

Intelligent Agents for Auction-based Federated Learning: A Survey

Xiaoli Tang¹, Han Yu¹, Xiaoxiao Li² and Sarit Kraus^{1,3}

¹College of Computing and Data Science, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

²Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, The University of British Columbia, Canada

³Department of Computer Science, Bar-Ilan University, Israel

{xiaoli001, han.yu}@ntu.edu.sg, xiaoxiao.li@ece.ubc.ca, sarit@cs.biu.ac.il

Abstract

Auction-based federated learning (AFL) is an important emerging category of FL incentive mechanism design, due to its ability to fairly and efficiently motivate high-quality data owners to join data consumers' (i.e., servers') FL training tasks. To enhance the efficiency in AFL decision support for stakeholders (i.e., data consumers, data owners, and the auctioneer), intelligent agent-based techniques have emerged. However, due to the highly interdisciplinary nature of this field and the lack of a comprehensive survey providing an accessible perspective, it is a challenge for researchers to enter and contribute to this field. This paper bridges this important gap by providing a first-of-its-kind survey on the Intelligent Agents for AFL (IA-AFL) literature. We propose a unique multi-tiered taxonomy that organises existing IA-AFL works according to 1) the stakeholders served, 2) the auction mechanism adopted, and 3) the goals of the agents, to provide readers with a multi-perspective view into this field. In addition, we analyse the limitations of existing approaches, summarise the commonly adopted performance evaluation metrics, and discuss promising future directions leading towards effective and efficient stakeholder-oriented decision support in IA-AFL ecosystems.

1 Introduction

Federated Learning (FL) is a collaborative machine learning (ML) paradigm that is able to train useful models while respecting user privacy and data confidentiality [Yang *et al.*, 2019; Konečný *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2021]. FL has gained significant attention from academia [Yang *et al.*, 2019] and industry [Liu and others, 2020; Liu and others, 2022a] alike, leading to a diverse range of techniques [Kairouz *et al.*, 2021]. In FL, there are two types of participants: *data consumers* (DCs, who often perform the role of FL servers), overseeing the distribution and aggregation of global FL models, and *data owners* (DOs, who often play the role of FL clients), responsible for training the FL model using their local data. FL follows a distributed approach where each DO trains a local model on its private dataset, and shares it

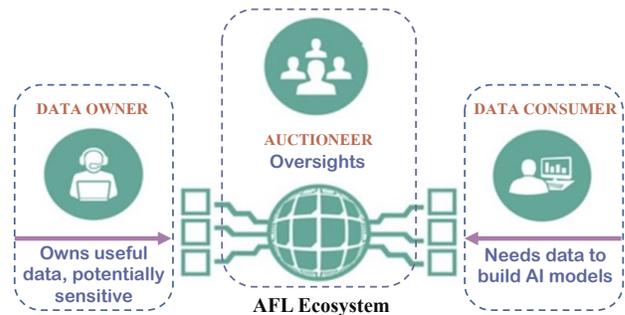


Figure 1: An overview of the AFL ecosystem.

with the corresponding DC. The DC then aggregates the received local models following an aggregation algorithm (e.g., FedAvg [McMahan and others, 2017]) to obtain the global model, which is then distributed back to the DOs for further training until convergence criteria are met. This design ensures that private local data are not exposed to any party other than the original owner, thus reducing privacy risk.

Despite these advantages, existing FL works generally assume that all DOs agree to participate in the FL training process when requested [Thi Le and others, 2021]. However, in practice, DOs are self-interested entities who consider a complex set of factors (e.g., costs, potential risks of privacy exposure, expected utility gains) before deciding to join an FL task. This has motivated the study of FL incentive mechanisms [Khan and others, 2020], which aims to develop effective mechanisms that align the interests of DOs with the goals of DCs. They play a crucial role in encouraging DOs to actively participate in FL and make valuable contributions, ultimately leading to improved performance and broader adoption of FL in real-world applications.

Auction-based approaches have gained significant attention recently as an effective way to design FL incentive mechanisms. They offer a promising approach to motivating DOs to participate in FL in a fair and efficient manner. Under the typical auction-based FL (AFL) setting¹, three key stakeholders are involved: 1) DCs, 2) DOs, and 3) an auctioneer (as illustrated in Figure 1). The auctioneer plays a crucial role

¹A possible example open AFL marketplace can be the Hierarchical Auctioning in Crowd-based Federated Learning system [Gao *et al.*, 2023]: <https://hacfl.federated-learning.org/>.

69 in coordinating the auction process, while DOs and DCs provide the auctioneer with their available data resources and bid values, respectively. The auction process as well as the entire AFL ecosystem center around the decision-making process of each stakeholder. The decisions made by each stakeholder impact the outcomes of AFL. To deal with the complexity, dynamism and personal nature of the context and the decision-making process, intelligent agents are often adopted to provide these stakeholders with AFL decision support, thereby inspiring the field of Intelligent Agents for AFL (IA-AFL).

79 IA-AFL is highly interdisciplinary in nature. It requires expertise from machine learning, multi-agent systems, game theory and auction theory, etc. This makes it challenging for researchers new to the field to grasp the latest developments. Currently, there is no survey paper on this important and rapidly developing field. To bridge this gap, we conduct a comprehensive survey of research works focusing on IA-AFL in this paper.² We analyse the AFL ecosystem in detail, with a focus on the diverse stakeholders involved and their decision-making priorities. Based on this analysis, we propose a unique multi-tiered taxonomy of IA-AFL that organises existing works according to 1) the stakeholders served, 2) the auction mechanism adopted, and 3) the goals of the agents to provide readers with a multi-perspective view into this field. In addition, we analyse the limitations of existing approaches, summarise the commonly adopted performance evaluation metrics, and discuss promising future directions towards effective and efficient stakeholder-oriented decision support in IA-AFL ecosystems.

98 2 Preliminaries

99 2.1 A Typical AFL Ecosystem

100 As shown in Fig. 1, a typical AFL ecosystem involves three primary stakeholders [Tang and Yu, 2023c]: 1) DOs, who act as the sellers possessing potentially sensitive but valuable data and training resources; 2) DCs, who act as buyers of such data and training resources to build ML models; and 3) an auctioneer, overseeing the matching of DOs with DCs and providing essential governance oversight for the ecosystem.

107 DCs submit their bidding profiles (including the bidding prices and their FL tasks) to the auctioneer. DOs submit their asking profiles (including the FL tasks they are able to join and their asking prices) to the auctioneer. The auctioneer determines the winners, and the corresponding market prices based on the submitted asking profiles and the bidding profiles under a predefined auction mechanism, and informs the winners. The winning DCs then pay the DOs. Through such an auction process, each DC recruits DOs to join its FL task. Afterward, each DC orchestrates the FL model training process with its recruited DOs following an adopted FL protocol.

