, there is a serious defect in the argument in that both Ann and Bob's reasoning depends heavily on what the other one is thinking, including a consideration of what the other does not know. Ann's reasoning is justified if **Bob thinks as she believes he does**, and Bob's reasoning is justified if she thinks as he believes she does. But there is no guarantee that they do indeed think this way. How do we justify what each thinks and what each does and does not know?

We introduce the notion of **interactive discovery system** which gets around the issue of knowledge, and asks instead, **What can they do?**

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Definition 4: An *IDS* (interactive discovery system) for M is a map

$f : W \times N^+ \rightarrow \{\text{"no"}\} \cup W$ such that for each odd n , $f(s, n)$ (Ann's response at stage n) depends only on the \equiv_1 equivalence class of s and on $f(s, m)$ for $m < n$. For each even n , $f(s, n)$ depends only on the \equiv_2 equivalence class of s and on $f(s, m)$ for $m < n$.

Definition 5: The IDS f is *sound* if

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and $p(s) = 1$ if $i_f(s)$ is odd and 2 if $i_f(s)$ is even.

(Here μ stands for “least”. $i_f(s) = \infty$ if $f(s, n)$ is always “no”. We may drop the subscript f from i_f if it is clear from the context.)

Lemma 1: Let f be a sound IDS. Let $s \equiv_i t$, $i(s) = k < \infty$ and $p(s) = i$. Then $i(t) < k$ and $p(t) \neq i$.

Proof: At stage $i(s)$, i has evidence distinguishing between s and t . Since all previous utterances associated with s were “no”, some previous utterance associated with t must have been nontrivial.

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Formally, $f(s, i(s)) = s \neq f(t, i(s))$. But $s \equiv_i t$. Hence $(\exists m < i(s))(f(s, m) \neq f(t, m))$. Since $m < i(s)$, $f(s, m) = \text{“no”}$ and so $f(t, m) \neq \text{“no”}$.

Thus $i(t) \leq m < i(s)$. Now, if $p(t) = i$, then, by a symmetric argument, we could prove also that $i(t) < i(s)$. But this is absurd. Hence $p(t) \neq i$. \square

Corollary: Suppose that $p(s) = i$ and there is a chain $s = s_1 \equiv_1 s_2 \equiv_2 s_3 \equiv_1 \dots s_m$. Then $i(s) \geq m$.

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Proof: If, say, $i(s_1) = k < \infty$, we would get $i(s_1) > i(s_2) > \dots > i(s_m) > i(s_1)$, a contradiction. \square

Of course, the s_i are supposed to be distinct.

These strategies are *optimal*. E.g. we have

$$(6, 5) \equiv_1 (4, 5) \equiv_2 (4, 3) \equiv_1 (2, 3) \equiv_2 (2, 1)$$

and hence $i(6, 5)$ has a minimum value of 5, the value achieved by the strategy above.

A **social structure** with certain logical properties is a queue, like at a bus stop or in a bank.

- ▶ Someone who came earlier gets service earlier.
- ▶ Violations are easily detectable.

The problem of parking is a similar problem. A scarce resource needs to be allocated on the basis of some sort of priority, which, however, is difficult to determine.

When people are looking for parking in a busy area, they tend to cruise around until they find a space. There is no queue as such, but in general we do want that someone who arrives first should find a parking space and someone who arrives later may not.

When my students and I studied cruising for parking in a 15-block business district in Los Angeles, we found the average cruising time was 3.3 minutes, and the average cruising distance half a mile (about 2.5 times around the block). This may not sound like much, but with 470 parking meters in the district, and a turnover rate for curb parking of 17 cars per space per day, 8,000 cars park at the curb each weekday. Even a small amount of cruising time for each car adds up to a lot of traffic.

Over the course of a year, the search for curb parking in this 15-block district created about 950,000 excess vehicle miles of travel, equivalent to 38 trips around the earth, or four trips to the moon. And here's another inconvenient truth about underpriced curb parking: cruising those 950,000 miles wastes 47,000 gallons of gas and produces 730 tons of the greenhouse gas carbon dioxide. If all this happens in one small business district, imagine the cumulative effect of all cruising in the United States. **Donald Shoup**

Shoup regards this problem as one of incentive and suggests that parking fees be raised so that occupancy of street parking spaces is only 85%.

But perhaps this is really a **knowledge** problem?

