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Dipartimento di  
Elettronica e Informazione

## Tutorial on “Automatic Negotiations in Electronic Markets”

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### Tutorial Outline

1. **Introduction to automatic negotiations**
2. **Bilateral bargaining**
3. **Auctions**
4. **Auction platforms**
5. **References**

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## Part 1

# Introduction to Automatic Negotiations

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### Negotiations

- **What are negotiations:**
  - Negotiation is a **process of communication** whereby two or more parties, each with its own viewpoint and objectives, **attempt to reach a mutually satisfactory result** on a matter of common concern
- **Why are mutually satisfactory results needed:**
  - Otherwise one party at least does not take part to the negotiation
- **What is the peculiarity of a negotiation:**
  - Parties' viewpoint and objectives are **in conflict**
- **What is the object of a negotiation:**
  - Essentially, the price of goods, services, etc.

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### Negotiation Models

- A negotiation is essentially a **strategic interaction situation** and is modelled as a **strategic game** [Kraus, 2000]
  - **Negotiation protocol:** sets the **rules** of the dispute
    - Actions available to the agents (e.g., make an offer, accept, etc.)
    - Sequence of the interaction (e.g., agents act concurrently or in alternating fashion)
  - **Agents' strategies:** define the **behaviour** of each agent
    - Actions to be employed by each agent at each single decision node
- Furthermore, as is in a game:
  - **Agents' preferences:** each agent has preferences over all the possible negotiation outcomes
  - **Agents' knowledge:** agents' preferences can be known by the others or can be uncertain or can be unknown
  - **Agents' rationality:** each agent act in order to maximize its expected payoff relying on its knowledge

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### A Simple Protocol Example

- **Agents:**
  - One seller
  - Many buyers
- **Allowed actions:**
  - Seller: “open”, “close”
  - Buyer: “offer”
- **Payoffs:** utility functions, e.g.  $U = RP - price$
- **Interaction sequence:** any buyer can act at  $t$
- **Information:** private other agents' preferences ( $RP$ )

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## Protocol Characteristics [Kraus, 2000]

7

- **Distribution:** the decision making process should be distributed
- **Negotiation time:** negotiations that end without delay are preferable to negotiations that are time-consuming
- **Efficiency:** the efficiency of the agreement increases the number of agents that will be satisfied by the negotiation result
- **Simplicity:** negotiation processes that are simple and efficient are preferable to complex processes
- **Stability:** a set of negotiation strategies is stable if, given that all the other agents are following their strategies, it is beneficial to an agent to follow its strategy too; protocols with stable strategies are preferable
- **Money transfer:** side payments can be required from or provided to agents to resolve the conflicts; protocols without money transfer are preferable

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## Protocol Classification

8

- **Number of attributes:**
  - One (e.g., price)
  - Many (e.g., price and response time)
- **Number of agents:**
  - One-to-one (e.g., bilateral bargaining)
  - One-to-many (e.g., multilateral bargaining and auctions)
  - Many-to-many (e.g., auctions)
- **Number of units:**
  - One
  - Many

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## Automatic Negotiations

9

- **What are automatic negotiations:**
  - Electronic negotiations in which **intelligent self-interested software agents negotiate** with other agents **on behalf of users** for buying or selling services and goods [Sandholm, 2000]
- **Why do we need to develop automatic negotiations:**
  - Increasing efficiency by saving resources
    - **Human work:** the agents act on behalf of the man
    - **Time:** the agents are faster than man
    - **Money:** market competition is higher
- **What are the application domains:**
  - eCommerce (electronic markets)
  - Resource allocation

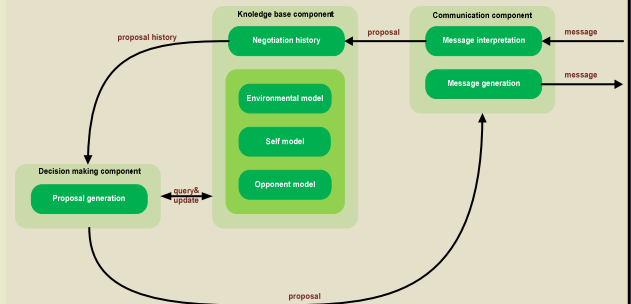
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## Agent Abstract Architecture [Fasli, 2007]

