

# Economics and Computation

Yingkai Li

EC4501/EC4501HM Semester 2, AY2024/25

# Logistics

**Instructor:** Yingkai Li

**Office:** AS2 05-21

**Office hour:** by appointment.

# Reading Lists

- ① Aleksandrs Slivkins. *Introduction to Multi-Armed Bandits*.  
<https://arxiv.org/abs/1904.07272>
- ② Jason Hartline. *Mechanism Design and Approximation*.  
<https://jasonhartline.com/MDnA/>
- ③ Tim Roughgarden. *Twenty Lectures on Algorithmic Game Theory*.  
<https://timroughgarden.org/notes.html>

## Additional readings:

- Noam Nisan, Tim Roughgarden, Éva Tardos, Vijay V. Vazirani. *Algorithmic Game Theory*. Cambridge University Press.
- Federico Echenique, Nicole Immorlica, Vijay V. Vazirani. *Online and Matching-Based Market Design*. Cambridge University Press.

# Prerequisite

**Required:** Basics in probabilities, calculus, and how to prove formal theorems.

**Not required:** solid background knowledge about algorithm design (CS), mechanism design (Econ), or game theory (Econ). Coding is also not required.

# Evaluations

- Two assignments (40%); due on Sep 29th, Nov 7th.
- Course project (30%); due on Oct 31th, mid-term review on Oct 6th.
- Final exam (30%); scheduled on Nov 21th, 5pm.
- Survey paper (25%); due on Nov 10th; only for HM students.

# Syllabus

- Week 1: Preview of the course
- Week 2/3/4: Learning: bandits, experts, calibration
- Week 5/6: Learning in games
- Week 7/8: Mechanism design: welfare, revenue
- Week 9/10: Robust mechanism design
- Week 11/12: Topic courses: fairness, contracts, etc.
- Week 13: Project presentation by students

# Course Philosophy

# Course Philosophy

Practical problems are way too complex to solve!



# Course Philosophy

Practical problems are way too complex to solve!

**Classic economic approach:** build a simple and representative model that is easy to solve.

# Course Philosophy

Practical problems are way too complex to solve!

**Classic economic approach:** build a simple and representative model that is easy to solve.

**Computer science approach:** provide simple and practical solutions that are “good enough” for complex problems.

**This Course:** focus on the computer science approaches in various economic problems.

# A Simple Example: Complexity of Optimal Solutions

## **Knapsack problems:**

$n$  tasks, each task  $i \in [n]$  requires a resource of  $c_i$ , and generates a value of  $v_i$ .

**Objective:** find a set of tasks to maximize the total value subject to a budget  $B$  on resources.

# A Simple Example: Complexity of Optimal Solutions

## Knapsack problems:

$n$  tasks, each task  $i \in [n]$  requires a resource of  $c_i$ , and generates a value of  $v_i$ .

**Objective:** find a set of tasks to maximize the total value subject to a budget  $B$  on resources.

It is **NP-hard** to compute the optimal solution.

- naïvely, the optimal solution can be found by enumerating all possible subsets, taking time  $\exp(n)$ , not practical.

# A Simple Example: Complexity of Optimal Solutions

## Knapsack problems:

$n$  tasks, each task  $i \in [n]$  requires a resource of  $c_i$ , and generates a value of  $v_i$ .

**Objective:** find a set of tasks to maximize the total value subject to a budget  $B$  on resources.

It is **NP-hard** to compute the optimal solution.

- naïvely, the optimal solution can be found by enumerating all possible subsets, taking time  $\exp(n)$ , not practical.
- NP-hard means that “no algorithm” can find the optimal solution much faster than that.

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

A not so naïve greedy algorithm

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

### A not so naïve greedy algorithm

- **greedy:** pick the tasks with decreasing order  $\frac{v_i}{c_i}$  until budget runs out.



## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

### A not so naïve greedy algorithm

- **greedy:** pick the tasks with decreasing order  $\frac{v_i}{c_i}$  until budget runs out.
- **max-value:** pick one task with  $c_i \leq B$  that maximizes the value.

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

### A not so naïve greedy algorithm

- **greedy:** pick the tasks with decreasing order  $\frac{v_i}{c_i}$  until budget runs out.
- **max-value:** pick one task with  $c_i \leq B$  that maximizes the value.
- choose either *greedy* or *max-value* solution to maximize the selected value.

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

### A not so naïve greedy algorithm

- **greedy:** pick the tasks with decreasing order  $\frac{v_i}{c_i}$  until budget runs out.
- **max-value:** pick one task with  $c_i \leq B$  that maximizes the value.
- choose either *greedy* or *max-value* solution to maximize the selected value.

