THE EXTENT OF PRICE MISALIGNMENT IN PREDICTION MARKETS*

David Rothschild
Microsoft Research
David@ResearchDMR.com
ResearchDMR.com

David Pennock
Microsoft Research
DPennock@microsoft.com
DPennock.com

Abstract

We examine the extent to which prices for logically related contracts in prediction markets are contradictory, and the practical amount of arbitrage profits that can result. Price misalignment between identical contracts on different exchanges, representing between 1 and 5 percent net earnings, are common and can persist for months, even in the face of high liquidity. Observing the trading of almost three thousand dollars of contracts in a randomized trial, we uncover a significant shadow order book representing price support well beyond the published demand, implying that absolute arbitrage profits are significantly higher than what a purely observational analysis would reveal. Price misalignment even occurs among identical and logically related contracts listed on the same exchange, though profits are generally lower. Even when misalignment does not represent arbitrage, related markets react in ways that suggest bounded rationality. Some contracts simply shut down when there are high levels of activity in another related contract; traders unnecessarily withdraw orders that exceed even the most wildly pessimistic outcome of an ongoing event. There is a consistent asymmetry between buying and selling across many exchanges, leaving the average return for selling (which is cognitively more complex as implemented by the exchanges) higher than for buying. We find other evidence of weak-form inefficiency: prices on one exchange have significant correlation with 12-hour lagged prices on a second exchange. Despite these signs of departure from theoretical optimality, the markets studied, on balance, function well considering the sometimes complex and subtle relationships among contracts. Yet, we discuss how prediction markets can be designed better, moving the burden of finding and fixing logical contradictions into the exchange, making buying and selling symmetric, and providing trading wizards, thus freeing traders to focus on providing meaningful information in the form they find most natural.

Preliminary Draft: Do Not Forward or Cite

This draft: October 14, 2012
Latest draft: www.ResearchDMR.com/RothschildArbitrage
Keywords: arbitrage, prediction markets, behavioral economics, behavioral finance
JEL codes:

* The authors would like to thank Jake Abernethy, Nicolás Della Penna, Justin Rao, and the seminar audience at MSR-NYC for their thoughtful comments.

I. Introduction

At 4pm E.T. on October 3, 2012, prediction market traders on the Intrade exchange put the probability of Mitt Romney to win the U.S. Presidential election at between 29.8 and 30.0 percent. (The most bullish was willing to pay 29.8 cents for a contract worth "$1 if Romney wins"; the least bearish was asking to sell the same for 30.0 cents.) At the same time, Betfair, another exchange, reported Romney's chances at between 19.2 and 19.6 percent. Obviously, both exchanges could not be right. More than semantics, the contradiction represented free money: A member of both exchanges could buy "Romney to win" contracts on Betfair for 19.6 cents apiece and sell identical contracts on Intrade for 29.8 cents each, pocketing 10.2 cents per contract, minus transaction fees. The two exchanges listed dozens of other related contracts, including "Republican candidate to win" (28.8-29.9 percent on Intrade), "Republican candidate to win at least 270 Electoral College votes" (10.1-29.8 percent on Intrade), and similar contracts for Barack Obama, the Democratic candidate, and other Electoral College thresholds. The contracts feature various logical implications. For example, Obama needs at least 269 Electoral College votes to win, cannot win both more than 269 and less than 270 Electoral College votes, cannot simultaneously win the election if Romney wins, etc.

A canonical prediction market contract pays $1 if and only if a chosen candidate wins. Thus, an investor who pays $0.60 for one share of "Democrat to Win", and holds it through Election Day, earns $0.40 if the Democrat wins and loses their $0.60 otherwise. We examine activity on two public exchanges offering such binary-payoff contracts for political outcomes: Dublin-based Intrade and London-based Betfair. In practice, the two exchanges, though offering mathematically equivalent binary-payoff gambles, provide users with significantly different trading interfaces. Intrade's interface is modeled after the stock market: they list all-or-nothing contracts to buy or sell in a continuous double auction (CDA), though one share pays $10, not $1. On Betfair, traders don't buy "shares" of contracts, but instead state (1) how many British pounds they are willing to "lay" on the outcome and (2) the odds -- or amount returned if they're right per pound risked – that they are willing to accept, reported in the decimal format common among European bookmakers.

Transaction costs, opportunity cost, currency risk, and counterparty risk dilute the value of any contract. Betfair charges users between 2 and 5 percent of winnings, depending on how much they invest in the exchange. Intrade charges a flat rate of $5 per month. Other fixed entry and exit costs include currency conversion (Betfair operates in British pounds; Intrade in US dollars) and bank transfer fees. The opportunity cost is the interest or investment earnings forgone by devoting capital to cover the worst-case losses on both exchanges. Since Intrade and Betfair operate in different currencies, there is a risk that fluctuating exchange rates can reduce or even reverse an arbitrage profit. Intrade is a smaller firm than Betfair, is more informally run, and has undergone a number of changes, including shuttering its sports betting operation TradeSports and losing its CEO in a tragic mountain climbing accident. Some fear a non-negligible chance that Intrade or Betfair will close, representing a counterparty risk for funds and earnings held there. Finally, the markets operate on different platforms, with different pricing schemes and other obstacles that make it nontrivial to investigate price misalignments between the markets.

Even under the weakest form of market efficiency, arbitrage -- where someone can earn a risk-free profit (after fees) by closing a price misalignment -- should not exist. Someone should buy the cheaper contract, raising its price, and sell the higher-priced contract, lowering its price, until the price differential is less than any fees and overhead. Yet between-market price misalignment exists for numerous contracts. For months leading up to the US presidential election, we documented numerous opportunities to buy contracts in one market and sell the same contract in another market for more money. We found occurrences in high liquidity markets, including the major party nomination markets and general election markets, as well as in lower liquidity markets like the state-by-state primaries. We consistently observed executable net profits of between 1 and 5 percent, even after reasonable estimation of the associated transaction costs and risks.

The order book does not capture all of the demand supporting a price misalignment, only the publicly declared limit orders. Thus the order book reflects a lower bound on arbitrage profits: the true opportunity may be several times higher if hidden demand – what we call a

shadow order book – exists in the form of traders or their programmed agents waiting ready to accept new orders at the margin or to refill the order book as it empties. Clearing out both order books to fully align prices (modulo transaction fees) would yield the minimum amount of arbitrage gain. For example, suppose Market A has 5 shares for sale at $0.10 and 5 more for sale at $0.12, and Market B has bids to buy 5 shares at $0.15 and 5 shares at $0.13. A trader can buy 10 contracts in Market A for an average of $0.11 and sell them in market B for an average of $0.14. But, what if, once the trader starts selling in Market B at $0.15, new bidders emerge clamoring to buy at $0.14 or $0.15? The profit per share could be closer to $0.04 instead of $0.03, and the total profit could be much higher than the 10x$0.03 = $0.30 profit explicit in the order book. Also note that the contract end date, in our case Election Day, represents the latest possible time after which capital can be reclaimed; if prices align any time in the interim, arbitrage positions can be closed out, freeing up invested capital.

We used a novel empirical approach to probe for the existence and extent of a shadow order book, finding that the liquidity for any contract at any price is many times larger than the public bids and asks imply. Thus, we estimate the amount of money that arbitrageurs can extract is an order of magnitude higher than what a purely observational study would indicate. By executing almost three thousand dollars in trades, we confirmed that the price disparities represented real arbitrage opportunities, and were not a manifestation of inaccurate or delayed price quotes, reasons that could not be ruled out by observation only.