10



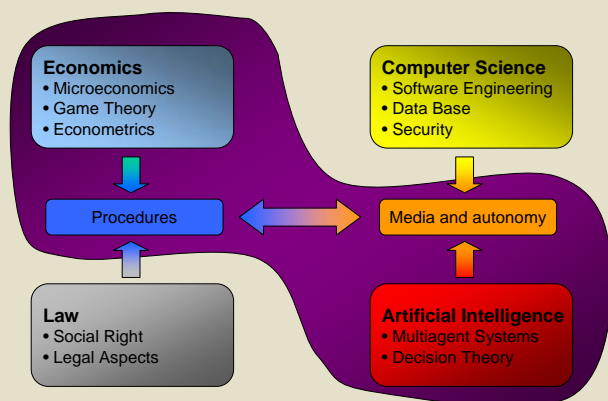
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## Involved Areas

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## Part 2 Bilateral Bargaining

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## The Bargaining Problem [Nash, 1950]

13

- Bargaining is a socioeconomic problem involving **two parties**, who can **cooperate** towards the creation of a commonly desirable **surplus**, over whose **distribution** both parties are in **conflict**
- Example:** two agents divide a pie
  - Each player prefers to reach an agreement, rather than abstain from doing so (disagreement)
  - Each agent prefers that agreement which most favors her interests (the largest piece of pie)



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## Bargaining in Economic Domains

14

- Bilateral exchange situation:**
  - A buyer that wants to buy an item
  - A seller that wants to sell an item
  - They negotiate over the price  $p$
- Agents' utility function:**
  - Buyer agent:  $U_b(p) = RP_b - p$   
 $U_b(\text{Disagreement}) = 0$
  - Seller agent:  $U_s(p) = p - RP_s$   
 $U_s(\text{Disagreement}) = 0$
  - The surplus to be divided is:  $RP_b - RP_s$
- The bargaining problem:**
  - What is the optimal price?

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## Cooperative vs Non-Cooperative Bargaining Models

15

- Cooperative approaches:**
  - Cooperative solutions attempt a prediction of what agreement two agents can be expected to reach in an **unspecified negotiation process**
  - They state **assumptions** on the **expected agreement** and find the agreement that satisfies the assumptions
  - Examples:** Nash Bargaining solution [Nash, 1950], Kalai-Smorodinsky solution, Kalai solution, egalitarian solution, utilitarian solution
- Non-cooperative approaches:**
  - Non-cooperative models consider bargaining as a **fully specified game**
  - Example:** Rubinstein's alternating-offers protocol [Rubinstein, 1982]

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## Nash Bargaining Solution (1)

16

- Nash's axioms**
  - Individual rationality (IR):** the optimal agreement  $a$  must be such that  $U_b(a) \geq 0$  and  $U_s(a) \geq 0$
  - Pare efficiency (PAR):** the optimal agreement  $a$  must be Pareto efficient for the agents
  - Invariance to equivalent utility representations (INV):** it satisfies affine transformations
  - Independence of irrelevant alternatives (IIA):** removed all the non-optimal agreements, the optimal agreement holds to be
  - Symmetry (SYM):** if the agents have the same preferences, then the agreement  $a$  must give the same utilities to them

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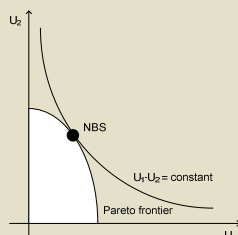
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## Nash Bargaining Solution (2)

17

$$NBS = \arg \max_a \{ U_b(a) \cdot U_s(a) \}$$

(It is the tangency point between the Pareto frontier and a hyperbole of the form  $U_b \cdot U_s = \text{constant}$ )



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## Alternating-Offers Protocol [Rubinstein, 1982]

18

- The informal model**
  - Two agents want to divide a pie of size 1
  - Opposite preferences with temporal discounting factors
  - Extensive form game wherein agents alternately act
  - Infinite horizon
- The formal model**
  - Players**

$$\begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \end{cases}$$
  - Player function**

$$\begin{cases} t(0) = i \\ t(t) \neq t(t-1) \end{cases}$$
  - Actions**

$$\begin{cases} \text{offer}(x) \\ \text{accept} \end{cases}$$
  - Preferences**

$$\begin{aligned} U_i(x, t) &= (1-x) \cdot (\delta)^t \\ U_j(x, t) &= x \cdot (\delta)^t \end{aligned}$$

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## Equilibrium in Alternating-Offers Protocol

19

- **Subgame Perfect Equilibrium** [Selten, 1972]
  - It defines the equilibrium strategies of each agent in each possible subgame
  - Typically, addressed by employing **backward induction**, but not in this case since the horizon is infinite
- **Rubinstein Solution** [Rubinstein, 1982]

$$\sigma_1(t) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } \sigma_2(t-1) = \text{offer}(x) \text{ with } x \leq \frac{1-\delta_1}{1-\delta_1 \cdot \delta_2} \\ \text{offer} \left( \frac{\delta_2(1-\delta_1)}{1-\delta_1 \cdot \delta_2} \right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\sigma_2(t) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } \sigma_1(t-1) = \text{offer}(x) \text{ with } x \geq \frac{\delta_1(1-\delta_2)}{1-\delta_1 \cdot \delta_2} \\ \text{offer} \left( \frac{1-\delta_2}{1-\delta_1 \cdot \delta_2} \right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