### Theorem

*The not so naïve greedy algorithm gives a solution that is at least half of the optimal value.*

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

### A not so naïve greedy algorithm

- **greedy:** pick the tasks with decreasing order  $\frac{v_i}{c_i}$  until budget runs out.
- **max-value:** pick one task with  $c_i \leq B$  that maximizes the value.
- choose either *greedy* or *max-value* solution to maximize the selected value.

### Theorem

*The not so naïve greedy algorithm gives a solution that is at least half of the optimal value.*

An upper bound of the optimal: allowing partial allocation.

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

### A not so naïve greedy algorithm

- **greedy:** pick the tasks with decreasing order  $\frac{v_i}{c_i}$  until budget runs out.
- **max-value:** pick one task with  $c_i \leq B$  that maximizes the value.
- choose either *greedy* or *max-value* solution to maximize the selected value.

### Theorem

*The not so naïve greedy algorithm gives a solution that is at least half of the optimal value.*

An upper bound of the optimal: allowing partial allocation.

- greedy algorithm is optimal for allowing partial allocation.
- only the last task in the greedy algorithm may get a partial allocation.

## A Simple Example: Simple Algorithms

Let us give up the optimal solution and only look for a “good enough” one.

### A not so naïve greedy algorithm

- **greedy:** pick the tasks with decreasing order  $\frac{v_i}{c_i}$  until budget runs out.
- **max-value:** pick one task with  $c_i \leq B$  that maximizes the value.
- choose either *greedy* or *max-value* solution to maximize the selected value.

### Theorem

*The not so naïve greedy algorithm gives a solution that is at least half of the optimal value.*

An upper bound of the optimal: allowing partial allocation.

- greedy algorithm is optimal for allowing partial allocation.
- only the last task in the greedy algorithm may get a partial allocation.

$$\text{Upper-Bound} \leq \text{Greedy} + \text{Max-Val} \Rightarrow \max\{\text{Greedy}, \text{Max-Val}\} \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{Upper-Bound}.$$

# A Simple Example: Effects of Strategic Behavior

## A Simple Example: Effects of Strategic Behavior

A naïve thinking: adding more roads should reduce the congestion (total driving time of the drivers).



## A Simple Example: Effects of Strategic Behavior

A naïve thinking: adding more roads should reduce the congestion (total driving time of the drivers).

Braess's paradox [Pigou '20; Braess '68]

- adding more roads could lead to more severe congestions in strategic routing.

## A Simple Example: Effects of Strategic Behavior

A naïve thinking: adding more roads should reduce the congestion (total driving time of the drivers).

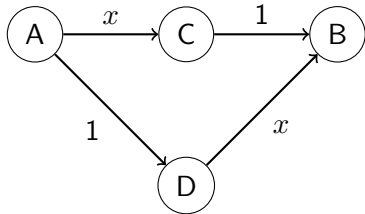
Braess's paradox [Pigou '20; Braess '68]

- adding more roads could lead to more severe congestions in strategic routing.

**Example:** agents travel from A to B.

- $A \rightarrow C, D \rightarrow B$ : travel time  $x$ , fraction of travelers.
- $A \rightarrow D, C \rightarrow B$ : travel time 1.

**Network Before Adding Shortcut**



## A Simple Example: Effects of Strategic Behavior

A naïve thinking: adding more roads should reduce the congestion (total driving time of the drivers).

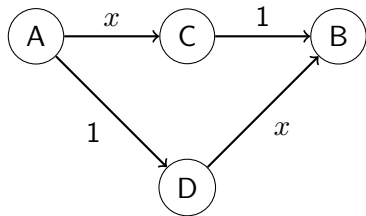
Braess's paradox [Pigou '20; Braess '68]

- adding more roads could lead to more severe congestions in strategic routing.

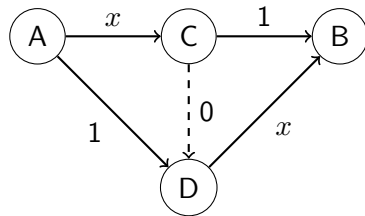
**Example:** agents travel from A to B.

- $A \rightarrow C, D \rightarrow B$ : travel time  $x$ , fraction of travelers.
- $A \rightarrow D, C \rightarrow B$ : travel time 1.
- New road in network: open a portal from C to D with zero travel time.