We also find price misalignment between contracts listed on the *same* exchange, including instances where a trader could sell several candidates running for the same election for more than $1 total, yet know that he or she was obliged to pay out only $1 for at most one of the candidates. We found conditional contracts where the price for a candidate to win the presidential election was higher than the price of their party to win, even though the party can run a different candidate but the candidate would not run without their party.

We document additional evidence of weak-form inefficiency and bounded rationality. Between markets, Intrade was leading Betfair during the primary. A lagged Intrade price of 12 hours was better indicator of the Betfair price than the Betfair price 12 hours previous. For

related contracts within markets, both mutually exclusive and conditional contracts, less salient markets became illiquid when the more salient contracts were moving due to increased information flow. In some examples, traders withdrew all bid and ask orders from contingent markets, even if there were safe prices to leave the orders regardless of the outcome of the other event. Finally, the sum of all asks in complete sets of mutually exclusive contracts is consistently further from $1 than the sum of bids. Thus, consistent asymmetry between buying and selling across many exchanges, means the average return for selling (which is cognitively more complex as implemented by the exchanges) is higher than for buying.

To the extent that prediction markets seek to draw out information from a crowd, our findings highlight shortcomings of existing exchange designs and standard industry practice. First, the shadow order book represents a trove of information hidden below the surface; traders, often via programmed robots, are watching and waiting, ready to react to market changes, but little is done to capture or understand the degree of hidden price support or the subjective expectations of these lurking traders. Second, the prevalence of arbitrage means that trading surpluses go to uninformed participants who mechanically implement logical propagations, a task that can and should go to a computer. If prediction markets are to be efficient, the best rewards should be reserved for the best information, not the fastest or most sophisticated computations. Traders should be incentivized to focus on providing information, in whatever form they find convenient, rather than extracting social welfare through uniformed arbitrage.

To address these shortcomings, we advocate for changes in the way prediction markets are designed. First, exchanges should move beyond treating every binary outcome as an independent, one-dimensional continuous double auction (CDA). This practice fractures liquidity, limits expressiveness, holds more capital in reserve than necessary, and places undue cognitive burden on traders. Exchanges should begin to enforce logical consistency among related contracts. Linear programming is the right way to generalize a CDA to multiple dimensions [Bossaerts et al. 2002, Fortnow et al. 2004]. When the number of mutually exclusive outcomes is reasonable (say, in the hundreds or thousands), linear programming is a fast,

reliable, and well understood procedure and there is almost no disadvantage to adopting it. When the number of outcomes is exponential, say 2^{51} or 2 quadrillion state-by-state election outcomes, the computational complexity of linear programming (or any market mechanism) becomes intractable, though approximation schemes are possible [Dudik et al. 2012, Goel et al. 2008b].

Second, trading wizards should translate human judgments, expressed simply and naturally, into appropriate market orders. The exchange interface should emphasize its primary function – to reward information – and rescue users as much as possible from the swamp of financial or gambling numbers and jargon common today. Wizards allow traders to focus on estimating likely outcomes and ignore the details of particular market mechanics and strategies. For example, buying and selling are logically identical yet almost every exchange makes selling more confusing; ideally, traders should see no difference. Well-designed wizards that incentivize timely information may encourage traders lurking in the shadow order book to reveal themselves, capturing meaningful data currently lost in the market interface. Note that our two suggestions complement each other: combinatorial exchanges using linear programming work best when coupled with a wizard-like interface.

II. Estimation Strategy/Results

Three Types of Price Misalignment

We start at the most obvious type of price imbalance; can we buy a single contract in a market for less money than we can sell it in another market? We looked the two most liquid markets for politics, Betfair and Intrade. First, we examine the contracts closely to ensure that they are the exact same, or at catalog the differences. Second, we make a detail accounting of the transaction and opportunity costs associated with the contracts and the markets. Third, we follow the lowest buy price and the highest sell price for these contracts in both markets and compare.

Ensuring similar contracts is a serious question as many of these contracts have extremely complex and detailed rules to avoid voided markets; yet, we are confident that for all

contracts noted in this paper the contracts are either the same between the two markets or the difference downwardly biases our results.

Opportunity cost is the prevailing interest rate over the expected life of the contract on the investment. First, the maximum amount of money that a trader needs to purchase the contracts in both markets to attempt arbitrage is $1 per $1 payout. The cost of buying the less expensive contract is the price $X. The more expensive contract is going to sell for $Y, where $1 > $Y > $X. The cost of covering that sale is $1 – $Y; if the contract hits, the seller needs to cover the difference between the price and $1. Thus, the trader needs to invest $1 - $Y + $X. Since $1 > $Y > $X the cost of covering the two positions can, at most, approach $1 per $1 contract. If investor does not sell contracts, but holds everything for the duration, they will expire at the Conventions or Election Day; this is a year of time, at most. With very low interest rates, the opportunity cost on the investment is quite low during 2012.

Transaction costs are unique in this setup, because they are unbalanced; Intrade is all upfront costs while Betfair as a marginal costs. Thus, the final transaction cost needs to be in expectation. First, you cover all of the fixed fees. Second, the marginal transaction cost is the likelihood that the Betfair contract pays out times a maximum of 5% of the winnings.[1] For example, if I buy 100 shares of a contract that would pay $1 if it comes true in Betfair at $0.60 per share and sell 100 shares in Intrade for $0.70 per share then my transaction costs, in expectation, is 65% * $40 * 5% = $1.30. Of course, I will either pay $0 if the contract does not pay out or $2.00 if the contract pays out. The highest possible transaction cost is if the contract costs ≈$0 and it hits on Betfair, with a fee of 5% of the total. In summation, the maximum transaction and opportunity cost is ≈6% or 5% (transaction) + ≈1% (opportunity). Realistically, the less that can be gained from Betfair the lower the transaction; if the contracts are both near $0.50 per $1 payout and we assume a short time period, than the cost is ≈3% or 0.5*5%.

The currency and counter-party risk is harder to estimate. A small investor is likely to ride the currency risk from Intrade's US dollars and Betfair's British pounds, while a larger

[1] Betfair's transaction cost is a sliding scale that starts at 5% and ends at 2% and decreases with the trader's volume of action.

investor with access to currency futures can hedge the risk at a small cost. Further, the cost of the initial conversion also depends greatly on the access to currency of the traders, from little to nothing for large investors who hold foreign currency already to more costly for small investors. The counter-party risk is low, because the market would not only have to go under, but take the money with it. The money they hold is supposed to be held safely, separate from the day-to-day operating of the company. But, for a small investor risk neutrality can be an issue if the investment becomes a substantial percentage of their wealth. Thus, we estimate the currency and counter-party risk to be low for large investors, but more meaningful for small investors.

The markets operate on different platforms, with different pricing schemes and other obstacles that make it a nontrivial cost to investigate and close price misalignments between the markets. Most of this cost is fixed, but since Intrade only sees major liquidity in political markets, traders cannot amortize the cost over many opportunities.

We pulled 10 contracts with high volume during the 2012 presidential primaries that had identical contracts in both Betfair and Intrade; misalignment of prices occurs in all 10 of these contracts. The contracts are: Gingrich, Romney, and Santorum for the Republican nomination, Obama and Romney for president, and whether Romney would win the Iowa, New Hampshire, South Carolina, Nevada, and Florida primaries. The left side of Figure 1 illustrates this for the first five contracts, by showing the difference in the lowest cost to buy and highest price to sell the same contract across Betfair and Intrade.[2] More often than not it was possible to sell a contract in one market for more than it cost to buy the same contract in another market. The right side of Figure 1 shows the same difference in the contract for just Obama to win the presidency across the general election. The differences are persistent between the two markets, but not always in the same direct.

