

Cooperative Game Theory

[Branislav Bosansky \(slides by Michal Jakob\)](#)

AI Center,

Dept. of Computer Science and Engineering,
FEE, Czech Technical University

[BE4M36MAS Autumn 2016](#) - Lecture 8

Motivating Example: Car Pooling

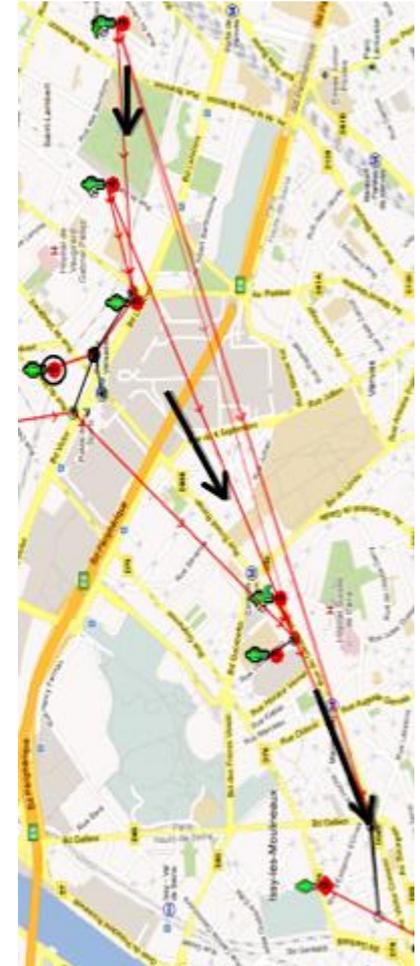
People drive to work and would like to form car pools.

- Some can pick up others on their way to work. Others have to go out of their way to pick up others.
- A car can only hold 5 people.

Assume people care about (1) **money** and (2) **time** and it is possible to convert between the two.

Who should carpool together?

How much should they pay each other?



Introduction

Cooperative Game Theory

Non Cooperative vs. Cooperative GT

Non-cooperative GT	Cooperative GT
Payoffs go directly to individual agents	Payoffs go to coalitions which redistribute them to their members*
Players choose an action	Players choose a coalition to join and agree on payoff distribution
Model of strategic confrontation	Model of team / cooperation formation
Players are self-interested	

*transferable utility games

Cooperative Game Theory

Model of **coalition (team) formation**

- friends agreeing on a trip
- entrepreneurs trying to form companies
- companies cooperating to handle a large contract

Assumes a **coalition** can **achieve more** than (the sum of) individual agents

- Better to team up and split the payoff than receive payoff individually

Also called **coalitional game theory**

Called cooperative but agents still **pursue their own interests!**

Example: Voting Game

The parliament of Micronesia is made up of **four political parties**, A, B, C, and D, which have **45, 25, 15, and 15 representatives**, respectively.

They are to vote on whether to pass a \$100 million **spending bill** and how much of this amount should be controlled by each of the parties.

A **majority vote**, that is, a **minimum of 51 votes**, is required in order to pass any legislation, and if the bill does not pass then every party gets zero to spend.

Example: Buying Ice-cream

n children, each has some amount of money

- the i -th child has b_i dollars

Three types of ice-cream tubs are for sale:

- Type 1 costs \$7, contains 500g
- Type 2 costs \$9, contains 750g
- Type 3 costs \$11, contains 1kg



Children have **utility for ice-cream**,
and do not care about **money**

The **payoff of each group**: the maximum **quantity**
of **ice-cream** the members of the group can buy
by pooling their money

The ice-cream can be **shared arbitrarily** within the group

How Is a Cooperative Game Played?

1. Knowing the payoffs for different coalitions, agents **analyze** which coalitions and which payoff distributions would be **beneficial** for them.
2. Agents agree on **coalitions** and **payoff** distributions
 - requires contracts – infrastructure for cooperation
3. Task is executed and **payoff** distributed.

We will now see how to formalize these ideas.

Basic Definitions

Cooperative Game Theory

Coalitional Games



TRANSFERABLE UTILITY GAMES

Payoffs are given **to the group** and then divided among its members.

Satisfied whenever there is a **universal currency** that is used for exchange in the system.

NON-TRANSFERABLE UTILITY GAMES

Group actions result in **payoffs to individual** group members.

There is no universal currency.

Coalitional Game

Transferable utility assumption: the payoff to a coalition may be freely redistributed among its members.

Definition (Coalitional game with transferable utility)

A **coalitional game with transferable utility** is a pair (N, v) where

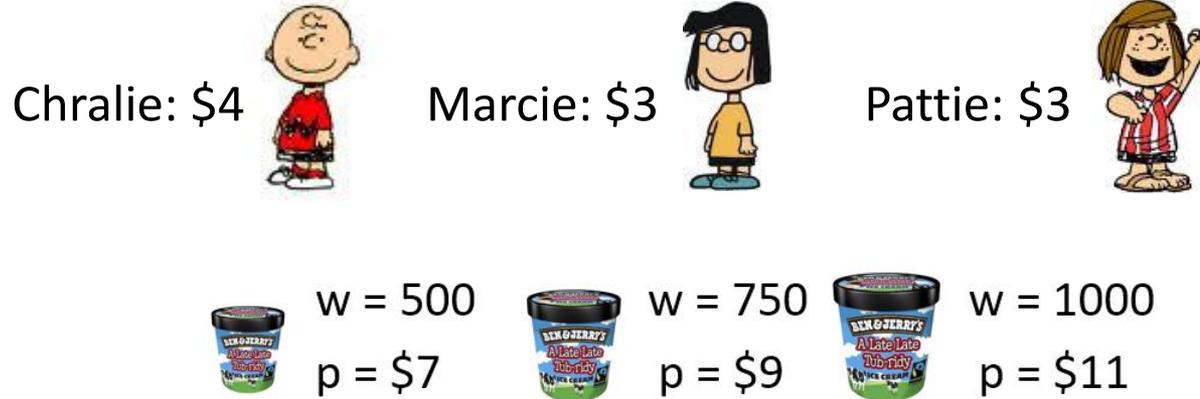
- N is a finite **set of players** (also termed **grand coalition**), indexed by i ; and
- $v: 2^N \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is a **characteristic function** (also termed **valuation function**) that associates with each coalition $S \subseteq N$ a real-valued **payoff** $v(S)$ that the coalition's members can distribute among themselves. We assume $v(\emptyset) = 0$.