**Network Before Adding Shortcut**

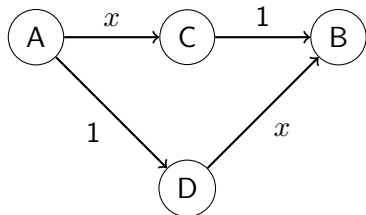


**Network After Adding Shortcut**

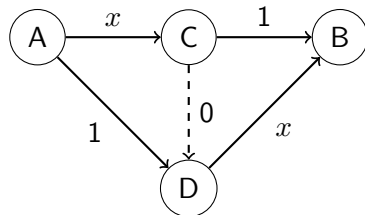


# Braess's Paradox

**Network Before Adding Shortcut**

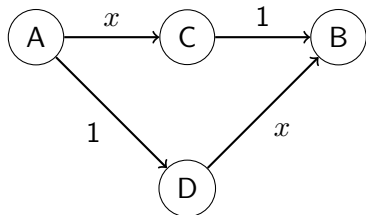


**Network After Adding Shortcut**

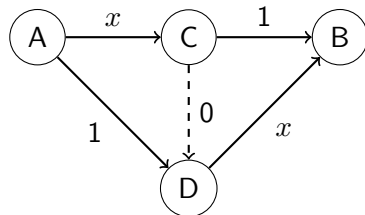


# Braess's Paradox

Network Before Adding Shortcut



Network After Adding Shortcut

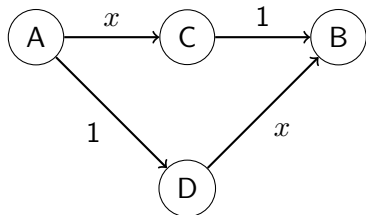


**Equilibrium before shortcut:**  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow B$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow D \rightarrow B$ .

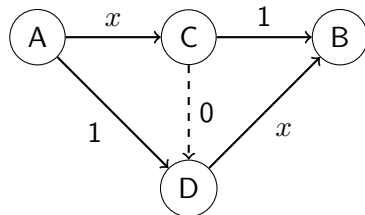
- total travel time is  $\frac{3}{2}$  for all agents.

# Braess's Paradox

Network Before Adding Shortcut



Network After Adding Shortcut



**Equilibrium before shortcut:**  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow B$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow D \rightarrow B$ .

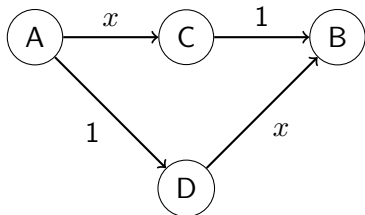
- total travel time is  $\frac{3}{2}$  for all agents.

**Equilibrium after shortcut:** all agents choose  $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow B$ .

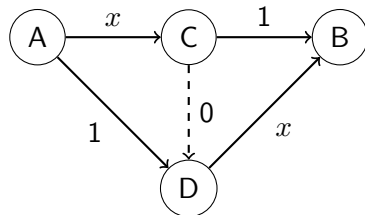
- total travel time is 2 for all agents.

# Braess's Paradox

Network Before Adding Shortcut



Network After Adding Shortcut



**Equilibrium before shortcut:**  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow B$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow D \rightarrow B$ .

- total travel time is  $\frac{3}{2}$  for all agents.

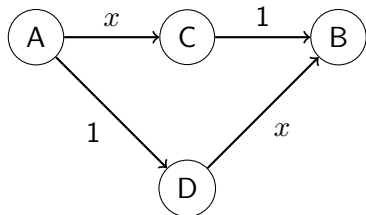
**Equilibrium after shortcut:** all agents choose  $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow B$ .

- total travel time is 2 for all agents.

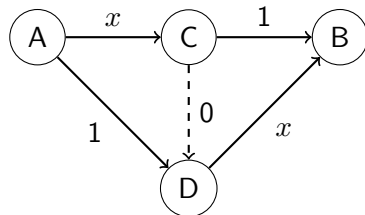
$2 > \frac{3}{2}$ : everyone suffers from having an additional shortcut!

# Braess's Paradox

Network Before Adding Shortcut



Network After Adding Shortcut



**Equilibrium before shortcut:**  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow B$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$  chooses  $A \rightarrow D \rightarrow B$ .

- total travel time is  $\frac{3}{2}$  for all agents.

**Equilibrium after shortcut:** all agents choose  $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow B$ .

- total travel time is 2 for all agents.

$2 > \frac{3}{2}$ : everyone suffers from having an additional shortcut!

**A sample question:** how to design “good” mechanisms in complex strategic environments.



# Methodologies

# Methodology Overview

Economic analysis using algorithmic tools.

