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Abstract

We present a two-stage model of competing ad auctions. Search engines attract users via Cournot-style competition. Meanwhile, each advertiser must pay a participation cost to use each ad platform, and advertiser entry strategies are derived using symmetric Bayes-Nash equilibrium that lead to the VCG outcome of the ad auctions. Consistent with our model of participation costs, we find empirical evidence that multi-homing advertisers are larger than single-homing advertisers. We then link our model to search engine market conditions: We derive comparative statics on consumer choice parameters, presenting relationships between market share, quality, and user welfare. We also analyze the prospect of joining auctions to mitigate participation costs, and we characterize when such joins do and do not increase welfare.

1 Introduction

Online ad auctions sell advertising placements on search engines and elsewhere—providing key funding for a variety of online resources. Advertisers sign up with one or more ad platforms, specify their advertising preferences (including conditions in which they want their ads to be shown, and how much they are willing to pay), and receive clicks from interested users.

Benjamin Edelman serves and Hoan Soo Lee previously served as consultant and research intern to Microsoft and Microsoft Research, respectively. But they write on their own behalf, not at Microsoft's request or for Microsoft's benefit.
In this paper, we explore competition among ad platforms that offer search engine advertising services. Our motivations are several. For one, we seek to understand why some advertisers choose to use only certain ad platforms but not others. After all, if an ad network cannot attract a broad selection of advertisers, it will be unable to present ads related to users’ requests, and it will also garner substantially lower revenue. Second, we want to explore competition across auction platforms. Auction competition is a relatively unexplored topic in the literature. The primary difficulty in considering auction competition is that classic competition models (e.g., Bertrand and Cournot) view competition through the setting of market price, either directly or via production quantities. But ad auctions set prices through a different mechanism, strategic interaction among advertisers. Meanwhile, an ad platform can influence outcomes through, e.g., setting reserve prices.

Competition in online ad auctions also differs from models of auction competition examined in the literature. Pai (2009) explores optimal mechanisms for a seller employing a second-price auction with a reserve price in a general context. In contrast, we focus on applications to online ad platforms. This restriction puts useful structure on competition: in order to attract users, an ad platform seeks to reduce cost of search to users. But reducing the cost of search decreases the number of clicks users perform, thereby reducing payments from advertisers. Separately, Ellison et al. (2004) consider competition among auctions occurring at the level of strategic entry by auctioneers in two segmented markets with differing buyer-to-seller ratios. There, an auctioneer chooses between entering in a market saturated with buyers by expecting to compete with many sellers (competition effect) and selling to great magnitudes (scale effect). Applying this framework to online ad auctions implies that search engines compete by specializing on exclusive sets of keywords with correspondingly segmented buyers. However, the leading ad platforms do not limit keywords or even focus on distinctive keywords. Rather, leading ad platforms sell clicks from web searchers searching for all manner of subjects, and ad platforms sell to a common pool of advertisers and would-be advertisers.

We model competing ad auctions in two stages. In the first stage, advertisers choose to enter one or more ad auctions after considering each search engine’s user base (capacity) and click-through rates (technology) in light of an exogenous cost of joining each ad auction. Using the symmetric Bayes-Nash equilibrium, we derive advertisers’ entry strategies that lead to the VCG outcome of the ad auctions. In the second stage, participating advertisers submit bids in the ad auction(s) they chose to enter, and ad platforms strategically compete
on capacity while setting a level of search technology to maximize revenue. This follows a model of Cournot-style competition among ad platforms.

Closest to our paper is Liu and Chiu (2010) which studies competition across ad auctions with auction capacities endogenized by consumer choice. However, they abstract away from the mechanisms that allocate and price advertising positions. In contrast, our approach is grounded in the unusual mechanisms used in selling online advertising.

We proceed in five parts. In Section 2, we develop model fundamentals and notation. In Section 3, we model ad auctions with participation costs—offering an initial explanation of why not all advertisers use all ad platforms, and testing that explanation with available data. In Section 4, we analyze competing ad auctions in light of user preferences over search engines. In Section 5, we develop a concept of “joining” two ad auctions, and we identify conditions where joins increase or reduce advertiser welfare. In Section 6, we consider policy implications and conclude.