[2] These are the most consistently liquid contracts and the only contracts that span the entire timeframe.

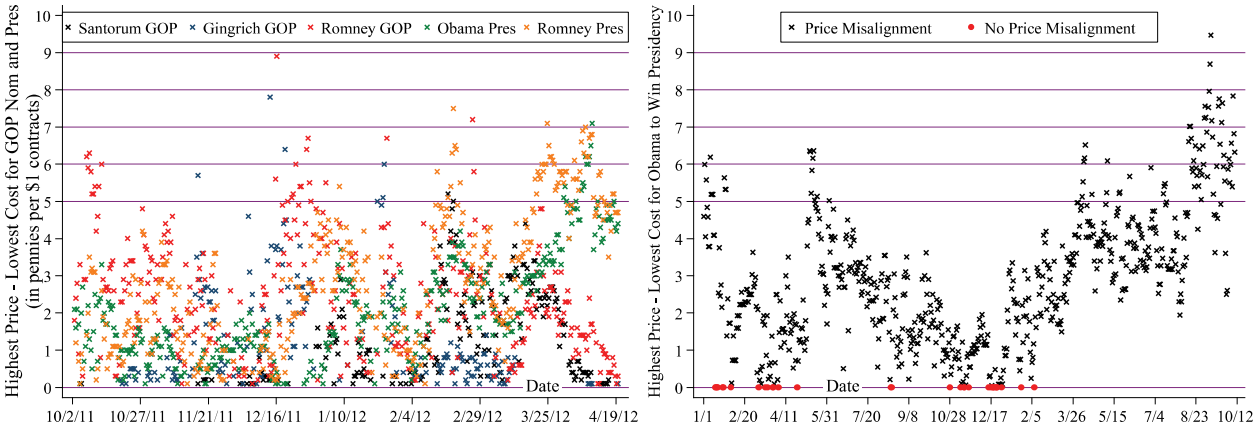


Figure 1: Price misalignment between two markets during the 2012 election in both primary and general election contracts

At the margin there is arbitrage between markets as there are price differences that are greater than the transaction and opportunity cost of performing. Figure 1 shows that there are points where the difference is greater than the theoretical maximum cost of 6% and it is regularly greater than the average cost of 3%. The two Obama contracts were over 6 percentage points apart more than half the days in September, which falls between 66 and 37 days before the contracts expire.

The stated order book only provides a lower bound to the size of this opportunity; we need to explore the shadow order book to make a more accurate accounting. Regardless of how the market categorizes it, for easy comparison, we count a share as a contract that pays $1 if it comes true and $0 if it does not come true. At 1:45 PM ET on August 16, 2012 a trader could buy on Intrade 120 shares of Obama to win the presidency for $0.569 per share, then 4,944 shares at $0.570, 210 shares at $0.571, etc. At the same time on Betfair a trader could sell 18,857 shares of Obama to win the presidency at $0.633 per share, 1,858 shares at $0.629 per share, 1,349 shares at $0.625 per share, etc. The minimum amount of money that a trader could gain by closing this price misalignment is to buy shares in Intrade and sell shares in Betfair until the difference matches the transaction and opportunity costs; this assumes the trader has already covered all of fixed costs of being on both sites and finding the price misalignments. But, the order book is only what is sitting visibly to take; the shadow order book is the market's reaction to new trades. First, on Intrade the bid was $0.562 and the ask $0.569, could the trader get someone to

sell shares for a price in the middle? Second, there were 120 shares available at $0.569, what happens if the trader puts in a buy order for 500 or 1,000 shares at that price, are there other traders waiting to the orders? If the minimum is clearing out the order book, the maximum is an infinite money pit at the marginal difference or, even higher, the marginal difference plus the some portion of the bid/ask spreads in both markets.

Intrade

Order Book			
2012.PRES.OBAMA			
Bid		Offer	
Qty	Price	Price	Qty
1	56.2	56.9	12
51	56.1	57.0	494
156	56.0	57.1	21
132	55.9	57.4	6
987	55.8	57.5	523
36	55.7	57.9	45
348	55.6	58.0	104
1050	55.5	58.5	133
600	55.4	59.0	100
500	55.3	59.3	60
500	55.2	59.5	100
625	55.1	59.8	100
1124	55.0	59.9	215
100	54.9	60.0	200
104	54.8	60.2	207

Betfair

1.53	£130		£110,216
1.54	£992		£44,612
1.55	£6,573		£58,305
1.56	£3,499		£85,048
1.57			£122,367
1.58		£7,630	£63,837
1.59		£747	£64,479
1.60		£539	£70,414
1.61		£78	£63,195
1.62		£121	£55,921
1.63		£95	£58,138
1.64		£127	£86,808
1.65		£1,598	£92,735
1.66		£2,673	£29,193
1.67		£182	£21,888
1.68		£228	£30,840
1.69		£50	£41,203
1.70		£129	£25,480
1.71		£114	£16,005
1.72		£50	£17,674
1.73		£2	£54,606
1.74		£1,525	£71,804
1.75		£263	£62,116

Figure 2: The order books for Obama to win the presidency, Intrade left and Betfair right, at 1:45 PM ET on August 16, 2012

Figure 2 shows the actual order books from Betfair and Intrade referenced above and they demonstrate the complexity of working in both markets. First, Intrade's contracts expire at $10, so each "Qty" corresponds to 10 shares. Second, Betfair trades with odds, where 1/odds equal the cost per $1. The odds of 1.58 equate to 1/1.58 or $0.633 per $1. Third, Betfair trades in British Pounds and it lists the amount of money someone is willing to wager at the current price. Thus, at the exchange rate of 1.5642 American Dollars per Pound someone is will to wager £7,630 or $11,934.85 at $0.633 per $1 return. So, that bet equates to 18,857 shares that would be worth $1 each if Obama wins the election.

In order to test the depth of the shadow order book, we identified several price misalignments where there was arbitrage on the margin; we randomly traded or did not trade in those contracts on any given day to test the cost of buying shares and whether our playing affected the marginal values. First, we identified two, conditionally related, contracts where we could buy the same contract for at less than we could sell it in a different market and the difference was enough to cover all transaction and opportunity costs. Second, every day for eight days we randomized which market to enter at a random point during the day. We followed the markets when we did not bid; we captured the order book for every 2 minutes during the entire period. Third, if we entered the market we bought matching numbers of shares on each side, to ensure an arbitrage.[3] Fourth, when we bought shares we started by offering at the current bid + $0.001 per share and then moved upwards systematically until we acquired all of the shares. For example if the current bid was $0.23 and current ask was $0.26 we would attempt to buy at $0.24, then $0.25, then $0.26.

The shadow order book exists; if possible, we consistently paid less for our contracts then the stated order book indicated and there were more shares available than noted in the order book at the stated prices. As an example, we went into the market shown by Figure 2 and bought 5 shares of Obama to win at $0.566 per share; that was $0.003 per share less than price in the order book. Then, to match this arbitrage opportunity, we sold 5 shares worth of Obama to win in Betfair for $0.637 per share, $0.004 more than the order book's asking price of $0.633 per share. Every time we entered the Intrade market there was evidence of the shadow order book. Six of the eight times we enacted purchases there was space between the bid and ask price in the order book; four of those six times we were able to purchase shares at less than the ask price. Two of the remaining four purchases we bought more shares than were available in the order book at the ask price. The final two times, where we bought at the ask price for available shares, the shares available recovered within minutes after our purchase.