- **approximation analysis:** design and analysis of simple mechanisms in complex environments where finding the optimal is infeasible or undesirable.
- **robust analysis:** design robust mechanisms in the absence of detailed knowledge about the environment.
- **data analysis:** how to design good mechanisms with access to historical data.

# Methodology Overview

Economic analysis using algorithmic tools.

- **approximation analysis:** design and analysis of simple mechanisms in complex environments where finding the optimal is infeasible or undesirable.
- **robust analysis:** design robust mechanisms in the absence of detailed knowledge about the environment.
- **data analysis:** how to design good mechanisms with access to historical data.

**Goal:** understand the design of good mechanisms in practical applications.

- online platforms (Google/Meta);
- resource allocations (FCC Spectrum/Land Resource/Cloud Computing);
- blockchains and cryptocurrencies (Bitcoin);
- recommendation system (Yelp/Netflix);
- etc.

# Predicting the Future Without Knowing the Future

**Weather forecast:** in each day, predict the probability of rain tomorrow.

# Predicting the Future Without Knowing the Future

**Weather forecast:** in each day, predict the probability of rain tomorrow.

**A criterion for good forecasts:** for each probability  $p$ , looking at all the days that the forecast is  $p$ , the actual frequency of rain almost matches  $p$ .

prediction	50%	50%	33.3%	50%	33.3%	33.3%	50%
outcome	rain	sunny	sunny	rain	rain	sunny	sunny

# Predicting the Future Without Knowing the Future

**Weather forecast:** in each day, predict the probability of rain tomorrow.

**A criterion for good forecasts:** for each probability  $p$ , looking at all the days that the forecast is  $p$ , the actual frequency of rain almost matches  $p$ .

prediction	50%	50%	33.3%	50%	33.3%	33.3%	50%
outcome	rain	sunny	sunny	rain	rain	sunny	sunny

In future lectures, we will see an algorithm for making good forecasts without any information about the future.

# Worst-case Approximations

- Algorithm / Mechanism  $M$ ;
- Benchmark  $B$ ;
- Set of possible inputs  $\mathcal{F}$ .

## Worst-case approximation:

$$\text{APX}(M) \triangleq \max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{B(F)}{M(F)}$$

$B(F)$  and  $M(F)$  are the performance of the benchmark  $B$  and algorithm  $M$  respectively given input  $F$ .

# Worst-case Approximations

- Algorithm / Mechanism  $M$ ;
- Benchmark  $B$ ;
- Set of possible inputs  $\mathcal{F}$ .

## Worst-case approximation:

$$\text{APX}(M) \triangleq \max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{B(F)}{M(F)}$$

$B(F)$  and  $M(F)$  are the performance of the benchmark  $B$  and algorithm  $M$  respectively given input  $F$ .

**Example:**  $B$ : optimal value for the knapsack problem;  $M$ : not so naïve greedy algorithm.

$$\text{APX}(M) = 2.$$



# Worst-case Approximations

- Algorithm / Mechanism  $M$ ;
- Benchmark  $B$ ;
- Set of possible inputs  $\mathcal{F}$ .

## Worst-case approximation:

$$\text{APX}(M) \triangleq \max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{B(F)}{M(F)}$$

$B(F)$  and  $M(F)$  are the performance of the benchmark  $B$  and algorithm  $M$  respectively given input  $F$ .

**Example:**  $B$ : optimal value for the knapsack problem;  $M$ : not so naïve greedy algorithm.

$$\text{APX}(M) = 2.$$

How do we evaluate this approximation? Is 2 “good enough”?

# Parametrized Instances

In often cases, we can consider the worst-case approximations in parameterized instances.

# Parametrized Instances

In often cases, we can consider the worst-case approximations in parameterized instances.

**Example:** in the knapsack problem, one possible parameterization is the number of tasks  $n$ .

- This parameterization captures the size of the instance / input.

# Parametrized Instances

In often cases, we can consider the worst-case approximations in parameterized instances.

**Example:** in the knapsack problem, one possible parameterization is the number of tasks  $n$ .

- This parameterization captures the size of the instance / input.

**Asymptotic analysis:** understand how the worst-case approximation guarantee scales with the instance size.

- $\text{APX}(M; n)$ : worst-case approximation of  $M$  when input size is  $n$ .

# Asymptotic Analysis

- $f(n) = O(g(n)) : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$ ;
- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} > 0$ .
- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ ;
- $f(n) = o(g(n))$  if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) \neq \Omega(g(n))$ ;
- $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$  if  $f(n) \neq O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ ;

It measures the relative growth of the function with respect to  $n$ .