2 Ad auctions - GSP and VCG

In an ad auction, there are advertisers \( N = \{1, \ldots, N\} \) and \( K \) slots for sale. Each advertiser can receive at most one slot. The positions are sold for a single period of time. Each slot \( k \) has an expected click-through rate \( \alpha_k > 0 \). The auction has a known capacity \( C > 0 \). Thus, if an advertiser wins slot \( k \), the advertiser will receive \( C\alpha_k \) clicks in expectation. We assume that \( \alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2 \geq \cdots \geq \alpha_K \). Define \( \alpha_k = 0 \) for every \( k > K \).

The value per click for advertiser \( j \) is \( v_j \in [0, 1] \). Advertisers are risk neutral, and the payoff to advertiser \( j \) for winning slot \( k \) is \( C\alpha_k v_j \) minus its payments to the ad platform. We also assume that for each advertiser \( j \), \( v_j \) is drawn from a commonly known distribution \( F \) and the value of each advertiser is private information.

Each advertiser \( j \) is required to submit a bid \( b_j \). We denote by \( b(j) \) the \( j^{th} \) highest bid. Similarly we denote by \( g(j) \) the identity of the \( j^{th} \) highest advertiser. In case of ties, the order among those advertisers is determined randomly.

We consider payments and outcomes under two distinct auction mechanisms. Modern ad platforms generally use the Generalized Second Price (GSP) structure, wherein an advertiser \( g(j) \) receiving position \( k \) pays a total of \( C\alpha_j b(j+1) \). In the Vickrey-Clarke-Groves (VCG) ad auction, each advertiser pays its impact on all others’ social welfare, assuming bids equal values. Hence, under VCG, advertiser \( g(j) \) receiving position \( k \) pays a total of \( p^{VCG,k} = \)
\[ \alpha_k C \sum_{j=\min(K+1,n)}^{\min(k+1,n)} (\alpha_j - \alpha_j) b(j) \]. Both GSP and VCG ad auctions allocate the first position to the highest-bidding advertiser, the second position to the second-highest bidder, and so forth.

3 Ad Auctions with Participation Costs

Consider a GSP ad auction, and suppose there is a cost \( Z > 0 \) for each advertiser to participate in the auction. \( Z \) can be interpreted as an advertiser’s transaction cost in submitting its campaign into the ad platform. Elements of \( Z \) include creating an account, setting advertising parameters, monitoring effectiveness, adjusting bids, and paying bills. \( Z \) is not transferred to the auctioneer. Therefore, a high participation cost, relative to a platform’s capacity, causes an advertiser to forego use of that platform, even if the advertiser would otherwise find it profitable to use that platform. For example, if the following inequality holds

\[ \frac{Z}{C} > \alpha v, \]

then an advertiser with value \( v \) will never enter the auction since the advertiser would realize negative utility even if it managed to receive the first slot with zero payment.

3.1 Participation costs in the single-auction case

In this section we show that there exists a unique threshold function that determines whether an advertiser will participate in a given ad auction. In particular, consider the following two-stage game: In the first stage, each advertiser decides whether to participate in the auction, as a function of the advertiser’s value \( v \). In the second stage, all advertisers that decide to participate in the auction submit a bid. The advertisers who enter are engaged in an incomplete information GSP auction and we assume that the equilibrium outcome is efficient. As we discuss at the end of this section, analogous results hold under complete information.

A strategy for an advertiser \( j \) is a function \( s : [0, 1] \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \) where \( s_j(v_j) = 1 \) means that advertiser \( j \) with value \( v_j \) enters the auction, and \( s_j(v_j) = 0 \) means \( j \) does not enter.

\(^1\text{In Ashlagi et al. (2011) the authors do not model participating costs, but rather let advertisers choose a single ad auction to participate in.}\)
We employ symmetric Bayes-Nash equilibrium as our benchmark equilibrium concept when further analyzing advertisers’ strategies.