118 2.2 AFL Stakeholder Concerns

119 In the AFL ecosystem, the stakeholders play distinct roles with different interests and concerns.

²Although some of the papers included in this survey do not explicitly mention agents, their focus on providing decision support for stakeholders in AFL reflects their potential as useful building blocks for realizing an agent-based AFL system.

The **auctioneer's** role is pivotal, overseeing the auction process and facilitating information flow between participating DOs and DCs. Its main focus is to maintain the sustainable operation of the AFL ecosystem by attracting and retaining more participants, optimizing key performance indicators for the entire ecosystem, and providing governance oversight.

Data consumers, acting as buyers in the auction market, are primarily concerned with effective selection or bidding for DOs to meet their key performance indicators (KPIs), while staying within budget constraints.

Data owners, acting as sellers in the auction market, prioritize maximizing their monetary rewards. They are also keen on safeguarding data privacy by optimizing data resource allocation and the setting of reserve prices (i.e., the minimum acceptable price for selling the corresponding data resources).

136 2.3 Terminology

For ease of understanding, we provide a brief overview of key terminology adopted by the AFL field:

Commodity / data resources: In AFL, the term commodity refers to the object being exchanged between DCs and DOs, denoting a specific value for buying or selling. It can represent a unit of data (e.g., a training sample), communication bandwidth committed by a DO, or a unit of compute resource. In this paper, we use the terms data resources and commodity interchangeably unless a specific distinction is necessary.

Valuation: Valuation in AFL involves the assessment of the monetary value of data resources. Different DCs and DOs may assign value to data resources differently based on their individual preferences. Valuation can be either private, undisclosed to others, or public.

Utility: For DCs, utility is defined as the difference between their valuation of the auctioned data resources and the eventual payment made for those resources. For DOs, utility is defined as the difference between the total payments received from DCs and the costs incurred for the data resources, including communication and computation costs.

Social welfare (SW): SW is the sum of utilities for some or all participants in an AFL ecosystem. It provides a measure of the collective benefit derived from all transactions.

161 2.4 Types of Auction

AFL ecosystems can adopt various auction mechanisms based on their specific application scenarios [Qiu and others, 2022], including 1) double auction, 2) combinatorial auction, 3) reverse auction, and 4) forward auction. Double auctions [Friedman, 2018] accommodate multiple DOs and DCs, with both sides submitting asks and bids to the auctioneer. Combinatorial auctions [De Vries and Vohra, 2003] are effective when DCs bid for data resource bundles, ideal for acquiring complementary data types. Reverse auctions [Parsons and others, 2011] involve DOs competing for FL tasks, while forward auctions involve DCs competing for data resources.

Winner determination and pricing methods in AFL auctions fall into three categories [Tu and others, 2022]: 1) first-price sealed-bid (FPSB), 2) second-price sealed-bid (SPSB), and 3) Vickrey Clarke-Groves (VCG). Under FPSB, the highest bidder wins the auction and pays the bid price. The sim-

178 plicity of FPSB might lead to inefficiencies and overpayment.
 179 Under SPSB, the highest bidder wins the auction, but pays
 180 the second-highest bid price. SPSB encourages truthful bid-
 181 ding to reveal true item valuation. Under VCG, winners are
 182 determined by maximizing the total benefit, considering ex-
 183 ternalities. Payments are determined based on the value con-
 184 tributed by other bidders for efficient and accurate price dis-
 185 covery [Vickrey, 1961].

186 3 The Proposed IA-AFL Taxonomy

187 Based on the stakeholders, the types of auctions involved
 188 in AFL and their respective goals, we propose a taxonomy
 189 for the IA-AFL literature as shown in Figure 2. Specifi-
 190 cally, it first separates IA-AFL literature into data consumer-
 191 oriented, data owner-oriented, and auctioneer-oriented meth-
 192 ods. Since all auction mechanisms introduced in the last sec-
 193 tion can be adopted by the AFL process, we further clas-
 194 sify IA-AFL works based on their respective adopted auction
 195 mechanisms. Then, as stakeholders can have different goals,
 196 we further divide IA-AFL works based on their objectives.
 197 This hierarchical taxonomy provides a clear overview of the
 198 current IA-AFL landscape.

199 3.1 Intelligent Agents for Data Consumers

200 Based on the adopted auction mechanism, DC-oriented
 201 IA-AFL works can be broadly categorized into two distinct
 202 groups: 1) those designed for reverse auctions, and 2) those
 203 designed for forward auctions. These agents are instrumental
 204 in facilitating strategic decision-making for DCs, ensuring ef-
 205 fective participation in the AFL market while maximizing key
 206 performance indicators (KPIs) derived from the collaborative
 207 FL model training process.

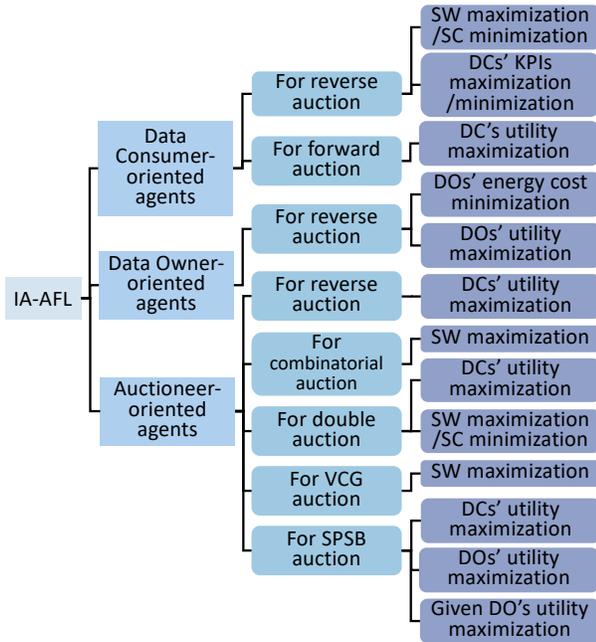


Figure 2: The IA-AFL taxonomy. DC, DO, SW and SC denote data consumer, data owner, social welfare and social cost, respectively.

208 For Reverse Auction

209 Under reverse auction, existing methods assume that there is
 210 only one DC and multiple DOs in the AFL marketplace. The
 211 intelligent agent for the DC plays a crucial role in selecting
 212 DOs. It makes decisions by evaluating DOs' asking profiles,
 213 assessing their potential contributions to the model, and align-
 214 ing with the DC's objectives. Existing IA-AFL works for
 215 DCs under reverse auction can be broadly classified into two
 216 categories based on their designed objectives: 1) social wel-
 217 fare / social cost optimization approaches, and 2) DC KPI
 218 optimization approaches.

