

## Auctions

Auction:

- One seller and a small number of potential buyers

The mirror image –

Contract auction / Procurement auction:

- One buyer and a small number of potential sellers.
- The buyer decides on the purchasing procedure, potential sellers bid their prices.

When are auctions used?

- A unique object
  - well defined? indivisible?
- Uncertainty about who should get the object / the contract
- Uncertainty about the object's value / the project costs
- Commitment to selling / buying procedure

## Alternatives to auctions

### Market

- decides who gets the object / project
- but how to determine the price?

### Bargaining

- determines the price
- but how to determine who is the counterpart?

### Handing out for free

- beauty contest
- lobbying costs

## Two concerns with an auction

- For society - *efficiency*: Is the object bought by the bidder with the highest willingness to pay?
- For the seller: Is the price the highest possible?

## Several auction procedures

How are these questions affected by the procedure chosen?

## Various kinds of auctions

- Sealed bids vs. open bids
- Open bids
  - Ascending bids – English auction
    - bidders submit higher and higher bids until only one bidder remains
    - art, collectibles
  - Descending bids – Dutch auction
    - seller starts with a high price and cries out lower and lower prices until a bidder accepts
    - flowers (Netherlands), fish (Israel), tobacco (Canada)
- Sealed bids
  - First price:
    - The bidder with the highest bid wins and pays his bid.
    - real estate, government procurement
  - Second price:
    - The bidder with the highest bid wins and pays an amount equal to the second highest bid.
    - Vickrey auction [Vickrey, *J Finance* 1961]
      - William Vickrey, Nobel laureate 1996
    - stamps etc. [Lucking-Reiley, *J Econ Perspectives* 2000]

## Basic model

- Bidders are risk neutral
- Bidders' valuations are different but independent
- Each bidder knows only his own valuation
- Seller doesn't know any bidder's valuation
- No observable differences among the bidders
- Reservation price?

## Bidder behaviour

### (i) English auction

- continuing bidding is profitable as long as own valuation  $>$  current high bid
- this strategy is independent of what other bidders do (dominant strategy)
- the winner is the one with highest valuation  
→ efficiency
- price is (just above) second highest evaluation

(ii) Sealed-bid second-price auction

bidder B's valuation =  $v$

bidder B's bid =  $b$

largest bid from others =  $a$

- With a valuation of  $v$ , what should be bidder B's bid,  $b$ ?  
Distinguish between two cases:
  - $a > v$ : B's decision does not matter
  - $a < v$ : B wins if  $b > a$ , and earns  $(v - a)$
- Bidding  $b < v$  reduces B's chances to win but does not affect what he has to pay if he wins.
- Optimum bid:  $b = v$   
(dominant strategy)
- The winner is the one with highest valuation  
→ Efficiency
- The price equals second-highest valuation
- English auction and sealed-bid second-price auction are equivalent with respect to winner and price.
- Contract auction:
  - winner is the one with lowest cost
  - price equals second-lowest cost
- Calculating the bid is easy

(iii) Sealed-bid first-price auction

- Bidder trades off two concerns:  
Bidding  $b < v$ 
  - reduces his chances to win; not good.
  - reduces the price he has to pay if he wins; good.
- This trade-off makes the optimum bid lower than  $v$ .
- The bidder knows that other bidders think the same way:  
All bidders bid below their valuation. This makes the optimum bid even lower.
- This also holds for (iv) Dutch auction
- The winner is the one with the highest valuation
- The price equals highest bid, which is lower than highest valuation
- Expected price = Expected second-highest valuation
- Calculating bid is difficult

## Equilibrium bid – sealed-bid first-price auction

$n$  bidders,  $v_i \in [v_l, v_h]$ ,  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

cumulative distribution function:  $F(v_i)$ ,  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

Let's focus on a symmetric equilibrium. Bidders are not identical, since valuations differ. But there are no observable differences, so their valuations are all drawn from the same cdf.

In a symmetric equilibrium, there exists some function  $B(v)$ , which is the same for all players, so that if one's valuation is  $v$ , the equilibrium bid is  $B(v)$ .

Consider bidder  $i$ . He does not know the other bidders'  $v$ s but believes that their bids depend on their valuations according to the function  $B(v)$ . Assume:  $B' > 0$ .

$\Rightarrow$  A bid of  $b$  implies a valuation equal to  $B^{-1}(b)$ .

The probability that  $i$ 's bid  $b_i$  is the winning bid =  
 $[F(B^{-1}(b_i))]^{n-1}$

Bidder  $i$ 's expected profit:

$$\pi_i = [v_i - b_i][F(B^{-1}(b_i))]^{n-1}$$



Optimum bid satisfies:  $\frac{\partial \pi_i}{\partial b_i} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\pi_i}{dv_i} = \frac{\partial \pi_i}{\partial v_i} + \frac{\partial \pi_i}{\partial b_i} \frac{db_i}{dv_i} = \frac{\partial \pi_i}{\partial v_i} = [F(B^{-1}(b_i))]^{n-1}$$

In a symmetric equilibrium:  $b_i = B(v_i), \forall i. \Rightarrow v_i = B^{-1}(b_i)$

In equilibrium, bidders' beliefs about each other's valuations are correct.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\pi_i}{dv_i} = [F(v_i)]^{n-1}$$

Assume (reasonably):  $\pi_i = 0$  if  $v_i = v_l. \Rightarrow B(v_l) = v_l.$

Integration:

$$\pi(v_i) = \int_{v_l}^{v_i} [F(x)]^{n-1} dx$$

Two expressions for bidder  $i$ 's profit – must be equal.

$$\pi_i = [v_i - b_i][F(B^{-1}(b_i))]^{n-1} = \int_{v_l}^{v_i} [F(x)]^{n-1} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow B(v_i) = b_i = v_i - \frac{\int_{v_l}^{v_i} [F(x)]^{n-1} dx}{[F(v_i)]^{n-1}}$$

Common for all four kinds of auctions (in the base model):

- Efficiency: Object to the bidder with highest valuation (or lowest cost)
- Revenue equivalence: All four kinds give the seller the same expected income.
- An increase in the number of bidders increases the expected price.
  - the more bidders, the higher is the expected second-highest valuation.

