

Non-Clairvoyant Dynamic Mechanism Design^{*†}

Vahab Mirrokni Renato Paes Leme Pingzhong Tang Song Zuo

July 14, 2017

Abstract

Despite their better revenue and welfare guarantees for repeated auctions, dynamic mechanisms have not been widely adopted in practice. This is partly due to the complexity of their implementation as well as their unrealistic use of forecasting for future periods. We address these shortcomings and present a new family of dynamic mechanisms that are simple to compute and require no distribution knowledge of future periods.

This paper introduces the concept of non-clairvoyance in dynamic mechanism design, which is a measure-theoretic restriction on the information that the seller is allowed to use. A dynamic mechanism is non-clairvoyant if the allocation and pricing rule at each period does not depend on the type distributions in future periods.

We develop a framework for characterizing, designing, and proving lower bounds for dynamic mechanisms (clairvoyant or non-clairvoyant). This framework is used to characterize the revenue extraction power of non-clairvoyant mechanisms with respect to mechanisms that are allowed unrestricted use of distributional knowledge.

^{*}Thanks are due to Dirk Bergemann for his detailed comments on an early draft of this manuscript. We also thank Ilan Lobel, Santiago Balseiro and Balu Sivan, the participants of the Erice Workshop of Stochastic Methods in Game Theory and the Google Market Algorithms Workshop for their comments and suggestions.

[†]Contact information: Vahab Mirrokni, Google Research NYC, mirrokni@google.com; Renato Paes Leme, Google Research NYC, renatoppl@google.com; Pingzhong Tang, Institute for Interdisciplinary Information Sciences, Tsinghua University, kenshinping@gmail.com; Song Zuo, Institute for Interdisciplinary Information Sciences, Tsinghua University, songzuo.z@gmail.com.

1 Introduction

Dynamic mechanism design is a powerful tool for designing auctions that are repeated over time. Optimizing auctions across different time periods instead of optimizing each period individually can lead to improvements both in terms of revenue and allocation efficiency. So, why isn't the adoption of dynamic mechanisms more widespread? A crucial limitation is that they tend to be too detail-dependent: they require the designer to have reliable forecasts of the distributions of the agent's valuations in all periods. Moreover, mechanisms often require all buyers to share those beliefs. A second reason is their computational and descriptive complexity. Current approaches require a lengthy pre-processing step, wherein a large linear or dynamic program is solved and its solution is written to a table that is then used to implement the actual mechanism. The resulting allocation and pricing rules tend to be non-intuitive. Our goal in this paper is to design mechanisms that address the points raised above.

We will consider the design of sequential auctions. A firm wants to sell T products over T periods of time. In the classic setup, each buyer's valuation is drawn independently in each period from common knowledge distributions F_1, \dots, F_T . Even though the valuation distributions and the allocation problems are independent across timesteps, the incentive constraints bind across periods. Jackson and Sonnenschein [JS07] observe that linking apparently independent decisions together can lead to improved outcomes. A similar phenomenon was also observed by Manelli and Vincent [MV07]. Gains can be obtained for example by offering the buyer a higher price today in exchange for a discount tomorrow. There is a practice in the industry of offering discounts to buyers that have previously purchased their products. Papadimitriou et al. [PPPR16] quantify the revenue gap between applying the optimal Myerson auction to sell the item in each period and using the optimal mechanism that links decisions across time. They show that the latter can obtain arbitrarily times more revenue.

One difficulty in applying the theory of optimal dynamic mechanism design to practice is the difficulty of building good forecasts. Properly linking decisions across time requires precise knowledge of the distributions in each period. A retailer selling goods across time

typically has a good estimate of the value of the goods he has to sell in the current period. In future periods, he might not know the goods he will obtain from his supplier, the state of the economy, or the competing products in the market — all of which will affect the demand of the buyer.

This makes it hard for the seller not only to design an optimal mechanism, but also to design any non-trivial dynamic incentive compatible mechanism. Dynamic incentive compatibility means that agents in each period are incentivized to report their types based on their knowledge of the current types and in expectation over their types in the future. So if neither the seller nor the agents can build good forecasts, how can they verify that a mechanism is even dynamic incentive compatible? This motivates this paper’s central question:

Can we design dynamic mechanisms that don’t need to predict the future?

In other words, can we design dynamic mechanisms such that the allocation and payments at time t do not rely on forecasts of the buyer’s value distributions F_{t+1}, \dots, F_T ? We can just run the static optimal in each period: in each period t , the seller learns F_t and posts the optimal price for that period. If we can’t rely on distributions of future periods, is the revenue of the optimal static mechanism all we can achieve?

*Can we design dynamic mechanisms that don’t need to predict the future
and yet achieve revenue comparable to mechanisms that know the future?*

The main result of this paper is an affirmative answer to this question. We show a mechanism that uses only information about the current and past distributions and the current and past reported types to allocate and price buyers and that obtains at least $1/5$ of the revenue of the optimal mechanism that has knowledge about all distributions past, present and future.

A major contribution of this paper is to define the notion of a *non-clairvoyant mechanism*. It consists of an allocation and pricing rule that, for each period t , maps the distributions F_1, \dots, F_t and types $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_t$ sampled from those distributions to an allocation and payments. What does it mean for non-clairvoyant mechanisms to be incentive compatible? In traditional mechanism design, dynamic incentive compatibility means that it is the optimal

strategy for the agent to report her current type truthfully *in expectation* over her types in future periods. We say that a mechanism is dynamic incentive compatible in the non-clairvoyant sense if for *any* continuation future F_{t+1}, \dots, F_T , it is incentive compatible for the buyer to report her type in period t . This is quite a strong notion, since we don't even require that agents and designer to agree on the forecast for future periods. Besides dynamic incentive compatibility, we will also require ex-post individual rationality, i.e., that the utility of the agent for the mechanism is non-negative for every realization of her types.

To understand the relative power of *non-clairvoyant* and *clairvoyant* mechanisms (i.e. mechanisms that know all the distributions F_1, \dots, F_T) we must consider two scenarios:

$$\text{scenario } A : F_1, \dots, F_t, F'_{t+1}, \dots, F'_T \quad \text{scenario } B : F_1, \dots, F_t, F''_{t+1}, \dots, F''_T$$

The non-clairvoyant designer needs to design a mechanism that allocates the same way for the first t periods in both scenarios. The clairvoyant designer can tailor his allocation and payments in the first t periods to his knowledge of whether he is in scenario A or B .

Motivation and Industrial Applications Our initial motivation for considering this problem is an industrial application in the sale of Internet advertisement. Ad auction is clearly a setting of repeated auctions but the common practice in the industry is to run independent auctions for each ad impression. We believe a major innovation in Internet advertisement would be the design of mechanisms that take into account the interaction between different items. We sought to overcome the major difficulties in applying the existing algorithms to our problem: the first major issue was the computational complexity of the solution. There are billions of ad requests every day and computing a linear or dynamic program with that state space is clearly infeasible in practice. A second problem is that previous algorithms assumed that we knew exactly how many items we had to sell as well as the demand forecast for each. In particular, approaches based on backward induction not only require us to know what items we will receive but in what order.

A more realistic model we would like to analyze is the following: in each period the search engine receives a query from a certain user and needs to decide which ad to serve for that

request. Based on the user’s characteristics (e.g. male or female, age group, geographic location), the seller has an estimate of the distribution of the buyer’s *for the current impression*. Although the seller can build a good estimate for each type of impression, it is impossible to know ahead of time the exact type of each impression in the future and the order in which those types will arrive.

Main Result Our main theorem (Theorem 7.1) shows that there is a non-clairvoyant mechanism for selling one item per period to multiple buyers, which we call the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism, that obtains at least $1/5$ of the revenue that can be obtained by any clairvoyant mechanism. Since the revenue of the optimal dynamic mechanism can be arbitrarily times more than the static one, obtaining at least $1/5$ of the optimal dynamic revenue often means obtaining much larger revenue than the optimal static auction.

The mechanism sells in each period $1/5$ of the item using the Myerson auction for that distribution in that period and $2/5$ of the item as a plain second price auction. The remaining $2/5$ of the item will provide the dynamic component of the mechanism: for the remaining $2/5$ we will use a parameter b^i called *bank balance* computed for each agent as a function of her previous reports and the previous distributions. Then we will run a modification of the optimal money burning auction of Hartline and Roughgarden [HR08]. The Myerson auction component will capture the revenue that can be obtained in each individual period. The combination of the second price and the money burning components will be responsible for capturing the gains from inter-period interactions.

We complement this result with an impossibility theorem (Theorem 6.1) showing that no non-clairvoyant mechanism can obtain a better-than- $1/2$ fraction of the revenue of the optimal clairvoyant mechanism for all sequences of distributions. For two periods and any number of buyers, we can design a non-clairvoyant mechanism that extracts at least $1/2$ of the optimal clairvoyant revenue. For multiple periods and one buyer, the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism described extracts at least $1/3$ of the optimal clairvoyant revenue. For 2 periods, we derive the optimal mechanism matching the given lower bound.

Techniques The main technique used in the paper both to design non-clairvoyant mechanisms and to upper bound the revenue of the clairvoyant mechanism is a framework which we call *bank account mechanisms*. First, we show that for any clairvoyant mechanism that is dynamic incentive compatible and ex-post individually rational, there is a bank account mechanism with the same properties and at least the same revenue (Theorem 5.2). Bank account mechanisms have several nice properties. First, any mechanism in that format is dynamic incentive compatible by design (Theorem 5.1). Second, its revenue naturally decomposes into intra-period revenue (which can be bounded by the Myerson revenue for that period) and inter-period revenue, which we call *bank account spend* (Lemma 5.7). Perhaps more importantly, bank account mechanisms naturally lend themselves to the design of non-clairvoyant mechanisms. This statement is formalized in the following non-clairvoyant reduction: any non-clairvoyant dynamic mechanism can be written as a non-clairvoyant bank account mechanism (Theorem 6.2).

Robustness and Detail Independence Non-clairvoyance can be seen as a form of robustification of dynamic mechanisms. By requiring the mechanism not to use any distributional information from future periods, we obtain mechanisms that are much less detail-dependent, in the spirit of Wilson’s doctrine [Wil87]. In this sense, we share the philosophy of Bergemann and Morris [BM12] in their theory of robust dynamic mechanism design, which seeks to design mechanisms that work irrespective of beliefs that agents might have. While we make the mechanisms free of beliefs about the future, we still assume beliefs about the present (i.e., the seller in period t has forecast F_t for demand during that period). In that sense we are more in line with Yogi Berra,¹ who says “*It’s tough to make predictions, especially about the future.*”

¹The origin of this quote is greatly disputed. While most commonly attribute it to Yogi Berra, a similar quote is attributed to Samuel Goldwyn. Recently, it came out that this quote is much older, and is attributed to the Danish physicist Niels Bohr. A letter to The Economist [Pre07] reads: “It is said that Bohr used to quote this saying to illustrate the differences between Danish and Swedish humor. Bohr himself usually attributed the saying to Robert Storm Petersen (1882-1949), also called Storm P., a Danish artist and writer. However, the saying did not originate from Storm P. The original author remains unknown (although Mark Twain is often suggested).”

Simpler Mechanisms without Backward Induction The constraints imposed by non-clairvoyance naturally produce simpler mechanisms. To illustrate the simplicity of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism, it is useful to compare it with previous approaches to designing dynamic mechanisms. All previous approaches require some form of expensive pre-processing step. In [PPPR16], the allocation and pricing are determined by the solutions of a large linear program that has one variable for each sequence of reports. If the distributions are independent, this requires a number of variables that are exponential both in the number of buyers and the number of periods. Another approach is to replace the linear program by a dynamic program that is solved via backward induction. This is the approach taken by Ashlagi et al [ADH16] and by [MLTZ16]. The mechanism extracts a $(1 - \epsilon)$ fraction of the optimal revenue, but it is no longer exponential in the number of periods. In both cases, it is only analyzed for a single buyer. The mathematical characterization of the optimal mechanism for multiple buyers is also presented in [ADH16], but it is not made algorithmic beyond a single buyer. Ashlagi et al. [ADH16] also propose a second mechanism which extracts at least $1/2$ of the optimal revenue but requires solving a simpler dynamic program and produces a simpler allocation rule; however, it still requires backward induction and only applies to one buyer.

Non-clairvoyance clearly prevents the designer from using any form of backward induction, since, at period t , we don't know the distributions in future periods. In fact, we don't even know how many more items we will have to allocate. The NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism requires no backward induction: in each period t , it uses the distributions of the buyers at that period to construct an optimal auction (which is based on virtual values, following the Myersonian approach, and hence polynomial in the number of buyers), a second price auction, and a money burning auction (which also admits a virtual value description, and thus is also polynomial in the number of buyers).

In summary, we get an auction that requires no pre-processing and no backward induction. Moreover, the computation in each period is polynomial in the number of buyers.

1.1 Roadmap

We spent the first half of the paper discussing the single buyer case, since the analysis is simpler and the notation lighter. In Section 3, we describe the notion of a non-clairvoyant mechanism. In Section 4, we describe the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism for one buyer. In Section 5, we introduce the bank account framework and use it to show that the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism obtains at least $1/3$ of the optimal clairvoyant revenue. In Section 6, we show that no non-clairvoyant mechanism can obtain better than $1/2$ of the optimal clairvoyant revenue. For 2 periods, we present a mechanism achieving the optimal ratio of $1/2$. In Section 7, the results are extended to multiple buyers. Appendix E argues that all computations performed by the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism can be done in polynomial time. In Section 8, we derive the optimal non-clairvoyant mechanism for 2 periods. In Section 9, we survey related work.

2 Repeated Auctions Model

Auction Setup The standard dynamic mechanism design setting with finite time horizon describes an economic setup where a designer repeatedly selects an outcome over T periods based on reports by strategic agents. For the sake of clarity, the first part of our paper focuses on the single agent case and then extends it to multiple agents in Section 7. In each period $t \in [T]$, the agent has type $\theta_t \in \Theta$, which is drawn from distribution F_t independent across timesteps. Her valuation for outcome $x_t \in \mathcal{O}$ being implemented is given by $v : \Theta \times \mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Our assumption that the agent types are independent across timesteps is inspired by our main application in Internet advertisement: each time an impression arrives, the advertiser's value is a function of properties of the impression that are publically observable (e.g., as geographic and demographic information) plus some privately observable information (e.g., browser cookies).² The publically observable information will determine the distribution

²Browser cookies are small pieces of data sent from websites and stored in the user's Web browser so that when the user revisits the same website the cookies can be used to identify the user's previous actions. Such data is encrypted and can only be read by the website that placed it. For example, if a user visits an online store, a cookie is placed on his browser. In an auction, only the advertiser corresponding to that store will be able to read that cookie, making it a private signal.

from which the buyer's type is sampled, while the private information will determine the realization of the type. Unless buyers are starting a new campaign, they already have an established notion of value for the combination of cookie and demographic information, so the allocation for one impression will not affect the value of others. We also consider implementing dynamic mechanisms with a short span (say a few hours or a day) in which there is a large enough volume of queries that we can reap the benefit of dynamic queries but the time span is short enough for the valuations to remain stable. Concerns about valuations that shift over time arise when we try to apply dynamic mechanisms over large time spans when the market is likely to move. This issue, however, lies beyond the scope of the current paper.

Continuing the description of the model, the following events happen at each period t :

1. the agent learns her type $\theta_t \sim F_t$;
2. the agent reports type $\hat{\theta}_t$ to the designer;
3. the designer implements an outcome $x_t \in \mathcal{O}$ and charges the agent p_t ; and
4. the agent accrues utility $u_t = v(\theta_t, x_t) - p_t$.

The final utility of the agent is the sum over her utility in all periods, i.e., $\sum_{t=1}^T u_t$.

A mechanism can be described in terms of a pricing and an outcome function, which map the distributional knowledge of the seller $F_{1..T} = (F_1, F_2, \dots, F_T)$ and the history of reports $\hat{\theta}_{1..t} = (\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_t)$ to an outcome x_t and payment p_t :

- Outcome: $x_t : \Theta^t \times (\Delta\Theta)^T \rightarrow \mathcal{O}$,
- Payment: $p_t : \Theta^t \times (\Delta\Theta)^T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

where Θ is the space of types for the agents and $\Delta\Theta$ is a set of distributions over Θ . We use a semicolon to separate the report and distribution parameters: $x_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t}; F_{1..T})$ and $p_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t}; F_{1..T})$. We will omit the distributional parameters $F_{1..T}$ when clear from the context and write it simply as $x_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t})$ and $p_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t})$.

We define the utility of the buyer with type θ_t in step t given a history of reports $\hat{\theta}_{1..t}$ and seller distribution knowledge $F_{1..T}$ as:

$$u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t}; F_{1..T}) = v(\theta_t, x_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t}; F_{1..T})) - p_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t}; F_{1..T}),$$

and again we omit $F_{1..T}$ when clear from context.

Incentive Constraints We will adopt the traditional notion of incentive compatibility in dynamic settings, where agents have incentives to report their types truthfully in each period. This can be defined easily by backward induction: in the last period, regardless of the history so far, it should be incentive compatible for an agent to report her true type. This corresponds to the usual notion of incentive compatibility in (static) mechanism design:

$$\theta_T = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_T} u_T(\theta_T; \hat{\theta}_{1..T-1}, \hat{\theta}_T; F_{1..T})$$

for all $\hat{\theta}_{1..T-1}, \theta_T$. To simplify notations, from now on we will omit the ‘for-all’ quantification and assume that all expressions are quantified as ‘for-all’ in their free variables.

For the next-to-last-period, it should be incentive compatible for the agent to report her true type given that she will report her true type in the following period:

$$\theta_{T-1} = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_{T-1}} u_{T-1}(\theta_{T-1}; \hat{\theta}_{1..T-2}, \hat{\theta}_{T-1}; F_{1..T}) + \mathbb{E}_{\theta_T \sim F_T} [u_T(\theta_T; \hat{\theta}_{1..T-2}, \hat{\theta}_{T-1}, \theta_T; F_{1..T})].$$

Proceeding by backward induction for all periods, we require that:

$$\theta_t = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_t} u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t; F_{1..T}) + U_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t; F_{1..T}), \quad (\text{DIC})$$

where the second term is the *continuation utility*, i.e., the expected utility obtained from the subsequent periods of the mechanism:

$$U_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t}; F_{1..T}) := \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{t+1..T} \sim F_{t+1..T}} [\sum_{\tau=t+1}^T u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..\tau}; F_{1..T})].$$

A well-known fact in dynamic mechanism design is that the property **DIC** implies that the agent’s expected overall utility $U_0 = \mathbb{E}[\sum_t u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t})]$ is maximized when the agent reports truthfully in each period.

