

Auction Theory II

Lecture 19

Lecture Overview

- 1 Recap
- 2 First-Price Auctions
- 3 Revenue Equivalence
- 4 Optimal Auctions

Motivation

- Auctions are any mechanisms for **allocating resources among self-interested agents**
- **resource allocation** is a fundamental problem in CS
- increasing importance of studying distributed systems with heterogeneous agents
- currency needn't be real money, just something scarce

Intuitive comparison of 5 auctions

	English	Dutch	Japanese	1 st -Price	2 nd -Price
Duration	#bidders, increment	starting price, clock speed	#bidders, increment	fixed	fixed
Info Revealed	2 nd -highest val; bounds on others	winner's bid	all val's but winner's	none	none
Jump bids	yes	n/a	no	n/a	n/a
Price Discovery	yes	no	yes	no	no
Regret	no	yes	no	yes	no

Second-Price proof

Theorem

Truth-telling is a dominant strategy in a second-price auction.

Proof.

Assume that the other bidders bid in some arbitrary way. We must show that i 's best response is always to bid truthfully. We'll break the proof into two cases:

- 1 Bidding honestly, i would win the auction
- 2 Bidding honestly, i would lose the auction

English and Japanese auctions

- A much **more complicated** strategy space
 - extensive form game
 - bidders are able to condition their bids on information revealed by others
 - in the case of English auctions, the ability to place jump bids
- intuitively, though, the revealed information doesn't make any difference in the IPV setting.

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Theorem

*Under the independent private values model (IPV), it is a **dominant strategy** for bidders to bid up to (and not beyond) their valuations in both Japanese and English auctions.*

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First-Price and Dutch

Theorem

*First-Price and Dutch auctions are **strategically equivalent**.*

- In both first-price and Dutch, a bidder must decide on the amount he's willing to pay, conditional on having placed the highest bid.
 - despite the fact that Dutch auctions are extensive-form games, the only thing a winning bidder knows about the others is that all of them have decided on lower bids
 - e.g., he does not know *what* these bids are
 - this is exactly the thing that a bidder in a first-price auction assumes when placing his bid anyway.
- Note that this is a stronger result than the connection between second-price and English.

Discussion

- So, why are both auction types held in practice?
 - First-price auctions can be held **asynchronously**
 - Dutch auctions are fast, and require **minimal communication**: only one bit needs to be transmitted from the bidders to the auctioneer.
- How should bidders bid in these auctions?

Discussion

- So, why are both auction types held in practice?
 - First-price auctions can be held **asynchronously**
 - Dutch auctions are fast, and require **minimal communication**: only one bit needs to be transmitted from the bidders to the auctioneer.
- How should bidders bid in these auctions?
 - They should clearly bid **less than their valuations**.
 - There's a tradeoff between:
 - probability of winning
 - amount paid upon winning
 - Bidders don't have a dominant strategy any more.

Analysis

Theorem

In a first-price auction with two risk-neutral bidders whose valuations are drawn independently and uniformly at random from $[0, 1]$, $(\frac{1}{2}v_1, \frac{1}{2}v_2)$ is a Bayes-Nash equilibrium strategy profile.

Proof.

Assume that bidder 2 bids $\frac{1}{2}v_2$, and bidder 1 bids s_1 . From the fact that v_2 was drawn from a uniform distribution, all values of v_2 between 0 and 1 are equally likely. Bidder 1's expected utility is

$$E[u_1] = \int_0^1 u_1 dv_2. \quad (1)$$

Note that the integral in Equation (1) can be broken up into two smaller integrals that differ on whether or not player 1 wins the auction.

$$E[u_1] = \int_0^{2s_1} u_1 dv_2 + \int_{2s_1}^1 u_1 dv_2$$

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Proof (continued).

We can now substitute in values for u_1 . In the first case, because 2 bids $\frac{1}{2}v_2$, 1 wins when $v_2 < 2s_1$, and gains utility $v_1 - s_1$. In the second case 1 loses and gains utility 0. Observe that we can ignore the case where the agents have the same valuation, because this occurs with probability zero.

$$\begin{aligned} E[u_1] &= \int_0^{2s_1} (v_1 - s_1) dv_2 + \int_{2s_1}^1 (0) dv_2 \\ &= (v_1 - s_1)v_2 \Big|_0^{2s_1} \\ &= 2v_1s_1 - 2s_1^2 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

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Proof (continued).