# Asymptotic Analysis

- $f(n) = O(g(n)) : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$ ;
- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} > 0$ .
- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ ;
- $f(n) = o(g(n))$  if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) \neq \Omega(g(n))$ ;
- $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$  if  $f(n) \neq O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ ;

It measures the relative growth of the function with respect to  $n$ .

## Example:

- $2n^2 + 8n + 100 = O(n^2)$ ;
- $16n^3 = o(2^n)$ .
- $4n - 32 = \Theta(n)$ .
- $\log(n) = o(n^\epsilon)$  for any constant  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# Asymptotic Analysis

An algorithm  $M$  has a **constant approximation** if  $\text{APX}(M; n) = O(1)$ .

- usually we view constant approximation as a **good** approximation since the worst-case performance does not degrade as the problem instance grows large ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

# Asymptotic Analysis

An algorithm  $M$  has a **constant approximation** if  $\text{APX}(M; n) = O(1)$ .

- usually we view constant approximation as a **good** approximation since the worst-case performance does not degrade as the problem instance grows large ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Usually, an approximation is not ideal if it is a super-constant, i.e.,  $\text{APX}(M; n) = \omega(1)$ .

- E.g.,  $\text{APX}(M; n) = \Theta(\log(n))$ , or  $\text{APX}(M; n) = \Theta(n^2)$ .



# Asymptotic Analysis

An algorithm  $M$  has a **constant approximation** if  $\text{APX}(M; n) = O(1)$ .

- usually we view constant approximation as a **good** approximation since the worst-case performance does not degrade as the problem instance grows large ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Usually, an approximation is not ideal if it is a super-constant, i.e.,  $\text{APX}(M; n) = \omega(1)$ .

- E.g.,  $\text{APX}(M; n) = \Theta(\log(n))$ , or  $\text{APX}(M; n) = \Theta(n^2)$ .

**2-approximation to the optimal: Great! Same rate as the optimal!**

# Online Selection Problems

**Problem:**  $n$  items arriving online.

- item  $i$  has value  $v_i \sim F_i$ ;
- the agent knows  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  at time 0.
- at time  $i \leq n$ , the agent observes value  $v_i$  and decides whether to select item  $i$  (if the selection has not been made).

**Note:** the arrival order of the items is unknown to the agent.

# Online Selection Problems

**Problem:**  $n$  items arriving online.

- item  $i$  has value  $v_i \sim F_i$ ;
- the agent knows  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  at time 0.
- at time  $i \leq n$ , the agent observes value  $v_i$  and decides whether to select item  $i$  (if the selection has not been made).

**Note:** the arrival order of the items is unknown to the agent.

How to make good decision without knowing the future?

## Application: Job Hiring Process

A firm wants to hire for a vacant position.

- **optimal policy:** interview all the candidates, and selects the best one after the interviews.
- may not be feasible in certain scenarios, e.g., some candidates cannot wait long for the decisions.

# Application: Job Hiring Process

A firm wants to hire for a vacant position.

- **optimal policy**: interview all the candidates, and selects the best one after the interviews.
- may not be feasible in certain scenarios, e.g., some candidates cannot wait long for the decisions.

## Online Interview Process

- the candidates arrive in an **online** order;

## Application: Job Hiring Process

A firm wants to hire for a vacant position.

- **optimal policy**: interview all the candidates, and selects the best one after the interviews.
- may not be feasible in certain scenarios, e.g., some candidates cannot wait long for the decisions.

### Online Interview Process

- the candidates arrive in an **online** order;
- the firm observes the true quality of the current candidate, but not the quality of future candidates;
- the firm needs to make an immediate hiring decision for each candidate.

## Application: Job Hiring Process

A firm wants to hire for a vacant position.

- **optimal policy:** interview all the candidates, and selects the best one after the interviews.
- may not be feasible in certain scenarios, e.g., some candidates cannot wait long for the decisions.

### Online Interview Process

- the candidates arrive in an **online** order;
- the firm observes the true quality of the current candidate, but not the quality of future candidates;
- the firm needs to make an immediate hiring decision for each candidate.

**Question:** how to design good online hiring policies? What is the loss of adhering to online policies?

- designing the online policy is the same as the previous online selection problem.

# Prophet Inequalities

How to evaluate the performance of an online policy?



# Prophet Inequalities

How to evaluate the performance of an online policy?

Compare to a prophet who can foresee all future values.

- the prophet can guarantee an expected value of  $\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ . This is the benchmark.

