Le choix social computationnel rencontre l'informatique mathématique

Jérôme Lang LAMSADE CNRS – Université Paris-Dauphine

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Plan

1. Introduction: computational social choice

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- 2. Voting rules, easy and hard
- 3. Multi-winner rules
- 4. Voting protocols
- 5. Fair division
- 6. Conclusion

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Social choice theory

- Social choice: designing and analysing methods for collective decision making
- Some examples of social choice problems:
 - political elections. Voting
 - finding a date for a meeting. Voting
 - deciding where and when to have dinner altogether tonight. Voting
 - in a high school: deciding who gets which class and who teaches when. Fair division
 - in a company: find a partition of employees in groups of people who will work together. Coalition structure formation

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in a jury: agreeing on a verdict. Judgment aggregation

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- ↑ aggregating preferences
- \downarrow aggregating beliefs
 - in a jury: agreeing on a verdict. Judgment aggregation

Preferences

each agent *i* has some preferences on the alternatives
 Most usual models:

- cardinal preferences: each agent has a utility function
 u : C → R
- ► ordinal preferences: each agent has a preference relation on C (most common assumption in social choice)

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 dichotomous preferences: each agent has a partition {Good, Bad} of C

A very rough history of social choice

- end of 18th century: early stage, with Condorcet and Borda (session spéciale, réunion du GDR IM, Versailles, juin 1789)
- 2. 1951: birth of modern social choice
 - results are mainly axiomatic (economics/mathematics)
 - impossibility theorems: incompatibility of a small set of seemingly innocuous conditions, such as Arrow's theorem:

With at least 3 alternatives, an aggregation function satisfies *unanimity* and *independence of irrelevant alternatives* if and only if it is a *dictatorship*.

- computational issues are neglected
- 3. early 90's: computer scientists come into play
 - ⇒ Computational social choice: using computational notions and techniques (mainly from Artificial Intelligence, Operations Research, Theoretical Computer Science) for solving complex collective decision making problems.

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Voting

- 1. a finite set of voters $N = \{1, ..., n\}$;
- 2. a finite set of candidates C
- 3. a *profile* = a collection of n preference relations

$$P = (\succ_1, \ldots, \succ_n)$$

 \succ_i = linear order over C = vote expressed by voter *i*.

Here is a 100-voter profile over $C = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$

33 votes:	$a \succ b \succ c \succ d \succ e$
16 votes:	$b \succ d \succ c \succ e \succ a$
3 votes:	$c \succ d \succ b \succ a \succ e$
8 votes:	$c \succ e \succ b \succ d \succ a$
18 votes:	$d \succ e \succ c \succ b \succ a$
22 votes:	$e \succ c \succ b \succ d \succ a$

Resolute vs. irresolute rules

The usual way of defining voting rules:

we first define an irresolute voting rule F

 $P \mapsto F(P) \in 2^C \setminus \{\emptyset\}$ (cowinners)

- a resolute rule is defined from F by using a tie-breaking priority T
- usual assumption: T = linear order on C
- $F_T(P) = \max(T, F(P))$: F_T resolute rule

Example:

- $\blacktriangleright P = \langle a \succ b, b \succ a \rangle$
- *Maj* irresolute voting rule: $Maj(P) = \{a, b\}$
- Maj_{a>b} and Maj_{b>a} resolute voting rules
- $Maj_{a>b}(P) = a$

In the rest of the talk, we usually define irresolute rules, from which resolute rules are induced by a tie-breaking priority.

Voting

$\textit{X} = \{\textit{a},\textit{b},\textit{c},\textit{d},\textit{e}\}$

33 votes:	$a \succ b \succ c \succ d \succ e$
16 votes:	$b \succ d \succ c \succ e \succ a$
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Who should be elected?