219 **Social welfare / social cost optimization:** To optimize the
 220 social welfare objective, [Jiao and others, 2020] first groups
 221 DOs based on Earth Mover's Distances (EMD) [Zhao and
 222 others, 2018]. The DC then greedily selects DOs from each
 223 group, determining payments based on marginal virtual so-
 224 cial welfare density. To enhance social welfare, the authors
 225 incorporate a graph neural network to manage relationships
 226 among DOs, and use deep reinforcement learning to deter-
 227 mine the winning DOs and their payments. In [Le and others,
 228 2020], the workflow is similar, with a key distinction in the
 229 formulation of the DO selection process as a social cost min-
 230 imization problem.

231 However, these works primarily focus on DO selection
 232 and payment determination over a single FL communication
 233 round. In [Zhou *et al.*, 2021], the DC is assisted in selecting
 234 and paying DOs for different FL communication rounds. The
 235 work decomposes the social cost minimization problem into
 236 a series of winner determination problems (WDPs) based on
 237 the number of global FL iterations. Each WDP is solved us-
 238 ing a greedy algorithm to determine winning DOs, and a pay-
 239 ment algorithm for computing remuneration to the winners.
 240 In [Yuan and others, 2021], the focus is on social cost min-
 241 imization over the long run. The proposed FLORA method
 242 utilizes multiple polynomial-time online algorithms, includ-
 243 ing a fractional online algorithm and a randomized rounding
 244 algorithm, to select winning DOs and control the training ac-
 245 curacy of the global FL model. It also includes a payment
 246 algorithm to assist the DC in decision-making regarding DO
 247 selection and payment determination.

248 Different from the above two methods, which are designed
 249 for social cost minimization, [Wu and others, 2023] focuses
 250 on social welfare maximization. To achieve this goal, the pro-
 251 posed method follows deep reinforcement learning to select
 252 DOs and determine their payments under the VCG auction.

253 **Data consumer KPI optimization:** In [Fan *et al.*, 2020],
 254 the proposed method DQDRA maximizes the DC's valua-
 255 tion by determining winning DOs and the corresponding pay-
 256 ments with a monotone greedy algorithm after receiving ask-
 257 ing profiles from all DOs. Unlike DQDRA, which requires
 258 knowledge about the global distribution of all data for win-
 259 ning DO determination, RRAFL proposed in [Zhang *et al.*,
 260 2021] leverages blockchain and reputation mechanisms in-
 261 stead. Winning DOs are selected based on their respective
 262 reputation, which are evaluated through historical contribu-
 263 tions to the global FL model stored on the blockchain. Ex-
 264 panding on this, [Zhang *et al.*, 2022a] enhances RRAFL
 265 by introducing a novel contribution evaluation method us-
 266 ing weighted samples. This adds nuance to the evalua-

tion process, potentially offering a more sophisticated understanding of individual DOs' contributions. In [Zhang *et al.*, 2022b], RRAFL is extended by segmenting FL training tasks into multiple time steps based on global iterations, allowing adaptation to online learning applications. In [Zeng *et al.*, 2020], the proposed method FMORE helps the DC select the top K DOs with the highest score using the Lagrange multiplier method. [Batool *et al.*, 2022; Batool *et al.*, 2023] follow a similar method by incorporating blockchains [Kang and others, 2020; Kim *et al.*, 2019] and contract theory [Kang and others, 2019] to select DOs.

The aforementioned reputation-based DO selection methods do not explicitly consider the quality of the DOs, which is crucial for FL model performance. To address this limitation, [Deng and others, 2021] proposed FAIR, which integrates a quality-aware model aggregation algorithm with the reverse auction mechanism. FAIR determines winning DOs using a greedy algorithm based on Myerson's theorem [Myerson, 1998] to maximize the DC's valuation.

Unlike methods determining winning DOs and the corresponding payments in one communication round with a given budget, [Yang and others, 2023; Tan *et al.*, 2023; Tan and Yu, 2023] study how to allocate the DC's budget across multiple global FL communication rounds. [Yang and others, 2023] proposed BARA, an online reward budget allocation algorithm based on Bayesian optimization. Considering the urgency of recruitment, [Tan *et al.*, 2023; Tan and Yu, 2023] help the DC determine time-averaged optimal budget allocation for DOs.

Limitations: Existing works in this area often operate under the assumption of a monopolistic AFL market, where multiple DOs vie to join the FL training tasks of a single DC. However, this assumption diverges from the reality of practical AFL marketplaces, where numerous DCs may compete to attract multiple DOs for their respective FL training tasks.

For Forward Auction

Works in this field focus on maximizing the utility of a given DC within an AFL marketplace, which often involves multiple DCs. In [Tang and Yu, 2023c], a utility-maximizing bidding strategy, FedBidder, is designed for the DCs. It leverages various auction-related insights (e.g., DOs' data distributions, suitability to the task, DCs' bidding success probabilities, and budget constraints). The study emphasizes the crucial roles played by the estimation of DOs' utility and the appropriate winning function design in determining the optimal bidding function. To solve the optimal bidding function effectively, a utility estimation algorithm was proposed with two representative winning functions introduced, deriving two forms of optimal bidding functions for the DCs.

However, this approach overlooks the intricate relationships among DCs, which can be simultaneously competitive and cooperative. To address this issue, researchers have explored incorporating more than one agent for each DC. In [Tang and Yu, 2023a], the AFL ecosystem is modeled as a multi-agent system to guide DCs in strategically bidding towards an equilibrium with desirable overall system characteristics. The proposed approach, MARL-AFL, assigns two agents to each DC: 1) a bidding agent for determining bid

prices, and 2) a bar agent for setting the bidding lower bound for the corresponding bidding agent. The bar agent is introduced to address potential collusive behaviors among bidding agents, such as bidding with an extremely low bid price, which can be detrimental to the health of the entire ecosystem. Both the bidding agents and the bar agents are designed based on deep Q-networks (DQN) [Mnih and others, 2015].

In [Tang and Yu, 2023b], MultiBOS-AFL is proposed to assist the DC in bidding for DOs in competitive AFL marketplaces. Unlike FedBidder and MARL-AFL, which assume that the entire team of DOs required for an FL task must be assembled before training can commence, MultiBOS-AFL helps the DC bid for DOs gradually over multiple FL model training sessions. To achieve this goal, each DC is assigned two agents: one for optimizing inter-session budget pacing, and the other for optimizing intra-session bidding.

Limitations: In this area, existing studies often assume that DOs arrive sequentially before the auction begins. However, real-world scenarios frequently involve DOs arriving in diverse orders, either before or during FL training tasks. The current body of research lacks robust solutions to navigating these dynamic and evolving situations effectively.

