

Descending the Stable Matching Lattice: How many Strategic Agents are required to turn Pessimality to Optimality?

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Abstract

The set of stable matchings induces a distributive lattice. The supremum of the stable matching lattice is the boy-optimal (girl-pessimal) stable matching and the infimum is the girl-optimal (boy-pessimal) stable matching. The classical boy-proposal deferred-acceptance algorithm returns the supremum of the lattice, that is, the boy-optimal stable matching. In this paper, we study the smallest group of girls, called the *minimum winning coalition of girls*, that can act strategically, but independently, to force the boy-proposal deferred-acceptance algorithm to output the girl-optimal stable matching. We characterize the minimum winning coalition in terms of stable matching rotations and show that its cardinality can take on any value between 0 and $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$, for instances with n boys and n girls. Our two main results concern the random matching model. First, the expected cardinality of the minimum winning coalition is small, specifically $(\frac{1}{2} + o(1)) \log n$. This resolves a conjecture of Kupfer [17]. Second, in contrast, a randomly selected coalition must contain nearly every girl to ensure it is a winning coalition almost surely. Equivalently, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, the probability a random group of $(1 - \varepsilon)n$ girls is *not* a winning coalition is at least $\delta(\varepsilon) > 0$.

Abrégé

L'ensemble des mariages stables forme un treillis distributif. La borne supérieure du treillis des mariages stables est optimale pour les hommes et la borne inférieure est optimale pour les femmes. L'algorithme classique de Gale et Shapley où les hommes se proposent permet d'obtenir la borne supérieure du treillis, les mariages optimaux pour les hommes. Dans cette thèse, nous étudions le groupe le plus petit de femmes, que nous appelons une coalition gagnante de femmes, pouvant agir de façon stratégique mais indépendante pour forcer l'algorithme à retourner les mariages optimaux pour les femmes. Nous caractérisons ces coalitions gagnantes en utilisant des rotations et nous montrons que la taille de la plus petite coalition peut prendre toute valeur entre 0 et $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$, lorsqu'il y a n hommes et n femmes. Nos deux résultats principaux concernent le modèle où les préférences de tous les agents sont aléatoires. D'abord, nous montrons que la taille espérée d'une coalition gagnante minimale est petite, étant $(\frac{1}{2} + o(1)) \log n$. Ce résultat résout une conjecture de Kupfer [17]. Cependant, notre deuxième résultat montre que lorsque la coalition est choisie aléatoirement, la coalition doit contenir presque toutes les femmes pour garantir que c'est une coalition gagnante presque sûrement. Autrement dit, pour tout $\varepsilon > 0$, la probabilité qu'un groupe de $(1 - \varepsilon)n$ femmes ne soit pas une coalition gagnant est au moins $p(\varepsilon) > 0$.

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Contribution of Authors

The body of this Thesis is joint work with Professor Adrian Vetta and Professor Sergey Norin.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

We study the stable matching problem with n boys and n girls. Each boy has a preference ranking over the girls and vice versa. A matching is *stable* if there is no boy-girl pair that prefer each other over their current partners in the matching. A stable matching always exists and can be found by the deferred-acceptance algorithm [5]. Furthermore, the set of stable matchings forms a lattice whose supremum matches each boy to his *best* stable-partner and each girl to her *worst* stable-partner. This matching is called the *boy-optimal* (girl-pessimal) stable matching. Conversely, the infimum of the lattice matches each boy to his worst stable-partner and each girl to her best stable-partner. Consequently this matching is called the *girl-optimal* (boy-pessimal) stable matching.

Interestingly, the deferred-acceptance algorithm outputs the optimal stable matching for the proposing side. Perhaps surprisingly, the choice of which side makes the proposal can make a significant difference. For example, for the random matching model, where the preference list of each boy and girl is sampled uniformly and independently, Pittel [19] showed the boy-proposal deferred acceptance algorithm assigns the boys with much better ranking partners than the girls. Specifically, with high probability, the sum of the partner ranks is close to $n \log n$ for the boys and close to $\frac{n^2}{\log n}$ for the girls. Hence, on average, each boy ranks his partner at position $\log n$ at the boy-optimal stable matching while each girl only ranks her partner at position $\frac{n}{\log n}$. Consequently, collectively the

girls may have a much higher preference for the infimum (girl-optimal) stable matching than the supremum (girl-pessimal) stable matching output by the boy-proposal deferred-acceptance algorithm.

Remarkably, Ashlagi et al. [1] proved that in an *unbalanced market* with one fewer girls than boys this advantage to the boys is reversed. In the random matching model, with high probability, each girl is matched to a boy she ranks at $\log n$ on average and each boy is matched to a girl he ranks at $\frac{n}{\log n}$ on average, even using the boy-proposal deferred-acceptance algorithm.¹ Kupfer [17] then showed a similar effect arises in a balanced market in which exactly one girl acts strategically. The expected rank of the partner of each girl improves to $O(\log^4 n)$ while the expected rank of the partner of each boy deteriorates to $\Omega(\frac{n}{\log^{2+\epsilon} n})$. Thus, just one strategic girl suffices for the stable matching output by the boy-proposal deferred-acceptance algorithm to change from the supremum of the lattice to a stable matching “close” to the infimum. But how many strategic girls are required to guarantee the infimum itself is output? Kupfer [17] conjectured that $O(\log n)$ girls suffice in expectation. In this thesis we prove this conjecture. More precisely, we show that the minimum number of strategic girls required is $\frac{1}{2} \log n + O(\log \log n) = (\frac{1}{2} + o(1)) \log n$ in expectation. Consequently, the expected cardinality of the optimal winning coalition of girls is relatively small.

Conversely, a random coalition of girls must be extremely large, namely of cardinality $n - o(n)$, if it is to be a winning coalition with high probability. We prove that, for any $\epsilon > 0$, the probability a random group of $(1 - \epsilon)n$ girls is *not* a winning coalition is at least a constant.

1.1 Overview

In Chapter 2, we present the relevant background on the stable matching problem, in particular, concerning the stable matching lattice and the rotation poset. In Chapter 3, we

¹In fact, an unbalanced market essentially contains a unique stable matching; see [1] for details.

give all the tools that are used to prove the main results of the thesis. In Section 3.1 we provide a characterization of winning coalitions of girls in terms of minimal rotations in the rotation poset. This allows us to show that for general stable matching instances the cardinality of the minimum winning coalition may take on every integral value between a lower bound of 0 and an upper bound of $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$. In Section 3.2, we present an example to illustrate the relevant stable matching concepts and ideas used in the thesis. In Section 3.3, we present the random matching model studied for the main results of the thesis. In Chapter 4 we present the main results of the thesis. Our first main result is given in Section 4.1 and shows that in random instances the cardinality of the minimum winning coalition is much closer to the lower bound than the upper bound. Specifically, in the random matching model, the expected cardinality of the minimum winning coalition is $\frac{1}{2} \log n + O(\log \log n)$. Our second main result is presented in Section 4.2 and shows that for a randomly selected coalition to be a winning coalition with probability $1 - o(1)$, it must have cardinality $n - o(n)$.

Chapter 2

The Stable Matching Problem

Here we review the stable matching problem and the concepts and results relevant to this thesis. The reader is referred to the book [10] by Gusfield and Irving for a comprehensive introduction to stable matchings. An illustrative example, defined in Table 1, will also be presented in Section 3.2. We remark that this example is deferred until all the relevant concepts have been defined (indeed, it will be clearer to present the structural properties of the example in a different order than how they are defined in this review).

We are given a set $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ of boys and a set $G = \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n\}$ of girls. Every boy $b \in B$ has a preference ranking \succ_b over the girls; similarly, every girl $g \in G$ has a preference ranking \succ_g over the boys. Now let μ be a (perfect) matching between the boys and girls. We say that boy b is matched to girl $\mu(b)$ in the matching μ ; similarly, girl g is matched to boy $\mu(g)$. Boy b and girl g form a *blocking pair* $\{b, g\}$ if they prefer each other to their partners in the matching μ ; that is $g \succ_b \mu(b)$ **and** $b \succ_g \mu(g)$. A matching μ that contains no blocking pair is called *stable*; otherwise it is unstable. In the *stable matching problem*, the task is to find a stable matching.

2.1 The Deferred-Acceptance Algorithm

The first question to answer is whether or not a stable matching is guaranteed to exist. Indeed a stable matching always exists, as shown in the seminal work of Gale and Shapley [5]. Their proof was constructive; the *deferred-acceptance algorithm*, described in Algorithm 1, outputs a stable matching.

Algorithm 1: Deferred-Acceptance (Boy-Proposal Version)

```
while there is an unmatched boy  $b$  do
    Let  $b$  propose to his favourite girl  $g$  who has not yet rejected him;
    if  $g$  is unmatched then
        |  $g$  provisionally matches with  $b$ ;
    else if  $g$  is provisionally matched to  $\hat{b}$  then
        |  $g$  provisionally matches to her favourite of  $b$  and  $\hat{b}$ , and rejects the other;
```

The key observation here is that only a girl can reject a provisional match. Thus, from a girl's perspective, her provisional match can only improve as the algorithm runs. It follows that the deferred-acceptance algorithm terminates when every girl has received at least one proposal. In addition, from a boy's perspective, his provisional match can only get worse as the algorithm runs. Indeed, it would be pointless for a boy to propose to girl who has already rejected him. Thus, each boy will make at most n proposals. Furthermore, because each boy makes proposals in decreasing order of preference, every girl must eventually receive a proposal. Thus the deferred-acceptance algorithm must terminate with a perfect matching μ . At this point all provisional matches are made permanent. But why will this permanent set of matches μ form a stable matching? The proof is simple and informative, so we include it for completeness.

Theorem 2.1.1 (Gale and Shapley 1962 [5]). *The deferred-acceptance algorithm outputs a stable matching.*

Proof. Suppose $\{b, g\}$ is a blocking pair for μ . Then boy b prefers girl g over girl $\hat{g} = \mu(b)$,

that is $g \succ_b \mu(b)$. So b must have proposed to g before proposing to \hat{g} . Then g must have rejected b . Either she rejected b at the time of the proposal or she provisionally accepted his offer but later rejected him after receiving a better offer. As her provisional partner only improves over time, it follows that girl g prefers her final permanent partner $\hat{b} = \mu(g)$ over b . That is, $\mu(g) \succ_g b$, and so $\{b, g\}$ is not a blocking pair. \square

2.2 The Stable Matching Lattice

So a stable matching always exists. In fact, there may be an exponential number of stable matchings [15]; see Theorem 3.1.4 for an example. The set \mathcal{M} of all stable matchings forms a poset (\mathcal{M}, \geq) whose order \geq is defined via the preference lists of the boys. Specifically, $\mu_1 \geq \mu_2$ if and only if every boy weakly prefers their partner in the stable matching μ_1 to their partner in the stable matching μ_2 ; that is $\mu_1(b) \succeq_b \mu_2(b)$, for every boy b .

Conway (see Knuth [15]) observed that the poset (\mathcal{M}, \geq) is in fact a *distributive lattice*. Thus, by the lattice property, each pair of stable matchings μ_1 and μ_2 has a *join* (least upper bound) and a *meet* (greatest lower bound) in the lattice. Moreover, the join $\hat{\mu} = \mu_1 \vee \mu_2$ has the remarkable property that each boy b is matched to his *most preferred* partner amongst the girls $\mu_1(b)$ and $\mu_2(b)$. Similarly, in the meet $\check{\mu} = \mu_1 \wedge \mu_2$ each boy is matched to his *least preferred* partner amongst the girls $\mu_1(b)$ and $\mu_2(b)$. In particular, in the *supremum* $\mathbf{1} = \bigvee_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \mu$ of the lattice each boy is matched to his most preferred partner from any stable matching (called his *best stable-partner*). Accordingly, the matching $\mathbf{1}$ is called the *boy-optimal* stable matching. On the other hand, in the *infimum* $\mathbf{0} = \bigwedge_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \mu$ of the lattice each boy is matched to his least preferred partner from any stable matching (called his *worst stable-partner*). Accordingly, the matching $\mathbf{0}$ is called the *boy-pessimal* stable matching.