Participation Constraints We will also enforce participation constraints, which require the agent to derive non-negative utility from the mechanism. Again inspired by our main

motivation, we will enforce those constraints ex-post, i.e., in every realization of the agent types. It is desirable in an auction setting where the buyers and sellers have an ongoing business relationship (e.g., Internet advertisement) to ensure that buyers derive non-negative utility from the auction. We will refer to this constraint as *ex-post individual rationality*:

$$\sum_{t=1}^T u_t(\theta_t; \theta_{1..t}; F_{1..T}) \geq 0. \quad (\text{eP-IR})$$

Revenue optimization We will focus on the problem of maximizing revenue subject to **DIC** and **eP-IR** constraints. Fixing a set of distributions $F_{1..T}$, we can define the revenue-optimal mechanism for those distributions as:

$$\text{REV}^*(F_{1..T}) := \max \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{1..T} \sim F_{1..T}} [\sum_{t=1}^T p_t(\theta_{1..t}; F_{1..T})] \text{ s.t. (DIC) and (eP-IR).} \quad (\text{REVMAX})$$

Static mechanisms Informally, a mechanism is said to be static if the allocation and pricing functions x_t, p_t at time t depend only on the distributional knowledge $F_{1..T}$ and the reported type θ_t at that period. This can be made formal in a measure-theoretic sense by asking x_t and p_t to be measurable with respect to the σ -algebra generated by $(\theta_t, F_{1..T})$.

Under this definition, the revenue optimization problem restricted to static mechanisms becomes separable: the optimal solution consists in applying for each period t the optimal mechanism for that period, i.e., the mechanism $x_t(\theta_t; F_T), p_t(\theta_t; F_t)$ that maximizes $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \sim F_t} [p_t(\theta_t, F_t)]$ subject to single-period incentive compatibility and individual rationality.

We can define $\text{REV}^S(F_{1..T})$ as the revenue of the optimal static mechanism. Since the static problem is more constrained, we clearly have $\text{REV}^*(F_{1..T}) \geq \text{REV}^S(F_{1..T})$. Papadimitriou et al. [PPPR16] show that the ratio $\text{REV}^*(F_{1..T})/\text{REV}^S(F_{1..T})$ can be arbitrarily large. We reproduce this example in Appendix A.

Single item per period setting Although most of our results hold for a general setting, we will present them for single item auctions. In the auction setting the agent type is a single real number representing how much she values one unit of the good, i.e., $\Theta = \mathbb{R}_+$. The outcome $\mathcal{O} = [0, 1]$ corresponds to the probability that the item is allocated to the agent. The value corresponds to a product $v(\theta_t, x_t) = \theta_t \cdot x_t$.

Cassandra’s curse The major shortcoming of the traditional notion of **DIC** is that it requires both buyers and the seller to agree on the distributions from which types are drawn in all periods. We note that the optimal static mechanism for a single period (Myerson’s auction) require no such assumptions since it is dominant strategy incentive compatible. So, if the seller knows of the type distributions, he can extract the optimal revenue regardless of any buyer belief.

What can be done in dynamic mechanism design, though, if the seller doesn’t want to rely on sharing the buyer’s belief? A mechanism that doesn’t want to rely on the buyer sharing beliefs with the seller must satisfy **(DIC)** for every possible distribution F_1, \dots, F_T corresponding to beliefs that the buyer might have. In particular it should hold even when each F_t is a point mass distribution. This is the same as ensuring that the buyer is unwilling to deviate even if she knew the realization of her value in all future steps, which can be phrased as follows:

$$\forall \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \theta_{t+1..T}, \theta_t = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_t} u_{t..T}(\theta_{t..T}; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t, \theta_{t+1..T}). \quad (\text{super-DIC})$$

We know at least one auction that satisfies this property: the optimal static auction. However, this auction can be arbitrarily worse in terms of revenue than the optimal dynamic auction by the example in Appendix **A**.

Next, we show that even if the seller knows all the distributions, if he shares no belief with the buyer, it is impossible to improve over the optimal static mechanism. We call this phenomenon *Cassandra’s curse*. In Greek mythology, Cassandra had the power of prophecy but the curse that nobody would believe her. Cassandra foresaw the destruction of Troy and unsuccessfully tried to warn the Trojans. Similarly, the power of knowing all the future distributions is useless to the seller if he is unable to convince buyers to share the same beliefs.

Theorem 2.1 (Cassandra’s curse). *For the auction setting where $v(\theta_t, x_t) = \theta_t \cdot x_t$, any revenue that can be obtained in a mechanism satisfying **super-DIC** and **eP-IR** can be obtained by running a static individually rational and incentive compatible mechanism in each period.*

The theorem in particular says that, for robust versions of **DIC**, dynamic mechanisms

fail to obtain revenue improvement over static mechanisms; however, we argue that some level of robustness to distributional assumptions can be achieved. Non-clairvoyance, which is the main theme of this paper, can be seen as robustification of the [DIC](#) constraints with respect to distributional assumptions.

In [Appendix C](#) we provide a proof of [Theorem 2.1](#) as well as a discussion of other natural notions of incentive and participation constraints.

3 Clairvoyance in Dynamic Mechanism Design

3.1 Example: The clairvoyant fisherman

We will discuss the central notion of this paper via a sequence of examples, which will have as their main characters a fisherman (seller/he) and a fishbuyer (buyer/she) and the plot will center around the repeated sale of fish. In this story the fisherman is born with a superpower of seeing the future (clairvoyance), but then loses it later in life and has to rethink his business strategy.

Example 1: One salmon To build the setting gradually first consider the scenario where the fisherman catches one salmon and offers it to the buyer for purchase. It is known to the fisherman that the buyer’s valuation for a salmon is uniform distributed in $[0, 1]$. After the buyer inspects the fish, her valuation $v \in [0, 1]$ is realized. Following the Myersonian advice, the revenue-optimal mechanism for the fisherman will be to post a price of $1/2$, which causes him to sell the item with probability $1/2$ and obtain $1/4$ of revenue in expectation (revenue $1/2$ with $1/2$ probability).

Example 2: Two salmons There are only salmons in the sea, and the fisherman catches and sells one fish a day. On day 1, he catches a salmon and sells it to the buyer. Then on day 2 he again catches a salmon and sells it. The valuations on both days are independent, and the fisherman must sell the fish on the day it is caught. While at first glance this may seem like two independent instances of the same problem, the revenue can be improved by considering them together. It follows from a well-known observation of Manelli and Vincent [\[MV07\]](#) and

Jackson and Sonnenschein [JS07] that jointly solving two at-first-sight independent problems can generate a better (revenue-wise) outcome than solving each independently. The catch is that incentive constraints bind the problem together.

The seller also can't charge in the first period the expected value for the item in the second period, since it violates the ex-post participation constraint. Below, we show a mechanism with revenue strictly better than $1/2$ that is ex-post individually rational and dynamic incentive compatible:

- In the first period, elicit the valuation v_1 from the buyer, give her the item if $v_1 \geq 1/2$, and charge her $1/2$.
- In the second period, if the previous item wasn't sold, post again a price of $1/2$. If the item was sold, first charge the buyer a fee of $f = \min(v_1 - 1/2, 3/8)$ to be able to inspect the fish (before that, the buyer knows her value distribution but not yet her actual value). If the buyer accepts, she inspects the item, learns her value v_2 and then has the opportunity to purchase for a price of $p_2 = 1 - \sqrt{2f + 1/4}$.

First, we check that it is always incentive compatible for the buyer to accept the fee and then purchase the product at the set price. The utility of the buyer for this option is:

$$-f + \int_{p_2}^1 [v_2 - p_2] dv_2 = -f + \frac{1}{2}(p_2 - 1)^2 = -f + \frac{1}{2} \left(2f + \frac{1}{4} \right) = \frac{1}{8} \geq 0.$$

Notably, the utility of the buyer in the second period doesn't depend on whether she buys the item or not in the first period nor her valuation reported in the first period (even though the mechanism used in the second period can depend on that). Therefore the buyer has no incentive to misreport her valuation in the first period. Also, since the fee is bounded by the utility of the buyer in the first period, this mechanism is ex-post individually rational. Finally, we argue that this mechanism has both improved efficiency and improved revenue over posting price $1/2$ in each period. The welfare generated in the first period is $3/8$, and in the second period depends on v_1 . If $v_1 \leq 1/2$, then the welfare is also $3/8$; but if $v_1 > 1/2$, then the welfare is larger since the price posted is $p_2 < 1/2$. Therefore, the total welfare (in fact, $111/128 \approx 0.867$) is strictly larger than $3/4$ (which is the welfare of posting a price of

1/2 in each period). As we argued, the utility of the buyer is the same 1/8 in each period in the new mechanism. Therefore, the seller's revenue is strictly larger (in fact, increased from 1/2 to $79/128 \approx 0.617$).

Example 3: Clairvoyance In a more realistic world, there are all sorts of fish in the ocean: salmons, tunas, mackerels, sardines, etc. Here we will assume that for each type of fish, the distribution of values is known. For simplicity, we assume in this example that all are uniform — say, a salmon is uniform in $[0, 1]$ and a tuna is uniform in $[0, 10]$.

For this example, assume that the fisherman can see the future and knows exactly which type of fish he will catch in each period. Since he is known for his clairvoyance, everyone in the village will believe him (especially the buyer). If he sees that the fish he will catch in the next period is a salmon, he will reason about the second period assuming the buyer's valuation will be uniform in $[0, 1]$ in that period. If the buyer didn't believe him and really thought it would be a tuna, the mechanism would be no longer incentive compatible for the buyer.

If the fisherman can see that he will catch a salmon today and a salmon tomorrow, he can apply the auction in the previous example; however, if the fisherman can see that today he will catch a salmon and tomorrow a tuna, he might prefer the following mechanism:

- In the first period, elicit the buyer's value v_1 for the salmon and give her the item for free regardless of her valuation.
- In the second period, he first charges a fee of $f = v_1$ for the buyer to be able to inspect the tuna. Once the buyer pays the fee, she learns her value v_2 and has the opportunity to buy it at a price of $p_2 = 10 - \sqrt{25 + 2f}$.

Similar to the previous example, if the buyer shares the same beliefs as the fisherman, then the mechanism is dynamic incentive compatible and ex-post individually rational.

For the seller to apply this procedure, he needs to know in period 1 which fish he will catch in period 2. In the examples above, if the second period is a salmon, then the price posted in the first period is 1/2 (Example 2); if it is a tuna, then the price posted is 0

(Example 3). And more importantly, the mechanism is only incentive compatible if the fisherman can convince the buyer that his prediction for period 2 is valid.

Example 4: Non-clairvoyance Consider a world where the fisherman can no longer predict the future and yet must still sell fish. We still assume that the buyer's value distribution for each type of fish is common knowledge, we just don't know which fish will be caught in each period. In this world, he must decide in period 1 his sale mechanism without knowledge about what items he will be selling in the future. Consider, for example, that he caught a salmon in period 1 and is unsure whether in period 2 he will be selling a salmon or a tuna. In such a case, he can announce the following mechanism:

- In the first period, elicit the buyer's value v_1 for the salmon and sell her the salmon for price $1/2$ if $v_1 \geq 1/2$.
- In the second period:
 - if he catches a tuna, he charges a fee of $f = (v_1 - 1/2)^+$ for the buyer to be able to inspect the tuna. Once the buyer pays the fee, she has the opportunity to buy it for a price of $p_2 = 10 - \sqrt{25 + 2f}$;
 - if he catches a salmon, he charges a fee of $f = \min((v_1 - 1/2)^+, 3/8)$ for the buyer to be able to inspect it. Once the buyer pays the fee, she has the opportunity to buy it for price $p_2 = 1 - \sqrt{2f + 1/4}$.

The selling mechanism in period 1 doesn't depend on the knowledge of the fish caught in period 2. As the reader can easily verify, regardless of the second period being a salmon or a tuna, we always obtain expected revenue above that can which be obtained by posting the Myersonian price in each period.

Finally, we argue that the mechanism is incentive compatible. If the buyer believes that in the second period a salmon will be caught, then she will reason about the mechanism that in the second period charges a fee of $f = \min((v_1 - 1/2)^+, 3/8)$ and posts a price $p_2 = 1 - \sqrt{2f + 1/4}$, and will conclude that it is incentive compatible and thus will report her value truthfully in the first period. If the buyer believes that the fish in the second period

will be a tuna, she will reason about the mechanism that charges a fee of $f = (v_1 - 1/2)^+$ and posts a price of $p_2 = 10 - \sqrt{25 + 2f}$. She will also conclude that it is in her best interest to report truthfully in the first period. Therefore, no matter what the buyer believes about the second period, she will always report her value truthfully in the first period. This is what we will define formally as a *non-clairvoyant dynamic mechanism*.

Thus, our main result in this paper is that the clairvoyant fisherman is not much more powerful than the non-clairvoyant fisherman in terms of revenue extraction.

3.2 Non-Clairvoyant Mechanism Design

Examples 3 and 4 in the previous section show that solving the optimization problem **REVMAX** to compute the optimal revenue for a certain $\text{REV}^*(F_{1..T})$ requires the seller to know all the distributions from the beginning of the period. The allocation and payment on period 1 will depend on his knowledge of what is the distribution in period on the second period. In the fisherman story, as well as our practical motivation in Internet advertising, this is an unreasonable assumption. When we auction an ad impression for a certain demographic, it is unclear what the demographic of the next impression will be.

The examples also highlight an even more serious problem: it is not enough for the seller to know the future. He also needs the buyer to agree on the same distributions; otherwise, the mechanism is not incentive compatible. Next, we will define a family of mechanisms that eliminate this issue by requiring the mechanism not to depend on the distributional knowledge about future periods.

This motivates the central concept in this paper: *non-clairvoyance*. Informally, a mechanism is said to be non-clairvoyant if it depends on distributional knowledge about the present and past but not the future. This notion can be made precise in a measure-theoretic sense: the allocation and pricing function are measurable with respect to the σ -algebra induced by $(\theta_{1..t}, F_{1..t})$. This means that x_t and p_t can be written as: $x_t(\theta_{1..t}; F_{1..t})$ instead of $x_t(\theta_{1..t}; F_{1..T})$.

The notions of **DIC** and **eP-IR** are mathematically the same as before. Yet, when **DIC** and non-clairvoyance are considered together, we obtain a stronger notion of incentive compatibility that allows buyers to verify incentive compatibility without knowledge about the

future or agreement between the buyer and seller about future distributions. We illustrate this using an example:

Example 3.1. Consider a setting with a single buyer, two periods and one item being sold per period. The following is a non-clairvoyant incentive compatible mechanism:

- Period 1: elicit type $\hat{\theta}_1$ of the buyer, and give the item for free.
- Period 2: charge $\min(\mathbb{E}_{\theta_2 \sim F_2}[\theta_2], \hat{\theta}_1)$ in advance, and run a second price auction with reserve r such that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_2 \sim F_2}[\max(0, \theta_2 - r)] = \min(\mathbb{E}_{\theta_2 \sim F_2}[\theta_2], \hat{\theta}_1).$$

First, we note that the mechanism is non-clairvoyant since it uses no information about F_2 in the first period. Now notice that fixed any F_1, F_2 we can easily verify that the mechanism satisfies [DIC](#).

Now, let's look at this mechanism from the perspective of the buyer. In period 1, the buyer wants to verify if it is indeed optimal for her to report her type truthfully. She must do so without knowing F_2 since this information is not available to either the buyer or the seller in period 1. Since reporting truthfully is optimal for any distribution F_2 , reporting truthfully is also optimal without knowledge of F_2 .

A Cure for Cassandra's curse. Now let us interpret this example in the light of Cassandra's curse ([Theorem 2.1](#)). At the center of the myth are two of Cassandra's central qualities: *prophecy* (the ability to see the future) and *trust* (the ability to convince others of her predictions). Both the myth and [Theorem 2.1](#) argue that the former without the latter is useless. But how good is trust without prophecy?

In the previous example, the buyer trusts that the seller will know the right distribution at each timestep once he reaches that period. The seller is not required to know the future, just the present. The seller is an anti-Cassandra of sorts, who has trust but not prophecy. And this is enough to improve over the static mechanisms.

To be precise, the reason we can improve over the static mechanism is that buyer and seller still share beliefs about the present and they know that for any given t they will agree

on the distributions when they reach that period. In the fisherman example, they know they will agree on the distribution once the fish is caught, and they know that the first fish will be a salmon, but they may disagree as to which type of fish will be caught in the future.

Entangled Design. We also remark that the design problem changed in a fundamental way. To see that, recall that a mechanism by our definition is a function that produces an allocation and a payment for all sequences of distributions $F_{1..T} = (F_1, \dots, F_T)$. In traditional dynamic auction design, the problem for each sequence of distributions (F_1, F_2, F_3) and the problem for (F_1, F'_2, F'_3) are completely independent, since all the allocation and pricing for each subsequence are different. With the non-clairvoyant restriction, the allocation in the first period must be the same in both cases. The problem of designing auctions for different distribution sequences becomes entangled.

Non-clairvoyant Revenue Maximization In Section 2, we defined $\text{REV}^*(F_{1..T})$ as the optimal revenue of a dynamic auction for a sequence of distributions $F_{1..T}$ without imposing any measurability constraints. We call this quantity the *optimal clairvoyant revenue* for $F_{1..T}$. In that section we also defined $\text{REV}^S(F_{1..T})$ as the revenue of the optimal static mechanism.

It doesn't make sense to define the optimal clairvoyant revenue for a sequence $F_{1..T}$, since due to the non-clairvoyance constraint, the incentive constraint is not separable across different distribution sequences. Instead we will define a non-clairvoyant revenue approximation.

Given a certain non-clairvoyant mechanism \mathcal{M} , we define its revenue on a sequence of distributions $F_{1..T}$ in the natural way:

$$\text{REV}^{\mathcal{M}}(F_{1..T}) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{1..T} \sim F_{1..T}} [\sum_t p^{\mathcal{M}}(\theta_{1..t}; F_{1..t})].$$

We say that the non-clairvoyant dynamic mechanism \mathcal{M} is an α -approximation to the clairvoyant benchmark if, for all sequences of distributions $F_{1..T}$,

$$\text{REV}^{\mathcal{M}}(F_{1..T}) \geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot \text{REV}^*(F_{1..T}).$$

The main question in this paper is whether we can design non-clairvoyant mechanisms

that provide good approximations. The optimal static mechanism is non-clairvoyant, but the example in Appendix A shows that it fails to guarantee any approximation α . Given that fact, it is not clear in principle if we can obtain $\alpha < \infty$ at all.

4 A non-clairvoyant 3-approximation

We start by describing the central mechanism we analyze in the paper for the single buyer case. Later in Section 7 we generalize this result for multiple buyers. Our main result is a non-clairvoyant mechanism that is a 3-approximation to the revenue of the optimal clairvoyant mechanism.

NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE Mechanism The mechanism will maintain a variable called balance b_t , which is a function $b_t : \Theta^t \times (\Delta\Theta)^t \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$, and will be defined recursively. We will discuss the precise meaning of the balance later, but for now think of it as some part of the utility that the agent generates which is set aside to be used later for the mechanism. Our mechanism will proceed as follows: in each period t , it will run a uniform combination of the following three mechanisms:

1. **Give for free:** Allocate the item no matter what the agent type is, and charge her nothing. Increment the balance by her value:

$$x_t^F = 1 \quad p_t^F = 0 \quad b_t^F = b_{t-1} + \theta_t.$$

2. **Posted price:** Define a target utility to be $s_t = \min(3b_{t-1}, \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \sim F_t}[\theta_t])$. Charge this amount from the agent in advance independently of her report, and deduct this amount from the balance. Then, choose a price r_t such that the utility of the agent under r_t is s_t , i.e., $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \sim F_t}[(\theta_t - r_t)^+] = s_t$. Since $s_t \leq \mathbb{E}[\theta_t]$, the price r_t will be non-negative. Run a posted price auction with this price:

$$x_t^P = \mathbf{1}\{\theta_t \geq r_t\} \quad p_t^P = s_t + r_t \cdot \mathbf{1}\{\theta_t \geq r_t\} \quad b_t^P = b_{t-1} - s_t.$$

3. **Myerson's auction:** Find the posted price r_t^* that maximizes the revenue that can be obtained from this period, i.e., $r_t^* = \arg \max_r r \cdot \Pr[\theta_t \geq r]$ and post price r_t^* :

$$x_t^M = \mathbf{1}\{\theta_t \geq r_t^*\} \quad p_t^M = r_t^* \cdot \mathbf{1}\{\theta_t \geq r_t^*\} \quad b_t^M = b_{t-1}.$$

We describe the mechanism in each period as a uniform combination of those three:

$$x_t = \frac{1}{3} [x_t^F + x_t^P + x_t^M] \quad p_t = \frac{1}{3} [p_t^F + p_t^P + p_t^M] \quad b_t = \frac{1}{3} [b_t^F + b_t^P + b_t^M],$$

where the functions above are functions of $x_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}), p_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}), b_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t})$.

Before we formally analyze the mechanism just described, it is useful to understand the intuitive reasons why it is non-clairvoyant, dynamic incentive compatible, and ex-post individually rational.

- **Non-clairvoyance** is straightforward, since the allocation and payment rule in period t depends only on θ_t , F_t , and the balance b_{t-1} carried from the previous periods, which is itself a function of $\theta_{1..t-1}, F_{1..t-1}$.
- **Ex-post individual rationality:** fix any sequence of distributions $F_{1..T} = (F_1, \dots, F_T)$ and agent types $\theta_{1..T} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_T)$. We note that the balance variable has the property that $0 \leq b_t \leq \sum_{\tau=1}^t u_\tau$. This happens because we only decrease the balance in the Posted Price mechanism, and we do so while keeping it non-negative. We only increase it in the Give For Free mechanism, where we bound it by the utility achieved from that mechanism. The condition, in particular, implies that $\sum_{\tau=1}^t u_\tau \geq 0$.
- **Dynamic incentive compatibility:** When deciding on a strategy in each period, the agent needs to worry about two things: (i) the utility she obtains in this period, which corresponds to $\theta_t x_t - p_t$, and (ii) how her strategy in this period will affect the subsequent periods.

If we ignore the second issue about the effect of the current strategy in future periods, the mechanism run in each period is incentive compatible since it is a combination of three posted price mechanisms. In other words, fixing b_{t-1} , the single period mechanism

described by x_t, p_t is incentive compatible. So, the only reason that the agent might think of deviating is to improve her utility in future periods.

The only way that the agent can affect a future period is through the balance. The main idea behind the mechanism is to *spend the balance in such a way that the agent doesn't care (in expectation) about what the balance will be in future periods*. Clearly, the balance doesn't affect the Give For Free or the Myerson auction. The only effect is in the Posted Price mechanism x_t^P, p_t^P , since it, in turn, can affect the value of the parameter s_t . However, we set the mechanism in such a way that:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \sim F_t}[\theta_t x_t^P - p_t^P] = -s_t + \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \sim F_t}[(\theta_t - r_t)^+] = -s_t + s_t = 0.$$

So, in expectation, the agent doesn't care about what value s_t will be in future periods, since she won't derive utility from the Posted Price mechanism anyway.

The intuition given above carries over to a general class of mechanisms called *bank account mechanisms*, which will be discussed in the next section. Remarkably, despite the fact that bank account mechanisms are a subclass of the set of dynamic mechanisms, we will show that they always contain the revenue-optimal clairvoyant mechanism. Our main strategy for proving that the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE Mechanism is a 3-approximation is to compare it with the optimal bank balance mechanism. This analysis will be done in [Section 5](#).

5 Bank Account Mechanisms

Now we define a general family of auctions containing the auction presented in the previous section, which we call *bank account mechanisms*. We choose this name since they are based on the thought experiment where a buyer “deposits” part of this utility in an account as an investment, which will result in a more favorable auction in future periods. The idea of a bank account is only an abstract device used in the construction of the mechanism and not a real entity that buyers reason about. We initially present our definition in the standard clairvoyant, where there is a fixed sequence of distributions $F_{1..T}$, and allow all functions

defining the mechanism to depend on all distributions. To avoid overloading notation, we omit the distribution dependence.

Our auction will have two salient features: first, each period depends on the previous periods *only* through a single scalar variable called *balance*; and second, in this framework, the designer needs to specify single-period auctions that are single-period incentive compatible together with a valid balance update policy. That is, once a valid balance update policy is in place, all the designer needs to worry about are single-period incentive compatibility constraints.

A bank account mechanism B in terms of the following functions for each period:

- A static single-period mechanism $x_t^B(\theta_t, b), p_t^B(\theta_t, b)$ parametrized by a balance $b \in \mathbb{R}_+$ that is (single-period) *incentive-compatible* for each b , i.e.,:

$$v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b)) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b) \geq v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta'_t, b)) - p_t^B(\theta'_t, b). \quad (\text{IC})$$

Note that we don't require the mechanism to be (single-period) individually rational. We also require the utility of the agent to be *balance independent in expectation*, i.e.,:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \sim F_t}[v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b)) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b)] \text{ is a non-negative constant not depending on } b. \quad (\text{BI})$$

- A balance update policy $b_t^B(\theta_t, b)$ which maps the previous balance and the report to the current balance, satisfying the following *balance update* conditions:

$$0 \leq b_t^B(\theta_t, b) \leq b + v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b)) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b). \quad (\text{BU})$$

Given the balance update functions, we can define $b_t : \Theta^t \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ recursively as:

$$b_0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad b_1(\theta_1) = b_1^B(\theta_1, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad b_t(\theta_{1..t}) = b_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}^B(\theta_{1..t-1})),$$

which allows us to define a dynamic mechanism in the standard sense as:

$$x_t(\theta_{1..t}) = x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}(\theta_{1..t-1})) \quad p_t(\theta_{1..t}) = p_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}(\theta_{1..t-1})).$$

In what follows, we will abuse notations by dropping the superscript B and refer to $x_t(\theta_{1..t})$ and $x_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})$ interchangeably. Our first theorem is that any bank account mechanism (in particular, the `NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE` mechanism) satisfies `DIC` and `eP-IR`. In fact, it also satisfies stronger versions of those properties: the mechanism is per-period incentive compatible, i.e., the buyer's utility in each given period is maximized by reporting truthfully in that period:

$$\theta_t \in \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_t} u_t(\theta_t; \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t), \quad (\text{pp-IC})$$

and the expected continuation utility is independent of the type reported, i.e.:

$$U_t(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) \text{ is independent of } \hat{\theta}_t. \quad (\text{indCont})$$

It is straightforward from the definition of `(DIC)` to see that conditions `(pp-IC)` and `(indCont)` imply `(DIC)`.

The mechanism also satisfies a stronger version of `(eP-IR)`: it is ex-post individually rational for every prefix and every realization of the random variables:

$$\sum_{\tau=1}^t u_{\tau}(\theta_{\tau}; \theta_{1..\tau}) \geq 0, \forall t. \quad (\text{prefix-epIR})$$

Moreover, each individual period is individually rational in expectation:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t}[u_t(\theta_t; \theta_{1..t})] \geq 0, \forall t. \quad (\mathbb{E}\text{pp-IR})$$

The proof follows from the argument given in the previous section and is made formal in Appendix [B.1](#).

Theorem 5.1. *Any bank account mechanism satisfying `IC`, `BI`, and `BU` is dynamic incentive compatible `(DIC)` and ex-post individually rational `(eP-IR)`. Moreover, it also satisfies the*

stronger properties of *(pp-IC)*, *(indCont)*, *(prefix-epIR)* and *(Epp-IR)*.

The reason we focus on bank account mechanisms and the reason they are useful both in designing optimal dynamic mechanisms and proving lower bounds, is that any dynamic incentive compatible and ex-post individually rational mechanism can be converted to a bank account mechanism without loss of revenue or welfare. Therefore, in designing or characterizing the revenue optimal mechanism, it is enough to focus on the subclass of bank account mechanisms. Formally:

Theorem 5.2. *Given any dynamic mechanism $(x_t, p_t)_t$ satisfying *DIC* and *eP-IR*, there exists a bank account mechanism with at least the same revenue and at least the same welfare. In particular, for any given setting, there is a revenue-optimal mechanism in the form of a bank account mechanism.*

In the rest of section we give an overview of the proof of Theorem 5.2. The first step of the proof is a symmetrization lemma. Central to this lemma is the concept of partially-realized utility, which measures the expected utility of a agent conditioned on some prefix of the type vector:

$$\bar{U}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = \sum_{\tau=1}^t u_t(\theta_\tau; \theta_{1..\tau}) + U_t(\theta_{1..t})$$

In addition, the dynamic mechanism after the symmetrization will satisfy the *payment-frontloading* and *symmetry* properties:

Definition 5.3 (Payment-frontloading). *A dynamic mechanism is payment-frontloading, if*

$$u_t(\theta_{1..t}) = 0 \text{ for } t < T \quad \text{and} \quad u_T(\theta_{1..T}) \geq 0. \quad (\text{PF})$$

*The property is a stronger version of *eP-IR*.*

Definition 5.4 (Symmetry condition). *A dynamic mechanism satisfies the symmetry condition, if for every $t < s$:*

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{if } \bar{U}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = \bar{U}_t(\theta'_{1..t}) \text{ then:} \\ & x_s(\theta_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}) = x_s(\theta'_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}) \quad \text{and} \quad p_s(\theta_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}) = p_s(\theta'_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Symm})$$

Lemma 5.5 (Symmetrization). *Any dynamic mechanism satisfying [DIC](#) and [eP-IR](#) can be transformed into a mechanism $(x_t, p_t)_t$ with at least the same welfare and at least the same revenue as the original dynamic mechanism, satisfying three properties: (i) [DIC](#); (ii) [PF](#); (iii) [Symm](#).*

At first glance, our symmetrization lemma resembles the promised utility framework of Thomas and Worrall [[TW90](#)], which can be viewed as a symmetrization of the mechanism with respect to the continuation utilities U_t . Their result can be viewed as an application of the Principle of Optimality of the Theory of Dynamic Programming [[Ber00](#)], which describes the structure of an optimal solution that can be obtained by solving an infinite-size dynamic program. The symmetrization obtained in [[TW90](#)] is insufficient for our needs. Our solution is to transform the optimization program to a different space and apply the Principle of Optimality to the transformed program. In [Appendix B](#), we provide a proof of [Lemma 5.5](#) from first principles (i.e. without invoking the Theory of Dynamic Programming).

Proof of Theorem 5.2. A direct consequence of [Lemma 5.5](#) is that we can write $x_t = x_t(\theta_t, \bar{U}_{t-1})$ and $p_t = p_t(\theta_t, \bar{U}_{t-1})$. Also, $\bar{U}_t = \bar{U}_t(\theta_t, \bar{U}_{t-1})$ because by the payment frontloading property

$$\bar{U}_t = \mathbb{E}[\sum_{s=t+1}^T v(\theta_s, x_s(\theta_{t..s}, \bar{U}_{t-1})) - p_s(\theta_{t..s}, \bar{U}_{t-1}) | \theta_t]$$

This allows us to define a bank account mechanism as follows. First we define the bank balance:

$$b_t^B(\theta_{1..t}) = \bar{U}_t(\theta_{1..t}) - \mu_t \quad \text{for } t < T \quad \text{and} \quad b_T^B(\theta_{1..T}) = -\mu_T = 0$$

where $\mu_t = \min_{\theta_{1..t}} \bar{U}_t(\theta_{1..t})$ for $t < T$ and $\mu_T = 0$. It will be useful to notice that by Jensen's inequality $\mu_0 \geq \mu_1 \geq \dots \geq \mu_T = 0$. The allocation is the same as the original mechanism $x_t^B(\theta_{1..t}) = x_t(\theta_{1..t})$ and payments are computed as follows:

$$p_t^B(\theta_{1..t}) = p_t(\theta_{1..t}) - b_t^B(\theta_{1..t}) + b_{t-1}^B(\theta_{1..t-1})$$

Since there is a one-to-one mapping between \bar{U}_t and b_t^B , allocations, payments, and bank account updates can be computed from the previous state of the bank accounts, i.e., $x_t^B(\theta_{1..t}) = x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) = x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}^B(\theta_{1..t-1}))$ and same for payments p_t^B . It will be useful to notice that we set payments and balance in such a way that:

$$v(\theta_t, x_t) - p_t + b_t^B = \bar{U}_t - \mu_t \quad (\diamond)$$

This is true because for $t < T$, the per period utility $v(\theta_t, x_t) - p_t$ is zero since the mechanism has the payment frontloading property; for $t = T$, $b_T^B = -\mu_T = 0$, and $v(\theta_T, x_T) - p_T = \bar{U}_T$, since by the payment frontloading property the agent has non-zero utility only in the last period.

We will use this fact to check that the mechanism is a valid bank account mechanism. First note that by design $b_t^B(\theta_{1..t})$ is always non-negative and $b_0^B = 0$. Now we only need to check conditions **IC**, **BI**, and **BU**.

Condition **IC** follows from the definition of p_t^B and the fact that the original mechanism is **DIC**, since the maximization problem in **IC** becomes the same optimization in **DIC** with an additional constant term. For $t = T$ this is trivial since $b_T^B(\theta_{1..t}) = 0$. For $t < T$ we have:

$$\begin{aligned} u_t^B(\theta_t; \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) &= v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)) - p_t^B(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) \\ &= v(\theta_t, x_t(\hat{\theta}_t, \bar{U}_t)) - p_t(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) + \bar{U}_t(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) - (\bar{U}_{t-1}(\theta_{1..t-1}) + \mu_t - \mu_{t-1}) \end{aligned}$$

since the term $\bar{U}_{t-1}(\theta_{1..t-1}) + \mu_t - \mu_{t-1}$ is a constant in $\hat{\theta}_t$ and $\bar{U}_t(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) = U_t(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)$ by the payment frontloading property. To check condition **BI**, we apply equation (\diamond) :

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t}[v(\theta_t, x_t^B) - p_t^B] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t}[v(\theta_t, x_t) - p_t + b_t^B - b_{t-1}^B] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t}[\bar{U}_t - \mu_t - (\bar{U}_{t-1} - \mu_{t-1})] = \mu_{t-1} - \mu_t \geq 0$$

This establishes **BI** since the outcome is a constant that just depends on t but not on the value of b_t^B . Now, for condition **BU** we again apply equation (\diamond) :

$$b_{t-1}^B + v(\theta_t, x_t) - p_t^B = b_{t-1}^B + v(\theta_t, x_t) - p_t + b_t^B - b_{t-1}^B = \bar{U}_t - \mu_t \geq b_t^B$$

where the last inequality holds with equality for all $t < T$. □

5.1 Spend, Deposit and an Interpretation

It is useful to decompose the balance update policy $b_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})$ in two components that we will call *spend* and *deposit*. With such decomposition, the bank account balance will be updated in the most natural way: the next balance is set to the current balance plus deposit minus spend.

We define the spend as:

$$s_t(b_{t-1}) = [-\min_{\theta_t} v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) - p_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})]^+$$

where $[x]^+ = \max(x, 0)$. So if we decompose the payment in $p_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) = s_t(b_{t-1}) + p'_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})$, now, for each bank balance b_{t-1} , the single-period mechanism defined by $x_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})$ and $p'_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})$ is incentive compatible and individually rational.

We now define the deposit as:

$$d_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) = b_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) - b_{t-1} + s_t(b_{t-1})$$

which implies that the balance update can be written as:

$$b_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) = b_{t-1} + d_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) - s_t(b_{t-1}),$$

The following lemma is a trivial consequence of the definitions:

Lemma 5.6 (Interpretation of **BU** and **BI**). *Condition **BU** is equivalent to $s_t(b_{t-1}) \leq b_{t-1}$ and $0 \leq d_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) \leq u'_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})$ where $u'_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) = v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) - p'_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})$. Condition **BI** says that $\mathbb{E}[u'_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})] - s_t(b_{t-1}) \geq 0$ and doesn't depend on b_{t-1} .*

Now we are ready to give an interpretation of bank account mechanisms: imagine that the agent has a bank account. The account belongs to the agent, so depositing money in it just means the agent is setting some money aside, and she is not spending it just yet. In any given period, three things happen:

1. before the agent learns her type the mechanism asks the agent to spend an amount s_t from the account as a function of the current balance b_{t-1} . The mechanism does so with a promise that her expected utility from the mechanism minus the spend should be constant. Given that, the agent should be indifferent to how much she spends, since she will recover in (expected) utility later on.
2. then the agent participates in a single-period truthful and individually rational mechanism (x_t, p'_t) .
3. later the agent is asked to deposit part of this utility from the single-period mechanism to the account. The amount in the account still belongs to the agent. It can, of course, affect how much the agent will be required to spend in future periods, but as we argued before, the agent is indifferent to how much she spends given the promise of the mechanism.