# Prophet Inequalities

## How to evaluate the performance of an online policy?

Compare to a prophet who can foresee all future values.

- the prophet can guarantee an expected value of  $\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ . This is the benchmark.

**Question:** what are the performance guarantees using online policies compared to the prophet?

# Prophet Inequalities

## How to evaluate the performance of an online policy?

Compare to a prophet who can foresee all future values.

- the prophet can guarantee an expected value of  $\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ . This is the benchmark.

**Question:** what are the performance guarantees using online policies compared to the prophet?

**Naive solution:** randomly select a value (RS).

- the probability of choosing the highest value is  $\frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow \text{APX}(\text{RS}) = n$ .
- can we do better?

# Prophet Inequalities

## How to evaluate the performance of an online policy?

Compare to a prophet who can foresee all future values.

- the prophet can guarantee an expected value of  $\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ . This is the benchmark.

**Question:** what are the performance guarantees using online policies compared to the prophet?

**Naive solution:** randomly select a value (RS).

- the probability of choosing the highest value is  $\frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow \text{APX}(\text{RS}) = \frac{1}{n}$ .
- can we do better?

The designer cannot foresee the future values. How would she know whether to select the current value or not?

# Threshold Policies

The designer knows the distribution of values and can predict the expected gain from the future if the current value is not selected.

- Intuitively, the designer should stop if the current value exceeds the predicted future value.

# Threshold Policies

The designer knows the distribution of values and can predict the expected gain from the future if the current value is not selected.

- Intuitively, the designer should stop if the current value exceeds the predicted future value.

Simple policy in practice: **threshold policies**

- set threshold  $\tau$ ;
- at time  $i$ , selects item  $i$  if and only if  $v_i \geq \tau$ .

$\tau$  is an approximation of what the designer can gain in the future.

# Prophet Inequalities

## Theorem

*There exists a threshold policy that achieves a 2-approximation, i.e., it achieves expected value at least  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ .*

# Prophet Inequalities

## Theorem

*There exists a threshold policy that achieves a 2-approximation, i.e., it achieves expected value at least  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ .*

Consider threshold  $\tau$  and let  $p_\tau$  be the probability that an item is selected given  $\tau$ .



# Prophet Inequalities

## Theorem

*There exists a threshold policy that achieves a 2-approximation, i.e., it achieves expected value at least  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ .*

Consider threshold  $\tau$  and let  $p_\tau$  be the probability that an item is selected given  $\tau$ . The expected performance of the algorithm is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ALG}_\tau &= p_\tau \cdot \tau + \sum_{i \leq n} \Pr[v_j < \tau, \forall j < i] \cdot \mathbf{E}[(v_i - \tau)^+] \\ &\geq p_\tau \cdot \tau + (1 - p_\tau) \cdot \sum_{i \leq n} \mathbf{E}[(v_i - \tau)^+] \\ &\geq p_\tau \cdot \tau + (1 - p_\tau) \cdot \left( \mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] - \tau \right) \end{aligned}$$

Last inequality holds since  $\max_i v_i \leq \tau + \max_i (v_i - \tau)^+ \leq \tau + \sum_i (v_i - \tau)^+$ .

# Prophet Inequalities

## Theorem

*There exists a threshold policy that achieves a 2-approximation, i.e., it achieves expected value at least  $\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ .*

$$\text{ALG}_\tau \geq p_\tau \cdot \tau + (1 - p_\tau) \cdot \left( \mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] - \tau \right).$$

# Prophet Inequalities

## Theorem

*There exists a threshold policy that achieves a 2-approximation, i.e., it achieves expected value at least  $\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ .*

$$\text{ALG}_\tau \geq p_\tau \cdot \tau + (1 - p_\tau) \cdot \left( \mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] - \tau \right).$$

- **Mean Rule:** Let  $\tau = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ . We have

$$\text{ALG}_\tau \geq p_\tau \cdot \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] + (1 - p_\tau) \cdot \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right].$$

# Prophet Inequalities

## Theorem

*There exists a threshold policy that achieves a 2-approximation, i.e., it achieves expected value at least  $\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ .*

$$\text{ALG}_\tau \geq p_\tau \cdot \tau + (1 - p_\tau) \cdot \left( \mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] - \tau \right).$$

- **Mean Rule:** Let  $\tau = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E}[\max_i v_i]$ . We have

$$\text{ALG}_\tau \geq p_\tau \cdot \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] + (1 - p_\tau) \cdot \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right].$$

- **Median Rule:** Let  $\tau$  such that  $p_\tau = \frac{1}{2}$ . We have

$$\text{ALG}_\tau \geq \frac{1}{2}\tau + \frac{1}{2} \left( \mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right] - \tau \right) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{E} \left[ \max_i v_i \right].$$

# Hard Instances

Can we do better than 2? **No!**

# Hard Instances

Can we do better than 2? **No!**

**Example:** two items.

- Item 1:  $v_1 = 1$  with probability 1.
- Item 2:  $v_2 = z$  w.p.  $\frac{1}{z}$ , and 0 otherwise.