Theorem 2.2.1. [5] *The deferred-acceptance algorithm outputs the boy-optimal stable matching.*

Proof. If not, let b be the first boy rejected by a stable partner, say g , during the course of the deferred-acceptance algorithm. Assume there is a stable matching $\hat{\mu}$ in which the pair (b, g) is matched and assume that g rejects b in favour of the boy \hat{b} . By assumption

b was the first boy rejected by a stable partner so boy \hat{b} had not been rejected by any stable-partner when g rejected b . Thus \hat{b} prefers g over any stable partner. In particular, he prefers g over his stable partner $\hat{\mu}(b) \neq g$. But then $g \succ_{\hat{b}} \hat{\mu}(\hat{b})$ and $\hat{b} \succ_g \hat{\mu}(g) = b$. Hence, $\{\hat{b}, g\}$ is a blocking pair for the matching $\hat{\mu}$, a contradiction. \square

The reader may have observed that the description of the deferred-acceptance algorithm given in Algorithm 1 is ill-specified. In particular, which unmatched boy is selected to make the next proposal? Theorem 2.2.1 explains the laxity of our description. It is irrelevant which unmatched boy is chosen in each step, the final outcome is guaranteed to be the boy-optimal stable matching! In fact, the original description of the algorithm by Gale and Shapley [5] allowed for simultaneous proposals by unmatched boys – again this has no effect on the stable matching output.

The inverse poset (\mathcal{M}, \leq) is also of fundamental interest. Indeed, McVitie and Wilson [18] made the surprising observation that (\mathcal{M}, \leq) is the lattice defined using the preference lists of the girls rather than the boys. That is, every boy weakly prefers their partner in the stable matching μ_1 to their partner in the stable matching μ_2 if and only if every girl weakly prefers their partner in the stable matching μ_2 to their partner in the stable matching μ_1 .

Theorem 2.2.2. [18] *If $\mu_1 \geq \mu_2$ in the lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) then every girl weakly prefers μ_2 over μ_1 .*

Proof. Assume there is a girl g who prefers boy $b = \mu_1(g)$ over boy $\mu_2(g)$. But, by assumption, boy b prefers $g = \mu_1(b)$ over girl $\mu_2(b)$. Thus $\{b, g\}$ is a blocking pair for the matching μ_2 , a contradiction. \square

Consequently, the boy-optimal stable matching 1 is also the *girl-pessimal* stable matching and the boy-pessimal stable matching 0 is the *girl-optimal* stable matching.

For our example, the set of stable matchings and the stable matching lattice are shown in Table 3 and Figure 3 of Section 3.2, respectively.

2.3 The Rotation Poset

Recall that the lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) is a *distributive* lattice. This is important because the *fundamental theorem for finite distributive lattices* of Birkhoff [2] states that associated with any distributive lattice \mathcal{L} is a unique *auxiliary poset* $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{L})$. Specifically, the order ideals (or down-sets) of the auxiliary poset \mathcal{P} , ordered by inclusion, form the lattice \mathcal{L} . We refer the reader to the book of Stanley [22] for details on the fundamental theorem for finite distributive lattices. For our purposes, however, it is sufficient to note that the auxiliary poset \mathcal{P} for the stable matching lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) has an elegant combinatorial description that is very amenable in studying stable matchings.

In particular, the auxiliary poset for the stable matching lattice is called the *rotation poset* $\mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{R}, \geq)$ and was first discovered by Irving and Leather [12]. The elements of the auxiliary poset are *rotations*. Informally, given a stable matching μ , a rotation will rearrange the partners of a suitably chosen subset of the boys in a circular fashion to produce another stable matching. Formally, a rotation $R \in \mathcal{R}$ is a subset of the pairs in the stable matching $\mu, R = [(b_0, g_0), (b_1, g_1), \dots, (b_k, g_k)]$, such that for each boy b_i , the girl $g_{i+1 \pmod{k+1}}$ is the first girl *after* his current stable-partner g_i on his preference list who would accept a proposal from him. That is, g_{i+1} prefers boy b_i over her current partner boy b_{i+1} and every girl g that boy b_i ranks on his list between g_i and g_{i+1} prefers her current partner in μ over b_i .

In this case, we say that R is a *rotation exposed* by the stable matching μ . Let $\hat{\mu} = \mu \otimes R$ be the perfect matching obtained by matching boy b_i with the girl $g_{i+1 \pmod{k+1}}$, for each $0 \leq i \leq k$, with all other matches the same as in μ . Irving and Leather [12] showed that $\hat{\mu}$ is also a stable matching. More importantly they proved:

Theorem 2.3.1. [12] *The matching $\hat{\mu}$ is covered¹ by μ in the Hasse diagram of the stable matching lattice if and only if $\hat{\mu} = \mu \otimes R$ for some rotation R exposed by μ . \square*

Theorem 2.3.1 implies that we may traverse the stable matching lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) using

¹We say y is *covered* by x in a poset if $x \geq y$ and there is no element z such that $x \geq z \geq y$.

rotations. As stated, we may also derive a poset $\mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{R}, \geq)$ whose elements are rotations. Let \mathcal{R}_μ be the set of all rotations exposed in μ . Then $\mathcal{R} = \bigcup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \mathcal{R}_\mu$ is the set of all rotations. We then define the partial order \geq as follows. Let $R_1 \geq R_2$ in \mathcal{P} *if and only if* for any stable matching $\mu_1 \in \{\mu \in \mathcal{M} : R_1 \in \mathcal{R}_\mu\}$ and any stable matching $\mu_2 \in \{\mu \in \mathcal{M} : R_2 \in \mathcal{R}_\mu\}$, either μ_1 and μ_2 are incomparable or $\mu_1 \geq \mu_2$ in (\mathcal{M}, \geq) . This rotation poset $\mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{R}, \geq)$ is the auxiliary poset for the stable matching lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) ; see Gusfield and Irving [10]. In particular, there is a bijection between stable matchings and *antichains* of the rotation poset.

The set of rotations and the rotation poset for our running example are illustrated in Table 2 and Figure 2 of Section 3.2, respectively.

We remark that, unlike the stable matching lattice, the cardinality of the rotation poset is always polynomial. Specifically, any boy-girl pair $\{b, g\}$ can appear in at most one rotation [12]. It immediately follows that the rotation poset has at most $O(n^2)$ elements; in fact, Gusfield [9] showed how to find all the rotations in $O(n^2)$ time.

2.4 The Rotation Graph

For any stable matching $\mu = \{(b_1, g_1), (b_2, g_2), \dots, (b_n, g_n)\}$ we define an auxiliary directed graph $H(\mu)$. This graph, which we call the (*exposed*) *rotation graph*, has a vertex i for each boy b_i . There is an arc from i to j if the next girl on b_i 's list to prefer b_i over her current partner is g_j . If for some b_i , no such girl exists, then i has out-degree 0; otherwise it has out-degree 1. By definition, the rotations exposed in μ are exactly the cycles of $H(\mu)$. (See Figure 1 in Section 3.2 for the rotation-graph $H(1)$ for the running example.) For example, if $\mu = 1$ then $H(1)$ consists of the set of rotations exposed in the boy-optimal stable matching. We call these the *maximal rotations*.

A rotation R exposed in μ is *minimal* if $\mu \otimes R = \mathbf{0}$. Equivalently, the *minimal rotations* are the set of rotations exposed in the girl-optimal stable matching $\mathbf{0}$ when ordering using the preferences of the girls rather than the boys.

2.5 The Number of Stable Partners

Throughout the thesis, we will be looking at the case in which the preferences are uniform and random, this will be described in further detail in Section 3.3.

In this model, Knuth et al. [16] have shown that for any constant $c < \frac{1}{2}$ and $C > 1$, a given agent has between $c \log(n)$ and $C \log(n)$ distinct stable partners. As stated in the introduction, each agent is expected to have an optimal partner whose rank is close to $\log(n)$ and a pessimal partner whose rank is close to $\frac{n}{\log(n)}$. So, in this model, an agent is expected to have $\Theta(\log(n))$ stable partners, whose ranks are scattered between $\log(n)$ and $\frac{n}{\log(n)}$.

This is not always the case. For instance, in an unbalanced market, in which the shorter side is expected to have the advantage, the boy optimal stable matching and the girl optimal stable matching are nearly the same as was shown by Ashlagi et al. [1]. Similarly, if the preferences of the agents are correlated, such as in the popularity model introduced by Immorlica and Mahdian[11], it was shown by Gimbert et al.[7] that the agents get less stable partners. Finally, when the agents only rank $d = o(\log^2(n))$ potential partners, Kanoria et al. [14] have shown that both sides are expected to get partners they rank around \sqrt{d} and have fewer stable partners.

Our main result, presented in Section 3.3 and proved in Chapter 4, will show how much of an impact the agents can have in the uniform matching model in which the agents have multiple stable partners.

Chapter 3

Main Tools

3.1 Incentives in the Stable Matchings Problem

Intuitively, because the deferred-acceptance algorithm outputs the boy-optimal stable matching, there is no incentive for a boy not to propose to the girls in order of preference. This fact was formally proven by Dubins and Freedman [3]. On the other hand, because the stable matching is girl-pessimal, it can be beneficial for a girl to strategize. Indeed, Roth [21] showed that no stable matching mechanism exists that is incentive compatible for every participant.

3.1.1 The Minimum Winning Coalition of Girls

The structure of the stable matching lattice \mathcal{L} is extremely useful in understanding the incentives that arise in the stable matching problem. For example, the following structure will be of importance in this thesis. Let $F \subseteq G$ be a group of girls and let \mathcal{M}_F be the collection of stable matchings where every girl in F is matched to their best stable-partner. Given the aforementioned properties of the join and meet operation in the stable matching lattice, it is easy to verify that $\mathcal{L}_F = (\mathcal{M}_F, \geq)$ is also a lattice. Thus, \mathcal{L}_F has a supremum 1_F which is the boy-optimal stable matching given that every girl in F is matched to their best stable-partner. Similarly, \mathcal{L}_F has a infimum 0_F which is the boy-pessimal stable

matching given that every girl in F is matched to their best stable-partner. Observe that $\mathbf{0}_F$ is the girl-optimal stable-matching $\mathbf{0}$, for any subset F of the girls.

Why is this useful here? Well, imagine that each girl in F rejects anyone who is not their best stable-partner. Then the deferred-acceptance algorithm will output the stable matching $\mathbf{1}_F$; see also Gale and Sotomayor [6] and Gonczarowski [8]. Of course, if $F = G$ then both $\mathbf{1}_G$ and $\mathbf{0}_G$ must match every girl to their optimal stable partner so $\mathbf{1}_G = \mathbf{0}_G = \mathbf{0}$.

We will call any $F \subseteq G$ such that $\mathbf{1}_F = \mathbf{0}$ a *winning coalition* and the smallest such group is called a *minimum winning coalition*. Winning coalitions can be found using the rotation poset.

Theorem 3.1.1. *A set of girls is a winning coalition if and only if it contains at least one girl from each minimal rotation in the rotation poset (\mathcal{R}, \geq)*

Proof. Let G^2 be the set of girls who have at least two stable-partners. For each girl $g_j \in G^2$, let \mathcal{M}_j be the set of stable matchings in which she is **not** matched to her best stable-partner. Then $\mathcal{L}_j = (\mathcal{M}_j, \geq)$ is a lattice with supremum $\mathbf{1}^j$ and infimum $\mathbf{0}^j$. Observe that $\mathbf{1}^j = \mathbf{1}$ and $\mathbf{0}^j \neq \mathbf{0}$.