Denote by $U(v, n)$ the expected utility (before considering entry cost $Z$) of an advertiser with valuation $v$, who decides to participate in the auction given that exactly $n$ other advertisers also participate. For simplicity, we assume that if an advertiser’s expected utility is 0 (net of entry cost), the advertiser prefers to enter the auction. Thus if all advertisers use the strategy $s^*$, then an advertiser with valuation $v$ will choose to enter the auction if and only if

$$E_n[U(v, n)|s^*] \geq Z. \quad (2)$$

We impose a technical condition (3) in order to assure that the resulting allocation is efficient. We follow Gomes and Sweeney (2012) which provide a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a symmetric efficient Bayes-Nash equilibrium in the GSP auction. (See their Proposition 1.) Formally, they show that if equation (3) has a solution and if $\beta(v)$ is an increasing function, then $\beta$ is a symmetric Bayes-Nash equilibrium. They further show that this condition is necessary. Their condition is as follows:

$$\beta(v) = v - \sum_{k=2}^{n} \gamma_k(v) \int_{0}^{v} (v - \beta(x))F^{n-k-1}(x)f(x)dx,$$  \quad (3)

where

$$\gamma_k(v) = \frac{(k-1)!}{n-2} \frac{(k-1)(1-F(v))^{k-2}\alpha_k}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (t-1)! (1-F(v))^{t-1} F^{n-t-1}(v)\alpha_t}.$$  

In essence, Gomes and Sweeney (2012) argue that as long as the click-through rates are not too close to each other, an efficient equilibrium exists. For simplicity we assume from this point that (3) has an increasing solution, i.e. that the auction has an efficient equilibrium.

**Theorem 1.** Suppose $U(1, N) > Z$. Then there exists a unique strategy $s^*$ which forms a symmetric Bayes-Nash equilibrium in the two-stage game. In particular there exists a threshold $v^* > 0$ such that for any $v \geq v^*$, advertiser $j$ enters, and the advertiser does not enter otherwise. That is,

$$s_j^*(v) = 1 \iff v \geq v^*. \quad (4)$$

To prove Theorem 1, the following lemma will be useful. The lemma provides two monotonicity properties: the expected utility for an advertiser who enters the auction is non-increasing in the number of participants, and is increasing in the advertiser’s value.
Lemma 2. For any $n < N$, and any $v$:

1. $U(v, n) > U(v, n + 1)$.
2. $\partial U(v, n) / \partial v > 0$.

Proof. Let $Q(v, n)$ and $P(v, n)$ denote the expected number of clicks and expected payment for an advertiser with value $v$ that decides to enter auction $l$ given that there are $n - 1$ other advertisers in the auction. Thus the expected utility of such an advertiser is

$$U(v, n) = vQ(v, n) - P(v, n).$$

Note that by efficiency

$$Q(v, n) = C \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} \binom{n-1}{k} \alpha_k \bar{F}(v)^{n-k} (1 - \bar{F}(v))^{k-1}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $\bar{F}(v)$ is the probability that a bidder that entered the auction has a valuation lower than $v$.\footnote{We make no assumption on the entry strategy profile, except requiring that it induce a measurable distribution $\bar{F}$.}

Let $X_n$ be a random variable distributed over $\{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_N\}$ such that $P(X_n = \alpha_k) = \binom{n-1}{k} p^{n-k} (1 - p)^{k-1}$ where $p = \bar{F}(v)$, and let $Y_n \sim Bin(n - 1, p)$, i.e. $P(Y_n = k) = \binom{n-1}{k} p^{n-k} (1 - p)^{k-1}$. Note that $P(X_n = \alpha_k) = P(Y_n = k)$. For every $m > 1$, define

$$\mu(m, n) = (\alpha_m - \alpha_{m-1}) P(Y_n \geq m - 1),$$

and let $\mu(1, n) = \alpha_1 P(Y_n \geq 0)$. Observe that $Q_t(v, n) = CE[X_n] = C \sum_{m \geq 1} \mu(m, n)$ and that $\mu(1, n) = \alpha_1$. By our assumption on click-through rates, $\alpha_{k+1} - \alpha_k \leq 0$. Moreover, $P(Y_n \geq k)$ is decreasing in $n$ because more trials with the same probability of success will lead to more successes. Therefore, for all $m > 1$, every $\mu(m, n)$ is non-increasing in $n$, implying that $Q(v, n) > Q(v, n + 1)$. Finally, by Myerson [1981],

$$U(v, n) = \int_0^v Q(x, n) dx,$$ \hspace{1cm} (7)

implying that $U(v, n) > U(v, n + 1)$.

The second part follows because the derivative of $U(v, n)$ with respect to $v$ is equal to $Q(v, n)$ by (7) and because $\partial Q(v, n) / \partial v > 0$. \hfill \qed
Proof of Theorem 1

Fix the entry strategies of all other advertisers except \( j \). By Lemma 2, \( j \) is better off entering given some fixed value \( v^* \), as long as \( v_j \geq v^* \). Thus, every symmetric Bayes-Nash equilibrium is characterized by a threshold value: there exists a \( v^* \in [0, 1] \) such that every advertiser will enter the auction if and only if its value is at least \( v^* \).