Find a Place to Park on Your GPS – Spark Parking Makes it Possible

Navigation Developers Can Access Spark Parking Points of Interest Through New Tele Atlas ContentLink Program

San Francisco, CA, March 21, 2007

Running late for a meeting and worried about finding a place to park? Unhappy about paying outrageous valet parking fees at your favorite restaurant? These headaches will soon be a thing of the past. Spark Parking's detailed parking location information data is now available through the newly released Tele Atlas ContentLinkSM portal for application developers to incorporate into a range of GPS devices and location-based services and applications.

Spark Parking's detailed parking information provides the locations of every paid parking facility in each covered city – from the enormous multi-level garages to the tiny surface lots hidden in alleys. In addition, Spark Parking includes facility size, operating hours, parking rates, available validations, and many more details not previously available from any source. As a result, drivers will easily be able to find parking that meets their needs and budgets.

<http://www.pr.com/press-release/33381>

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Parikh and Krasucki showed that among n agents communicating in pairs, common opinion about some quantity can come about without most agents communicating with others.

Aumann's argument

Column

Row

$v_{1,1}$	$v_{1,2}$	$v_{1,3}$	$v_{1,4}$
$v_{2,1}$	$v_{2,2}$	$v_{2,3}$	$v_{2,4}$
$v_{3,1}$	$v_{3,2}$	$v_{3,3}$	$v_{3,4}$
$v_{4,1}$	$v_{4,2}$	$v_{4,3}$	$v_{4,4}$

Now Row's value v is

$$v_1 = (1/4)[v_{1,1} + v_{1,2} + v + 1, 3 + v_{1,4}]$$

And Column's value w is

$$w_1 = (1/4)[(v_{1,1} + v_{2,1} + v_{3,1} + v_{4,1})$$

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And Column's value w is

$$w_1 = (1/4)[(v_{1,1} + v_{2,1} + v_{3,1} + v_{4,1})$$

Since these values are common knowledge,

$v_1 = v_2$ where $v_2 = (1/4)[v_{2,1} + v_{2,2} + v + 2, 3 + v_{2,4}]$
and similarly for v_3 and v_4 .

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Thus v_1 must equal

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Thus $v = w$.

**Using Aumann's reasoning,
Milgrom and Stokey proved a famous
No Trade theorem!**

If A is selling a stock to B, and B is buying it, then obviously A thinks the stock will go down and B thinks it will go up. But this fact is common knowledge! By a proof based on Aumann, it cannot be common knowledge that they have different views of the stock and the sale cannot take place.

“I’d never join any club that would have me for a member”

Groucho Marx

But what if the value is not common knowledge?

Will communication help?

GP argument

Column

Row

2	3	5	4
7	8	9	10
3	2	5	4
5	4	3	2

At this point Row announces that her expected value is 3.5,
and column eliminates row 2

		Column			
Row		2	3	5	4
		7	8	9	10
		3	2	5	4
		5	4	3	2

Now column announces that his value is 3.33,
and row eliminates columns 2,3

Column					
Row	2	3	5	4	
	7	8	9	10	
	3	2	5	4	
	5	4	3	2	

Now Row announces his value as $3 = (2+4)/2$ and Column eliminates row 3, 4, announcing his value as 2.

Column					
Row	2	3	5	4	
	7	8	9	10	
	3	2	5	4	
	5	4	3	2	

At this point Row eliminates column 4, also announces his value at 2, and they have consensus.

Column					
Row	2	3	5	4	
	7	8	9	10	
	3	2	5	4	
	5	4	3	2	

A brief overview of the [PK] result:

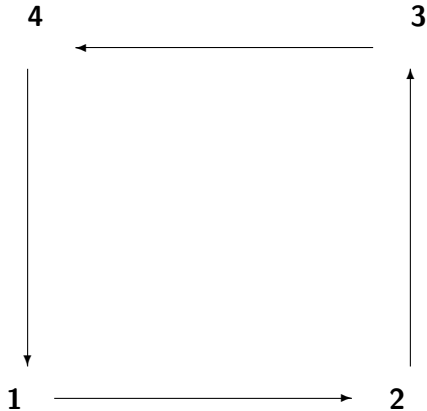
Suppose we have n agents connected in a strongly connected graph. They all share initial probability distribution, but have now received, each of them, a finite amount of private information.

Thus their estimate of the probability of some event or the expected value of some random variable v may now be different.

Let g be a function which, at stage n picks out a sender $s(n)$ and a recipient $r(n)$. $s(n)$ sends his latest value of v to $r(n)$ who then revises *her* valuation of v .

If the graph G is strongly connected, and for each pair of connected agents i, j , i repeatedly sends his value of v to j , then eventually all estimates of the value of v become equal.