Positional scoring rules

- n voters, m candidates
- ▶ fixed list of *m* integers $s_1 \ge ... \ge s_m$, with $s_1 > s_m$
- if voter *i* ranks candidate *x* in position *j* then $score_i(x) = s_j$
- winner(s): candidate(s) maximizing

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} score_i(x)$$

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plurality $s_1 = 1$, $s_2 = \ldots = s_m = 0 \mapsto \text{winner: } a$ Borda $s_1 = m - 1$, $s_2 = m - 2$, $\ldots s_m = 0 \mapsto \text{winner: } b$

Majority graph

Generalizing simple majority:

pairwise majority

given any two alternatives $x, y \in X$, use simple majority to determine whether the group prefers x to y or vice versa.

Does this work? Sometimes yes:

33 votes:	$a \succ b \succ c \succ d \succ e$	associated majority graph
16 votes:	$b \succ d \succ c \succ e \succ a$	
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22 votes:	$e \succ c \succ b \succ d \succ a$	b — e

Collective preference relation: $c \succ b \succ d \succ e \succ a$

Winner: c

Majority graph

Generalizing simple majority:

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Does this work? Sometimes no:

33 votes:	$a \succ b \succ \mathbf{d} \succ \mathbf{c} \succ e$	associated majority graph
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Collective preference relation: $\{b \succ c \succ d \succ b \succ ...\} \succ e \succ a$; Winner: ?

Condorcet winner

- ► $N(x, y) = #\{i, x \succ_i y\}$ number of voters who prefer x to y.
- x Condorcet winner if for all $y \neq x$, $N(x, y) > \frac{n}{2}$



c Condorcet winner

no Condorcet winner

- sometimes there is no Condorcet winner
- when there is a Condorcet winner, it is unique
- a rule is *Condorcet-consistent* if it outputs the Condorcet winner whenever there is one.

Rules based on the majority graph

- *P* profile \mapsto *M*(*P*) directed graph associated with *P*
- A voting rule r is based on the majority graph if r(P) = f(M(P)) for some function f.
- For simplicity, assume an odd number of voters: the majority graph is a complete asymmetric graph (a *tournament*).

Copeland rule

- Cop(x) = number of candidates y such that M(P) contains $x \longrightarrow y$.
- Copeland winner(s): $\operatorname{argmax}_{c \in C} Cop(x)$.



C(a) = 2 C(b) = 2 C(c) = 1C(d) = 1

Copeland cowinners: *a*, *b*

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Rules based on the majority graph Slater rule

- Slater ranking = linear order on C obtained by inverting as few edges as possible in M(P)
- Slater winner: best candidate in some Slater ranking



Slater winner: a

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finding a Slater ranking is equivalent to finding an instance of the minimum feedback arc set problem

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- deciding whether an alternative is a Slater cowinner is NP-hard

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Slater winner: a

- finding a Slater ranking is equivalent to finding an instance of the minimum feedback arc set problem
- deciding whether an alternative is a Slater cowinner is NP-hard
- ► it is not known whether the problem is in NP; the best upper bound we know is Θ_2^p .

Rules based on the majority graph Banks rule

- ▶ look for the maximal subsets C' or C such that the restriction of M(P) to C is transitive.
- the restriction of M(P) to these subsets are called maximal transitive subtournaments of M(P)
- ➤ x is a Banks winner if x is dominating in some maximal subtournament of M(P).



Maximal subtournaments of M(P):

- ► {*a*,*b*,*c*} winner: *a*
- ► {*b*,*c*,*d*} winner: *b*
- ► {*a*,*d*} winner: *d*

Banks cowinners: *a*, *b*, *d*

deciding whether x is a Banks winner is NP-complete

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Banks cowinners: *a*, *b*, *d*

- deciding whether x is a Banks winner is NP-complete
- but some Banks cowinner can be found in polynomial time by a greedy algorithm

Rules based on the weighted majority graph

- ► $N_P(x, y) = \#\{i, x \succ_i y\}$ number of voters who prefer x to y.
- A voting rule *r* is *based on the weighted majority graph* if $r(P) = g(N_P)$ for some function *g*.