Fix a symmetric strategy profile that is characterized by a threshold \( s^* \). To show existence of the threshold value, define

\[
G(v) = E_n[U(v, n)|s^*] - Z.
\]

By Lemma 2, \( G(v) \) is continuous and strictly increasing in \( v \) and by assumption. Furthermore, \( G(0) = -E_n[P(0, n)|s^*] - Z < 0 \), and by assumption \( G(1) = E_n[U(1, n)|s^*] > U(1, N) > Z > 0 \). Therefore there exist \( v^* \) such that \( G(v^*) = Z \). Since \( G(v) \) is strictly increasing in \( v \), \( v^* \) is unique. □

The preceding proof indicates that the cut-off value \( v^* \) is a function of the platform’s primitives, \( Z, C, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_k \) which uniquely define the auction. Comparative statics follow directly:

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial v^*}{\partial C} &< 0 \quad (8) \\
\frac{\partial v^*}{\partial Z} &> 0 \quad (9) \\
\frac{\partial v^*}{\partial \alpha_k} &< 0 \quad \forall k. \quad (10)
\end{align*}
\]

Remark 1. While Theorem 1 analyzes the incomplete information setting, similar results follow under complete information. In the complete information case, an advertiser knows the number of entrants and their respective valuations, removing the need to take an expectation in (2). Since an efficient equilibrium always exists in the complete information setting (see Edelman et al. (2007) and Varian (2007)), the same analysis flows through directly.

Remark 2. Similar results also follow if bidders face differing participating costs. The lower a bidder’s participation cost, the lower that bidder’s threshold to participate in the auction.

### 3.2 Multi-homing and advertiser size

Consider now a set of \( L > 0 \) GSP auctions, indexed by \( l = 1, \ldots, L \). Auctions may differ in both click-through rates and capacity, and we index these parameters by \( l \). For simplicity, let
participation cost $Z > 0$ remain fixed, although our results can easily be extended to consider varying participation costs. An advertiser pays $Z$ once for each auction the advertiser joins, and that payment lets the advertiser participate in any number of keyword markets at the corresponding ad platform.

Observe that the symmetric equilibria in each auction form a symmetric equilibrium in the extended game in which each advertiser chooses which auction(s) to enter. Furthermore, the argument in the previous section implies the uniqueness of this equilibrium. In particular, advertisers’ entry decisions are independent.

**Corollary 3.** Let $V = \{v^*_1, \ldots, v^*_L\}$ be the cut-off values corresponding to the unique symmetric Bayes-Nash equilibria as in Theorem 1 and let $B_l$ be advertisers entering auction $l$ in this equilibrium. For each $v^*_i, v^*_p \in V^*$, if $v^*_i \geq v^*_p$ then $B_l \subseteq B_p$.

**Proof.** Pick any $v^*_i$ and $v^*_p$ in $V^*$ such that $v^*_i \geq v^*_p$. Then any advertiser with value $v_j \geq v^*_i$ will enter auction $l$, hence $j \in B_l$. Moreover, by assumption, $v_j \geq v^*_p$ hence $j \in B_p$. \qed

Corollary 3 provides that in each auction, the bidders with valuation above some threshold (dependent on auction parameters) will join the auction. Furthermore, consider two auctions, the first having a higher valuation threshold than the second. Then every bidder who participates in the first auction must participate in the second also. Following Remark 2, a similar result applies when participation costs vary between advertisers.

Corollary 3 indicates that advertisers with higher valuations are more likely to “multihome” by joining multiple ad platforms. In practice, each ad platform consists of literally thousands of distinct keyword markets, whereas our analysis focuses on outcomes in a single keyword market. Consider advertisers that differ in the number of keywords they seek to bid on: Large advertisers often bid on thousands of keywords (perhaps Amazon selling thousands of products, or Expedia offering flights and hotels in thousands of cities), while smaller advertisers bid on correspondingly fewer keywords. A broad understanding of Corollary 3 offers a testable implication: Large advertisers multi-home thanks to the efficiency of a large volume of ad purchases in multiple keyword markets ($\frac{v}{Z}$ large). In contrast, small advertisers find their $\frac{v}{Z}$ too small in light of the lower volume of advertising they wish to buy. Small advertisers thus can less readily justify signing up with smaller ad platforms.

