

Auctions

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Auctions

1. Introduction

What is an auction ?

- A method for allocating scarce resources based on competition
- Bidding mechanism:
 - The seller (auctioneer) defines the auction rules:
 - how the winner is determined
 - how much he must pay
 - Each buyer chooses a bidding **strategy**
- Basic distinction: single-item vs. multi-item auctions

Examples

- Ancient cases:
 - 500BC: Herodotus mentions about auctions in Babylon
 - Ancient Rome: commercial trading, selling war booty
 - 193 A.D.: auction for the entire empire
- More recent cases: auctions
 - for rare collective items
 - in wholesale markets of fish, flowers, etc.
 - for public contracts
 - in stock market
- Very recent cases: auctions
 - over Internet (E-bay, ONSALE, etc.)
 - for bandwidth (Interxion, Band-X, Bandwidth Market Ltd.), spectrum

An auction is a game

- The auction rules define a game among bidders
- Should use the basic game-theoretic concepts to analyze auctions
 - Define economic objectives of bidders
 - Maximize Net benefit \rightarrow Maximize (Value – Charge)
 - Try to predict bidding behavior \rightarrow Look for
 - Dominant strategies
 - Nash equilibria

Dominant strategy

- Best strategy for one player, regardless of how opponents play
- Example: Pay-off matrix of 2-player game
 - Up is the dominant strategy for Row player
 - Knowing this, Column player, will play Left

		Column Player	
		Left	Right
Row Player	Up	2,3	4,1
	Down	1,2	3,5

Nash equilibrium

- Set of strategies from which no player has incentive to deviate
 - Best strategy for individual players,
if others also maintain their strategies
- Example: The battle of sexes
 - Two pure Nash equilibria
 - No dominant strategies exist

		Alice	
		Box	Ballet
Bob	Box	2,1	0,0
	Ballet	0,0	1,2

An important observation

- The best outcomes are **not** always Nash equilibria
- Example: Prisoner's dilemma
 - The **co-operative** outcome
 - Is optimal, but ...
 - is not an equilibrium

	Prisoner 2		
	Coop.	Def.	
Prisoner 1	Cooperate	3,3	0,4
	Defect	4,0	1,1

Alternatives to auctions

- Negotiate, perform beauty contests or hearings
- Set fixed prices (take it or leave it)

Assume independent buyer valuations, unknown to seller $V = (V_1, \dots, V_n)$

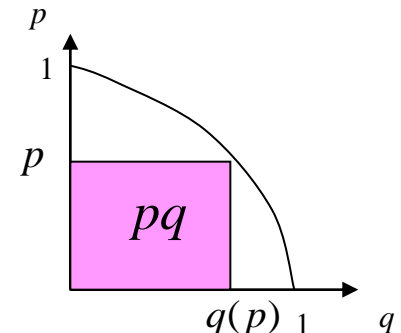
- distributions iid, uniform on $[0,1]$, **known to seller**
- **problem: find price that maximizes seller's net profit**

$$\Pr\{\max V_i \geq p\} = 1 - \Pr\{V_1 < p, \dots, V_n < p\} = 1 - p^n$$

Expected quantity sold at price p : $q(p) = 1 - p^n$ = Demand function

Expected revenue: $R(p) = q(p)p = p(1 - p^n)$
 $R(q) = qp(q)$

Optimal price: $p^*(n) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{n+1}}$ $R = p^*(n) \frac{n}{n+1}$

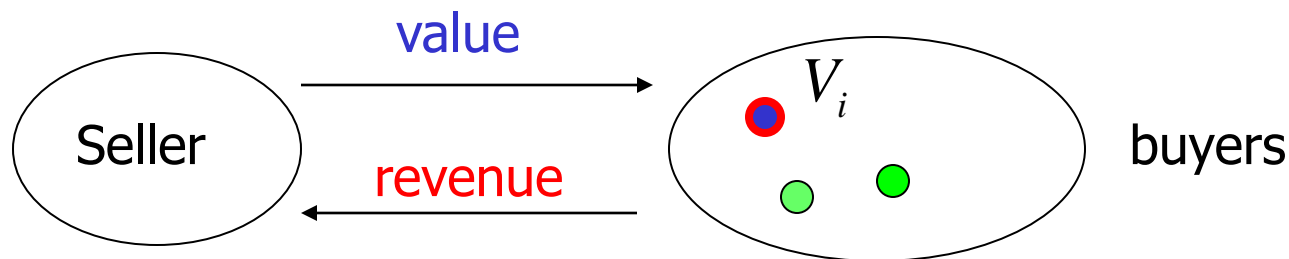


Why use auctions ?