This view allows to provide good upper bounds on how much revenue can be extracted by a dynamic mechanism. By Theorem 5.2 the optimal mechanism can be expressed as a bank account mechanism (x_t, p'_t, s_t, d_t) , therefore:

Lemma 5.7 (Revenue upper bound). *The revenue of any dynamic mechanism (x_t, p'_t, s_t, d_t) can be bounded by $\mathbb{E}[\sum_t s_t(\theta_{1..t})]$ plus the revenue of the optimal static mechanism.*

Proof. Since $p_t = s_t + p'_t$ we have that: $\text{REV} \leq \mathbb{E}[\sum_t s_t(\theta_{1..t})] + \mathbb{E}[\sum_t p'_t(\theta_{1..t})]$. But $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \sim F_t}[p'_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})]$ can be bounded by the revenue of the optimal single-period static mechanism for that distribution. \square

5.2 NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE is a 3-approximation

With this machinery in place, the fact that the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism from Section 4 is a 3-approximation becomes quite easy:

Theorem 5.8. *The revenue of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism is at least $1/3$ of the revenue of the optimal dynamic mechanism.*

Proof. The revenue of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism is

$$\text{REV} = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_t \frac{1}{3} [p_t^F(\theta_{1..t}) + p_t^P(\theta_{1..t}) + p_t^M(\theta_{1..t})] \right].$$

Clearly, $\mathbb{E}[\sum_t p_t^M(\theta_{1..t})]$ is the revenue of the optimal static mechanism, in this case the Myerson auction. So by Lemma 5.7, all we need to prove is that $\mathbb{E}[\sum_t p_t^P(\theta_{1..t}) + p_t^F(\theta_{1..t})]$ is greater than the sum of the spends of any optimal bank account mechanism. We will show the stronger statement that if (x_t, p'_t, s_t, d_t) is any bank account mechanism, and $\theta_{1..T}$ is any realization of types then:

$$\sum_t p_t^P(\theta_{1..t}) + p_t^F(\theta_{1..t}) \geq \sum_t s_t (b_{t-1}(\theta_{1..t-1})) \quad (*)$$

Since the realization of the random variables is fixed, let's abbreviate the balance, spend, and deposit in the generic bank account mechanism by b_t , s_t and d_t . By Lemma 5.6 we know that $d_t \leq u'_t \leq \theta_t$, $s_t \leq b_{t-1}$, and $s_t \leq \mathbb{E}_{\hat{\theta}_t \sim F_t} [u'_t(\theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)] =: \lambda_t$ so:

$$b_{t+1} = b_t - d_t + s_t \quad d_t \leq \theta_t \quad s_t \leq \min(\lambda_t, b_{t-1}) \quad (\text{BalConst})$$

The way to pick d_t, s_t to optimize $\sum_t s_t$ subject to **BalConst** is to use the greedy algorithm that always deposits as much as possible $d_t = \theta_t$ and always spends as much as possible $s_t = \min(\lambda_t, b_{t-1})$. It should be clear from the principle of local optimality that it is never useful to delay spending outstanding balance. Finally notice that the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism implements exactly the optimal Greedy policy scaled by a factor of 1/3: the Give For Free Mechanism adds $\frac{1}{3}\theta_t$ to the balance and the Posted Price Mechanism consumes $\min(b_{t-1}, \frac{1}{3}\lambda_t)$, proving (*). Those two facts together prove the theorem. \square

6 Non-clairvoyance Gap

We argue that an inherent gap exists between clairvoyant and non-clairvoyant mechanisms. Formally, we show that no non-clairvoyant mechanism can provide a better-than-2 approximation to the clairvoyant benchmark. Our lower bound is based on the following idea:

consider a pair of distributions F_1, F_2 and two possible situations: (i) only one item with distribution F_1 ; and (ii) an item with distribution F_1 followed by another item of distribution F_2 . The non-clairvoyant mechanism must allocate the same way in both cases. If the non-clairvoyant mechanism receives a second item, he can allocate and charge a payment for it; however, if not, his revenue will be the one obtained from the first item.

We recall that given a sequence of distributions $F_{1..T}$ we denote by $\text{REV}^*(F_{1..T})$ the revenue of the optimal clairvoyant mechanism and given a non-clairvoyant mechanism M defined by $x_t(\theta_{1..t}; F_{1..t})$ and $p_t(\theta_{1..t}; F_{1..t})$ we define its revenue on a sequence of distributions $F_{1..T}$ by $\text{REV}^M(F_{1..T})$. Given this definitions we prove the following lower bound:

Theorem 6.1 (Lower bound). *For every $\delta > 0$ there are distributions F_1, F_2 such that for every non-clairvoyant mechanism M either $\text{REV}^M(F_1) \leq \frac{1+\delta}{2}\text{REV}^*(F_1)$ or $\text{REV}^M(F_1, F_2) \leq \frac{1+\delta}{2}\text{REV}^*(F_1, F_2)$. In particular, if a non-clairvoyant mechanism is an α -approximation to the clairvoyant benchmark, then $\alpha \geq 2$.*

The central ingredient in the proof (given in Appendix D) is a characterization of non-clairvoyant mechanisms as bank account mechanisms. We define a non-clairvoyant bank account mechanism as a bank account mechanism with the measure-theoretic restriction that the allocation and payment function at time t must be measurable with respect to the balance b_t , the reported type θ_t and the sequence of distributions $F_{1..t}$ corresponding to the current and past periods. In other words, it is simply a bank account mechanism that is not allowed to depend on distributional knowledge about the future.

Our main characterization is that any non-clairvoyant mechanism can be written as a non-clairvoyant bank account mechanism with the same revenue:

Theorem 6.2. *Given any non-clairvoyant dynamic mechanism satisfying **DIC** and **eP-IR**, there exists a non-clairvoyant bank account mechanism with the same revenue.*

The characterization in Theorem 6.2 is a non-clairvoyant analogue of Theorem 5.2, and although their proofs share some similarities, there are new challenges to overcome due to the measure-theoretic restrictions imposed by non-clairvoyance: notably the proof of Theorem 5.2 starts by changing the original mechanism to an equivalent payment frontloading mechanism. This clearly breaks non-clairvoyance, so any non-clairvoyant reduction must

avoid this step. Also, in the proof of Theorem 5.2, we symmetrize the mechanism around the concept of partially realized utility, which is not well-defined for non-clairvoyant mechanisms. To overcome those problems, we will use two ideas. The first is a strong property implied by non-clairvoyance, which is the fact that the continuation utility must be constant in the reported type (Lemma D.1). The second idea is to symmetrize the mechanism by re-sampling types of previous periods conditioned on a certain event, which in a way resembles the Myersonian ironing procedure.

In Section 8, we present a matching upper bound for 2 periods. More formally, there is a 2-period non-clairvoyant dynamic mechanism satisfying DIC and eP-IR that is a 2-approximation to any 2-period clairvoyant mechanism.

7 Multiple Buyers

In this section, we extend our results to multiple buyer cases. Our decision to focus on a single buyer was driven by the desire to keep notation as simple as possible and to focus on the complications introduced by non-clairvoyance. Once the single buyer case is understood, however, most of the results presented so far extend to the multi-buyer setting. Our characterization results (Theorems 5.2 and 6.2) extend with essentially no change in the proofs. The lower bound also naturally extends. The only major difference is in the extension of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism. Now we need to keep a balance for every buyer, so the state will be a vector. As a consequence, we will be required to reason about utility tradeoffs not only across time periods but across buyers. In the single buyer case, we solved this problem by decreasing the posted price of each buyer based on the bank balance in a greedy manner. Here, instead, we will need to be more careful and decide which auction to use based on the result of an optimization program. This program will resemble what is often called the optimal money burning auction [HR08].

7.1 Multi-buyer dynamic mechanism design

We start by extending the concepts in the paper to multiple buyers. Consider a set N of n agents who participate in the mechanism for T periods. For each agent $i \in N$ and each

$t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$ the type θ_t^i of agent i in period t is drawn independently from a distribution F_t^i . When we omit the superscript i we refer to the vector of types $\theta_t = (\theta_t^1, \dots, \theta_t^n)$. As usual in mechanism design we refer to θ_t^{-i} as the vector of types of all agents except i . Agent i has a value $v^i : \Theta \times \mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$. A dynamic mechanism corresponds to pairs of maps:

- Outcome: $x_t : \Theta^{tN} \times (\Delta\Theta)^{TN} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}$
- Payment: $p_t : \Theta^{tN} \times (\Delta\Theta)^{TN} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Similarly to the single buyer case, we can define the notion of continuation utility $U_t^i(\hat{\theta}_{1..t}; F_{1..T})$ as the expected total utility of a buyer in periods $t+1$ to T if her history of reports up to period t is $\hat{\theta}_{1..t}$ and all the buyers report truthfully from period $t+1$ onwards. This allows us to define the analogue of condition [DIC](#) for multiple buyers, which we call Dynamic Bayesian Incentive Compatibility. We call it Bayesian since each buyer takes expectations over the behavior of all other buyers assuming they bid truthfully. The condition can be written as follows:

$$\theta_t = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_t} \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t^{-i}} \left[u_t^i(\theta_t^i; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, (\theta_t^{-i}, \hat{\theta}_t^i)) + U_t^i(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, (\theta_t^{-i}, \hat{\theta}_t^i)) \right] \quad (\text{DBIC})$$

We recall that while the condition [DIC](#) for a single buyer can be justified by the dynamic version of the revelation principle, no such equivalence can be obtained for multiple buyers. What we have here is an ex-post incentive compatibility: it is optimal for a buyer to report her type truthfully as long as all the other buyers also do so. We refer to [\[AS13\]](#) or [\[PST14\]](#) for a discussion of the relation between incentive compatibility in dynamic settings and the revelation principle, as well as [\[MR92\]](#) and [\[BM05\]](#) for the comparison of dominant-strategy implementation, ex-post implementation, and Bayesian implementation.

The condition [eP-IR](#) is generalized in the natural way. Every buyer derives non-negative utility in every sample path if she is behaving truthfully.

The notion of non-clairvoyance corresponds again to the same measure theoretic restriction that the allocation and payment functions in time t must be measurable with respect to $(\theta_{1..t}, F_{1..t})$, i.e., can't depend on distributional knowledge of future periods.

7.2 Multi-buyer bank account mechanisms

We define a bank account mechanism for n buyers as:

- A static single-period mechanism $x_t^B(\theta_t, b), p_t^B(\theta_t, b)$ parametrized by an n -dimensional bank balance $b \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$ that is single-period Bayesian incentive compatible, i.e., satisfies the multi-buyer version of **IC** and satisfies the multi-buyer version of **BI** which means that:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t}[v^i(\theta_t^i, x_t^B(\theta_t, b)) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b)] \text{ is a non-negative constant not depending on } b$$

- A balance update policy $b_t^B(\theta_t, b)$ satisfying a multi-buyer equivalent of condition **BU**:

$$0 \leq b_t^{B,i}(\theta_t, b) \leq b^i + u_t^{B,i}(\theta_t, b)$$

Given the update function and starting with balance $b_0^i = 0$ for all i , we can reconstruct the mechanism in the similar way we did for single buyer mechanisms.

Also, we will describe the payment p_t^i and balance update policy b_t^i in terms of spend s_t^i and deposit d_t^i like we did in Section 5.1:

$$s_t^i(b_{t-1}) = \left[-\min_{\theta_t^i} \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t^{-i}} [v^i(\theta_t^i, x_t(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) - p_t^i(\theta_t, b_{t-1})] \right]^+$$

$$d_t^i(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) = b_t^i(\theta_t, b_{t-1}) - b_{t-1}^i + s_t^i(b_{t-1})$$

Both the clairvoyant (Theorem 5.2) and non-clairvoyant (Theorem 6.2) reductions still hold in the multi-buyer setting. Their proofs are essentially the same by simply adapting the notation to multiple buyers.

7.3 A non-clairvoyant 5-approximation for multiple buyers

Now, we are ready to extend the **NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE** mechanism discussed in Section 4 to multiple buyers. We are back to the auction setting, where $\theta_t^i \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and

$\mathcal{O} = \{x \in [0, 1]^n; \sum_i x^i \leq 1\}$. Given $x_t \in \mathcal{O}$ we will refer to x_t^i as the i -th component of x_t and $v^i(\theta_t^i, x_t) = \theta_t^i \cdot x_t^i$.

We start by observing that Lemma 5.7 still holds in the multi-buyer case. The revenue of any bank account mechanism can be bounded by the revenue of the optimal static mechanism plus the sum of spends $\mathbb{E}[\sum_t \sum_i s_t^i(\theta_{1..t})]$. A natural strategy given this lemma is to combine the optimal static mechanism (in this case the Myerson auction) with the mechanism that tries to spend as much as possible from the bank accounts.

Why is doing that harder for multiple buyers? In the one buyer case, we did it by a simple greedy algorithm that would combine a mechanism that always deposits as much as possible and a mechanism that always spends as much as possible. In the multi-buyer case, however, the amounts we deposit and spend for each buyer i in a certain period are bounded by a function of the buyer's utility in that period. Therefore deposit and spend decisions can't be made independently. In that world, a clairvoyant mechanism has two major advantages:

- the clairvoyant mechanism knows for which agent to deposit since it knows which agent will have capacity to spend in future periods.
- the clairvoyant mechanism knows from which agent to spend, since he knows which agents will and which agents won't have ability to spend in future periods.

To address those issues, we do the following:

- we sell some fraction of the item using a second price auction and deposit the utility of the winner. We argue that this is the maximum possible total deposit and the maximum possible deposit for the winner. From all the other buyers, we charge their deposits against the revenue of the second price auction in that period.
- we replace the greedy algorithm in the single buyer case with the money burning mechanism of Hartline and Roughgarden [HR08] and argue that it will maximize the spend. Also we argue that not knowing which buyer will have the ability to spend in future periods can harm the spend by at most a factor of 2, since each balance that could have been spent but was not can be charged against an amount of spend at an earlier period.

Now, we are ready to define the multi-buyer version of the `NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE` mechanism. As before we will define three mechanisms that are parametrized by the balance b_t together with a balance update policy. As done in Section 4, we will count the spend as part of the payment:

1. **Second Price Auction:** We will allocate the item to the buyer with the highest type (breaking ties arbitrarily). We will deposit the utility of the top bidder in her bank account. In other words, if we order the buyers such that $\theta_t^1 \geq \theta_t^2 \geq \dots \geq \theta_t^n$, then:

$$x_t^{S,1} = 1, \quad x_t^{S,j} = 0 \quad p_t^{S,1} = \theta_t^2, \quad p_t^{S,j} = 0 \quad b_t^{S,1} = b_{t-1}^1 + \theta_t^1 - \theta_t^2, \quad b_t^{S,j} = b_{t-1}^j$$

for all $j \geq 2$. This mechanism guarantees the largest possible deposit in the bank accounts.

2. **Money Burning Auction:** Given the bank account states b_{t-1} we will compute the single-period mechanism that maximizes the sum of expected utilities of the buyers subject to each buyer i having utility at most $\frac{5}{2}b_{t-1}^i$, this is, we want to compute the allocation and payment rule x_t^B, \tilde{p}_t^B satisfying Bayesian incentive compatibility and individual rationality and maximizing:

$$\max \sum_i \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t} [\tilde{u}_t^{B,i}(\theta_t)] \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbb{E}[\tilde{u}_t^{B,i}] \leq \frac{5}{2}b_{t-1}^i, \forall i \quad (\text{BIC}) \text{ and } (\text{IR})$$

Money burning mechanisms have this name since they correspond to the welfare maximization problem when the revenue obtained is burned. Hartline and Roughgarden [HR08] provide a comprehensive study of such mechanisms and show that they can also be written as a virtual value maximization for a different notion of virtual values. In fact we can deduce from their result that the solution to the problem above corresponds to the auction where we transform the values to the space of virtual values for utilities and run a (scaled) second price auction in that space. So in that sense it is not very different from Myerson's auction other than the fact that the notion of virtual values is non-standard. Given a solution to the problem above, we define the money burning mechanism using the allocation obtained from the program and payment and

balance as follows:

$$p_t^{B,i} = \tilde{p}_t^{B,i} + \mathbb{E}[\tilde{u}_t^{B,i}] \quad b_t^{B,i} = b_{t-1}^i - \mathbb{E}[\tilde{u}_t^{B,i}]$$

In the language of spends and deposits: we run the mechanism from the program after spending its expected utility from the bank accounts.

3. **Myerson's Auction:** We run the static optimal auction given by x^M and p^M . Bank accounts are unchanged, i.e.:

$$b_t^{M,i} = b_{t-1}^i$$

Now, the non-clairvoyant balance mechanism is the mechanism defined by:

$$x_t^i = \frac{1}{5}x_t^{M,i} + \frac{2}{5}x_t^{S,i} + \frac{2}{5}x_t^{B,i} \quad p_t^i = \frac{1}{5}p_t^{M,i} + \frac{2}{5}p_t^{S,i} + \frac{2}{5}p_t^{B,i} \quad b_t^i = \frac{1}{5}b_t^{M,i} + \frac{2}{5}b_t^{S,i} + \frac{2}{5}b_t^{B,i}$$

In Appendix E we argue that each component of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism can be implemented in polynomial time. Next we provide an approximation guarantee with respect to the clairvoyant benchmark:

Theorem 7.1. *The multi-buyer version of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism is a non-clairvoyant 5-approximation to the clairvoyant benchmark.*

Proof. Fix a time horizon T and distributions F_t^i for $t = 1..T$ and $i = 1..n$. Let (x^*, p^*) be the optimal clairvoyant mechanism for this setting. By the multi-buyer version of Theorem 5.2, we can write the bank account mechanism in terms of a spend policy s_t^* , a deposit policy d_t^* , and an IC and IR payment function $p_t'^*$ such that:

$$p_t^{*i} = p_t'^{*i} + s_t^{*i} \quad b_t^{*i} = b_{t-1}^{*i} - s_t^{*i} + d_t^{*i}$$

Similarly, let x_t, p_t', s_t, d_t describe the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism where the spend term corresponds to the expected utility of the Money Burning.

Step 1: Bounding $p_t'^$ using the Myerson component.* Our first observation is that since for each period $x_t^*, p_t'^*$ is individually rational and Bayesian incentive compatible, its revenue

must be dominated by the Myerson auction: $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_t} [\sum_i p_t'^{*i}(\theta_{1..t})] \leq \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t} [\sum_i p_t^{M,i}(\theta_t)]$. This already tells us that the revenue we obtain from selling 1/5 fraction of each item using Myerson's auction dominates within a factor of 5 the $\mathbb{E} [\sum_{i,t} p_t'^{*i}]$ component of the revenue of the optimal clairvoyant mechanism.