3.2 Intelligent Agents for Data Owners

In AFL, DOs function as the sellers, offering their valuable data resources to DCs. This transaction leads them to eventually become participants in the FL training processes initiated by various DCs, with the prospect of receiving monetary rewards in return. Consequently, intelligent agents tailored for DOs play a crucial role in providing guidance on strategic decision-making related to the allocation of their data resources and determining the asking profiles for these resources. Their final objective is to optimize the monetary profits derived from their involvement in AFL.

For Reverse Auction

Data owner energy cost minimization: In [Thi Le and others, 2021], the data resource trading process between a data consumer and multiple data owners is modeled as a reverse auction. Upon receiving FL training task profiles from the data consumer, which include the maximum tolerable time for FL training, each data owner optimizes asking profiles. These profiles, encompassing parameters like uplink transmission power, local accuracy level, and CPU cycle frequency, are fine-tuned iteratively to minimize energy costs.

Data owner utility maximization: In [Lu *et al.*, 2023], a within-cluster DO selection scheme was proposed for reverse auction to address the problem of uneven data resource consumption in a given cluster. DOs determine bid prices by maximizing their total utility. Similarly, [Le and others, 2020] also focuses on maximizing DO utility. However, unlike [Lu *et al.*, 2023] which solves the utility maximization problem to obtain bid prices, [Le and others, 2020] aims to derive asking profiles including CPU cycle frequency, uplink transmission power and training costs, in order to maximize utility. In [Zeng *et al.*, 2020], when a DO receives an FL training task and a scoring function from the DC, the proposed method assists it in deciding whether to bid based on its available data resources. If the DO chooses to bid, decisions

382 regarding the number of resources to allocate and the corre-
383 sponding charges to the DC are made using Euler’s method.
384 **Limitations:** To the best of our knowledge, only these four
385 studies currently address the issue of agent-based DO deci-
386 sion support. However, each of these works only concen-
387 trates on a single aspect of a DO’s concerns. In practice, each
388 decision made by a DO should encompass multiple facets si-
389 multaneously to meet its KPIs. Focusing solely on one aspect
390 may lead to sub-optimal solutions.

391 3.3 Intelligent Agents for the Auctioneer

392 In an AFL ecosystem, the auctioneer serves as the coordi-
393 nator and administrator, overseeing the flow of information
394 between DOs and DCs, and facilitating the trading processes.
395 Therefore, intelligent agents designed for the auctioneer are
396 pivotal in offering strategic guidance for matching DOs and
397 DCs. The ultimate goal is to optimize the monetary prof-
398 its derived from their engagement within the AFL ecosys-
399 tem. Existing methods in this domain are designed for four
400 main auction mechanisms: 1) reverse auction, 2) combinato-
401 rial auction, 3) double auction, and 4) VCG/SPSB auction.

402 For Reverse Auction

403 **Data consumer utility maximization:** In [Seo and others,
404 2021], the auctioneer, represented by the software-defined
405 network controller, facilitates decision-making between the
406 DC and DOs. It determines the minimum number of global
407 communication rounds required to meet the quality require-
408 ments of the FL model. This decision-making process occurs
409 within the context of a reverse auction-based data trading sys-
410 tem. Similarly, in [Seo and others, 2022], a software-defined
411 network controller serves as the auctioneer, positioned be-
412 tween the DC and DOs. The proposed method in this paper
413 assists the auctioneer in making decisions during the selec-
414 tion of winning DOs. The objective is to maximize the utility
415 of the DC, via a greedy method.

416 **Limitations:** Like the IA-AFL approaches designed for
417 the DC under reverse auction, these methods also operate un-
418 der the assumption of a monopolistic AFL market. This as-
419 sumption might constrain the practical applicability of these
420 methods in real-world scenarios.

421 For Combinatorial Auction

422 **Social welfare maximization:** [Xu and others, 2023] aims
423 to maximize social welfare and protect the utility of the auc-
424 tioneer. The approach involves two main stages: 1) the com-
425 binatorial auction stage, where the platform selects winners
426 who make the total utility of the platform and themselves
427 greater than zero, and 2) the bargaining stage, where win-
428 ners are classified into two categories with different payment
429 methods after completing the training model. The goal is to
430 ensure the utility of the auctioneer remains positive.

431 **Limitations:** [Xu and others, 2023] operates under the
432 premise of a monopoly AFL market, assuming a single plat-
433 form orchestrating the auction processes. While this setting
434 provides a basis for understanding, a critical challenge lies in
435 expanding participation, particularly attracting more DOs to
436 engage in AFL. Enticing a diverse range of participants and
437 optimizing the platform’s functionality under more realistic,
438 competitive scenarios remains an open area for exploration.

For Double Auction

439 Under double auction settings, the auctioneer agent ulti-
440 mately coordinates agents serving DOs and DCs. Therefore,
441 they are treated as auctioneer agents by extension.
442

443 **Data consumer utility maximization:** FEST [Roy and
444 others, 2021] matches DOs and DCs with the goal of maxi-
445 mizing DC utility. This utility is a composite function involv-
446 ing the DC’s valuation for data resources, the DO’s asking
447 price, and the corresponding execution time and reputation
448 value. FEST assist DOs in determining winning candidate
449 DCs using a greedy approach, followed by helping DCs se-
450 lect DOs to maximize their utility.

451 **Social welfare / social cost optimization:** [Mai *et al.*,
452 2022] assists the auctioneer in matching DCs and DOs, with
453 the aim of maximizing social welfare. DOs submit asking
454 profiles, and DCs submit bidding profiles to the auctioneer,

455 which, in turn, uses the Lagrangian function to perform
456 DO-DC matching. In [Wang and others, 2023], the focus is
457 on social cost minimization under double auction. The au-
458 thors formulate a nonlinear mixed-integer program for long-
459 term social cost minimization. They propose an algorithmic
460 approach to generate candidate training schedules and
461 solve the problem using an online primal-dual-based algo-
462 rithm [Buchbinder and others, 2009] with a carefully embed-
463 ded payment design.

464 **Limitations:** Current methods predominantly operate un-
465 der a centralized framework, where a central server contin-
466 uously aggregates global system information and computes
467 optimal decisions for the auctioneer. While the merits of
468 a centralized architecture, such as rapid convergence and
469 global optimality, are evident, they come at the cost of signifi-
470 cant communication and computation overhead, especially in
471 large-scale AFL ecosystems. Whenever there are shifts in the
472 requirements of DCs, the auctioneer must collect extensive
473 information across the entire ecosystem and recompute deci-
474 sions. Moreover, in the event of hardware failures or attacks
475 on the auctioneer, the entire ecosystem can be compromised.