- Useful in the context of **incomplete information**
 - when selling a commodity of undetermined value
 - value depends on buyer, or actual value found ex-post
 - when no information is available about value distribution (i.e., demand) of buyers
- Auctions offer simplicity, speed of sale, transparency,
- ... and reveal information about buyer's valuation and demand
 - Allocation of good(s) and price(s) are decided by the **market**
 - ... thus preventing dishonest dealing between seller-buyer

Auctions and resource allocation

- An auction is a **market mechanism** that
 - allocates resources (goods) to buyers
 - generates value for the consumers
 - generates revenue for the seller
 - generates revenue for the producer
- Is used where traditional market mechanisms (e.g. fixed price) can not be used
 - can serve as an internal mechanism

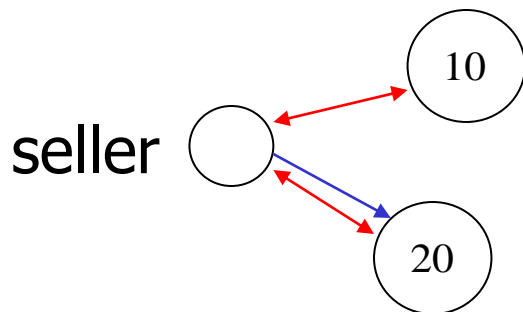


Performance measures

- Wide variety of performance assessment criteria and measures may be used in auction design:
 - social efficiency → maximize the total value to buyers
 - revenue (seller profit)
 - bidder profit
 - time, complexity, susceptibility to collusion
 - promotion of competition
 - In multi-item auctions
 - flexibility: different outcomes for different conditions
 - fairness: target small variation of prices

Why are auctions hard to design?

1. Because the main performance objectives are conflicting with each other
2. Due to lack of information!



- Auction: **incentive** mechanism
 - buyer: maximizes expected profit
 - seller: maximizes performance measure

Auctions

2. Single-item auctions

Types of single-item auctions

- Also called simple auctions
- Basic types:
 - Open auctions
 - English, with several variations
 - Dutch
 - Sealed-bid auctions
 - First price
 - Second price (Vickrey)
- Rare types:
 - k -th price, all-pay,...