# Hard Instances

Can we do better than 2? **No!**

**Example:** two items.

- Item 1:  $v_1 = 1$  with probability 1.
- Item 2:  $v_2 = z$  w.p.  $\frac{1}{z}$ , and 0 otherwise.

**Any Online Policy:**

- If item 1 is chosen, the expected value is  $v_1 = 1$ .
- If item 1 is not chosen, the expected value is at most  $\mathbf{E}[v_2] = 1$ .

# Hard Instances

Can we do better than 2? **No!**

**Example:** two items.

- Item 1:  $v_1 = 1$  with probability 1.
- Item 2:  $v_2 = z$  w.p.  $\frac{1}{z}$ , and 0 otherwise.

**Any Online Policy:**

- If item 1 is chosen, the expected value is  $v_1 = 1$ .
- If item 1 is not chosen, the expected value is at most  $\mathbf{E}[v_2] = 1$ .

**Prophet:** select item 1 if and only if  $v_2 = 0$ . The expected value of the prophet is  $z \cdot \frac{1}{z} + (1 - \frac{1}{z}) \cdot 1 = 2 - \frac{1}{z}$ .



# Hard Instances

Can we do better than 2? **No!**

**Example:** two items.

- Item 1:  $v_1 = 1$  with probability 1.
- Item 2:  $v_2 = z$  w.p.  $\frac{1}{z}$ , and 0 otherwise.

**Any Online Policy:**

- If item 1 is chosen, the expected value is  $v_1 = 1$ .
- If item 1 is not chosen, the expected value is at most  $\mathbf{E}[v_2] = 1$ .

**Prophet:** select item 1 if and only if  $v_2 = 0$ . The expected value of the prophet is  $z \cdot \frac{1}{z} + (1 - \frac{1}{z}) \cdot 1 = 2 - \frac{1}{z}$ .

The gap is 2 when  $z \rightarrow \infty$ .

## Application: Auctions

**Auctions:** a single item,  $n$  agents.

- each agent  $i$  has a private value  $v_i \sim F_i$ ;

## Application: Auctions

**Auctions:** a single item,  $n$  agents.

- each agent  $i$  has a private value  $v_i \sim F_i$ ;

**Efficiency maximization:** allocate the item to the agent with the highest value.

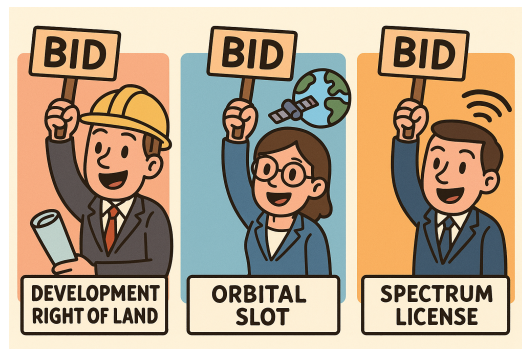
# Application: Auctions

**Auctions:** a single item,  $n$  agents.

- each agent  $i$  has a private value  $v_i \sim F_i$ ;

**Efficiency maximization:** allocate the item to the agent with the highest value.

- distributing scarce resource: spectrum license; display of Ad slots; development rights on lands; orbital slots for satellites; pollution permits; ...



# Application: Auctions

Incentives matters in this problem!

- agents have incentives to misreport the true values as higher ones to win the item;

# Application: Auctions

Incentives matters in this problem!

- agents have incentives to misreport the true values as higher ones to win the item;

A simple method for disciplining the strategic agents: using transfers:

- given price  $p_i$  for each agent  $i$ , item is sold only when  $v_i \geq p_i$ .

# Application: Auctions

## Incentives matters in this problem!

- agents have incentives to misreport the true values as higher ones to win the item;

A simple method for disciplining the strategic agents: using transfers:

- given price  $p_i$  for each agent  $i$ , item is sold only when  $v_i \geq p_i$ .

**Posted pricing mechanism:** given prices  $\{p_i\}_{i \in [n]}$

- the item is sold to an agent with value  $v_i \geq p_i$ .
- tie-breaking  $\pi$  when there are multiple agents with high values.