Simple Example

$$N = \{1,2,3\}$$

S	$v(S)$
(1)	2
(2)	2
(3)	4
(12)	5
(13)	7
(23)	8
(123)	9

Illustrative Example



Characteristic function $v(C)$

- $v(\emptyset) = v(\{C\}) = v(\{M\}) = v(\{P\}) = 0$
- $v(\{C, M\}) = 500, v(\{C, P\}) = 500, v(\{M, P\}) = 0$
- $v(\{C, M, P\}) = 750$

Outcome and Payoff Vector

Definition (Outcome and Payoff)

An **outcome** of a game (N, v) is a pair (CS, \vec{x}) where

- $CS = (C_1, \dots, C_k)$, $\bigcup_i C_i = N$, $C_i \cap C_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$, is a **coalition structure**, i.e., a partition of N into coalitions.
- $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $x_i \geq 0$ for all $i \in N$, $\sum_{i \in C} x_i = v(C)$ for each $C \in CS$, is a **payoff (distribution) vector** which distributes the value of each coalition in CS to the coalition's members.

Payoff is **individually rational** (also called **imputation**) if $x_i \geq v(\{a_i\})$

Note: When the coalition structure is not explicitly mentioned, a grand coalition (all agents) is assumed

Example

S	$v(S)$
(1)	2
(2)	2
(3)	4
(1 2)	5
(1 3)	7
(2 3)	8
(1 2 3)	9

Outcome examples

$$(1)(2)(3)$$

$$2 + 2 + 4 = 8$$

$$(1)(2\ 3)$$

$$2 + 8 = 10$$

$$(2)\ (1\ 3)$$

$$2 + 7 = 9$$

$$(3)\ (1\ 2)$$

$$4 + 5 = 9$$

$$(1\ 2\ 3)$$

$$9$$

$$\vec{x} = (2, 3, 4)$$

Distributing Payments

How should we *fairly* distribute a coalition's payoff?

S	$v(S)$
$()$	0
(1)	1
(2)	3
(12)	6

? If the agents form (12) , how much should each get paid?

Fairness: Axiomatic Approach

What is fair?

Axiomatic approach – a fair payoff distribution should satisfy:

- **Symmetry:** if two agents *contribute the same*, they should receive the same pay-off (they are interchangeable)
- **Dummy player:** agents that *do not add value* to any coalition should get what they earn on their own
- **Additivity:** if two *games are combined*, the value a player gets should be the sum of the values it gets in individual games

Axiomatizing Fairness: Symmetry

Agents i and j **are interchangeable** if they always contribute the same amount to every coalition of the other agents.

- for all S that contains neither i nor j , $v(S \cup \{i\}) = v(S \cup \{j\})$.

The symmetry axiom states that such agents should receive the same payments.

Axiom (Symmetry)

If i and j are interchangeable, then $x_i = x_j$.

Axiomatizing Fairness: Dummy Player

Agent i is a **dummy player** if the amount that i contributes to any coalition is exactly the amount that i is able to achieve alone.

- for all S such that $i \notin S$: $v(S \cup \{i\}) - v(S) = v(\{i\})$.

The dummy player axiom states that dummy players should receive a payment equal to exactly the amount that they achieve on their own.

Axiom (Dummy player)

If i is a dummy player, then $x_i = v(\{i\})$.

Axiomatizing fairness: Additivity

Consider two different coalitional game theory problems, defined by two different characteristic functions v' and v'' , involving the same set of agents.

The **additivity axiom** states that if we re-model the setting as a single game in which each coalition S achieves a payoff of $v'(S) + v''(S)$, the agents' payments in each coalition should be *the sum of the payments* they would have achieved for that coalition under *the two separate games*.

Axiom (Additivity)

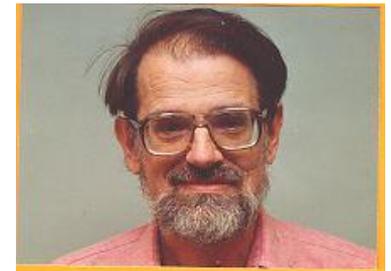
If \vec{x}' and \vec{x}'' are payment distributions in the game (N, v') and (N, v'') , respectively, then $x_i^+ = x_i' + x_i''$ where \vec{x}^+ is the payment distribution in a game $(N, v' + v'')$.

Shapley Value

Theorem

Given a coalitional game (N, v) , there is a **unique payoff division** $\vec{\phi}(N, v)$ that divides the full payoff of the grand coalition and that satisfies the Symmetry, Dummy player and Additivity axioms.

This payoff division is called **Shapley value**.



Lloyd F. Shapley. 1923–.
Responsible for the core and
Shapley value solution
concepts.

Shapley Value

Definition (Shapley value)

Given a coalitional game (N, v) , the **Shapley value** of player i is given by

$$\phi_i(N, v) = \frac{1}{N!} \sum_{S \subseteq N \setminus \{i\}} |S|! (|N| - |S| - 1)! [v(S \cup \{i\}) - v(S)]$$

This captures the “**average marginal contribution**” of agent i , **averaging** over all the **different sequences** according to which the grand coalition could be built up from the empty coalition.