Bidder and seller characteristics

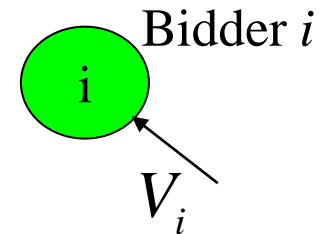
- Valuation

- private values
- common values
- correlation

$$U_i = V_i$$

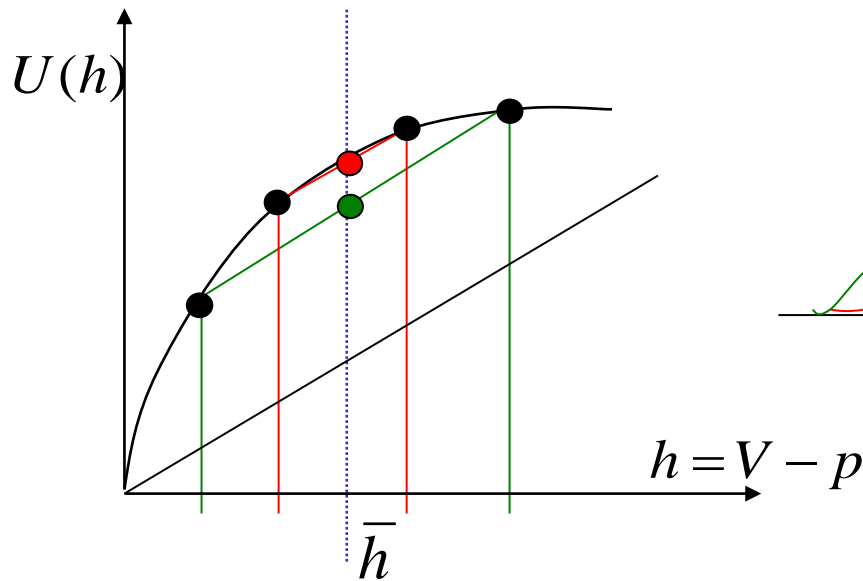
$$U_i = V, V_i = V + x_i$$

$$U_i = aV_i + b \sum_{j \neq i} V_j$$



- Risk assessment

- risk neutral
- risk averse



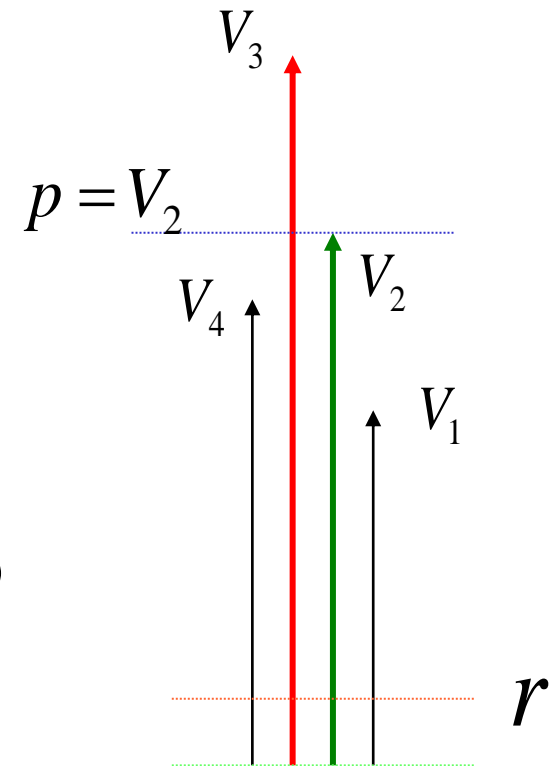
- Symmetry

- symmetric
- asymmetric



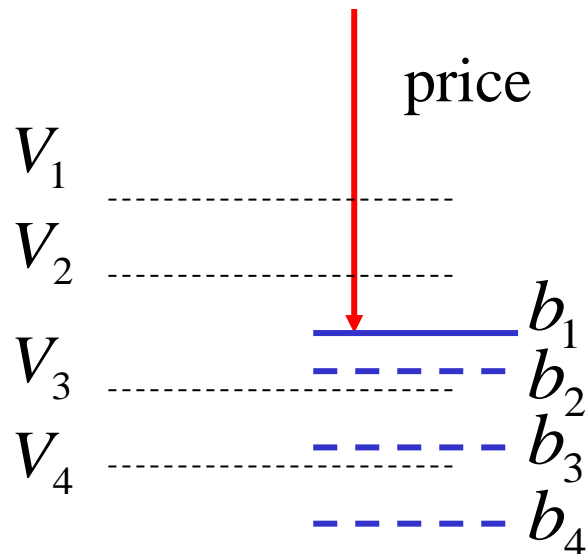
English auction

- Ascending bid, open-outcry
 - other formats: Japanese, ...
- Item is sold at least at the reserve price
- Dominant strategy for bidder
 - bid a small amount more than i the previous high bid until bidder's valuation is reached, then stop
- For non-private values, auctioneer has great influence
- Most emotional and competitive of auctions
- Much information regarding demand is revealed



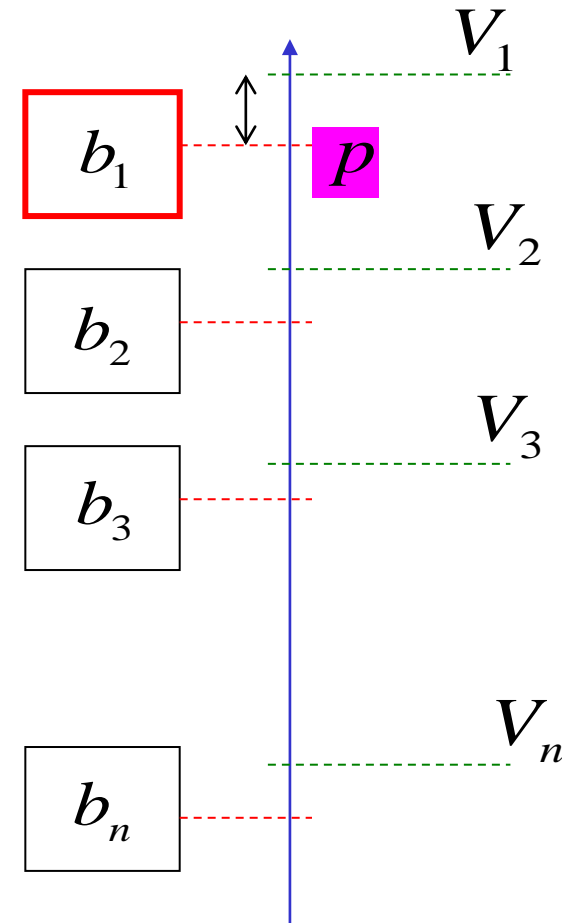
Dutch auction

- Descending price, often by “dutch clock”
- Open-outcry, **first price** wins
 - Winner → bidder that first shouts “mine”
- Auctioneer usually has no influence
- Little information on demand is revealed