[3] For simplicity, we occasionally exchanged buying the mutually exclusive counterpart for selling a contract.

The evidence suggest that the that shadow order book multiplies the return from between-market opportunities many time over; we had little influence on the market, despite investing $1,831 in arbitrage situations that pay out an expected return of 5.79% over 3 months.[4] Over the time period that we traded, we examined the starting bid and ask prices and quantities for each day. Table 2 shows the difference between the cheapest buy price and the highest ask price for the two sets of contracts we were following for arbitrage during the period we were following. Of the 16 days/contracts when were in one of the two contracts the differences actually increased during the day 10 times. The difference increased in 6 of the 8 contracts we entered and increased 5 of the 8 contracts we did not enter. More telling, after spending 8 days and spending $1,831 buying arbitrages in the two contracts, the biggest arbitrage opportunities, by far, was midnight after we were done!

	Difference Between Cost to Buy on Intrade and Price to Sell on Betfair		Movement in 24 Hour Period	
Date and Time	Democratic Party for President	Obama for President	Democratic Party for President	Obama for President
8/6/12 0:00	4.79	2.88		
8/7/12 0:00	5.19	3.25	0.40	0.37
8/8/12 0:00	4.89	4.01	-0.30	0.76
8/9/12 0:00	3.99	3.29	-0.90	-0.72
8/10/12 0:00	4.99	4.69	1.00	1.40
8/11/12 0:00	5.09	3.49	0.10	-1.20
8/12/12 0:00	3.39	4.59	-1.70	1.10
8/13/12 0:00	3.79	4.69	0.40	0.10
8/14/12 0:00	7.74	6.60	3.94	1.91

Table 1: Differences between Betfair and Intrade during our time gathering arbitrage
Notes: This table reflects the margin, where at least 1 share was on the order book.at that price. Red highlights those day/contracts where the arbitrage shrank.

Within market price misalignment includes two major categories: mutually exclusive contracts (e.g., first, second, and third place in the same event) and conditional contracts (e.g., victory in first round and victory in second round). Within market price-misalignment is when you can buy a contract that is, by definition, more valuable than another contract for less money

[4] The return is including all transactions costs, but before any opportunity costs.

that that second contract. Price misalignment in mutually exclusive contracts occurs when you can sell over $1 worth of contracts for an outcome that can pay a maximum of $1 or you can buy a set of contract for less than $1 that must pay out a $1. Price misalignment in conditional contract occurs when something that is by definition more likely to happen sells for less money.

Every question in a prediction market has a mutually exclusive list of outcomes. If the question is about winning the presidential election, there is going to be a list of candidates and only one contract can be worth $1 after Election Day and all other contracts will be worth $0. This is the easiest within market comparison to keep aligned, because the markets generally list all of the contracts for one specific question together. Yet, price misalignment does occur with within these markets.

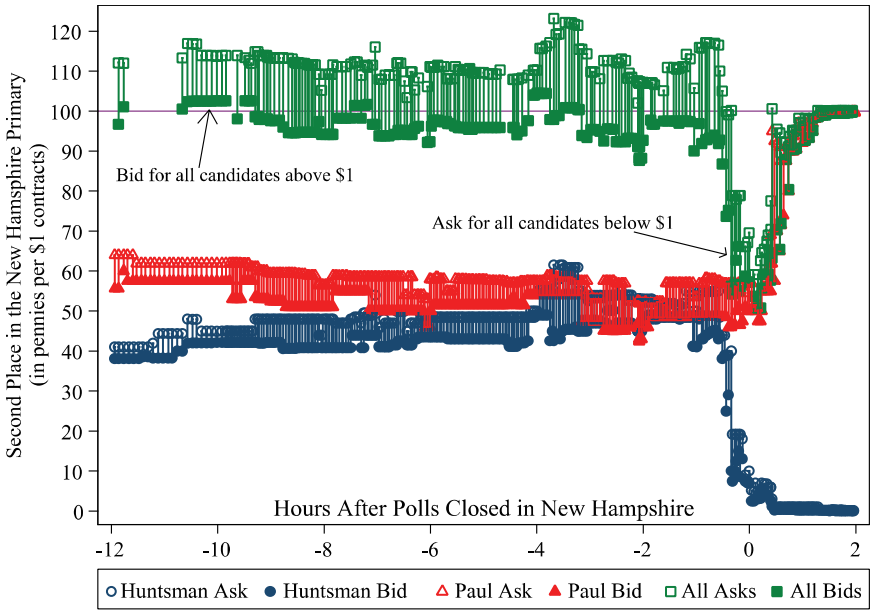
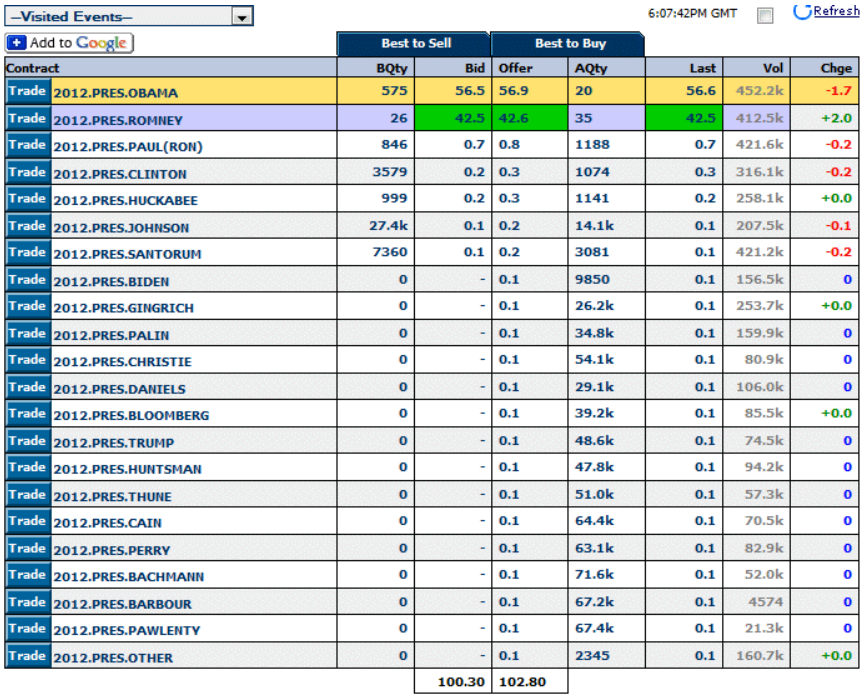


Figure 3: Intrade's bids and asks for Jon Huntsman, Ron Paul, and the sum of all competitors for second place in the New Hampshire primary

There were two major price misalignments in Intrade's market for the second place position in the New Hampshire primary on January 10, 2012. First, at some points, not only on the day of the primary, as seen in Figure 3, but throughout the previous week, a trader could sell all the contracts on every possible candidate to finish second for more than $1. That includes not just Jon Huntsman and Ron Paul, but Mitt Romney, Rick Santorum, and Newt Gingrich as

well. This topped out at a possible sale price of $1.082 and, since only one candidate could capture second place, it was worth $1; the sale of each share guaranteed $0.082. Second, right after the polls closed Huntsman, who finished third, plunged in both the bid and ask for second, but Paul, who came in second, stayed steady. Thus, for a few minutes a trader could buy all candidates for second place for less than $1; it actually bottomed out at $0.591. Since someone had to finish second and be worth $1 for only $0.591 per share.

