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A Simple and Approximately Optimal Mechanism for a Buyer with Complements

Alon Eden

Computer Science, Harvard University. Work done in part while the author was visiting the Simons Institute for the Theory of Computing. This work was carried out in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Ph.D. degree.
alonarden@gmail.com

Michal Feldman

Computer Science, Tel-Aviv University, and Microsoft Research. This work was partially supported by the European Research Council under the European Union's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013) / ERC grant agreement number 337122. michal.feldman@cs.tau.ac.il

Ophir Friedler

Computer Science, Tel-Aviv University. This work was carried out in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Ph.D. degree. ophirfriedler@gmail.com

Inbal Talgam-Cohen

Computer Science, Technion. This work was partially supported by the Israel Science Foundation (grant number 336/18) and by the Taub Family Foundation. italgam@cs.technion.ac.il

S. Matthew Weinberg

Computer Science, Princeton University. Supported by NSF CCF-1717899. Work done in part while the author was a research fellow at the Simons Institute for the Theory of Computing. smweinberg@princeton.edu

We consider a revenue-maximizing seller with m heterogeneous items and a single buyer whose valuation for the items may exhibit both substitutes and complements. We show that the mechanism first proposed by Babaioff et al. (2014) – the better of selling the items separately and bundling them together – guarantees a $\Theta(d)$ -fraction of the optimal revenue, where d is a measure of the degree of complementarity. This is the first (to our knowledge) approximately optimal mechanism for a buyer whose valuation exhibits any kind of complementarity; it extends the work of Rubinstein and Weinberg (2015), who prove that the same simple mechanism achieves a constant factor approximation when buyer valuations are subadditive (the most general class of complement-free valuations).

Our proof is enabled by the recent duality framework developed in (Cai et al. 2016), which we use to obtain a bound on the optimal revenue in the generalized setting. Our technical contributions are domain-specific to handle the intricacies of settings with complements. One key modeling contribution is a tractable notion of “degree of complementarity” that admits meaningful results and insights — we demonstrate that previous definitions fall short in this regard.

Key words: Mechanism Design, Revenue, Approximation, Complements

History: This paper was accepted to the 18th ACM Conference on Economics and Computation (EC’17), and a 1-page abstract appeared in the proceedings.

1. Introduction

Consider a revenue-maximizing seller with $m \geq 1$ items to sell to a single buyer. When there is just a single item, and the buyer’s value is drawn from some distribution with CDF F , seminal works of (Myerson 1981), and (Riley and Zeckhauser 1983) prove that the optimal mechanism is to simply set whatever price maximizes $p \cdot (1 - F(p))$. It is now well-understood that beyond the single-item setting, the optimal mechanism suffers many undesirable properties that make it impractical, including randomization, non-monotonicity and others (Rochet and Chone 1998, Hart and Nisan 2013, Hart and Reny 2012, Briest et al. 2015, Daskalakis et al. 2013, 2014, Thanassoulis 2004, Pavlov 2011). Following seminal work of (Chawla et al. 2007), there is now a sizable body of research proving that the simple mechanisms we see in practice are in fact approximately optimal in quite general

settings, helping to explain their widespread use (Chawla et al. 2010, 2015, Kleinberg and Weinberg 2014, Hart and Nisan 2017, Li and Yao 2013, Babaioff et al. 2014, Bateni et al. 2015, Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015, Yao 2015, Chawla and Miller 2016, Cai and Zhao 2017).

Still, prior work has largely been limited to additive or unit-demand buyers (a buyer’s valuation is additive if $v(S) = \sum_{i \in S} v(\{i\})$; it is unit-demand if $v(S) = \max_{i \in S} \{v(\{i\})\}$). Only recently have researchers begun tackling more complex valuation functions (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015, Chawla and Miller 2016, Cai and Zhao 2017). Even these works have remained restricted to subclasses of *subadditive* valuations, also called *complement-free* (a valuation is subadditive if $v(S \cup T) \leq v(S) + v(T)$ for all S, T). While subadditive valuations are quite general, they can only capture interaction between items as *substitutes*. For example, if the items are pieces of furniture, a buyer’s marginal value for a chair might decrease as her living space gets more crowded by other items. To date, no results in this line of work have modeled interactions between items as *complements*. For example, a buyer’s value for a kitchen table might instead increase if she already has a chair. The goal of this paper is to study simple and approximately optimal mechanisms in domains where buyer valuations exhibit both substitutes and complements.

1.1. Running Examples

We now present two running examples which will help motivate and exposit our model.

Example 1: Consider a college that sells courses (indexed by $[m] = \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$) ‘a la carte’, i.e., courses are items for sale. The college also specifies diplomas it awards (indexed by $[k]$), and for each diploma j it specifies a set of courses S_j that a student must pass in order to receive j . Students may purchase courses as they like, but in order to receive a diploma, they must complete the set of courses required by that diploma. Denote by v_j the value of diploma j . The value of a student for a set of courses C is the total value of diplomas it covers, i.e. $\sum_{j: S_j \subseteq C} v_j$. The items (courses) exhibit complementarities because value is derived from diplomas containing multiple courses. At the same time, certain sets of courses may conflict, require prerequisites, or impose too much coursework. Therefore,

the items also behave as substitutes (e.g., a student cannot successfully take two conflicting courses).

Example 2: Consider a recruiter who matches professionals to firms. The recruiter focuses on identifying and matching certain skills indexed by $[m]$ (say: software developer, algorithms developer, data scientist, computer vision expert, QA, etc.) to high-tech firms. A firm may be interested in maintaining a set of projects indexed by $[k]$, and each project $j \in [k]$ requires a set S_j of professionals to maintain. If v_j denotes the profit the firm will enjoy by completing project j , then the value of a firm for a set of experts C is the total value of projects they can cover, i.e. $\sum_{j: S_j \subseteq C} v_j$. As in Example 1, the items (experts) exhibit complementarities because value is derived from projects requiring multiple experts. Also as in Example 1, the items behave as substitutes – firms typically have limited hiring budget and/or physical space, and cannot derive utility from recommended experts beyond this cap.

In both examples, observe that complementarities arise in a similar manner: each individual item is a building block for an object which provides value. Substitutability arises in a similar manner as well: certain subsets of items may conflict and be infeasible to simultaneously utilize. Since we view one of our main contributions as the formalization of an improved degree-of-complementarity notion, we dedicate the subsequent subsection to introducing this (and related) concepts.

1.2. How to Measure the Degree of Complementarity

Even for the traditionally simpler domain of *welfare* maximization, mechanisms for buyers with complements have only recently emerged (Abraham et al. 2012, Feige et al. 2015, Feldman et al. 2015, 2016). The main difficulty is that strong lower bounds are known for general valuations (Nisan and Segal 2006, Lehmann et al. 2002), so the precise degree to which buyer valuations exhibit substitutes or complements must be explicitly modeled in order to achieve tractability. Interestingly, strong positive results are possible in the complete absence of complements and no restriction on the degree of substitutability (Dobzinski et al. 2010, Dobzinski 2007, Feige 2009, Feldman et al. 2013, Devanur et al.

2015), but not vice versa: many strong lower bounds still exist in the absence of substitutes but with arbitrary complementarity (Lehmann et al. 2002, Abraham et al. 2012, Morgenstern 2015, Feldman et al. 2016).

While arbitrary substitutability may apply in quite general settings, valuations with arbitrary complements often misrepresent the settings at hand. In settings that involve complements (e.g. shoes, airport arrival and departure slots, radio spectrum allocation, labor markets with heterogeneous skills), it is rarely the case that *all* elements complement one another. Interestingly, the right definition of “degree of complementarity” differs between environments. The goal is thus to define valuation classes that allow reasoning about complements in a meaningful and sufficiently general way.

Building block: The PH model. Our proposed model of complementarity begins with the previously-studied PH model. A Positive Hypergraph (PH) valuation $v(\cdot)$ is such that there exists another set function $w(\cdot)$ so that $v(S) = \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T)$, and $w(T) \geq 0$ for all T . Note that such valuations exhibit complementarities, but not substitutes. A PH valuation has PH degree d if for all $|T| > d$, $w(T) = 0$. I.e., a valuation incorporates more complementarity behavior if larger sets of items have synergy. A prominent example for such a source of complementarity is the FCC spectrum auctions, where purchasing licenses for the same band of spectrum in adjacent geographical regions increases the overall value of the purchase. Each region can be associated with an element, and each subset of geographically adjacent regions T may be associated with $w(T)$, the complementary benefit from owning the band at exactly the region set T . In (Abraham et al. 2012), the authors provided algorithms and mechanisms for social welfare maximization with guarantees that degrade gracefully with d . It is worth noting that even for PH valuations of degree 2, it may be that *every pair of items* are complements. Note that in both Examples 1 and 2, the valuation function of the buyer is a PH valuation defined by $w(S_j) = v_j$ for all j , and $w(T) = 0$ otherwise. Therefore, the PH degree of complementarity would be $\max_j |S_j|$.

Shortcomings of the PH model (and alternatives). In the PH model, the *number of items* plays a crucial role in the degree of complementarity. For example, a buyer that is interested only in the grand bundle of all items (and no proper subset) has the highest degree of complementarity (in the context of Example 1, consider a college that sells many courses

but certifies only a single diploma — both previous measures label the corresponding valuation function with the highest possible degree of complementarity of m). However when selling to such a buyer, one can treat the grand bundle as a single item, and thus no complementarity issues arise (so the “intrinsic” degree of complementarity is low). That is, previous measures of complementarity deem this setting the *most* complex, whereas from a revenue-maximizing perspective it is actually the *least* complex. This observation suggests that a different perspective on complementarity is needed for revenue-maximizing auction design.

This same issue arises in another recent degree of complementarity definition – the supermodular degree introduced by Feige and Izsak (2013). Two items j, j' have a *supermodular* relation if there exists a (possibly empty) set $S \subseteq [m] \setminus \{j, j'\}$ such that $v(S \cup \{j, j'\}) - v(S \cup \{j'\}) > v(S \cup \{j\}) - v(S)$, i.e., S exposes the synergy between j and j' . A valuation has supermodular degree d if each item j has at most d other items with a supermodular relation.¹ In Examples 1 and 2, the supermodular degree is at least $\max_j |S_j| - 1$, but could be larger depending on the structure in which the sets $\{S_j\}_j$ intersect.

To further emphasize the relevance of a novel measure, consider the following two instantiations of Example 2: (1) every pair of experts can complete a project unique to them, and there is a single super-team of ten experts which can complete its own project; (2) every set of ten experts can complete a project unique to them. In both settings, the PH degree is ten, and the supermodular degree is m . Yet, setting (2) seems vastly more complex than (1), and an ideal measure of complementarity should capture this.

1.3. Our Notion

As mentioned above, our notion begins with the PH model. The difference is in how we measure the degree of complementarity. In the language of our examples, the set function $w(\cdot)$ has $w(S_j) = v_j$ for all projects/diplomas j , and $w(T) = 0$ for all T which do not correspond to a project/diploma. We define the degree of complementarity to be the maximum

¹ For example, when purchasing shoes each additional pair of shoes may have a marginally decreasing value, but for any pair, the two shoes are worth more than the sum of values of each shoe by itself. For results that consider the supermodular degree, see (Feige and Izsak 2013, Feldman and Izsak 2014, Izsak 2017, Feldman and Izsak 2017).

over all items of the number of projects/diplomas requiring that item. Note that one simple comparison between the PH degree and our measure is that the PH degree of a hypergraph is the maximum size of any hyperedge, while our measure is the maximum degree of any node.

Revisiting the two objections previously raised, observe that when only the grand bundle of all items provides non-zero value, our measure assigns this valuation a complementarity degree of one, matching the intrinsic simplicity. When every pair of experts completes a unique project (and there is one super-team of size ten), our measure assigns a complementarity degree of m . When every set of ten experts can complete a unique project, our measure assigns a complementarity degree of $\binom{m-1}{9}$. So our measure correctly identifies that the latter setting is significantly more complex. Notice further that our measure of complementarity ranges from 1 to 2^{m-1} , whereas previous measures range from 1 to m , so our measure has the potential to provide a much more fine-grained evaluation.

