Ordinal Efficiency of the Random Priority Rule

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Abstract

The random assignment problem is the task of assigning a number of objects to an equal number of agents. A common solution to this is the Random Priority Rule which is strategy-proof, ex-post efficient and treats equals equally. However, the Random Priority Rule is not guaranteed to be ordinally efficient when there are more than three agents. I provide necessary and sufficient conditions for *ordinal efficiency* for the Random Priority Rule by characterizing ordinal efficiency in random assignment problems with few objects. The results are generalized by provided methods to obtain smaller problems from any random assignment problem while preserving ordinal efficiency under the Random Priority Rule, and where the methods do not yield small enough problems I provide an algorithm that characterizes ordinal $efficiency$.

Keywords: The random assignment problem, the Random Priority rule, ordinal efficiency

Özet

Rastgele tayin problemi belli bir sayıda objenin eşit sayıdaki ekonomik bireye verilmesini işler. Bu problem için yaygnca kullanlan bir çözüm, Rastgele Öncelik Kural, streteji-geçirmez, ex-post verimlidir ve eşite eşit davranır. Ancak, Rastgele Öncelik Kuralı üçten fazla birey olduğu durumlarda ordinal verimliliği sağlamayı garanti edemez. Rastgele tayin problemlerinde ordinal verimliliği karakterize ederek, az sayıda obje bulunduğu durumlar için Rastgele Tayin Kuralı'nın ordinal verimli olması için gerekli ve yeterli koşuları öne sürüyorum. Sonrasında bu elde ettiğimiz sonuçları genellemek için methodlar oluşturuyorum ve genellemenin erişemediği durumlar için de ordinal verimliliği karakterize eden bir algoritma öne sürüyorum.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Rastgele tayin problemi, Rastgele Öncelik Kural, ordinal verimlilik

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1 Introduction

I consider the problem of assigning n objects to n agents where each agent may have differing preferences over objects. This is called the *random assignment problem* or simply referred to hereafter as *problem*. This problem is usually encountered in assignments where fairness is crucial and monetary transfers are not allowed, such as assignments of dorms to college students or public housing to applicants. One solution to this problem is the Random Priority Rule (Abdulkadiroğlu and Sönmez [\(1998\)](#page-13-0)). The rule is applied by randomly selecting an ordering of agents and letting them take turns according to that order. The agent in turn chooses their most preferred object among the remaining ones. The chosen object is then assigned to the agent and removed from the pool of remaining objects. The process ends when all agents have taken turns, or there are no objects remaining. This solution leads to $ex\text{-}post$ efficient outcomes, where any trade that makes an agent better off will make at least one agent worse off.

Another solution, the *Probabilistic Serial Rule* is favored in some situations as it satisfies *ordinal* $efficiency$, which is a stronger than $ex\text{-}post$ efficiency and ensures no trade can make an agent better off while not making some agent worse off, even when agents are allowed to trade the probabilities of obtaining objects. However this solution is not *strategy-proof*, so some agents might be in a position where misreporting their preferences may lead to a better outcome for them. The lack of *strategy-proofness* has an impact on fairness when the agents have varying levels of information (Abdulkadiroglu et al. [\(2006\)](#page-13-1)). Being strategy-proof is a desirable property where random assignments are being used to deliver equal opportunities to agents coming from differing backgrounds.

The Random Priority (RP) Rule gives the agents a very strong incentive to report their preferences truthfully by being strategy-proof. But in cases where efficiency is considered to be important, not satisfying *ordinal efficiency* raises concerns. This can be mitigated by the fact that although the RP Rule lacks ordinal efficiency when considering all problems, the RP Rule is ordinally efficient in some domains of *random allocation problems*. One example of these domains is the domain with three objects and three agents (Bogomolnaia and Moulin [\(2001\)](#page-13-2)). By singling out the properties of such domains, I derive more generalized requirements for *ordinal efficiency*, or lack thereof. This leads to the full characterization of *ordinal efficiency* for *problems* involving two objects and any number of agents.

Following that, I further generalize our findings by devising methods to obtain *problems* with fewer objects while not affecting the *ordinal efficiency* of the RP Rule. A domain of *problems* that lends itself to this is where the preferences of the agents is tiered, ie there are groups of objects where all agents have consistent preferences between the groups, but have differing preferences inside the groups. However this does not cover all possible preferences, so there is the need of developing more general methods. Thus I devise other methods for obtaining problems with fewer objects such as deconstruction and reduction which can be applied to almost all preferences. I show that both methods preserve *ordinal efficiency* and, thus, it is possible to characterize the notion for any problem at hand.