We test this understanding of Corollary 3 with data from two services that track and preserve advertising at multiple search engines. Based on data from a first data collection

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3 These monitoring services track search advertising for advertisers’ business purposes—for example, let-
service, Table 1 compares the size (impression count, normalized with maximum value set to 1,000) of advertisers that use one, two, or all three of the ad platforms we examine. Based on data from a second service, Table 2 measures the size of multi-homing and non-multihoming advertisers by other metrics: Proportion of sites achieving an Alexa ranking (data available only for approximately the 25 million most popular sites on the web), average rank (bottom-coding unranked sites at a rank of 40 million), as well as average “reach” (number of users visiting the site) and average page views. Figure 1 plots the distribution of reach by multi-homing and non-multihoming advertisers.

By each metric, these tables are consistent with the broad reading of Corollary and our model of advertiser participation costs. In particular, the advertisers that purchase ads from all three platforms are strikingly larger than the advertisers that purchase ads only from one or two platforms: They buy more ad impressions (Table 1) and are more likely to be ranked by Alexa, achieve a lower average rank (i.e. greater traffic), larger reach, and more page-views (Table 2). Meanwhile, the advertisers who choose to use only Google are the smallest by far—further confirming that small advertisers tend not to multi-home. Finally, Figure 1 confirms that triply-multihoming advertisers have pointwise larger reach than double-multihoming advertisers which in turn have pointwise larger reach than single-homing advertisers. We also verify this relationship through a simple ordered probit regression. First, we rank combinations of search engines to form a presence rank—reflecting, for example, that Google is larger than Yahoo and Microsoft together. See Table 3. Then, we run an ordered probit of each advertiser’s presence rank on its web site rank, reach, and page-views. See Table 4. The coefficients on reach, rank, and page-views are all positive and significantly different from zero.

4 Competing Auctions

In this section, we explore the micro-foundation of ad auction competition. Our approach is grounded in a fundamental tradeoff facing each search engine: On one hand, a search engine must provide high-quality results to satisfy users’ requirements as quickly as possible. By each metric, these tables are consistent with the broad reading of Corollary and our model of advertiser participation costs. In particular, the advertisers that purchase ads from all three platforms are strikingly larger than the advertisers that purchase ads only from one or two platforms: They buy more ad impressions (Table 1) and are more likely to be ranked by Alexa, achieve a lower average rank (i.e. greater traffic), larger reach, and more page-views (Table 2). Meanwhile, the advertisers who choose to use only Google are the smallest by far—further confirming that small advertisers tend not to multi-home. Finally, Figure 1 confirms that triply-multihoming advertisers have pointwise larger reach than double-multihoming advertisers which in turn have pointwise larger reach than single-homing advertisers. We also verify this relationship through a simple ordered probit regression. First, we rank combinations of search engines to form a presence rank—reflecting, for example, that Google is larger than Yahoo and Microsoft together. See Table 3. Then, we run an ordered probit of each advertiser’s presence rank on its web site rank, reach, and page-views. See Table 4. The coefficients on reach, rank, and page-views are all positive and significantly different from zero.

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On the other hand, a search engine will reap greater revenues if it designs its listings to cause users to click more advertisements. Google early recognized this tradeoff: In the seminal Brin and Page (1998), Google’s co-founders flagged an “inherent” incentive for a search engine to reduce the quality of its algorithmic results or otherwise encourage users to click on advertisements. The tradeoff remains timely: For example, when launching its new “Instant” search service, Google touted a savings of 2 to 5 seconds per search. Such time-savings could benefit users, but some advertisers found that Instant Search reduced clicks on their advertisements (Search Engine Pro (2010)). Meanwhile, Edelman (2011) points out that for some search terms, advertisements can be distracting or affirmatively harmful—providing a further tradeoff between satisfying users and increasing revenue.

We formalize search engines’ response to the quality/revenue tradeoff via a search cost parameter, $s$. A greater search cost implies more advertisement clicks and more revenue to the search engine. For example, a search engine could show even ads that are borderline irrelevant or otherwise a mediocre match for user’s request. Conversely, a search engine with a lower search cost gives users the “right” links more quickly, yielding fewer advertisement clicks but increasing user satisfaction and attracting, all else equal, more users. For example, a search engine could leave whitespace rather than showing ads of reduced relevance.