There is one more aspect to our model of complements. Even for additive buyers, multi-dimensional auctions are known to be intractable when values for items are correlated (Briest et al. 2015, Hart and Nisan 2013). Specifically, there exists a distribution D over \mathbb{R}^2 such that when a single additive buyer's valuation is drawn from D , the optimal revenue for the seller is infinite, but the revenue of the best deterministic mechanism is 1. Therefore, while our model of complementarities so far is intrinsically motivated, it is intractable without further effort. A representative approach to circumvent these impossibilities for additive buyers is the *independent items* assumption: item values are drawn independently.

With complementarities between items, there's little sense in which we can have independence across *items*, but a notion of independence still naturally folds into the model in the following way: simply assume that the random variables $\{v_j\}_{j \in [k]}$ are independent (that is, the students' values for various *diplomas* are independent random variables). This is the natural extension of "independent items" assumed in all prior works on this topic.

To summarize in the language of our examples: we model complements among items (courses/experts) via a set-valued function $w(\cdot)$, where $w(S)$ is equal to the value derived from a diploma requiring exactly the set S of courses (or a project requiring exactly the

set S of experts), and a buyer's valuation for a set T of items is $\sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T)$. Over the entire population of buyers, the values $\{w(T)\}_{T \subseteq [m]}$ are independent random variables. We now proceed to describe how we model substitutes.

Substitutes. Consider a student planning their entire course selection. Naturally, constraints such as overlapping courses, geographic constraints, prerequisites, general demands on time, etc., deem some sets of courses infeasible. One can model this with a set system $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^{[m]}$. A set of *courses* S is in \mathcal{C} if it is feasible to construct a schedule that contains all courses in S (and $S \notin \mathcal{C}$ denotes that the courses S violate some constraint and cannot be a feasible schedule). Therefore, one could fold substitutes into the student's valuation by updating $v(S)$ to be $\max_{S' \in \mathcal{C}, S' \subseteq S} \{\sum_{S_j \subseteq S'} v_j\}$ (the maximum sum of values for all diplomas that can be achieved using courses from a feasible $S' \subseteq S$).

Our model merges the two prevailing models of complements and substitutes: complements are captured via “diplomas” that require every course in a set, and substitutes are captured by downwards-closed “feasibility constraints,” which preclude the student from obtaining value from too many courses at once. So to fully recap: there is a function $w : 2^{[m]} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ which takes as input a set S and outputs the value derived from a course/project which requires exactly the set S of items. There are also feasibility constraints \mathcal{C} , where $S \in \mathcal{C}$ denotes that it is feasible to simultaneously utilize all items in S . The buyer's value $v(S)$ for a set S of items is then $\max_{S' \subseteq S, S' \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{T \subseteq S'} w(T)\}$. Among the entire population of buyers, the values $\{w(T)\}_{T \subseteq [m]}$ are drawn independently. Finally, we say that an instance has degree of complementarity d if the maximum over all items of the number of diplomas/courses requiring that item is d (formally, $\max_j |\{T, T \ni j \wedge w(T) > 0\}|$).

We now expound a more concrete example demonstrating the complementarity aspect (which does not have strict substitutes). This example also gives some intuition for the “hard” examples, where simple mechanisms cannot provide good approximation guarantees. Suppose that a random student in the population values diploma j at 2^{j+1} with probability $2^{-(j+1)}$, and 0 otherwise (independently for all diplomas). The expected total value to students is then k , the total number of *diplomas*, and therefore k is a trivial upper bound to the optimal revenue. Depending on the structure of the sets of courses required for each diploma, it may further indeed be possible to extract revenue $\Omega(k)$, even when

$k = 2^{\Omega(m)}$ (if, for instance, for every set of size $m/2$ courses, there is a diploma that requires exactly that set of courses; see Proposition 5 for a complete analysis).

In this example, pricing *courses* (of which there are m) achieves revenue at best $O(m) \ll k$, and selling the grand bundle for a single price achieves revenue only $O(1)$ (see Proposition 5 for analysis of both these claims). Therefore, the better of selling items separately and selling the grand bundle, in this example, cannot achieve an approximation better than $O(\frac{m}{k})$ to the optimal revenue.

1.4. Main Result and Techniques.

Our main result (Theorem 2) is that the mechanism proposed by (Babaioff et al. 2014) – the better of selling separately (post a price on each item, let the buyer purchase whatever subset she likes) and bundling together (post a single price on the grand bundle, let the buyer purchase or not) – achieves a tight $\Theta(d)$ approximation whenever buyer valuations exhibit complementarity of degree at most d (by our complementarity measure — the maximum over all items of the number of diplomas/projects that require that item).

We show that our notion of complementarity best fits our model: If instead we measure complementarity via the “supermodular degree,” then there exist populations in our model with supermodular degree d for which the better of selling separately and bundling together achieves only a $\Omega(2^d/d)$ -approximation. Similarly, if we instead measure complementarity via the “positive-hypergraph degree,” then there exist populations in our model with positive-hypergraph degree d for which the better of selling separately and bundling together achieves only a $\Omega(\sum_{\ell \leq d} \binom{m}{\ell}/m)$ -approximation. Both notions of degree are defined formally in Section 6 where the lower bounds are proved. Our point is not that $\Theta(d)$ is a “better” bound than $\Omega(2^d/d)$ (this is arguably not a fair comparison, as the measures operate on different scales), but rather that “supermodular degree” and “positive-hypergraph degree” are incapable of capturing the smooth transition from low to high degrees of complementarities as they can only take on m different values but provide guarantees that range from 1 to $\Omega(2^m)$. In comparison, our notion of degree of complementarity takes on 2^{m-1} different values, and provides guarantees that range from 1 to $\Omega(2^m)$, allowing for an exponentially finer-grained tradeoff.

Our Techniques. Our starting point is a duality-based upper bound on the optimal achievable revenue coming from recent work of (Cai et al. 2016). Their upper bound decomposes into three parts, which they call SINGLE, CORE, and TAIL. So the goal is to show that selling separately well-approximates SINGLE, and that bundling together well-approximates CORE and TAIL. Fortunately, the analysis of (Cai et al. 2016) is fairly robust, and we are able to prove that bundling together achieves a constant factor of both CORE and TAIL via a similar approach. Our main technical contribution appears in Section 4, where we prove that selling separately gets an $O(d)$ -approximation to SINGLE. Incidentally, bounding SINGLE happens to be the easiest part of the analysis in (Cai et al. 2016) for additive valuations.

Without getting into details about what exactly this SINGLE term is, we can still highlight the key challenge. In the context of our hard example (where the buyer’s value for diploma j is 2^{j+1} with probability 2^{-j-1}), we would like to post a different price on each diploma/project. In this example, it is even the case that the optimal “diploma/project-pricing scheme” obtains a constant-factor approximation to SINGLE. The catch is that we sell courses (items), not diploma/projects. We may wish to set drastically different prices on many different diploma/projects requiring the same course, and it’s unclear that we can achieve the desired diploma/project prices by cleverly setting prices on the courses separately (in fact, it could be impossible). So our main technical contribution is an algorithm to find a subset of diploma/projects S for which it is possible to achieve any desired diploma/project-pricing on S by only posting prices on courses, and the optimal revenue from diploma/projects in S is a d -approximation to the optimal *diploma/project*-pricing scheme. It turns out that the right sets of diploma/projects to search for are ones where each diploma/project requires a course *not* required by any of the other diploma/projects. We show that the number of collections with this property that is needed to partition all diploma/projects tightly-characterizes the approximation guarantee of selling separately, and that d such collections suffice whenever each course is required by at most d diploma/projects.

Another interesting property of our analysis worth emphasizing is the following: if our scheme chooses to sell separately, it does so by first selecting a subset of at most m

diplomas/projects to target, and then selecting for each diploma/project a single required item to price (and all others are offered for free). While perhaps initially counterintuitive, such schemes are not uncommon in practice in the presence of complements. For example, many iPhone apps (which could in principle be priced) are offered for free upon purchase of an iPhone. In the context of our examples, such a scheme may involve the university offering introductory classes for free, and charging only for the final course completing the diploma. In the case of a recruiter, they may charge a price to recruit a true specialist (e.g. the “computer vision expert”), but offer to recruit less-specialized experts for free.

1.5. Further Related Work

Multi-Dimensional Auction Design. A rapidly growing body of recent literature has shown that simple mechanisms are approximately optimal in quite general settings (Chawla et al. 2007, 2010, 2015, Kleinberg and Weinberg 2014, Hart and Nisan 2017, Li and Yao 2013, Babaioff et al. 2014, Yao 2015, Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015, Bateni et al. 2015, Chawla and Miller 2016, Cai and Zhao 2017). Of these, the result most related to ours is (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015), which proves that the better of selling separately and bundling together achieves a constant-factor approximation for a single buyer whose valuation is drawn from a population that is “subadditive with independent items” (note that their approximation guarantees in this model are improved by (Chawla and Miller 2016, Cai and Zhao 2017)). Their model is similar to our model with $d = 1$ (but neither subsumes the other), so our results can best be interpreted as an extension of theirs to buyers whose valuations also exhibit complementarity.

In terms of techniques, our work makes use of a recent duality framework developed in (Cai et al. 2016). The same duality framework has been used in concurrent work by the present authors to prove multi-dimensional “Bulow-Klemperer” results (Eden et al. 2017), and independent work by others to design simple, approximately optimal auctions for multiple subadditive bidders (Cai and Zhao 2017). Still, the duality theory is only used to provide an upper bound on the revenue in all these cases, and the remaining technical contributions are disjoint. In particular, for the present paper, Section 3 has a high technical overlap with these works, and Section 5 bears some similarity. But our main technical contribution lies in Section 4, which is unique to the problem at hand.

Agents with Complements. In recent years there has also been a rapid growth in the design of algorithms and mechanisms in the presence of complements (Abraham et al. 2012, Feige and Izsak 2013, Feldman and Izsak 2014, 2017, Feige et al. 2015, Feldman et al. 2015, 2016, Nguyen et al. 2016). These works consider many different aspects: for example, assuming strategic behavior of agents (or not), assuming the existence of strict substitutes (or not), or focusing on simple mechanisms and quantifying the efficiency of equilibria. In all these works, some notion of degree of complementarity is cast on a class of valuation functions, and the approximation ratio guaranteed grows as a function of complementarity degree. It is noteworthy that quite often different settings motivate different degrees of complementarity to best capture the degradation in possible guarantees. For instance, (Abraham et al. 2012) uses the positive hypergraph (PH) degree, (Feige and Izsak 2013) uses the supermodular degree, (Feige et al. 2015, Feldman et al. 2015) use the maximum over PH degree, and (Feldman et al. 2016) uses the positive supermodular degree. Although both (Abraham et al. 2012) and this paper use a positive hypergraph to describe an agent’s valuations, our degree of complementarity is different than theirs. While they set the degree of complementarity as the maximum size of a hyperedge in the hypergraph (the number of items in the largest hyperedge), our degree of complementarity is the maximum degree of an item (the number of hyperedges that contain an item). Moreover, we allow substitutability by introducing a downward-closed feasibility constraint over items, while (Abraham et al. 2012) does not consider valuations that exhibit both complementarity and substitutability. See Section 6 for details about the different notions of complementarity used in previous works.

In comparison to the above literature, ours is the first to consider *revenue* maximization for buyers with complements. Earlier work does indeed consider revenue maximization for buyers with complements (Day and Milgrom 2008, Milgrom 2007, Levin 1997), but from a fairly different perspective. For instance, (Milgrom 2007, Day and Milgrom 2008) consider core-selecting auctions in a non-Bayesian setting. (Levin 1997) considers single-parameter valuations in a Bayesian setting, and explicitly notes the challenges in extending to multi-parameter settings. Additionally, there has also already been follow-up work following an initial announcement (one-page abstract) of portions of this work in EC 2019: (Cai et al.

2018) study revenue maximization in a Bayesian multi-parameter setting for a model of “proportional” complements. Their model is more general than ours in some ways, and more restrictive in others. We expect further results along this line in the future.