Related Literature

Abdulkadiroğlu and Sönmez [\(1998\)](#page-13-0) define the Random Priority Rule and show that the rule is ex-post efficient. Another solution to the random assignment problem, the Probabilistic Serial (PS) Rule is proposed by Bogomolnaia and Moulin [\(2001\)](#page-13-2). The new solution lacks strategy-proofness but satisfies the stronger notion of *ordinal efficiency*. The Random Priority Rule is also shown to satisfy *ordinal* efficiency when the number of objects and agents are fewer than four. The two rules have been shown to be asymptotically equivalent when objects have multiple copies and the ratio of agents to types of objects increases (Che and Kojima [\(2010\)](#page-13-3)).

Ordinal efficiency in random assignments is studied in Abdulkadiroğlu and Sönmez (2003) by using the ex-post efficiency of lotteries. Restrictions on preference domains has been studied for inducing strategy-proofness on the PS Rule (Liu (2017) , Cho (2016)). Tiered preference structures have also been studied regarding *strategy-proofness* in the PS Rule (Liu and Zeng [\(2017\)](#page-13-7)).

2 The Model

Let O be a finite set of objects and I a finite set of agents with $|O| = |I|$. Fix the set of agents and objects. For each agent $i \in I$, let \succ_i be a preference relation which is complete, antisymmetric and transitive. Let $\succ = (\succ_i)_{i\in I}$ be a preference profile. An agent i ranks an object a k'th, or $r_i(a) = k$ if the number of objects o_n such that $o_n \succ_i a$ equals $k - 1$. A random assignment problem (or simply **problem**) is a triple (O, I, \succ) .

An ex-post assignment, or assignment is an injective function $\mu : I \leftarrow O$. A random consumption is a probability distribution over objects. A random assignment is denoted by $Q = \left[q_{ia} \right],$ where $q_{ia} \in [0,1]$ is the probability of agent i receiving object a and the i'th row Q_i is agent i's random consumption. A rule assigns a random assignment to each problem.

For a random assignment $Q = \begin{bmatrix} q_{ia} \end{bmatrix}$ and a preference profile \succ , Define the following binary relation:

$$
\tau(Q, \succ) = \{(a, b) \in O \times O \mid \exists i \in I \text{ such that } a \succ_i b, q_{ib} > 0\}
$$
\n
$$
(1)
$$

For a pair of objects $a, b \in O$, $\tau(Q, \succ)$ contains an $a - b$ cycle, or $\tau(Q \succ)$ is $a - b$ cyclic if $(a, b), (b, a) \in \tau(Q, \succ)$. $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is $a - b$ acyclic if it is not $a - b$ cyclic. $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is a-cyclic if for some b, $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is $a - b$ cyclic and $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is **cyclic** if for some $a, \tau(Q, \succ)$ is a-cyclic. $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is **acyclic** if it is not cyclic.

A random assignment Q is **ordinally efficient** for a problem $(0, I, \succ)$ if $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is acyclic. An assignment is ex-post efficient for a problem (O, I, \geq) if $\tau(Q, \geq)$ is acyclic. A rule is ex-post efficient if for each problem, the resulting assignment μ is ex-post efficient and it is ordinally efficient if for each problem, the resulting random assignment Q is ordinally efficient. A rule is strategy-proof if truth telling is a dominant strategy for the agents.

A rule commonly applied to random assignment problems is the Random Priority (RP) Rule (Abdulkadiroğlu and Sönmez (1998)). This rule satisfies ex-post efficiency and strategy-proofness. I explain the rule in greater detail in the next section.

2.1 The Random Priority Rule

For a problem (O, I, \rangle) , the RP Rule leads to an *assignment* by the following steps:

- 1. Draw an ordering of the agents in O in a uniformly random way.
- 2. Give turns to agents sequentially by following the drawn ordering.
- 3. In the first turn, the first agent picks their first *ranked* object. The chosen object is removed.
- 4. In the following turns, the agent who has the turn picks the first *ranked* object among the remaining ones.
- 5. The sequence ends when either objects or the order runs out.