Step 2: Lower bound to the balance of the non-clairvoyant mechanism. We are left to show that the remaining component $\mathbb{E} [\sum_{i,t} s_t^{*i}]$ of the revenue of the optimal clairvoyant mechanism is dominated by the combination of the Second Price Auction and the Money Burning Auction within a factor of 5. We will show by induction that for every fixed sequence of types and for all buyers $\theta_{1..T}$ the following invariant holds. Since the types for all buyers are fixed for all periods, we will omit the type vectors in the notation.

$$b_t^i + \sum_{\tau=1}^t s_\tau^i \geq \frac{2}{5}(b_t^{*i} + \sum_{\tau=1}^t s_\tau^{*i} - \sum_{\tau=1}^t \theta_\tau^{(2)} x_\tau^{*i}) \quad (7.1)$$

where $\theta_\tau^{(2)}$ is the second highest type. This is true for $t = 0$ since both balances are initially zero. Now, assume it is valid for t then substituting the balance update formula $b_{t+1}^i = b_t^i - s_{t+1}^i + d_{t+1}^i$ for both the non-clairvoyant and the clairvoyant mechanism we obtain:

$$b_{t+1}^i + \sum_{\tau=1}^{t+1} s_\tau^i - d_{t+1}^i \geq \frac{2}{5}(b_{t+1}^{*i} + \sum_{\tau=1}^{t+1} s_\tau^{*i} - \sum_{\tau=1}^t \theta_\tau^{(2)} x_\tau^{*i} - d_{t+1}^{*i})$$

By Lemma 5.6, $d_{t+1}^{*i} \leq u_{t+1}'^{*i} \leq \theta_{t+1}^i x_{t+1}^{*i}$. If i is not the agent with the highest type then $\theta_{t+1}^i \leq \theta_{t+1}^{(2)}$ and we are done by the fact that $d_{t+1}^i \geq 0$ and $\theta_{t+1}^{(2)} x_{t+1}^{*i} \geq d_{t+1}^{*i}$. If i is the agent with the highest type, then

$$d_{t+1}^i = \frac{2}{5}(\theta_{t+1}^i - \theta_{t+1}^{(2)}) \geq \frac{2}{5}(\theta_{t+1}^i - \theta_{t+1}^{(2)}) x_{t+1}^{*i} \geq \frac{2}{5}(d_{t+1}^{*i} - \theta_{t+1}^{(2)} x_{t+1}^{*i})$$

since we only deposit in the Second Price Auction mechanism for the top agent. Substituting this bound we obtain the invariant for $t + 1$.

Step 3: Charging scheme for spend. We will construct a charging scheme to re-attribute the spends of the non-clairvoyant mechanism in a way that makes it resemble more the

spends of the optimal clairvoyant mechanism. For each fixed $\theta_{1..T}$ we will define a charging scheme $c_t^i \geq 0$ such that for each period t we have $\sum_i c_t^i \leq \sum_i s_t^i$. We will do so in such a way that we can more easily compare s_t^{*i} with c_t^i .

We know by Lemma 5.6 that there is a solution to the Money Burning problem in period t with $\mathbb{E}[\tilde{u}_t^i] \geq s_t^{*i}$ since the clairvoyant mechanism with balance b_{t-1}^* provides such a solution. Therefore, by rescaling the mechanism there must be a solution to the money burning problem with constraints $\mathbb{E}[\tilde{u}_t^i] \leq \frac{5}{2}b_{t-1}^i$ such that $\mathbb{E}[\tilde{u}_t^i] = \min(s_t^{*i}, \frac{5}{2}b_{t-1}^i)$. In particular this means that:

$$\sum_i s_t^i \geq \frac{2}{5} \sum_i \min(s_t^{*i}, \frac{5}{2}b_{t-1}^i)$$

This motivates to define the following charging scheme:

$$c_t^i = \min\left(\frac{2}{5}s_t^{*i}, b_{t-1}^i\right)$$

Based on how we compute the charge we divide the set of agents in each period in a set A_t of agents ahead and a set B_t of agents behind. We say agent i is behind ($i \in B_t$) if $b_{t-1}^i \leq \frac{2}{5}s_t^{*i}$ and we say that i is ahead ($i \in A_t$) otherwise. For $i \in B_t$ we can produce a good bound on the total spend using (7.1):

$$c_t^i = b_{t-1}^i \geq \frac{2}{5}(b_{t-1}^{*i} + \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} s_\tau^{*i} - \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \theta_\tau^{(2)} x_\tau^{*i}) - \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} s_\tau^i$$

Re-organizing the expression and using that $s_t^{*i} \leq b_{t-1}^{*i}$ we get:

$$c_t^i + \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} s_\tau^i + \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \theta_\tau^{(2)} x_\tau^{*i} \geq \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=1}^t s_\tau^{*i} \quad (7.2)$$

A similar bound can be used to bound an ahead agent $i \in A_t$. Let t' be the last period before t where $i \in B_{t'}$. This is well-defined since all agents are behind in period zero. Therefore equation (7.2) holds for t' . Now, we can sum $\sum_{\tau=t'+1}^t c_\tau^i \geq \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=t'+1}^t s_\tau^{*i}$ to that bound and get:

$$\sum_{\tau=1}^{t'-1} s_\tau^i + \sum_{\tau=t'}^t c_\tau^i + \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=1}^{t'-1} \theta_\tau^{(2)} x_\tau^{*i} \geq \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=1}^t s_\tau^{*i} \quad (7.3)$$

Step 4: Bounding the spend of the non-clairvoyant mechanism. Either if $i \in B_t$ (equation

7.2) or $i \in A_t$ (equation 7.3) we can bound the spend as follows:

$$\sum_{\tau=1}^t s_{\tau}^i + \sum_{\tau=1}^t c_{\tau}^i + \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=1}^t \theta_{\tau}^{(2)} x_{\tau}^{*i} \geq \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=1}^t s_{\tau}^{*i}$$

Summing over all agents i and using the fact that $\sum_i c_t^i \leq \sum_i s_t^i$ we have:

$$2 \sum_i \sum_{\tau=1}^T s_{\tau}^i + \frac{2}{5} \sum_{\tau=1}^t \theta_{\tau}^{(2)} \geq \frac{2}{5} \sum_i \sum_{\tau=1}^t s_{\tau}^{*i}$$

Dividing the previous expression by 2 we see that the sum of total spends of the non-clairvoyant mechanism together with the revenue obtained from the second price auction component gives us a 5-approximation to the total spend of the optimal clairvoyant mechanism. \square

Stronger incentive guarantees. While our mechanism provides $1/5$ of the revenue of any Dynamic Bayesian Incentive Compatible (DBIC) mechanism, it actually satisfies a stronger notion of incentive compatibility: it is optimal for an agent to report her true type even if she knows the types of other agents in the period when she is reporting. This corresponds to the notion of Strong Dynamic Bayesian Incentive Compatibility:

$$\theta_t = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_t} u_t^i(\theta_t^i; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, (\theta_t^{-i}, \hat{\theta}_t^i)) + U_t^i(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, (\theta_t^{-i}, \hat{\theta}_t^i)), \quad \forall \theta_t^{-i} \quad (\text{sDBIC})$$

Lemma 7.2. *The NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism satisfies (sDBIC).*

Proof. By the BI property, the expected utility in subsequent rounds is not a function of the current reported type, so it is enough to argue that the three components of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism are dominant strategy incentive compatible in the static sense. This is trivial to check for the second price and Myerson components. For the Money Burning auction, we refer the reader to Appendix E where we discuss how to construct this component. \square

8 Optimal non-clairvoyant approximation for 2-periods

When the notion of non-clairvoyance was initially defined, it wasn't at all clear that it would be possible to obtain a non-clairvoyant mechanism with revenue performance at all close to the optimal mechanism that knows all the distributions, since the only obvious candidate (the static mechanism) is arbitrarily bad on certain distributions.

We showed that non-clairvoyance comes at a cost. No non-clairvoyant mechanism can obtain better than 2-approximation for all distributions and that a 5-approximation is possible. That begs the question on how to obtain the optimal non-clairvoyant mechanism, i.e., the mechanism with best possible approximation.

In the final section we obtain the best mechanism for two periods. For this special case, we provide a mechanism with 2-approximation to the optimal clairvoyant mechanism.

We now define the special 2-period version of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism using the same three mechanisms we used for the multi-buyer version, except that the Money Burning Auction is slightly different on the coefficients (2 instead of 5/2) in the spend constraints:

$$\max \sum_i \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t} [\tilde{u}_t^B(\theta_t)] \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbb{E}[\tilde{u}_t^B] \leq 2b_{t-1}^i, \forall i \quad (\text{IC}) \text{ and } (\text{IR})$$

Then the 2-period version of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism is defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1^i &= \frac{1}{2} \left[x_1^{M,i} + x_1^{S,i} \right] & p_1^i &= \frac{1}{2} \left[p_1^{M,i} + p_1^{S,i} \right] & b_1^i &= \frac{1}{2} \left[b_1^{M,i} + b_1^{S,i} \right] \\ x_2^i &= \frac{1}{2} \left[x_2^{M,i} + x_2^{B,i} \right] & p_2^i &= \frac{1}{2} \left[p_2^{M,i} + p_2^{B,i} \right] & b_2^i &= \frac{1}{2} \left[b_2^{M,i} + b_2^{B,i} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 8.1. *The 2-period version of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism is a non-clairvoyant 2-approximation to the 2-period clairvoyant benchmark.*

Proof. The proof is almost implied by the arguments we made in the proof of [Theorem 7.1](#). Since there are only 2 periods in total, then

- The spend of the clairvoyant mechanism in the first period is zero: $\sum_i s_1^{*i} = 0$. Therefore the non-clairvoyant mechanism doesn't lose any spend for not including Money

Burning Auction in the first period.

- The total spend only depends on the balance from the first period (b_1). Therefore the non-clairvoyant mechanism doesn't lose any spend for not including Second Price Auction in the second period.
- The total spend only comes from the second period. Hence the Money Burning Auction is optimal in the spend.

Putting the above three observations together, we can conclude that for any type vector sequence $\theta_{1..2}$,

$$\theta_1^{(2)} + \sum_i s_1^i + s_2^i \geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_i s_1^{*i} + s_2^{*i}$$

Combining this with the fact that the non-clairvoyant mechanism sells half of the item via Myerson's Auction, we conclude that it is a non-clairvoyant 2-approximation. \square

9 Related Work

Dynamic mechanism design The literature on dynamic mechanism design is too extensive to survey here: we refer to the survey by Bergemann and Said [BS11] for a comprehensive treatment on the subject. Here, we discuss a few representative papers in the literature.

For efficiency (social-welfare) maximization, Bergemann and Välimäki [BV10] propose the dynamic pivot mechanism, which is a natural generalization of the VCG mechanism to a dynamic environment where agents receive private information over time, and Athey and Segal [AS13] propose the team mechanism to achieve budget-balanced outcomes (see also Bergemann and Välimäki [BV03, BV06], Cavallo, Parkes, and Singh [CPS06, CPS09], and Cavallo [Cav08]).

For revenue maximization, a line of research was initiated by Baron and Besanko [BB84] and Courty and Li [CH00] that studies the setting where the private information of agents varies over time. The latter show an optimal dynamic contract that “screens” the agents twice in a setting where agents initially have private information about the future distribution

of their values (see also [BS12, AAD15] for “screening” in dynamic mechanism design).

Eső and Szentes [ES07] study a closely related two-period model, where the agents only have a rough estimation of their private values to the item in the first round and the seller can release additional signals to affect their values before selling the item in the second round. In a particular setting, they propose a “handicap auction” that shares some similar ideas with our bank account mechanism in each period: in a “handicap auction”, the agents buy their premiums from a menu offered by the seller in the first round based on their rough estimation of private values, and then compete with each other under unequal conditions (premiums) in the second round after receiving additional signals from the seller. It is similar to our bank account mechanisms in the sense that in both settings, the agents first buy some advantages/discounts for the next round via either premium costs (in “handicap auctions”) or spends (in bank account auctions) based on rough estimations of their values (prior distributions of each period in our case), and then compete under different levels of advantage after observing their realized values.

Pavan, Segal, and Toikka [PST09, PST10, PST14] generalize the idea of Myerson [Mye81] to a multi-period setting with dynamic private information and characterize the incentive compatibility in terms of necessary conditions and some sufficient conditions. Kakade, Lobel, and Nazerzadeh [KLN13] propose the virtual-pivot mechanism by combining ideas of “virtual values” for static optimal mechanism design [Mye81] and “dynamic pivot mechanisms” for dynamic efficient mechanism design [BV10]. In particular, they show that the virtual-pivot mechanisms are optimal in certain dynamic environments that are “separable”, satisfy periodic ex-post incentive compatible and individually rational, and have simple structure in multi-armed bandit settings (see also [Bat05, Deb08] for settings with private values evolving through Markovian processes). Devanur, Peres, and Sivan [DPS15] and Chawla, Devanur, Karlin, and Sivan [CDKS16] study the repeated selling of fresh copies of an item to a single buyer who has either fixed private value [DPS15] or evolving values [CDKS16] to the copies.

One major difference between our setting and the one with dynamic private information we just discussed above and is that we have no initial private types for the agents and the private types/values are independent of previous outcomes. Instead, we are able to guarantee *ex-post individual rationality* for a very general setting in our case, while weaker notions

of individual rationality (i.e., interim individual rationality or individually rational in expectation) are adopted in most of the previous studies (except for [KLN13], which guarantees ex-post individual rationality for environments satisfying a separability condition).

There are more works primarily focused on the setting with dynamic populations and fixed information [PS03, Gal06, Boa08, PV08, Sai08, GM09, BS10, GM10, Sai12]. In particular, the notion of non-clairvoyance we introduced is similar in spirit with the online mechanism design setting studied by Parkes and Singh [PS03] (for welfare-maximization) and Pai and Vohra [PV08] (for revenue-maximization) in the sense that the designer has restricted information about dynamic arrival/departure (for online mechanisms) or dynamic prior distributions (for non-clairvoyant mechanisms) in future periods. In contrast to the settings with dynamic populations discussed above, however, our setting emphasizes the dynamic arrivals of perishable goods (e.g., ad impressions), while it is still general enough to capture the dynamic attendance of agents by setting periodic prior distributions to be $\Pr[v = 0] = 1$ when they are absent from the auction except that the agents have unlimited demands. Hock [Hoc03] studies the revenue-maximization problem for selling homogeneous items to unit demand buyers where the demand curve is unknown. In particular, he considers an approach of selling the items sequentially and setting the optimal price for the current buyer based on the demand curve estimated from bids of previous buyers, which is also related to our notion of non-clairvoyance.

Our work is closer to the line of inquiry initiated by Papadimitriou, Pierrakos, Psomas, and Rubinstein [PPPR16], who seek to design revenue-optimal auctions in the setting where items are sequentially sold to the same set of buyers over time. They first show that the problem of designing the optimal deterministic auction is NP-hard even for 1 agent and 2 periods, but they provide a polynomial time algorithm for the optimal randomized auction via a linear programming formulation for a constant number of buyers and correlated valuations. The formulation is exponential in the number of buyers and the support of the distribution of agent type profiles over time. If agents have independent types over periods this causes their formulation to become exponential in the number of periods as well. This problem was addressed by Ashlagi, Daskalakis, and Haghpahanah [ADH16], who replaced the linear programming formulation with a dynamic program and obtained a $(1 + \epsilon)$ -approximation that

is polynomial in the number of periods for a single buyer with independent valuations. For multiple buyers they provide a mathematical characterization but not an algorithm to solve it. Simultaneously and independently, we also provide a $(1 + \epsilon)$ -approximation for agents with independent valuations using dynamic programming in the unpublished manuscript [MLTZ16].

Another closely related stream of literature is the design of dynamic mechanism in the time-discounted model where valuations of the buyers are drawn from an identical distribution in each step. This line was initiated by Biais et al. [BMPR07] and Krishna et al. [KLT13]. Belloni, Chen, and Sun [BCS] provide a characterization of the optimal mechanism by extending Myerson’s ironing technique to dynamic settings. Balseiro, Mirrokni, and Paes Leme [BMPL16] study the effect of imposing stronger constraints on the utilities of buyers, and design closed-form mechanisms that approach the optimal in the limit. This line of literature is incomparable with our work: their settings are i.i.d. across time (while we only assume independence), focus on a single buyer, and are based on a fixed-point formulation that is only possible in time-discounted models. While their model is more restricted, they are able to provide stronger guarantees and closed-form mechanisms.

Dynamic mechanism design frameworks One major contribution of our paper is the bank account framework, which provides a general framework to design (traditional or non-clairvoyant) dynamic mechanisms. In particular, incorporating this framework with ex-post individual rationality is technically challenging. Another major step in the development of the bank account framework is to show that all non-clairvoyant mechanisms can be cast in it. There have been other very interesting and useful frameworks, the oldest of which seems to be the *promised utility* framework of Thomas and Worrall [TW90] (see Belloni et al. [BCS16] or Balseiro et al. [BMPL16] for recent applications). More recently, Ashlagi et al. [ADH16] designed a framework based on revenue-utility tradeoff functions. Both the results in [TW90] and [ADH16] accommodate ex-post individual rationality and are universal in the sense that the optimal mechanism is always contained in their class.

The main difference between bank accounts and promised utilities or revenue-utility tradeoffs is that while the latter two are forward-looking (i.e., they define an optimal form for one period, given the optimal solution for the next), the bank account framework is

backward-looking. It defines an allocation and pricing rule based on the past and not the future. To the best of our knowledge, this is the only framework capable of accommodating non-clairvoyance.

Online supply and scheduling The term *clairvoyant* is borrowed from the scheduling literature, where it is typically used to refer to an algorithm that can ‘see the future’ in the sense that it can know, for example, the total execution time of jobs not yet completed. It is also often used to describe an adversary that can predict all the algorithm actions, present and future. The concept of non-clairvoyance is typically used to refer to an algorithm that can perform a certain task well, regardless of having all information.

In that sense, one can see our paper as an *online algorithm approach* to dynamic mechanism design. The study of incentives in problems where items arrive over time in an online manner was initiated by Babaioff, Blumrosen and Roth [BBR10], who design auctions (and prove lower bounds) for problems where incentives are required to be maintained and we are required to allocate goods without information about what the total supply is. This was extended by Goel et al. [GML13] to budgeted settings. The online supply problem was also studied from the perspective of revenue in both the Bayesian and prior free settings by Mahdian and Saberi [MS06] and Devanur and Hartline [DH09]. In this line of work, however, agents review their types in the beginning of the period, and the challenge is to guarantee a monotone allocation. Since types are only reported once, incentive constraints don’t need to be enforced dynamically.