For VCG Auction

476 **Social welfare maximization:** FVCG [Cong and others,
477 2020b] helps the auctioneer determine the amount of accept-
478 able data to maximize its utility, factoring in data quality and
479 privacy cost from DOs. It adopts a composite neural network-
480 based payment function to derive payments for each DO, aim-
481 ing to maximize social welfare and ensure fairness among
482 DOs. Extending FVCG, [Cong and others, 2020a] introduced
483 PVCG, which incorporates a game-theoretical model for the
484 co-creation of virtual goods. PVCG helps the auctioneer
485 determine the acceptance of input resources from each DO
486 based on its asking profile, and imposes penalties if it fails to
487 deliver the claimed resources. The objective is to maximize
488 social welfare and mitigate information asymmetry.

489 **Limitations:** As the number of DOs increases, the need for
490 more effective and efficient models to learn how to compen-
491 sate DOs effectively becomes apparent for both FVCG and
492 PVCG. Furthermore, it is crucial to evaluate the effectiveness
493 of FVCG and PVCG in comparison to other sharing rules,
494 such as Shapley value [Liu and others, 2022b] and labour
495 union [Gollapudi and others, 2017].
496

497 **For SPSB Auction**
498 **Data consumer utility maximization:** In [Xu and oth- 552
499 ers, 2021], a multi-bid auction mechanism is introduced to 553
500 address bandwidth allocation challenges for self-interested 554
501 DCs. The primary objective is to maximize the utility of DCs. 555
502 Under this method, DCs submit bidding profiles specifying 556
503 their requested bandwidth and unit price to the auctioneer.
504 The auctioneer then allocates the bandwidth to DCs based on
505 the market clearing price, and each DC incurs charges accord-
506 ing to the SPSB auction mechanism.

507 **Data owner utility maximization:** In [Lim and others, 561
508 2020], the focus is on multiple DCs engaging in competi- 562
509 tive bidding for data resources from a specific DO. The bids 563
510 from DCs undergo a transformation, and the winning DCs 564
511 are selected, with payments determined using the SPSB auc- 565
512 tion mechanism. The overarching objective is to maximize 566
513 the utility of the DO. [Ng and others, 2020a; Ng and oth- 567
514 ers, 2020b] incorporate Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) as 568
515 wireless relays to enhance communication between DOs and 569
516 DCs. The optimal coalitional structure between UAV coal- 570
517 itions and DO coalitions is determined through the SPSB auc- 571
518 tion, aiming to maximize the utility of the UAV coalitions.

519 **Limitations:** Existing works in this area operate under 572
520 the assumption that a DO can participate in at most one FL 573
521 training task at any given time. In practice, DOs may have 574
522 spare capacities to engage in multiple FL tasks concurrently. 575
523 In such cases, resource allocation strategies should consider 576
524 both the bandwidth and computing resources of the DOs. 577
525 Exploring and adapting auction mechanisms to address the 578
526 complexities arising from DOs' simultaneous involvement in 579
527 multiple FL tasks is an open research question.

528 **4 Evaluation Methodology**

529 To assess IA-AFL methods, a combination of theoretical 582
530 analysis and experimental evaluation is commonly adopted.

531 **4.1 Theoretical Analysis**

532 Given the nature of the auction and the emphasis on incentive 583
533 mechanisms in FL, IA-AFL methods are expected to attain 584
534 certain desirable properties [Zeng and others, 2021; Qiu and 585
535 others, 2022; Ali and others, 2021].

- 536 1. *Budget Balance (BB)*: The budget balance property 586
537 should hold, i.e., the total payments for DOs must not 587
538 surpass the budget allocated by the DCs.
- 539 2. *Collusion Resistant (CR)*: This property imposes that 588
540 no subgroups of participants can achieve higher profits 589
541 through collusion or unethical conduct.
- 542 3. *Pareto Efficiency (PE)*: IA-AFL methods must meet the 590
543 PE requirement when maximizing the social welfare of 591
544 the entire AFL ecosystem.
- 545 4. *Fairness*: This property means that the entire AFL 592
546 ecosystem should achieve a predefined fairness notion, 593
547 such as contribution fairness, regret distribution fairness, 594
548 or expectation fairness [Shi and Yu, 2023].
- 549 5. *Individual Rationality (IR)*: An IA-AFL method is 595
550 deemed IR only if the profits for all participants are non- 596
551 negative.

6. *Incentive Compatibility (IC) / Truthfulness*: Achieving 552
IC/Truthfulness indicates that it is optimal for all partic- 553
ipants to truthfully declare their contributions and cost 554
types. Reporting untruthful information does not yield 555
additional gain. 556

7. *Computational efficiency (CE)*: This property demands 557
that the incorporated agents must guarantee the comple- 558
tion of the auction process and payment within polyno- 559
mial time for operational efficiency in AFL. 560

561 **4.2 Experimental Evaluation Metrics**

562 Experimental evaluation plays a pivotal role in assessing and 563
564 validating the efficacy of IA-AFL methods. It is instrumen- 565
566 tal in gauging the performance of these agents under com- 567
568 plex settings. The following experimental evaluation metrics 569
570 are commonly adopted by existing literature to quantitatively 571
572 measure the effectiveness and impact of IA-AFL:

- 568 1. *Quality-of-Experience (QoE)*. QoE is expressed as the 569
570 ratio between FL task completion time to the deadline of 571
572 the task. It measures the speed at which a DC receives 573
574 service from a DO, providing insights into the respon- 575
576 siveness and efficiency of the IA-AFL method.
- 573 2. *Utility*. It reflects the utility attained by DCs or DOs dur- 574
575 ing the successful execution of FL tasks. A higher value 576
577 indicates greater satisfaction with the received results, 578
579 offering insights into the effectiveness of decisions made 580
581 by the IA-AFL method. It can be expressed in various 582
583 forms (e.g., the averaged form or the summation form).
- 579 3. *Task Completion Ratio*. This metric is expressed as the 580
581 number of successful trades by DCs and is calculated 582
583 as the ratio of the total number of winning DCs to the 584
585 total number of DCs in the AFL marketplace. A higher 586
587 task completion ratio indicates that more FL tasks are 588
589 successfully allocated to DOs, providing a measure of 590
591 the efficiency of the IA-AFL method.
- 586 4. *Payment*. Payment for DOs quantifies the financial com- 587
588 pensation they received for the successful completion of 589
590 FL tasks. This metric reflects the economic incentive 591
592 and compensation provided to DOs, highlighting their 593
594 contributions to the AFL marketplace under the given 595
596 IA-AFL method.
- 592 5. *Social welfare*: Social welfare is a comprehensive metric 593
594 that considers the collective well-being or total utility of 595
596 all participants in the AFL marketplace, including both 597
598 DCs and DOs. It provides a holistic measure of the over- 599
600 all effectiveness and fairness of the AFL ecosystem by 601
602 considering the welfare of all stakeholders.