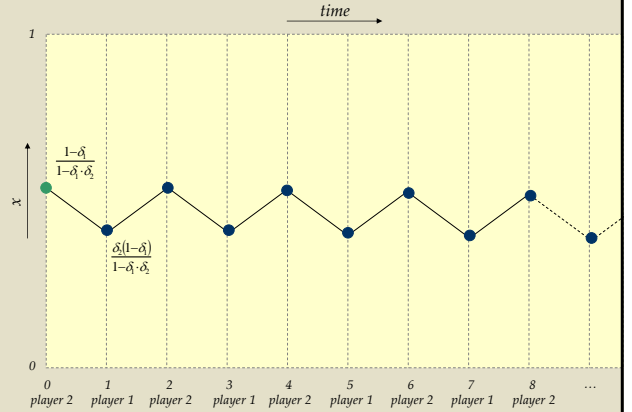
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## A Graphical View

20



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## Protocol Enrichments in Computer Science

21

- **Agents' preferences:**
  - **Multiplicity of Issues**
    - The evaluation of each item takes into account several attributes  $x^i$
    - Each offer is defined on all the attributes of the item, being a tuple  $x = \langle x^1, \dots, x^m \rangle$
  - **Reservation Values ( $RV_j^i$ )**
    - $RV_b^j$ : the **maximum** value of attribute  $j$  at which the agent  $b$  will buy the item
    - $RV_s^j$ : the **minimum** value of attribute  $j$  at which the agent  $s$  will sell the item
  - **Deadlines ( $T_i$ ):** The time after which agent  $i$  has not convenience to negotiate any more
- **Agents' actions:**
  - **Exit Option:** Agent can make *exit* at any time point it plays

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## Revised Alternating-Offers Protocol

22

- **Players**

$$\begin{cases} b & (\text{buyer}) \\ s & (\text{seller}) \end{cases}$$
- **Player function**

$$\begin{cases} t(0) = i \\ t(t) \neq t(t-1) \end{cases}$$
- **Actions**

$$\begin{cases} \text{offer}(x) \\ \text{accept} \\ \text{exit} \end{cases}$$
- **Preferences**

$$U_b(\text{NoAgreement}) = U_s(\text{NoAgreement}) = 0$$

$$U_b(x, t) = \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^m (RV_b^i - x^i) \cdot (\delta_b^i)^t & t \leq T_b \\ -1 & t > T_b \end{cases}$$

$$U_s(x, t) = \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^m (x^i - RV_s^i) \cdot (\delta_s^i)^t & t \leq T_s \\ -1 & t > T_s \end{cases}$$

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## Solution with One Issue and Complete Information

23

- **By backward induction**
  - The game is not rigorously a finite horizon game
  - However, no rational agent will play after its deadline
  - Therefore, there is a time point from which we can build backward
  - We call it the **deadline of the bargaining**, i.e.  $T = \min\{T_b, T_s\}$
  - The agents' optimal offers are function of time  $t$ , we call  $x^*(t)$
  - $x^*(t)$  is such that  $x^*(T-1) = RV_{t(T)}$  and  $U_{t(t+1)}(x^*(t), t) = U_{t(t+1)}(x^*(t+1), t+1)$

$$\sigma_b(t) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } \sigma_s(t-1) = \text{offer}(x) \text{ with } x \leq x^*(t-1) \\ \text{offer}(x^*(t)) & t < T_b \\ \text{exit} & t \geq T_b \end{cases}$$

$$\sigma_s(t) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } \sigma_b(t-1) = \text{offer}(x) \text{ with } x \geq x^*(t-1) \\ \text{offer}(x^*(t)) & t < T_s \\ \text{exit} & t \geq T_s \end{cases}$$

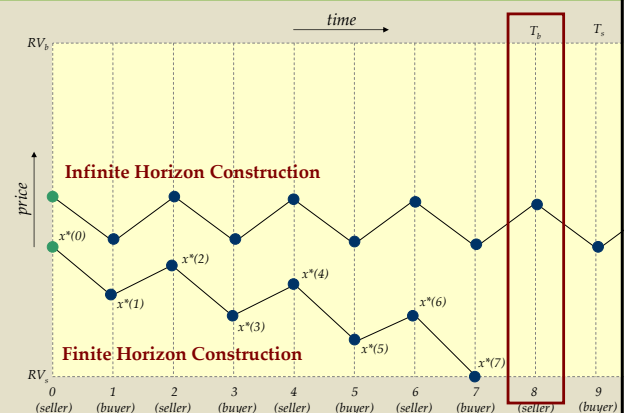
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## A Graphical View