References

- [AAD15] Mustafa Akan, Barış Ata, and James D Dana. Revenue management by sequential screening. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 159:728–774, 2015. 42
- [ADH16] Itai Ashlagi, Constantinos Daskalakis, and Nima Haghpahan. Sequential mechanisms with ex-post participation guarantees. In Vincent Conitzer, Dirk Bergemann, and Yiling Chen, editors, *Proceedings of the 2016 ACM Conference on Economics and Computation, EC ’16, Maastricht, The Netherlands, July 24-28, 2016*, pages 213–214. ACM, 2016. 6, 43, 44
- [AS13] Susan Athey and Ilya Segal. An efficient dynamic mechanism. *Econometrica*, 81(6):2463–2485, 2013. 32, 41

- [Bat05] Marco Battaglini. Long-term contracting with markovian consumers. *The American economic review*, 95(3):637–658, 2005. [42](#)
- [BB84] David P Baron and David Besanko. Regulation and information in a continuing relationship. *Information Economics and policy*, 1(3):267–302, 1984. [41](#)
- [BBR10] Moshe Babaioff, Liad Blumrosen, and Aaron Roth. Auctions with online supply. In *Proceedings of the 11th ACM conference on Electronic commerce*, pages 13–22. ACM, 2010. [45](#)
- [BCS] Alexandre Belloni, Bingyao Chen, and Peng Sun. Structures of optimal contracts in dynamic mechanism design with one agent. [44](#)
- [BCS16] Alexandre Belloni, Bingyao Chen, and Peng Sun. Computation of optimal dynamic mechanism with participation requirements. Technical report, working paper, 2016. [44](#)
- [Ber00] Dimitri P. Bertsekas. *Dynamic Programming and Optimal Control*. Athena Scientific, 2nd edition, 2000. [25](#)
- [BM05] Dirk Bergemann and Stephen Morris. Robust mechanism design. *Econometrica*, 73(6):1771–1813, 2005. [32](#)
- [BM12] Dirk Bergemann and Stephen Morris. *Robust mechanism design: The role of private information and higher order beliefs*, volume 2. World Scientific, 2012. [5](#)
- [BMPL16] Santiago Balseiro, Vahab Mirrokni, and Renato Paes Leme. Dynamic mechanisms with martingale utilities. 2016. [44](#)
- [BMPR07] Bruno Biais, Thomas Mariotti, Guillaume Plantin, and Jean-Charles Rochet. Dynamic security design: Convergence to continuous time and asset pricing implications. *The Review of Economic Studies*, 74(2):345–390, 2007. [44](#)
- [Boa08] Simon Board. Durable-goods monopoly with varying demand. *The Review of Economic Studies*, 75(2):391–413, 2008. [43](#)
- [BS10] Simon Board and Andrzej Skrzypacz. Optimal dynamic auctions for durable goods: Posted prices and fire-sales. *Unpublished manuscript, Stanford University*, 2010. [43](#)
- [BS11] Dirk Bergemann and Maher Said. Dynamic auctions. *Wiley Encyclopedia of Operations Research and Management Science*, 2011. [41](#)
- [BS12] Raphael Boleslavsky and Maher Said. Progressive screening: Long-term contracting with a privately known stochastic process. *The Review of Economic Studies*, page rds021, 2012. [42](#)
- [BV03] Dirk Bergemann and Juuso Välimäki. Dynamic common agency. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 111(1):23–48, 2003. [41](#)

- [BV06] Dirk Bergemann and Juuso Välimäki. Dynamic price competition. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 127(1):232–263, 2006. [41](#)
- [BV10] Dirk Bergemann and Juuso Välimäki. The dynamic pivot mechanism. *Econometrica*, 78(2):771–789, 2010. [41](#), [42](#)
- [Cav08] Ruggiero Cavallo. Efficiency and redistribution in dynamic mechanism design. In *Proceedings of the 9th ACM conference on Electronic commerce*, pages 220–229. ACM, 2008. [41](#)
- [CDKS16] Shuchi Chawla, Nikhil R Devanur, Anna R Karlin, and Balasubramanian Sivan. Simple pricing schemes for consumers with evolving values. In *SODA 2016*, pages 1476–1490. SIAM, 2016. [42](#)
- [CDW12a] Yang Cai, Constantinos Daskalakis, and S. Matthew Weinberg. An algorithmic characterization of multi-dimensional mechanisms. In *Proceedings of the 44th Symposium on Theory of Computing Conference, STOC 2012, New York, NY, USA, May 19 - 22, 2012*, pages 459–478, 2012. [66](#), [69](#)
- [CDW12b] Yang Cai, Constantinos Daskalakis, and S. Matthew Weinberg. Optimal multi-dimensional mechanism design: Reducing revenue to welfare maximization. In *53rd Annual IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, FOCS 2012, New Brunswick, NJ, USA, October 20-23, 2012*, pages 130–139, 2012. [66](#)
- [CH00] Pascal Courty and Li Hao. Sequential screening. *The Review of Economic Studies*, 67(4):697–717, 2000. [41](#)
- [CPS06] Ruggiero Cavallo, David C Parkes, and Satinder Singh. Optimal coordinated planning amongst self-interested agents with private state. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Second Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, pages 55–62. AUAI Press, 2006. [41](#)
- [CPS09] Ruggiero Cavallo, David C Parkes, and Satinder Singh. Efficient mechanisms with dynamic populations and dynamic types. 2009. [41](#)
- [Deb08] Rahul Deb. Optimal contracting of new experience goods. 2008. [42](#)
- [DH09] Nikhil R Devanur and Jason D Hartline. Limited and online supply and the bayesian foundations of prior-free mechanism design. In *Proceedings of the 10th ACM conference on Electronic commerce*, pages 41–50. ACM, 2009. [45](#)
- [DPS15] Nikhil R Devanur, Yuval Peres, and Balasubramanian Sivan. Perfect bayesian equilibria in repeated sales. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Sixth Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms*, pages 983–1002. SIAM, 2015. [42](#)
- [Elk07] Edith Elkind. Designing and learning optimal finite support auctions. In *Proceedings of the eighteenth annual ACM-SIAM symposium on Discrete algorithms*, pages 736–745. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics, 2007. [66](#), [67](#)

- [ES07] Péter Eső and Balazs Szentes. Optimal information disclosure in auctions and the handicap auction. *The Review of Economic Studies*, 74(3):705–731, 2007. [42](#)
- [Gal06] Jérémie Gallien. Dynamic mechanism design for online commerce. *Operations Research*, 54(2):291–310, 2006. [43](#)
- [GM09] Alex Gershkov and Benny Moldovanu. Dynamic revenue maximization with heterogeneous objects: A mechanism design approach. *American economic Journal: microeconomics*, 1(2):168–198, 2009. [43](#)
- [GM10] Alex Gershkov and Benny Moldovanu. Efficient sequential assignment with incomplete information. *Games and Economic Behavior*, 68(1):144–154, 2010. [43](#)
- [GML13] Gagan Goel, Vahab S. Mirrokni, and Renato Paes Leme. Clinching auction with online supply. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Fourth Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, SODA 2013, New Orleans, Louisiana, USA, January 6-8, 2013*, pages 605–619, 2013. [45](#)
- [Hoc03] Dee Hock. Optimal pricing mechanisms with unknown demand. *The American economic review*, 93(3):509–529, 2003. [43](#)
- [HR08] Jason D. Hartline and Tim Roughgarden. Optimal mechanism design and money burning. In *Proceedings of the 40th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada, May 17-20, 2008*, pages 75–84, 2008. [4](#), [31](#), [34](#), [35](#), [66](#), [67](#)
- [JS07] Matthew O Jackson and Hugo F Sonnenschein. Overcoming incentive constraints by linking decisions. *Econometrica*, 75(1):241–257, 2007. [1](#), [13](#)
- [KLN13] Sham M Kakade, Ilan Lobel, and Hamid Nazerzadeh. Optimal dynamic mechanism design and the virtual-pivot mechanism. *Operations Research*, 61(4):837–854, 2013. [42](#), [43](#)
- [KLT13] R Vijay Krishna, Giuseppe Lopomo, and Curtis R Taylor. Stairway to heaven or highway to hell: Liquidity, sweat equity, and the uncertain path to ownership. *The RAND Journal of Economics*, 44(1):104–127, 2013. [44](#)
- [MLTZ16] Vahab S. Mirrokni, Renato Paes Leme, Pingzhong Tang, and Song Zuo. Optimal dynamic mechanisms with ex-post IR via bank accounts. *CoRR*, abs/1605.08840, 2016. [6](#), [44](#)
- [MR92] Dilip Mookherjee and Stefan Reichelstein. Dominant strategy implementation of bayesian incentive compatible allocation rules. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 56(2):378–399, 1992. [32](#)
- [MS06] Mohammad Mahdian and Amin Saberi. Multi-unit auctions with unknown supply. In *Proceedings of the 7th ACM conference on Electronic commerce*, pages 243–249. ACM, 2006. [45](#)
- [MV07] Alejandro M Manelli and Daniel R Vincent. Multidimensional mechanism design: Revenue maximization and the multiple-good monopoly. *Journal of Economic theory*, 137(1):153–185, 2007. [1](#), [12](#)

- [Mye81] Roger B Myerson. Optimal auction design. *Mathematics of operations research*, 6(1):58–73, 1981. 42
- [PPPR16] Christos Papadimitriou, George Pierrakos, Christos-Alexandros Psomas, and Aviad Rubinstein. On the complexity of dynamic mechanism design. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Seventh Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms*, pages 1458–1475. SIAM, 2016. 1, 6, 10, 43, 49
- [Pre07] The perils of prediction. *The Economist*, May 31 2007. 5
- [PS03] David C Parkes and Satinder Singh. An mdp-based approach to online mechanism design. In *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 791–798. MIT Press, 2003. 43
- [PST09] Alessandro Pavan, Ilya R Segal, and Juuso Toikka. Dynamic mechanism design: Incentive compatibility, profit maximization and information disclosure. 2009. 42
- [PST10] Alessandro Pavan, Ilya Segal, and Juuso Toikka. Infinite-horizon mechanism design: The independent-shock approach. Technical report, Discussion Paper, Center for Mathematical Studies in Economics and Management Science, 2010. 42
- [PST14] Alessandro Pavan, Ilya Segal, and Juuso Toikka. Dynamic mechanism design: A myersonian approach. *Econometrica*, 82(2):601–653, 2014. 32, 42
- [PV08] Mallesh Pai and Rakesh V Vohra. Optimal dynamic auctions. Technical report, Discussion paper//Center for Mathematical Studies in Economics and Management Science, 2008. 43
- [Sai08] Maher Said. Information revelation and random entry in sequential ascending auctions. In *Proceedings of the 9th ACM conference on Electronic commerce*, pages 98–98. ACM, 2008. 43
- [Sai12] Maher Said. Auctions with dynamic populations: Efficiency and revenue maximization. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 147(6):2419–2438, 2012. 43
- [TW90] Jonathan Thomas and Tim Worrall. Income fluctuation and asymmetric information: An example of a repeated principal-agent problem. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 51(2):367 – 390, 1990. 25, 44
- [Wil87] Robert Wilson. Game theoretic analyses of trading processes. In *Advances in Economic Theory: Fifth World Congress, ed. Truman Bewley*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987. 5

A Examples from Section 2

The following example is essentially the same as the one given by [PPPR16], which shows that the gap between dynamic and static mechanisms could be arbitrarily large.

Example A.1. Consider a clairvoyant dynamic mechanism with two periods and a single item auctioned in each period. In each period, the valuation of the buyer for the item is independently drawn from the *equal revenue distribution*:

$$F_1 = F_2 = F, \quad F(\theta) = \begin{cases} 0, & \theta \leq 1 \\ 1 - 1/\theta, & 1 < \theta < \theta_{\max} \\ 1, & \theta \geq \theta_{\max} \end{cases}.$$

Note that the revenue of the optimal static mechanism is 2, which is the revenue obtained by running Myerson's auction in each period. Using a dynamic mechanism we can obtain revenue $2 + \ln \ln \theta_{\max}$. The gap is arbitrarily large as θ_{\max} tends to infinity.

The dynamic mechanism works as follows:

- In the first period, the seller allocates the item with probability 1 to the buyer and charges her bid but no more than $1 + \ln \theta_{\max}$, i.e., $p_1(\hat{\theta}_1) = \min(\hat{\theta}_1, 1 + \ln \theta_{\max})$.
- In the second period, the seller runs a posted-price mechanism with price $r_2 = \theta_{\max}/e^{p_1-1}$.

In fact, the dynamic mechanism above is dynamic incentive compatible and ex-post individually rational. This is because it can be written as a bank account mechanism (that we discuss in [Section 5](#)). The expected revenue is,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{REV} &= \mathbb{E}[p_1(\theta_1) + p_2(\theta_1, \theta_2)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\min(\theta_1, 1 + \ln \theta_{\max})] + \mathbb{E}[r_2 \cdot \mathbf{1}\{\theta_2 \geq r_2\}] \\ &= 2 + \mathbb{E}[\min(\theta_1 - 1, \ln \theta_{\max})] \\ &= 2 + \ln \ln \theta_{\max}. \end{aligned}$$

B Missing proofs from [Section 5](#)

B.1 Proof of [Theorem 5.1](#)

Proof of [Theorem 5.1](#). First we prove that conditions (IC) and (BI) imply that the mechanism satisfies (DIC).

By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) &= v(\theta_t, x_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)) - p_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) \\ &= v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\hat{\theta}_t, b_{t-1}(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}))) - p_t^B(\hat{\theta}_t, b_{t-1}(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1})). \end{aligned}$$

Combined with (IC), we have

$$\begin{aligned} u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) &= v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\hat{\theta}_t, b_{t-1}(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}))) - p_t^B(\hat{\theta}_t, b_{t-1}(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1})) \\ &\leq v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}))) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1})) = u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \theta_t). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

By (BI), $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_\tau}[u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau})]$ is constant in $b_{\tau-1} = b_{\tau-1}(\hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau-1})$, hence also constant in $\hat{\theta}_t$, namely,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_\tau} \left[u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau}) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_\tau} \left[u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \theta_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau}) \right].$$

Therefore

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_{t+1..T}} \left[\sum_{\tau=t+1}^T u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau}) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{t+1..T}} \left[\sum_{\tau=t+1}^T u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \theta_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau}) \right]. \quad (\text{B.2})$$

Adding (B.1) and (B.2) together, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) + \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{t+1..T}} \left[\sum_{\tau=t+1}^T u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau}) \right] \\ &\leq u_t(\theta_t; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \theta_t) + \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{t+1..T}} \left[\sum_{\tau=t+1}^T u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \theta_t, \theta_{t+1..\tau}) \right], \end{aligned}$$

which directly implies (DIC).

Now we show that condition (BU) implies (eP-IR). By summing up constraint (BU) for $t = 1$ to T , we have,

$$\sum_{t=1}^T b_t \leq \sum_{t=1}^T (b_{t-1} + v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1})),$$

which implies

$$\sum_{t=1}^T (v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) \geq b_T - b_0 \geq 0. \quad (\text{B.3})$$

Again, by definition,

$$u_t(\theta_t; \theta_{1..t}) = v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_{1..t})) - p_t(\theta_{1..t}) = v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1}).$$

(eP-IR) is then implied by (B.3), i.e.,

$$\sum_{t=1}^T u_t(\theta_t; \theta_{1..t}) = \sum_{t=1}^T (v(\theta_t, x_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) - p_t^B(\theta_t, b_{t-1})) \geq 0.$$

□

B.2 Proof of Lemma 5.5

The first step in the proof of Lemma 5.5 is to transform the problem of computing the optimal mechanism satisfying DIC and eP-IR to an equivalent problem:

Lemma B.1 (Payment frontloading). *For any mechanism (x_t, p_t) satisfying DIC and eP-IR there is a mechanism also satisfying DIC and eP-IR with same allocation and ex-post revenue such that the agent is charged her full surplus in all periods except the last one.*

Proof. Given a mechanism (x_t, p_t) satisfying DIC and eP-IR define mechanism (x_t, \tilde{p}_t) such that $\tilde{p}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_{1..t}))$ for $t < T$ and

$$\tilde{p}_T(\theta_{1..T}) = \sum_{t=1}^T p_t(\theta_{1..t}) - \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_{1..t}))$$

The mechanism clearly has the revenue as the original, since for any $\theta_{1..T}$ we have $\sum_{t=1}^T p_t(\theta_{1..t}) = \sum_{t=1}^T \tilde{p}_t(\theta_{1..t})$. Since the ex-post allocation and ex-post revenue are the same in the two mechanisms for every $\theta_{1..T}$, the ex-post utility should also be the same. In particular, it should always be non-negative and therefore eP-IR holds. Since DIC can be formulated in terms of ex-post utilities it also holds after the transformation. □

We call a mechanism of the type specified in Lemma B.1 a payment frontloading mechanism. One important property that we will use heavily is that since $u_t(\theta_{1..t}) = 0$ for all $t < T$ then the continuation utility U_t and the partially realized utility \bar{U}_t become the same things for all $t < T$.

Proof of Lemma 5.5. By Lemma B.1 we can assume (x_t, p_t) is a payment frontloading mechanism. Let's first define property Sym_t :

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{if } \bar{U}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = \bar{U}_t(\theta'_{1..t}) \text{ then } \forall s \geq t, \\ &x_s(\theta_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}) = x_s(\theta'_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}) \text{ and } p_s(\theta_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}) = p_s(\theta'_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..s}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Sym}_t)$$

We will show that Sym_t works for all t by induction. Precisely: we show that if (x_t, p_t) is a payment frontloading mechanism satisfying Sym_t for $t \leq \tau - 1$ then we can transform it in a payment frontloading mechanism with at least the same revenue such that Sym_t holds for all $t \leq \tau$.

For the inductive step, partition the set of all possible type vectors $\theta_{1..\tau}$ into classes with the same partially-realized utility, i.e.:

$$S_\tau(x) = \{\theta_{1..\tau} | \bar{U}_\tau(\theta_{1..\tau}) = x\}$$

Now, for each x choose $\theta_{1..\tau}^*(x) \in S_\tau(x)$ maximizing the expected welfare of future periods

$$W_t(\theta_{1..t}) = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=\tau+1}^T v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..t})) \right]$$

Now, we define mechanism (\tilde{x}, \tilde{p}) such that $\tilde{x}_t = x_t$ and $\tilde{p}_t = p_t$ for $t \leq \tau$. For $t > \tau$ we have:

$$\tilde{x}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = x_t(\tilde{\theta}_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..t}) \text{ where } \tilde{\theta}_{1..\tau} = \theta_{1..\tau}^*(\bar{U}_\tau(\theta_{1..\tau}))$$

$$\tilde{p}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = p_t(\tilde{\theta}_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..t}) \text{ where } \tilde{\theta}_{1..\tau} = \theta_{1..\tau}^*(\bar{U}_\tau(\theta_{1..\tau}))$$

Now we argue that $(\tilde{x}_t, \tilde{p}_t)$ has the desired properties:

- it is still a payment frontloading mechanism, since allocation and payments from each type vector of length t are replaced by the allocation and payments of another type

vector of length k , so the agent still has zero utility in all steps except the very last one.

- it is still **eP-IR**. Let $\tilde{u}_t(\theta_{1..t})$ be the period utility of the mechanism $(\tilde{x}_t, \tilde{p}_t)$. Since it is still a payment frontloading mechanism, $\tilde{u}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = 0$ for all $t < T$. So it is enough to argue that $\tilde{u}_T(\theta_{1..T}) \geq 0$. By the transformation, there is another type vector $\theta'_{1..T-1}$ such that:

$$\tilde{u}_T(\theta_{1..T}) = v(\theta_T, \tilde{x}_T(\theta_{1..T})) - \tilde{p}_T(\theta_{1..T}) = v(\theta_T, x_T(\theta'_{1..T-1}, \theta_T)) - p_T(\theta'_{1..T-1}, \theta_T) \geq 0$$

since the original mechanism is also **eP-IR** and payment frontloading.

