

## Lecture 9: Truth revelation - menus, auctions and other approaches

- Purpose
  - ▶ truth telling - its importance
  - ▶ some alternatives to standard regulations (with their strong and weak sides)
  - ▶ demonstrate menu/auction schemes can meet truth telling criterion

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## Outline

- Truth revelation - important in regulatory design
- contracts : multiple forms (menus, auctions)
  - ▶ benefit of contract : may shift burden of proof (= agents prove they have met contract term, rather than regulator proving "the law" broken)
- voluntary agreements : useful under lack of information, but some problems ...
- menus : an agent's choice of menu item ⇒ agent reveals his/her type or (intended) effort
- auctions : an agent's bid ⇒ agents reveal type or (intended) effort

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## Truth revelation

- Setting: asymmetric information where agents have better knowledge on their own type than regulator
- Aim: provide incentives for A to reveal his type, (cfr. adverse selection problem) - how it works:
  - ▶ A must choose between alt. 1 and alt. 2
  - ▶ A chooses 1  $\Rightarrow$  P learns that A is of type 1
  - ▶ A chooses 2  $\Rightarrow$  P learns that A is of type 2
  - ▶ example: insurance with differing deductibles --  
A who perceives to be a low risk driver chooses insurance that costs less, but with higher deductible  
:: high risk driver chooses conversely

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## Contracts (1)

- A contract is a formal agreement between two (or more) consenting entities
  - ▶ no agreement on contract terms  $\Rightarrow$  no contract
- Advantages:
  - ▶ flexible prior to signing
  - ▶ burden of proof can be reversed
- Disadvantages:
  - ▶ difficult to design to cover all possible sides of an area  $\Rightarrow$  need for "safety clause"
  - ▶ potentially inflexible after signing

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## ... contracts (2)

- Justification : thin markets or other conditions for applying std. instruments not in place
- Steps in the contract formulation
  - ▶ principal offers contract(s) to agents (or the converse: agents offer contract to principal - as in voluntary agreements)
  - ▶ negotiation phase around contract terms (one of the areas with the most frequent applications of game theory)
  - ▶ each agent chooses to accept/reject contract terms

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## Voluntary agreements (1)

- VA - an agreement (contract) between agents (firms) and the principal (regulator)
  - ▶ Agents voluntarily implement environmental measures (like investment in environmental technology)
  - ▶ In return the principal refrains from issuing new environmental regulations onto agents
- Justification: many direct regulations force agents to choose particular solutions
  - ▶ costs are higher than they need to be
  - ▶ implementation of non-voluntary regulations often time consuming (lobbying)
  - ▶ VA makes agents "look better" (green consumerism)

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## Voluntary agreements (2)

- Advantages:

- ▶ facilitates learning for agents and the firm
- ▶ is consistent with how policy comes in place, which is a process (not a sudden undertaking)

VA relevant for "new" environmental issues?

- Disadvantages

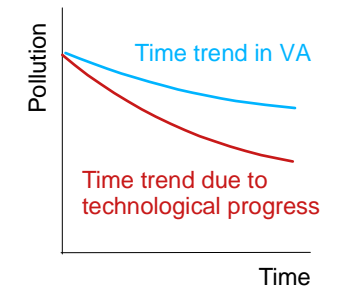
- ▶ transaction costs (negotiating bilateral agreements is costly for all parties)  
(TC may be reduced if principal negotiates with business associations)
- ▶ yield **sub-optimal** and **cost ineffective** outcomes  
 $\sum MAC_i(z_i) \neq MD(Z_{tot})$  &  $MAC_i(z_i^*) \neq MAC_j(z_j^*)$

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## Voluntary agreements (3)

- Sub-optimal and non cost effective outcomes

- ▶ **asymmetric information**: agents know more about the technical progress in their specific area
- ▶ risk that the principal gives agents "something for nothing" ( $MAC_i = 0$ )
- ▶ too little abatement takes place in the future as  $\sum MAC_i(z_i) \neq MD(Z_{tot})$



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## Voluntary agreements (4)