We can find bidder 1's best response to bidder 2's strategy by taking the derivative of Equation (2) and setting it equal to zero:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial s_1}(2v_1s_1 - 2s_1^2) &= 0 \\ 2v_1 - 4s_1 &= 0 \\ s_1 &= \frac{1}{2}v_1\end{aligned}$$

Thus when player 2 is bidding half her valuation, player 1's best strategy is to bid half his valuation. The calculation of the optimal bid for player 2 is analogous, given the symmetry of the game and the equilibrium.

More than two bidders

- Very narrow result: two bidders, uniform valuations.
- Still, first-price auctions are not incentive compatible
 - hence, unsurprisingly, not equivalent to second-price auctions

Theorem

In a first-price sealed bid auction with n risk-neutral agents whose valuations are independently drawn from a uniform distribution on the same bounded interval of the real numbers, the unique symmetric equilibrium is given by the strategy profile

$$\left(\frac{n-1}{n}v_1, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}v_n\right).$$

- proven using a similar argument, but more involved calculus
- a broader problem: that proof only showed how to *verify* an equilibrium strategy.
 - How do we identify one in the first place?

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Revenue Equivalence

- Which auction should an auctioneer choose? To some extent, it doesn't matter...

Theorem (Revenue Equivalence Theorem)

Assume that each of n risk-neutral agents has an independent private valuation for a single good at auction, drawn from a common cumulative distribution $F(v)$ that is strictly increasing and atomless on $[\underline{v}, \bar{v}]$. Then any auction mechanism in which

- *the good will be allocated to the agent with the highest valuation; and*
- *any agent with valuation \underline{v} has an expected utility of zero; yields the same expected revenue, and hence results in any bidder with valuation v making the same expected payment.*

Revenue Equivalence Proof

Proof.

Consider any mechanism (direct or indirect) for allocating the good. Let $u_i(v_i)$ be i 's expected utility given true valuation v_i , assuming that all agents including i follow their equilibrium strategies. Let $P_i(v_i)$ be i 's probability of being awarded the good given (a) that his true type is v_i ; (b) that he follows the equilibrium strategy for an agent with type v_i ; and (c) that all other agents follow their equilibrium strategies.

$$u_i(v_i) = v_i P_i(v_i) - E[\text{payment by type } v_i \text{ of player } i] \quad (1)$$

From the definition of equilibrium, for any other valuation \hat{v}_i that i could have,

$$u_i(v_i) \geq u_i(\hat{v}_i) + (v_i - \hat{v}_i)P_i(\hat{v}_i). \quad (2)$$

To understand Equation (2), observe that if i followed the equilibrium strategy for a player with valuation \hat{v}_i rather than for a player with his (true) valuation v_i , i would make all the same payments and would win the good with the same probability as an agent with valuation \hat{v}_i . However, whenever he wins the good, i values it $(v_i - \hat{v}_i)$ more than an agent of type \hat{v}_i does. The inequality must hold because in equilibrium this deviation must be unprofitable.

Revenue Equivalence Proof

Proof (continued).

Consider $\hat{v}_i = v_i + dv_i$, by substituting this expression into Equation (2):

$$u_i(v_i) \geq u_i(v_i + dv_i) + dv_i P_i(v_i + dv_i). \quad (3)$$

Likewise, considering the possibility that i 's true type could be $v_i + dv_i$,

$$u_i(v_i + dv_i) \geq u_i(v_i) + dv_i P_i(v_i). \quad (4)$$

Combining Equations (4) and (5), we have

$$P_i(v_i + dv_i) \geq \frac{u_i(v_i + dv_i) - u_i(v_i)}{dv_i} \geq P_i(v_i). \quad (5)$$

Taking the limit as $dv_i \rightarrow 0$ gives $\frac{du_i}{dv_i} = P_i(v_i)$. Integrating up,

$$u_i(v_i) = u_i(\underline{v}) + \int_{x=\underline{v}}^{v_i} P_i(x) dx. \quad (6)$$

Revenue Equivalence Proof

Proof (continued).