Now let $\{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k\}$ be the minimal stable-matchings in the poset $(\mathcal{M} \setminus \mathbf{0}, \geq)$. That is, $\{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k\}$ is the set of matchings such that for any $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ and any stable matching $\mu \notin \{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k\} \cup \{\mathbf{0}\}$, there is a boy who strictly prefers μ over μ_i . For each $1 \leq \ell \leq k$, observe that $\mu_\ell = \mathbf{0}^j$ for some girl $g_j \in G^2$. But, if $\mu_\ell = \mathbf{0}^j$ then girl g_j must be matched to her best stable-partner in μ_i for any $i \neq \ell$. Otherwise, because $\mu_\ell \wedge \mu_i = \mathbf{0}$ in the stable matching lattice \mathcal{L} , it would be the case that girl g_j is not matched to her best stable-partner in $\mathbf{0}$, a contradiction. Let U_ℓ be the set of girls who are not matched to their best stable-partner in μ_ℓ . Thus, the sets U_1, \dots, U_k are non-empty and disjoint.

Let F be any group of girls that contains at least one girl from each set U_ℓ , for $1 \leq \ell \leq k$. We claim that $\mathbf{1}_F = \mathbf{0}$ and, consequently, F is a winning coalition. For each $1 \leq \ell \leq k$, at least one girl g_j in F is not matched to best stable-partner in μ_ℓ . Thus $\mu_\ell = \mathbf{0}^j > \mathbf{0}$. It follows immediately that there is a unique stable-matching, namely the girl-optimal

stable matching $\mathbf{0}$, that matches every girl in F to their best stable-partner. Hence, $\mathbf{1}_F = \mathbf{0}$ as claimed.

Conversely, let F be any group of girls such that for some ℓ , $F \cap U_\ell = \emptyset$. We claim that $\mathbf{1}_F \neq \mathbf{0}$ and, consequently, F is a losing coalition. By definition, every girl in F is matched to their best stable-partner in μ_ℓ . But then, by definition, $\mathbf{1}_F \geq \mu_\ell > \mathbf{0}$ as claimed.

Finally, observe that our definition of U_i is exactly the set of girls in the unique rotation exposed in μ_i which is a minimal rotation of the rotation poset (\mathcal{R}, \geq) which proves the statement of the theorem. \square

Theorem 3.1.1 allows us to find a minimum winning coalition.

Corollary 3.1.2. *The cardinality of the minimum winning coalition is equal to the cardinality of the set of minimal rotations in the rotation poset (\mathcal{R}, \geq) .*

Section 3.2 provides an illustration of how rotations correspond to stable matchings and gives a minimum winning coalition for the running example.

3.1.2 Efficiency and Extremal Properties

From the structure inherent in Theorem 3.1.1 and Corollary 3.1.2 we can make several straight-forward deductions regarding winning coalitions.

First, Theorem 3.1.1 implies that we have a polynomial algorithm to verify winning coalitions. Likewise Corollary 3.1.2 implies that we have a polynomial time algorithm to compute the minimum winning coalition. In fact, the techniques of Gusfield [9] (see also [10]) can now be used to solve both problems in $O(n^2)$ time.

Second, we can upper bound the cardinality of the minimum winning coalition.

Lemma 3.1.3. *In any stable matching problem the minimum winning coalition has cardinality at most $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$.*

Proof. Consider the minimal stable-matchings $\{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k\}$ in the poset $(\mathcal{M} \setminus \mathbf{0}, \geq)$. We claim $k \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$. To prove this, observe that since $\forall \ell \in [k] \mu_\ell \neq \mathbf{0}$ there must be at least

two girls who are not matched to their best stable-partners in the stable matching μ_ℓ . Furthermore, recall that each girl is matched to their best stable-partner in every matching $\{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k\}$ except at most one. It immediately follows that $k \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$. \square

Can this upper bound on the cardinality of the minimum winning coalition ever be obtained? The answer is yes. In fact, every integer between 0 and $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ can be the cardinality of the smallest winning coalition.

Theorem 3.1.4. *For each $0 \leq k \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ there exists a stable matching instance where the minimum winning coalition has cardinality exactly k .*

Proof. Take any $0 \leq k \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$. We construct a stable matching instance where the minimum winning coalition has cardinality exactly k as follows. For $2k + 1 \leq \ell \leq n$, let boy b_ℓ and girl g_ℓ rank each other top of their preference lists – the other rankings in their preference lists may be arbitrary. Thus, boy b_ℓ and girl g_ℓ must be matched together in every stable matching.

For $1 \leq \ell \leq k$, let boy $b_{2\ell-1}$ rank girl $g_{2\ell-1}$ first and girl $g_{2\ell}$ second and let boy $b_{2\ell}$ rank girl $g_{2\ell}$ first and girl $g_{2\ell-1}$ second. In contrast, let girl $g_{2\ell-1}$ rank boy $b_{2\ell}$ first and boy $b_{2\ell-1}$ second and let girl $g_{2\ell}$ rank boy $b_{2\ell-1}$ first and boy $b_{2\ell}$ second. Again, all other rankings may be arbitrary.

It is then easy to verify that two possibilities arise. In any stable matching for each $1 \leq \ell \leq k$ either (i) both boys $b_{2\ell-1}$ and $b_{2\ell}$ are matched to their best stable-partners, namely girls $g_{2\ell-1}$ and $g_{2\ell}$, respectively, or (ii) both boys $b_{2\ell-1}$ and $b_{2\ell}$ are matched to their worst stable-partners, namely girls $g_{2\ell}$ and $g_{2\ell-1}$, respectively.

But this implies that to obtain the girl-optimal stable matching at least one girl from the pair $\{g_{2\ell-1}, g_{2\ell}\}$ must misreport her preferences, for each $1 \leq \ell \leq k$. One girl from each of these pairs is also sufficient to output the girl-optimal stable matching. Thus the minimum winning coalition has cardinality exactly k . \square

We remark that the instances constructed in the proof of Theorem 3.1.4 have 2^k stable matchings. As k can be as large as $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$, this gives a simple proof of the well known fact that

the number of stable matchings may be exponential in the number of participants [15].

We now have all the tools required to address the main questions in this thesis. We will first, as promised, illustrate these tools using an example.

3.2 An Illustrative Example

Here we present an example to illustrate the main concepts covered in the thesis. This stable matching instance is derived from an example constructed by Irving et al. [13]. There are eight boys and eight girls whose preference rankings are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: A Stable Matching Instance.

Rank Boy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
b_1	g_4	g_3	g_8	g_1	g_2	g_5	g_7	g_6
b_2	g_3	g_7	g_5	g_8	g_6	g_4	g_1	g_2
b_3	g_7	g_5	g_8	g_3	g_6	g_2	g_1	g_4
b_4	g_6	g_4	g_2	g_7	g_3	g_1	g_5	g_8
b_5	g_8	g_7	g_1	g_5	g_6	g_4	g_3	g_2
b_6	g_5	g_4	g_7	g_6	g_2	g_8	g_3	g_1
b_7	g_1	g_4	g_5	g_6	g_2	g_8	g_3	g_7
b_8	g_2	g_5	g_4	g_3	g_7	g_8	g_1	g_6

Rank Girl	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
g_1	b_3	b_1	b_5	b_7	b_4	b_2	b_8	b_6
g_2	b_6	b_1	b_3	b_4	b_8	b_7	b_5	b_2
g_3	b_7	b_4	b_3	b_6	b_5	b_1	b_2	b_8
g_4	b_5	b_3	b_8	b_2	b_6	b_1	b_4	b_7
g_5	b_4	b_1	b_2	b_8	b_7	b_3	b_6	b_5
g_6	b_6	b_2	b_5	b_7	b_8	b_4	b_3	b_1
g_7	b_7	b_8	b_1	b_6	b_2	b_3	b_4	b_5
g_8	b_2	b_6	b_7	b_1	b_8	b_3	b_4	b_5

This instance has 23 stable matchings. To see this, let's begin by running the deferred acceptance algorithm (Algorithm 1) to find the boy-optimal stable matching. Observe that all the boys have different first preferences. Thus, the boys will consecutively each

propose to their first choice who will temporarily accept; once all the boys have proposed these matches will become permanent. Thus, the boy-optimal matching $\mathbf{1} = M_1$ simply matches each boy with his favourite girl. To find the remaining stable matchings, we swap partners using rotations.

We start by finding the rotations exposed at $\mathbf{1} = M_1$. To do this we simply search for the for directed cycles in the (*exposed*) rotation graph $H(\mathbf{1})$. Recall, this graph has eight vertices, one for each boy. The first vertex 1 corresponds to boy b_1 who is matched to girl g_4 in M_1 . If girl g_4 breaks up with b_1 then he will propose to his second choice, girl g_3 . She prefers him over her current partner b_2 so will accept this offer. Thus boy b_1 will gain the current partner of boy b_2 ; hence there is an arc $(1, 2)$ in the rotation graph $H(\mathbf{1})$. To find the outgoing arc at vertex 2 assume that g_3 does break-up with boy b_2 . He will then propose his second choice, girl g_7 . She prefers him over her current partner b_3 so will accept this offer. Thus, there is an arc at $(2, 3)$. Now $(b_3, g_7) \in M_1$ and if girl g_7 breaks-up with b_3 then he will next propose to g_5 . She will accept as she prefers b_3 over her current partner boy b_6 . So the rotation graph contains the arc $(3, 6)$. Next consider boy b_4 . If his partner, girl g_6 breaks up with him then he will propose to girl g_4 . She will reject this proposal as she prefers her current partner b_1 over b_4 . So b_4 will then propose to his third choice g_2 and this proposal will be accepted as she prefers him over her current partner b_8 . Hence $H(\mathbf{1})$ contains the arc $(4, 8)$. Continuing in this fashion, the reader can verify that the rotation graph $H(\mathbf{1})$ is as shown in Figure 1.

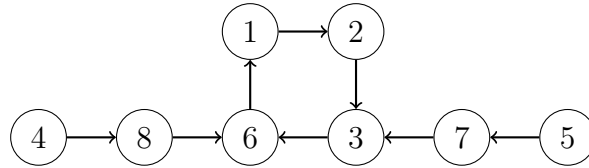


Figure 1: The (Exposed) Rotation Graph $H(\mathbf{1})$ at the Boy-Optimal Stable Matching.

Observe that the rotation graph $H(M_1)$ contains a single cycle $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_6\}$. Consequently, there is exactly one exposed rotation, namely $\rho_1 = \{(b_1, g_4), (b_2, g_3), (b_3, g_7), (b_6, g_5)\}$. We remark that this is the unique maximal rotation for this stable matching instance. Thus

from $M_1 = (g_4, g_3, g_7, g_6, g_8, g_5, g_1, g_2)$ we may create one new stable matching by performing the rotation ρ_1 . Specifically, we rotate the partners of the boys $\{b_1, b_2, b_3, b_6\}$. This gives the stable matching $M_2 = (g_3, g_7, g_5, g_6, g_8, g_4, g_1, g_2)$.

Similarly, for M_2 the rotation graph $H(M_2)$ contains a single directed cycle $\{v_3, v_5, v_7\}$. Rotating the partners of boys $\{b_3, b_5, b_7\}$ then produces the following stable matching:

$$M_3 = (g_3, g_7, g_8, g_6, g_1, g_4, g_5, g_2).$$

The rotation graph $H(M_3)$ contains two directed cycle correspond to ρ_3 and ρ_4 . These are specified, along with all the other rotations in Table 2.

Table 2: The Set of the Rotations \mathcal{R} .

Rotation	Rotation
ρ_1	$[(b_1, g_4), (b_2, g_3), (b_3, g_7), (b_6, g_5)]$
ρ_2	$[(b_3, g_5), (b_5, g_8), (b_7, g_1)]$
ρ_3	$[(b_4, g_6), (b_8, g_2), (b_7, g_5)]$
ρ_4	$[(b_1, g_3), (b_3, g_8)]$
ρ_5	$[(b_2, g_7), (b_8, g_5), (b_6, g_4)]$
ρ_6	$[(b_3, g_3), (b_4, g_2)]$
ρ_7	$[(b_1, g_8), (b_5, g_1), (b_7, g_6)]$
ρ_8	$[(b_5, g_6), (b_8, g_4), (b_6, g_7)]$
ρ_9	$[(b_2, g_5), (b_7, g_8), (b_4, g_3)]$
ρ_{10}	$[(b_1, g_1), (b_3, g_2)]$

These ten rotations form the *rotation poset* (\mathcal{R}, \geq) whose Hasse diagram is given in Figure 2. As shown the rotation ρ_1 is the unique maximal rotation, the rotation exposed at the boy-optimal stable matching $1 = M_1$. On the other hand, ρ_8, ρ_9 and ρ_{10} are the minimal rotations. These rotations lead to the boy-pessimal (girl-optimal) stable matching $0 = M_{23}$.

