

## Handout 22: Revenue Equivalence in Auctions

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(Based on Shoham and Leyton-Brown 2011)

### Revenue Equivalence

Of the large (in fact, infinite) space of auctions, which one should an auctioneer choose? To a certain degree, the choice does not matter, a result formalized by the following important theorem.

**Theorem 11.1.4 (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  $[v_-, \bar{v}]$ . Then any efficient auction mechanism in which any agent with valuation  $v_-$  has an expected utility of zero yields the same expected revenue, and hence results in any bidder with valuation  $v_i$  making the same expected payment.*

The theorem states that any allocation mechanism/auction in which

1. the bidder with the highest type/signal/valuation always wins
2. the bidder with the lowest possible type/signal/valuation expects zero surplus
3. all bidders are risk neutral, and
4. all bidders are drawn from a strictly increasing and atomless distribution will lead to the same expected revenue for the seller (and player  $i$  of type  $v$  can expect the same surplus across auction types). *(based on Wikipedia)*

Thus, when bidders are risk neutral and have independent private valuations, **English, Japanese, Dutch, and all sealed bid auction protocols are revenue equivalent.**

### Risk Attitudes

One of the key assumptions of the revenue equivalence theorem is that agents are risk neutral. It turns out that many auctions *cease to be revenue-equivalent when agents' risk attitudes change.*

*(Note: Risk averse agents prefer the sure thing; risk-neutral agents are indifferent; risk-seeking agents prefer to gamble.)*

To illustrate how revenue equivalence breaks down when agents are not risk neutral, consider an auction environment involving  $n$  bidders with IPV valuations drawn uniformly from  $[0, 1]$ . Bidder  $i$ , having valuation  $v_i$ , must decide whether it would prefer to engage in a first-price auction or a second-price auction. Regardless of which auction it chooses (presuming that the bidder, along with the other bidders, follows the chosen auction's equilibrium strategy),  $i$  knows that it will gain positive utility only if it has the highest utility.

In the case of the first-price auction,  $i$  will always gain  $\frac{1}{n}v_i$  when it has the highest valuation.

In the case of having the highest valuation in a second-price auction,  $i$ 's *expected* gain will be  $\frac{1}{n}v_i$ , but because he or she will pay the second-highest actual bid, the amount of  $i$ 's gain will *vary* based on the other bidders' valuations.

Thus, in choosing between the first-price and second-price auctions and conditioning on the belief that it will have the highest valuation,  $i$  is presented with the choice between ***a sure payment and a risky payment with the same expected value.***

If  $i$  is ***risk averse***, it will value the sure payment more highly than the risky payment, and hence will bid more aggressively in the first-price auction, causing it to yield the auctioneer a higher revenue than the second-price auction. (**Note** that it is  $i$ 's *behavior in the first-price auction that will change*: the second-price auction has the same dominant strategy regardless of  $i$ 's risk attitude.)

If  $i$  is ***risk seeking*** it will bid *less* aggressively in the first-price auction, and the auctioneer will derive greater profit from holding a second-price auction.

(**Note**: Implications for an auctioneer?)

The strategic equivalence of Dutch and first-price auctions continues to hold under different risk attitudes; likewise, the (weaker) equivalence of Japanese, English, and second-price auctions continues to hold as long as bidders have IPV valuations. These conclusions are summarized in Table 11.1.

Risk-neutral, IPV	Japanese	=	English	=	2 <sup>nd</sup>	=	1 <sup>st</sup>	=	Dutch
Risk-averse, IPV		=		=		<		=	
Risk-seeking, IPV		=		=		>		=	

**Table 11.1:** Relationships between revenues of various single-good auction protocols. ('>' = more money for auctioneer)

**Addendum: Why  $\frac{1}{n}v_i$  ?**

**Proposition 11.1.2** *In a first-price auction with two risk-neutral bidders whose valuations are drawn independently and uniformly at random from the interval  $[0, 1]$ ,  $(\frac{1}{2}v_1, \frac{1}{2}v_2)$  is a Bayes–Nash equilibrium strategy profile. (**Note**: That is: bidder 1's best response to bidder 2's strategy is  $\frac{1}{2}v_1$ .)*

**Theorem 11.1.3** *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  $(\frac{n-1}{n}v_1, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}v_n)$ . (In other words, the unique equilibrium of the auction occurs when each player bids  $\frac{n-1}{n}$  of its valuation.)*

Thus the gain is the utility (or valuation of the good) minus the amount paid for the good:  $v_i - \frac{n-1}{n}v_i = \frac{1}{n}v_i$ .