24



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- **Multi-issue bargaining:**
  - With complete information the problem of bargaining with multiple issue can be cast in the problem of bargaining one issue in time polynomial in the number of issues [Di Giunta *et al.*, 2006], [Fatima *et al.*, 2006]
- **Bargaining with uncertainty:**
  - In presence of uncertainty the bargaining game is a imperfect information extensive-form game and the appropriate solution concept is the **sequential equilibrium** of **Kreps and Wilson**
  - Examples of bargaining with uncertain information are [Gatti *et al.*, 2008a], [Rubinstein, 1985], [Sandholm *et al.*, 1999]
- **Bargaining in markets:**
  - Within markets, buyers are in **competition** over the purchase of an item and sellers over the sale of an item
  - Refinements of the bargaining protocol are considered to capture this competition [Serrano, 2008], [Gatti *et al.*, 2008b]
- **Learning in bargaining:**
  - Learning is an interesting and promising technique to address negotiation, specially when agents are not perfectly rational
  - An example of the employment of learning techniques in bargaining is [Lazarcic *et al.*, 20078]

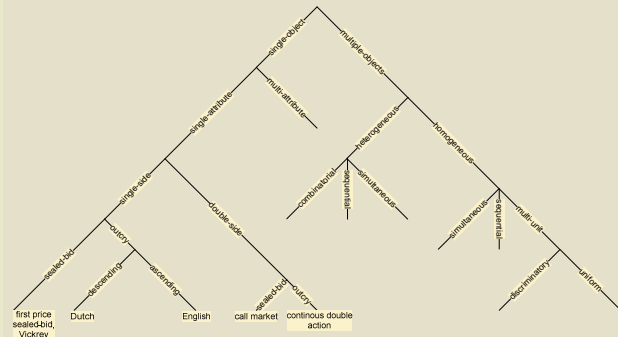
- **Bargaining with bounded rationality:**
  - Agents can follow predefined tactics, not searching for their optimal actions
  - Examples are [Binmore, 2007], [Faratin *et al.*, 1998], [Fatima *et al.*, 2002], [Fatima *et al.*, 2004]
- **Evolutionary models of bargaining:**
  - Bargaining is studied as an evolutionary process by employing evolutionary game theory tools
  - Examples are [Binmore, 2007], [Napel, 2004]

## Part 3 Auctions

- Auctions ask and answer the most fundamental questions in economics: **who should get the goods and at what prices?** [Cramton *et al.*, 2006]
- Auctions provide the micro-foundation of markets
- Typically,
  - **An auctioneer:**
    - A seller who wants to sell goods
    - A buyer who wants to buy a good
  - **The bidders:**
    - Buyers who want to acquire goods
    - Sellers who want to sell their goods
- The agents are **self-interested** and **rational**: they play in the attempt to maximize their own payoffs
- The reservation prices are **private** information

<b>Bid</b>	Bids are offered by bidders to buy or sell the auctioned item
<b>Buy bid</b>	The price that a bidder is willing to pay to own an item
<b>Sell bid</b>	The price that a bidder is willing to accept to sell an item
<b>Reservation price</b>	The maximum (minimum) price that a buyer (seller) is willing to pay (accept) for an item
<b>Process bid</b>	The auctioneer checks the validity of a bid according to the rules of the auction protocol
<b>Price quote generation</b>	The auction house via the auctioneer or by other means may provide information about the status of the bids
<b>Bid quote</b>	The amount a seller would have to offer to sell an item
<b>Ask quote</b>	The amount a buyer would have to offer to buy an item
<b>Clearance</b>	Through clearance buyers and sellers are matched and the transaction price is set
<b>Clearing price</b>	The final transaction price that the buyer pays and the seller receives

- **Three dimensions:** bidding rules, information revelation policy, and clearing policy
- 1. **Bidding rules:**
  - Single good or combinatorial
  - Single attribute or multi-attribute
  - Single or double
  - Open (outcry) or sealed-bid
  - Ascending or descending
  - Single unit or multi-unit