Applying these rotations in the appropriate order allows us to generate all 23 stable matchings given in Table 3.

These stable matchings then form the stable matching lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) whose Hasse diagram is illustrated in Figure 3. In this diagram, each edge is labelled by the rotation

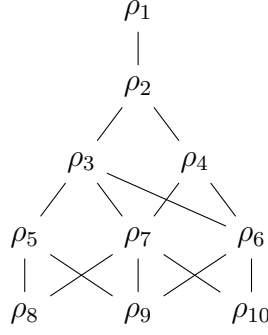


Figure 2: The Hasse diagram of the Rotation Poset (\mathcal{R}, \geq) .

Table 3: The Set of Stable Matchings \mathcal{M} . For a matching M , $n(M)$ is the set of rotations exposed in M and $p(M)$ is the set of rotations that can precede obtaining M

M	$n(M)$	$p(M)$	\mathbf{g}_1	\mathbf{g}_2	\mathbf{g}_3	\mathbf{g}_4	\mathbf{g}_5	\mathbf{g}_6	\mathbf{g}_7	\mathbf{g}_8
M_1	ρ_1	\emptyset	b_7	b_8	b_2	b_1	b_6	b_4	b_3	b_5
M_2	ρ_2	ρ_1	b_7	b_8	b_1	b_6	b_3	b_4	b_2	b_5
M_3	ρ_3, ρ_4	ρ_2	b_5	b_8	b_1	b_6	b_7	b_4	b_2	b_3
M_4	ρ_3	ρ_4	b_5	b_8	b_3	b_6	b_7	b_4	b_2	b_1
M_5	ρ_4, ρ_5	ρ_3	b_5	b_4	b_1	b_6	b_8	b_7	b_2	b_3
M_6	ρ_5, ρ_6, ρ_7	ρ_3, ρ_4	b_5	b_4	b_3	b_6	b_8	b_7	b_2	b_1
M_7	ρ_4	ρ_5	b_5	b_4	b_1	b_8	b_2	b_7	b_6	b_3
M_8	ρ_5, ρ_7	ρ_6	b_5	b_3	b_4	b_6	b_8	b_7	b_2	b_1
M_9	ρ_5, ρ_6	ρ_7	b_1	b_4	b_3	b_6	b_8	b_5	b_2	b_7
M_{10}	ρ_6, ρ_7	ρ_4, ρ_5	b_5	b_4	b_3	b_8	b_2	b_7	b_6	b_1
M_{11}	ρ_5, ρ_{10}	ρ_6, ρ_7	b_1	b_3	b_4	b_6	b_8	b_5	b_2	b_7
M_{12}	ρ_7	ρ_5, ρ_6	b_5	b_3	b_4	b_8	b_2	b_7	b_6	b_1
M_{13}	ρ_6, ρ_8	ρ_5, ρ_7	b_1	b_4	b_3	b_8	b_2	b_5	b_6	b_7
M_{14}	ρ_5	ρ_{10}	b_3	b_1	b_4	b_6	b_8	b_5	b_2	b_7
M_{15}	$\rho_8, \rho_9, \rho_{10}$	ρ_7, ρ_6, ρ_5	b_1	b_3	b_4	b_8	b_2	b_5	b_6	b_7
M_{16}	ρ_6	ρ_8	b_1	b_4	b_3	b_5	b_2	b_6	b_8	b_7
M_{17}	ρ_8, ρ_9	ρ_5, ρ_{10}	b_3	b_1	b_4	b_8	b_2	b_5	b_6	b_7
M_{18}	ρ_8, ρ_{10}	ρ_9	b_1	b_3	b_7	b_8	b_4	b_5	b_6	b_2
M_{19}	ρ_9, ρ_{10}	ρ_6, ρ_8	b_1	b_3	b_4	b_5	b_2	b_6	b_8	b_7
M_{20}	ρ_8	ρ_9, ρ_{10}	b_3	b_1	b_7	b_8	b_4	b_5	b_6	b_2
M_{21}	ρ_9	ρ_8, ρ_{10}	b_3	b_1	b_4	b_5	b_2	b_6	b_8	b_7
M_{22}	ρ_{10}	ρ_8, ρ_9	b_1	b_3	b_7	b_5	b_4	b_6	b_8	b_2
M_{23}	\emptyset	$\rho_8, \rho_9, \rho_{10}$	b_3	b_1	b_7	b_5	b_4	b_6	b_8	b_2

that transforms the upper stable matching into the lower stable matching. For example, the rotation ρ_9 is exposed at M_{15} and applying it produces the matching M_{18} ; similarly,

the rotation ρ_4 is exposed at M_5 and induces M_6 .

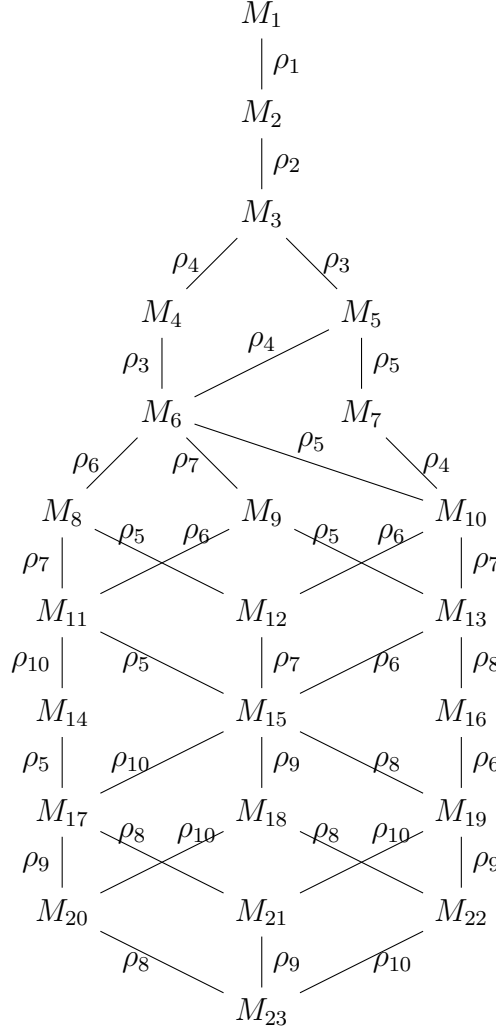


Figure 3: The Hasse Diagram of the Stable Matching Lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) .

Recall, by the *fundamental theorem for finite distributive lattices*, the stable matching lattice (\mathcal{M}, \geq) has an auxiliary poset whose order ideals, ordered by inclusion, form \mathcal{M} . We claimed that this auxiliary poset is the rotation poset $\mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{R}, \geq)$. By inspection of Figure 2 and Figure 3, the reader may verify that this is indeed the case for this stable matching instance. In particular, we can see the correspondence between minimal stable matchings in $\mathcal{M} \setminus \{0\}$ and minimal rotations. In this case there are three such minimal matchings, namely $\{M_{20}, M_{21}, M_{22}\}$ and three minimal rotations, namely, $\{\rho_8, \rho_9, \rho_{10}\}$.

Finally, Theorem 3.1.1, tells us that the minimum winning coalition has cardinality

equal the number of minimal rotations. In this instance, these three rotations consist of the girls $\{g_1, g_2\}$, $\{g_3, g_5, g_8\}$ and $\{g_4, g_6, g_7\}$, respectively. A minimum winning coalition must contain exactly one element of each of these groups. For example, the three girls $\{g_1, g_3, g_4\}$ form a minimum winning coalition and allow us to descend all the way from 1 to 0. If we select only one girl we descend the lattice only as far down as M_{17} , M_{18} or M_{19} . If we select two girls we can descend only as far down as M_{20} , M_{21} , or M_{22} .

3.3 The Random Matching Model

For the rest of the thesis we use the *random matching model* which was first studied by Wilson [23] and subsequently examined in detail by Knuth, Pittel and coauthors [15, 19, 16, 20]. Here the preference ranking of each boy and each girl is drawn uniformly and independently from the symmetric group S_n . Specifically, each preference ranking is a random permutation of the set $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

We may now state the two main results of the thesis. First, in the random matching model, the expected cardinality of the minimum winning coalition is $O(\log n)$.

Theorem 3.3.1. *In the random matching model, the expected cardinality of the minimum winning coalition F is*

$$\mathbb{E}(|F|) = \frac{1}{2} \log(n) + O(\log \log n)$$

So the minimum winning coalition is small. Surprisingly, in sharp contrast, our second result states that a random coalition must contain nearly **every** girl if it is to form a winning coalition with high probability. Equivalently:

Theorem 3.3.2. *In the random matching model, $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta(\varepsilon) > 0$ such that for a random coalition F of cardinality $(1 - \varepsilon) \cdot n$ the probability that F is **not** a winning coalition is at least $\delta(\varepsilon)$.*

To prove these results, recall Theorem 3.1.1 which states that a winning coalition F must intersect each *minimal rotation* in the rotation poset (\mathcal{R}, \geq) . Thus, for Theorem 3.3.1

it suffices to show that the expected number of minimal rotations is $O(\log n)$. To show Theorem 3.3.2 we must lower bound the probability that a randomly chosen coalition of girls contains at least one girl in each minimal rotations. Our approach is to show the likelihood of a small cardinality minimal rotations is high. In particular, we prove there is a minimal rotation containing exactly two girls with constant probability. It immediately follows that a random coalition must contain nearly all the girls if it is to be a winning coalition with high probability.

3.3.1 Overview of the Proofs

So our proofs require that we study the set of minimal rotations in the random matching model. The following two “tricks” will be useful in performing our analyses. First, instead of minimal rotations we may, in fact, study the set \mathcal{R}^{\max} of *maximal rotations*, that is the rotations that are exposed at the boy-optimal stable matching **1**. This is equivalent because Theorem 2.2.2 tells us that the inverse lattice (\mathcal{M}, \leq) is the stable matching lattice ordered according to the preferences of the girls. This symmetry implies that the behaviour of minimal rotations is identical to the behaviour of maximal rotations as the maximal rotations of one lattice are the minimal rotations of the other. But why is the switch to maximal rotations from minimal rotations helpful? Simply put, as we are using the boy proposal version of the deferred acceptance algorithm, we obtain the boy-optimal stable matching and, consequently, it is more convenient to reason about the rotations exposed at **1**, that is the maximal rotations.

Second, it will be convenient to view the deferred acceptance algorithm with random preferences in an alternative manner. In particular, instead of generating the preference rankings in advance, we may generate them dynamically. Specifically, when a boy b is selected to make a proposal he asks a girl g chosen uniformly at random. If b has already proposed to g then this proposal is immediately rejected; such a proposal is termed *redundant*. Meanwhile, g maintains a preference ranking only for the boys that have proposed to her. Thus if this is the k th distinct proposal made to girl g then she assigns to b a rank

chosen uniformly at random among $\{1, \dots, k\}$. In particular, in the deferred acceptance algorithm g accepts the proposal with probability $1/k$. As explained by Knuth et al. [16], this process is equivalent to randomly generating the preference rankings independently in advance. Furthermore, recall from Theorem 2.2.1 that the deferred acceptance algorithm will output the boy-optimal stable matching regardless of the order of proposals. It follows that, for the purposes of analysis, we may assume the algorithm selects the unmatched boy with the lowest index to make the next proposal.