On the margin, mutually exclusive price misalignment happens surprisingly often. Figure 4 is a more common phenomenon where the market is just slightly misaligned. A seller could sell 26 shares in each of candidate in the market for the 2012 president and get $1.003 for something that will cost $1.00 by definition. Intrade makes this very clean by adding the final contract of 2012.PRES.OTHER, making this a fully encompassing market. Betfair does not always include that, leaving the possibly that all contracts for a question could be losers.



–Visited Events– 6:07:42PM GMT Refresh

Add to Google

		Best to Sell		Best to Buy				
Contract		BQty	Bid	Offer	AQty	Last	Vol	Chge
Trade	2012.PRES.OBAMA	575	56.5	56.9	20	56.6	452.2k	-1.7
Trade	2012.PRES.ROMNEY	26	42.5	42.6	35	42.5	412.5k	+2.0
Trade	2012.PRES.PAUL(RON)	846	0.7	0.8	1188	0.7	421.6k	-0.2
Trade	2012.PRES.CLINTON	3579	0.2	0.3	1074	0.3	316.1k	-0.2
Trade	2012.PRES.HUCKABEE	999	0.2	0.3	1141	0.2	258.1k	+0.0
Trade	2012.PRES.JOHNSON	27.4k	0.1	0.2	14.1k	0.1	207.5k	-0.1
Trade	2012.PRES.SANTORUM	7360	0.1	0.2	3081	0.1	421.2k	-0.2
Trade	2012.PRES.BIDEN	0	-	0.1	9850	0.1	156.5k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.GINGRICH	0	-	0.1	26.2k	0.1	253.7k	+0.0
Trade	2012.PRES.PALIN	0	-	0.1	34.8k	0.1	159.9k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.CHRISTIE	0	-	0.1	54.1k	0.1	80.9k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.DANIELS	0	-	0.1	29.1k	0.1	106.0k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.BLOOMBERG	0	-	0.1	39.2k	0.1	85.5k	+0.0
Trade	2012.PRES.TRUMP	0	-	0.1	48.6k	0.1	74.5k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.HUNTSMAN	0	-	0.1	47.8k	0.1	94.2k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.THUNE	0	-	0.1	51.0k	0.1	57.3k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.CAIN	0	-	0.1	64.4k	0.1	70.5k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.PERRY	0	-	0.1	63.1k	0.1	82.9k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.BACHMANN	0	-	0.1	71.6k	0.1	52.0k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.BARBOUR	0	-	0.1	67.2k	0.1	4574	0
Trade	2012.PRES.PAWLENTY	0	-	0.1	67.4k	0.1	21.3k	0
Trade	2012.PRES.OTHER	0	-	0.1	2345	0.1	160.7k	+0.0
			100.30	102.80				

Figure 4: Intrade's order book for the 2012 presidential election on August 13, 2012.

A more hidden mutually exclusive situation is the set of contracts that cover every possible thing a candidate may do in a situation and we find price misalignment there as well. For example, in the early hours after the polls closed on the Iowa primaries, there were a few

minutes were people were willing to buy Romney to finish first for $0.900 and Romney to finish second for $0.110. That was a guaranteed 1 percent return on something that was going to settle that day. On the other side, in New Hampshire primary, Paul, who finished a convincing second, had points in time where a first, second, or third finish could be purchased for a total of $0.598; this is illustrated in Figure 5. While that is not technically arbitrage, because he could theoretically have not finished in the top three, it was a dramatic price misalignment for a candidate that came in with 22.9 percent of the vote when the first candidate out of the top three had just 9.4 percent.

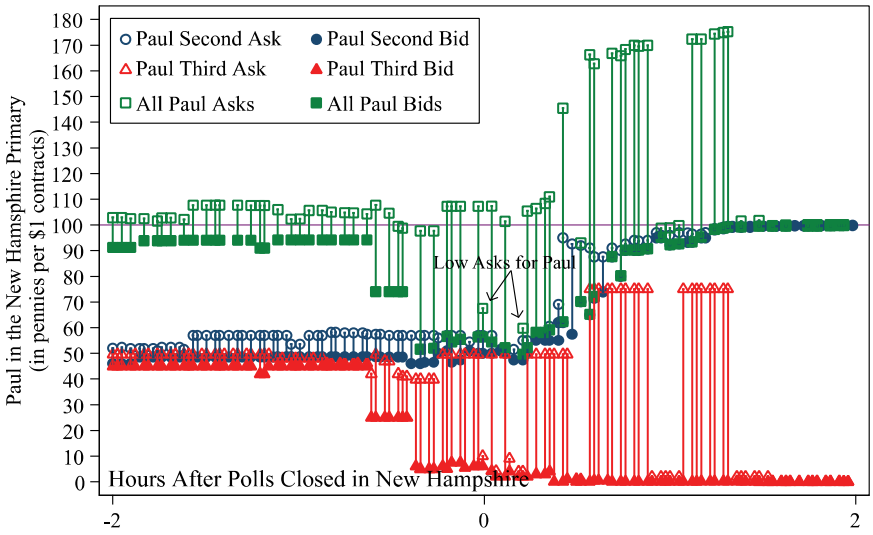


Figure 5: Intrade's Bid and asks for Ron Paul for second and third place, separately, and any position in the top three, combined, in the New Hampshire primary

We pulled all of the major candidates for president to win their party's nomination and to win the general election and we did not find points where you could buy their likelihood for winning the nomination (round 1) for less than you could sell them winning the general election (round 2), but we do find evidence of price misalignment.[5] Barack Obama needed to win the Democratic nomination to run for president in 2012 and as the sitting president there was a very high likelihood of him winning the nomination. If he did not run as the Democratic candidate he would have zero likelihood of winning the election, but the Democratic Party

[5] With the exception of Ron Paul, who was the only major party candidate with a non-negligible possibility of running as a third party candidate if he lost his party's nomination.

could still win the election; thus, the Democratic Party to Win is more valuable than Barack Obama to Win.[6] Yet, there are many times when the price of the Democratic Party winning the election was less than the price of Obama winning the election. For example, on the morning of September 18, 2011 you could buy Democratic Party to Win the Election for $0.491 and sell Barack Obama to Win the Election for $0.501.

A more subtle type of price misalignment in conditional contracts is the unnatural degree of noise, and occasionally dubious relationship, between first and second round contracts. The price of candidate to win the general election divided by the price of the candidate to win the nomination is the conditional price of the candidate winning the elections should the candidate win the nomination. Figure 6 illustrates this noise by mapping this conditional price for Mitt Romney along with the contract for the Republican Party winning the general election. On a day to day basis the underlying conditional value should be relatively stable, a similar magnitude of volatility to the party's contract, as the likelihood of nomination was stable from day to day, but it bounces around by several points. This is much more extreme on the bottom chart, which shows Newt Gingrich during the period when his likelihood of being the nominee was non-negligible.

[6] Intrade provides a little ambiguity in the case of death. The contracts on the Parties would continue, but the individual contracts would likely be suspended and settle at the previous night's price.