Shapley Value: Example

? If they form (12), how much should each get paid?

S	$v(S)$
()	0
(1)	1
(2)	3
(12)	6

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_1 &= \frac{1}{2} (v(1) - v(\cdot) + v(21) - v(2)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (1 - 0 + 6 - 3) = 2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_2 &= \frac{1}{2} (v(2) - v(\cdot) + v(12) - v(1)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (3 - 0 + 6 - 1) = 4\end{aligned}$$

? Does Shapley value always exist? Yes.

Classes of Coalition Games

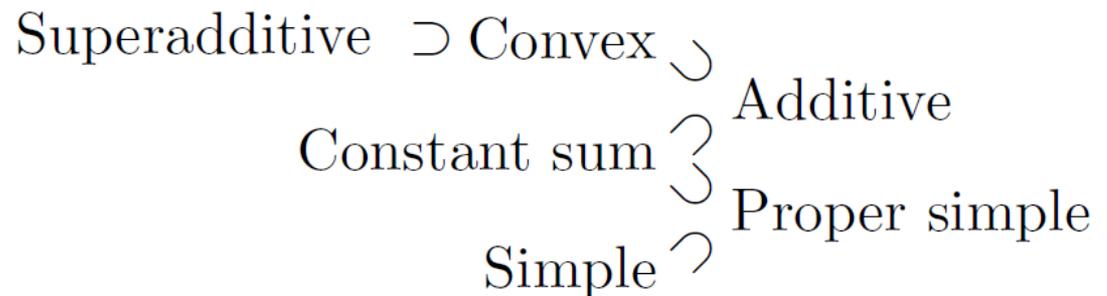
Superadditive game

Additive game

Constant-sum game

Convex game

Simple game



Superadditive Games

Definition (Superadditive game)

A **coalitional game** (N, v) is called **superadditive** if $v(C \cup D) \geq v(C) + v(D)$ for every pair of disjoint coalitions $C, D \subseteq N$.

In superadditive games, two coalitions can always **merge** without losing money (i.e. their members can work **without interference**); hence, we can assume that players form the **grand coalition**.

 Is the icecream game superadditive?

Yes.

Convex Games

An important subclass of superadditive games

Definition (Convex game)

A **coalitional game** (N, v) is termed **convex** if $v(C \cup D) \geq v(C) + v(D) - v(C \cap D)$ for every pair of coalitions $C, D \subseteq N$.

Convexity is a **stronger condition** than superadditivity.

- “a player is more useful when he joins a bigger coalition”

Simple Games

Definition (Simple game)

A **coalitional game** (N, v) is termed **simple** if $v(C) \in \{0,1\}$ for any $C \subseteq N$ and v is **monotone**, i.e., if $v(C) = 1$ and $C \subseteq D$, then $v(D) = 1$.

Model of yes/no voting systems.

A coalition C in a simple game is said to be **winning** if $v(C) = 1$ and **losing** if $v(C) = 0$.

A player i in a simple game is a **veto player** if $v(C) = 0$ for any $C \subseteq N \setminus \{i\}$

- equivalently, by monotonicity, $v(N \setminus \{i\}) = 0$.

Traditionally, in simple games an outcome is identified with a payoff vector for N .

Solution Concepts

Cooperative Games

Solution Concepts

What are the **outcomes** that are likely to arise in cooperative games?

Rewards from cooperation need to be divided in a **motivating** way.

Fairness: How well payoffs reflect each agent's contribution?

Stability: What are the incentives for agents to stay in a coalition structure?

What Is a Good Outcome?



Characteristic function

$$v(\emptyset) = v(\{C\}) = v(\{M\}) = v(\{P\}) = v(\{M, P\}) = 0, v(\{C, M\}) = v(\{C, P\}) = 500, v(\{C, M, P\}) = 750$$

How should the players share the ice-cream?

- What about sharing as (200, 200, 350) ?
- The outcome (200, 200, 350) is **not stable** (Charlie and Marcie can get more ice-cream by buying a 500g tub on their own, and splitting it equally)

The Core

Under **what payment** distributions is the **outcome** of a game **stable**?

- As long as each subcoalition earns at least as much as it can make on its own.
- This is the case if and only if the payoff vector is drawn from a set called the core.

Definition (Core)

A payoff vector \vec{x} is in the **core** of a coalitional game (N, v) iff

$$\forall S \subseteq N, \sum_{i \in S} x_i \geq v(S)$$

The **core** of a game is the set of **all stable outcomes**, i.e., outcomes that no coalition wants to deviate from.

- analogue to strong Nash equilibrium (allows deviations by groups of agent)

Ice-Cream Game: Core



$$v(\emptyset) = v(\{C\}) = v(\{M\}) = v(\{P\}) = v(\{M, P\}) = 0, v(\{C, M\}) = v(\{C, P\}) = 500, v(\{C, M, P\}) = 750$$

(200, 200, 350) **is not** in the core:

- $v(\{C, M\}) > x_C + x_M$

(250, 250, 250) **is** in the core:

- no subgroup of players can deviate so that each member of the subgroup gets more

(750, 0, 0) **is** also in the core:

- Marcie and Pattie cannot get more on their own! \rightarrow *fairness?*

Core: Example

S	$v(S)$
(1)	1
(2)	2
(3)	2
(12)	4
(13)	3
(23)	4
(123)	6

$\sum_{i \in S} x_i$	$\sum_{i \in S} x'_i$	$\sum_{i \in S} x''_i$
2	2	1
1	2	3
2	2	2
3	4	3
4	4	3
3	4	5
5	6	6

? In the core, i.e., $\forall S \subseteq N, \sum_{i \in S} x_i \geq v(S)$?