Parikh-Krasucki result



Sketch of proof of the P-K result

Each agent i has a personal partition \mathcal{P}_i . Let \mathcal{P} be the common refinement of the \mathcal{P}_i . The \mathcal{P}_i are finite and so is \mathcal{P} .

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The non-trivial part of the proof consists of showing that at that stage, all agents have the same value of the parameter in question.

History Based Knowledge

On Monday Jack writes to Ann that he got a dog (**D**) E_1

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$$E_1 \longrightarrow E_2 \longrightarrow E_3$$

Suppose that a letter takes at most three days to arrive. Then on Wednesday, Ann knows D, but Jack does not know that Ann knows D.

On Thursday, Jack knows that Ann knows that D.

See no Evil, Hear no Evil

A pretty woman (Eve) shoots a man dead.

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Together they know who committed the murder. But neither of them knows it by himself.

A **global history** is the sequence of all events which happen.

The corresponding **local history** for an agent i , is all the events (or aspects of them) which i 'sees'.

The **protocol** is the set of all possible global histories.

Suppose an agent sees local history h , and X is the set of all global histories which are **compatible** with h .

If some property P is true of all histories in X , then the agent **knows P** .

Example 1: Uma is a physician whose neighbour is ill. Uma does not know and has not been informed. Uma has no obligation (as yet) to treat the neighbour.

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The global history contained the event E of Sam being sick, but until Uma was told, she did not know it and did not know that she needed to act.

The Model

In the model developed by Pacuit, Parikh and Cogan, the history of the world is a line in a tree of all possible histories. At each moment of time, the agents are at some branch point, and some agent has the move. This agent can choose one among the various trees beginning at the branch point, if **the agent knows that** one subtree has better outcomes than the other subtrees at that branch point, then the agent has the obligation to choose that subtree.

The subtree where Uma treats the sick man is better than the subtree where she does not. But until she is informed she **does not know this**. Once she is informed, she acquires an obligation.

The Kitty Genovese Murder

“Along a serene, tree-lined street in the Kew Gardens section of Queens, New York City, Catherine Genovese began the last walk of her life in the early morning hours of March 13, 1964.....As she locked her car door, she took notice of a figure in the darkness walking towards her. She became immediately concerned as soon as the stranger began to follow her.

‘As she got of the car she saw me and ran,’ the man told the court later, ‘I ran after her and I had a knife in my hand.... I could run much faster than she could, and I jumped on her back and stabbed her several times,’ the man later told the cops.”

Many neighbours saw what was happening, but no one called the police.

“Mr. Koshkin wanted to call the police but Mrs. Koshkin thought otherwise. ‘I didn’t let him,’ she later said to the press, ‘I told him there must have been 30 calls already.’ ”

“When the cops finished polling the immediate neighbourhood, they discovered at least 38 people who had heard or observed some part of the fatal assault on Kitty Genovese.”¹

Some 35 minutes passed between Kitty Genovese being attacked and someone calling the police, why?

¹This quote is from the article ‘A cry in the night: the Kitty Genovese murder’, by a police detective, Mark Gado, and appears on the web in *Court TV’s Crime Library*.

Gricean Implicature

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B: There is a gas station around the corner

The assumption is that B is co-operating with A and would not say what he said unless he knew that the gas station was (likely to be) open.

But, can we always believe what others tell us?

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Sally is applying to Rayco for a job and Rayco asks if her ability is high or low.

		Rayco	
		High	Low
Sally	High	(3,3)	(0,0)
	Low	(0,0)	(2,2)

Sally has nothing to gain by lying about her qualifications and Rayco can trust her.

		Rayco	
		High	Low
Sally	High	(3,3)	(0,0)
	Low	(3,0)	(2,2)

Sally has nothing to **lose** by lying about her qualifications and Rayco cannot trust her.

The extent to which one agent (the listener) can believe
another agent (the speaker)
depends on how much they have in common.

Obama and Rev. Jeremiah Wright

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But Wright had made some anti-white remarks and also uttered the famous phrase, "God damn America!"

Obama's association with Wright was a political problem for Obama, and finally Obama dissociated himself from Wright.

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Something interesting has happened recently in the kerfuffle between Barack Obama and his putative pastor, Jeremiah Wright.

Obama denounced comments made by Wright at the NAACP and at the Press Club.

Wright responded, "It went down very simply. He's a politician. I'm a pastor. We speak to two different audiences. And he says what he has to say as a politician. I say what I have to say as a pastor. Those are two different worlds. I do what I do, he does what politicians do. So what happened in Philadelphia where he had to respond to the sound bites, he responded as a politician."

So, it is important when people speak, to keep in mind that they often have an axe to grind

Thank You!