In order to illustrate the *rule*, consider following example: Let there be four objects a, b, c, d and agents 1, 2, 3, 4 with the following preference domain:

$$
a \succ_1 b \succ_1 c \succ_1 d
$$

\n
$$
a \succ_2 b \succ_2 c \succ_2 d
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_3 a \succ_3 d \succ_3 c
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_4 a \succ_4 d \succ_4 c
$$

\n(2)

For the algorithm, first we obtain an ordering of the agents. Let the ordering to be $(2, 3, 1, 4)$. Then the rule resolves as follows:

- Agent 2's turn: they pick their first ranked object a .
- Agent 3's turn: they pick their first ranked object b as it is still available.
- Agent 1's turn: Their first and second ranked objects a, b are removed but their third ranked object c is available, thus they pick c .
- Agent 4's turn: Their first and second ranked objects are removed, so they pick their third ranked object d.

The result is the following *assignment*: Agents 1, 2, 3, 4 obtain c, a, b, d respectively. Notice that this assignment satisfies ex-post efficiency. For the RP Rule, the random assignment is obtained by exhausting the possible orderings that can be picked in the initial step and giving each ordering an equal probability. For our example problem, the RP Rule gives the following random assignment Q:

$$
\begin{bmatrix} 5/12 & 1/12 & 5/12 & 1/12 \ 5/12 & 1/12 & 5/12 & 1/12 \ 1/12 & 5/12 & 1/12 & 5/12 \ 1/12 & 5/12 & 1/12 & 5/12 \ \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (3)

Agents 1 and 3 contribute (a, b) to $\tau(Q, \succ)$ and agents 2 and 4 contribute (b, a) . See that the *random* assignment is thus not ordinally efficient. The RP Rule does not satisfy ordinal efficiency in general, but it assigns some *problems* to *ordinally efficient random assignments*.

The RP Rule is also *strategy-proof* for each *problem* (Abdulkadiroğlu and Sönmez [\(1998\)](#page-13-0)).

3 Characterizations of Efficiency

Our goal is to characterize the *preference domain* for which the RP Rule always gives an *ordinally efficient* random assignment. Let us fix a problem (O, I, \rangle) and the random assignment Q given by the RP Rule for (O, I, \rangle) . A preference domain is ordinally efficient if for each preference profile in the preference domain, Q is *ordinally efficient*.

A trivial ordinally efficient preference domain is such that for each $i, j \in I$, $\succ_i = \succ_j$. The preference domain consists of a single *preference profile* up to all permutations of objects. The following result provides a slight extension to this domain:

Proposition 1. Let $a, b \in O$ and define $A = \{i \mid a \succ_i b\}$, $B = \{i \mid b \succ_i a\} = I - A$. Then $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is not a-b cyclic if $|A| \leq 1$ or $|B| \leq 1$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, assume $|B| \ge |A|$. If $|A| = 0$, then for each $i \in I$, $b \succ_i a$ and $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is trivially $a - b$ acyclic.

Let $|A| = 1$ and i be the only agent with the preference $a \succ_i b$. Thus, for $j \neq i$, $b \succ_j a$. If i chooses first or a is available when it is i's turn, they will never choose b instead of a . If a is chosen before the turn gets to i, since $b \succ_j a$ for all agents $j \neq i$, b has to be chosen before i's turn. Thus, i cannot take b. Since $q_{ib} = 0$, only (b, a) can be in $\tau(Q, \succ)$. Thus, $\tau(Q, \succ)$ cannot be $a - b$ cyclic. \Box

This proposition naturally extends to an alternative proof of the *ordinal efficiency* of the RP Rule when $|I| \leq 3$. Since the condition in [Proposition 1](#page-7-0) is satisfied in this case, the RP Rule is ordinally $efficient$.

Another result is obtained by applying the same steps in the previous allocation:

Proposition 2. Let a be an object and i be an agent. If q_{ia} is positive, then for each object $b \succ_i a$, there exists a unique agent j_b with $b \succ_{j_b} a$.

Proof. Follows simply through the proof of [Proposition 1.](#page-7-0)

To further examine *ordinal efficiency*, construct a minimal *preference domain* which violates it: Let a, b, c, d be objects with $a \neq b, c \neq a, d \neq b$ (we allow $c = b$ and $d = a$). Then the following preference profile induces an $a - b$ cyclic $\tau(Q, \succ)$:

$$
a \succ_1 b \succ_1 \dots
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_2 a \succ_2 \dots
$$

\n
$$
a \succ_3 c \succ_3 \dots
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_4 d \succ_4 \dots
$$

\n(4)

 $\tau(Q, \rangle)$ has an $a - b$ cycle if the following conditions are satisfied:

- 1. Agents i_1 and i_2 disagree on their preferences over objects a and b, while there are no other objects c that are preferred between those two (ie, $a \succ_i c \succ_i b$) for both of these agents.
- 2. For each object $x \in \{a, b\}$, there are two agents ranking object x first. Thus, each of these agents is assigned to their second ranked object with positive probability.