1.6. Discussion and Future Work

We present the first simple and approximately optimal mechanism for a buyer whose valuation exhibits both substitutes and complements. We show that for a natural notion of “degree of complementarity,” the better of selling separately and selling together achieves a tight $\Theta(d)$ -approximation to the optimal revenue. We provide rigorous evidence that this notion best fits our model via large lower bounds for classes of valuations that previous definitions would “award” a low degree of complementarity.

Our main technical contribution is an algorithm to partition a collection of sets into subcollections such that each set (in the subcollection) contains an item not contained in the others (in that same subcollection). Due to the robustness of previously-developed tools like the “core-tail” decomposition (Li and Yao 2013, Babaioff et al. 2014, Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015, Yao 2015, Chawla and Miller 2016, Cai and Zhao 2017), and duality-based benchmarks (Cai et al. 2016), we are able to focus our technical contributions to the specific problem at hand.

One immediate direction for future work would be to see whether simple mechanisms remain approximately optimal for *multiple* buyers with complementarity degree d . Doing so would likely require at least one substantial innovation beyond the ideas in this paper, as even the $d = 1$ case remains open (even considering the recent breakthrough result of (Cai and Zhao 2017)).

2. Preliminaries

We consider a setting in which a seller wishes to sell a set M of m items to a single buyer. The buyer has a valuation function v that assigns a non-negative real number $v(S)$ to every bundle of items $S \subseteq M$. The valuation is normalized ($v(\emptyset) = 0$) and monotone ($v(S) \leq v(T)$ whenever $S \subseteq T$). We slightly abuse notation and let $v(X) = \mathbb{E}_{S \sim X} [v(S)]$ when X is a random set.

2.1. Valuations with Substitutes and Complements

Complements. An increasingly popular model to represent complementarities is via a *positive hypergraph representation*: $v(S) = \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T)$, where $w : 2^M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is a non-negative weight function. Intuitively, $w(T)$ denotes the bonus value that the buyer enjoys from owning exactly the set of items T (in addition to the value the buyer already enjoys for proper subsets of T). In the language of Section 1, $w(T)$ denotes the buyer's value for the diploma which requires exactly the courses in T . We sometimes refer to T as a *hyperedge*, thinking of $w(\cdot)$ as a weight function on the hypergraph with nodes M . We say that v (or w) exhibits complementarities of degree d if for every item $i \in M$, $|\{S \subseteq M : i \in S \text{ and } w(S) > 0\}| \leq d$.

A simple example of a positive hypergraph representation is the following: Let v be an additive valuation, then defining $w(\{i\}) = v(\{i\})$ and $w(T) = 0$ for every $|T| > 1$ yields $v(S) = \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T)$.

Substitutes. An equally popular model to represent substitutes is via a set system capturing combinatorial constraints: Let $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^M$ denote a downwards-closed set system over the items M , then v assigns values to the sets in \mathcal{C} , and for every other set S , $v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{v(T)\}$. Intuitively, if $S \notin \mathcal{C}$ then at least some items in S are substitutes, and the buyer does not derive value from all of S .

Many valuations that exhibit only substitutabilities are representable as “additive subject to constraints”, i.e., $v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{i \in T} v(\{i\})\}$. For example, unit-demand valuations can be represented with $\mathcal{C} = \{T \subseteq M : |T| \leq 1\}$. Constraints that require a student to take at most five courses could be represented with $\mathcal{C} = \{T \subseteq M : |T| \leq 5\}$. Constraints that require a student to take no more than 60 hours of coursework could be represented with $\mathcal{C} = \{T \subseteq M : \sum_{j \in T} h_j \leq 60\}$, where h_j is the number of hours of coursework for class j . Constraints that require a student not take overlapping classes could first build a graph G with an edge between class i and j if they overlap, and then define \mathcal{C} to be all independent sets of G . Enforcing multiple of the aforementioned constraints simultaneously is simply a matter of taking the intersection of the defined \mathcal{C} s.

Complements and Substitutes. We choose to model substitutes and complementarities together by combining the above two models. That is, there is a positive hypergraph representation w that represents complementarities, combinatorial constraints \mathcal{C} that represent substitutabilities, and $v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T} w(U)\}$. We assume w.l.o.g. that $w(T) = 0$ for all $T \notin \mathcal{C}$.

2.2. Distributions of Valuations

We model our buyer valuation $v(\cdot)$ as being drawn from the population D in the following way. There are some constraints \mathcal{C} that are fixed (not randomly drawn). Each $w(T)$ is then drawn independently from some distribution D'_T for every $T \in \mathcal{C}$, and $v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T} w(U)\}$.

We say that D has complementarity d if all valuations in the support of D have complementarity d . Note that this implies D has complementarity d if and only if for every item $i \in M$,

$$|\{T \ni i : \Pr[w(T) = 0] < 1\}| \leq d.$$

We use V to denote the support of D , $f(v)$ to denote $\Pr_{\hat{v} \leftarrow D}[\hat{v} = v]$, and $f_T(y) = \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T}[y = x]$.

Discrete vs. Continuous Distributions. Like (Cai et al. 2016), we only explicitly consider distributions with finite support. Similar to their results, all of our results immediately extend to continuous distributions as well via a standard discretization argument (Daskalakis and Weinberg 2012, Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015, Hartline and Lucier 2015, Hartline et al. 2011, Bei and Huang 2011). We refer the reader to (Cai et al. 2016) for the formal statement and proof.

Theorem 1 assumes that for every single-dimensional random variable X and number $q \in [0, 1]$, there exists a threshold p so that $X \geq p$ with probability *exactly* q , which might a priori seem problematic for discrete distributions. Fortunately, standard “smoothing” techniques allow this assumption to be valid for discrete distributions. A formal discussion of this appears in Remark 2.4 of (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015).

2.3. Mechanisms

Truthful Mechanisms and Revenue Maximization. Formally, a mechanism \mathcal{M} has two mappings $X : V \rightarrow \Delta(2^M)$, and $p : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. X takes as input a valuation v and awards a (potentially random) subset of items. p takes as input a valuation v and charges a price. \mathcal{M} is then *truthful* if for all $v, v' \in V$, $v(X(v)) - p(v) \geq v(X(v')) - p(v')$ (note that for a single buyer, there is no need to distinguish between Bayesian Incentive Compatible and Dominant Strategy Incentive Compatible — the definitions coincide). Alternatively, one can view a mechanism as a *menu* that lists options of the form (X, p) , where $X \in \Delta(2^M)$ and $p \in \mathbb{R}$. A buyer with value $v(\cdot)$ then selects the menu option $\arg \max\{v(X) - p\}$. It is easy to see the equivalence between the two representations: simply setting $(X(v), p(v)) = \arg \max\{v(X) - p\}$ takes one from the menu view to a truthful mechanism. We denote by $\text{REV}(D)$ the optimal revenue attainable by any truthful mechanism when buyer valuations are drawn from the population D .

Simple Mechanisms. The two simple mechanisms we study are selling separately (SREV) and bundling together (BREV). We denote by $\text{BREV}(D)$ the optimal expected revenue attainable by selling all items together, and drop the parameter D when it is clear from context. It is well-known that $\text{BREV}(D) = \max p \cdot \Pr[v(M) \geq p]$ (Myerson 1981). SREV requires some care, as it may be computationally intractable for a buyer to even decide, given item prices, which set of items provides her the optimal utility. In such cases, it is not clear which set of items a computationally-bounded buyer will purchase. Therefore, counting on the buyer to compute an optimal buying strategy may be an undesirable solution concept (from a computational perspective). In certain cases, however, one can easily determine whether item i will be purchased: for example, if *every* set that the buyer is even willing to purchase contains item i , then certainly the buyer will purchase (at least) item i . Therefore, if we only count item i as sold whenever it is contained in every set that the buyer is willing to purchase, we certainly never overestimate the revenue achieved by any rational buyer. Put another way, our only assumption on the buyer's behavior is that whenever there exists a set yielding strictly positive utility, they choose to purchase a set which yields strictly positive utility (not necessarily their utility-maximizing set) — our revenue guarantees will hold for any buyer whose behavior satisfies this property.

This is similar to the approach used by (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015): we define SREV^* to be the optimal revenue attainable by any item pricing *only counting an item as sold if every set the buyer is willing to purchase contains that item*. More formally, for a given item pricing \vec{p} , and valuation v , let $I_i(\vec{p}, v) = 1$ if $\exists S \ni i, v(S) - \sum_{j \in S} p_j > 0$ and $\forall S \not\ni i, v(S) - \sum_{j \in S} p_j \leq 0$, and $I_i(\vec{p}, v) = 0$ otherwise. Then $\text{SREV}^*(D) = \max_{\vec{p}} \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} [\sum_i I_i(\vec{p}, v) \cdot p_i]$.

2.4. The Copies Environment

In our bounds we shall make use of a related “copies environment”, also utilized in (Chawla et al. 2007, 2010, 2015, Kleinberg and Weinberg 2014). For any product distribution $D' = \times_{i=1}^k D'_i$, we define the corresponding copies setting as follows: There is a single item for sale, and k buyers. Buyer i 's value for the item is drawn from the distribution D'_i . For instance, in our model, the hypergraph representation of the valuation is drawn from $D' = \times_S D'_S$, so we would have a buyer for every subset, with buyer S 's value drawn from the distribution D'_S . We emphasize that in the copies setting there is a single item for sale, and a buyer for every subset S . There are no longer any feasibility constraints on which items can be simultaneously purchased: there is a single item which can be awarded to at most one buyer (or no one).

We can then define the benchmark $\text{OPT}^{\text{copies}}(D')$ to be the expected revenue obtained by the optimal mechanism of Myerson (Myerson 1981) on input D' . Note that this is equal to $\mathbb{E}_{w \leftarrow D'} [\max_T \{\bar{\varphi}_T(w(T)), 0\}]$, where $\bar{\varphi}_T(\cdot)$ denotes Myerson's *ironed virtual value* for the distribution D'_T . We make use of the following result, whose proof appears for completeness in Appendix B:

THEOREM 1 (Chawla et al. (2010)). *For any $q \leq 1$, there exist (possibly random) prices $\{p_T\}_T$ such that:*

1. *Revenue is high: $\text{OPT}^{\text{copies}}(D') \leq \frac{1}{q} \sum_{T \subseteq M} \mathbb{E}_{p_T} [p_T \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T]]$.*
2. *Probability of sale is low: $\sum_{T \subseteq M} \mathbb{E}_{p_T} [\Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T]] \leq q$*
3. *Moreover, each p_T takes on at most two values. If D'_T is regular, then p_T is a point-mass.*

3. Our Duality Benchmark and Main Theorem Statement

We extend the duality framework of (Cai et al. 2016) to our setting in a natural manner. Full technical details are deferred to Appendix A. The only technical detail needed for stating our revenue benchmark is the following: we partition the valuation space V into $2^m - 1$ different regions, depending on which hyperedge is the most valuable to a buyer with valuation v . Specifically, we say that v is in region R_A if $A = \arg \max_{T \subseteq M} \{w(T)\}$, with ties broken lexicographically.

COROLLARY 1. *For valuation distribution D established by drawing a hypergraph representation $w \leftarrow \prod_S D'_S$ and returning $v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T} w(U)\}$,*

$$\begin{aligned} REV(D) \leq & \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_T] \right\} \right] && (NON-FAVORITE) \\ & + \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\sum_{S \subseteq M} \max\{0, \bar{\varphi}_S(w(S))\} \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \in R_S] \right]. && (SINGLE) \end{aligned}$$

We defer to Appendix A any discussion of how this benchmark is derived, but provide here some intuition to help parse it. Corollary 1 upper bounds the revenue with two terms. The second term, SINGLE, sums over all S a term that is zero whenever $v \notin R_S$ (that is, S is not the buyer's favorite diploma). When $v \in R_S$ (that is, S is the buyer's favorite diploma), it sums the Myersonian (ironed) virtual value for diploma S (as defined by distribution D'_S). The first term, NON-FAVORITE, is simply the buyer's value for the grand bundle of all items *only counting contributions from diplomas that are not their favorite*.