- it is still **DIC**. For $t > \tau$, the **DIC** condition follows directly from the fact that the original mechanism is **DIC**. For $t = \tau$ we use the fact that:

$$\theta_\tau = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_\tau} u_t(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..\tau}) + U_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..\tau}) = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_\tau} \tilde{u}_t(\theta_\tau; \hat{\theta}_{1..\tau}) + \tilde{U}_t(\hat{\theta}_{1..\tau})$$

where \tilde{U}_t is the continuation utility of the transformed mechanism. This expression holds since: (1) we didn't change the period utility of period τ ; (2) we were careful to change the mechanism to preserve partially-realized utilities; (3) since the mechanism was a payment frontloading mechanism, the partially realized utilities coincide with continuation utilities, so we are also preserving continuation utilities. Finally, for $t < \tau$ we can use the same argument. Since the continuation utilities of period τ are preserved and the period utilities between period t and τ are preserved, the continuation utility of period t is also preserved.

- condition **Sym_t** holds for $t = \tau$. This condition holds by design.
- condition **Sym_t** holds for $t \leq \tau - 1$: the condition is clearly true for $s \leq \tau$. For $s < \tau \leq u$, consider two type vectors $\theta'_{1..s}$ and $\theta''_{1..s}$ with the same continuation utility in the original mechanism. Those must have the same continuation utility in the new mechanism as well, since we argue the continuation utilities are preserved for $t \leq \tau$. By the induction hypothesis the allocation and payments must be the same in the original

mechanism for $(\theta'_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..u})$ and $(\theta''_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..u})$ for any type vector $\theta_{s+1..u}$. Therefore $U_\tau(\theta'_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..\tau}) = U_\tau(\theta''_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..\tau}) := x$ which means that both types are in the class, i.e., $(\theta'_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..\tau}), (\theta''_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..\tau}) \in S_\tau(x)$. Therefore:

$$\tilde{x}_u(\theta'_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..u}) = x_u(\theta_{1..\tau}^*(x), \theta_{\tau+1..u}) = \tilde{x}_u(\theta''_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..u})$$

$$\tilde{p}_u(\theta'_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..u}) = p_u(\theta_{1..\tau}^*(x), \theta_{\tau+1..u}) = \tilde{p}_u(\theta''_{1..s}, \theta_{s+1..u})$$

- the expected welfare doesn't decrease, since we always replace a suffix of the mechanism with one with at least the same expected welfare:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sw} &= \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{\tau} v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_{1..t})) + W_\tau(\theta_{1..\tau}) \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{\tau} v(\theta_t, x_t(\theta_{1..t})) + W_\tau(\theta_{1..\tau}^*(\bar{U}_\tau(\theta_{1..\tau}))) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{\tau} v(\theta_t, \tilde{x}_t(\theta_{1..t})) + \tilde{W}_\tau(\theta_{1..\tau}) \right] = \tilde{\text{Sw}} \end{aligned}$$

- the expected revenue doesn't decrease, since expected revenue is the difference of expected welfare and expected utility and we argue that welfare doesn't decrease and the expected utility is the same.

□

C Different Notions of Incentive Compatibility and Individual Rationality

C.1 Stronger IR notions

The main body of the paper focuses on satisfying **DIC** and **eP-IR** and the main design goals. In Theorem 5.1 we argue that bank account mechanisms satisfy even stronger notions. There are various variations over those notions that we can satisfy by slightly changing the mechanism. For example Theorem 5.1 implies that we satisfy the following notion of expected individual rationality continuation:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{\tau=t}^T u_\tau(\theta_\tau; \theta_{1..\tau}) | \theta_{1..t-1} \right] \geq 0$$

The reader might ask whether this is possible to satisfy the same notion ex-post with respect to the t -th type θ_t . In other words, can we satisfy the following notion?

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{\tau=t}^T u_{\tau}(\theta_{\tau}; \theta_{1..\tau}) | \theta_{1..t} \right] \geq 0$$

Notice they only differ in the conditioning of the expectations. This can be achieved by any bank account mechanism by changing the payment rule to:

$$\hat{p}_t(\theta_t, b) = p_t(\theta_t, b) + b_t(\theta_t, b) - b$$

for $t < T$ and in the last period to:

$$\hat{p}_T(\theta_T, b) = p_T(\theta_T, b) - b$$

The reader can verify that the all properties studied are preserved under this notion. In fact, condition [BU](#) implies that the previous transformation satisfies the even stronger notion of ex-post per-period individual rationality. I.e., under the \hat{p}_t payment rules the mechanism satisfies for all realization of types and all periods:

$$u_t(\theta_t; \theta_{1..t}) \geq 0 \tag{pp-IR}$$

This transformation almost preserves non-clairvoyance. If the original mechanism was non-clairvoyant the new mechanism is what we call *quasi-non-clairvoyant*. A quasi-non-clairvoyant mechanism is the one that needs to be told when the last period is at that period so that it can tailor its allocation and payment to the fact that we are in the last period. This is exactly what is required to implement the previous transformation.

We know there is a mechanism that is per-period individual rationality, dynamic incentive compatible and quasi-non-clairvoyant. Can we get the previous combination with actual non-clairvoyance instead of quasi-non-clairvoyance? The answer is unfortunately no.

Lemma C.1. *Any revenue that can be obtained by a non-clairvoyant mechanism satisfies [DIC](#) and [pp-IR](#) can also be obtained by running a static individually rational and incentive*

compatible auction in each period.

Proof. The proof follows directly from Lemma D.1 proved in the following section, which says that a non-clairvoyant DIC mechanism must also satisfy per-period incentive compatibility. \square

C.2 Stronger IC notions

Similarly we can ask the same question about incentive compatibility. Can we achieve even stronger notions of incentive compatibility? For example, can we achieve a version of DIC that holds for every realization of types in future periods instead of in expectation over future periods? We call a mechanism super dynamic incentive compatible:

$$\forall \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \theta_{t+1..T}, \theta_t = \arg \max_{\hat{\theta}_t} u_{t..T}(\theta_{t..T}; \hat{\theta}_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t, \theta_{t+1..T}), \quad (\text{super-DIC})$$

where $u_{t..t'}(\theta_{t..t'}; \hat{\theta}_{1..t'}) = \sum_{s=t}^{t'} u_s(\theta_s; \hat{\theta}_{1..s})$.

Unfortunately this notion is too strong as shown in Theorem 2.1 which is restated here for convenience:

Theorem C.2. *For the auction setting where $v(\theta_t, x_t) = \theta_t \cdot x_t$, any revenue that can be obtained in a mechanism satisfying super-DIC and eP-IR can be obtained by running a static individually rational and incentive compatible mechanism in each period.*

Theorem 2.1. Consider the single period mechanism with allocation defined by $\hat{x}(\hat{\theta}) = x_1(\hat{\theta})$. By the super-DIC property, for every $\theta_{2..T}$ the payment rule $\hat{p}(\hat{\theta}) = p_1(\hat{\theta}) - u_{2..T}(\theta_{2..T}; \hat{\theta}, \theta_{2..T})$ implements \hat{x} . Since the payment rule \hat{p} is determined from \hat{x} up to a constant, the term $u_{2..T}(\theta_{2..T}; \theta_1, \theta_{2..T})$ must be decomposable in a term that depends only on θ_1 and a term depending on $\theta_{2..T}$. Say:

$$u_{2..T}(\theta_{2..T}; \theta_{2..T}) = \alpha(\theta_1) + \beta(\theta_{2..T})$$

Since $u_{1..T} = u_1(\theta_1; \theta_1) + \alpha(\theta_1) + \beta(\theta_{2..T})$ is non-negative for every type profile we can adjust α and β such that $u_1(\theta_1; \theta_1) + \alpha(\theta_1) \geq 0$ for every θ_1 and $\beta(\theta_{2..T}) \geq 0$ for every $\theta_{2..T}$. We can then define the following mechanism:

- allocate in the first period using $x_1(\theta_1)$ and charge $p_1(\theta_1) - \alpha(\theta_1)$
- allocate in all other periods using $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1}[x_t(\theta_1, \theta_{2..t})]$ and charge $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1}[x_t(\theta_1, \theta_{2..t})]$ adding an extra charge of $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1}[\alpha(\theta_1)]$ in the last period.

We obtain a mechanism that is single period incentive compatible and individually rational for the first period, and a mechanism satisfying **super-DIC** and **eP-IR** for periods 2 to T . Notice that the revenue is still the same.

By induction we can find a mechanism that runs a static auction in each period and has the same revenue as the original mechanism. \square

D Proof of the Non-Clairvoyance Gap Theorems

D.1 Characterization of Non-Clairvoyant Mechanisms

We start by proving a strong property of non-clairvoyant mechanisms that will be used heavily in this section:

Lemma D.1. *If $x_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t})$, $p_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t})$ are a non-clairvoyant mechanism satisfying **DIC** and $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t})$ for $t < T$ is the continuation utility of the corresponding clairvoyant mechanism:*

$$U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t}) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{t+1..T} \sim F_{t+1..T}} \left[\sum_{s=t+1}^T v(\theta_s, x_s(F_{1..s}, \theta_{1..s})) - p_s(F_{1..s}, \theta_{1..s}) \right]$$

then $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t})$ doesn't depend on $\theta_{1..t}$, i.e., $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t}) = U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta'_{1..t})$.

Proof. Fix $F_{1..T}$ and $\theta_{1..t}$. First we show that $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)$ doesn't depend on $\hat{\theta}_t$. Define the single period mechanism for a buyer with valuation $\hat{\theta}_t \sim F_t$ that allocates according to $\hat{x}_t(\hat{\theta}_t) = x_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)$ and charges payments according to $\hat{p}(\hat{\theta}_t) = p_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t) - U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)$. By the fact that the dynamic mechanism is **DIC** this mechanism must be incentive compatible, so the payment rule is uniquely defined by the allocation rule up to a constant. Now, define an alternative payment rule $p'_t(\hat{\theta}_t) = p_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)$. The mechanism defined by \hat{x}_t, p'_t must also be incentive compatible since the clairvoyant mechanism corresponding to the prior distribution sequence $F_{1..t}$ is also **DIC**. Since those are two

single-period incentive compatible mechanisms with the same allocation rule, the payment rule must differ by a constant. Therefore, the difference $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)$ can't depend on $\hat{\theta}_t$.

Now we use induction to show that $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1}, \hat{\theta}_t)$ doesn't depend on θ_{t-1} . Since we know $U_{t,T}$ doesn't depend on θ_t we indicate it by writing $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1})$. By definition:

$$U_{t-1,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-2}) = U_{t-1,t}(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t-2}) + \mathbb{E}_{\theta_t \in F_t} [U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1})]$$

Since the last term doesn't depend on θ_t we can remove the expectation:

$$U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1}) = U_{t-1,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-2}) - U_{t-1,t}(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t-2})$$

Hence, $U_{t,T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..t-1})$ doesn't depend on θ_{t-1} . Repeating the same argument we can show $U_{t,T}$ depends only on the distributions $F_{1..T}$. \square

Now, in order to prove Theorem 6.2 we first prove a symmetrization lemma in the style of Lemma 5.5. There are some important differences: instead of the partially realized utility used in Lemma 5.5 we will use the utility observed so far, which is a quantity we have access to in non-clairvoyant mechanisms since it only involves the past. The second major difference is that it won't involve payment frontloading, since we have no access to the future. The reason we can get away without those is the stronger property satisfied by non-clairvoyant mechanism described in Lemma D.1.

Lemma D.2 (Non-Clairvoyant Symmetrization). *Given a non-clairvoyant dynamic mechanism $x_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t})$, $p_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t})$, there is a non-clairvoyant mechanism $\tilde{x}_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t})$, $\tilde{p}_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t})$ with the same revenue for each sequence of prior distributions, i.e., for each $F_{1..T}$:*

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_{1..t} \sim F_{1..t}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T p_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{1..t} \sim F_{1..t}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \tilde{p}_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}) \right]$$

satisfying the following symmetry property: if $\sum_{s=1}^t \tilde{u}_s(F_{1..s}, \theta_{1..s}) = \sum_{s=1}^t \tilde{u}_s(F_{1..s}, \theta'_{1..s})$ then:

$$\tilde{x}_{t'}(F_{1..t}, F_{t+1..t'}, \theta_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..t'}) = \tilde{x}_{t'}(F_{1..t}, F_{t+1..t'}, \theta'_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..t'})$$

$$\tilde{p}_{t'}(F_{1..t}, F_{t+1,..,t'}, \theta_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..t'}) = \tilde{p}_{t'}(F_{1..t}, F_{t+1,..,t'}, \theta'_{1..t}, \theta_{t+1..t'})$$

Proof. To prevent notations from being too verbose, define $u_{1..t}(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}) = \sum_{s=1}^t u_s(F_{1..s}, \theta_{1..s})$. Assume the symmetric property holds for $t < \tau$. We will construct a mechanism for which the symmetric property holds for any $t \leq \tau$. Define \tilde{x}_t and \tilde{p}_t as follows. For $t \leq \tau$, let $\tilde{x}_t = x_t$ and $\tilde{p}_t = p_t$. For $t > \tau$ define:

$$\tilde{x}_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta'_{1..\tau} \sim F_{1..\tau}} [x_t(F_{1..t}, \theta'_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..t}) | u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta_{1..\tau}) = u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta'_{1..\tau})]$$

$$\tilde{p}_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta'_{1..\tau} \sim F_{1..\tau}} [p_t(F_{1..t}, \theta'_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..t}) | u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta_{1..\tau}) = u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta'_{1..\tau})]$$

In other words, we replace the allocation and payments in periods $t > \tau$ by the expected allocation and payments over types $\theta'_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..t}$ such that the total utility accrued by the buyer in periods $1..\tau$ is the same as in $\theta_{1..\tau}$. Now we argue that this mechanism still has the desired properties:

- it is still non-clairvoyant: this is clear by construction since at period t the mechanism is only a function of $F_{1..t}$ and $\theta_{1..t}$. Notice that it is crucial that we symmetrize using a quantity that we can measure with information available at period t .
- it is still **eP-IR**. To check this property let \tilde{u}_t be the utility under the new mechanism, then if E is the event that $u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta_{1..\tau}) = u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta'_{1..\tau})$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{u}_{1..T}(F_{1..T}, \theta_{1..T}) &= u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta_{1..\tau}) + \mathbb{E}_{\theta'_{1..\tau}} \left[\sum_{s=\tau+1}^T u_s(F_{1..s}, \theta'_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..s}) | E \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\theta'_{1..\tau}} \left[u_{1..\tau}(F_{1..\tau}, \theta'_{1..\tau}) + \sum_{s=\tau+1}^T u_s(F_{1..s}, \theta'_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..s}) | E \right] \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- it is still **DIC**. The **DIC** condition holds for $t > \tau$ since at that point the mechanism is simply a distribution of mechanisms satisfying the **DIC** condition. For $t \leq \tau$, we will use Lemma D.1 to argue that the expression in the maximization problem remains the same. In the following expression we omit the distributions $F_{1..t}$ for clarity of presentation:

$$\tilde{u}_t(\theta_{1..t}) + \tilde{U}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = u_t(\theta_{1..t}) + \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{s=t+1}^{\tau} u_s(\theta_{1..s}) \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\theta'_{1..t}} [U_{\tau}(\theta'_{1..t}) | E(\theta_{1..\tau})]$$

where $E(\theta_{1..\tau})$ is the event determining the set of $\theta'_{1..\tau}$ that we will condition on. This event is a function of $\theta_{1..\tau}$. However, by Lemma D.1, U_τ is a constant so the expectation and the event we are conditioning on are irrelevant, therefore we have:

$$\tilde{u}_t(\theta_{1..t}) + \tilde{U}_t(\theta_{1..t}) = u_t(\theta_{1..t}) + \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{s=t+1}^{\tau} u_s(\theta_{1..s}) \right] + U_\tau(\theta'_{1..\tau}) = u_t(\theta_{1..t}) + U_t(\theta_{1..t})$$

- the symmetry condition holds for $t = \tau$ by design.
- the symmetry condition holds for $t < \tau$ using an argument analogous to the one used in Lemma D.1.
- the expected revenue is the same for the following reasons (again we omit distributions $F_{1..T}$ for clarity:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{1..T}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T \tilde{p}_t(\theta_{1..t}) \right] &= \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{1..\tau}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{\tau} p_t(\theta_{1..\tau}) \right] + \\ &\quad \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{1..T}} \mathbb{E}_{\theta'_{1..\tau}} \left[\sum_{t=\tau+1}^T p_t(\theta'_{1..\tau}, \theta_{\tau+1..T}) | u_{1..\tau}(\theta_{1..\tau}) = u_{1..\tau}(\theta'_{1..\tau}) \right] \end{aligned}$$

which is equal to the original revenue since the distributions of $\theta_{1..\tau}$ and $\theta'_{1..\tau}$ are the same.

□

The symmetrization condition is the main ingredient to show that all non-clairvoyant mechanisms are bank account mechanisms. The reader is invited to contrast how much simpler this proof is than the proof of its clairvoyant counterpart. In some sense Lemma D.1 already provides us with most of the proof:

Proof of Theorem 6.2. Assume x_t, p_t satisfy the conditions in the Non-Clairvoyant Symmetrization Lemma (Lemma D.1). Define the bank balance as $b_t(F_{1..t}, \theta_{1..t}) = \sum_{s=1}^t u_s(F_{1..s}, \theta_{1..s})$. From symmetrization it is clear that x_t, p_t can be written as a bank account mechanism. The BI condition follows directly from Lemma D.1. With the current definition of bank accounts, condition BU becomes trivial: the first inequality follows from eP-IR and the second one holds with equality.

□

D.2 Lower bound for non-clairvoyant mechanisms

We will in this section prove Theorem 6.1. For this, let's initially define two distributions defined by their cdfs and parametrized by a constant $\mu > 0$ to be defined later:

$$F_1(\theta) = \begin{cases} (1 - e^{-\mu^2}) \frac{\theta\mu}{\theta\mu + 1} & \text{for } \theta \leq e^{\mu^2} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad F_2(\theta) = \left[1 - \frac{\epsilon}{\theta}\right]^+$$

We will consider two scenarios: the first is that there is a single item with distribution F_1 and the second is that there are two items: the first with distribution F_1 and the second with distribution F_2 . It is instructive to start by computing what is the optimal clairvoyant dynamic mechanism in each of the settings. By Theorem 5.2 we can restrict our attention to bank account mechanisms.