 \Box

This can be stated as follows:

Remark 1. $\tau(Q, \succ)$ is a – b cyclic if both a and b are ranked first by at least two agents and for both a and b, at least one of the agents who ranks one first ranks the other second.

This is a very specific preference domain that is not ordinally efficient. But with further generalization methods, we can apply this result to some *profiles* where the structure is not immediately apparent. I introduce such a method in the following section.

4 Tiered Preference Profiles

To characterize larger domains, refer to the following definition.

Definition 1. A preference profile \succ is tiered if there exists an ordered partition $T = (T_1, T_2, ..., T_n)$ of O such that for each agent i and object $a \in T_m$, $b \in T_l$, $m < l$ implies $a \succ_i b$. Each $T_i \in T$ is a tier.

Note that every preference profile is tiered with a single tier trivially. When a preference profile has n tiers, it is a member of a preference domain containing n! profiles where each profile has the same radom assignment under the RP Rule.

The aforementioned *preference domain* can be constructed starting from any *tiered preference profile* it includes. To make it easier to deal with subsets of O , define the following:

Definition 2. Let ' $O \subseteq O$, $I' \subseteq I$, $\succ(I', O')$ be a preference profile such that for each $a, b \in O'$, $a \succ_i b$ if and only if $a \succ (I', O')_i b$. Then \succ' is a projection of \succ to the set O' .

Proposition 3. Let \succ, \succ' be two tiered preference profiles with tiers T and T'. If T and T' are the same partitions of O with a different order and for each $T_m \in T, T', \succ(T_m) = \succ'(T_m)$, then the random assignments the RP Rule gives for the problems (O, I, \succ) and (O, I, \succ') are equal.

Proof. This proof shows that there exists a bijection from the ex-post assignments of the problem (O, I, \succ) to the *assignments* of the *problem* (O, I, \succ') .

In any ordering $I_{\#}$ picked for the RP Rule in (O, I, \rangle) , the first $|T_1|$ picks will be from T_1 . Then the next $|T_2|$ picks will be from T_2 and so on due to the tiered profile.

Let $c_m = |T_m|$ and divide the ordering $I_{\#}$ to *n* tiers:

from
$$
T_1
$$
 from T_2 ... from T_n
\n $p_1^1, p_1^2, \ldots, p_1^{c_1}, p_2^1, p_2^2, \ldots, p_2^{c_2}, \ldots, p_n^1, p_n^2, \ldots, p_n^{c_n}$ \n
$$
(5)
$$

Here p_m^r corresponds to the r'th pick from the m'th tier.

For $I_{\#}$ see that the k'th pick p_k corresponds to

$$
p_k = p_m^r, \text{ where } j = r + \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} c_j \tag{6}
$$

This means for a set of tiers \mathcal{T}_m with

$$
\mathcal{T}_m = \{ T_o \mid \forall i \in I, a \in T_o, b \in T_m \implies a \succ_i b \}
$$
\n
$$
(7)
$$

there exists the following relation:

$$
p_k = p_m^r, \text{ where } k = r + \sum_{T_o \in \mathcal{T}_m} |T| \tag{8}
$$

This fact leads to a natural mapping $P^*:\{1,...,n\}\to\{1,...,n\}$ from the picks of (O,I,\succ) to the picks of (O, I, \succ') . For each $p_k \in I_{\#}$, let

$$
P^*(p_k) = p_m^r, \text{ where } k = r + \sum_{T_o \in \mathcal{T}'_m} |T| \tag{9}
$$

given that

$$
\mathcal{T}'_m = \{ T_o \mid \forall i \in I, a \in T_o, b \in T_m \implies a \succ'_i b \}
$$
\n
$$
(10)
$$

The ordering $I'_\# = \{P^*(p_k)\}$ results in the same *assignment* for the problem (O, I, \succ') that $I_\#$ results in (O, I, \succ) .