In Section 4, we show that $\max\{SREV^*, BREV\}$ gets a $4(d+1)$ -approximation to SINGLE (Proposition 1). This portion of the analysis develops techniques specific to buyers with restricted complements. In Section 5, we show that BREV gets a 12-approximation to NON-FAVORITE (Proposition 4). This portion of the analysis will look somewhat standard to the reader familiar with (Cai et al. 2016), with a little extra work to extend their main ideas to our setting. We conclude this section with our main theorem:

THEOREM 2. *For a distribution D that has complementarity d , $REV \leq (4d + 16) \max\{BREV, SREV^*\}$.*

Proof. Combine Propositions 1 and 4 with Corollary 1, to get:

$$\text{REV}(D) \leq 4d\text{SREV}^*(D) + 16\text{BREV}(D) \leq (4d + 16) \max\{\text{SREV}^*, \text{BREV}\}.$$

□

4. Bounding SINGLE

In this section, we show that the better of selling items separately and selling the grand bundle gets an $O(d)$ approximation to SINGLE. Specifically, we prove the following:

PROPOSITION 1. $\text{SINGLE} \leq 4d\text{SREV}^* + 4\text{BREV}$.

4.1. Relating SINGLE to OPT^{copies}

We begin by relating SINGLE to OPT^{copies}:

OBSERVATION 3. $\text{SINGLE} \leq \text{OPT}^{\text{copies}}$.

Proof. First, observe that there is exactly one S for which $\mathbb{1}[v \in R_S] = 1$. So it is certainly the case that for all v (with $v(S) = \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T)$), we have:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{S \subseteq M} \max\{0, \bar{\varphi}_S(w(S))\} \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \in R_S] \leq \max_{S \subseteq M} \{0, \bar{\varphi}_S(w(S))\}. \\ \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\sum_{S \subseteq M} \max\{0, \bar{\varphi}_S(w(S))\} \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \in R_S] \right] & \leq \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \subseteq M} \{0, \bar{\varphi}_S(w(S))\} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Above, the LHS is exactly SINGLE, and the RHS is exactly OPT^{copies}. □

Note that if the buyer's valuation were additive, at this point we'd already be finished. We could simply set the prices guaranteed by Theorem 1 and be done. As we consider more complex buyer valuations, there are two barriers we must overcome. The first is due to substitutability: if we try to set prices on each subset separately, just because the buyer is *willing* to purchase set S doesn't mean he will *choose* to purchase set S , because he may purchase some substitutes instead. Note that this issue doesn't arise in absence of substitutes: if the buyer is willing to purchase S by itself, he is certainly willing to add S to any other set of purchased items. The second barrier is due to complementarity: even

once we decide the “correct” price to charge for set S , we can only set prices on *items* and not on *bundles*. Therefore, the prices we want to set for different bundles necessarily interfere with each other. This is the novel barrier unique to values with complementarity, and is also the only part of the analysis where the (necessary) factor of d arises.

4.2. Overcoming the Complements and Substitutes Barriers

The first step to overcoming the complements barrier is to find a subset of bundles for which we can still set the appropriate prices. As a warm-up, let’s see what the argument would look like assuming that there were only complements and no substitutes ($\mathcal{C} = 2^M$):

LEMMA 1. *Let $\mathcal{C} = 2^M$ and T_1, \dots, T_k be subsets of M such that $T_i \not\subseteq \cup_{j \neq i} T_j$ for all i . Then for all $\{p_T\}_{T \subseteq M}$, $SREV \geq \sum_i p_{T_i} \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_{T_i}}[x \geq p_{T_i}]$.*

Proof. Set price p_{T_i} on the item contained in T_i but not $\cup_{j \neq i} T_j$ (if there are multiple, select one arbitrarily). Then by hypothesis, the price the bidder would have to pay in order to receive the entire set T_i is exactly p_{T_i} . Because $\mathcal{C} = 2^M$, whenever $w(T_i) \geq p_{T_i}$, the buyer will choose to purchase the set T_i in addition to whatever else they choose to purchase. Therefore, the item contained in T_i but not $\cup_{j \neq i} T_j$ is purchased with probability at least $\Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_{T_i}}[x \geq p_{T_i}]$, and the revenue of this item pricing is at least $\sum_i p_{T_i} \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_{T_i}}[x \geq p_{T_i}]$. \square

The proof of Lemma 1 makes use of the assumption that $\mathcal{C} = 2^M$ in exactly one place: to argue that whenever $w(T_i) \geq p_{T_i}$, the buyer chooses to purchase the complete set T_i . When $\mathcal{C} \neq 2^M$, it may be the case that even though the buyer is willing to purchase set T_i , she chooses to purchase substitutes instead. We can remove this assumption on \mathcal{C} by restricting attention to certain price vectors.

LEMMA 2. *Let \mathcal{C} be any downwards closed set system and T_1, \dots, T_k be subsets of M such that $T_i \not\subseteq \cup_{j \neq i} T_j$ for all i . Then for all $\{p_T\}_{T \subseteq M}$ such that $p_T \geq 4BREV$ for all T , $SREV^* \geq \frac{1}{4} \sum_i p_{T_i} \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_{T_i}}[x \geq p_{T_i}]$.*

Proof. Set price $p_{T_i}/2$ on the item contained in T_i but not $\cup_{j \neq i} T_j$ (if there are multiple, again select one arbitrarily). The price the bidder would have to pay in order to receive the entire set T_i is exactly $p_{T_i}/2$. Suppose $w(T_i) \geq p_{T_i}$. Then, the buyer is not only willing

to purchase T_i , but also gets utility at least $p_{T_i}/2$ for doing so. The only reason she would choose not to purchase this set is if there were some other set S with $T_i \not\subseteq S$ and $v(S) \geq p_{T_i}/2 \geq 2\text{BREV}$. As $v(S) \leq v(M) - w(T_i)$ for all such S , in order for such a set to exist, it must be the case that $v(M) - w(T_i) \geq 2\text{BREV}$. Clearly, this occurs with probability at most $\frac{1}{2}$, as otherwise we could set price 2BREV on the grand bundle, sell with probability strictly larger than $\frac{1}{2}$ and make revenue strictly larger than BREV . Moreover, $v(M) - w(T_i) = \sum_{U \neq T_i} w(U)$ is completely independent of $w(T_i)$. Therefore, even conditioned on $w(T_i) \geq p_{T_i}$, the probability that the bidder is interested in some other set S with $T_i \not\subseteq S$ is at most $\frac{1}{2}$, and therefore the buyer indeed chooses to purchase T_i with probability at least $\Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_{T_i}] \cdot \frac{1}{2}$. \square

Finally, we can combine Lemma 2 with Theorem 1 to reduce our search to the problem of partitioning the hyperedges into collections $H_x = \{T_{x1}, \dots, T_{xk_x}\}$ such that $T_{xi} \not\subseteq \cup_{j \neq i} T_{xj}$ for all i .

COROLLARY 2. *Let \mathcal{C} be any downwards closed set system, and let $\{H_x\}_{x \in [k]}$ be a partition of the hyperedges $\{T : f_T(0) < 1\}$ such that for all x , and all $T \in H_x$, $T \not\subseteq \cup_{T' \in H_x \setminus \{T\}} T'$. Then $4k\text{SREV}^* + 4\text{BREV} \geq \text{SINGLE}$.*

Proof. Take $q = 1$ in Theorem 1 and let $\{p_T\}_{T \subseteq M}$ be the guaranteed (randomized) prices. By Theorem 1 condition 3, there exist two deterministic prices $p_T^H \geq p_T^L$ and probabilities q_T such that $p_T = p_T^H$ with probability q_T , and $p_T = p_T^L$ with probability $1 - q_T$. Therefore, Theorem 1 condition 1 can be rewritten as:

$$\text{OPT}^{\text{copies}} \leq \sum_{T \subseteq M} q_T p_T^H \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^H] + (1 - q_T) p_T^L \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^L]$$

We can further rewrite this by breaking up the two sums into prices that exceed 4BREV , and those that don't, let $\mathcal{B} = 4\text{BREV}$ for simplicity:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{OPT}^{\text{copies}} &\leq \sum_{T \subseteq M, p_T^H \leq \mathcal{B}} q_T p_T^H \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^H] + \sum_{T \subseteq M, p_T^L \leq \mathcal{B}} (1 - q_T) p_T^L \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^L] \\ &+ \sum_{T \subseteq M, p_T^H > \mathcal{B}} q_T p_T^H \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^H] + \sum_{T \subseteq M, p_T^L > \mathcal{B}} (1 - q_T) p_T^L \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^L] \end{aligned}$$

By condition 2 of Theorem 1, we have

$$\sum_{T \subseteq M} q_T \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^H] + (1 - q_T) \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T^L] \leq 1$$

Therefore, as all prices in the top sum above are at most \mathcal{B} , the entire top two terms sum to at most $\mathcal{B} = 4\text{BREV}$.

For the bottom two terms, there is no term for T if $p_T^H \leq \mathcal{B}$. If $p_T^H > \mathcal{B} \geq p_T^L$, define $p_T = p_T^H$. If $p_T^H > p_T^L > \mathcal{B}$, then set p_T to whichever of $\{p_T^H, p_T^L\}$ maximizes $p_T \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T]$. Then $\sum_{T \subseteq M, p_T^H > \mathcal{B}} p_T \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T]$ is at least as large as the bottom two terms above. Moreover, as all $p_T > \mathcal{B}$, we can apply Lemma 2 to conclude that for all T_1, \dots, T_k such that $T_i \not\subseteq \cup_{j \neq i} T_j$ for all i , $\text{SREV}^* \geq 1/4 \sum_i p_{T_i} \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_{T_i}} [x \geq p_{T_i}]$.

Finally, as $\{H_x\}_{x \in [k]}$ partitions the hyperedges so that for all x and $T \in H_x$, $T \not\subseteq \cup_{T' \in H_x \setminus \{T\}} T'$, we get:

$$\sum_{T \subseteq M, p_T^H > \mathcal{B}} p_T \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T] = \sum_{x=1}^k \sum_{T \in H_x, p_T^H > \mathcal{B}} p_T \cdot \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_T} [x \geq p_T] \leq 4k \cdot \text{SREV}^*$$

The last inequality is due to Lemma 2, and completes the proof. \square

So the last remaining task is to find a good partition of hyperedges, such that within each partition, every hyperedge contains at least one item not contained in the other hyperedges in the same partition. We isolate this contribution in Section 4.3 below.

4.3. Partitioning Hyperedges with Restricted Complements

Partition-Edges

Input: List of hyperedges, $E \subseteq 2^M$.

Output: A partition of E into $\{H_x\}_x$ such that for all x and all $T \in H_x$, $T \not\subseteq \cup_{T' \in H_x \setminus \{T\}} T'$.

1. $E_{\text{curr}} \leftarrow E$, $i \leftarrow 0$.
2. While $E_{\text{curr}} \neq \emptyset$:
 - (a) $i \leftarrow i + 1$
 - (b) $E_i \leftarrow E_{\text{curr}}$.
 - (c) For each $T \in E_i$ (in arbitrary order): If $T \subseteq \cup_{S \in E_i \setminus \{T\}} S$ Then $E_i \leftarrow E_i \setminus \{T\}$.
 - (d) $E_{\text{curr}} \leftarrow E_{\text{curr}} \setminus E_i$.
3. Return the partition $\{E_j\}_{j \in [i]}$.

Figure 1 An edge partitioning process.

We provide a high-level description of our algorithm here, and give pseudocode in Figure 1. Recall that the algorithm takes as input a set of hyperedges, and returns a partition of the hyperedges $\{H_x\}_x$, so that in each partition H_x , every hyperedge $S \in H_x$ contains an item that is not in any other hyperedge $T \in H_x$. The algorithm iteratively constructs each H_x , and initially initializes H_x to contain all remaining hyperedges. Then, it iteratively eliminates all “bad” hyperedges (those that *don't* contain an item absent from the others) until the remaining hyperedges have the desired property. In the proof of Theorem 4 below, it is easy to show that the algorithm outputs a feasible partition, and the trick is guaranteeing that each iteration makes sufficient progress towards finalizing the partition.

THEOREM 4. *For any set of hyperedges $E \subseteq 2^M$, Algorithm 1 returns a partition of $E = \{H_x\}_{x \in [k]}$ such that:*

1. *For all x , and all $T \in H_x$, $T \not\subseteq \cup_{T' \in H_x \setminus \{T\}} T'$.*
2. $k \leq \max_i \{|\{T \in E : i \in T\}|\}$.