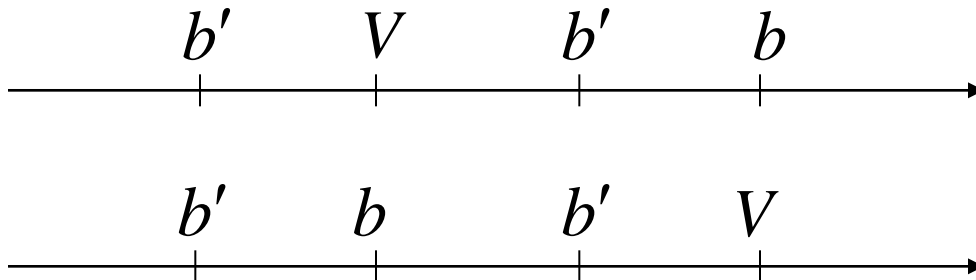
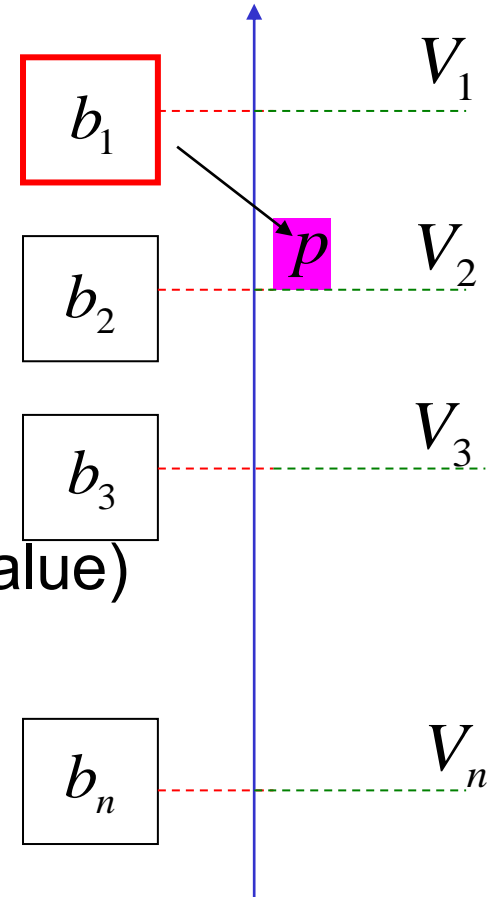
First price sealed-bid auction

- **First price** (top bid) wins
- Sealed: each bidder is ignorant of other bids
- Performed in two phases
 1. Bidding, with usually one bid per bidder
 2. Resolution, i.e. winner determination
- Bidder's strategy: **shade** bids
 - to generate a profit due to pay-your-bid
 - to avoid winner's curse (for common value)
- Little information revealed about demand
- Potential for dishonest bidding



Vickrey (second-price sealed-bid) auction

- Sealed
- Item is awarded to the highest bidder
 - at a price equal to the **second** highest bid
- Dominant strategy: submit a bid equal to **true** valuation
 - **incentive compatibility**;
guarantees efficiency
 - less fear of winner's curse (for common value)



Basic equivalence results

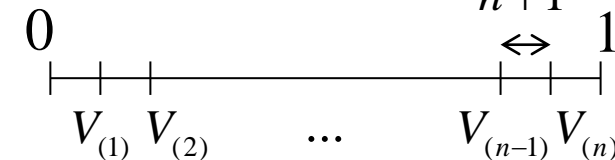
- Dutch and First price sealed bid auctions:
 - strategically equivalent, i.e. one-to-one mapping of strategies \rightarrow equivalent payoffs
- English and Vickrey auctions:
 - equivalent in outcome, under private values,
 - ... but not strategically equivalent
 - unlike in a sealed bid, in an English auction bidders can respond to rivals' bids
- If Symmetric Independent Private Value (SIPV) model applies, all four basic auctions:
 - achieve efficiency
 - are **equivalent** in terms of expected revenue

The IPV model

- Assume:
 - a single indivisible object
 - private values
 - all bidders are indistinguishable (symmetry)
 - valuations are independent and identically distributed continuous random variables
 - bidders and seller are risk neutral
- Revenue Equivalence Theorem:
 - *all auctions that: award the item to the highest bidder and lead to the same bidder participation are payoff equivalent*

Applying the RE Theorem (I)