The final thing to do is to show P^* is a bijection. Because P^* maps a finite domain to itself, being an injection implies being a bijection. Let α, β be permutations over tier numbers $(1 \dots m)$ and assume that $P^*(\alpha) = P^*(\beta)$. By the definition of $P^*, \alpha = \beta$. Both the changes in orders within a tier and in orders between tiers changes the resulting order.

Thus, P^* is injective and therefore bijective. Since each ordering in (O, I, \rangle) is mapped to one ordering in $(0, I, \succ)$, their *random assignments* are equal to one another. \Box

By this proof, each tier is shown to be independent from each other under the RP Rule. This leads to the following result.

Corollary 1. Let \succ be a tiered preference profile with tiers $T = \{T_1, T_2, ..., T_n\}$ and $Q^m = \begin{bmatrix} q_{ia}^m \end{bmatrix}$ be the random assignment given by the RP Rule for the problem $(T_m, I, \succ(T_m))$. Then,

$$
Q = \sum_{m=1}^{n} Q^m = \left[\sum_{m=1}^{n} q_{ia}^m\right]
$$
\n
$$
(11)
$$

 \Box

As ordinal efficiency of a preference profile only depends on the random assignment, the equivalence of the random assignments imply the equivalence of ordinal efficiency. Thus, problems can be divided to decrease the number of objects in our problem thanks to the tier structure:

Corollary 2. Let \succ be a tiered preference profile with tiers $T = \{T_1, T_2, ..., T_n\}$. Q is ordinally efficient if and only if each random assignment Q^m given by the RP Rule for $(T_m, I, \succ(T_m))$ is ordinally efficient.

Using tier structure, [Remark 1](#page-8-0) can be generalized to a larger preference domain:

Proposition 4. Let \succ be a tiered preference profile with tiers $T = \{T_1, ..., T_n\}$. Q is not ordinally efficient if for any $T_m \in T$, the requirements of [Remark 1](#page-8-0) is satisfied.

Proof. Follows directly from [Corollary 2](#page-9-0) and [Remark 1.](#page-8-0)

This condition is clearly sufficient for ordinal inefficiency, and it is also necessary for problems with few objects:

Proposition 5. Let \succ be tiered and T_m be a tier with $|T_m| \leq 2$.

Then the random assignment Q^m given by the RP Rule for $(T_m, I, \succ(T_m))$ is ordinally efficient if $\succ(T_m)$ doesn't satisfy the conditions in [Remark 1.](#page-8-0)

Proof. Let $A = \{i \mid a \succ_i b\}$, $B = \{i \mid b \succ_i a\} = I - A$ and assume $|B| \leq |A|$ without loss of generalization. If the tier has two objects and does not satisfy [Remark 1](#page-8-0)'s conditions, then there we will have $|A| \leq 1$. \Box This is shown to be efficient in [Proposition 1.](#page-7-0)

5 Reduction Operation on Preference Profiles

By [Proposition 3,](#page-8-1) we have obtained a way to decrease the number of *objects* in some *preference profiles*. This is important because we can fully determine *ordinal efficiency* by decreasing the number of objects to two. Separating to tiers is useful, but it requires a special preference domain structure. Here we introduce a method to decrease the number of objects in almost any preference domain.

Consider the following slight variation to the RP Rule: Instead of determining an ordering of the agents first, we randomly select an agent at the start of each turn. This variation still produces the same assignments with the same probabilities, thus it is equivalent to the RP Rule.

Using this variation, after the first turn we'll again be left with a *problem* that lacks one agent and their first ranked object by the recursive nature of this rule. this will again be a *problem*. To establish the new problem's relation with the initial problem, we define it as an *immediate subproblem*:

Definition 3. If $r_i(a) = 1$, the following problem is an immediate subproblem of (O, I, \succ) :

$$
D_{ia}(O, I, \succ) = (O - \{a\}, I - \{i\}, \succ (O - \{a\}, I - \{i\}))
$$
\n(12)

For a problem; the immediate subproblems, the immediate subproblems of its immediate subproblems and so on are the problem's subproblems.

The set of all immediate subproblems of a problem (O, I, \rangle) is a decomposition

$$
\mathcal{D}(O, I, \succ) = \{D_{ia} \mid i \in I, a \in O, r_i(a) = 1\}
$$

Thus, there are |I| immediate subproblems of a problem with each immediate subproblem having $|I|-1$ agents and $|O| - 1$ objects.