So our task now is to investigate the properties of maximal rotations, that is directed cycles in the rotation graph $H(1)$. Intuitively, this relates to the study of directed cycles in *random graphs* with out-degrees exactly one. But there is one major problem. In random graphs the choice of out-neighbour is independent for each vertex. But in the rotation graph $H(1)$ this independence is lost. In particular, the arcs in $H(1)$ share intricate dependencies and specifically depend on who made and who received each proposal in obtaining the boy-optimal stable matching 1 . Moreover, a vertex may even have out-degree zero in $H(1)$. Essentially, the remainder of thesis is devoted to showing that the myriad of dependencies that arise are collectively of small total consequence. It will then follow that the expected number of maximal rotations and the minimum cardinality of a maximal rotation both behave in a predictable manner, similar to that of directed cycles in random graphs with out-degrees exactly one. Namely, the expected number of cycles being close to $\frac{\log n}{2}$ and the existence a cycle of size two with constant probability [4].

Consequently, to study maximal rotations we must consider $H(1)$. We do this via a two-phase approach. In the *first phase* we calculate the boy-optimal stable matching 1 , without loss of generality, $1 = \{(b_1, g_1), (b_2, g_2), \dots, (b_n, g_n)\}$. This of course can be found by running the boy-proposal deferred acceptance algorithm. In the *second phase*, we calculate the rotation graph $H(1)$. But, as explained in Section 2.3 and illustrated in the example of Section 3.2, we can find the rotations by running the boy-proposal deferred acceptance algorithm longer.

In fact, to calculate (i) the expected number of maximal rotations and (ii) the probabil-

ity that there is a maximum rotation of cardinality 2, we will not need the entire rotation graph $H(1)$ only subgraphs of it. Moreover, the subgraphs we require will be different in each case. Consequently, the second phases required to prove Theorem 3.3.1 and Theorem 3.3.2 will each be slightly different. These distinct second phases will be described in detail in Section 4.1 and Section 4.2, respectively. They both, however, share fundamental properties which will be exploited in shortening the subsequent proofs.

3.3.2 A Technical Tool for Counters

Before describing the two algorithms, we present a technical lemma that we will use repeated in analyzing the deviations that arise in their application. To formalize the lemma, we require the notion of a *state*. The state of the algorithm at any point is the record of all the (random) choices made so far: the sequence of proposals and the preference rankings generated by the girls. Thus we are working in the probability space (Ω, P) of all possible states Ω of the algorithm and the probabilities of reaching them.

We index the intermediate states of the algorithm by the number of proposals made to reach it. Let Ω_t denote the set of all possible states of the procedure after t proposals. Thus Ω_t can be thought of as a partition of Ω , and the partition Ω_{t+1} refines the partition Ω_t for any t . A random variable X_t is Ω_t -measurable if X_t is determined by the algorithm state after t proposals, that is X is constant on each part of Ω_t . We say that a sequence $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$ of random variables is a *counter* if X_t is Ω_t -measurable and $X_t - X_{t-1} \in \{0, 1\}$. Thus counters count the number of certain events occurring over the course of the algorithm. As an example, the number of successful proposals among the first t proposals is a counter.

Our main tool is Lemma 3.3.3 below which is used to control large deviations of counters. Let $B_{k,p}$ be a random variable which follows a binomial distribution with parameters k and p . We say that a collection of states \mathcal{G} is *monotone* if for every state $S \notin \mathcal{G}$ we have $S' \notin \mathcal{G}$ for every state S' that can be reached from S . For example, the collection of states in which every girl received at most one proposal is monotone. Let $\{S_t | t \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be the sequence of random variables corresponding to the state of the algorithm at time t

Lemma 3.3.3. *Let \mathcal{G} be a monotone collection of states and let $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$ be a counter.*

(a) *If $P(X_{t'+1} - X_{t'} = 1 | \mathcal{S}_{t'} = S_{t'}) \geq p$ for every state $S_{t'} \in \Omega_{t'} \cap \mathcal{G}$, for any $t' \in [t, t+k]$, then, for any $\lambda \geq 0$ and any $k \geq 1$,*

$$P((X_{t+k} - X_t \leq \lambda) \wedge (S_{t+k-1} \in \mathcal{G}) | \mathcal{S}_t = S_t) \leq P(B_{k,p} \leq \lambda).$$

(b) *If $P(X_{t'+1} - X_{t'} = 1 | \mathcal{S}_{t'} = S_{t'}) \leq p$ for every state $S_{t'} \in \Omega_{t'} \cap \mathcal{G}$, for any $t' \in [t, t+k]$, then, for any $\lambda \geq 0$ and any $k \geq 1$,*

$$P((X_{t+k} - X_t \geq \lambda) \wedge (S_{t+k-1} \in \mathcal{G}) | \mathcal{S}_t = S_t) \leq P(B_{k,p} \geq \lambda).$$

This implies that if we can bound the probability of the counter being incremented tightly enough then the behaviour of the counter will be similar to the behaviour of a binomial random variable. Evidently, this will be useful because binomial random variables are much simpler to work with.

Proof. We prove (a) by induction on k . The base case $k = 1$ is immediate. For the induction step, note that if $S_t \notin \mathcal{G}$ then the left side of (a) is zero. Thus we may assume $S_t \in \mathcal{G}$ and hence $P(X_{t+1} - X_t = 1 | S_t) \geq p$. By the induction hypothesis, we then have

$$P(X_{t+k} - X_{t+1} \leq \lambda - 1 | (X_{t+1} - X_t = 1) \wedge \mathcal{S}_t = S_t) \leq P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda - 1)$$

and

$$P(X_{t+k} - X_{t+1} \leq \lambda | (X_{t+1} - X_t = 0) \wedge \mathcal{S}_t = S_t) \leq P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda).$$

Since $P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda - 1) \leq P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda)$, combining these three inequalities gives

$$\begin{aligned}
P(X_{t+k} - X_t \leq \lambda | \mathcal{S}_t = S_t) &= P(X_{t+1} - X_t = 1 | \mathcal{S}_t = S_t) \cdot P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda - 1) \\
&\quad + P(X_{t+1} - X_t = 0 | \mathcal{S}_t = S_t) \cdot P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda) \\
&\leq pP(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda - 1) + (1-p)P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda) \quad (3.1) \\
&\leq P(B_{k,p} \leq \lambda)
\end{aligned}$$

where we obtain (3.1) by noting the following:

$$\begin{aligned}
&P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda - 1) \leq P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda) \\
\implies &p \cdot [P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda - 1) - P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda)] \leq 0 \\
\implies &pP(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda - 1) + (1-p)P(B_{k-1,p} \leq \lambda) \leq P(B_{k,p} \leq \lambda).
\end{aligned}$$

The proof of (b) is completely analogous. □

In our subsequent analyses we will combine Lemma 3.3.3 with the following well-known Chernoff bounds that control deviations of $B_{k,p}$ from the mean.

Lemma 3.3.4. *For $0 \leq \delta \leq 1$,*

$$P(B_{k,p} \geq (1 + \delta)pk) \leq \exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2 pk}{3}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad P(B_{k,p} \leq (1 - \delta)pk) \leq \exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2 pk}{2}\right).$$

Chapter 4

Main results

4.1 Minimum Winning Coalitions

In this section, we will evaluate the expected cardinality of the minimum winning coalition. Recall, it suffices is to find the expected number of directed cycles, \mathcal{R}^{\max} , in the rotation graph $H(1)$. To do this, it will be useful to describe the cardinality of \mathcal{R}^{\max} in a more manipulable form. Specifically, for any boy b_i define a variable

$$Z_i = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{|R|} & \text{if } b_i \text{ is in a maximal rotation } R \\ 0 & \text{if } b_i \text{ is not in a maximal rotation} \end{cases}$$

Then we obtain that:

$$|\mathcal{R}^{\max}| = \sum_{R \in \mathcal{R}^{\max}} 1 = \sum_{R \in \mathcal{R}^{\max}} \sum_{(b,g) \in R} \frac{1}{|R|} = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$$

By linearity of expectation, the expected cardinality of the minimum winning coalition F is

$$\mathbb{E}(|F|) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathcal{R}^{\max}|) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(Z_i) \quad (4.1)$$

As discussed in Section 3.3, the difficulty in computing $\mathbb{E}(|F|)$ is the myriad of dependencies that arise in the formation of the rotations in \mathcal{R}^{\max} . Equation 4.1 is extremely useful in this regard. To quantify the dependency effects, rather than count expected rotations directly, it allows to focus simply on computing $\mathbb{E}(Z_i)$.

4.1.1 Generating Maximal Rotations from the Rotation Graph

Ergo, our task now is to evaluate $\mathbb{E}(Z_i)$. For this we study a two-phase randomized algorithm, henceforth referred to as the *algorithm*, for generating the potential maximal rotation containing a given boy. The first phase computes the boy-optimal stable matching $\mathbf{1} = \{(b_1, g_1), (b_2, g_2), \dots, (b_n, g_n)\}$. In the *second phase* we use a variation of the deferred acceptance algorithm to generate arcs in (a subgraph of) the rotation graph and generate a random variable Z .

The second phase starts with a randomly selected boy i_1 who makes uniformly random proposals until the first time he proposes to a girl g_j who prefers him over her partner b_j in the boy-optimal stable matching. The boy b_j will make the next sequence of proposals. The process terminates if we find a maximal rotation. Moreover, if this rotation is completed because girl g_{i_1} receives and accepts a proposal then we have found a maximal rotation containing boy i_1 . In this case we also update Z . Formally, we initialize the second-phase by:

- Choose i_1 from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ uniformly at random.
- Initialize the potential cycle in the rotation digraph containing i_1 by setting $R = [i_1]$.

Once $R = [i_1, \dots, i_k]$ is found, we generate the arc of the rotation digraph emanating from i_k , as follows.

- Let boy b_{i_k} make uniformly random proposals until the first time he proposes to a girl g_j such that g_j ranks b_{i_k} higher than b_j . That is, g_j ranks b_{i_k} higher than her pessimal stable partner.

- If $j \notin R$ then we set $i_{k+1} = j$, $R = [i_1, \dots, i_k, i_{k+1}]$, and recurse.
- If $j \in R$ then we terminate the procedure. We set $Z = \frac{1}{|R|}$, if $j = i_1$, and $Z = 0$, otherwise.
- If, instead, boy b_{i_k} gets rejected by all the girls then the vertex i_k has no-outgoing arcs in the rotation graph. Thus, b_{i_1} belongs to no maximal rotation, so we terminate the procedure and set $Z = 0$.

We emphasize that as the second phase runs, we do not change any assigned partnerships. Specifically, when a girl receives a proposal we always compare her rank for the proposing boy to the rank of her pessimal partner, regardless of any other proposals she may have received during the second phase. Now $Z = Z_{i_1}$ where i_1 was chosen uniformly at random. The next lemma is then implied by (4.1) as the expectation of Z is the average of the expectations of Z_i .

Lemma 4.1.1. $\mathbb{E}(|F|) = n \cdot \mathbb{E}(Z)$ where Z is the random variable generated by the algorithm.

Recall, b_{i_1} is in a maximal rotation if and only if the rotation graph of the boy optimal stable matching has a cycle containing b_{i_1} . Observe that every connected component of a directed graph in which each vertex has out-degree 1 contains exactly one cycle. Hence, if we find a cycle in the same connected component as b_i but which does not contain him then b_{i_1} is not in a maximal rotation. Then, since $|F| = \sum_{j=1}^n Z_{i_j}$, we get $\mathbb{E}(|F|) = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{E}(Z_{i_j}) = n \cdot \mathbb{E}(Z)$.