Assume private value case, values iid, uniform on $[0,1]$

$$V_{(r)} = \max^{(r)} \{V_1, \dots, V_n\} \quad E[V_{(r)}] = \frac{r}{n+1}$$


English (or Vickrey) auction: $b^*(u) = u, \bar{p} = \frac{n-1}{n+1}$

Dutch (or sealed bid first-price) auction:

$$b^*(u) = au, \bar{p} = a \frac{n}{n+1} \Rightarrow a = \frac{n-1}{n}$$

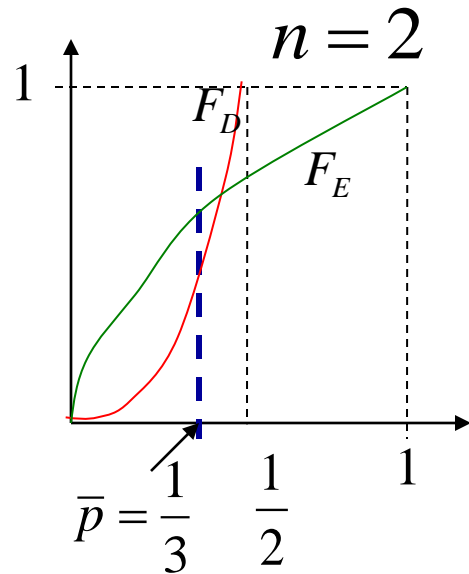
↖ =

→ Seller's expected gain = \bar{p}

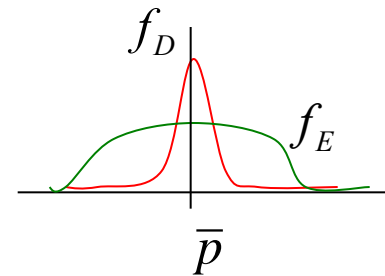
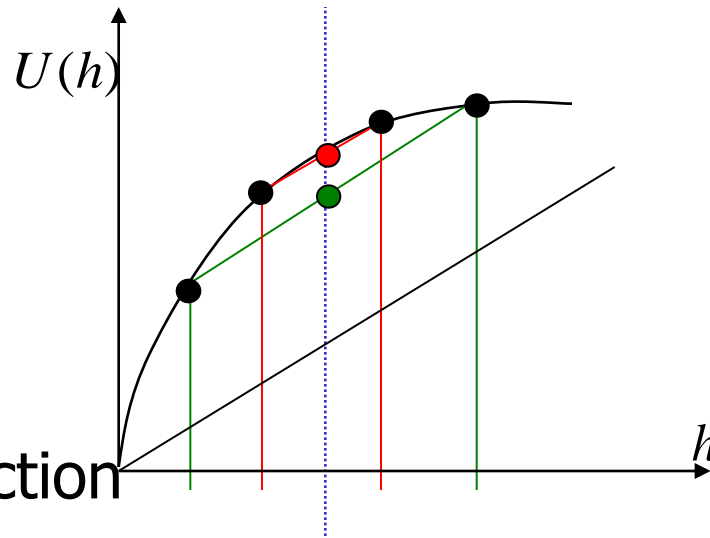
$$\text{Bidder's expected gain} = u^{n-1} \times \frac{u}{n} = \frac{u^n}{n}$$

Applying the RE Theorem (II)

The RE theorem does **not** imply same price **dispersion**



$$b_E^*(u) = u, \quad b_D^*(u) = \frac{n-1}{n}u, \quad \bar{p} = \frac{n-1}{n+1}$$



- Risk-averse sellers prefer the Duch auction

- Expected revenue ($1/3$) is lower than under optimal fixed price (0.385) which is based on **more** information © Courcoubetis, Stamoulis - Auctions - 24

Procurement auctions

- So far, overviewed auctions for selling a good
- Similar auction types for buying a good, yet the direction of price progress is reversed
 - E.g., in the English auction, a new valid bid should be below the standing bid
- Similar results apply on strategies, equivalence properties etc.

Roadmap

- So far, for single-unit auctions:
 - Defined the basic types
 - Stated and applied Revenue Equivalence Theorem
- Issues to follow:
 - Variations: risk averse bidders, common value auctions, asymmetric cases
 - Improving seller's revenue
 - Collusion