$\vec{x} = (2, 1, 2)$ No

$\vec{x}' = (2, 2, 2)$ Yes

$\vec{x}'' = (1, 2, 3)$ No

Core: Existence

❓ Is the core **always non-empty**?

No. Core existence guaranteed only for certain special subclasses of games.

Core is also **not unique** (there might be infinitely many payoff divisions in the core).

It can be different in specific subclasses

- **convex games** always have non-empty core (and Shapley value is in the core)
- a **simple game** has a non-empty core iff it has a veto player.

ε -Core

If the core is empty, we may want to find **approximately stable** outcomes

Need to relax the notion of the core:

- core: $x(C) \geq v(C)$ for all $C \subseteq N$
- ε -core: $x(C) \geq v(C) - \varepsilon$ for all $C \subseteq N$

Example:

$N = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $v(C) = 1$ if $|C| > 1$, $v(C) = 0$ otherwise

- 1/3-core is non-empty: $(1/3, 1/3, 1/3) \in 1/3$ -core
- ε -core is empty for any $\varepsilon < 1/3$:
 $\Leftarrow x_i \geq 1/3$ for some $i = 1, 2, 3$, so $x(N \setminus \{i\}) \leq 2/3$, $v(N \setminus \{i\}) = 1$

Least Core

If an outcome \vec{x} is in ε -core, the deficit $v(C) - \vec{x}(C)$ of any coalition is at most ε .

We are interested in outcomes that **minimize** the **worst-case deficit**.

Let $\varepsilon^*(G) = \inf\{\varepsilon \mid \varepsilon\text{-core of } G \text{ is not empty}\}$

- it can be shown that $\varepsilon^*(G)$ -core is not empty

Definition: $\varepsilon^*(G)$ -core is called the **least core** of G

- $\varepsilon^*(G)$ is called the value of the least core

Example (previous slide): least core = 1/3-core

Further Solution Concepts

Nucleolus

Bargaining set

Kernel



more complicated
stability considerations

Representation Aspects

Cooperative Game Theory

Need for Compact Representations

A **naive representation** of a coalition game is infeasible (**exponential** in the number of agents):

- e.g. for three agents $\{1, 2, 3\}$:

$(1) = 5$	$(1, 3) = 10$
$(2) = 5$	$(2, 3) = 20$
$(3) = 5$	$(1, 2, 3) = 25$
$(1, 2) = 10$	

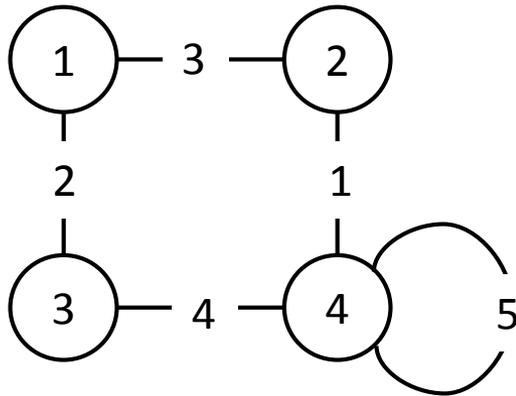
We need a **succinct/compact** representations.

Completeness vs. succinctness

- **Complete**: can represent any game but not necessarily succinct.
- **Succinct**: small-size but incomplete – can only represent an (important) subclass.

Induced Subgraph (Weighted Graph) Games

Characteristic function defined by an **undirected weighted graph**.
Value of a coalition $S \subseteq N$: $v(S) = \sum_{\{i,j\} \subseteq S} w_{i,j}$



$$v(\{1, 2, 3\}) = 3 + 2 = 5$$

$$v(\{4\}) = 5$$

$$v(\{2, 4\}) = 1 + 5 = 6$$

$$v(\{1, 3\}) = 2$$

Incomplete representation (not all characteristic functions can be represented)

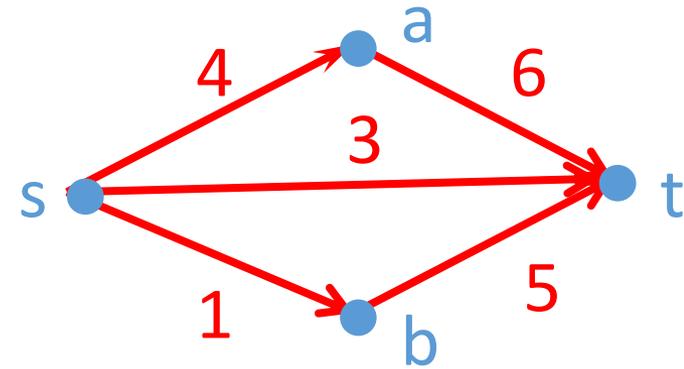
If all edge weights are **non-negative**, the game is **convex** (\Rightarrow non-empty core.)

Easy to compute the **Shapley value** for a given agent in polynomial time: $sh_i = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \neq i} w_{i,j}$

Other Combinatorial Representations

Network flow games

- agents are edges in a network with source s and sink t
- value of a coalition = amount of $s-t$ flow it can carry

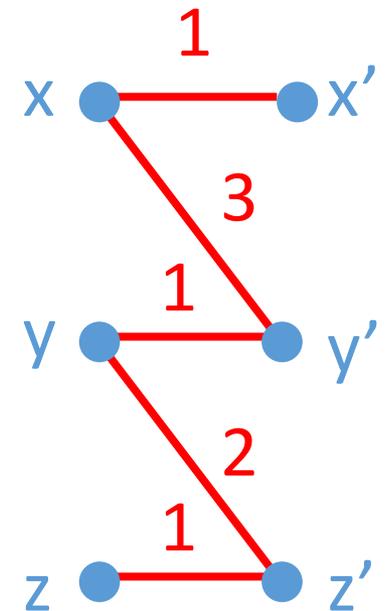


Assignment games

- Players are vertices of a bipartite graph
- Value of a coalition = weight of the max-weight induced matching

Matching games

- generalization of assignment games to other than bipartite graphs



Weighted Voting Games

Defined by (1) overall **quota** q and (2) **weight** w_i for each agent i

Coalition is winning if the sum of their weights **exceeds the**

$$\text{quota } v(C) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_{\{i \in C\}} w_i \geq q \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example: Simple **majority voting**: $w_i = 1$ and $q = \lceil |N + 1|/2 \rceil$

Succinct (but **incomplete** representation): $\langle q, w_1, \dots, w_n \rangle$

Coalition Structure Generation

How do we **partition the set of agents** into coalitions to maximize the overall profit?