2. **Information revelation policy:**

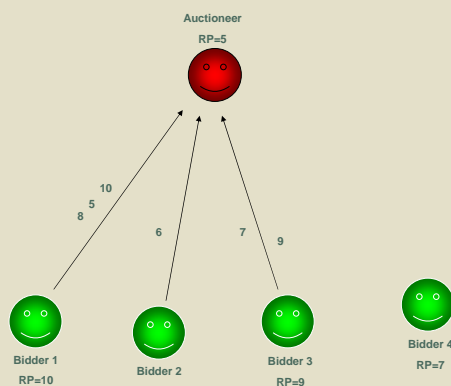
- When to reveal information: on each bid, at predetermined points in time, on inactivity, on market clears
- What information:
  - **Bid:** the price a seller would have to offer in order to trade
  - **Ask:** the price a buyer would have to offer in order to trade
  - **Auction closure:** known, unknown, after a period of inactivity
- To whom: participants only, everyone

3. **Clearing policy:**

- When to clear: on each bid, on closure, periodically, after a period of inactivity
- Who gets what: allocation and winner determination problem
- At what prices: first, second price or other

- Each auction is essentially a mechanism
  - A **mechanism** (from mechanism design) is an implementation of **social function**
  - Given the preferences of all the participants and a social function, the mechanism chooses the winner
- Exactly as in mechanism design, the maximum efficiency is when agents are **truth-revealing**
  - Agents are truth-revealing when the mechanism is incentive-compatible
- The aim is the design of auction mechanism that be **incentive-compatible**

- **Protocol (open-outcry ascending-price):**
  - The auctioneer announces an opening or the reserve price
  - Bidders raise their bids and the auction proceeds to successively higher bids
  - The winner of the auction is the bidder of the highest bid
- **Dominant strategy:**
  - It is to bid a small amount above the previous high bid until one reaches its private value and then stop



- **Protocol (open-outcry descending-price):**
  - The auctioneer announces a very high opening bid
  - The auctioneer keeps lowering the price until a bidder accepts it
  - The first bidder that accepts is the winner of the auction
- **Dominant strategy:**
  - No dominant strategy there is
  - Each agent acts on the basis of its prior

### English Auction (2)

37

Auctioneer  
RP=5

Bidder 1  
RP=10

Bidder 2  
RP=8

Bidder 3  
RP=9

Bidder 4  
RP=7

accept

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### Dutch Auction (3)

38

- **Properties:**
  - The non-existence of the dominant strategy introduces inefficiencies in the solution
  - Real-time efficient: the auction closes really fast and the auctioneer can make it move even faster by lowering the price faster
  - It used in The Netherlands for selling fresh flowers

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### First-Price Sealed-Bid Auction (1)

39

- **Protocol (sealed-bid):**
  - Each bidder submits its own bid without knowledge of the bids of the other bidders
  - The bids are opened and the winner is determined
  - The highest bidder wins and pays the amount it bids
- **Dominant strategy:**
  - No dominant strategy there is
  - Each agent acts on the basis of its prior

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### First-Price Sealed-Bid Auction (2)

40

Bidder 1	8
Bidder 2	7
Bidder 3	9
Bidder 4	6

Auctioneer  
RP=5

the winner is bidder 3 and it pays 9

Bidder 1  
RP=10

Bidder 2  
RP=8

Bidder 3  
RP=9

Bidder 4  
RP=7

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### First-Price Sealed-Bid Auction (3)

41

- **Properties:**
  - The non-existence of the dominant strategy introduces inefficiencies in the solution

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### Second-Price Sealed-Bid Auction – Vickrey (1)

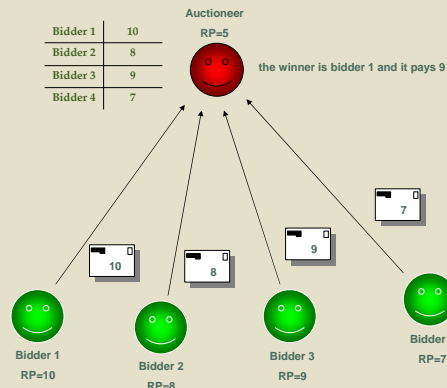
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- **Protocol (sealed-bid):**
  - Each bidder submits its own bid without knowledge of the bids of the other bidders
  - The bids are opened and the winner is determined
  - The highest bidder wins and pays the amount of the second-highest bid
- **Dominant strategy:**
  - The dominant strategy of an agent is to bid its reservation price

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## Second-Price Sealed-Bid Auction – Vickrey (2)

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## Second-Price Sealed-Bid Auction – Vickrey (3)