Risk averse bidders

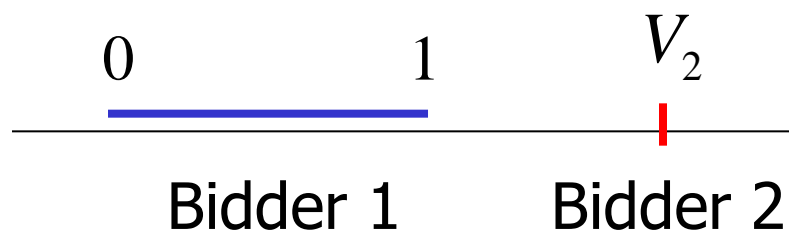
- In a first-price auction, risk averse bidders shade **less** their bids, thus resulting in
 - higher average prices and seller revenue
 - lower expected bidder profit
- With risk averse bidders, the seller prefers the Dutch to the English auction
- Revenue equivalence no longer applies

Common value auctions

- Value of bidder is not fixed before the auction
 - True value of item is not known ex-ante, although defined
 - Value is (almost) the same for all bidders
 - Examples: sealed box with coins, oil-lease
- Complex strategies, no general results
- **Winner's curse**: the winner discovers that he **over**estimated the value of the item
- Strategic approach: shade the bid to account for the adverse selection bias

Asymmetric cases

- Different distributions for bidders' valuations
- Revenue equivalence does **not** apply
- First price auctions are **not** socially optimal
- Public authorities should use **second** price auctions for efficiency purposes
 - otherwise, possibility for inefficiency



$$\Pr\{b_1 > b_2\} > 0$$

- e.g., if bidder 1 is truthful, then $b_2 = \min\{1, 1/2 * V_2\}$

Participation fees

- Seller imposes a participation fee c
- Buyer participates only if his expected payoff is larger than c
- Fiercer competition \rightarrow higher expected seller revenue
- Positive probability of non-participation
 \rightarrow **not** socially optimal

Optimal auctions

- Seller seeks to maximize expected revenue
- Design methodology:
 - If SIPV applies: use standard auctions with a reserve price p_0
 - optimize revenue w.r.t. p_0
 - In the general case: construct incentive compatible mechanisms
 - Make bidders reveal their valuations
 - Item is allocated to bidder with highest **marginal revenue**
 - Highest bid does **not** always win → not socially efficient

Comparing auctions

	Risk neutral	Risk averse
Private value	equivalent	1. Dutch-FP 2. English-Vickrey
Common value	1. English 2. Vickrey 3. Dutch-FP	?

English and Vickrey auctions:

- best in terms of strategic simplicity
- phantom bid problem

Sealed versus Open format

- **Open** format:
 - Revelation of information promotes competition
 - More **transparent** in market determination
- **Sealed** auctions:
 - Often preferable for private values,
 - collusion members may defect,
 - ... especially under low competition or asymmetries
 - Vickrey suffers from phantom bids' problem

Collusion (I)

- Bidders form collusion **rings**, within which they make agreements to get the item at a lower price:
 1. They select their designated winner
 - the one with the highest valuation
 2. Others promise to follow a specific strategy
 - abstain from bidding
- Which auctions are more vulnerable to collusion than others ?
 - **Enforcement** issue: incentives for non-winners to keep their promise

Collusion (II)

- First price sealed bid and Dutch auctions:
not self-enforcing! no possibility for punishment
 - In FP: agreed winner places bid = $p_{\min} + \varepsilon$, other bidders may abstain or break the ring by bidding slightly higher
 - In Dutch: one of the others may shout “mine” and win!
- English and Second price auctions: self-enforcing!
 - In English: if one of the others bids higher than promised, then the winner may overbid again
 - In SP: winner's bid = valuation, others' bid = 0

Example of collusion

- A ring of 5 people bid on a necklace.
 1. Frank is appointed the designated bidder
 - wins the necklace for \$50.
 2. The ring members meet then & hold another auction
 - the necklace is sold now to Blanche for \$100.
 3. Now, from the \$100, Blanche:
 - Reimburses Frank for the original \$50 he paid, and
 - pays each other person (including Frank and herself) \$10.
- So, Blanche ends up paying \$90 for a necklace, and all others make a \$10 profit.
- The auctioneer loses \$50.

Auctions

3. Multi-object auctions

Types of multi-unit auctions

- Multiple items are for sale
- Classification of multi-unit auctions:
 - Are all items the same ?
 - Yes: homogeneous, No: heterogeneous
 - Are all items put for auction at the same time ?
 - Yes: simultaneous, No: sequential
 - Are bids for combinations allowed ?
 - Yes: combinatorial, No: individual
 - Do prices evolve before being finalized ?
 - Yes: progressive, No: one-time sealed bids
 - In a homogeneous auction, are all units charged at the same price ?
 - Yes: uniform price, No: discriminatory

The simple case

- k units (identical items) are for sale
- Each bidder can only bid for **one** unit
- First price auction: k highest bids win, each winner pays his bid
- Second price auction: k highest bids win, each winner pays the value of the $k+1$ highest bid
 - i.e. the highest losing bid
- Revenue equivalence applies