Following the Hotelling (1929) framework of consumers distributed on a unit segment, we model consumer choice over search engines. Through this model, we endogenize a search engine’s user base (capacity), and we include a search cost parameter to capture the tradeoff between increasing consumer welfare versus increasing search engine revenue.

### 4.1 Consumer choice

Suppose consumers are uniformly distributed on a unit segment. Two search engines, $A$ and $B$, occupy opposite locations on the segment. (The result can be extended to three or more engines.) A consumer who accesses search engine $l \in \{A, B\}$ receives value $\delta_l$, less the search engine’s cost of search, $s_l$. To access search engine $l$, the consumer incurs a cost $td$, where $d$ reflects the consumer’s distance from $l$, and $t$ is a coefficient on distance. Thus, a consumer chooses engine $A$ if the consumer is located at distance $d$ such that:

$$\delta_A - s_A - td \geq \delta_B - s_B - t(1 - d).$$

(11)

Given a uniform distribution of consumers, the fraction of consumers choosing search engine $A$ is $\frac{1}{2t}(\Delta \delta - \Delta s + t)$ where $\Delta \delta = \delta_A - \delta_B$. Similarly, the fraction of consumers
choosing search engine $B$ is $\frac{1}{2t}(\Delta s - \Delta \delta + t)$. As a result, $A$’s user base (capacity) is $C_A = \frac{C}{2t}(\Delta \delta - \Delta s + t)$ where $C$ is the total number of consumers in the market. Thus, without loss of generality, search engine $A$’s user base decreases as search cost increases, but increases in the value derived from use.

4.2 Ad platform selection of search cost

At the start of the second stage, advertisers have committed to the bidding process, which fixes the number of entrants, $n^* = |B_l|$ and the pool of advertisers $B_l$ (with valuations $\{v_1, ..., v_{n^*}\}$). Then search engine $l$ revenue is:

$$C_l(s_l)\Sigma_{n^*}^{n^*} \Sigma_{k=j}^{n^*} (\alpha_{k,l} - \alpha_{k+1,l})v_{(k+1)}$$

which is equivalent to:

$$C_l(s_l)\Sigma_{k=1}^{n^*} (\alpha_{k,l} - \alpha_{k+1,l})kv_{(k+1)}.$$

Since search cost is proportional to the expected number of clicks required to reach the desired information, any weighted aggregate click-through rate is strictly increasing in $s_l$: $\frac{\partial \Sigma_{k\in K} w_k \alpha_{k,l}}{\partial s_l} > 0$ for any $\Sigma w_k = 1$. Moreover, assume that this function is linear, i.e. $\frac{\partial^2 \Sigma_{k\in K} w_k \alpha_{k,l}}{\partial s_l^2} = 0$.

For tractability, suppose the search engine’s technology is exponential, i.e. $\alpha_{k,l} = \beta^k_l$. Define $\nabla = \Sigma_{k=1}^{n^*} kv_{(k+1)}$ and $w_k = kv_{(k+1)}/\nabla$. Then we can rewrite the revenue as:

$$C_l(s_l)(1 - \beta_l)\nabla \Sigma_{k=1}^{n^*} w_k \beta^k_l.$$

By the linearity assumption, we can parameterize the sum as $\Sigma_{k=1}^{n^*} w_k \beta^k_l = a_l s_l + b_l$, yielding:

$$C_l(s_l)(1 - \beta_l)\nabla (a_l s_l + b_l). \quad (12)$$

This revenue function has a unique internal maximum attained by the following first order conditions:

$$s_l = \frac{1}{a_l} \left(\Delta \delta + t - \frac{b_l}{a_l} + s_{lv}\right) \quad (13)$$

$$s_{lv} = \frac{1}{2} \left(-\Delta \delta + t - \frac{b_{lv}}{a_{lv}} + s_l\right). \quad (14)$$
4.3 Comparative statics

We now consider two special cases: two search engines have pointwise equal technologies \((a_l = a_{l'} = a, b_l = b_{l'} = b)\), and one search engine pointwise dominates the other \((a_l = a_{l'} = a, b_l > b_{l'})\). Throughout, \(a\) and \(b\) follow the parameterization from Equation 12.