Finding Optimal Coalition Structure

We assume utilitarian solution, i.e., **maximizing the total payoff** of all coalitions.

Trivial if **superadditive** → **grand coalition**.

Otherwise: **search** for the best coalition **structure**.

The Coalition Structure Generation Problem

Example: given 3 agents, the possible **coalitions** are:

$\{a_1\}$ $\{a_2\}$ $\{a_3\}$ $\{a_1, a_2\}$ $\{a_1, a_3\}$ $\{a_2, a_3\}$ $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$

The possible **coalition structures** are:

$\{\{a_1\}, \{a_2\}, \{a_3\}\}$ $\{\{a_1, a_2\}, \{a_3\}\}$ $\{\{a_2\}, \{a_1, a_3\}\}$ $\{\{a_1\}, \{a_2, a_3\}\}$ $\{\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}\}$

The **input** is the characteristic function

$$v(\{a_1\}) = 20$$

$$v(\{a_2\}) = 40$$

$$v(\{a_3\}) = 30$$

$$v(\{a_1, a_2\}) = 70$$

$$v(\{a_1, a_3\}) = 40$$

$$v(\{a_2, a_3\}) = 65$$

$$v(\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}) = 95$$

What we want as **output** is a coalition structure in which the **sum of values is maximized**

$$V(\{\{a_1\}, \{a_2\}, \{a_3\}\}) = 20 + 40 + 30 = 90$$

$$V(\{\{a_1, a_2\}, \{a_3\}\}) = 70 + 30 = \mathbf{100}$$

$$V(\{\{a_2\}, \{a_1, a_3\}\}) = 40 + 40 = 80$$

$$V(\{\{a_1\}, \{a_2, a_3\}\}) = 20 + 65 = 85$$

$$V(\{\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}\}) = 95$$

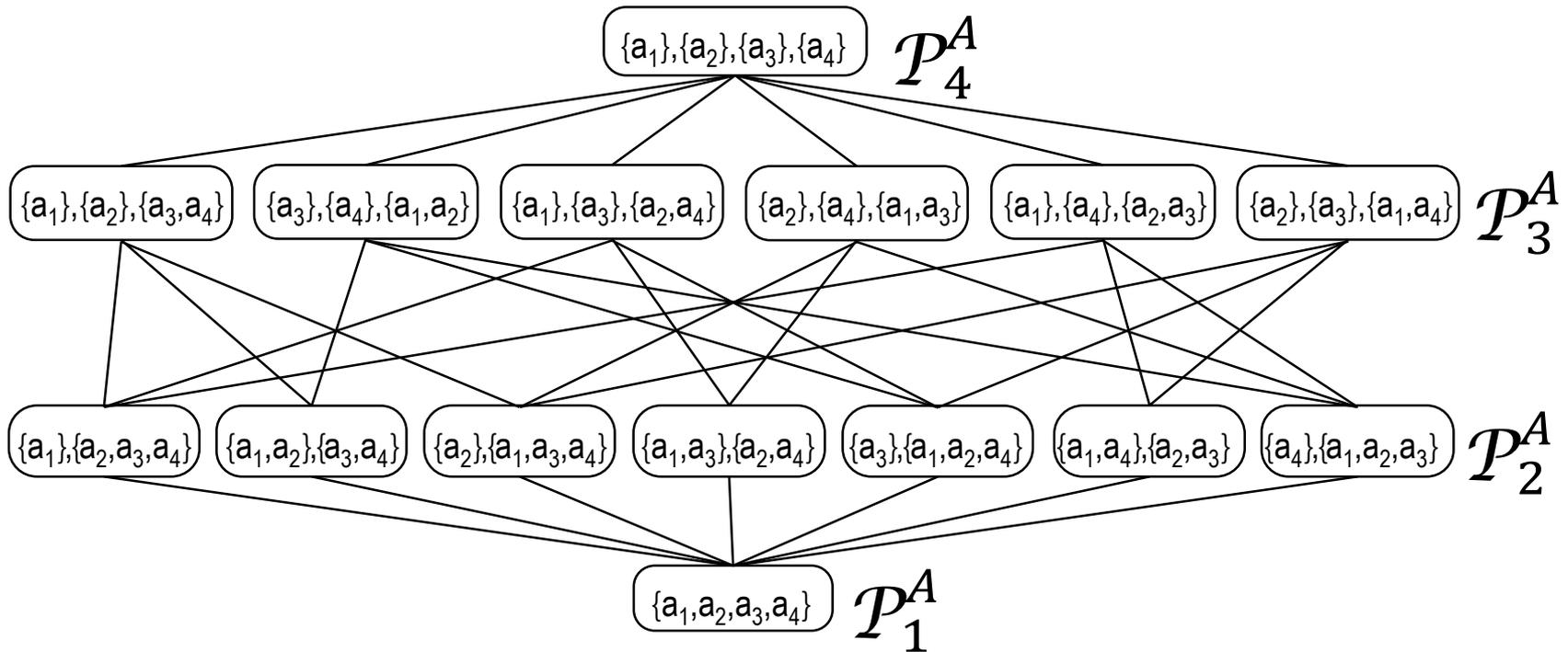
optimal coalition structure

Search Space Representation

1. Coalition structure graph
2. Integer partition graph

Coalition Structure Graph (for 4 agents)