The general case

- Each bidder allowed to bid for **multiple** units:
 - Revenue Equivalence does **not** apply
 - Key issue:
 - **Complements**: high value for combination
 - E.g. adjacent spectrum bands → when awarded to the same bidder, he can also exploit the guard band
- or
- **Substitutes**: identical or nearly items, with an individual diminishing with quantity

Sequential auctions

- Items are auctioned sequentially one-by-one
- Simple solution, also applies for heterogeneous items
- Problems:
 - Identical items can be sold at very different prices
 - Declining price anomaly often arises
 - Predatory bidding to drive prices high and squeeze rivals
 - Complicated strategies
 - Inefficient aggregation of complements
- What if all items are auctioned simultaneously yet individually ? →

Examples of sequential auctions

1. 3 symmetrical bidders, 2 items, Vickrey pricing
 - 1st round: bid less than ordinarily, benefit from option to get the item in second round
 - 2nd round: reduced competition
2. Example: RCA-satellite auction, 1981
 - 7 licenses for cable television broadcast
 - Highest \$14.4 M (1st), lowest \$10.7 M (6th)
 - FCC nullified the auction as “unjustly discriminatory”
→ enforced a uniform price

Problems with individual bidding (I)

- In general, there do **not** exist common prices so that
 - each item is demanded by **one** bidder only
 - outcome is most efficient, taking valuations of **combinations** into account
- Does **not** apply if items are mutual substitutes
- Example:

Bidder	A or B	AB
#1	a	$2a+c$
#2	$a+d$	$2a+d$

← synergy between
A and B

- If $c/2 < d < c$: most efficient outcome: $AB \Rightarrow$ Bidder#1
 - there do **not** exist equilibrium prices to attain this !

Problems with individual bidding (II)

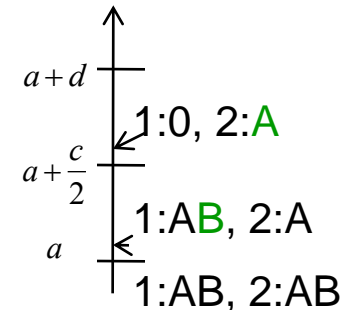
- **Exposure Problem:** Due to an unsuccessful attempt to win a set (combination) of items, a bidder may pay for a **subset** of these items more than his respective valuation
 - Arises in cases of complementary items
 - Results in an inefficient outcome and/or lower profit and satisfaction of bidders

Example of exposure

Common price per item, increased by ε per clock tick, until total demand is for 2 items

Bidder	A or B	AB
#1	a	2a+c
#2	a+d	2a+d

- Assume $c/2 < d < c$
- Most efficient outcome:
AB \rightarrow Bidder#1
- When $p_A = p_B = a + \varepsilon$, Bidder#2 prefers to try to win only one item (say A) \rightarrow he can persist until $p_A = a + d$
- Bidder#1 continues trying to win AB after $p_A = p_B = a$, and he wins B at $p_B = a + \varepsilon$ \rightarrow he can persist for A until $p_A = a + c/2 + \varepsilon$
- Final outcome:
 - A \rightarrow #2 wins at $p_A = a + c/2 + \varepsilon$,
 - B \rightarrow #1 wins at $p_B = a + \varepsilon$
 - Both **inefficient** and **wasteful** for bidder #1!



Problems with individual bidding (III)

- **Demand reduction**: large bidders may prefer to **withhold** part of their demand, in order to depress prices
 - Arises with substitute items, particularly for uniform pricing
 - Results in an **inefficient outcome** and **lower revenues** for the seller
 - Can be alleviated by
 - offering discounts to large buyers, or
 - discriminatory pricing, although **differential bid shading** arises then!

Example of demand reduction

- Uniform price, equal to highest losing bid
- Bidders #2 and #3 demand a single unit
 - they bid truthfully
- Most efficient outcome:
 - AB → Bidder#1,
social welfare = 120
 - attained if #1 is truthful
 - price=40, profit of #1 = 40, total revenue = 80
- Most profitable for Bidder#1: bid 70 for one unit and 0 for the other
 - outcome: A → Bidder#1, B → Bidder#2
 - price =20, profit of #1 =50,
social welfare = 110, total revenue=40