4.1.2 Properties of the Two-Phase Algorithm

We now present a series of properties that arise with high enough probability during the two-phase process. In particular, the process does not deviate too far from its expected behaviour. For example, the running time of each phase is not much longer than expected, no girl receives too many proposals, and no boy makes too many proposals. To formalize this, let T_1 and T_2 be the number of proposals made in the first and second phases, respectively, and let $T = T_1 + T_2$. Further, let a *run* be a sequence of consecutive proposals

made by the same boy in the same phase. Now consider the following properties that may apply to a state:

- I. The algorithm has not terminated.
- II. If the algorithm is in the first phase then $t \leq 5n \log n$. If the algorithm is in the second phase then $T_1 \leq 5n \log n$
- III. If the algorithm has not found a rotation yet then $t \leq T_1 + \sqrt{n} \log^3 n$.
- IV. Each girl has received at most $21 \log n$ proposals.
- V. Each boy started at most $21 \log n$ runs.
- VI. Each run contained at most $111 \log^2 n$ proposals.
- VII. Each boy has made at most $\log^4 n$ proposals.

Informally, we want the states of the algorithm to satisfy these property because they imply that:

- No girl receives too many proposals compared to the others girls. Consequently, the event of having already accepted a proposal in the second phase does not impact significantly the probability of accepting another proposal later.
- No boy makes too many proposals. Consequently, we do not need to worry about redundant proposals.
- The second phase is significantly shorter than the first phase. Consequently, the probability of a proposal being accepted at the start of the second phase and the probability of a proposal being accepted at the end of the second phase are very similar.

Let \mathcal{G} be the set of all states that satisfy properties I to VII. We call these *good* states. Any state that is not good is *bad*. Clearly, \mathcal{G} is monotone. Let G_* denote the event $\mathcal{S}_{T-1} \in \mathcal{G}$,

that is, the event that the algorithm is in a good state the period before it terminates. Let $\overline{G_*}$ be the complement of G_* .

We remark that, for technical reasons, we will assume the second-phase terminates if $n \log n$ proposals are made during that phase. This assumption is superfluous here by condition III, which states the second phase has at most $\sqrt{n} \log^3 n$ proposals. However, the assumption is useful as it will allow the following lemma to also apply for the modified second-phase algorithm that we use in Section 4.2.

Lemma 4.1.2. *For n sufficiently large, $P(G_*) \geq 1 - O(n^{-4})$.*

Proof. It suffices to show the probability is $O(1/n^4)$ of reaching a state $S_k \in \Omega_k$ such that (i) the algorithm has not yet terminated, (ii) S_k is bad, and (iii) all the states preceding S_k are good.

Note that, for n sufficiently large, conditions II and our bound on the length of the second phase imply that $k \leq 6n \log n$ for any such state. Furthermore, again for sufficiently large n , conditions V and VI together imply VII; thus, VII cannot be the only condition violated by S_k . Hence, it suffices to verify that the probability of reaching such a state violating one of the conditions II-VI is small.

First consider condition II. Recall the first phase terminates when every girl has received a proposal. So if S_k violates II then $k \geq 5n \log n$ and at least one girl still has not received a proposal. By definition, each proposal is directed at girl g with probability $1/n$, for each g . So, by Lemma 3.3.3 applied to the counter $(X_{g,k})_{k \geq 0}$, where $X_{g,k}$ is the number of proposals received by g by the time k ,

$$P(X_{g,k} = 0) \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^k \leq e^{-k/n} \leq \frac{1}{n^5}.$$

Thus, by the union bound, S_k violates II with probability at most $1/n^4$, as desired.

Next consider condition IV. If $s = \lceil 21 \log n \rceil$ then the probability that a girl g received

at least s proposals is at most

$$P(X_{g,k} \geq s) \leq \binom{k}{s} \frac{1}{n^s} \leq \left(\frac{ek}{sn}\right)^s \leq \left(\frac{6en \log n}{\lceil 21 \log n \rceil n}\right)^s \leq \left(\frac{6e}{21}\right)^s \leq n^{21 \log(6e/21)} \leq \frac{1}{n^{5.3}}$$

and so, by the union bound, S_k violates [IV](#) with probability at most $1/n^4$.

The proof of [V](#) is similar. Take a boy b . Apart from his first run (and possibly the first state of second phase), b can only start a run if the girl g he had been matched to received a proposal in the previous round. This occurs with probability at most $1/n$ conditioned on the previous state. Thus, analogously to the argument above, S_k violates condition [V](#) with probability at most $1/n^4$.

Now consider [VI](#) and set $s = 111 \log^2 n$. For sufficiently large n , the proposal following a good state is non-redundant with probability considerably greater than $21/22$ by [V](#). Because each girl has received at most $21 \log n$ proposals by [IV](#), the probability that a proposal is accepted conditioned on the previous good state is at least $\frac{1}{22 \log n}$. By Lemma [3.3.3](#) applied to the counter X_t equal to the number of proposals accepted by time t ,

$$P(X_k - X_{k-s} = 0) \wedge (S_{k-1} \in \mathcal{G}) | S_{k-s} = S_{k-s} \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{22 \log n}\right)^s \leq \exp\left(-\frac{s}{22 \log n}\right) \leq \frac{1}{n^{5.04}}$$

for any good state S_{k-s} . In particular, for any such state S_{k-s} , the probability is at most $\frac{1}{5n^5 \log n}$, for sufficiently large n . By the union bound taken over possible choices of $k \leq 5n \log n$, the probability that we reach S_k violating [VI](#) is at most $1/n^4$.

Set $\ell = \lceil \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{n} \log^3 n \rceil$. If S_k violates [III](#) then the second phase been running for at least 2ℓ steps without finding a cycle, and we have previously reached a state $S \in \Omega_{k-\ell}$ such the second phase contained at least $\frac{\ell}{111 \log^2 n}$ runs before S due to [VI](#). Therefore, the potential cycle R generated in S may contain at least $\frac{\ell}{111 \log^2 n}$ elements. In each subsequent step starting in a good state, the probability that a non-redundant proposal is made to a girl g_i with $i \in R$ is at least $\frac{\ell}{n \log^3 n}$. Further, such a proposal is then accepted, terminating the process, with probability at least $\frac{1}{21 \log n}$. However, to reach a state S_k the algorithm must continue for at least ℓ more steps. By Lemma [3.3.3](#), the probability that this happens

starting with any given state S as above is at most

$$\left(1 - \frac{\ell}{21n \log^4 n}\right)^\ell \leq \exp\left(-\frac{\ell^2}{21n \log^4 n}\right) \leq \frac{1}{n^6}$$

and thus the probability of reaching S_k violating [III](#) is at most $1/n^4$. \square

So, with high probability, we are in a good state the period before the algorithm terminates. It follows that the magnitude of the expected number of maximal rotations can be evaluated by consideration of good states.

4.1.3 The Expected Cardinality of the Minimum Winning Coalition

Now, to calculate the expected number of maximal rotations we must analyze in more detail the second phase of the algorithm. In particular, this section is devoted to the proof of the following lemma.

Lemma 4.1.3. *Let $S_* = S_{T_1}$ be the terminal state of the first phase. If $P(\overline{G_*} | S_* = S_*) \leq \frac{1}{n^3}$ then*

$$\mathbb{E}(Z | S_* = S_*) = \frac{\log n}{2n} + O\left(\frac{\log \log n}{n}\right).$$

Before embarking on the proof of Lemma [4.1.3](#), we remark that that our first main result, Theorem [3.3.1](#), readily follows from it via Lemmas [4.1.1](#) and [4.1.2](#). It is also worth noting that [III](#) implies that the second phase has at most $\sqrt{n} \log^3 n$ proposals when G_* occurs, due to the fact that we stop once we find our first cycle.

Proof of Theorem [3.3.1](#) (modulo Lemma [4.1.3](#)). Let \mathcal{G}_{**} denote the set of the terminal states S_* of the first phase of the algorithm satisfying $P(\overline{G_*} | S_* = S_*) \leq \frac{1}{n^3}$. Then $P(S_* \notin \mathcal{G}_{**}) =$

$O(1/n)$ by Lemma 4.1.2. Since $0 \leq Z \leq 1$, by Lemmas 4.1.1 and 4.1.3 we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}(|F|) &= n\mathbb{E}(Z) \\
&= n\mathbb{E}(Z|\mathcal{S}_* \in \mathcal{G}_{**})(1 - P(\mathcal{S}_* \notin \mathcal{G}_{**})) + n\mathbb{E}(Z|\mathcal{S}_* \notin \mathcal{G}_{**})P(\mathcal{S}_* \notin \mathcal{G}_{**}) \\
&= n\mathbb{E}(Z|\mathcal{S}_* \in \mathcal{G}_{**}) + nP(\mathcal{S}_* \notin \mathcal{G}_{**})(\mathbb{E}(Z|\mathcal{S}_* \notin \mathcal{G}_{**}) - \mathbb{E}(Z|\mathcal{S}_* \in \mathcal{G}_{**})) \\
&= \frac{1}{2}\log n + O(\log \log n) + O(1) \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

So let's prove Lemma 4.1.3. For the remainder of the section we fix $\mathcal{S}_* = S_*$ satisfying the conditions of the lemma. Let ρ_i be the number of non-redundant proposals received by girl g_i in S_* . Set $\rho = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\rho_i+1}$. As S_* is good, we have $\rho_i \leq 21 \log n$ for every girl g_i ; so, $\rho \geq \frac{1}{22 \log n}$. We evaluate $\mathbb{E}(Z)$ separately for every choice of initial vertex i_1 of R in the following lemma:

Lemma 4.1.4. *For every $1 \leq i \leq n$ we have*

$$\mathbb{E}(Z|\mathcal{S}_* = S_* \wedge (i_1 = i)) = \frac{1}{n\rho(\rho_i + 1)} \left(\frac{1}{2} \log n + O(\log \log n) \right).$$

Since $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n\rho(\rho_i+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{n\rho} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\rho_i+1} = \frac{\rho}{n\rho} = \frac{1}{n}$, this lemma implies Lemma 4.1.3. To prove Lemma 4.1.4, we may assume that we reached the state S_* , chose $i_1 = i$, and that the probabilities of the subsequent events are scaled accordingly. Note that, by Lemma 4.1.2, we have $P(G_*) \geq 1 - 1/n^2$. We relabel the states of our process $(\mathcal{S}_0 = S_*, \mathcal{S}_1, \dots, \mathcal{S}_t, \dots)$, so that \mathcal{S}_t is the state attained after t proposals have been made in the second phase. Let R_t denote the (random) set R generated in the state \mathcal{S}_t . Let $X_t = |R_t|$ be the associated counter. First we show that any proposal made after a good state increases X_t with probability close to ρ .

Lemma 4.1.5. *For any good state \mathcal{S}_t , we have:*

$$P(X_{t+1} - X_t = 1 | \mathcal{S}_t = \mathcal{S}_t) \in [\rho - n^{-1/3}, \rho].$$

Proof. Let $\rho_{i,t'}$ be the number of non-redundant proposals received by girl g_i in a state $S_{t'}$ preceding S_t , and set

$$\rho(t') = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \notin R_{t'}} \frac{1}{\rho_{i,t'} + 1}.$$

Then $\rho(0) \geq \rho - 1/n$ and $\rho(t' + 1) \geq \rho(t') - 1/n$, for every $0 \leq t' \leq t - 1$, as $R_{t'}$ increases by at most one vertex in any step.

Let b be the boy making the proposal following S_t , and let B be the set of girls b has already proposed to. Then $|B| \leq \log^4 n$, as S_t is good. The probability that the next proposal is accepted by a girl not in R_t , thus increasing X_t , is then

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \notin R_t \cup B} \frac{1}{\rho_{i,t} + 1} \leq \rho,$$

immediately implying the upper bound. On the other hand, this probability is lower bounded by

$$\rho(t) - \frac{|B|}{n} \geq \rho - \frac{t+1}{n} - \frac{\log^4 n}{n} \geq \rho - n^{-1/3}$$

where the last bound holds as S_t is good, and so $t \leq \sqrt{n} \log^3 n$. □

Lemma 4.1.6.