- VA could still be justified
  - ▶ few firms in a receptor region, i.e. cost efficiency unlikely to be achieved anyhow ( $MAC_i(z_i^*) \neq MAC_j(z_j^*)$  is a bit irrelevant)
  - ▶ difficult to gain political consensus on uniform or region wise regulations that bind (i.e., risk for delayed implementation)
  - ▶ in which case the principal needs to make sure that the VA is binding -- cfr. figure last slide)
  - ▶ learning is important, both for agents and the principal
    - implying that the asymmetric info. scenario is not that relevant

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## Menus (1)

- Basic version: menu of two contracts is offered
  - ▶ both contracts leads to f.ex. reduced pollution
- Two types of agents, L and H
  - ▶ L-type agents choose the contract (menu item) that maximizes their utility/profits
  - ▶ H-type agents choose the contract (menu item) that maximizes their utility/profits
- Problem: if large share of agents choose the least performance, risk that overall policy objectives not met
  - ▶ difficult to design contracts that are **cost effective** and **meet policy goals**

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## ... menus (2)

- Separating equilibria :: key in menu systems
  - ▶ a form of "price discrimination" ⇒ principal learns more about the agents
  - ▶ condition for separating equilibria : **only one principal**
  - ▶ classic case: insurance policies with varying degrees of deductibles (agent pays a different own share if an accident, depending policy chosen)
- Separating equilibria are often welfare enhancing (as they reduce arbitrage in the economy)

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## ... menus (3)

- Menu systems can contain more than two alternatives, for example if agents are very heterogenous
  - ▶ disadvantage: chances ↑ that agents choose wrong category (more likely w/ many items)
- Menu systems need not be designed as discrete alternatives ⇒ continuous payoff
  - ▶ agents signal their type or effort, and is paid/fined as a function of their effort and type
  - ▶ advantage: more info. about agents is extracted
  - ▶ disadvantage: complex for agents to relate to (but less impacts of "choosing incorrectly")

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## Auctions (1)

- For auctions to yield gains over other mechanisms, only some agents can expect to have bids accepted
  - ▶ example: a certain share of land is to be managed in a special way, but it is not perceived optimal that all land is managed that way
  - ▶ require that contract that is auctioned off is well specified
- Principle: the winner(s) of the auction are the "fortunate" providers of some public good
  - ▶ rationale: agents would only hand in bids that would make them better off than w/o contract

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## ... auctions (2)

- Auction formats
  - ▶ English auction (open cry, iterative increasing bids, ex. Sotheby art auctions):
  - ▶ Dutch auction - clock auction (open cry, price starts high and declines, first to accept price wins)
  - ▶ 1.st price sealed bid: highest bidder wins
  - ▶ 2.nd price sealed bid (Vickrey auction): highest bid wins, but pays the price of the 2nd highest bid
- All auctions pick same winner, English auction does not extract all WTP (other formats do)
- Procurement auctions = identify the least cost provider = winners are those with lowest bids

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### ... auctions (3)

- "Winner's curse"
  - ▶ first price auctions - the one who "wins" a common value good auction usually encounter a loss (overestimate value of the good, or underestimate cost of provision)
  - ▶ leads to strategic behavior in the bidding process ⇒ limited learning for the regulator
- Solution - remove linkage between own bid and price paid/received (Vickrey principles)
  - ▶ with just one contract awarded, 2nd price auctions
  - ▶ with multiple contracts awarded, N (or N+1) price auctions

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### Uniform price auctions (1)

- Multiple ( $N$ ) units/contracts auctioned
  - ⇒ only sealed bid formats of interest
    - ▶ first price auctions (**discriminatory price auctions**)
      - :: all winners pay equal to their bid
    - ▶ N+1 price auctions (**uniform price auctions**):
      - all  $N$  winners pay the same price (= size of first non-winning bid, the N+1 bid)
- Differences discriminatory - uniform price auct:
  - ▶ revenue equivalence not expected to hold
  - ▶ Strategic bidding may occur under discriminatory price auctions, but not under uniform price auctions
    - ← weakly dominant strategy to pay true WTP

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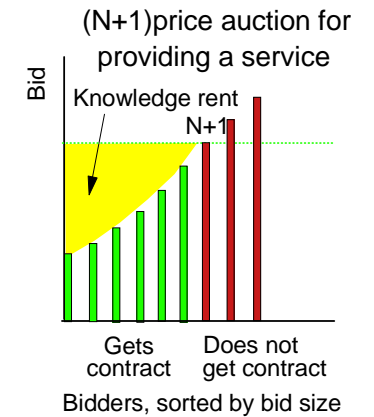
## ... uniform price auctions (2)

