Auctions

Alexey Makarin

April 30, May 3, May 7, 2021

Introduction

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- That said, first ever recorded auctions took place in Babylon around 500 B.C.

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- A variety of auction mechanisms were developed, including English auction, Dutch auction, and so-called auction by the candle.

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- Private sector:
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 - Google selling ad space through an auction system; etc.
- Public sector:
 - Privatization and public resource allocation (ex: famous FCC Spectrum Auction in 1993 designed by Paul Milgrom and others);
 - Reverse auctions: Trillions of dollars of goods bought by governments on e-procurement auctions around the globe.

Questions in Auction Theory

- Why are auctions so prevalent, historically and today?
- In which situations auctions are preferred to other selling mechanisms, e.g., to a fixed posted price?
- Bidders: for a given auction, what are good bidding strategies?
- Sellers: are there particular types of auctions that would bring greater revenues than others?

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- Auctions are one set of mechanisms in a general mechanism design problem: how to organize a game such that a certain objective is achieved?
 - Typically two competing objectives: revenue vs. efficiency.

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- Private (independent) values
 - Ex: value is derived from consumption alone
- Interdependent values
 - Ex: auctioned object is an asset that can be resold later
- Pure common value
 - Ex: value of the auctioned object is derived from a market price that is unknown at the time of the auction

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 - Bids are public; price is ascending until no one bids more.
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- Sealed-bid first-price auction (FPSB);
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 - Example: E-procurement auctions, eBay auctions.
- Sealed-bid second-price auction (SPSB, Vickrey auction).
 - Bids are private; highest bidder gets object at 2nd-highest price.
 - Example: Google ad auctions (before 2019).

In game-theoretic terms, some auctions are similar to each other:

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- English auction \approx Sealed-bid second-price (under *private values*).
 - In both formats, best to bid your valuation.

Private Value Auctions

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- N potential risk-neutral buyers
 - v_i valuation of buyer $i \in N$
 - $v_i \sim \text{i.i.d.} \ F[0,\omega]$ independent symmetric values
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- Since bidders are symmetric, focus on symmetric equilibria equilibria in which all bidders follow the same strategy

FPSB vs. SPSB

In this setup, we will consider two auction formats:

- First-price sealed bid auction (1): highest bidder gets the object and pays the amount he bids
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Questions:

- What are equilibrium bidding strategies $\beta_i : [0, \omega] \to \mathbb{R}_+$ in these auction formats?
- Which of the two formats is better for the seller?





Second-Price Sealed-Bid Auction

Payoffs in SPSB

Bidders' payoffs are:

$$\mathbb{E}U_i = \begin{cases} v_i - \max_{j \neq i} b_j & \text{if } b_i > \max_{j \neq i} b_j \\ \frac{1}{K} [v_i - \max_{j \neq i} b_j] & \text{if } b_i = \max_{j \neq i} b_j \\ 0 & \text{if } b_i < \max_{j \neq i} b_j \end{cases}$$

, where K is the number of winning bidders in case of a tie.

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<u>Proof:</u> Consider bidder i and suppose that $p_i = \max_{j \neq i} b_j$ is the highest competing bid.

• If *i* bids v_i , he wins if $v_i > p_i$ and not if $v_i < p_i$ (if $v_i = p_i$, indifferent between winning and losing).

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- Thus, bidding less than v_i is weakly dominated.
- Applying same logic, bidding $z_i > v_i$ is also weakly dominated.



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- Basic trade-off: increasing one's bid increases the probability of winning but reduces the gains from winning
- Suppose that bidders $j \neq i$ follow a symmetric, increasing, and differentiable equilibrium strategy β .
- Bidder i has valuation v and bids b. What is the optimal b?

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Taking FOC:

$$\frac{g(\beta^{-1}(b))}{\beta'(\beta^{-1}(b))}(v-b) - G[\beta^{-1}(b)] = 0$$

(where g = G' is the density of Y_1).

• In symmetric equilibrium $b = \beta(v)$, so:

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- Suppose that player's opponents chose this strategy.
- Clearly, the player should never choose $b > \beta(\omega)$ since bidding $b = \beta(\omega)$ already ensures the victory.
- Thus, need to show that a player of type v is at least as well off choosing $\beta(v)$ as $\beta(\hat{v})$ for any $\hat{v} \in [0, \omega]$.