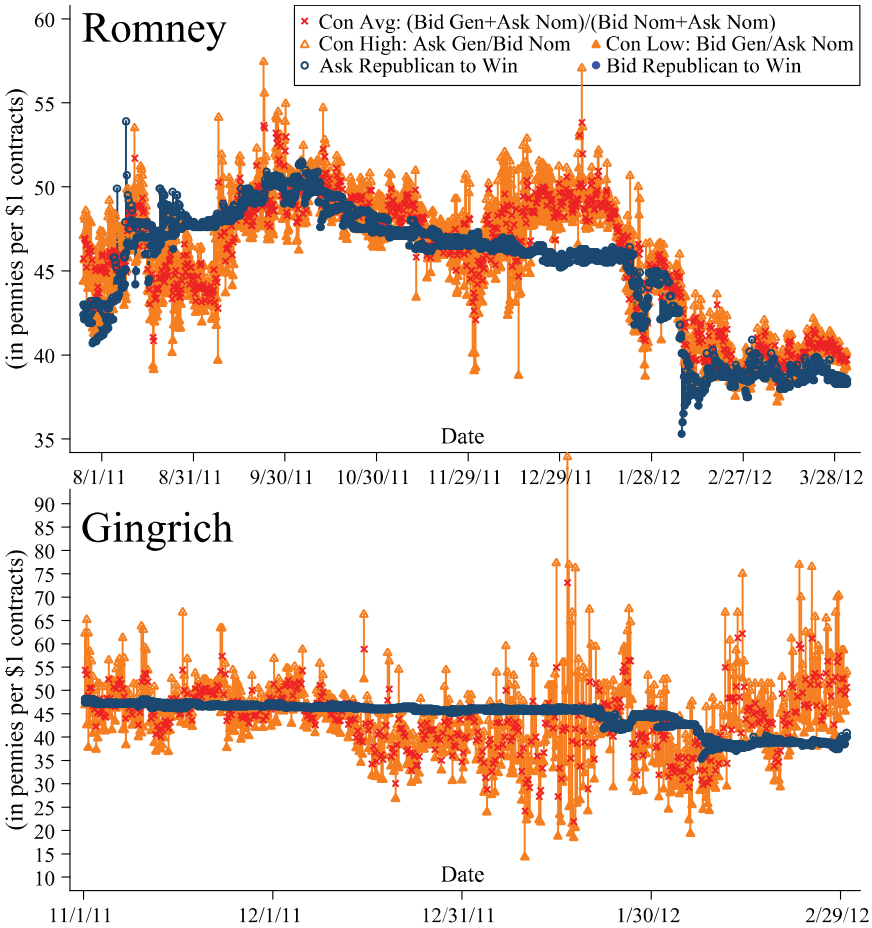


Figure 6: Intrade data on Romney and Gingrich winning the presidency conditional on their nomination and the bid and ask for the Republican Party capturing the presidency.

Other Market Inefficiencies

Mutually exclusive and conditional contracts both have less salient markets become illiquid when the more salient contracts are moving due to increased information. For mutually exclusive contracts that means markets for first or second place in a contest having robust trading while a third place market develops a large bid/ask spread. Similarly, for conditional contracts, it is means later rounds become illiquid while information is coming in for earlier rounds. Figure 7 shows a very dramatic illustration of this phenomenon in NCAA basketball. The figure charts both the likelihood of Kansas and Ohio State winning their semifinal game in the 2012 NCAA tournament and winning the final game. By definition, if a team loses its semifinal game it cannot win its final game. In the hours before tipoff all contracts are very liquid with tight bid/ask spreads. A little time before tipoff all bids are removed from the

contracts for the finals and do not return until after the game is finished. During the semifinal game there are extremely liquid contracts for the outcome of that game. Several hours after the game is over the market for the final game becomes liquid again for the game's winner, Kansas.

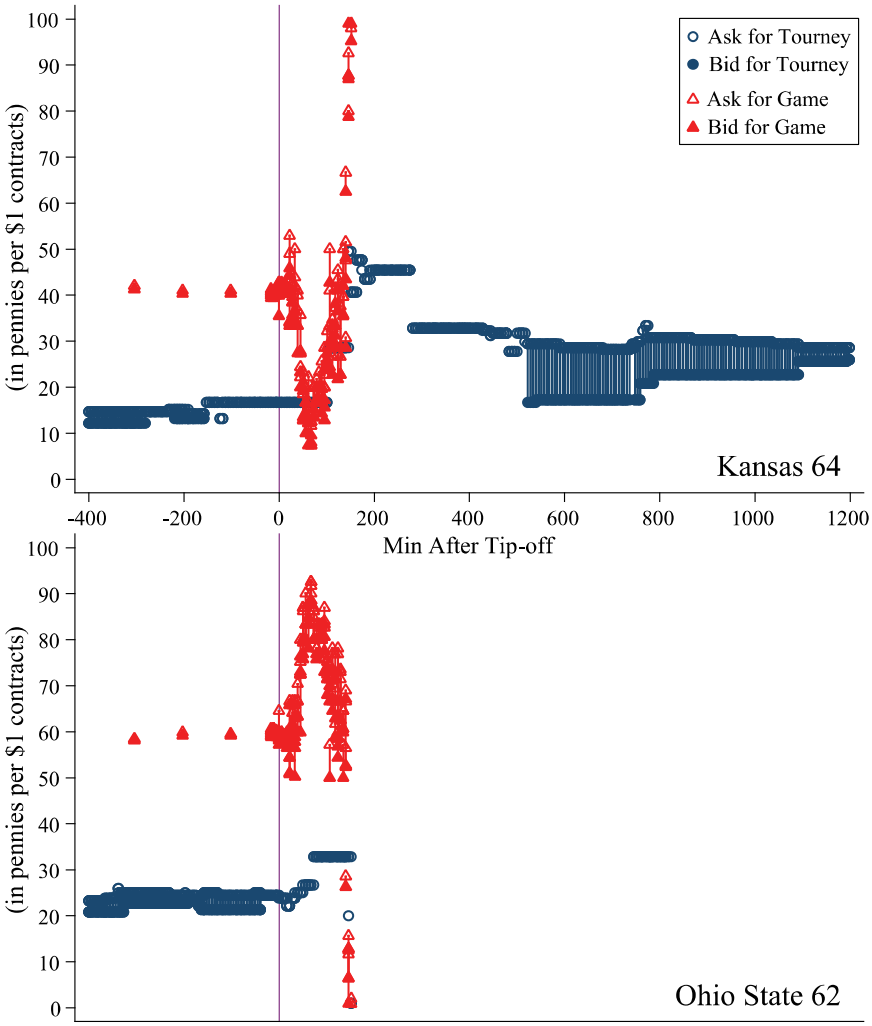


Figure 7: Kansas and Ohio State's contracts for winning their semifinal and final games

A subtle inefficiency occurs with the imbalance in the bid and ask spread; the sum of asks is consistently further from $1 than the sum of all bids. For example, we sampled the contracts for the winning party in the 2012 election every day at noon through from January 1, 2012 through September 30, 2012 and the sum of all bids was further from $1 100 times relative to 153 times for the sum of all asks. This imbalance is systematic and especially acute in times of rapid trading. For example, we captured 159 in-game snapshots for the Kansas and Ohio State game shown in Figure 7 and the sum of the asks is further $1 92 times.

Betfair is consistently lagging behind Intrade in between-market price misalignments. Using the same 10 election noted about, the five biggest primary contests and the five biggest general candidate contracts, we ran a simple set of regression: $P_{at} = \propto + \beta_1 P_{at-1} + \beta_2 P_{at-2} + \beta_3 P_{at-3} + \gamma_1 P_{bt-1} + \gamma_2 P_{bt-2} + \gamma_3 P_{bt-3}$, where P_{at} is the price in market "a" at time "t". We used a lag of 12 hours and ran this regression for many variations of the lag, but the results are all strikingly the same. Table 2 shows that Intrade's first lag has a huge correlation with Betfair's price, but Betfair has a small correlation with Intrade's price.