Bidder	A or B	AB
#1	70	120
#2	40	40
#3	20	20

Allowing combinatorial bids

- Winning subset of bids = subset of **non**-overlapping bids resulting in maximum total revenue
- Advantages:
 - increased efficiency
 - increased revenue, particularly with reserve prices
 - elimination of exposure problem
- Disadvantages:
 - complexity of determining the winners can be very high
 - exponential number of combinations
 - considerably larger number of possible allocations
 - solution(?): limit permissible combinations
 - **threshold** and **free-rider problems**

Free-rider problem

- Small bidders **do not manage** to displace larger ones
- May lead to an **inefficient** outcome
- Example:

Bidder	A	B	AB
#1	40	-	-
#2	-	40	-
#3	0	0	15

- Most efficient outcome:
A → Bidder#1, B → Bidder#2
- Bids for AB are placed first:
#3 offers 15
- Bidder #1: “If #2 offers 15 for B, I can take A for 1”
- Bidder #2: “If #1 offers 15 for A, I can take B for 1”
- There exist equilibrium **randomized** strategies for #1 and #2
- It is possible that **none** of #1 and #2 decides to offer a high bid, thus resulting in the **inefficient** outcome AB → Bidder#3

Threshold problem

- Bidders aiming at a single item or a small combination **cannot** displace bidders of larger combinations by acting unilaterally
 - may lead to an inefficient outcome

- Example: open auction

- Most efficient outcome:
A → Bidder#1, B → Bidder#2
- Initial bids: #3 offers 11 for AB first
- None of bidders #1 and #2 can overbid #3 alone, and thus does not compete with #3
 - the inefficient outcome prevails, AB → Bidder#3

Bidder	A	B	AB
#1	10	-	-
#2	-	10	-
#3	0	0	15

Roadmap

- So far, for multi-item auctions:
 - Defined the taxonomy
 - Dealt with the simple case of unit demand
 - Stated problems applying to the general case
- Solutions are now to follow:
 - Generalized Vickrey auction
 - FCC auction

Generalized Vickrey Auction

- Sealed multi-item auction
- Winners are charged according to the **social opportunity cost** their presence entails
 - Extension of the simple Vickrey auction
- Incentive compatibility still holds: **truthful** bidding is the dominant bidding strategy
 - Unlike “pay-your-bid” auctions, bid shading is **not** beneficial

Example of a homogeneous GVA

Bids	1 st unit	2 nd unit	3 rd unit
A:	<u>50</u>	<u>40</u>	37
B:	35	32	30
C:	30	25	10
D:	<u>42</u>	38	31

- Three identical units are auctioned to four bidders
 - A wins two units and is charged $38+35=73$
 - D wins one unit and is charged 37

Evaluation of the GVA

- Advantage:
 - Efficient outcome, due to incentive compatibility
- Disadvantages:
 - Computationally complex in the non-homogeneous case, because of bids for combinations
 - Possibly low revenue → results in bad publicity
 - Despite incentive compatibility, users consider GVA as complicated
 - Different bidders may pay different charges for the same quantity won
- Mostly of theoretical interest
 - Rarely applied in practice

FCC Simultaneous Ascending Auctions

- Multiple spectrum licenses (=items) put in auction:
 - simultaneously, in discrete rounds
 - the bids:
 - are sealed, then announced at the end of the round
 - are placed per individual license
 - should exceed the corresponding highest previous bid
 - rules for maintaining bidding-activity force bidders to participate, otherwise their eligibility (in terms of their target licenses) is reduced
 - termination rule: one round with no bids at all
 - “pay-your-bid” pricing

Example of an FCC auction

	Round →	1	2	3	4	5	6
Licenses	Bidders and Bids ↓						
A	West	10	25			45	
	North	15		30			
	South	5	20	35			
B	West	20	35		50		
	North	15	30	45			
	South	25		40			
C	West	15	25				
	North	10				40	
	South	20			30		
Future Eligibility	West	3	3	3	2	2	
	North	3	2	2	1	1	
	South	3	3	2	2	2	

Termination

- *Activity rule:*
 $\text{eligibility}(t+1) = \text{activity}(t)$
 $\text{activity}(t) \leq \text{eligibility}(t)$

- *Final allocation:* A → West (for 45),
 B → West (for 50),
 C → North (for 40)

Assessment of FCC auctions

- Advantages:
 - Allows the market to decide on allocation
 - Allows for formation of license combinations
- Disadvantages:
 - Possibility for tacit collusion and/or low revenues, particularly for low competition
 - Entry-deterrence: strong rivals discourage competition or even participation
- Considered a simple yet practically successful solution

Auctions

4. Conclusion

Conclusion

- There is **no** rule prescribing the best auction in each different case!
- Successful auction design requires information on market demand, and experimentation
- Art and science!

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