maximin rule

- maximin score: $S_m(x) = \min_{y \neq x} N_P(x, y)$
- winner(s) maximize $S_m(x)$

N_P	а	b	С	d	е	S_m
а	_	33	33	33	36	33
b	67	—	49	79	52	49
С	67	51	—	33	60	33
d	67	21	67	_	70	21
е	66	48	40	30	—	30

maximin winner: b

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Rules based on the weighted majority graph Kemeny rule

▶ for each ranking of candidates *R*, the Kemeny score of *R* is

$$K(R) = \sum \{ N_P(x, y) \mid (x, y) \text{ such that } x >_R y \}$$

- Kemeny consensus = ranking with maximal Kemeny score
- Kemeny winner: best candidate in some Kemeny consensus

N_P	а	b	С	d	е
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K(bcdea) = ?

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K(bcdea) = 610

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K(bcdea) = 610 K(bdcea) = 644Kemeny consensus: *bdcea* Kemeny winner: *b*

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Rules based on the weighted majority graph

Kemeny rule

Complexity

Winner determination is $\Theta^{P}_{2}\text{-complete}$ (needs logarithmically many NP-oracles)

- Polynomial approximation
 - a 4/3-approximation algorithm based on linear programming
 - ▶ a ¹¹/7-approximation algorithm (more sophisticated)
 - existence of a polynomial-time approximation scheme (but not efficient in practice)

Parametrized complexity

Winner can be computed in time $O(2^m m^2 n)$

- Practical algorithms
 - translation into ILP
 - branch and bound,
 - heuristic search based on Borda scores
 - etc.

Computing voting rules

Three classes of rules:

- winner determination in P: easy to compute
 - positional scoring rule, Copeland, maximin, and others
- winner determination is NP-complete: not easy to compute but easy to verify a solution using a succinct certificate
 - Banks, and others
- winner determination is beyond NP: not even easy to verify.

Kemeny, probably Slater (?), and others

Is there a life after NP-hardness?

- efficient computation: design algorithms that do as well as possible, possibly using heuristics, or translations into well-known frameworks (such as integer linear programming).
- fixed-parameter complexity: isolate the components of the problem and find the main cause(s) of hardness.
- approximation: design algorithms that produce a (generally suboptimal) result, with some performance guarantee.
 - The approximation of a voting rule is a new voting rule that may be interesting *per se*.

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- S is a Condorcet winning set for profile P if for each x ∉ S, a majority of votes rank at least one element of S above x.
- ► *P* = (*abcd*, *cdab*, *dabc*):
 - ► {*a*,*c*} is a Condorcet winning set;
 - ► {b,c} is not a Condorcet winning set because of a.
- Condorcet dimension of a profile P = cardinality of the smallest Condorcet winning set for P

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 P = (abcd, cdab, dabc) has Condorcet dimension 2: no Condorcet winner; {a, c} Condorcet winning set.

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- there exists a 6-candidate 6-voter profile of Condorcet dimension 3.

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- P = (abcd, cdab, dabc) has Condorcet dimension 2: no Condorcet winner; {a, c} Condorcet winning set.
- there exists a 6-candidate 6-voter profile of Condorcet dimension 3.
- does there exist a profile of Condorcet dimension n, for all n?

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- P = (abcd, cdab, dabc) has Condorcet dimension 2: no Condorcet winner; {a, c} Condorcet winning set.
- there exists a 6-candidate 6-voter profile of Condorcet dimension 3.
- does there exist a profile of Condorcet dimension n, for all n? Nobody knows.