	Betfair	Intrade
Betfair, 1 lag	0.422* (0.024)	0.078* (0.018)
Betfair, 2 lag	0.288* (0.025)	0.061* (0.019)
Betfair, 3 lag	0.077* (0.023)	-0.101* (0.075)
Intrade, 1 lag	0.638* (0.033)	1.076* (0.025)
Intrade, 2 lag	-0.084 (0.047)	0.014 (0.036)
Intrade, 3 lag	-0.347* (0.035)	-0.129* (0.027)

Table 2: Lagged Betfair and Intrade on Betfair and Intrade
Notes: there are 2,175 observations

These inefficacies help explain the within-market price misalignment we catalog in this paper. First, since users are unable to accurately work in related markets concurrently, they triage contracts that are more secondary, whether they occur later or have less real-time information at that point in time. Much of the price misalignments described above occurs during times of rapid information, like the hours after the polls closed in a primary, as shown in Figures 3 and 5; the misalignments happen because focus is temporary dropped on secondary or tertiary related contracts. Second, traders focus on the bid pricing, more than the ask pricing, because it is harder to think in terms of sales price. Thus, the average of the bid/ask may not be the most efficient price in all contracts and if the ask is moving a little more arbitrarily the midpoint will show inefficient volatility. These two inefficiencies help explain the volatility and occasionally suspect relationships between conditional contracts shown in Figure 6.

This is a satisfying explanation for within-market price misalignment, insofar it is reasonable that the limits of human computation and multiple screens restrict the ability of people keep too many contracts consistent at any time and the unique nature of Intrade and

political market make it inefficient to pay the pay the fixed costs of overcoming these inefficiencies with customized programs.

For between-market price misalignment, one reason could be that some markets are leading other markets, with a meaningful delay in movement for the trailing market; yet, this is an unsatisfying explanation for the price misalignments, because the lagging market could close the gap instantaneously (or within seconds).The information, in the form of the current price, is readily available to traders in both markets.

There are two plausible explanations for the consistency of between-market net positive investment opportunities. First, Intrade operates with US dollars and is geared towards users in the United States and Betfair operates with British pounds and is geared towards users in Europe. It is possible that persistent informational differences occur between the two geographic locations or, more meaningful, persistent geographical biases. Second, the investment possibly falls into an awkward mid-size spot. It is likely that between $30,000 to $50,000 total can be earned net, with risk-neutralities, by a large investor. A smaller investor would face higher costs and more risk. It is possible that that size is just the right size to be too large for individual investors and too small for institutional investors.

III. Designing Better Prediction Markets

Industry wide, from the Iowa Electronic Market [Berg et al. 2008] to the Chicago Board Options Exchange, from Las Vegas bookmakers to the Kentucky Derby racetrack, related outcomes are sold as independent instruments with their own order flow and processing. Betfair's Kansas-Ohio State market in Figure 7 is a good example. The two outcomes are mutually exclusive and exhaustive: buying Kansas is equivalent to selling Ohio State. Running separate auctions for both outcomes is redundant. Intrade's presidential election market (Figure 5) and candidate ranking markets (Figure 5) have more than two outcomes, yet the argument against operating each outcome independently still applies, perhaps even more forcefully. There are four reasons.

1. Splitting up a market can hurt liquidity. In a split market, there are effectively two ways to do everything (e.g., buying the Democratic candidate equals selling the Republican and third party candidates), so traders may not see the best price for what they want to do, and orders may not fill at the best price available. There may even be orders that together constitute an agreeable trade, yet are stuck waiting in separate queues.
2. Splitting the market limits expressiveness. For example, a natural prediction, common at the racetrack, is that a candidate will "place", or finish in first or second place in a race. Expressing this on Intrade requires two transactions, doubling any transaction fees, increasing the implied bid-ask spread, and introducing an execution risk that prices will shift in the interim. (Conversely, you can't directly bet on a horse to finish in exactly second place at the racetrack.) A common fix is to open yet another independent market in each popular derivative; however this limits choice and exacerbates the other three problems listed here. Bundling is especially useful with interval bets. For example, to predict that a stock will fall within a certain range at a future date requires four options trades, a so-called butterfly spread. When outcomes are disjoint, an interval bet may require dozens of trades to acquire all outcomes in the interval. Moreover, traders must sum the intervening prices manually to compute a price quote.
3. A split market may slow information propagation. Price changes in one outcome do not directly affect prices of other outcomes; it's left to arbitrageurs to propagate logical implications.
4. A naïve implementation of a split market may limit traders' leverage, forcing them set aside more money than necessary to complete a set of trades. For example, on the Iowa Electronic Market, short selling one share at $0.99 requires that you have $1 in your account, even though the most you could possibly lose in this transaction is $0.01. The reason is that to short sell on IEM you must first buy the bundle of all outcomes for $1 and then sell off the outcome that you don't want.

The solution is to treat multiple disjoint outcomes holistically rather than separately. The natural generalization of the continuous double auction to multiple outcomes is to use linear

programming, as several authors have noted. The mechanism has been called combined value trading [Bossaerts et al. 2002], a pari-mutuel call market [Baron and Lange 2005, Lange and Economides 2005, Peters et al. 2006], and a combinatorial call market [Fortnow et al. 2004].

The underlying principle is relatively straightforward. Let Ω be a set of disjoint exhaustive future outcomes, say all 538 possible Electoral College votes for the Democratic candidate. For each order O, traders specify a price p_O, a quantity q_O, and an event E_O representing a bundle of outcomes $\omega \in \Omega$, for example E_O= "Democrat to win between 270 and 330 electoral votes". Each order is also associated with a decision variable x_O that ranges between 0 and 1, encoding the fraction of the order that the auctioneer can accept. There is one constraint per outcome ω of the form $\sum_O x_O q_O (1_{\omega \in E_O} - p_O) \leq 0$, where $1_{\omega \in O}$ is the indicator function that equals 1 if E_O contains the outcome ω (that is, the event is true and the order pays off in outcome ω). The constraints ensure that the auctioneer never loses money across all outcomes. A natural objective function is to maximize the fill fraction, though other objectives (e.g., maximize minimum profit) make sense depending on the auctioneer's goal. Once the program is set up, the auctioneer solves for the x_O variables to determine which orders to accept in full ($x_O = 1$), which to accept partially ($0 < x_O < 1$), and which to reject ($x_O = 0$). The program can be solved either in batch mode after waiting to collect a number of orders (a call market), or in continuous mode immediately as new orders arrive (a generalized CDA). Traders can just as easily bet on single outcomes, negations of outcomes, or bundles of outcomes. Every order goes into the same pool of liquidity no matter how it is phrased. Price quotes are queries to the dual linear program of the form "at what price p_O will this order be accepted in full?" Lange and Economides [2005] and Peters et al. [2006] devise clever ways to make prices unique rather than bid-ask ranges, by injected a small subsidy to seed the market at the onset. Note that, if traders are allowed place all-or-nothing orders (enforcing $x_O \in \{0,1\}$), or more generally allowed to specify any minimum fill constraint, the auction clearing problem becomes NP-hard [Bossaerts et al. 2002, Fortnow et al. 2004].

For reasonable numbers of disjoint outcomes, say 538, using linear programming is fast, reliable, and well understood. We see almost no disadvantage to using linear programming rather than splitting outcomes into independent markets. Yet it's rarely done in practice. The only example we know of is the now defunct economic derivatives markets run by Longitude, Goldman Sachs, and Deutsche Bank [Baron and Lange, 2005].