- Weakly dominant strategy: bid true opportunity cost/value in uniform price procurement auction
  - ▶ bid size ( $b_i$ )
  - ▶ opportunity costs ( $c_i$ )
  - ▶ auction price ( $p$ )
- Overstating the bid ::  $b_i > c_i$ 
  - ⇒ risk that  $b_i > p > c_i$  ⇒ does not get a contract one should have had, loss  $p - c_i > 0$
- Truthful revelation: ::  $b_i = c_i$ 
  - ⇒  $p > c_i = b_i$  ⇒ gets contract and gains  $p - c_i > 0$  OR
  - ⇒  $c_i = b_i > p$  ⇒ does not get contract and gains or loses nothing

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## ... uniform price auctions (3)

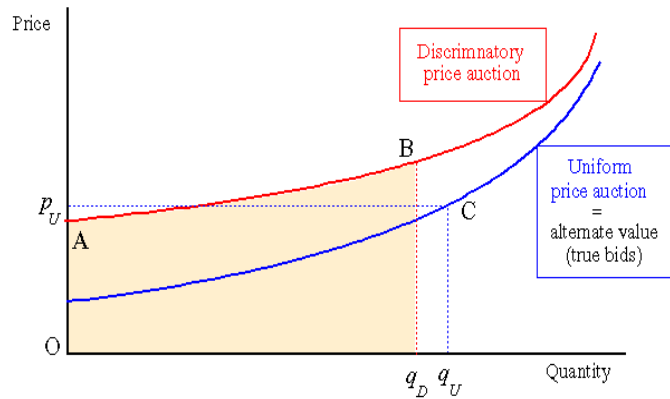
- Truthtelling costs
    - example (N+1) price auction: those getting a contract receive a compensation that exceeds their bid
  - Parallell to RAM criteria
    - ▶ incentive compatibility costs
    - ▶ here: (incentives) for truth-telling costs
- ⇒ must weight marginal costs and benefits from truthtelling



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## Uniform or discriminatory price (1)

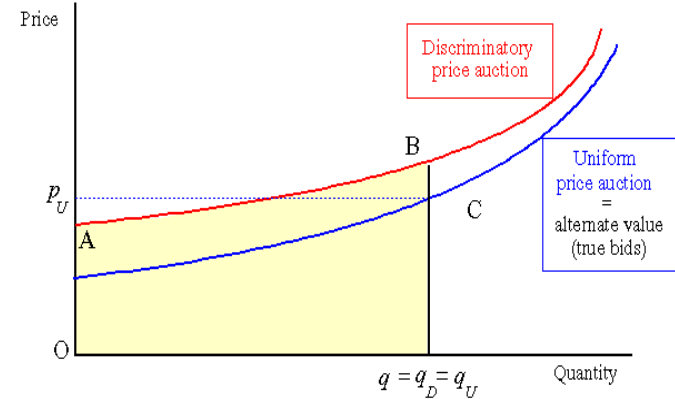
- Revenue - truthtelling tradeoff  
case 1: agency is revenue constrained



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## ... uniform or discriminatory price (2)

- Revenue - truthtelling tradeoff  
case 2: agency has quantity target



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## Summary (1)

- Contracts - all parties must agree to enter
  - ▶ applicability when std. instruments not useable
  - ▶ reversal of "burden of proof"
- Voluntary agreements
  - ▶ if done properly, may reduce transaction costs
  - ▶ ... severe asymmetric info. problems
  - ▶ a regulatory instruments for "new problems"?
- Menus
  - ▶ problem: hitting optimal menu prices when principal in advance know agent types, and cannot go back on a contract once signed

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## ... summary (2)

- Auctions
  - ▶ provides more info on agent type/intended effort
  - ▶ only applicable if there is competition to get "contract" (some agents will "not" win contract)
- Discriminatory vs. uniform price auctions
  - ▶ "revenue equivalence"
  - ▶ topic under discussion among researchers which is "best"
- Truthtelling costs - is it worth it?
  - ▶ RAM equivalence (need to know where one is)
  - ▶ decision rule:  $E(\text{benefits truth}) \geq E(\text{costs truth})$

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