Condorcet and θ -winning sets

θ -winning sets

- ► *S* is a θ -winning set if for each $x \notin S$, the proportion of votes that rank at least one element of *S* above *x* is at least θ
- Condorcet winning set = $\frac{1}{2}$ -winning set
- for fixed k: θ(S,k) is the highest value of θ for which S is a θ-winning set of size k; output subsets maximizing θ(S,k)

$$\begin{array}{rl} \times 4: & a \succ b \succ c \succ e \succ d \succ f \\ \times 3: & b \succ c \succ a \succ e \succ d \succ f \\ \times 2: & f \succ e \succ d \succ b \succ c \succ a \end{array}$$

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- $k = 1 \mapsto \{a\}$ (maximin winner)
- ▶ $k = 2 \mapsto \{a, b\}$
- $\flat \ k = 3 \mapsto \{a, b, f\}$

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Multiple round rules

Plurality with runoff

- let x, y the two candidates with the highest plurality score (use tie-breaking rule if necessary)
- winner: majority winner between x and y

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- first step: keep a and e
- winner: e

Multiple round rules

Single transferable vote (STV)

Repeat

x := candidate ranked first by the fewest voters;

eliminate x from all ballots

{votes for *x* transferred to the next best remaining candidate} Until some candidate *y* is ranked first by more than half of the votes; Winner: *y*

- When there are only 3 candidates, STV coincides with plurality with runoff.
- STV is used for political elections in several countries (at least Australia and Ireland)

Single transferable vote (STV)

winner: d

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Single transferable vote (STV)

(*) How do we handle ties in STV?

STV^T ties are broken immediately using a tie-breaking priority T: polynomial

- STV^{PU} exploring all possibilities and possible use tie-breaking at the very last moment: NP-complete
- $\begin{array}{c|c}
 4 & a \succ d \succ b \succ c \\
 3 & b \succ c \succ d \succ a \\
 2 & c \succ d \succ a \succ b \\
 2 & d \succ b \succ c \succ a
 \end{array}$

Tie-breaking : a > b > d > c

- break ties immediately: c eliminated, then b, winner: d
- parallel universes:
 - branch 1 (above): winner: d
 - branch 2: d eliminated, then c, winner: a
 - ► cowinners {*a*,*d*}, winner: *a*.

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Computing voting rules

Three classes of rules:

- winner determination in P: easy to compute
 - positional scoring rule, Copeland, maximin, plurality with runoff, STV^T, and others
- winner determination is NP-complete: not easy to compute but easy to verify a solution using a succinct certificate
 - ▶ Banks, STV^{PU}, and others
- winner determination is beyond NP: not even easy to verify.

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Communication complexity of voting rules

- Voting rule
 - profile $(V_1, \ldots, V_n) \mapsto \text{winner}(s) r(V_1, \ldots, V_n)$
 - does not specify how the votes V_i are elicited from the voters by the central authority.
- Protocol for a voting rule r
 - informally: similar to an algorithm, except that instructions are replaced by communication actions, and such that communication actions are based on the *private information* of the agents.

- V_i is the private information of agent (voter) *i*.
- Communication complexity of a voting rule r:
 - minimum cost of a protocol for r.

Communication complexity of voting rules

An obvious protocol that works for *any* voting rule *r*:

- 1. every voter *i* sends her vote V_i to the central authority
- 2. the central authority sends back the name of the winner to all voters
- step 1: $n\log(m!) = O(nm\log m)$ bits
- step 2: ignored (or else: nlog m bits) from now on, we shall ignore step the cost of information flow from the central authority to the voters.

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 The communication complexity of an arbitrary voting rule r is in O(nmlog m) Communication complexity: plurality with runoff

- An easy protocol for plurality with runoff:
 - 1. voters send the name of their most preferred candidate to the central authority
 - 2. the central authority sends the names of the two finalists to the voters
 - 3. voters send the name of their preferred finalist to the central authority
 - ▶ step 1: *n*log *m* bits
 - step 2: ignored (or else: 2nlog m bits)
 - ▶ step 3: *n* bits
 - total: O(n(log m))
 - lower bound matches (Conitzer & Sandholm, 05)
- the communication complexity of plurality with runoff is in $\Theta(n, \log m)$

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Communication complexity: STV

- A protocol for STV (Conitzer & Sandholm, 05)
 - 1. voters send their most preferred candidate to the central authority (*C*)
 - let x be the candidate ranked first in the smallest number of votes. All voters who had x ranked first receive a message from C asking them to send the name of their next preferred candidate.
 - repeat step 2 until there is a candidate ranked first in a majority of votes
 - after doing t times step 2: x ranked first in at most $\frac{n}{m-t}$ votes
 - cost of protocol

$$\leq n \log m (1 + 1/m + 1/m - 1 + ... + 1/2) = O(n (\log m)^2)$$

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- lower bound $\Omega(n \log m)$
- gap still open!