$\mathcal{P}_i^A \subseteq \mathcal{P}^A$ contains all coalition structures that consist of exactly i coalitions

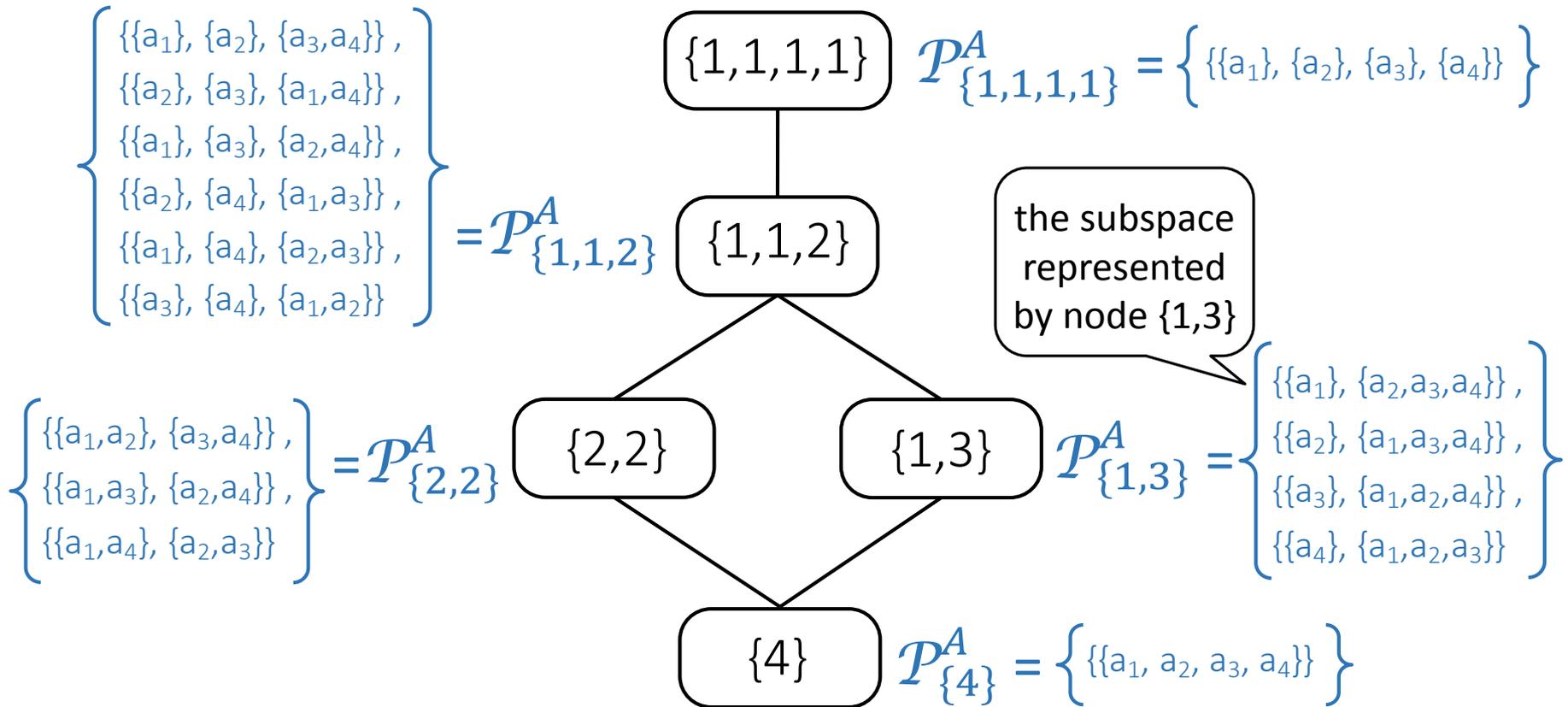


Edge connects two coalition structures iff:

1. they belong to two consecutive levels \mathcal{P}_i^A and \mathcal{P}_{i-1}^A
2. the coalition structure in \mathcal{P}_{i-1}^A can be obtained from the one in \mathcal{P}_i^A by merging two coalitions into one

Integer Partition Graph (example of 4 agents)

Every node represents a subspace (coalition sizes match the integers in that node)



Two nodes representing partitions $I, I' \in \mathcal{J}^n$ are connected iff there exists two parts $i, j \in I$ such that $I' = (I \setminus \{i, j\}) \sqcup \{i + j\}$

Challenge

Challenge: the number of coalitions for n players:

$$\alpha n^{n/2} \leq B_n \leq n^n$$

for some positive constant α (B_n is a Bell number)