598 **5 Promising Future Research Directions**

599 Through our survey, it can be observed that AFL is still in its 600
601 early stages of development, with various challenges yet to be 602
603 addressed. This section delves into potential future directions 604
605 for this nascent and interdisciplinary field.

603 **5.1 Dynamic Decision Update**

604 Existing IA-AFL methods are generally static approaches, 605
606 represented by linear or non-linear functions. These functions

606 derive their parameters from historical auction data through
607 heuristic techniques. However, these static methods face a
608 challenge when applied to new auctions, as the dynamics of
609 these auctions may differ significantly from historical data.
610 The inherent dynamism of the AFL market poses a consid-
611 erable obstacle for static bidding methods to achieve desired
612 outcomes in novel auction scenarios consistently.

613 To address this challenge, incorporating dynamic deci-
614 sion updates for both DOs and DCs, in accordance with the
615 principles of demand-supply economics [Nedelec and others,
616 2022], is a promising direction. Such dynamic pricing ap-
617 proaches extend the auctioneer’s role as well. A promising
618 avenue for future exploration involves utilizing deep learn-
619 ing approaches to comprehend and model the behaviors of
620 both DOs and DCs. Integrating these learned behaviors into
621 various decision-making processes holds the potential to sig-
622 nificantly enhance their utilities, adapting to the evolving dy-
623 namics of AFL marketplaces.

624 5.2 Multi-Agent Systems

625 AFL involves diverse stakeholders, each assuming distinct
626 roles and harboring varied concerns. AFL, at its core, con-
627 stitutes a multi-agent system (MAS), where intelligent enti-
628 ties interact dynamically within a complex framework. As
629 illustrated in [Tang and Yu, 2023b], the relationships among
630 DCs add a layer of intricacy, characterized by the simulta-
631 neous existence of both competition and cooperation. More-
632 over, within this ecosystem, the decision-making process of
633 each participant carries direct or indirect repercussions on the
634 choices made by other involved parties. Hence, adopting a
635 MAS perspective to conceptualize AFL to provide a holistic
636 understanding of the intricate interplay among diverse entities
637 is a promising research direction [Kraus and others, 2023].

638 5.3 Preserving Privacy and Improving Security

639 Most existing auction-based mechanisms involve third-party
640 entities, such as edge servers acting as auctioneers to manage
641 each auction process. However, relying on third-party entities
642 raises concerns about security and potential privacy breaches
643 [Tang and Yu, 2022]. To address these challenges, several
644 studies, including [Batoool *et al.*, 2023; Zhang *et al.*, 2021;
645 Batoool *et al.*, 2022], utilize blockchain technology to safe-
646 guard trading information against tampering by malicious en-
647 tities. However, implementing an auction algorithm within a
648 blockchain network necessitates sharing private information
649 among stakeholders, potentially giving rise to privacy con-
650 cerns [Tang and Yu, 2022]. Moreover, in most existing works,
651 DOs participate in the auction process without directly dis-
652 closing their private information, potentially dampening the
653 enthusiasm of DOs. Therefore, a critical challenge arises in
654 ensuring the security and reliability of auction mechanisms,
655 while minimizing the risk of privacy leakage. In addition,
656 it is essential to develop strategies to prevent malicious edge
657 servers from launching attacks on DOs [Lyu *et al.*, 2020].

658 5.4 Online Auction Mechanisms

659 The current paradigm of IA-AFL, rooted in traditional auc-
660 tion methods, predominantly operates in an offline mode.
661 This implies that the initiation of auctions relies on having

662 a sufficient number of available bidders. For instance, in
663 [Zeng *et al.*, 2020], the model aggregator initiates the pro-
664 cess of determining winners once a satisfactory number of
665 bids from DOs is received. In such offline auctions, both the
666 DOs and the DCs may experience prolonged waiting times,
667 even if they do not emerge as the eventual auction winners.
668 This can discourage potential participants from actively en-
669 gaging in the AFL marketplace. In contrast, online auction
670 [Zhang and others, 2020] empowers the auctioneer, DCs and
671 DOs to make real-time decisions, such as selecting winners
672 and determining payments, as soon as a participant joins the
673 auction. Online auctions offer the advantage of overcoming
674 time and space constraints, ultimately resulting in cost sav-
675 ings. Therefore, online auction is a promising research direc-
676 tion for designing stronger incentive mechanisms in AFL.

677 5.5 Efficient Contribution Evaluation Methods

678 A crucial phase in the auction process involves the selec-
679 tion of the winning DOs, which heavily relies on evaluating
680 the contributions of each DO. The prevailing approach em-
681 ployed by existing IA-AFL methods centers on contribution
682 evaluation methods based on Shapley values. However, as
683 highlighted in [Liu and others, 2022b], methods grounded in
684 Shapley values are often time-consuming, posing a challenge
685 to the computational efficiency when the system is scaled
686 up. Furthermore, these methods operate under the assump-
687 tion that DCs and other participants will truthfully assess the
688 contribution of each DO, introducing a potential limitation
689 in scenarios where honesty cannot be guaranteed. Hence,
690 exploring alternative, more efficient contribution evaluation
691 methods is a promising research direction to enhance the ef-
692 ficacy of IA-AFL methods.

693 5.6 Explainable AFL

694 As indicated by [Tang and Yu, 2022], explainability is an im-
695 portant aspect for auctions. Therefore, in the realm of AFL,
696 an intriguing future direction is the advancement of Explain-
697 able AFL. This forward-looking approach entails the inte-
698 gration of mechanisms geared towards augmenting the trans-
699 parency and interpretability of both the auction processes and
700 federated training processes [Li *et al.*, 2023]. The implemen-
701 tation of explainability in AFL holds the potential to foster
702 heightened levels of trust, accountability, comprehensibility
703 and auditability regarding the decision-making processes in-
704 volved in both the auction and the federated training phases.

705 6 Concluding Remarks

706 In this paper, we conduct a comprehensive review of IA-AFL
707 methods through a unique multi-tiered taxonomy that organ-
708 ises existing works according to 1) the stakeholders served,
709 2) the auction mechanism adopted, and 3) the goals of the
710 agents. Furthermore, we critically analyze the limitations of
711 current approaches, outline commonly utilized performance
712 evaluation methodologies, and deliberate on promising future
713 directions. To the best of our knowledge, it is the first survey
714 on IA-AFL, providing researchers with an accessible guide
715 into this interdisciplinary field.

716 Acknowledgements

717 This research is supported, in part, by the National Research
718 Foundation Singapore and DSO National Laboratories under
719 the AI Singapore Programme (No. AISG2-RP-2020-
720 019); the RIE 2020 Advanced Manufacturing and Engineer-
721 ing (AME) Programmatic Fund (No. A20G8b0102), Singa-
722 pore; the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council
723 of Canada (NSERC); Public Safety Canada; CIFAR Catalyst
724 Grant; and Compute Canada Research Platform. Kraus has
725 been supported in part by MOST under grant 0004668 and
726 the EU Project TAILOR under grant 952215.