# Connection to Auctions

Prophet inequality:  $n$  items

- value distributions  $F = F_1 \times \cdots \times F_n$ ;
- threshold  $\tau$ ;
- arrival order  $\pi$ .

Posted pricing mechanism:  $n$  agents

- value distributions  $F = F_1 \times \cdots \times F_n$ ;
- price  $p_i = \tau$  for each agent  $i$ ;
- tie breaking rule  $\pi$ .



# Connection to Auctions

Prophet inequality:  $n$  items

- value distributions  $F = F_1 \times \dots \times F_n$ ;
- threshold  $\tau$ ;
- arrival order  $\pi$ .

Posted pricing mechanism:  $n$  agents

- value distributions  $F = F_1 \times \dots \times F_n$ ;
- price  $p_i = \tau$  for each agent  $i$ ;
- tie breaking rule  $\pi$ .

Given any valuation profile  $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ , the selected value and the optimal value in both problems are the same.

- Posted pricing mechanism has a **2-approximation** to the optimal welfare.

# Basics on Game Theory

# Incomplete Information Games

A static game with incomplete information is denoted as

$\Gamma_I = (N, (A_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N}, (\Theta_i)_{i \in N}, \mu)$  where

- $N$  is the set of players;
- $A_i$  is the set of player  $i$ 's actions; (what the agents can do)
- $\Theta_i$  is the set of player  $i$ 's "types" where  $\theta_i \in \Theta_i$  is private information of  $i$ ; (what the agents know)
- $u_i : A \times \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is player  $i$ 's payoff function (where  $A = \times_{i \in N} A_i$ , and  $\Theta = \times_{i \in N} \Theta_i$ ).
- $\mu(\theta)$  is the probability that a type profile  $\theta \in \Theta$  occurs.

# Incomplete Information Games

A static game with incomplete information is denoted as

$\Gamma_I = (N, (A_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N}, (\Theta_i)_{i \in N}, \mu)$  where

- $N$  is the set of players;
- $A_i$  is the set of player  $i$ 's actions; (what the agents can do)
- $\Theta_i$  is the set of player  $i$ 's "types" where  $\theta_i \in \Theta_i$  is private information of  $i$ ; (what the agents know)
- $u_i : A \times \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is player  $i$ 's payoff function (where  $A = \times_{i \in N} A_i$ , and  $\Theta = \times_{i \in N} \Theta_i$ ).
- $\mu(\theta)$  is the probability that a type profile  $\theta \in \Theta$  occurs.

$\mu$  is called a common prior.

- Let  $\mu_i$  denote the marginal distribution of  $\mu$  on  $\Theta_i$ , i.e.,  $\mu_i(\theta_i) \equiv \sum_{\theta_{-i} \in \Theta_{-i}} \mu(\theta_i, \theta_{-i})$ .
- Let  $\mu(\theta_{-i} | \theta_i)$  be the belief of agent  $i$  over  $\theta_{-i}$  conditional on his type being  $\theta_i$ .

# Strategies and Bayesian Nash Equilibrium

A **strategy** of player  $i$  in  $\Gamma_I$  is a mapping  $s_i : \Theta_i \rightarrow \Delta(A_i)$ .

- $s_i$  is a **pure strategy** if the mapping is deterministic, i.e.,  $s_i : \Theta_i \rightarrow A_i$ . Let  $S_i$  be the set of pure strategies for  $i$ .

# Strategies and Bayesian Nash Equilibrium

A **strategy** of player  $i$  in  $\Gamma_I$  is a mapping  $s_i : \Theta_i \rightarrow \Delta(A_i)$ .

- $s_i$  is a **pure strategy** if the mapping is deterministic, i.e.,  $s_i : \Theta_i \rightarrow A_i$ . Let  $S_i$  be the set of pure strategies for  $i$ .

## Definition (BNE)

A strategy profile  $s$  is a **Bayesian Nash Equilibrium** if for any agent  $i$  and any type  $\theta_i$  (such that  $\mu_i(\theta_i) > 0$ ), for any action  $a_i^*$  in the support of  $s_i(\theta_i)$ , we have

$$a_i^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_{a_i \in A_i} \sum_{\theta_{-i} \in \Theta_{-i}} \mu(\theta_{-i} | \theta_i) \cdot \mathbf{E}_{a_{-i} \sim s_{-i}(\theta_{-i})} [u_i(a_i, a_{-i}, \theta)] .$$

Informal definition of BNE: **all agents are doing the best they can given what they think others are doing.**