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- **Proof of truth-reveling** (it is similar to prove that a strategy is a Nash equilibrium):
  - Suppose that bidder  $b_i$  bids  $x < v$  where  $v$  is its true valuation
    - Suppose that the other highest bid is  $w < v$ 
      - If  $x > w$ , then  $b_i$  wins and pays  $w$ , therefore  $b_i$  does not gain more by bidding  $x$  rather than  $v$
      - If  $w > x$ , then  $b_i$  loses and gains 0, therefore  $b_i$  gains lesser by bidding  $x$  rather than  $v$
    - When the other highest bid is  $w > v$ ,  $b_i$  cannot gain more by bidding  $x$
  - Suppose  $x > v$ 
    - Suppose that the other highest bid is  $w < v$ 
      - If  $x > w$ , then  $b_i$  wins and pays  $w$ , therefore  $b_i$  does not gain more by bidding  $x$  rather than  $v$
      - If  $w > x$ , then  $b_i$  loses and gains 0, therefore  $b_i$  gains lesser by bidding  $x$  rather than  $v$
    - When the other highest bid is  $w > v$ ,  $b_i$  cannot gain more by bidding  $x$

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## Auction Properties

45

- An auction is **incentive compatible** if **truth-revelation** is a dominant strategy for the agents
- An auction is **individually rational** if its allocation does not make any agent worse off than had the agent not participated
- An allocation of goods is **efficient** if there can be no more gains from trade
  - No mechanism is individually rational, efficient and incentive compatible for both sellers and buyers

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## Strategic Equivalence of Dutch and FPSB

46

- The “strategy space” is the same in the Dutch and FPSB auctions, hence they are said “**strategically equivalent**”
- Since these auction mechanisms do not admit any dominant strategy, we resort to **Bayes-Nash**
- We assume that agents be risk neutral and that their valuations are drawn uniformly from  $[0,1]$
- We assume that the information is common
- The **equilibrium strategy** of each bidder  $b_i$  is to bid exactly  $(N-1/N) \cdot v_{b_i}$ , where  $N$  is the number of bidders

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## Revenue Equivalence Theorem

47

- **Theorem:** Assume that each of  $n$  **risk-neutral** agents has a cumulative distribution  $F(v)$  that is strictly increasing and atomless on  $[0,1]$ . Then any auction mechanism in which:
  - the good will be allocated to the agent with valuation 1, and
  - any agent with valuation 0 has an expected utility of 0,
 yields the **same expected revenue**, and hence results in any bidder with valuation  $v$  making the same expected payment
- The theorem shows that in presence of a Bayesian prior **all the auctions mechanism are equivalent** for the auctioneer

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## Auction Advantages and Drawbacks

48

- **Advantages:**
  - Flexibility, as protocols can be tailor-made
  - Less time-consuming and expensive than negotiating a price, e.g. in bargaining
  - Simplicity in determining the market prices
- **Drawbacks:**
  - Collusion
  - Lying auctioneer

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### Collusion (1)

49

- Bidders can collude and form an auction ring
- In order for rings to be successful, agreement has to be **self-enforcing**
- In the **Dutch** auction and the **first-price sealed-bid** auction the collusion agreement is **not self-enforcing**:
  - Bidders decide what is the designated “winner”
  - This bidder make a bid equal to the seller’s reservation price
  - All the other ring members are asked to refrain from bidding
  - However, each of the ring members can gain by placing a slightly higher bid in violation of the ring agreement
  - Therefore agreement is not self-enforcing

### Collusion (2)

50

- In the **English** auction and in the **Vickrey** auction the collusion agreement is **self-enforcing**:
  - Bidders decide what is the designated “winner”
  - This bidder make a bid equal to its reservation price
  - All the other ring members are asked to refrain from bidding
  - None can gain from breaching the agreement, because none will ever exceed the designated bidder’s limit
  - Therefore agreement is self-enforcing

### Collusion (3)

51

- Consider a setting wherein there are two bidders  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  with  $v_1=100$  and  $v_2=50$ , and with agreement 40
- In the **English** auction:
  - $b_1$  can observe  $b_2$ 's bids, if  $b_2$  decides to bid more than the agreed 40,  $b_1$  can observe this and adjust its bid
  - Therefore,  $b_2$ 's optimal strategy is to bid no more than 40
- In the **Vickrey** auction:
  - $b_1$  submits its reservation price (100) while  $b_2$  submits 40
  - $b_2$ 's utility cannot increase if its bid exceeds the agreed price 40

### Lying Auctioneer

52

- Overstate reservation price
- Phantom bidders
- In the English auction: use of skills that constantly raise the bids
- In the Vickrey auction: the auctioneer may overstate the second highest bid to the winner in order to increase revenue

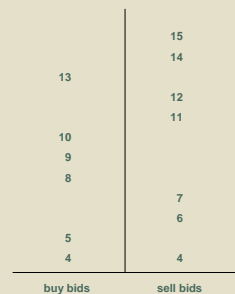
### Double Auctions (1)

53

- They capture the settings wherein there are **more buyers** and **more sellers**
- Each buyer and each seller make **one** bid
- The sellers' and buyers' bids are **ranked** highest to lowest
- **Two issues**:
  - What is the **clearing price**?
  - What are the **matchings** between buyers and sellers?