727 References

728 [Ali and others, 2021] Asad Ali et al. Incentive-driven federated
729 learning and associated security challenges: A systematic review,
730 2021.

731 [Batool et al., 2022] Zahra Batool, Kaiwen Zhang, and Matthew
732 Toews. Fl-mab: client selection and monetization for blockchain-
733 based federated learning. In *SAC*, pages 299–307, 2022.

734 [Batool et al., 2023] Zahra Batool, Kaiwen Zhang, and Matthew
735 Toews. Block-racs: Towards reputation-aware client selec-
736 tion and monetization mechanism for federated learning. *SAC*,
737 23(3):49–66, 2023.

738 [Buchbinder and others, 2009] Niv Buchbinder et al. The design
739 of competitive online algorithms via a primal–dual approach.
740 *FTCS*, 3(2–3):93–263, 2009.

741 [Cong and others, 2020a] Mingshu Cong et al. Optimal procure-
742 ment auction for cooperative production of virtual products:
743 Vickrey-clarke-groves meet cremer-mclean. *arXiv preprint*
744 *arXiv:2007.14780*, 2020.

745 [Cong and others, 2020b] Mingshu Cong et al. A vcg-based fair
746 incentive mechanism for federated learning. *arXiv preprint*
747 *arXiv:2008.06680*, 2020.

748 [De Vries and Vohra, 2003] Sven De Vries and Rakesh V Vohra.
749 Combinatorial auctions: A survey. *JOC*, 15(3):284–309, 2003.

750 [Deng and others, 2021] Yongheng Deng et al. Fair: Quality-aware
751 federated learning with precise user incentive and model aggre-
752 gation. In *INFOCOM*, 2021.

753 [Fan et al., 2020] Sizheng Fan, Hongbo Zhang, Yuchen Zeng, and
754 Wei Cai. Hybrid blockchain-based resource trading system for
755 federated learning in edge computing. *IOTJ*, 8(4):2252–2264,
756 2020.

757 [Friedman, 2018] Daniel Friedman. *The double auction market: in-*
758 *stitutions, theories, and evidence*. Routledge, 2018.

759 [Gao et al., 2023] Yulan Gao, Yansong Zhao, and Han Yu. Multi-
760 tier client selection for mobile federated learning networks. In
761 *ICME*, pages 666–671, 2023.

762 [Gollapudi and others, 2017] Sreenivas Gollapudi et al. Profit shar-
763 ing and efficiency in utility games. In *ESA*, 2017.

764 [Jiao and others, 2020] Yutao Jiao et al. Toward an automated auc-
765 tion framework for wireless federated learning services market.
766 *TMC*, 20(10):3034–3048, 2020.

767 [Kairouz et al., 2021] Peter Kairouz, H. Brendan McMahan, et al.
768 Advances and open problems in federated learning. *FTML*, 14(1-
769 2):1–210, 2021.

[Kang and others, 2019] Jiawen Kang et al. Incentive mechanism
for reliable federated learning: A joint optimization approach
to combining reputation and contract theory. *IOTJ*, 6(6):10700–
10714, 2019.

[Kang and others, 2020] Jiawen Kang et al. Reliable federated
learning for mobile networks. *Wireless Commun*, 27(2):72–80,
2020.

[Khan and others, 2020] Latif U. Khan et al. Federated learning for
edge networks: Resource optimization and incentive mechanism.
Commun Mag, 58(10):88–93, 2020.

[Kim et al., 2019] Hyesung Kim, Jihong Park, Mehdi Bennis, and
Seong-Lyun Kim. Blockchain-based on-device federated learning.
Commun Lett, 24(6):1279–1283, 2019.

[Konečný et al., 2016] Jakub Konečný, H Brendan McMahan,
Daniel Ramage, and Peter Richtárik. Federated optimization:
Distributed machine learning for on-device intelligence, 2016.

[Kraus and others, 2023] Sarit Kraus et al. Customer service com-
bining human operators and virtual agents: A call for multidisci-
plinary ai research. 2023.

[Le and others, 2020] Tra Huong Thi Le et al. Auction based in-
centive design for efficient federated learning in cellular wireless
networks. In *WCNC*, pages 1–6, 2020.

[Li et al., 2023] Anran Li, Rui Liu, Ming Hu, Luu Anh Tuan, and
Han Yu. Towards interpretable federated learning. *arXiv preprint*
arXiv:2302.13473, 2023.

[Lim and others, 2020] Wei Yang Bryan Lim et al. Incentive mech-
anism design for resource sharing in collaborative edge learning.
arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.00511, 2020.

[Liu and others, 2020] Yang Liu et al. FedVision: An online visual
object detection platform powered by federated learning. In *IAAI*,
pages 13172–13179, 2020.

[Liu and others, 2022a] Zelei Liu et al. Contribution-aware feder-
ated learning for smart healthcare. In *IAAI*, pages 12396–12404,
2022.

[Liu and others, 2022b] Zelei Liu et al. GTG-Shapley: Efficient
and accurate participant contribution evaluation in federated
learning. *TIST*, 13(4):1–21, 2022.

[Lu et al., 2023] Renhao Lu, Weizhe Zhang, Yan Wang, Qiong Li,
Xiaoxiong Zhong, Hongwei Yang, and Desheng Wang. Auction-
based cluster federated learning in mobile edge computing sys-
tems. *TPDS*, 34(4):1145–1158, 2023.

[Lyu et al., 2020] Lingjuan Lyu, Han Yu, and Qiang Yang.
Threats to federated learning: A survey. *arXiv preprint*
arXiv:2003.02133, 2020.

[Mai et al., 2022] Tianle Mai, Haipeng Yao, Jiaqi Xu, Ni Zhang,
Qifeng Liu, and Song Guo. Automatic double-auction mecha-
nism for federated learning service market in internet of things.
TNSE, 9(5):3123–3135, 2022.

[McMahan and others, 2017] Brendan McMahan et al.
Communication-efficient learning of deep networks from
decentralized data. In *AISTATS*, pages 1273–1282, 2017.

[Mnih and others, 2015] Volodymyr Mnih et al. Human-level
control through deep reinforcement learning. *Nature*,
518(7540):529–533, 2015.

[Myerson, 1998] Roger B Myerson. Population uncertainty and
poisson games. *IJGT*, 27:375–392, 1998.

[Nedelec and others, 2022] Thomas Nedelec et al. Learning in re-
peated auctions. *FTML*, 15(3):176–334, 2022.