1. For $t \geq \log^5 n$, $P\left(\left(|X_t - \rho t| \geq \frac{\rho t}{\log n}\right) \wedge (S_{t-1} \in \mathcal{G})\right) \leq \frac{1}{n^2}$.
2. For $t \geq \frac{400 \log \log n}{\rho}$, $P\left((X_t \leq \frac{1}{2} \rho t) \wedge (S_{t-1} \in \mathcal{G})\right) \leq \frac{1}{2 \log^5 n}$.

Proof. Let $\delta \geq \log^{-1} n$. Recall that $\rho \geq \frac{1}{22} \log^{-1} n$, and so

$$\rho - n^{-1/3} \geq \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{2}\right) \rho \geq \frac{1}{25} \log^{-1} n.$$

Combining Lemma 3.3.4 with Lemma 3.3.3 (where $t = 0$ and $k = t$) and Lemma 4.1.5

gives

$$\begin{aligned}
P(X_t \leq (1 - \delta)\rho t \wedge (\mathcal{S}_{t-1} \in \mathcal{G})) &\leq P(B_{t, \rho - n^{-1/3}} \leq (1 - \delta)\rho t) \\
&\leq P\left(B_{t, \rho - n^{-1/3}} \leq \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{2}\right)(\rho - n^{-1/3})t\right) \\
&\leq \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)^2(\rho - n^{-1/3})t\right). \tag{4.2}
\end{aligned}$$

If $\delta = \log^{-1} n$ and $t \geq \log^5 n$ then (4.2) is upper bounded by $\exp\left(-\frac{\log^2 n}{200}\right) < \frac{1}{2n^2}$. Meanwhile for $\delta = 1/2$ and $t \geq \frac{C \log \log n}{\rho}$, the last term of (4.2) can instead be upper bounded by $\log^{-\frac{C}{64}} n$. This proves the stated bounds on lower deviation.

The inequality

$$P\left(\left(X_t \geq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\log n}\right)\rho t\right) \wedge (\mathcal{S}_{t-1} \in \mathcal{G})\right) \leq \frac{1}{2n^2}$$

for $t \geq \log^5 n$ is derived in the same manner. \square

We also need the following two easy lemmas.

Lemma 4.1.7. *We have $P(T_2 \leq \sqrt{n}/\log n) \leq 1/\log^2 n$.*

Proof. Note that $X_t \leq t + 1$, and so for any $t \leq \sqrt{n} \log^{-1} n - 1$, the probability that the next proposal is directed to a girl with index in R_t is at most $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n} \log n}$. Therefore, the probability that the second phase terminates after exactly t proposals is at most $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n} \log n}$ for every such t . The lemma follows by applying the union bound. \square

Let $\{b_j\}_{j \in J}$ be the set of boys who have proposed to g_i by the end of the first phase.

Lemma 4.1.8. *The probability that at least one of the first $\sqrt{n} \log^3 n$ proposals of the second phase is directed to a girl g_j with $j \in J$ is at most $n^{-1/3}$.*

Proof. As S_* is good, we have $|J| \leq 21 \log n$. Thus, this lemma follows by applying the union bound analogously to Lemma 4.1.7. We omit the details. \square

Proof of Lemma 4.1.4. Let's begin by proving the lower bound. Let \mathcal{L}_t denote the collection of states S_t such that

- $\log^5 n \leq t \leq \sqrt{n}/\log n$
- $S_t \in \mathcal{G}$, in particular the algorithm has not yet terminated,
- $X_t \leq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\log n}\right) \rho t$,
- every girl g_j with $j \in J$ received no proposal in the second phase so far.

It follows from Lemmas 4.1.6, 4.1.7 and 4.1.8 that $P(S_t \notin \mathcal{L}_t) \leq \log^{-1} n$, for any $\log^5 n \leq t \leq \sqrt{n} \log^{-1} n$. As any state $S_t \in \mathcal{L}_t$ is good and satisfies $t \geq \log^5 n$, the boy b_i has already finished the run which started the second phase. Moreover, no other boy who has previously proposed to g_i has lost his partner and had an opportunity to make a proposal. Thus, if the next proposal is directed at g_i , which happens with probability $1/n$, it is non redundant. Such a proposal is accepted with probability $\frac{1}{\rho_i + 1}$. In such a case, the algorithm terminates and outputs $Z = 1/X_t$. By Lemma 4.1.5, considering only the contributions of outcomes when the process terminates immediately following a state in \mathcal{L}_t we get the following lower bound on the expected value of Z .

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{S}_* = S_* \wedge (i_1 = i)) &\geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{\log^2 n}\right) \frac{1}{n(\rho_i + 1)} \sum_{t=\log^5 n}^{\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\log n}} \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{\log n}\right) \rho t} \\
&= \left(1 - \frac{1}{\log n}\right) \frac{1}{n\rho(\rho_i + 1)} \sum_{t=\log^5 n}^{\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\log n}} \frac{1}{t} \\
&\geq \left(1 - \frac{2}{\log n}\right) \frac{1}{n\rho(\rho_i + 1)} \left(\log\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\log n}\right) - \log(\log^5 n) - O(1)\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{n\rho(\rho_i + 1)} \left(\frac{1}{2} \log n - O(\log \log n)\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Next we prove the upper bound. Let \mathcal{U}_t denote the collection of states S_t such that

- $400\rho^{-1} \log \log n \leq t \leq \sqrt{n} \log^3 n$

- $S_t \in \mathcal{G}$ or the algorithm has terminated,
- $X_t \geq \frac{1}{2}\rho t$.
- $X_t \geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{\log n}\right)\rho t$, if $t \geq \log^5 n$,

It follows from Lemma 4.1.6 that:

$$\begin{cases} P(\mathcal{S}_t \notin \mathcal{U}_t) \leq \log^{-5} n \text{ for } 400\rho^{-1} \log \log n \leq t \leq \log^5 n \\ P(\mathcal{S}_t \notin \mathcal{U}_t) \leq \frac{1}{n} \text{ for } \log^5 n \leq t \leq \sqrt{n} \log^3 n \end{cases}$$

Noting that the process terminates and outputs $Z = 1/X_t$ immediately following any given state S_t with probability at most $\frac{1}{n(\rho_i+1)}$, we obtain the desired upper bound on the expected value of Z , as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(Z | \mathcal{S}_* = S_* \wedge (i_1 = i)) &\leq \frac{1}{n(\rho_i + 1)} \sum_{t \leq 400\rho^{-1} \log \log n} 1 + \frac{1}{n(\rho_i + 1)} \sum_{t=400\rho^{-1} \log \log n}^{\log^5 n} \left(\frac{1}{\log^5 n} + \frac{2}{\rho t} \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{n(\rho_i + 1)} \sum_{t=\log^5 n}^{\sqrt{n} \log^3 n} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{\log n}\right) \rho t} \right) + P(T_2 \geq \sqrt{n} \log^3 n) \\ &= \frac{1}{n(\rho_i + 1)} \sum_{t \leq \sqrt{n} \log^3 n} \frac{1}{\rho t} + O\left(\frac{\log \log n}{n\rho(\rho_i + 1)}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n\rho(\rho_i + 1)} \left(\frac{1}{2} \log n + O(\log \log n) \right). \end{aligned}$$

This complete the proof of Lemma 4.1.4 and thus of Lemma 4.1.3. Our first main result, Theorem 3.3.1, immediately follows. \square

4.2 Random Winning Coalitions

In this section, we consider the case where the girls in the coalition are themselves randomly selected. Our task now is to prove that almost every girl must be selected if we wish to obtain a winning coalition asymptotically almost surely. To do this, it will suffice

to prove that there is a maximal rotation of cardinality two with constant probability.

4.2.1 Generating Maximal Rotations from the Rotation Graph

Let Z' be a random variable counting the number of maximal rotations of cardinality two. Again, to analyze Z' we use a two-phase algorithm. The *first phase* is the same as before. We simply generate the boy-optimal stable matching $1 = \{(b_1, g_1), (b_2, g_2), \dots, (b_n, g_n)\}$. But the *second phase* is slightly different. Previously we had to evaluate the expected number of maximal rotations and, to achieve that, it sufficed to end the second phase once we had found one rotation. Now, because we are interested in maximal rotations of cardinality two we will extend the second phase and terminate only when and if we find rotation of cardinality two.

So now in the second phase we use the following algorithm to generate the random variable Z' , initialized at 0:

- Choose i_1 from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ uniformly at random.
- Initialize the set of indices of boys who have made proposals in the second phase with $\mathcal{J} = \{i_1\}$.
- Set $\text{tar} = \infty$.

For motivation, at any step, girl g_{tar} can be viewed as the target girl. If she accepts the next proposal then this will complete a rotation of cardinality two. Observe that we initialize $\text{tar} = \infty$ as it is impossible to complete a rotation in the first step.

To complete the description of the second-phase, assume we have $\mathcal{J} = \{i_1, \dots, i_k\}$. If $k < \frac{n}{2}$ and less than $n \log n$ proposals in total have been made then we generate the next arc of the rotation digraph starting at i_k , as follows:

- Let boy b_{i_k} make uniformly random proposals until the first time he proposes to a girl g_j such that g_j ranks b_{i_k} higher than b_j .
 - If $j = \text{tar}$ then increment Z' by 1. Recurse.

- If $j \in \mathcal{J} \setminus \{\text{tar}\}$ then pick i_{k+1} from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\} \setminus \mathcal{J}$ uniformly at random. Set $\mathcal{J} = \{i_1, \dots, i_k, i_{k+1}\}$ and $\text{tar} = \infty$. Recurse.
- If $j \notin \mathcal{J}$ then set $i_{k+1} = j$, $\text{tar} = i_k$, $\mathcal{J} = \{i_1, \dots, i_k, i_{k+1}\}$. Recurse.
- If, instead, boy b_{i_k} gets rejected by all the girls then return $Z' = 0$

Lemma 4.2.1. *The probability of the existence of a maximal rotation of size two is lower bounded by $P(Z' \geq 1)$.*

Proof. Observe that Z' is only incremented when we find a pair (i, j) such that the next girls to accept proposals from b_i and b_j , respectively, are g_j and g_i . This implies that $Z' \geq 1$ can only arise when there is a maximal rotation of cardinality 2. \square

Therefore, our aim is to prove that $P(Z' \geq 1) = \Omega(1)$, where Z' is the random variable generated by the algorithm.

4.2.2 Bounding the Number of Proposals

Our objective now is to show that the behaviour of this new two-phase algorithm does not deviate too much from its expected behaviour. Specifically, we show it satisfies a series of properties with sufficiently high probability. As before, let T_1 and T_2 be the number of proposals made in the first and second phases, respectively, and let $T = T_1 + T_2$. Properties I to VII are as defined in Section 4.1. But now we require several more properties. To describe these, let p_{S_t} denote the probability of the next proposal being accepted when in state S_t . We are interested in the following five properties that may apply to a state in the second phase:

VIII. $t \geq \frac{1}{2}n \log n$

IX. No more than $n^{\frac{9}{10}}$ girls have received less than $\frac{1}{4} \log n$ proposals.

X. No more than \sqrt{n} girls have received a redundant proposal.

XI. $\{p_\tau | T_1 \leq \tau \leq t\} \subseteq \left[\frac{1}{22 \log n}, \frac{5}{\log n} \right]$

XII. $T_2 \geq \frac{1}{20}n \log n$

Let \mathcal{G}' be the set of all good states in the second phase satisfying these conditions. Like \mathcal{G} , \mathcal{G}' is monotone. Let G^* denote the event $\mathcal{S}_{T-1} \in \mathcal{G}'$, that is the event that the algorithm in a good state satisfying these conditions the period before it terminates.

Lemma 4.2.2. *For n sufficiently large, $P(G^*) \geq 1 - o(1)$.*

Proof. Given the algorithm has not terminated, properties II to VII hold with high probability by the same argument as in Lemma 4.1.2. Therefore, it is enough to show that properties VIII to XII hold almost surely conditioned on II to VII.