Plan

1. Introduction: computational social choice

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- 2. Voting rules, easy and hard
- 3. Multi-winner rules
- 4. Voting protocols
- 5. Fair division
- 6. Conclusion

Fair division of indivisible objects

- ▶ a finite set of objects *O*, a finite set of agents $N = \{1, ..., n\}$
- ► each agent *i* has a preference relation ≽_i over subsets of objects
 - Example: *additive preferences*.
 - the value of a set of objects of the sum of the values of its elements
 - $S \succeq_i S'$ if value of $S \ge$ value of S'

	а	b	С	d	е
Ann	1	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	1	0
Charles	0	0	1	0	1

 \mapsto allocation $\pi: N \to 2^O$ with $\pi(i) \neq \pi(j)$ for $i \neq j$

▶ notation: [a|bc|de] is the allocation π where $\pi(Ann) = \{a\}$, $\pi(Bob) = \{b, c\}$ and $\pi(Charles) = \{d, e\}$.

Pareto-efficiency

 allocation π Pareto-dominates allocation π' if π' is at least as good as π for all agents and strictly better for some agent:

- ► for all *i*, $\pi(i) \succeq_i \pi'(i)$, and for some *i*, $\pi(i) \succ_i \pi'(i)$
- π is Pareto-efficient if it is not Pareto-dominated

	а	b	С	d	е
Ann	1	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	1	0
Charles	0	0	1	0	1

[a|bc|de] not Pareto-efficient

Pareto-efficiency

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- π is Pareto-efficient if it is not Pareto-dominated

	а	b	С	d	е		а	b	С	d	е
Ann	1	1	0	1	0	Ann	1	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	1	0	Bob	1	1	0	1	0
Charles	0	0	1	0	1	Charles	0	0	1	0	1
[a bc de] r	not F	are	eto-	effi	cient	[a bd ce]	Pa	reto	o-ef	ficie	ent

Envy-freeness

► π is envy-free if no agent prefers the share of another agent to her own: for all *i*, *j*, $u_i(\pi(i)) \ge u_i(\pi(j))$

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	а	b	С	d	е
Ann	1	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	1	0
Charles	0	0	1	0	1

[*a*|*bc*|*de*] envy-free but not Pareto-efficient

Envy-freeness

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[*a*|*bc*|*de*] envy-free but not Pareto-efficient

	а	b	С	d	е	
Ann	1	1	0	1	0	
Bob	1	1	0	1	0	
Charles	0	0	1	0	1	

[a|bd|ce] Pareto-efficient but not envy-free

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Pareto-efficiency and envy-freeness

	а	b	С	d	е
Ann	1	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	1	0
Charles	0	0	1	0	1

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- ► [*a*|*bc*|*de*] envy-free but not Pareto-efficient
- ► [*a*|*bd*|*ce*] Pareto-efficient but not envy-free
- ► [*ab*|*d*|*ce*] Pareto-efficient but not envy-free
- no allocation is both Pareto-efficient and envy-free

Pareto-efficiency and envy-freeness

	а	b	С	d	е
Ann	1	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	1	0
Charles	0	0	1	0	1

- ► [a|bc|de] envy-free but not Pareto-efficient
- ► [a|bd|ce] Pareto-efficient but not envy-free
- ► [*ab*|*d*|*ce*] Pareto-efficient but not envy-free
- no allocation is both Pareto-efficient and envy-free
- relaxing Pareto-efficiency is not considered acceptable
- maybe envy-freeness is too strong and needs to be weakened