- 828 [Ng and others, 2020a] Jer Shyuan Ng et al. Communication-
829 efficient federated learning in UAV-enabled iov: a joint auction-
830 coalition approach. In *GLOBECOM*, pages 1–6, 2020.
- 831 [Ng and others, 2020b] Jer Shyuan Ng et al. Joint auction-
832 coalition formation framework for communication-efficient fed-
833 erated learning in UAV-enabled internet of vehicles. *TIST*,
834 22(4):2326–2344, 2020.
- 835 [Parsons and others, 2011] Simon Parsons et al. Auctions and bid-
836 ding: A guide for computer scientists. *CSUR*, 43(2):1–59, 2011.
- 837 [Qiu and others, 2022] Houming Qiu et al. Applications of auction
838 and mechanism design in edge computing: A survey. *TCCN*,
839 8(2):1034–1058, 2022.
- 840 [Roy and others, 2021] Palash Roy et al. Distributed task allocation
841 in mobile device cloud exploiting federated learning and objec-
842 tive logic. *JSA*, 113(2), 2021.
- 843 [Seo and others, 2021] Eunil Seo et al. Auction-based federated
844 learning using software-defined networking for resource effi-
845 ciency. In *CNSM*, pages 42–48, 2021.
- 846 [Seo and others, 2022] Eunil Seo et al. Resource-efficient federated
847 learning with non-iid data: An auction theoretic approach. *IOTJ*,
848 9(24):25506–25524, 2022.
- 849 [Shi and Yu, 2023] Yuxin Shi and Han Yu. Fairness-aware client
850 selection for federated learning. In *ICME*, 2023.
- 851 [Tan and Yu, 2023] Xavier Tan and Han Yu. Hire when you need
852 to: Gradual participant recruitment for auction-based federated
853 learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.02651*, 2023.
- 854 [Tan et al., 2023] Xavier Tan, Wei Yang Bryan Lim, Dusit Niyato,
855 and Han Yu. Reputation-aware opportunistic budget optimiza-
856 tion for auction-based federation learning. In *IJCNN*, pages 1–8,
857 2023.
- 858 [Tang and Yu, 2022] Xiaoli Tang and Han Yu. Towards trustworthy
859 ai-empowered real-time bidding for online advertisement auc-
860 tioning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.07770*, 2022.
- 861 [Tang and Yu, 2023a] Xiaoli Tang and Han Yu. Competitive-
862 cooperative multi-agent reinforcement learning for auction-based
863 federated learning. In *IJCAI*, 2023.
- 864 [Tang and Yu, 2023b] Xiaoli Tang and Han Yu. Multi-session bud-
865 get optimization for forward auction-based federated learning.
866 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.12548*, 2023.
- 867 [Tang and Yu, 2023c] Xiaoli Tang and Han Yu. Utility-maximizing
868 bidding strategy for data consumers in auction-based federated
869 learning. In *ICME*, 2023.
- 870 [Thi Le and others, 2021] Tra Huong Thi Le et al. An incentive
871 mechanism for federated learning in wireless cellular networks:
872 An auction approach. *TWC*, 20(8):4874–4887, 2021.
- 873 [Tu and others, 2022] Xuezhen Tu et al. Incentive mechanisms for
874 federated learning: From economic and game theoretic perspec-
875 tive. *TCCN*, 8(3):1566–1593, 2022.
- 876 [Vickrey, 1961] William Vickrey. Counterspeculation, auctions,
877 and competitive sealed tenders. *JF*, 16(1):8–37, 1961.
- 878 [Wang and others, 2023] Fei Wang et al. Toward sustainable ai:
879 Federated learning demand response in cloud-edge systems via
880 auctions. In *INFOCOM*, pages 1–10, 2023.
- 881 [Wu and others, 2023] Leijie Wu et al. Long-term adaptive vcg auc-
882 tion mechanism for sustainable federated learning with periodical
883 client shifting. *TMC*, 2023.
- [Xu and others, 2021] Jie Xu et al. Bandwidth allocation for multi- 884
ple federated learning services in wireless edge networks. *TWC*, 885
21(4):2534–2546, 2021. 886
- [Xu and others, 2023] Bo Xu et al. Cab: a combinatorial-auction- 887
and-bargaining-based federated learning incentive mechanism. 888
WWW, pages 1–22, 2023. 889
- [Yang and others, 2023] Yunchao Yang et al. Bara: Efficient incen- 890
tive mechanism with online reward budget allocation in cross-silo 891
federated learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.05221*, 2023. 892
- [Yang et al., 2019] Qiang Yang, Yang Liu, Tianjian Chen, and 893
Yongxin Tong. Federated machine learning: Concept and ap- 894
plications. *TIST*, 10(2):12:1–12:19, 2019. 895
- [Yuan and others, 2021] Yulan Yuan et al. Incentivizing federated 896
learning under long-term energy constraint via online random- 897
ized auctions. *TWC*, 21(7):5129–5144, 2021. 898
- [Zeng and others, 2021] Rongfei Zeng et al. A comprehensive sur- 899
vey of incentive mechanism for federated learning. *arXiv preprint* 900
arXiv:2106.15406, 2021. 901
- [Zeng et al., 2020] Rongfei Zeng, Shixun Zhang, Jiaqi Wang, and 902
Xiaowen Chu. Fmore: An incentive scheme of multi-dimensional 903
auction for federated learning in MEC. In *ICDCS*, pages 278– 904
288, 2020. 905
- [Zhang and others, 2020] Jixian Zhang et al. An online auction 906
mechanism for time-varying multidimensional resource alloca- 907
tion in clouds. *FGCS*, 111:27–38, 2020. 908
- [Zhang et al., 2021] Jingwen Zhang, Yuezhou Wu, and Rong Pan. 909
Incentive mechanism for horizontal federated learning based on 910
reputation and reverse auction. In *WWW*, page 947–956, 2021. 911
- [Zhang et al., 2022a] Jingwen Zhang, Yuezhou Wu, and Rong Pan. 912
Auction-based ex-post-payment incentive mechanism design for 913
horizontal federated learning with reputation and contribution 914
measurement. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.02410*, 2022. 915
- [Zhang et al., 2022b] Jingwen Zhang, Yuezhou Wu, and Rong Pan. 916
Online auction-based incentive mechanism design for horizontal 917
federated learning with budget constraint. *arXiv preprint*, page 918
2201.09047, 2022. 919
- [Zhao and others, 2018] Yue Zhao et al. Federated learning with 920
non-iid data. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1806.00582*, 2018. 921
- [Zhou et al., 2021] Ruiting Zhou, Jinlong Pang, Zhibo Wang, 922
John CS Lui, and Zongpeng Li. A truthful procurement auction 923
for incentivizing heterogeneous clients in federated learning. In 924
ICDCS, pages 183–193, 2021. 925