Algorithms for Coalition Formation

Optimal: Dynamic programming

Anytime (suboptimal) algorithms with guaranteed bounds

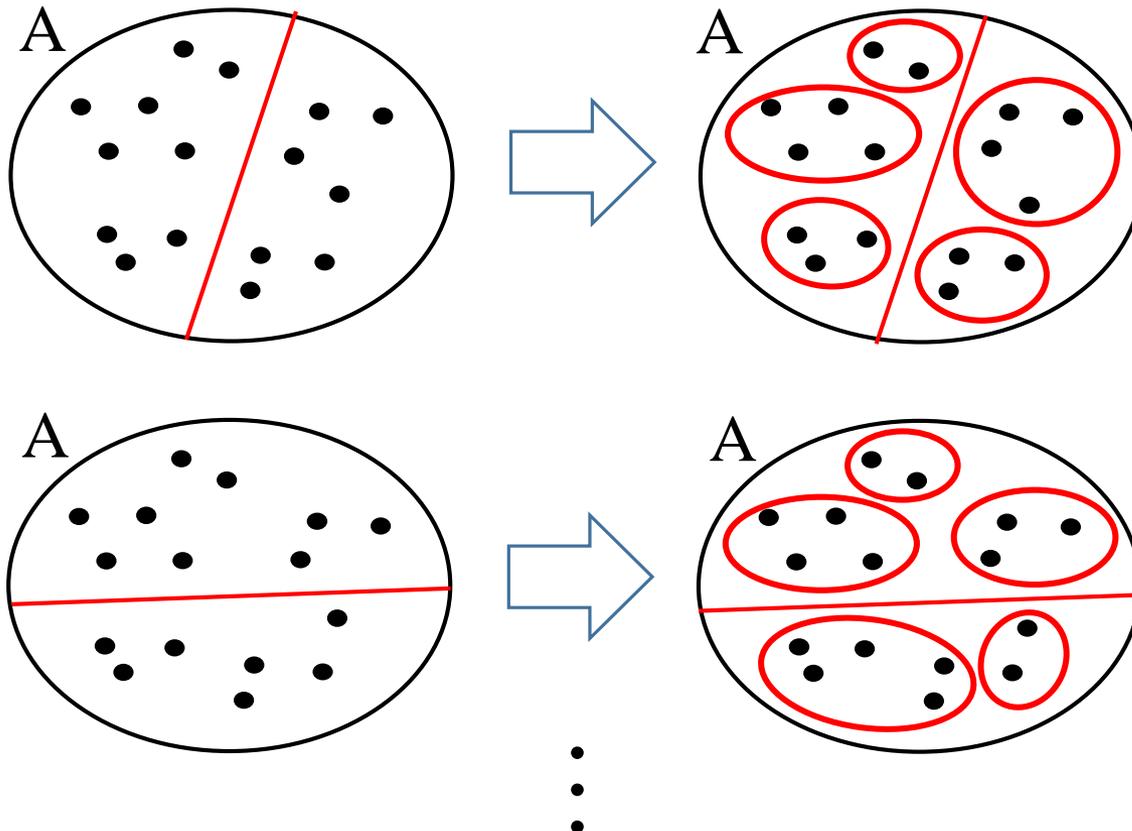
Heuristics algorithms

Algorithms for **compact representation** games

Dynamic Programming (DP) Algorithm

Main observation: To examine all coalition structure $CS: |CS| \geq 2$, it is sufficient to:

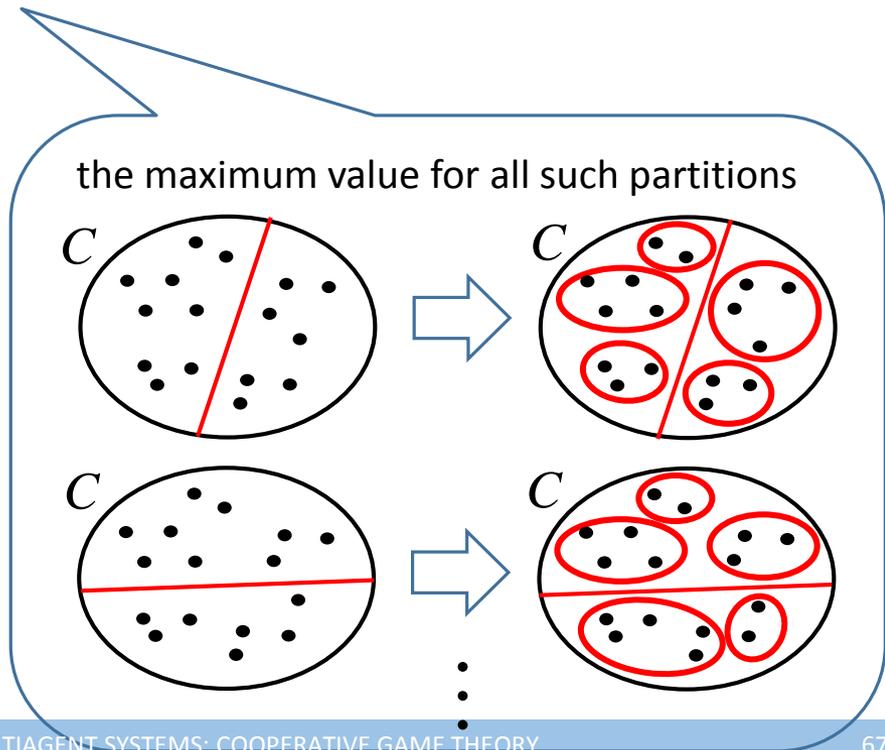
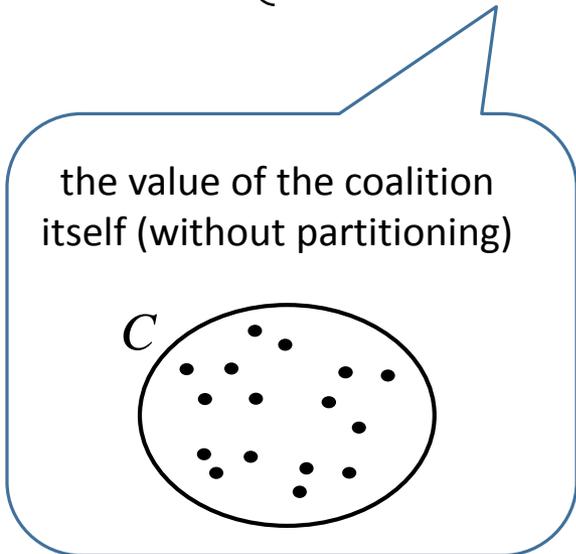
- try the possible ways to split the **set of agents into two sets**, and
- for every half, find the **optimal partition** of that half.