Proof. First, it is clear that the algorithm indeed properly outputs a partition of E : observe that due to line 2d, when a hyperedge is permanently assigned to some E_i , it will not be assigned to any $E_{i'}$, which implies that all the E_i 's are disjoint. Also, every hyperedge is either permanently assigned to some E_i , or remains in E_{curr} , which, by line 2 implies that the algorithm terminates only when every hyperedge is permanently assigned to some E_i . So every hyperedge is contained in some partition, and the partitions are disjoint.

That the output partition satisfies Property (1) is easy to verify: For any x , $T \in H_x$ only the check in 2c passes for T and (the present) H_x . Once the check passes, some other edges will be removed from H_x before the output. Clearly, removing edge from H_x cannot cause T to all of a sudden be contained in $\cup_{T' \in H_x \setminus \{T\}} T'$ when it was previously not contained. So Property (1) is satisfied.

To prove Property (2), first denote by E_{curr}^i the state of E_{curr} at the start of iteration i . We will show that $\cup_{T \in E_i} T = \cup_{T \in E_{\text{curr}}^i} T$. In other words, every element contained in some hyperedge in E_{curr}^i is still contained in some hyperedge in E_i . To see this, observe that when E_i is first set to E_{curr}^i , we clearly have $\cup_{T \in E_i} T = \cup_{T \in E_{\text{curr}}^i} T$. The only time hyperedges are removed from E_i is in step 2c. Note that in order for a hyperedge to be removed from

E_i , it must be the case that $T \subseteq \cup_{T' \in E_i \setminus \{T\}} T'$. In other words, in order to remove T from E_i , it must be that all the elements contained in T are also contained in $\cup_{T' \in E_i \setminus \{T\}} T'$. Therefore, removing T does not change $\cup_{T' \in E_i} T'$, and when we terminate, we maintain $\cup_{T \in E_i} T = \cup_{T \in E_{\text{curr}}^i} T$.

To see why this implies Property (2), note that the above implies that if for any i , $|\{T \in E, i \in T\}| = d$, then i will be contained in at least one hyperedge in all of E_1, \dots, E_d , and therefore no hyperedges containing i remain in E_{curr}^{d+1} . In particular, for $d = \max_i \{|\{T \in E, i \in T\}|\}$, it's the case that for all i , no hyperedges containing i remain in E_{curr}^{d+1} , and therefore the algorithm terminates with at most d partitions. \square

We can now combine everything to provide a proof of Proposition 1:

Proof. [Proof of Proposition 1] Combining Theorem 4 with Corollary 2, we get that whenever D has complementarity d , that $4d\text{SREV}^* + 4\text{BREV} \geq \text{SINGLE}$, completing the proof. \square

5. Bounding NON-FAVORITE

In this section, we bound NON-FAVORITE using similar ideas to those developed in (Cai et al. 2016). Much of the process will look familiar to experts familiar with (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015, Cai et al. 2016), but there are a couple of new ideas sprinkled in. We begin by breaking NON-FAVORITE into CORE + TAIL, as is by now standard (t will be chosen later).

LEMMA 3. *NON-FAVORITE is upper bounded by the following:*

$$\mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) \leq t] \right\} \right] + \quad (\text{CORE})$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\sum_{S: w(S) > t} w(S) \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_S] \right] \quad (\text{TAIL})$$

Proof. The proof follows from the following algebra:

$$(\text{NON-FAVORITE}) = \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_T] \right\} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) \leq t] \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_T] + w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) > t] \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_T] \right\} \right] \\
 &\leq \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) \leq t] \right\} \right] \\
 &\quad + \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) > t] \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_T] \right\} \right] \\
 &\leq \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) \leq t] \right\} \right] \\
 &\quad + \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\sum_{T | w(T) > t} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_T] \right].
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Bounding CORE. Our main approach to bound CORE is to apply the same concentration bound of Schechtman (Schechtman 2003) used in (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015). Essentially, we just have to show that our valuation functions are “subadditive over independent items,” for the appropriate definition of “items” (which happens to be hyperedges). It’s perhaps not obvious that our valuation functions are subadditive over independent “items,” but indeed they are.

Let us first recall the definition of subadditive over independent items. In the definition below, we intentionally write N instead of M to denote the set of items, as the “items” in the definition may be different than the items for sale.

DEFINITION 1. A distribution D over valuation functions $v : 2^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is *subadditive over independent items* if the following conditions hold:

1. *No externalities and independence across items:* For every item i , let Ω_i be a compact subset of a normed space (i.e., $\Omega_i = [0, 1]$). There exists a product distribution D' over $\times_{i \in N} \Omega_i$ (that is, $D' = \prod_{i \in N} D'_i$), and a collection of deterministic functions $V_S : \times_{i \in S} \Omega_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that a sample v from D can be drawn by sampling $\vec{x} \leftarrow D'$, and defining $v(S) = V_S(\vec{x}_S)$.

2. *Monotonicity:* Every v in the support of D is monotone, i.e., $v(\mathcal{S}) \leq v(\mathcal{S}')$ for every $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{S}'$.

3. *Subadditivity:* Every v in the support of D is subadditive, i.e., $v(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{S}') \leq v(\mathcal{S}) + v(\mathcal{S}')$, for all $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{S}'$.

DEFINITION 2. Let D denote a distribution over valuation functions, D' denote the product distribution, and $\{V_S(\cdot)\}$ be the deterministic functions that witness D as subadditive over independent items. D is c -Lipschitz if for all \vec{x}, \vec{y} , and sets of items S, T , we have:

$$|V_S(\vec{x}_S) - V_T(\vec{y}_T)| \leq c \cdot (|X \cup Y| - |X \cap Y| + |\{i \in X \cap Y : x_i \neq y_i\}|)$$

We use the following lemma and corollary (of a concentration inequality due to Schechtman (Schechtman 2003)) from (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015) (the bound in Corollary 3 is slightly improved from (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015), so we include a proof):

LEMMA 4. (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015) *Let D be a distribution that is subadditive over independent hyperedges, where for each hyperedge T , $v(\{T\}) \in [0, c]$ with probability 1. Then D is c -Lipschitz.*

COROLLARY 3. (Rubinstein and Weinberg 2015) *Suppose that D is a distribution that is subadditive over independent hyperedges and c -Lipschitz. If a is the median of $v(N)$, then $\mathbb{E}[v(N)] \leq 3a + c \cdot (2 + 1/\ln 2)$.*

Proof. By corollary 12 in (Schechtman 2003), we know that for all $k > 0$:

$$\Pr[v(N) \geq 3 \cdot a + k \cdot c] \leq \min\{1, 4 \cdot 2^{-k}\}. \quad (1)$$

Substituting $x = 3 \cdot a + k \cdot c$ gets $k = (x - 3a)/c$. Therefore, equation (1) becomes meaningful only when $4 \cdot 2^{-k} \leq 1$, i.e., when $x \geq 2c + 3a$. Computing the expected value of $v(N)$ gives:

$$\int_0^\infty \Pr[v(N) > x] dx \leq \int_0^\infty \min\{1, 4 \cdot 2^{(3a-x)/c}\} dx = 2c + 3a + 4 \cdot 2^{3a/c} \cdot \int_{2c+3a}^\infty 2^{-x/c} \cdot dx.$$

Computing the integral gives: $-\frac{c}{\ln 2} [2^{-x/c}]_{2c+3a}^\infty = \frac{c}{\ln 2} \cdot 2^{-\frac{2c+3a}{c}} = \frac{c}{4\ln 2} \cdot 2^{-3a/c}$, which, plugged back to the equation concludes that

$$\mathbb{E}[v(N)] \leq 2c + 3a + \frac{c}{\ln 2},$$

as desired. \square

Finally, we just need to relate CORE to a random variable that is subadditive over independent items.

LEMMA 5. *CORE* is the expectation of a random variable $v_{\text{CORE}}(N)$, where $v_{\text{CORE}}(\cdot)$ is t -Lipschitz and subadditive over independent items $N = 2^M$. Moreover, $v_{\text{CORE}}(N)$ is stochastically dominated by $v(M)$.

Proof. Let the “items” $N = 2^M$. Let the distributions $\hat{D}_T = D'_T \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) \leq t]$ (that is, a random variable drawn from \hat{D}_T can be coupled with the random variable $w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) \leq t]$). Define constraints $\mathcal{C}' \subseteq 2^N (= 2^{2^M})$ so that a subset U of 2^M is in \mathcal{C}' if and only if there exists a set $C \in \mathcal{C}$ with $\cup_{T \in U} T \subseteq C$. In other words, $U \in \mathcal{C}'$ if and only if the union of elements of U is contained in some set in \mathcal{C} . Finally, define $V_U(\vec{x}_U) = \max_{U' \subseteq U, U' \in \mathcal{C}'} \{\sum_{T \in U'} x_T\}$.

It is easy to see that $v_{\text{CORE}}(\cdot)$ has no externalities and independent items. It is also easy to see that $v_{\text{CORE}}(\cdot)$ is monotone. Finally, we'll prove that $v_{\text{CORE}}(\cdot)$ is subadditive by observing that \mathcal{C}' is downward-closed. To see this, simply observe that if $U' \subseteq U$, and $\cup_{T \in U} T \subseteq C$, then clearly $\cup_{T \in U'} T \subseteq C$. So if $C \in \mathcal{C}$ witnesses that $U \in \mathcal{C}'$ and $U' \subseteq U$, then C also witnesses that $U' \in \mathcal{C}'$.

Now that \mathcal{C}' is downward closed, it is easy to see (and well-known) that v_{CORE} is subadditive: For any U, W , let $X = \arg \max_{X' \subseteq U \cup W, X' \in \mathcal{C}'} \{\sum_{T \in X'} x_T\}$. Then, let $U' = X \cap U$, and $W' = X \cap W$. Clearly, $\sum_{T \in X} x_T \leq \sum_{T \in U'} x_T + \sum_{T \in W'} x_T$. As \mathcal{C}' is downward closed, $U' \in \mathcal{C}'$ and $W' \in \mathcal{C}'$. Therefore, $v_{\text{CORE}}(W) + v_{\text{CORE}}(U) \geq \sum_{T \in U'} x_T + \sum_{T \in W'} x_T \geq \sum_{T \in X} x_T = v_{\text{CORE}}(U \cup W)$, and $v_{\text{CORE}}(\cdot)$ is subadditive.

So finally, it remains to show that $v_{\text{CORE}}(N)$ is stochastically dominated by $v(M)$. Couple the random variable x_T drawn from \hat{D}_T so that $x_T = w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) \leq t]$. Now consider $U^* = \arg \max_{U \subseteq 2^M, U \in \mathcal{C}'} \{\sum_{T \in U} x_T\}$. Then we have $v_{\text{CORE}}(N) = \sum_{T \in U^*} x_T$. By definition of \mathcal{C}' , there exists some $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $T \subseteq C$ for all $T \in U^*$. Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{\text{CORE}}(N) &= \sum_{T \in U^*} x_T \leq \sum_{T \subseteq C} x_T \\ &\leq \sum_{T \subseteq C} w(T) && \text{(because } x_T \leq w(T)\text{)} \\ &\leq \max_{S \subseteq M, S \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T) \right\} && \text{(because } C \in \mathcal{C}\text{)} \\ &= v(M). \end{aligned}$$

So when x_T and $w(T)$ are coupled in this way, we have $v_{\text{CORE}}(N) \leq v(M)$, and therefore $v(M)$ stochastically dominates $v_{\text{CORE}}(N)$. \square

Now, Lemma 5 combined with Corollary 3 states that $3 \cdot v(M)$ exceeds $\text{CORE} - t \cdot (2 + 1/\ln 2)$ with probability at least $1/2$, allowing us to conclude with the following proposition:

PROPOSITION 2. $\text{CORE} \leq 6\text{BREV} + t \cdot (2 + 1/\ln 2)$.