With the RP Rule, every agent has an equal chance of acting first and taking their first ranked object. Using this fact, we write the random assignment of a problem as a sum of the random assignments of its immediate subproblems.

Remark 2. Let D be the decomposition of (O, I, \succ) , Q_{ia} the random assignment given by the RP Rule for each $D_{ia}(O,I,\succ) \in \mathcal{D}$ and Q_f be a matrix with $q_{ia}^f = 1/|I|$ if $r_i(a) = 1$ and 0 otherwise. Then,

$$
Q = Q_f + \frac{1}{|I|} \sum_{i \in I} Q_{ia} \tag{13}
$$

Being able to remove any object from the problem is useful due to [Proposition 5,](#page-10-0) but with each decomposition the number of *subproblems* increases combinatorially.

We can mitigate this by assigning objects to agents simultaneously. For an object a , if we have two agents i and j who rank a first, the decomposition includes both $D_{ia}(O, I, \rangle)$ and $D_{ja}(O, I, \rangle)$. This means that both i and j can be assigned an object that is not a. By merging such similar subproblems we can avoid the combinatorial increase in numbers.

We propose *reduction* as a method of merging such *subproblems*. Unlike *decomposition*, we will need to keep track of the objects we've removed and the agents who *ranked* the object first, because we want to be able to obtain the subproblems by solely using the reduced form of the problem.

Before we define it, as an example consider the following preference profile \succeq :

$$
a \succ_1 b \succ_1 c \succ_1 d
$$

\n
$$
a \succ_2 b \succ_2 c \succ_2 d
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_3 a \succ_3 d \succ_3 c
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_4 a \succ_4 d \succ_4 c
$$

\n(14)

If a is assigned first, then only agents 1 or 2 may have taken it. This corresponds to the *immediate* subproblems obtained by applying D_{1a} or D_{2a} with the following preference profiles:

$$
b \succ_2 c \succ_2 d
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_3 d \succ_3 c
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_4 d \succ_4 c
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_4 d \succ_4 c
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_4 d \succ_4 c
$$

\n
$$
(15)
$$

Instead of dealing with these separately, we can merge them to a single preference profile. To keep track of which subproblems we've merged, we use a merge set:

Definition 4. For $a \in O$, the merge set of a collection of immediate subproblems which lack the same object a, ie $\{D_{ia}(O, I, \rangle) | r_i(a) = 1\}$ is a set containing a tuple of the object a and the set of agents who rank a first, ie $\{(a, \{i \mid r_i(a) = 1\})\}.$

With a *merge set* $\{(a, \{1, 2\})\}$, the merged profile becomes:

$$
b \succ_1 c \succ_1 d
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_2 c \succ_2 d
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_3 d \succ_3 c
$$

\n
$$
b \succ_4 d \succ_4 c
$$

\n(16)

This gives the *preference profile* of the *reduction* of (O, I, \succ) with the object a.

Definition 5. Let I_a be the set of agents with $r_i(a) = 1$, $|I_a| > 2$ and $\{(a, I_a)\}\)$ the merge set of ${D_{ia}(O, I, \succ) | i \in I_a}$. Then the reduced problem *obtained by removing the object a from* (O, I, \succ) is a quadruple $(O - \{a\}, I, \succ (O - \{a\}), \{(a, I_a)\})$, also denoted by $R_a(O, I, \succ)$.

The merge set intuitively defines how to obtain the merged subproblems and subsequently which ex-post assignments are possible. We say that the reduced problem induces those subproblems.

Definition 6. Let $(O', I, \succ(O'), \mathcal{I}_*)$ be a reduced problem, $a \in O'$ and $I_a = \{i \mid r_i(a) = 1\}$. $(O', I, \succ(O'), \mathcal{I}_*)$ is reducible by an object a if for each $i \in I$, $R_a(O', I, \succ(O'), \mathcal{I}_*)$ induces a problem $(O' - \{a\}, I', \succ(O' - \{a\})$ $\{a\}, I')$ with $I' \subseteq I$ and $i \in I'$.

Reduction also be applied to reduced problems. To reduce a reduced problem which induces subproblems $D_{ia}(O, I, \rangle)$, we consider the *decomposition* of each $D_{ia}(O, I, \rangle)$ and pick the *subproblems* that lack b. This gives us the collection $\{D_{jb}D_{ia}(O, I, \rangle\}$ and subsequently the merge set $\{(a, I_a), (b, I_b)\}$ where $I_a = \{i \mid r_i(a) = 1\}$ and $I_b = \{i \mid r_i(b) = 1 \text{ with respect to } \succ(O')\}.$

Reducing a reduced problem simply involves removing the related object from the reduced problem and obtaining the related merge set.