### Double Auction (2)

54



### Double Auction (3)

55

- **Matching:**
  - The **transaction set**: it is the set composed of the matched buyers and sellers, e.g.  $T = \{(4,4), (8,6), \dots\}$
  - The determination of  $T$  is tackled as follows:
    - $T$  is initialized as empty
    - While the highest remaining buy bid is greater than or equal to the lowest sell bid, remove these bids and add this pair of bids to  $T$

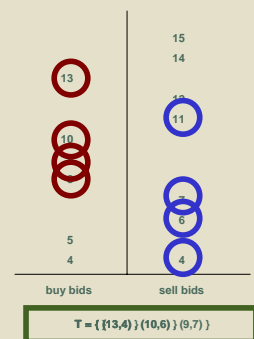
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### Double Auction (4)

56



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### Double Auction (5)

57

- **Matching:**
  - The **transaction set**: it is the set composed of the matched buyers and sellers, e.g.  $T = \{(4,4), (8,6), \dots\}$
  - The determination of  $T$  is tackled as follows:
    - $T$  is initialized as empty
    - While the highest remaining buy bid is greater than or equal to the lowest sell bid, remove these bids and add this pair of bids to  $T$
- **Clearing price:**
  - Set the clearing price equal to the  $M$ th highest bid ( $M$ th price rule), where  $M$  is the number of the sellers
  - Set the clearing price equal to the  $M$ th highest bid ( $M+1$ st price rule), where  $M$  is the number of the sellers

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### Double Auction (6)

58

With  $T = \{(13,4), (10,6), (9,7)\}$

- **$M$ th price rule:**
  - Clearing price = 9
  - (13,4): the buyer pays 9 and the seller receives 9
  - (10,6): the buyer pays 9 and the seller receives 9
  - (9,7): ...
- **$M+1$ st price rule:**
  - Clearing price = 8
  - (13,4): the buyer pays 8 and the seller receives 8
  - (10,6): the buyer pays 8 and the seller receives 8
  - (9,7): ...

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### Combinatorial Auctions (1)

59

- The most useful auction for multiagent systems is the combinatorial auction
  - $M$  items to sell/buy there are
  - Agents' preferences are complex, depending on the set of items they buy (sell)
  - Agents can place bids for sets of items
- **Example** (4 items and 2 bidders):
  - Items = {A, B, C, D}
  - Bidder 1's bids:
    - 1 for {A}
    - 2 for {B}
    - 1 for {C}
    - 4 for {A,B}
    - ...

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### Combinatorial Auctions (2)

60

- Bidder 2's bids:
  - 2 for {A}
  - 2 for {B}
  - 1 for {C}
  - 5 for {A,B}
  - ...
- The largest number of bids for each bidder is  $2^M$
- A bidder may not bid over some possible sets of items
- **Example:**

Items	Bidder 1	Bidder 2
A, B, C, D	1 for {A}	2 for {B}
	2 for {B}	1 for {C,D}
	3 for {A,B}	3 for {A,C,D}
	4 for {A,B,C}	4 for {B,C,D}
	5 for {A,B,C,D}	6 for {A,B,C,D}

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### Combinatorial Auctions (3)

61

- The principal problem in a combinatorial auction is the determination of the **winning bids** in order to maximize the auctioneer's revenue
- The winner determination is **NP-hard** [Rothkopf *et al.*, 1998]
- If prices can be attached to single items in the auction, the winner problem can be reduced to **linear programming problem** and, therefore, solved in polynomial time [Nisam, 2000]
- An approach is to conduct one of the standard **AI-search** over all possible allocations, given the bids submitted
- Two approaches:
  - **Branch-on-items** search tree
  - **Branch-on-bids** search tree

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### Branch-on-Items (1)

62

- If there is not any **singleton bid** on item, this is added with price zero
- All the children of the root are bids that have a 1 in them
- The children of every node will be all the bids that contain the smallest number is not on the path from the root to the node
- If the node is a leaf and the set of bids from root to leaf constitutes one possible working bid set
- **Depth-first search** (non mandatory)

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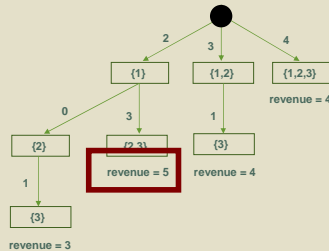
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### Branch-on-Items (2)