Proof. Let a be the median of the random variable $v_{\text{CORE}}(N)$. Then $\Pr[v_{\text{CORE}}(N) \geq a] = 1/2$. As $v(M)$ stochastically dominates $v_{\text{CORE}}(N)$, we have $\Pr[v(M) \geq a] \geq 1/2$. Moreover, by Corollary 3, the fact that $\text{CORE} = \mathbb{E}[v_{\text{CORE}}(N)]$, and that v_{CORE} is t -lipschitz and subadditive over independent items, we have:

$$\text{CORE} \leq 3a + t(2 + 1/\ln 2).$$

Moreover, as $\Pr[v(M) \geq a] \geq 1/2$, we have:

$$\text{BREV} \geq a/2.$$

Combining the two above equations proves the proposition. \square

Bounding TAIL. Our approach to bound TAIL is again similar to (Cai et al. 2016). We begin by rewriting TAIL using linearity of expectation and the fact that the hypergraph representation w of valuation v is drawn from D' which is a product distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{TAIL} &= \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\sum_{T \subseteq M, w(T) > t} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[v \notin R_T] \right] = \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\sum_{T \subseteq M, w(T) > t} w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[\exists T', w(T') > w(T)] \right] \\ &= \sum_{T \subseteq M} \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} [w(T) \cdot \mathbb{1}[w(T) > t \wedge v \notin R_T]] && \text{(by linearity of expectation)} \\ &= \sum_{T \subseteq M} \sum_{x > t, f_T(x) > 0} x \cdot f_T(x) \cdot \Pr_{D_{-T}} [\exists T', w(T') > x] && \text{(by independence across hyperedges)} \end{aligned}$$

From here, we use essentially the same lemma from (Cai et al. 2016). We have replaced their SREV with BREV, but the proof is identical.

LEMMA 6. (Cai et al. 2016) For all x, T , $x \cdot \Pr_{w \leftarrow D'_{-T}} [\exists T', w(T') > x] \leq \text{BREV}$.

Proof. For any x , we can set price x on the grand bundle. It will sell with probability at least $\Pr_{w \leftarrow D'_{-T}} [\exists T', w(T') > x]$, as whenever there is a single hyperedge with contribution x , certainly the buyer's value for the grand bundle is at least x . Therefore, $\text{BREV} \geq x \cdot \Pr_{w \leftarrow D'_{-T}} [\exists T', w(T') > x]$. \square

PROPOSITION 3. $TAIL \leq (\sum_{T \subseteq M} \Pr[w(T) > t]) \cdot BREV$.

Proof. By Lemma 6, We get:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{T \subseteq M} \sum_{x > t, f_T(x) > 0} x \cdot f_T(x) \cdot \Pr_{w \leftarrow D'_{-T}} [\exists T', w(T') > x] &\leq \\ \sum_{T \subseteq M} \sum_{x > t, f_T(x) > 0} f_T(x) \cdot BREV &= \\ \sum_{T \subseteq M} \Pr[w(T) > t] \cdot BREV. & \end{aligned}$$

□

Setting the Cutoff. Finally, we just need an appropriate choice of t . We'll choose to set t such that $\sum_{T \subseteq M} \Pr[w(T) > t] = k$ for the appropriate choice of k . We first show how to relate t to BREV. Lemma 7 below is well-known, but we provide a proof for completeness.

LEMMA 7. *Let E_1, \dots, E_k be independent events such that $\sum_i \Pr[E_i] = k$. Then, $\Pr[\cup_i E_i] \geq 1 - e^{-k}$.*

Proof. By independence:

$$\Pr[\cup_i E_i] = 1 - \prod_i (1 - \Pr[E_i]).$$

So if we define $q_i = \Pr[E_i]$, we want to maximize $\prod_i (1 - q_i)$ subject to $\sum_i q_i = k$. Using a Lagrangian multiplier of λ on the constraint $\sum_i q_i = k$, we get a new objective of:

$$\prod_i (1 - q_i) + \lambda \cdot (\sum_i q_i) - \lambda k.$$

We see that the partial with respect to q_i of the above is exactly $-\prod_{j \neq i} (1 - q_j) + \lambda$. So setting $q_i = k/n$ for all i , and $\lambda = (1 - k/n)^{n-1}$, we get that $\sum_i q_i = k$ and the partial of the Lagrangian with respect to q_i is 0 for all i . Therefore, this is the optimal solution. At $q_i = k/n$ for all i , we have $\prod_i (1 - k/n) = (1 - k/n)^n \leq e^{-k}$. □

COROLLARY 4. *If t is such that $\sum_{T \subseteq M} \Pr[w(T) > t] = k$, then $BREV \geq (1 - e^{-k})t$.*

Proof. Apply Lemma 7 to the events $E_T = \{w(T) > t\}$. Then the probability that there exists some hyperedge T with $w(T) > t$ is at least $(1 - e^{-k})$. So the grand bundle will sell at price t with probability at least $(1 - e^{-k})$. □

We can now complete our bound for NON-FAVORITE, and the proof of Theorem 2.

PROPOSITION 4. $NON\text{-}FAVORITE \leq 12BREV$.

Proof. Combine Propositions 2 and 3 taking t such that $\sum_T \Pr[w(T) > t] = 1.66$. \square

6. Lower bounds

The following proposition shows that the factor d approximation (established in Theorem 2) is tight (up to a constant factor), even when there are no substitutes ($\mathcal{C} = 2^M$), and $d = m^{O(1)}$. The same proposition shows that our d approximation is tight up to a logarithmic factor for all d . The construction below is based on a construction from Hart and Nisan (2017) used to show that BREV may be a factor of m smaller than SREV for additive buyers, which has also inspired similar constructions (e.g., Dughmi et al. (2014)).

PROPOSITION 5. *For all $k \geq 1$, there exists a distribution D with complementarity $d \leq \binom{m}{k}$, for which*

$$REV \geq \frac{d}{2k} \max\{BREV, SREV\}.$$

Proof. Consider an integer a , and a set of hyperedges E . Index the hyperedges with integers in increasing order of size with $\{1 + a, 2 + a, \dots, |E| + a\}$ (we abuse notation and use e both for index and hyperedge, i.e., set of items). The product distribution D' has $f_e(0) = 1$ for all $e \notin E$, and for every $e \in E$, set $f_e(0) = 1 - 2^{-e}$, and $f_e(2^e) = 2^{-e}$. Let D be the distribution that samples $w \leftarrow D'$ and returns $v(S) = \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T)$. We show that $REV(D) \geq |E| \cdot (1 - 2^{-a})$, but $SREV(D) \leq 2m$ and $BREV(D) \leq 2$.

First, consider the random variable $v(M)$. We have $v(M) \leq \sum_{e=1+a}^{|E|+a} w(e)$. For any price p , in order to have $v(M) \geq p$, we must have $w(e) > 0$ for some $e \geq \log p$, as $\sum_{e=1+a}^{\log p - 1} 2^e = p - 2^{a+1} < p$. Note that there is no reason to price below 2^{1+a} . But also, by union bound, the probability that this occurs is at most $\sum_{e \geq \log p} 2^{-e} \leq 2^{1-\log p} \leq 2/p$. So for any price p we could set on the grand bundle, it sells with probability at most $2/p$, so $BREV \leq 2$.

Similarly, for any price p_i , in order for the buyer to possibly be willing to purchase item i , we must have $\sum_{e \ni i} w(e) \geq p_i$. Again, in order for this to happen, we must have $w(e) > 0$ for some $e \geq \log p_i$, $e \ni i$. And again by union bound, the probability that this occurs is at most $2/p_i$. So for any price p_i we could set on item i , the probability that the buyer is possibly willing to purchase item i is at most $2/p_i$, so $SREV \leq 2m$.

Consider however the following mechanism, which essentially sells the hyperedges in E separately. The mechanism allows the buyer to purchase any set/hyperedge S she chooses, and charges price 2^S . Note that because we indexed the hyperedges in increasing order of size, the cheapest set that contains S is in fact S itself. By union bound ($\sum_{e=1+a}^{n+a} 2^{-e} = 2^{-a} - 2^{-n-a}$ therefore its complement is at least $1 - 2^{-a}$), the probability that $v \equiv 0$ is at least $1 - 2^{-a}$. Therefore, whenever $w(e) > 0$, with probability at least $1 - 2^{-a}$, the buyer will choose to purchase exactly the set e and pay 2^e . So the revenue is at least $\sum_{e=1+a}^{|E|+a} 2^{-e} \cdot 2^e \cdot (1 - 2^{-a}) = |E| \cdot (1 - 2^{-a})$.

Finally, consider a d regular hypergraph (M, E) over m nodes with hyperedges of size k (this necessitates $d \leq \binom{m}{k}$). By definition, every node is contained in exactly d edges. Therefore, if E is the set of hyperedges used to construct D , then D has complementarity d , and $|E| = dm/k$. Taking $a \rightarrow \infty$ completes the proof.

□

Furthermore, we argue that this parameter correctly characterizes the degree of complementarity in our setting. Specifically, in Proposition 6, we establish extremely high lower bounds (as a function of the complementarity degree) on the approximation ratio that can be obtained by $\max\{BREV, SREV\}$ for previous measures of complementarity from the literature.

A valuation is positive hypergraph of degree at most k (PH- k) (Abraham et al. 2012) if its hypergraph representation w has only non-negative hyperedges, and only positive hyperedges S of size at most k . A valuation is positive supermodular of degree k (PS- k) if in its hypergraph representation every item shares a positive hyperedge with at most k other items (and all hyperedges are non-negative). The following proposition asserts the lower bounds for the aforementioned hierarchies.

PROPOSITION 6. *The following hold for distributions in our settings, where hyperedge values $w(T)$ are independently drawn, and $v(S) = \sum_{T \subseteq S} w(T)$.*

1. *There exists a distribution D with only PH- k valuations in the support, for which $REV \geq \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} \binom{m}{i} \max\{BREV, SREV\}$. E.g., for PH-2, $REV \geq \Omega(m) \cdot \max\{BREV, SREV\}$.*

2. There exists a distribution D with only PS- k valuations in the support, for which $REV \geq \frac{2^{k+1}-1}{2(k+1)} \max\{BREV, SREV\}$.

Proof. To show 6.1, consider the distribution D given in the proof of Proposition 5, with E being the set of all hyperedges of size at most k . To show 6.2, assume for simplicity that m is divisible by $k+1$. Partition M to $m/(k+1)$ sets $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_{m/(k+1)}$, all of size $k+1$, and let E be the set of all hyperedges $S \subseteq M_i$ for all i . Every item i in M_j has neighbors only from M_j , therefore every valuation in the support is from PS- k . The number of hyperedges is $\frac{m}{k+1} \cdot (2^{k+1} - 1)$. \square

Proposition 6 also (trivially) holds for generalized hierarchies. A valuation v is maximum over PH (MPH) of degree at most k (Feige et al. 2015) if there exists a collection L of such hyperedge weight functions, so that $v(S) = \max_{\ell \in L} \{\sum_{T \subseteq S} w_\ell(T)\}$. A valuation v is maximum over PS (MPS) of degree at most k (Feldman et al. 2016) if there exists a collection L of such hyperedge weight functions, so that $v(S) = \max_{\ell \in L} \{\sum_{T \subseteq S} w_\ell(T)\}$. Since every PH- k (resp. PS- k) valuation is also trivially in MPH- k (resp. MPS- k), Proposition 6.1 (resp. Proposition 6.2) also holds for such MPH- k (resp. MPS- k valuations). In addition, consider the supermodular degree (SM) (Feige and Izsak 2013), which is defined as follows:

DEFINITION 3. (Feige and Izsak 2013) (SM) A valuation v is supermodular (SM) of degree at most k if for each item i , the number of items i' such that there exists a set $S_{i'} \not\ni i$ so that $v(S_{i'} \cup i) - v(S_{i'}) > v(S_{i'} \setminus \{i'\} \cup \{i\}) - v(S_{i'} \setminus \{i'\})$ is at most k , i.e., i 's marginal contribution to a set may *increase* by adding another item, to at most k different items.

It can be shown that PS- $k \subseteq$ SM- k . Therefore, Proposition 6.1 carries over to SM- k .