Dynamic Programming (DP) Algorithm

Main theorem: Given a coalition $C \in A$, let \mathcal{P}^C be the set of partitions of C , and let $f(C)$ be the value of an optimal partition of C , i.e., $f(C) = \max_{P \in \mathcal{P}^C} V(P)$. Then,

$$f(C) = \begin{cases} v(C) & \text{if } |C| = 1 \\ \max \left\{ v(C), \max_{\{C', C''\} \in \mathcal{P}^C} f(C') + f(C'') \right\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Dynamic Programming (DP) Algorithm

Algorithm:

- Iterate over all coalitions $C: |C| = 1$, then over all $C: |C| = 2$, then all $C: |C| = 3$, etc.
- For every coalition, C , compute $f(C)$ using the above equation
- While computing $f(C)$:
 - the algorithm stores in $t(C)$ the best way to split C in two
 - unless it is more beneficial to keep C as it is (i.e., without splitting)
- By the end of this process, $f(A)$ will be computed, which is by definition the value of the optimal coalition structure
- It remains to compute the optimal coalition structure itself, by using $t(A)$

input:

$$v(\{1\}) = 30$$

$$v(\{2\}) = 40$$

$$v(\{3\}) = 25$$

$$v(\{4\}) = 45$$

$$v(\{1,2\}) = 50$$

$$v(\{1,3\}) = 60$$

$$v(\{1,4\}) = 80$$

$$v(\{2,3\}) = 55$$

$$v(\{2,4\}) = 70$$

$$v(\{3,4\}) = 80$$

$$v(\{1,2,3\}) = 90$$

$$v(\{1,2,4\}) = 120$$

$$v(\{1,3,4\}) = 100$$

$$v(\{2,3,4\}) = 115$$

$$v(\{1,2,3,4\}) = 140$$

coalition	evaluations performed before setting f		t	f
step 1 {1} {2} {3} {4}	$v(\{1\})=30$	$f(\{1\})=30$	{1}	30
	$v(\{2\})=40$	$f(\{2\})=40$	{2}	40
	$v(\{3\})=25$	$f(\{3\})=25$	{3}	25
	$v(\{4\})=45$	$f(\{4\})=45$	{4}	45
step 2 {1,2} {1,3} {1,4} {2,3} {2,4} {3,4}	$v(\{1,2\})=50$	$f(\{1\})+f(\{2\})=70$	{1} {2}	70
	$v(\{1,3\})=60$	$f(\{1\})+f(\{3\})=55$	{1,3}	60
	$v(\{1,4\})=80$	$f(\{1\})+f(\{4\})=75$	{1,4}	80
	$v(\{2,3\})=55$	$f(\{2\})+f(\{3\})=65$	{2} {3}	65
	$v(\{2,4\})=70$	$f(\{2\})+f(\{4\})=85$	{2} {4}	85
	$v(\{3,4\})=80$	$f(\{3\})+f(\{4\})=70$	{3,4}	80
	step 3 {1,2,3} {1,2,4} {1,3,4} {2,3,4}	$v(\{1,2,3\})=90$	$f(\{1\})+f(\{2,3\})=95$ $f(\{2\})+f(\{1,3\})=100$ $f(\{3\})+f(\{1,2\})=95$	{2} {1,3}
$v(\{1,2,4\})=120$		$f(\{1\})+f(\{2,4\})=115$ $f(\{2\})+f(\{1,4\})=110$ $f(\{4\})+f(\{1,2\})=115$	{1,2,4}	120
$v(\{1,3,4\})=100$		$f(\{1\})+f(\{3,4\})=110$ $f(\{3\})+f(\{1,4\})=105$ $f(\{4\})+f(\{1,3\})=105$	{1} {3,4}	110
$v(\{2,3,4\})=115$		$f(\{2\})+f(\{3,4\})=120$ $f(\{3\})+f(\{2,4\})=110$ $f(\{4\})+f(\{2,3\})=110$	{2} {3,4}	120
step 4 {1,2,3,4}	$v(\{1,2,3,4\})=140$	$f(\{1\})+f(\{2,3,4\})=150$ $f(\{2\})+f(\{1,3,4\})=150$ $f(\{3\})+f(\{1,2,4\})=145$ $f(\{4\})+f(\{1,2,3\})=145$ $f(\{1,2\})+f(\{3,4\})=150$ $f(\{1,3\})+f(\{2,4\})=145$ $f(\{1,4\})+f(\{2,3\})=145$	{1,2} {3,4}	150

step 5

Dynamic Programming (DP) Algorithm

Note:

- While DP is guaranteed to find an **optimal coalition structure**, many of its operations were shown to be redundant
- An improved dynamic programming algorithm (called IDP) was developed that avoids all redundant operations

Advantage:

- IDP is the **fastest** algorithm that finds an **optimal** coalition structure in $O(3^n)$

Disadvantage:

- IDP provides **no interim solutions** before completion, meaning that it is not possible to trade computation time for solution quality.

Anytime Algorithms

Anytime algorithm is one whose solution quality improves gradually as computation time increases.

- This way, an **interim** solution is always **available** in case the algorithm run to completion.

Advantages:

- agents might not have time to run the algorithm to completion
- being anytime makes the algorithm more robust against failure.

Categories of algorithms

- algorithms based on Identifying **Subspaces with Worst-Case Guarantees**
- algorithms based on the **integer-partition based** representation.

Conclusions

Cooperative game theory models the formation of **teams of selfish agents**.

- **coalitional game** formalizes the concept
- **core** solution concept address the issue of coalition stability
- **Shapley value** solution concept represents a fair distribution of payments

For practical computation, **compact representations** of coalition games are required.

For non-superadditive games, (optimal) **coalition structure** needs to be found.

Reading:

- **[Weiss]: Chapter 8**
- [Shoham]: 12.1-12.2
- [Vidal]: Chapter 4