Proportional fair share

- n agents
- O set of objects
- agent *i* gives value $v_i(S)$ to $S \subseteq O$
- the proportional fair share value of i is

$$FS(i) = \frac{u_i(O)}{n}$$

 π satisfies the proportional fair share (PFS) property if for all i,

$$u_i(\pi(i)) \geq FS(i)$$

for additive preferences, envy-freeness implies PFS

Proportional fair share

	а	b	С	d	е
Ann	1	1	0	1	0
Bob	1	1	0	1	0
Charles	0	0	1	0	1

- $FS(Ann) = FS(Bob) = 1; FS(Charles) = \frac{2}{3}.$
- ► [*ab*|*d*|*ce*] Pareto-efficient and PFS (but not envy-free)

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Proportional fair share

	а	b	С	d
Ann	10	5	7	0
Bob	9	6	7	2

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- ► FS(Ann) = 11
- ▶ *FS*(*Bob*) = 12
- no (complete) allocation is fair share proportional
- perhaps PFS is still too strong

for each agent *i*, the maximin fair share value of *i* is her value of the worst share of the best possible partition

$$MaxMinFS(i) := \max_{\pi} \min_{j} u_i(\pi(j))$$

• π satisfies the maxmin fair share property if for all *i*,

 $u_i(\pi(i)) \geq MaxMinFS(i)$

for additive preferences:

envy-freeness \Rightarrow PFS \Rightarrow MaxMinFS

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	а	b	С	d
Ann	10	5	7	0
Bob	9	6	7	2

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•
$$MaxMinFS(Ann) = \max_{\pi} \min_{j} u_{Ann}(\pi(j)) = 10$$

	а	b	С	d
Ann	10	5	7	0
Bob	9	6	7	2

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- $MaxMinFS(Ann) = \max_{\pi} \min_{j} u_{Ann}(\pi(j)) = 10$
- $MaxMinFS(Bob) = max_{\pi}min_{j}u_{Bob}(\pi(j)) = 11.$

	а	b	С	d
Ann	10	5	7	0
Bob	9	6	7	2

- $MaxMinFS(Ann) = max_{\pi}min_{j}u_{Ann}(\pi(j)) = 10$
- $MaxMinFS(Bob) = \max_{\pi} \min_{j} u_{Bob}(\pi(j)) = 11.$
- [bc|ad] is MaxMinFS and Pareto-efficient (but not PEF)

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- with two agents and additive preferences, a maxmin fair share allocation always exists
- with non-additive preferences, MaxMinFS is not guaranteed, even for two agents

	\leq 1 item	ab	ac	ad	bc	bd	cd	\geq 3 items
Ann	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Bob	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1

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- MaxMinFS(Ann) = MaxMinFS(Ann) = 1
- no allocation is MaxMinFS.
- what about n agents with additive preferences?

- with two agents and additive preferences, a maxmin fair share allocation always exists
- with non-additive preferences, MaxMinFS is not guaranteed, even for two agents

	\leq 1 item	ab	ac	ad	bc	bd	cd	\geq 3 items
Ann	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Bob	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1

- MaxMinFS(Ann) = MaxMinFS(Ann) = 1
- no allocation is MaxMinFS.
- what about n agents with additive preferences?
 - existence of a MaxMinFS allocation not guaranteed to exist (Procaccia and Wang 2014)
 - but counterexamples are difficult to find.

Plan

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Computational social choice and theoretical CS

- graph theory and more generally discrete maths
- complexity, parameterized complexity, approximation

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- distributed CS, communication complexity
- online computation

Advertising

- Handbook of Computational Social Choice (F. Brandt, V. Conitzer, U. Endriss, J. Lang, A. Procaccia, eds.). Cambridge University Press, 2016. Downloadable for free.
- Trends on Computational Computational Social Choice (U. Endriss, ed.), 2017. Downloadable for free.
- An experimental voting platform: Whale (developed by Sylvain Bouveret, LIG): http://whale3.noiraudes.net/