Appendix

A. Background on the Duality Framework

We first recall the duality approach of (Cai et al. 2016):

DEFINITION 4. [Reworded from (Cai et al. 2016), Definitions 2 and 3] A mapping $\lambda : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is *flow-conserving* if for all $v \in V$: $\sum_{v' \in V} \lambda(v, v') \leq f(v) + \sum_{v' \in V} \lambda(v', v)$.²

²This is equivalent to stating that there exists a $\lambda(v, \perp) \geq 0$ such that $\lambda(v, \perp) + \sum_{v' \in V} \lambda(v, v') = f(v) + \sum_{v' \in V} \lambda(v', v)$, which might look more similar to the wording of Definition 2 in (Cai et al. 2016).

The *virtual transformation* associated with λ, Φ^λ , is a transformation from valuation functions in V to valuation functions in V^\times (the closure of V under linear combinations) and satisfies:³

$$\Phi^\lambda(v)(\cdot) = v(\cdot) - \frac{1}{f(v)} \sum_{v' \in V} \lambda(v', v)(v'(\cdot) - v(\cdot)).$$

In the above definition, one should interpret $\lambda(\cdot, \cdot)$ as being potential Lagrangian multipliers for incentive constraints in a certain LP to find the revenue-optimal mechanism, and think of $f(v)$ flow going into each v from some super source, $\lambda(v, v')$ flow going from v to v' , and all excess flow (that enters v but doesn't leave) as going from v to a super sink. Note that whether or not a given λ is flow-conserving depends on the population D . Cai et al. show that Lagrangian multipliers that satisfy the above flow conservation constraint yield upper bounds of the following form.

THEOREM 5. *[Reworded from (Cai et al. 2016), Theorem 10] Let \mathcal{M} be any truthful mechanism where a bidder with type v receives items $X(v)$ and pays $p(v)$. Then for all flow-conserving λ , the expected revenue of \mathcal{M} is upper bounded by its expected virtual welfare with respect to λ . That is:*

$$\mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} [p(v)] \leq \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} [\Phi^\lambda(v)(X(v))].$$

As an immediate corollary, we can obtain the following upper bound on the revenue of any truthful mechanism by observing that the bound in Theorem 5 is maximized when $X(v)$ is deterministically $\arg \max_{S \subseteq M} \{\Phi^\lambda(v)(S)\}$.

COROLLARY 5. *For all D , and all flow-conserving λ , we have:*

$$REV(D) \leq \mathbb{E}_{v \leftarrow D} \left[\max_{S \subseteq 2^M} \Phi^\lambda(v)(S) \right].$$

³That is, $\Phi^\lambda(v)$ is a (possibly negative) function from 2^M to \mathbb{R} , and satisfies $\Phi^\lambda(v)(S) = v(S) - \frac{1}{f(v)} \sum_{v' \in V} \lambda(v', v)(v'(S) - v(S))$. for all $S \subseteq M$.

We begin this section by defining our flow-conserving λ and the resulting Φ^λ . Readers familiar with (Cai et al. 2016) will recognize it as the natural generalization of their flow to our setting, and we will make the language as similar as possible.

We will break V into $2^m - 1$ different regions, depending on which hyperedge is the most valuable to a buyer with value v . Specifically, we say that v is in region R_A if $A = \arg \max_{T \subseteq M} \{w(T)\}$, with ties broken lexicographically. Recall that D is established by drawing w from the product distribution D' and the returned valuation v satisfies $v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T} w(U)\}$. Then consider the following flow:

DEFINITION 5 (FLOW FOR OUR BENCHMARK). If $v \in R_A$, define $w'(T) = w(T)$, for all $T \neq A$, and define $w'(A) = \min_{x > w(A)} \{x : f_A(x) > 0\}$. Set $\lambda(v', v) = \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A} [x \geq w'(A)] \cdot \prod_{T \neq A} f_T(w'(T)) = f(v) \cdot \frac{\Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A} [x \geq w'(A)]}{f_A(w(A))}$ for the $v'(\cdot)$ such that $v'(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T} w'(U)\}$ for all S , and $\lambda(v'', v) = 0$ for all other v'' .

PROPOSITION 7. *The $\lambda(\cdot, \cdot)$ from Definition 5 is flow-conserving. Moreover, if $v(\cdot)$ is such that $v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T} w(U)\}$, and $v \in R_A$, then Φ^λ satisfies the following:*

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi^\lambda(v)(S) &\leq \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{U \subseteq T, U \neq A} w(U) \right\} + \max\{0, \varphi_A(w(A))\} \\ &\leq \max_{T \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{U \subseteq T, U \neq A} w(U) \right\} + \max\{0, \varphi_A(w(A))\}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. That $\lambda(\cdot, \cdot)$ is flow-conserving is clear: Every $v \in R_A$ has total incoming flow of

$$f(v) \cdot \frac{\Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A} [x \geq w(A)]}{f_A(w(A))}, \quad (\text{A1})$$

where $f(v)$ of this comes from the source, and the remaining $f(v) \cdot \frac{\Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A} [x > w(A)]}{f_A(w(A))}$ comes from other types in R_A . Every $v \in R_A$ also has outgoing flow either equal to 0 (if decreasing the value of $w(A)$ moves the resulting v' out of R_A), or exactly (A1) (otherwise). In either case, the flow going out is at most the flow coming in.

Let us now compute $\Phi^\lambda(v)(S)$. Plugging into Definition 4, we get:

$$\Phi^\lambda(v)(S) = v(S) - \frac{(v'(S) - v(S)) \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A} [x \geq w(A)]}{f_A(w(A))}.$$

Recall that $v'(S) \geq v(S)$ for all S , and therefore $\Phi^\lambda(v)(S) \leq v(S)$ for all S . Now there are two cases to consider: In the first case, maybe $\max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T, U \neq A} w(U)\} = v(S)$. In other words, the set in \mathcal{C} “chosen” by a consumer with valuation v doesn’t contain A . In this case, we immediately get that $\Phi^\lambda(v)(S) \leq v(S) = \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T, U \neq A} w(U)\}$, as desired.

In the second case, maybe $\max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \{\sum_{U \subseteq T, U \neq A} w(U)\} < v(S)$. In other words, the set in \mathcal{C} “chosen” by a consumer with valuation v contains A . In this case, increasing $w(A)$ by any $x > 0$ increases $v(S)$ by exactly x . Therefore, we have $v'(S) = v(S) + w'(A) - w(A)$, and therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi^\lambda(v)(S) &= v(S) - \frac{(w'(A) - w(A)) \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A}[x \geq w(A)]}{f_A(w(A))} \\ &= \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{U \subseteq T} w(U) \right\} - \frac{(w'(A) - w(A)) \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A}[x \geq w(A)]}{f_A(w(A))} \\ &\leq \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{U \subseteq T, U \neq A} w(U) \right\} + w(A) - \frac{(w'(A) - w(A)) \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A}[x \geq w(A)]}{f_A(w(A))} \\ &= \max_{T \subseteq S, T \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \sum_{U \subseteq T, U \neq A} w(U) \right\} + \varphi_A(w(A)). \end{aligned}$$

The last line uses the definition $\varphi_A(w(A)) = w(A) - \frac{(w'(A) - w(A)) \Pr_{x \leftarrow D'_A}[x \geq w(A)]}{f_A(w(A))}$, which may seem unfamiliar to readers more familiar with virtual values for continuous distributions. Indeed, this is the right generalization of Myerson’s $\varphi(\cdot)$ for continuous distributions to the discrete setting, and we refer the interested reader to Section 4 of (Cai et al. 2016) for more discussion. \square

Ironing. The astute reader will notice that when D'_S is irregular, the bound we probably want above would replace $\varphi_A(\cdot)$ with $\bar{\varphi}_A(\cdot)$. (Cai et al. 2016) shows how to design a flow that accomplishes this essentially by adding cycles to λ between adjacent types to “iron out” any non-monotonicities, but for their setting of additive buyers. The exact same approach will work here. We omit a proof and refer the reader to (Cai et al. 2016) for more detail. This allows us to prove Corollary 1.

Proof. [Proof of Corollary 1] Simply combine Corollary 5 and Proposition 7, after replacing $\varphi(\cdot)$ in Proposition 7 with $\bar{\varphi}(\cdot)$. \square

B. Background on the Copies Environment

Recall that a random variable X is first-order stochastically dominated (FOSD) by random variable Y if for every x , $\Pr[X \geq x] \leq \Pr[Y \geq x]$. We remark that if X is FOSD by Y then $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq \mathbb{E}[Y]$.

Proof. [Proof of Theorem 1 (Chawla et al. 2010)] Let $\mathbb{1}_q$ be an independent indicator random variable that equals 1 with probability q . Let $\{X_S\}_S$ be non-negative independent random variables that are drawn from the independent distributions.

Consider a tie breaking rule among the sets, and let the event $X_S = \max_T\{X_T\}$ be true only when S also wins in the tie breaking rule. Set $q_S = \Pr[X_S = \max_T\{X_T\}]$. So $\sum_S q_S = 1$. set t_S s.t. $\Pr[X_S \geq t_S] = q \cdot q_S$.

Let us see that the random variable $\mathbb{1}_q \cdot X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S = \max\{X_T\}]$ is FOSD by $X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S \geq t_S]$.

For every $x \geq t_S$, it holds that $\Pr[\mathbb{1}_q \cdot X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S = \max\{X_T\}] \geq x] \leq q \Pr[X_S \geq x]$, while $\Pr[X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S \geq t_S] \geq x] = \Pr[X_S \geq x]$.

For every $x < t_S$, it holds that $\Pr[\mathbb{1}_q \cdot X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S = \max\{X_T\}] \geq x] \leq q \cdot q_S$ by definition of q_S , while $\Pr[X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S \geq t_S] \geq x] = \Pr[X_S \geq t_S] = q \cdot q_S$ by definition of t_S . We get that:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}\left[\max_S\{X_S\}\right] &= \sum_S \mathbb{E}[X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S = \max\{X_T\}]] \\ &= \frac{1}{q} \sum_S \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_q \cdot X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S = \max\{X_T\}]] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{q} \sum_S \mathbb{E}[X_S \cdot \mathbb{1}[X_S \geq t_S]]. \end{aligned}$$

Let X_S be the random variable that first draws $x \leftarrow D'_S$ and returns $\max\{0, \varphi_S(x)\}$. Assume the distributions are regular, and refer to (Chawla et al. 2010) for the irregular case. As $t_S \geq 0$ we get:

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow D'_S} \left[\max_S \{\varphi_S(x), 0\} \right] \leq \sum_S \mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow D'_S} [\varphi_S(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}[\varphi_S(x) \geq t_S]].$$

Observe that the above term for each S is the expected virtual value of the mechanism that allocates to a bidder with value x if x exceeds $p_S = \inf\{x : \varphi_S(x) = t_S\}$. This allocation is achieved by posting a price p_S . By Myerson's payment identity:

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow D'_S} [\varphi_S(x) \cdot \mathbb{1}[\varphi_S(x) \geq t'_S]] = \mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow D'_S} [p_S \cdot \Pr[x \geq p_S]].$$

This concludes property 1. Property 2 follows by monotonicity of φ_S (regularity of D'_S , for the irregular case refer to (Chawla et al. 2010)):

$$\sum_S \Pr_{D'_S} [x \geq p_S] = \sum_S \Pr_{D'_S} [\varphi_S(x) \geq t_S] = \sum_S q \cdot q_S = q.$$

□

C. Revenue guarantees for pricing bundles requires a different approach.

Following our results, one natural question that may be raised is, instead of either pricing items or only the grand bundle, is there a “simple” (or at least, deterministic) scheme for pricing subsets of items that gets a constant fraction of the optimal revenue? In this section we briefly establish that a significantly new approach would be required to resolve this question. Specifically, we provide an example in which the optimal revenue from pricing subsets is a constant, but in this example our upper bound to the optimal revenue is $O(m)$, therefore revenue from pricing subsets cannot cover our upper bound up to a constant factor (and we would need a new upper bound to use as a starting point). This leaves the following open questions: is there indeed an $O(m)$ gap between the optimal revenue from pricing subsets and the optimal revenue, or can one come up with a tighter upper bound to the optimal revenue that proves an $o(m)$ gap between the revenue from pricing subsets and the optimal revenue.