When the number of outcomes grows too massive, for example all 2^{51} or 2 quadrillion possible state-by-state election outcomes, an explicit linear program becomes intractable. In this case, limiting the expressiveness of bids (i.e., restricting what bundles are allowed) can recover tractable algorithms [Agrawal et al. 2007, Chen et al. 2008a, Chen et al. 2008b, Guo and Pennock 2009, Pennock and Xia 2011]. Alternatively, approximation schemes are possible, both stochastic [Chen et al. 2008b] and deterministic [Dudik et al. 2012].

Standard market interfaces create and compound inefficiencies that wizard style market interfaces can correct. Wizard interfaces gather expectations and convert them into efficient purchases. [Tescher and Rothschild, 2012] and other literature on wizards show the advantage of these interfaces can be four fold.

1. They lower the barrier of entry by allowing people to provide information without learning the ins and out of trading in a particular market or any market. Markets currently operate with such different interfaces, see Figure 2, and underlying systems that the costs can be high to both invest and operate in both. Wizards can create uniform environments for traders where they can input their expectations, in ways designed to make to be efficient for both lay and expert traders.

2. Traders can enter multiple markets with just one expectation, raising the consistency and liquidity of the overall prediction market. First, the purchases would be internally consistent to the users' expectation. Second, the wizard helps the user operate in lower liquidity markets where the trader may not otherwise bother investigating.

3. They gather massively more data, including the data in the shadow order book, getting the subjective expectations of those who invest and those who do not invest. In liquid

markets traders are spending a lot of time and effort to create continuously updated expectations of the outcomes. Yet, they rarely provide this information to the market. A wizard invites the trader to continuously provide their expectations. This information can be critical to understanding the efficiency of markets and provide better estimations of the outcomes that we design prediction markets to test.

4. They help reduce biases, inherent to market purchases, which may not occur in carefully crafted wizards.

IV. Discussion

Logically related contracts in prediction markets can have price misalignments and a non-negligible net-profit can result in closing these price misalignments. Identical contracts on different exchanges can have differences representing between 1 and 5 percent net earnings; these are common and can persist for months, even in the face of high liquidity. Observing the trading of almost $3,000 of contracts in a randomized trial, we demonstrate a significant shadow order book that indicates that the total possibility opportunity may be several time to a magnitude more than simply closing the order book. Prices on one exchange have significant correlation with 12-hour lagged prices on a second exchange, but this does not explain the persistence. Two possible explanations are informational difference and/or biases between markets and the size of the opportunities, which are more expensive and risky for small investors, and too small for institutional investors.

Within-market price misalignment, both on mutually exclusive and conditionally related contracts, occurs due to several inefficiencies of traders. High levels of activity and information on some contracts cause confusion on the related secondary contracts; traders unnecessarily withdraw orders or respond too slowly to changes in the primary contract. Further, there is a consistent asymmetry between buying and selling across many exchanges, leaving the average return for selling (which is cognitively more complex as implemented by the exchanges) higher than for buying. Both of these inefficiencies lead to short-term price misalignment and extra noise in the relationship between contracts.

Overall, the markets studied function well considering the sometimes complex and subtle relationships among contracts. Yet, prediction markets can be designed better, moving the burden of finding and fixing logical contradictions into the exchange, making buying and selling symmetric, and providing trading wizards, thus freeing traders to focus on providing meaningful information in the form they find most natural. This would eliminate these within-market price misalignments, reduce these between-market price misalignments and the markets would provide more useful information to both researchers and traders. It would also bring liquidity to contracts that currently lie fallow.

While we can determine that the shadow order book is large, we cannot give a concrete amount of the shadow market. It will vary considerably based on volume, prices, and timing. Further research will help create a more universal understanding of its size.

References

AGRAWAL, S., WANG, Z., AND YE, Y. 2008. Parimutuel betting on permutations. In *International Workshop on Internet and Network Economics*. 126–137.

BARON, K. AND LANGE, L. 2005. *Parimutuel Applications In Finance: New Markets for New Risks*. Palgrave Macmillan, New York, NY, USA.

BERG, J., FORSYTHE, R., NELSON, F.D., AND RIETZ, T.A. 2008. Results from a dozen years of election futures markets research. In *The Handbook of Experimental Economics Results,* Eds. PLOTT, C.R. and SMITH, V.L., Elsevier Science, Amsterdam.

BERG, J. AND RIETZ, T.A. 2012. Longshots, overconfidence and efficiency on the Iowa Electronic Markets. Working Paper. http://www.biz.uiowa.edu/faculty/trietz/papers/Longshots.pdf

BOSSAERTS, P., FINE, L., AND LEDYARD, J. 2002. Inducing liquidity in thin financial markets through combined-value trading mechanisms. *European Economic Review* 46(9): 1671–1695.

CHEN, Y., FORTNOW, L., LAMBERT, N., PENNOCK, D. M., AND WORTMAN, J. 2008a. Complexity of combinatorial market makers. In *ACM Conference on Electronic Commerce*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 190–199.

CHEN, Y., FORTNOW, L., NIKOLOVA, E., AND PENNOCK, D. M. 2007. Betting on permutations. In *ACM Conference on Electronic Commerce*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 326–335.

CHEN, Y., GOEL, S., AND PENNOCK, D. M. 2008b. Pricing combinatorial markets for tournaments. In *ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 305–314.

DUDIK, M., LAHAIE, S., PENNOCK, D. M. 2012. A tractable combinatorial market maker using constraint generation. In *ACM Conference on Electronic Commerce*. ACM, New York, NY, USA.

FORTNOW, L., KILIAN, J., PENNOCK, D. M., AND WELLMAN, M. P. 2004. Betting Boolean-style: A framework for trading in securities based on logical formulas. *Decision Support Systems* 39(1): 87–104.

GRUCA, T., BERG, J.E., AND CIPRIANO, M. 2007. Public information bias and prediction market accuracy. *Journal of Prediction Markets*, 1(3): 219–231.

GUO, M. AND PENNOCK, D. M. 2009. Combinatorial prediction markets for event hierarchies. In *International Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems*. International Foundation for Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems, Richland, SC, 201–208.

LANGE, J. AND ECONOMIDES, N. 2005. A parimutuel market microstructure for contingent claims trading. *European Financial Management* 11(1): 25–49.

OLIVEN, K. AND RIETZ, T.A. 2004. Suckers are born but markets are made: Individual rationality, arbitrage, and market efficiency on an electronic futures market. *Management Science* 50 (3): 336–351.

PENNOCK, D. M. AND XIA, L. 2011. Price updating in combinatorial prediction markets with Bayesian networks. In *Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*. 581–588.

PETERS, M., SO, A.M-C., AND YE, Y. 2006. A convex parimutuel formulation for contingent claim markets. In *ACM Conference on Electronic Commerce*. ACM, New York, NY, USA.

RHODE, P. AND STRUMPF, K. 2004. Historical presidential betting markets. *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 18(2): 127-142.

RHODE, P. AND STRUMPF, K. 2008. Manipulating political stock markets: A field experiment and a century of observational data. Working Paper.
http://www.unc.edu/~cigar/papers/ManipIHT_June2008(KS).pdf

STRUMPF, K. 2003. Illegal sports bookmakers. Working Paper.
http://www.unc.edu/~cigar/papers/Bookie4b.pdf

TESCHNER, F. AND ROTHSCHILD, D. 2003. Simplifying Market Access: a New Confidence-Based Interface. *The Journal of Prediction Markets*, forthcoming.

WONG, S. 2001. *Sharp Sports Betting*. Pi Yi Press, La Jolla, CA, USA.