In our example, the only object that can be assigned in the next turn is b , as all agents rank b first. We add them to the *merge set*, which becomes $\{(a, {1, 2}), (b, {1, 2, 3, 4})\}$. The preference profile is reduced to:

$$
c \succ_1 d
$$

\n
$$
c \succ_2 d
$$

\n
$$
d \succ_3 c
$$

\n
$$
d \succ_4 c
$$
\n(17)

This profile only contains two objects and thus can be characterized as *ordinally efficient* or not by [Proposition 5.](#page-10-0) This twice reduced problem corresponds to six subproblems of (O, I, \succ) and the ratio of subproblems to reduced problems will increase with each reduction.

Note that in the merge set, for each agent i there should exist an ex-post assignment where agent i is not assigned any object, so that the agent i is included in the *induced subproblem*. Thus not every reduced problem is further reducible:

To avoid inspecting a large number of subproblems, we use the following equivalent condition on reducibility:

Definition 7. Let $(O', I, \succ (O'), \mathcal{I}_*)$ be a reduced problem obtained by repeatedly reducing a problem when it was possible, O_r the set of reduced objects, $a \in O'$, and I_a the set of agents who rank a first.

Then, $(O', I, \succ(O'), \mathcal{I}_*)$ is reducible by a if a is multi first ranked and for each agent i, the resulting reduced problem induces a subproblem that includes i.

If we apply reduction to a reduced problem with multi first ranked objects but all of its induced subproblems lack some agent i, that agent will not be able to obtain the objects that are not possibly assigned to them in the merge set, or not ranked first. This gives way to the following result:

Proposition 6. For a problem (O, I, \succ) with $i \in I$ and $a \in O$, $q_{ia} > 0$ if and only if there exists a reduced problem $(O', I, \succ (O'), \mathcal{I}_*)$ with $r_i(a) = 1$.

Proof. Let $q_{ia} > 0$. Then there exists an ex-post assignment where i obtains a. Let the ordering of the agents leading to this result be $(j_1, ..., j_n, i, ...)$ with j_k obtaining b_k . If $r_i(a) = 1$, then we're done. Else, i ranks one of b_k first. It is also clear that each j_k rank one of b_k first. Since there are n of b_k and $n+1$ agents who rank one of b_k first, at least one of b_k should be *multi first ranked*. Thus, we can reduce the problem and eliminate one of b_k .

For the subsequent *reductions*, assume that the *reduced problem* is not *reducible*. So there exists a collection of objects O_b that less than $|O_b| + 1$ agents can only obtain objects from O_b (withholding further reductions). Even without those agents, the number of the remaining agents is still more than

the number of remaining objects. Thus, the *reduced problem* must be further *reducible* when there is b_k with $r_i(b_k) = 1$. By repeatedly *reducing*, we find a *reduced problem* with $r_i(a) = 1$.

Assume there exists a *reduced problem* with $r_i(a) = 1$. Following the reduction sequence $b_1,...b_n$, create an ordering $(j_1, ..., j_n, i, ...)$ with $j_1 \in I_{b_1}$. Applying the RP Rule with this ordering results in an ex-post assignment where i obtains a. Thus, $q_{ia} > 0$. \Box

With this result, we can construct $\tau(Q, \succ)$ of a problem (O, I, \succ) using reduction without exact knowledge of Q as $\tau(Q, \succ)$ only depends on whether each $q_{ia} > 0$ or not.

Definition 8. We apply the Reduction Algorithm as follows:

- 1. Start with a problem (O, I, \succ) and $Q^+ = 0$.
- 2. If the problem is not reducible, set $q_{ia}^+ = 1$ for all i, a with $r_i(a) = 1$ and end the algorithm.
- 3. Obtain reduced problems by applying reduction for each multiple first ranked object. Set $q_{ia}^+ = 1$ if $i \in I_a$ when applying R_a .
- 4. For each reduced problem, iterate the algorithm from step 2.

Due [Proposition 6,](#page-12-0) this algorithm fully identifies $\tau(Q, \rangle)$ and *ordinal efficiency*.

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