Now consider any two efficient auction mechanisms in which the expected payment of an agent with valuation \underline{v} is zero. A bidder with valuation \underline{v} will never win (since the distribution is atomless), so his expected utility $u_i(\underline{v}) = 0$. Because both mechanisms are efficient, every agent i always has the same $P_i(v_i)$ (his probability of winning given his type v_i) under the two mechanisms. Since the right-hand side of Equation (6) involves only $P_i(v_i)$ and $u_i(\underline{v})$, each agent i must therefore have the same expected utility u_i in both mechanisms. From Equation (1), this means that a player of any given type v_i must make the same expected payment in both mechanisms. Thus, i 's *ex ante* expected payment is also the same in both mechanisms. Since this is true for all i , the auctioneer's expected revenue is also the same in both mechanisms.

First and Second-Price Auctions

- The k^{th} **order statistic** of a distribution: the expected value of the k^{th} -largest of n draws.
- For n IID draws from $[0, v_{max}]$, the k^{th} order statistic is

$$\frac{n+1-k}{n+1} v_{max}.$$

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- Thus in a second-price auction, the seller's expected revenue is

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- First and second-price auctions satisfy the requirements of the revenue equivalence theorem
 - every symmetric game has a symmetric equilibrium
 - in a symmetric equilibrium of this auction game, higher bid \Leftrightarrow higher valuation

Applying Revenue Equivalence

- Thus, a bidder in a FPA must bid his expected payment conditional on being the winner of a second-price auction
 - this conditioning will be correct if he does win the FPA; otherwise, his bid doesn't matter anyway
 - if v_i is the high value, there are then $n - 1$ other values drawn from the uniform distribution on $[0, v_i]$
 - thus, the expected value of the second-highest bid is the first-order statistic of $n - 1$ draws from $[0, v_i]$:

$$\frac{n+1-k}{n+1} v_{max} = \frac{(n-1)+1-(1)}{(n-1)+1} (v_i) = \frac{n-1}{n} v_i$$

- This provides a basis for our earlier claim about n -bidder first-price auctions.
 - However, we'd still have to check that this is an equilibrium
 - The revenue equivalence theorem doesn't say that every revenue-equivalent strategy profile is an equilibrium!

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Optimal Auctions

- So far we have only considered efficient auctions.
- What about maximizing the seller's revenue?
 - she may be willing to risk failing to sell the good even when there is an interested buyer
 - she may be willing sometimes to sell to a buyer who didn't make the highest bid
- Mechanisms which are designed to maximize the seller's expected revenue are known as **optimal auctions**.

Optimal auctions setting

- independent private valuations
- risk-neutral bidders
- each bidder i 's valuation drawn from some strictly increasing cumulative density function $F_i(v)$ (PDF $f_i(v)$)
 - we allow $F_i \neq F_j$: **asymmetric auctions**
- the seller knows each F_i

Designing optimal auctions

Definition (virtual valuation)

Bidder i 's **virtual valuation** is $\psi_i(v_i) = v_i - \frac{1-F_i(v_i)}{f_i(v_i)}$.

Definition (bidder-specific reserve price)

Bidder i 's bidder-specific reserve price r_i^* is the value for which $\psi_i(r_i^*) = 0$.

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Theorem

The optimal (single-good) auction is a sealed-bid auction in which every agent is asked to declare his valuation. The good is sold to the agent $i = \arg \max_i \psi_i(\hat{v}_i)$, as long as $v_i > r_i^$. If the good is sold, the winning agent i is charged the smallest valuation that he could have declared while still remaining the winner:*

$\inf\{v_i^* : \psi_i(v_i^*) \geq 0 \text{ and } \forall j \neq i, \psi_i(v_i^*) \geq \psi_j(\hat{v}_j)\}$.

Analyzing optimal auctions

Optimal Auction:

- winning agent: $i = \arg \max_i \psi_i(\hat{v}_i)$, as long as $v_i > r_i^*$.
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- Is this VCG?

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- How should bidders bid?

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- Is this VCG?
 - No, it's not efficient.
- How should bidders bid?
 - it's a second-price auction with a reserve price, held in virtual valuation space.
 - neither the reserve prices nor the virtual valuation transformation depends on the agent's declaration
 - thus the proof that a second-price auction is dominant-strategy truthful applies here as well.

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- What happens in the special case where all agents' valuations are drawn from the same distribution?
 - a second-price auction with reserve price r^* satisfying
$$r^* - \frac{1 - F_i(r^*)}{f_i(r^*)} = 0.$$

Analyzing optimal auctions

Optimal Auction:

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- What happens in the general case?

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- What happens in the general case?
 - the virtual valuations also increase weak bidders' bids, making them more competitive.
 - low bidders can win, paying less
 - however, bidders with higher expected valuations must bid more aggressively