Recall T_1 is the number of proposals until each girl receives at least one proposal. Thus T_1 is just the random variable for a coupon collector's problem. Let t^i be the number of proposals needed to collect the i^{th} coupon after the first $i - 1$ coupons have already been collected. So the t^i are independent geometric random variables with parameters $\frac{n-(i-1)}{n}$ which sum to T_1 . Thus the expectation of T_1 is $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(t^i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{n}{n-(i-1)} = n \log n + o(n \log n)$ with variance $\sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(t^i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\left(\frac{n}{n-(i-1)} \right)^2 - \frac{n}{n-(i-1)} \right) = n^2 \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j^2} - n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j}$. Consequently, the variance is bounded above by $\frac{\pi^2}{6} \cdot n^2$. Applying Chebyshev's inequality then gives:

$$P\left(T_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}n \log n\right) \leq P\left(|T_1 - \mathbb{E}(T_1)| \geq \frac{1}{3}n \log n\right) \leq \frac{\pi^2}{6 \left(\frac{1}{3} \log n\right)^2} = \frac{3\pi^2}{2 \log^2 n}$$

This proves VIII occurs almost surely as $t \geq T_1$ in the second phase.

Let X_i be the indicator of whether girl i has received at most $\frac{1}{4} \log n$ proposals after $t \geq \frac{1}{2}n \log n$ total proposals. Let Y_i be the number of different proposals she has received in that amount of time. Then, by Markov's inequality:

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \geq n^{\frac{9}{10}}\right) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i)}{n^{\frac{9}{10}}} = n^{\frac{1}{10}} \cdot P(X_1 = 1) = n^{\frac{1}{10}} \cdot P\left(Y_i \leq \frac{1}{4} \log n\right)$$

Since Y_i is binomial and has expectation greater than $\frac{1}{2} \log n$, applying a Chernoff bound

gives:

$$P\left(Y_i \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{1}{2} \log n\right) \leq e^{-\frac{1}{8} \log n} = n^{-\frac{1}{8}}$$

Thus,

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \geq n^{\frac{9}{10}}\right) \leq n^{\frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{8}} = n^{\frac{-1}{40}}$$

This proves that IX occurs almost surely.

Next let R denote the number of redundant proposals made in the first phase. We know that, throughout the first phase, the set of girls that any boy has proposed to has cardinality at most $\log^4 n$. Thus, the probability that any proposal is redundant is bounded above by $\frac{\log^4 n}{n}$. This implies that the expected number of redundant proposals is at most:

$$\frac{\log^4 n}{n} \cdot 5n \log n = 5 \log^5 n$$

In particular, let R_G be the number of girls who have received redundant proposals. Clearly $R_G \leq R$. Thus, by Markov's inequality:

$$P(R_G \geq \sqrt{n}) \leq P(R \geq \sqrt{n}) \leq \frac{5 \log^5 n}{\sqrt{n}}$$

This proves that X occurs almost surely.

Now let X be the set of girls who have received at least $\frac{1}{4} \log n$ distinct proposals. By VIII and IX, no more than $n^{\frac{9}{10}}$ girls have received less than $\frac{1}{4} \log n$ proposals by the end of the first phase. By X no more than \sqrt{n} of the remaining girls have received redundant proposals. It follows that $|X| \geq n - \sqrt{n} - n^{\frac{9}{10}}$. Recall, p_{S_t} is the probability the next proposal being accepted and let ρ_i be the number of proposals received by g_i at the end of the first phase. So, when VIII to X occur:

$$p_{S_t} \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} \frac{1}{\rho_g + 1} \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in X} \frac{1}{\rho_g + 1} + \frac{\sqrt{n} + n^{\frac{9}{10}}}{n} \leq \frac{n - n^{\frac{9}{10}} - \sqrt{n}}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{4} \log n + 1} + n^{-\frac{1}{2}} + n^{\frac{-1}{10}} \leq \frac{5}{\log n}$$

Similarly, by VII, at least $n - \log^4 n$ girls have not received a proposal from the proposing boy. This, along with IV, implies that when VIII to X occur $p_{S_t} \geq \frac{n - \log^4 n}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{21 \log n + 1} \geq \frac{1}{22 \log n}$. Hence, XI occurs almost surely.

Finally, to show the last property, we modify the proof of Lemma 4.1.6 using the bounds obtained from XI. Indeed, if $t \leq \frac{n}{2}$ then the algorithm has not terminated. For $t \geq \frac{n}{2}$, denoting X_t to be the number of accepted proposals in the second phase, applying Lemma 3.3.4 with Lemma 3.3.3 for $t \leq \frac{1}{20}n \log n$ gives:

$$P\left(X_t \geq \frac{n}{2}\right) \leq P\left(X_t \geq \frac{10}{\log n}t\right) \leq P\left(B_{t, \frac{5}{\log n}} \geq \frac{10}{\log n}t\right) \leq \exp\left(-\frac{t \cdot \frac{5}{\log n}}{3}\right) = o(1)$$

Thus XII occurs almost surely. \square

4.2.3 Bounding the Probability of Missing a Rotation

We can complete the proof of our second main result in two steps. First, we show that the probability of a maximal rotation of cardinality two existing is at least a constant. The second step is then easy. If there is a maximal rotation of cardinality two then a random coalition of cardinality at most $(1 - \epsilon) \cdot n$ will not be a winning coalition with constant probability.

Theorem 4.2.3. *Let $Z'_t = 1$ when the t^{th} proposal of the second phases closes a rotation of size 2 and let $Z' = \sum_{t=1}^{T_2} Z'_t$. Then $P(Z' \geq 1) = \Omega(1)$.*

Proof. The t^{th} proposal of the second phase ends a rotation of size 2 if the following five events occur:

- E_1^t : “The second phase has not ended *and* we are not in the first run of the second phase.”
- E_2^t : “The last proposal of the previous run was to a girl who hadn’t yet accepted a proposal.”

- E_3^t : “The proposal is made to the optimal partner of the boy who started the previous run.”
- E_4^t : “The proposal is not redundant.”
- E_5^t : “The proposal is accepted.”

If $111 \log^2 n \leq t \leq \frac{1}{20} n \log n$, by [V](#) and by [XII](#) we have $P(E_1^t | \mathcal{S}_t \in \mathcal{G}') = 1$.

Denote $E_{(a,b)}^t = \bigwedge_{i=a}^b E_i^t$ and let G_t be the set of girls who have accepted proposals in the second phase. By [XI](#) the probability of a proposal being accepted is at most $\frac{5}{\log n}$. On the other hand, by [IV](#) the probability of a proposal being accepted by a girl who isn't in G_t is at least $\frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{22 \log n} = \frac{1}{44 \log n}$, since at least $\frac{n}{2}$ girls are not in G_t . Thus, the probability of the proposal being accepted by a girl who isn't in G_t , given that it was accepted, is at least:

$$\frac{\frac{1}{44 \log n}}{\frac{5}{\log n}} = \frac{1}{220}$$

Therefore, $P(E_2^t | E_1^t \wedge \mathcal{S}_t \in \mathcal{G}') \geq \frac{1}{220}$. Now, clearly $P(E_3^t | E_{(1,2)}^t \wedge \mathcal{S}_t \in \mathcal{G}') = \frac{1}{n}$. Moreover, by [VII](#), $P(E_4^t | E_{(1,3)}^t \wedge \mathcal{S}_t \in \mathcal{G}') \geq 1 - \frac{\log^4 n}{n}$ and by [IV](#):

$$P(E_5^t | E_{(1,4)}^t \wedge \mathcal{S}_t \in \mathcal{G}') \geq \frac{1}{22 \log n}$$

Recall by [VI](#), the first run contains at most $111 \log^2 n$ proposals. We may conclude that for large enough n and t such that $111 \log^2 n \leq t \leq \frac{1}{20} n \log n$:

$$P(Z'_t = 1 | \mathcal{S}_t \in \mathcal{G}') = P(E_{(1,5)}^t | \mathcal{S}_t \in \mathcal{G}') \geq \frac{1}{220} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\log^4 n}{n}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{22 \log n} \geq \frac{1}{5000 n \log n}$$

Next denote the event to be E' . Since $\sum_{\tau=1}^t Z'_\tau$ is a counter, by [Lemma 3.3.3](#), we obtain

the following bound:

$$\begin{aligned}
P(Z' = 0) &\leq \sum_{S_{111 \log^2(n)}} P(E') \cdot P \left(\sum_{\tau=111 \log^2(n)}^{\frac{1}{20}n \log n} Z'_\tau = 0 \wedge \mathcal{S}_{\frac{1}{20}n \log n} \in \mathcal{G}' \middle| \mathcal{S}_{111 \log^2 n} = S_{111 \log^2 n} \right) \\
&\leq \sum_{S_{111 \log^2(n)}} P \left(B_{\frac{1}{20}n \log n - 111 \log^2(n), \frac{1}{5000n \log n}} = 0 \right) \\
&= P \left(\mathcal{S}_{\frac{1}{20}n \log n} \in \mathcal{G}' \right) \cdot P \left(B_{\frac{1}{20}n \log n - 111 \log^2(n), \frac{1}{5000n \log n}} = 0 \right)
\end{aligned}$$

By Lemma 4.2.2, $P \left(\mathcal{S}_{\frac{1}{20}n \log n} \in \mathcal{G}' \right) = 1 - o(1)$. So it is enough to show that:

$$P \left(B_{\frac{1}{20}n \log n - 111 \log^2(n), \frac{1}{5000n \log n}} = 0 \right) < 1 - \Omega(1)$$

This follows as

$$\begin{aligned}
P \left(B_{\frac{1}{20}n \log n - 111 \log^2(n), \frac{1}{5000n \log n}} = 0 \right) &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{5000n \log n} \right)^{\frac{1}{20}n \log n - 111 \log^2(n)} \\
&\leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{5000n \log n} \right)^{\frac{1}{21}n \log n} \\
&\leq e^{-\frac{1}{105000}} \\
&= 1 - \Omega(1)
\end{aligned}$$

□

We may now complete the proof of our second main result.

Proof of Theorem 3.3.2. The probability that in a random instance there is a rotation of size 2 is $\Omega(1)$ by Theorem 4.2.3. Given that there is a rotation of size 2, the following is the probability that a random set of λn girls misses this rotation of size 2:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\binom{n-2}{\lambda n}}{\binom{n}{\lambda n}} &= \frac{(n-2)!}{(n-2-\lambda n)! \cdot (\lambda n)!} \cdot \frac{(n-\lambda n)! \cdot (\lambda n)!}{n!} \\
&= \frac{n-\lambda n}{n} \cdot \frac{n-1-\lambda n}{n-1} \\
&\geq \left(1 - \frac{\lambda n}{n-1} \right)^2.
\end{aligned}$$

So, if $\lambda < 1 - \varepsilon$ for any positive constant ε , then the probability of missing a rotation is $\Omega(1) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda n}{n-1}\right)^2 = \Omega(1)$. □

Chapter 5

Conclusion

We have evaluated the expected cardinality of the minimum winning coalition. We believe this result is of theoretical interest and that the techniques applied may have broader applications for stable matching problems. In terms of practical value it is worth discussing the assumptions inherent in the model. The assumption of uniform and independent random preferences, while ubiquitous in the theoretical literature, is somewhat unrealistic in real-world stable matching instances. Furthermore, as presented, the model assumes full information, which is clearly not realistic in practice. However, to implement the behavioural strategy presented in this thesis, the assumption of full information is **not** required. It needs only that a girl has a good approximation of the rank of her best stable partner. But, by the results of Pittel [19], she does know this with high probability. Consequently, a near-optimal implementation of her behavioural strategy requires knowledge only of her own preference list! This allows for a risk-free method to output a matching close in the lattice to the girl-optimal stable matching. Similarly, as discussed, although our presentation has been in terms of a coalition of girls, each girl is able to implement a near-optimal behavioural strategy independent of who the other girls in the coalition may be or what their preferences are.

Since we know that unless we pick almost every girl, we have a non-trivial probability of selecting a non-winning coalition, further work into this subject could involve getting

the expected rank of the partners in the matching obtained with a coalition of size λn for $\lambda \in (0, 1)$.

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