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Proof (cont'd): Substituting $b = \beta(\hat{v})$ into buyer's utility function:

$$G(\beta^{-1}(b)) \times (v - b) = G(\hat{v})[v - \beta(\hat{v})]$$

= $G(\hat{v})v - \int_0^{\hat{v}} x dG(x) = \int_0^{\hat{v}} (v - x) dG(x)$

This is clearly maximized at $\hat{v} = v$.





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• So, the degree of "shading" goes down as N increases!

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Valuations are exponentially distributed on $[0,\infty)$, and there are only two bidders.

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$$\beta'(v) = v - \int_0^v \frac{F(x)}{F(v)} dx = \frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{v \exp(-\lambda v)}{1 - \exp(-\lambda v)}$$





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(ii) Expected revenue is N times the ex ante payment of an individual bidder, so it too must be the same between FPSB and SPSB. From SPSB, it must be the expected second-highest of N valuations:

$$\mathbb{E}[R'] = \mathbb{E}[R''] = \mathbb{E}[Y_2^{(N)}]$$



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- In fact, one can prove a more general result:

Proposition

With i.i.d. private values, the distribution of equilibrium prices in a SPSB auction is a mean-preserving spread of the distribution of equilibrium prices in a FPSB auction.



The Revenue Equivalence Principle

- So far, we've shown that, regardless of F(v), expected selling prices in symmetric FPSB and SPSB auctions are the same.
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General Revenue Equivalence with IPV

<u>Def-n</u>: Auction is 'standard' if highest bidder gets the object.

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Suppose that values are i.i.d. and all bidders are risk neutral. Then any symmetric and increasing equilibrium of any standard auction, such that the expected payment of a bidder with value zero is zero, yields the same expected revenue to the seller.

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- Bidder *i* wins if $\beta(z)$ exceeds $\beta(Y_1)$, i.e., when $z > Y_1$.

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Note that the last expression does not depend on the particular auction form A.

Uniform Distribution

Valuations are uniformly distributed on [0,1]. What is the expected payment that seller expects to receive from any standard auction?

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$$v \sim U[0,1]$$
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Suppose that values are i.i.d., all bidders are risk neutral, and that the number of bidders is uncertain. Then any symmetric and increasing equilibrium of any standard auction, such that the expected payment of a bidder with value zero is zero, yields the same expected revenue.

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- Suppose that all bidders hold the same beliefs p_n . Then the logic of the previous proof goes through.

<u>Proof (cont-d)</u>: Everything is same as before but the probability of i winning is now:

$$G(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} p_n [F(z)]^n$$

Then the bidder's payoff is:

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and the previous analysis goes through. Thus, the revenue equivalence principle holds even if there is uncertainty about the number of bidders.

Leveraging Revenue Equivalence

Besides being a very useful result in practice, revenue equivalence is also helpful when trying to derive optimal strategies in weird or complicated auction setups.

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Example 2. All-Pay Auction.

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• As earlier, this is maximized at $\hat{v} = v$.

Reserve Prices

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- Frequently, sellers don't want to sell the object if the price is too low e.g., if it is lower than a certain threshold r > 0.
- Such price *r* is called the *reserve* (or *reservation*) price.

- So far, sellers played only a passive role in our analysis.
- Frequently, sellers don't want to sell the object if the price is too low e.g., if it is lower than a certain threshold r > 0.
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- ullet Let us now examine how r affects the two auction formats.

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(since the winner pays the reserve price r whenever the second-highest bid is below r)

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$$= N[1 - F(r)]G(r)[1 - (r - v_0)\lambda(r)]$$

, where $\lambda(r) = f(r)/(1 - F(r))$ is the hazard rate function.

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- Rest of analysis stays the same, so the two tools are equivalent.

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 - With a reserve price, object can remain unsold inefficient.
- Reserve price requires credible commitment from the seller:
 - Seller leaves some money on the table by setting $r > v_0$.
 - Hence, needs to credibly commit not to sell the product with a lower price and not to lower the reserve price in the future.