Example. Consider m items, and a buyer without feasibility constraints (i.e., $\mathcal{C} = 2^{[m]}$), with a valuation defined by the hypergraph representation w distributed by $w([i]) = 2^{m-i}$ w.p. $2^{-(m-i)}$, and $w([i]) = 0$ otherwise. The key property here is that smaller hyperedges have higher weight with lower probability.

Consider now any scheme which prices bundles. Define p_i to be the cheapest price the buyer can pay in order to purchase sets for which their union contains $[i]$. Note that p_i is

monotone increasing by definition (for any $i' > i$, any union of sets that contains $[i']$ also contains $[i]$).

Let j^* be the largest index j such that $p_j \leq 2 \cdot 2^{m-j}$. We prove the following two claims.

CLAIM 1. *The buyer will never pay more than $3 \cdot 2^{m-j^*}$.*

Proof. By definition of j^* , it holds that $p_{j^*} \leq 2 \cdot 2^{m-j^*}$. Therefore, the buyer can attain value from all hyperedges $[i]$ for which $i \leq j^*$ at price p_{j^*} . The only hyperedges they might yet not have value for are the $[i]$ for which $i > j^*$. But the total contribution of all such hyperedges to the buyer's value is at most $\sum_{k=j^*+1}^m 2^{m-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{m-(j^*+1)} 2^k < 2^{m-j^*}$.

Therefore, the buyer will always prefer the option which costs p_{j^*} to receive a superset of $[j^*]$ than even the grand bundle $[m]$ at any price $> p_{j^*} + 2^{m-j^*}$. Therefore, the buyer will never choose to purchase an option at price $> 3 \cdot 2^{m-j^*}$.

□

CLAIM 2. *The buyer will only buy something with probability at most $2^{-(m-j^*)+1}$.*

Proof. Let i^* be the smallest item for which $w([i^*]) > 0$. Similar to Claim 1, the buyer's total value for $[m]$ (i.e., from the hyperedges $\{[k] : k > i^* - 1\}$) is strictly less than 2^{m-i^*+1} .

If $i^* > j^*$, i.e., $i^* \geq j^* + 1$, then in order to acquire non-zero value, the buyer must purchase at least at price $p_{i^*} \geq p_{j^*+1} > 2^{m-j^*} \geq 2^{m-i^*+1}$, and result in negative utility. Therefore if $i^* > j^*$ then the buyer will purchase nothing.

By the union bound, the probability that $i^* \leq j^*$ is

$$\Pr[\exists i \leq j^* : w([i]) \neq 0] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{j^*} 2^{-(m-i)} \leq 2^{-(m-j^*)+1}.$$

□

As a conclusion of Claims 1 and 2, the optimal revenue from pricing bundles in our example is at most $3 \cdot 2^{m-j^*} \cdot 2^{-(m-j^*)+1} = 6$. Moreover, for our example, it is not hard to see that our benchmark (Corollary 1) is m . Indeed, recall that for the highest value in the support of a distribution D , Myerson's virtual value is simply that value. That is, because all distributions in this example have a single non-zero point mass, the non-negative virtual value is equal to the value at all points, and therefore our benchmark simply becomes the expected welfare (which is m).

Therefore, the optimal revenue from pricing bundles cannot approximate our benchmark, which implies a substantially different approach is required. We conclude with a proof sketch that even randomized mechanisms can achieve revenue at best $O(1)$ in this example.

CLAIM 3. *No randomized mechanism can guarantee revenue > 6 for this example.*

Proof. [Sketch] To prove the claim, we will define a flow-conserving λ for this example D , and consider the resulting Φ^λ using Corollary 5. The proof below is a “sketch” only because we do not fully expand all calculations.

Observe that each type can be completely described by an m -long bitstring \vec{t} , with $t_i = 1$ iff $w([i]) > 0$. Consider the following mapping $g(\cdot)$:

- For each bitstring \vec{t} , let $i(\vec{t}) := \min\{j, t_j = 1\}$, the smallest index such that $t_i = 1$.

Observe that $i(\vec{t})$ is well-defined as long as $\vec{t} \neq \vec{0}$.

- If $i(\vec{t}) = m$, or $t_{i(\vec{t})+1} = 1$, then define $g(\vec{t}) = \vec{0}$.
- Otherwise, define $g(\vec{t}) := \vec{t} + \vec{e}_{i(\vec{t})+1} - \vec{e}_{i(\vec{t})}$ (swap the coordinates $i(\vec{t})$ and $i(\vec{t}) + 1$, by adding the $(i(\vec{t}) + 1)^{st}$ standard basis vector, and subtracting the $i(\vec{t})^{th}$).

We will now define our flow-conserving λ to have \vec{t} send all of its incoming flow to $g(\vec{t})$. Observe that there are no cycles in the directed graph defined by $g(\cdot)$, and that every type gets incoming flow from at most one other type. We now want to figure out just how much flow is sent into each \vec{t} , and then we can compute the corresponding Φ^λ .

So consider any type \vec{t} . If $t_1 = 1$, then \vec{t} gets no incoming flow from anywhere. If $t_1 = 0$ (and $\vec{t} \neq \vec{0}$), then $g^{-1}(\vec{t})$ exists (and is equal to $\vec{t} - \vec{e}_{i(\vec{t})} + \vec{e}_{i(\vec{t})-1}$). Observe that the total flow incoming to \vec{t} is equal to the total flow incoming to $g^{-1}(\vec{t})$, plus $f(g^{-1}(\vec{t}))$. Observe also that $f(g^{-1}(\vec{t})) = f(\vec{t}) \cdot \frac{1-2^{-(m-i(\vec{t}))}}{1-2^{-(m-i(\vec{t})+1)}}/2$. Indeed, $f(\vec{t}) = (\prod_{i,t_i=1} 2^{-(m-i)}) \cdot (\prod_{i,t_i=0} 1-2^{-(m-i)})$, while $f(g^{-1}(\vec{t})) = (\prod_{i,t_i=1} 2^{-(m-i)}) (\prod_{i,t_i=0} 1-2^{-(m-i)}) \cdot \frac{1-2^{-(m-i(\vec{t}))}}{2^{-(m-i(\vec{t}))}} \cdot \frac{2^{-(m-i(\vec{t})+1)}}{1-2^{-(m-i(\vec{t})+1)}}$ (because we flip the bits at location $i(\vec{t})$ and $i(\vec{t})-1$).

We now use this to inductively compute the total flow into \vec{t} . Indeed, if c_i denotes the ratio of $f(g^{-1}(\vec{t}))/f(\vec{t})$ when $i(\vec{t}) = i$, and d_i is such that the flow into \vec{t} is equal to $d_i f(\vec{t})$, then we have the recurrence relation: $d_{i+1} = c_i + c_i d_i$, with $c_i := \frac{1-2^{-(m-i)}}{1-2^{-(m-i+1)}}/2$, and base case $d_1 = 0$. Our goal is to solve this recurrence for d_i .

Observe that for any choice of c_i , and $d_1 = 0$, this recurrence solves to $d_{i+1} := \sum_{j=1}^i \prod_{\ell=j}^i c_\ell$. So we just need to evaluate this sum of products for our particular definition of c_i . To compute this, observe that the product telescopes, so we have:

$$\prod_{\ell=j}^i c_\ell = \frac{1 - 2^{-(m-i)}}{1 - 2^{-(m-j+1)}} / 2^{-i+j-1}.$$

Therefore, we also get:

$$\begin{aligned} d_{i+1} &= \sum_{j=1}^i \prod_{\ell=j}^i c_\ell = \sum_{j=1}^i \frac{1 - 2^{-(m-i)}}{1 - 2^{-(m-j+1)}} / 2^{-i+j-1} \\ &\geq \sum_{j=1}^i 2^{-i+j-1} - 2^{-m+j-1} \\ &= 1 - 2^{-i} - (2^{-m+i} - 2^{-m}) \\ &\leq 1 - 2^{-i} - 2^{-m+i}. \end{aligned}$$

This then defines the following Φ^λ :

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi^\lambda(\vec{t})(S) &= \sum_i I([i] \subseteq S) \cdot I(t_i = 1) \cdot 2^{m-i} - d_i \sum_i I([i] \subseteq S) \cdot I(g^{-1}(\vec{t})_i = 1) \cdot 2^{m-i} \\ &= (1 - d_i) \sum_i I([i] \subseteq S) \cdot I(t_i = 1) \cdot 2^{m-i} \\ &\quad + d_i \sum_i I([i] \subseteq S) \cdot (I(t_i = 1) - I(g^{-1}(\vec{t})_i = 1)) \cdot 2^{m-i} \\ &\leq (1 - d_i) \sum_i I([i] \subseteq S) \cdot I(t_i = 1) \cdot 2^{m-i} \\ &\leq (2^{-i(\vec{t}+1)} + 2^{-m+i(\vec{t})-1}) \sum_i I([i] \subseteq S) \cdot I(t_i = 1) \cdot 2^{m-i}. \end{aligned}$$

The first equality simply follows from plugging into the definition of Φ^λ . The second equality simply rearranges terms. The following inequality follows by observing that $I(t_i = 1)$ and $I(g^{-1}(\vec{t})_i = 1)$ differ only on $i(\vec{t})$ and $i(\vec{t}) - 1$. Moreover, if $[i(\vec{t})] \subseteq S$, then certainly $[i(\vec{t}) - 1] \subseteq S$ as well, so whenever the positive term is counted, the negative term is counted as well (but the negative term is larger). The final inequality follows from our lower bound on d_i . The final term is clearly maximized at $S = [m]$, so we have now established that:

$$\text{REV}(D) \leq \mathbb{E}_{\vec{t}}[(2^{-i(\vec{t})+1} + 2^{-m+i(\vec{t})-1}) \cdot \sum_i I(t_i = 1) \cdot 2^{m-i}].$$

So our goal is just to upper bound the RHS. To compute this, consider a fixed i . The probability that $t_i = 1$ is exactly $2^{-(m-i)}$. The distribution of $i(\vec{t})$, conditioned on this, is that $i(\vec{t})$ is equal to j with probability at most $2^{-(m-j)}$ (for $j < i$), and $i(\vec{t}) = i$ with the remaining probability (it is never $> i$, because we have conditioned on $t_i = 1$). Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}_{\vec{t}}[(2^{-i(\vec{t})+1} + 2^{-m+i(\vec{t})-1}) \cdot \sum_i I(t_i = 1) \cdot 2^{m-i}] \\ & \leq \sum_i 2^{m-i} \cdot 2^{-(m-i)} \cdot \\ & \quad \left((1 - \sum_{j < i} 2^{-(m-j)}) \cdot (2^{-i+1} + 2^{-m+i-1}) + \sum_{j < i} 2^{-(m-j)} \cdot (2^{-(j-1)} + 2^{-m+j-1}) \right) \\ & \leq \sum_i (2^{-i+1} + 2^{-m+i-1} + m2^{1-m} + 2^{-2m+2i-1}/3) \\ & \leq 2 + 1 + 2 + 2/9 \leq 6. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the optimal revenue for this example, even for randomized mechanisms, is at best 6.

□

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Brief Biographies

Alon Eden is a Postdoctoral Fellow at the Harvard School of Engineering and Applied Sciences. His research is focused mainly on Mechanism Design.

Michal Feldman is a Professor of computer Science in the Blavatnik School of Computer Science at Tel Aviv University and a visiting scholar at Microsoft Research (MSR)

Herzliya. Her research focuses on the intersection of computer science, game theory and microeconomics. She is an alumna of the Israeli Young Academy and the Global Young Academy.

Ophir Friedler is a Ph.D. student in the Blavatnik School of Computer Science at Tel Aviv University and a marketplace optimization specialist at Outbrain Inc. His research focuses mainly on Algorithmic Mechanism Design.

Inbal Talgam-Cohen is an assistant professor and Taub Fellow at the Computer Science Department, Technion – Israel Institute of Technology. Her interdisciplinary work spans computer science, economics and operations research.

S. Matthew Weinberg is an assistant professor of computer science at Princeton University. His research focuses broadly on Algorithmic Mechanism Design, and Algorithms under Uncertainty.