Scenario 1: One item with distribution F_1 . Since there is only one period, the optimal mechanism is the Myerson auction. Since there is a single buyer, the auction can be described as the posted price mechanism at price ρ maximizing $\rho(1 - F_1(\rho))$ which is $\rho = e^{\mu^2}$ and the revenue is:

$$\text{REV}^*(F_1) = \rho(1 - F_1(\rho)) = 1 + \frac{1}{\mu} + O(e^{-\mu^2})$$

Scenario 2: Two items with distributions F_1 and F_2 . Since the optimal mechanism can be described as a bank account mechanism, assume x_t, p_t is the optimal bank account mechanism. By condition BU the state of the bank account in the end of period 1 is at most u_1 which is at most e^{μ^2} . The mechanism in the second period can be described as spending some amount which is at most the balance from the account and running an IC and IR mechanism. Since the distribution F_2 is such that $\rho(1 - F_2(\rho)) = \epsilon$ for all ρ (i.e., it is an equal-revenue distribution), the revenue obtained from the second period is at most $b_1 + \epsilon \leq u_1 + \epsilon$. So the total revenue is at most the welfare of the first period plus ϵ . In other words, an upper bound to optimal revenue is $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_1 \sim F_1}[\theta_1] + \epsilon$.

Now we exhibit a mechanism that achieves that much revenue. In the first period, the item is given for free to the buyer and we deposit her value for the item in the bank account. In the second period, we first spend the entire balance of the bank account and then we

post a price $p(b_1)$ satisfying condition [BI](#). No matter what price we post, the revenue will be $b_1 + \epsilon$.

The expected revenue of this mechanism is:

$$\text{REV}^*(F_1, F_2) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_1 \sim F_1}[\theta_1] + \epsilon = 1 + \mu + \epsilon + O(\mu e^{-\mu^2})$$

Comparison of the two scenarios: We note that depending on whether there will be a second item or not, we do two completely different things for the first item. If there is no second item, we allocate the second item with very low probability and charge a very high price if it is allocated. If there is a second item, we always allocate the first item and don't charge any amount for it. A non-clairvoyant mechanism needs to aim at balancing those two extremes: it needs to allocate the first item such that, if there is no second item, the revenue is good enough compared to the optimal single-item auction. But it also needs to make sure the bank balance after the first period is large enough to allow for more freedom in allocating the second item.

Non-Clairvoyant Mechanism Consider now a non-clairvoyant mechanism and let $x_1(F_1, \theta_1), p_1(F_1, \theta_1)$ be the auction for the first item with distribution F_1 . This auction must be incentive compatible and individually rational, so it must be a distribution over posted price mechanisms, say, we use a random posted price $\rho \sim G$. Therefore:

$$\text{REV}^M(F_1) = \mathbb{E}_{\rho \sim G}[\rho(1 - F_1(\rho))]$$

and since every non-clairvoyant mechanism can be written as a bank account mechanism ([Theorem 6.2](#)), we can use the same argument as in the scenario 2 above to argue that:

$$\text{REV}^M(F_1, F_2) \leq \epsilon + \mathbb{E}_{\rho \sim G} [\mathbb{E}[\theta_1 \cdot \mathbf{1}_{\theta_1 \geq \rho}]]$$

Now, we are ready to prove the lower bound theorem:

Proof of Theorem 6.1. Assume that the non-clairvoyant mechanism is an α -approximation to the clairvoyant benchmark and consider the setup with F_1 and F_2 described in this section,

then:

$$\frac{2}{\alpha} = 2 \min \left(\frac{\text{REV}^M(F_1)}{\text{REV}^*(F_1)}, \frac{\text{REV}^M(F_1, F_2)}{\text{REV}^*(F_1, F_2)} \right) \leq \frac{\text{REV}^M(F_1)}{\text{REV}^*(F_1)} + \frac{\text{REV}^M(F_1, F_2)}{\text{REV}^*(F_1, F_2)} \leq \mathbb{E}_{\rho \sim G} [\beta(\rho)] \leq \max_{\rho} [\beta(\rho)]$$

where

$$\beta(\rho) := \frac{\rho(1 - F_1(\rho))}{\text{REV}^*(F_1)} + \frac{\epsilon + \mathbb{E}[\theta_1 \cdot \mathbf{1}_{\theta_1 \geq \rho}]}{\text{REV}^*(F_1, F_2)}$$

The remainder of the proof is Calculus-heavy³ and involves explicitly substituting the values of those expressions and evaluating the maximum of $\beta(\rho)$. Taking the limit as $\mu \rightarrow \infty$ will provide us the desired bound.

Denote $r_1 = 1/\text{REV}^*(F_1)$ and $r_{12} = 1/\text{REV}^*(F_1, F_2)$, then

$$\beta(\rho) = r_1 \rho(1 - F_1(\rho)) + r_{12} \left(\epsilon + \int_{\rho}^{e^{\mu^2}} \theta dF_1(\theta) \right).$$

Taking derivative of β ,

$$\begin{aligned} \beta'(\rho) &= r_1(1 - F_1(\rho) - \rho F_1'(\rho)) - r_{12} \rho F_1'(\rho) \\ &= r_1 - (1 - e^{\mu^2}) r_1 \frac{\rho \mu}{\rho \mu + 1} - (r_1 + r_{12})(1 - e^{\mu^2}) \frac{\rho \mu}{(\rho \mu + 1)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Denote $\zeta = 1 - e^{\mu^2}$ and let $\beta'(\rho) = 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} r_1(1 - \zeta)(\rho \mu + 1)^2 - r_{12} \zeta(\rho \mu + 1) + (r_1 + r_{12})\zeta &= 0 \\ \implies \rho \mu + 1 &= \frac{r_{12} \zeta}{2r_1(1 - \zeta)} \left(1 \pm \sqrt{1 - \frac{4r_1(1 - \zeta)}{r_{12} \zeta} \left(1 + \frac{r_1}{r_{12}} \right)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\frac{r_1}{r_{12}} = \frac{\text{REV}^*(F_1, F_2)}{\text{REV}^*(F_1)} = \frac{1 + \mu + \epsilon + O(\mu e^{-\mu^2})}{1 + 1/\mu + O(e^{-\mu^2})} = \mu + \epsilon + o(1),$$

$\frac{4r_1(1 - \zeta)}{r_{12} \zeta} (1 + \frac{r_1}{r_{12}}) \approx 4\mu^2 e^{-\mu^2} \ll 1$. Hence $\beta'(\rho) = 0$ has two roots. Because $\beta'(0) = r_1 > 0$, the

³We will omit some less important calculation details, and Taylor expansion will be repeatedly used.

local maximum of $\beta(\rho)$ is reached at the smaller root:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho^*\mu + 1 &= \frac{r_{12}\zeta}{2r_1(1-\zeta)} \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{4r_1(1-\zeta)}{r_{12}\zeta} \left(1 + \frac{r_1}{r_{12}} \right) + o(e^{-\mu^2}) \right) \right) = 1 + \mu + \epsilon + o(1) \\ \implies \rho^* &= 1 + o(1).\end{aligned}$$

Therefore the maximum value is reached at either ρ^* or e^{μ^2} :

$$\max_{\rho} \beta(\rho) = \max(\beta(\rho^*), \beta(e^{\mu^2})) = 1 + 1/\mu + o(1/\mu) \leq 1 + 2/\mu, \text{ for sufficiently large } \mu.$$

Hence the lower bound of α is obtained:

$$\alpha \geq \frac{2}{\max_{\rho} \beta(\rho)} \geq \frac{2}{1+2/\mu},$$

which is 2 as $\mu \rightarrow \infty$. □

E Polynomial Time Implementation of the NONCLAIR-VOYANTBALANCE mechanism

Here we show that the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism can be implemented by running at each period an algorithm that is polynomial in the number of buyers and in the support of the distributions. Moreover, we want to argue that all the three components are simple auctions: each of them corresponds to maximizing some notion of virtual values.

To discuss the computational complexity of the implementation it is useful to focus on discrete distributions. Assume therefore that the space of valuation functions is a finite set of non-negative numbers, i.e., $\Theta = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K\} \subset \mathbb{R}_+$. In this section we will focus on a single period so we will ignore subscripts t . Instead θ_j will refer to the j -th value in support of the distribution. As before let n be the number of buyers. The distributions F^i will be discrete distributions represented by a vector of K non-negative numbers $f^i(\theta_1), \dots, f^i(\theta_K)$ summing to 1. We will also denote the cdf of the distribution by $F^i(\theta) = \sum_{\theta_j \leq \theta} f^i(\theta_j)$.

The first component of the NONCLAIRVOYANTBALANCE mechanism is a Second Price Auction which doesn't use any information about the distribution and can be easily run in $O(n)$ time.

The second component is the Myerson auction. The beauty of Myerson's result is that while at first glance the optimal auction might look like a complex linear program, allocation and payments can be computed very efficiently. Elkind [Elk07] described the exact algorithm to compute optimal auctions for distributions with finite support. It can be done by processing the distributions of each buyer independently and computing a convex hull of K points, which takes $O(K \log K)$ time per buyer. The outcome of this program is called *ironed virtual valuations*. The optimal auction then consists of obtaining the report from each buyer, converting to the space of ironed virtual values, and allocating to the buyer with the top virtual value. Payments can be computed by allocation thresholds. The entire procedure takes $O(nK \log K)$ time to compute virtual values plus additional $O(n + K)$ time to determine allocation and payments.

Most of our work will be focused on arguing that the third component — the Money Burning auction with utility constraints has a simple format and can be implemented in polynomial time.

E.1 Optimal Money Burning with Caps is a scaled virtual value maximizer

Since the optimal Money Burning mechanism can be written as an optimization problem in the reduced form, it is possible to directly obtain a polynomial time algorithm using the framework of Cai, Daskalakis, and Weinberg [CDW12a, CDW12b]. For the special case of money burning, an alternative solution goes through the techniques developed by Hartline and Roughgarden [HR08]. A black-box application of [CDW12a, CDW12b] guarantees that the auction is Bayesian Incentive Compatible. For Lemma 7.2 it will be useful to describe the auction via the virtual value technique of [HR08] to show that the optimal capped money burning auction is dominant strategy incentive compatible. We discuss the construction below.

Without any caps on the utilities the optimal money burning auction was analyzed by Hartline and Roughgarden [HR08] and shown to be a virtual value maximization for a different notion of virtual values known as *virtual values for utility*. As in the Myerson auction, the virtual values of [HR08] can be computed as a function of the distribution, and if not monotone they require to be ironed using the same procedure used to iron the Myersonian virtual values. While originally developed for continuous distributions, the exact approach⁴ described by Elkind [Elk07] can be used to compute ironed virtual values for utility for all buyers in $O(nK \log K)$. We can summarize their result as follows:

Theorem E.1 (Hartline and Roughgarden). *Given distributions F^1, \dots, F^n of support $\Theta = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K\}$, there is an $O(nK \log K)$ algorithm that computes non-decreasing maps $\vartheta^i : \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (called ironed virtual values for utility) such that for any Bayesian incentive compatible and individually rational mechanism (x^i, p^i) and for every agent i :*

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim F}[u^i(\theta)] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim F}[\vartheta^i(\theta^i)x^i(\theta)]$$

Moreover, the optimal mechanism (with or without utility caps) is such that the allocation and payments only depend on the virtual values $\vartheta^i(\theta^i)$.

The proof of the theorem follows from combining Lemma 2.6, Lemma 2.8, and Theorem 2.9 in [HR08]. For the moreover part, even though their paper doesn't consider any sort of utility caps, the presence of caps doesn't affect any of their proofs.

From Theorem E.1 we can describe the optimal auction as monotone allocation that depends only on virtual values. We abuse notations and use f^i to denote the distribution on the virtual values, i.e., $f^i(\bar{\vartheta}^i) = \sum_{\theta^i \in \Theta; \vartheta^i(\theta^i) = \bar{\vartheta}^i} f^i(\theta^i)$. We also define the allocation directly in terms of virtual values $x^i(\vartheta)$. Now we are ready to describe the format of the optimal auction:

⁴Given a discrete distribution described by $f(\theta_1), \dots, f(\theta_K)$ non-negative and summing to 1 with $\theta_1 < \theta_2 < \dots < \theta_K$, Elkind [Elk07] defines a discrete notion of the Myersonian virtual value as $\varphi_j^i = \theta_j - (\theta_{j+1}^i - \theta_j^i) \frac{1-F^i(\theta_j)}{f^i(\theta_j)}$. Those are then ironed by defining for each i a set of K 2-dimensional points $(F(\theta_j^i), \sum_{j' \leq j} f_{j'}^i \varphi_{j'}^i)$, computing the lower convex hull and defining the ironed virtual values as the slopes of segments of the convex hull corresponding to each point. The same exact computation can be done by replacing the original Myersonian notion of virtual values φ_j^i with the definition of virtual values for utility $\vartheta_j^i = (\theta_{j+1}^i - \theta_j^i) \frac{1-F^i(\theta_j)}{f^i(\theta_j)}$.

Theorem E.2 (Optimal Capped Money Burning). *The auction maximizing capped utility $\sum_i \min(b^i, \mathbb{E}[u^i])$ is an auction parametrized by w^i, q^i that chooses the agent with largest scaled virtual value $w^i \vartheta^i$ (subject to some tie breaking rule) and allocates to this agent with probability q^i .*

Proof. Using Theorem E.1, we can formulate the optimal money burning with caps problem as finding a monotone allocation function $x^i(\vartheta)$ defined on the virtual values maximizing $\mathbb{E}[\vartheta^i x^i(\vartheta)]$. We will solve the problem:

$$\max \sum_i \min(b^i, \mathbb{E}[\vartheta^i x^i(\vartheta)]) \quad \text{s.t. monotonicity}$$

and will rescaled the x^i by multiplying it by a probability q^i such that it obeys the constraints $\mathbb{E}[\sum_i \vartheta^i x^i(\vartheta)] \leq b^i$ while keeping the same objective value. In the following formulation we relax the constraint that the allocation needs to be monotone and obtain the following primal-dual pair:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \max_{x,u} & \sum_i u^i \\ \text{s.t.} & u^i \leq \sum_{\vartheta} \vartheta^i x^i(\vartheta) f(\vartheta), \quad \forall i \quad (w^i) \\ & u^i \leq b^i, \quad \forall i \quad (y^i) \\ & \sum_i x^i(\vartheta) \leq 1, \quad \forall \vartheta \quad (z(\vartheta)) \\ & x^i(\vartheta) \geq 0, \quad \forall i, \vartheta \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ll} \min_{w,y,z} & \sum_i y^i b^i + \sum_{\vartheta} z(\vartheta) \\ \text{s.t.} & z(\vartheta) \geq \vartheta^i f(\vartheta) w^i, \quad \forall i, \vartheta \quad (x^i(\vartheta)) \\ & y^i + w^i \geq 1, \quad \forall i \quad (u^i) \\ & y^i, w^i, z(\vartheta) \geq 0, \quad \forall i, \vartheta \end{array}$$

Assume we have an optimal primal-dual pair, then if for some profile of virtual values ϑ agent i is allocated with non-zero probability, i.e., $x^i(\vartheta) > 0$ then by complementary slackness we must have for all $j \neq i$:

$$\vartheta^i w^i f(\vartheta) = z(\vartheta) \geq \vartheta^j w^j f(\vartheta)$$

where the equality follows from complementary slackness and the inequality follows from feasibility. This means that $i \in \arg \max_i \vartheta^i w^i$, except that when $f(\vartheta) = 0$.⁵

Now we still need to argue that the item is always allocated in an optimal solution. We

⁵Assuming that these properties ($x^i(\vartheta) > 0 \implies i \in \arg \max_i \vartheta^i w^i$ and $z(\vartheta) = 0 \implies \vartheta^i w^i = 0$) still hold when $f(\vartheta) = 0$ never changes the optimality or the feasibility of the solution.

again use complementary slackness. If the item is not completely allocated for a profile ϑ we must have $z(\vartheta) = 0$ and therefore for all agents i :

$$0 = z(\vartheta) \geq \vartheta^i w^i f(\vartheta) \geq 0$$

so $\vartheta^i w^i$ must be zero except when $f(\vartheta) = 0$.

Finally observe that even though we relaxed monotonicity in the program, the complementarity constraints imply that under any tie-breaking rule the allocation is monotone. \square

In order to implement the optimal auction in polynomial time we need to know the parameters w^i, q^i and the tie-breaking rule. If we can compute w^i , tie-breaking rules can be handled using the same technique used in [CDW12a] to resolve them (see their proof of Theorem 7). Given those, q^i are simply the scaling that ensures $\mathbb{E}[\vartheta^i x^i(\vartheta)] \leq b^i$ without hurting the objective function. We focus here on computing the parameters w^i .

The parameters w^i can be obtained by solving the dual problem via convex programming. If w^i are fixed, we can easily optimize the other variables by setting $z(\vartheta) = \vartheta^i f(\vartheta) w^i$ and $y^i = 1 - w^i$, so we can re-write the dual as:

$$\min_{w \in [0,1]^n} g(w) := \sum_i (1 - w^i) b^i + \sum_{\vartheta} f(\vartheta) \max_i w^i \vartheta^i$$

We can now optimize g using some of the standard techniques in convex programming, such as the Ellipsoid Method. While in general optimization of convex functions only produces approximate solutions, since the problem comes from a linear program we can optimize it exactly using a variation of Khachyan's rounding procedure. The second issue is that we must be able to evaluate g and its sub-gradients. While g is written as a sum over exponentially many factors we can use the fact that $f(\vartheta) = \prod_i f^i(\vartheta^i)$ to rewrite g as:

$$g(w) = \sum_i (1 - w^i) b^i + \sum_i \sum_{\bar{\vartheta}^i} \Pr [\vartheta^i = \bar{\vartheta}^i \text{ and } w^i \vartheta^i > w^j \vartheta^j, \forall j < i \text{ and } w^i \vartheta^i \geq w^j \vartheta^j, \forall j] \cdot \bar{\vartheta}^i w^i$$

where the probability above can be computed as:

$$\Pr[\dots] = f^i(\vartheta^i) \prod_{j < i} \left[\sum_{\vartheta^j; w^j \vartheta^j < w^i \vartheta^i} f^j(\vartheta^j) \right] \prod_{j > i} \left[\sum_{\vartheta^j; w^j \vartheta^j \leq w^i \vartheta^i} f^j(\vartheta^j) \right]$$

This way to write g also allows us to compute sub-gradients:

$$\partial_i(w) = -b^i + \sum_{\bar{\vartheta}^i} \Pr \left[\vartheta^i = \bar{\vartheta}^i \text{ and } w^i \vartheta^i > w^j \vartheta^j, \forall j < i \text{ and } w^i \vartheta^i \geq w^j \vartheta^j, \forall j \right] \cdot \bar{\vartheta}^i$$

The fact we can efficiently evaluate the function g and find a subgradient enables us to apply the Ellipsoid Method. The fact that the function comes from an LP allows us efficiently round the solution.