Difference among the auctions:

- Bid more difficult to calculate in sealed-bid first-price and Dutch auctions than in sealed-bid second-price and English auction.

## Seller's reservation price

Revenue equivalence in the basic model: Seller indifferent between auction procedures. But what about a reservation price?

A parallel situation: The monopolist's problem

A monopolist trades off two concerns:

- wants to sell large quantities → low price
- wants to earn a profit per unit sold → high price

Optimum trade-off: Price above marginal cost

Auction: Seller trades off the same two concerns:

- wants to sell the object → low reservation price
- wants to earn a profit if the object is sold  
→ high reservation price

The two highest valuations:  $v_1, v_2$

Reservation price:  $r$

Three cases:

- (i)  $v_1 > v_2 > r$ : increasing  $r$  has no effect
- (ii)  $v_1 > r > v_2$ : increasing  $r$  increases the price
- (iii)  $r > v_1 > v_2$ : increasing  $r$  reduces the chances to sell

## Optimum reservation price with 1 bidder

Bid =  $r$  or nothing

Seller's own valuation:  $v_0$

Seller's expected profit:

$$\pi(r) = r[1 - F(r)] + v_0F(r)$$

FOC:  $[1 - F(r)] - rf(r) + v_0f(r) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow v_0 = r - \frac{1 - F(r)}{f(r)} \equiv J(r)$$

i.e., marginal cost = marginal revenue

$$\Rightarrow r = J^{-1}(v_0)$$

Generally:

If highest bidder has valuation  $v$ , his expected gain is

$$\frac{1 - F(v)}{f(v)}$$

so that the expected price in this case is

$$v - \frac{1 - F(v)}{f(v)} = J(v)$$

The seller sells only if  $J(v) \geq v_0$  for the highest bid

$$\Rightarrow r = J^{-1}(v_0)$$

Efficiency with a reservation price:

- With a reservation price, the object may not be sold, even if a bidder exists with  $v > v_0$ .
- *Ex-ante* efficiency vs. *ex-post* efficiency.

## Some extensions

### (i) Observable differences among the bidders

Example:

Public procurement – domestic vs. foreign firms.

Suppose foreign firms are more cost effective than domestic ones.

- English auction and sealed-bid second-price auction are still efficient.
- Sealed-bid first-price auction no longer efficient: it is possible to win the auction without having the lowest cost.
- It is optimum for the procurer to discriminate between bidder groups, and one is no longer certain that the project is won by the lowest-cost bidder.
- In the example: It is optimum to discriminate in favour of the domestic firms. This favouring
  - increases the chance of getting an inefficient supplier, but also
  - lowers the bid from the efficient firms

(ii) Risk-averse bidders

- In a sealed-bid first-price auction, risk-averse bidders bid *higher* than risk-neutral ones. An increase in the bid
  - (1) increases the chance of winning, and therefore getting something
  - (2) reduces what one earns in case of winning.

With risk aversion, (1) gets more important than (2)

- Contract auction: Risk averse bidders bid more aggressively than risk neutral bidders.
- The seller gains more in a sealed-bid first-price auction than in a sealed-bid second-price auction.

(iii) Correlated valuations

- Extreme case: identical valuations. Bidders do not know the object's true value but have access to different pieces of information about this value. No bidder knows what other bidders know.
- More common in auctions than in contract auctions?
  - Auctions:
    - buying for resale
    - exclusive rights
  - Contract auction
    - pioneering projects with great cost uncertainty for all potential suppliers

- “Winner’s curse”
  - Bidders base bids in a sealed-bid auction on estimates. The bidder with the most optimistic estimate wins.
  - If you win, then you will wish to revise your estimate: The winner is the most optimistic one.
  - But this is taken into consideration in the bids: Bids are even lower because of the “winner’s curse”.
- In an English auction, bidders learn from each other during the bidding process. This reduces the winner’s-curse problem.
  - With correlated values, an English auction is preferred by the seller to the other kinds.
- Asymmetric information
  - one bidder knows the object’s true value
  - US offshore oil and gas lease auctions
    - Porter, *Econometrica* 1995

## Other issues

- Collusion
  - second-price auction better for sustaining collusion among bidders than first-price auction
  - open bids better than closed bids
  - contract auctions: *Norsk Standard*
- divisible objects
  - securities, quotas
- combined bids
  - petroleum: price on exploration right + production fee
  - vague projects: price + content
- entry costs, number of bidders, participation fee
- auctioning incentive contracts
- competition *for* a market vs. competition *in* a market



## Efficiency of auctions

- Which auction procedure to use?
  - revenue equivalence
  - easily calculated bids
    - sealed-bid second-price auctionBut: risk aversion? correlated values?
- Which objects are sold most effectively in an auction?
  - unique object
  - uncertainty about willingness to pay:  
how large? who?
- Does price affect efficiency?
  - one unit – no quantity effects from price change
  - divisible objects (quotas, securities): quantity effects

## Repeated auctions

- Less aggressive bidding today in order not to reveal one's high valuation before future auctions (the "ratchet" effect)
  - better to have large projects? negotiating renewal with current supplier?
- Capacity constraints: The winner of a contract today may not have capacity to participate in the next round.