63

{1}	2
{2}	0
{1,3}	3
{2,2}	3
{1,2,3}	3
{1,2,3}	4



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### Significant Results in Literature

64

- In **branch-on-items** search
  - [Fujishima *et al.*, 1999] has developed a branch and bound algorithm that reduces the space of search on the basis of heuristics
- A different search strategy:
  - **Branch-on-bids**: it produces a binary tree wherein each node is a bid and each edge represents whether or not that particular bid is in the solution [Sandholm, 2002]
  - [Sandholm *et al.*, 2003] shows that the **branch-on-bids** search is much more efficient than **branch-on-items** search

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### Auction Design Problem

65

- **Auction design** problem is a **mechanism design** problem
- The problem is to design protocols that are:
  - Incentive compatible
  - Individually rational
- Moreover, the mechanism should be robust with respect to **collusions** (group deviation)

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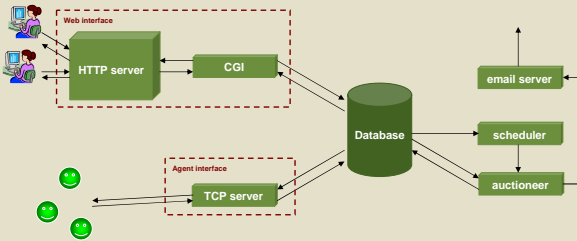
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## Part 4 Auction Platforms

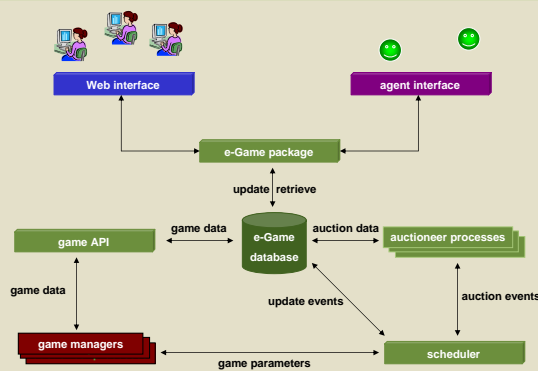
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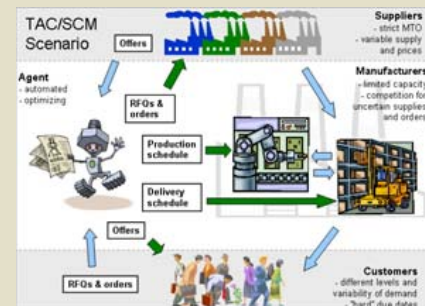


- **Web interface:** interface for humans via web forms
- **TCP/IP intercafe:** interface for software agents
- **Database:** store the bids
- **Scheduler:** a daemon process that continuously monitors the database for auctions that have events to process or bids to verify
- **Auctioneer:** it loads the auction parameters and the set of current bids from the database
- **Bidding restrictions:**
  - **Participation:** {1 : many}, {many : 1}, {many : many}
  - **Bid rules:**
    - An agent's new bid must dominate its previous bid
    - The bids must be discrete



- **Main features:**
  - Both human and artificial agents can access to
  - It supports a range of auction protocols that can be parameterised
  - More auction and other negotiation protocols can be developed
  - It supports the development of market scenarios by third parties
  - It is developed in Java

- A **non-profit organization** that aims to promote research in market mechanisms and trading agents
- The effort was started in 2000
- Three **benchmark** problems have been created as testbeds to test one's approaches and strategies:
  - The travel agent game (**CLASSIC**) – no more in use
  - The supply chain management game (**SCM**)
    - It simulates a dynamic supply chain environment where agents compete to secure customer orders and components required for production of these orders
  - The market design game (**CAT**)
    - CAT software agents represent brokers whose goals are to attract potential buyers and sellers as customers, and then to match buyers with sellers



- Six agents play in the game and start with no order from customers, no inventory, 0 back balance
- Agents do not know who the identity of the player they are playing against
- The objective is to maximize the profit through assembling PCs from different types of components and selling them at a profit to customers
- Highest bank balance wins
- 16 different types of PCs can be manufactured from 10 components which can be purchased from suppliers
- Factory capacity is limited

- An agent needs to perform the following tasks every day D
  - Negotiate supply contracts with suppliers
    - Send RFQs to suppliers
    - Receive offers on the RFQs sent on D-1
    - Decide which offers to accept from the suppliers
  - Bid for customer orders
    - Receive RFQs from customers
    - Decide which of these to bid on and send offers
    - Receive confirmations to orders for those offers sent on D-1
- Manage assembly line and delivery schedule

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