4.3.1 Pointwise equal technology

Consider a search engine that is identical to its competitor \((a_l = a_{l'} = a, b_l = b_{l'} = b)\) except that it enjoys a single advantage: a higher value delivered to consumers during search \((\delta_l > \delta_{l'})\). Such a search engine can leverage that strength by raising search cost while retaining more users (higher capacity). The following theorem formalizes that advantage:

**Theorem 4.** In the two-stage game with two auction platforms \(l\) and \(l'\) with pointwise identical technologies, if \(\delta_l \geq \delta_{l'}\), then in equilibrium: 
\[ s_l \geq s_{l'}, C_l \geq C_{l'}, \sum_{k \in K} w_k \alpha_{kl} \geq \sum_{k \in K} w_k \alpha_{kl'}, v_l^* \leq v_{l'}^* \text{ and } B_l \supseteq B_{l'} . \]

**Proof.** The first order conditions (13) and (14) require 
\[ s_l = -\frac{\Delta \delta}{3} + t - \frac{b}{a} \quad \text{and} \quad s_{l'} = \frac{\Delta \delta}{3} + t - \frac{b}{a} . \]

The resulting capacities are:

\[ C_l^* = C \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\Delta \delta}{6t} \right) \tag{15} \]
\[ C_{l'}^* = C \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\Delta \delta}{6t} \right) \tag{16} \]

Thus, user base (capacity), technology and search cost are all monotonic in \(\delta\); if \(\delta_l \geq \delta_{l'}\) then \(C_l \geq C_{l'}, \sum_{k \in K} w_k \alpha_{kl} \geq \sum_{k \in K} w_k \alpha_{kl'}\) and \(s_l \geq s_{l'}\).

The threshold values and advertiser set relation follow from Corollary 3.

These hypotheses offer an intuitive prognosis for market outcomes: Suppose two search engines have equal technology, i.e. identical ability to help users find what they want. But suppose one search engine delivers higher value to consumers during search (perhaps because it exclusively indexes some desired content or has preferred access to some desired content). Then that search engine can extract the higher value by raising search cost without losing users to its competitor.
4.3.2 Dominant technology

Consider a search engine $l$ that enjoys technology superior to its competitor $l'$, such that $l$ attracts more users (higher capacity) at any level of search cost. That is, $a_l = a_{l'} = a \geq 0, b_l > b_{l'} \geq 0$. Then $l$ and $l'$ pick search costs $s$ such that

$$
\Delta s = \frac{2\Delta \delta}{3} - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{b_l}{a} - \frac{b_{l'}}{a} \right).
$$

(18)

Suppose users’ value from search on both engines are the same ($\Delta \delta = 0$). Then $\Delta s < 0$ but $\Delta C > 0$. That is, $l$ sets lower search cost and enjoys greater market share.

Alternatively, suppose a search engine $l$ enjoys superior technology but gives consumers less value than its competitor $l'$. (That is, $\delta_l < \delta_{l'}$.) Then $l$ will receive lower market share ($C_l < C_{l'}$) if its technology is not sufficiently greater than $l'$’s. Formally, $\Delta C < 0$ if and only if $b_{l'} - a\Delta \delta > b_l$.

This model offers an intuitive prediction for search cost and ad platform strategy at competing search engines. Suppose a search engine has exogenously superior technology which allows the search engine to collect higher per-click payments from advertisers, while some competitor charges lower fees. Consider the search engines’ choices of search cost, the effort a user must expend to find the desired information (including clicking additional ads). A search engine with superior technology (say, Google) will find it optimal to impose a lower level of search cost because the marginal loss to revenue (from reduced ad clicks) is sufficiently offset by both an increase in the volume of users and the higher per-click payment from advertisers. Conversely, a search engine with weaker technology (say, Yahoo) will prefer to impose higher search cost in order to collect more ad clicks.

5 Joining Auctions

In this section, we establish a concept of “joining” auctions such that their available positions are pooled, and all advertisers participating in one auction automatically participate in the other. What happens to advertiser welfare and ad platform revenue if two ad auctions are joined? These questions take on special relevance in light of the 2009 partnership between Microsoft and Yahoo, as well as a 2008 proposed partnership between Google and Yahoo (ultimately aborted after antitrust regulators raised concerns).

We begin with several definitions.
Definition 5. A set of click-through rates has the property of diminishing differences if \( \alpha_k - \alpha_{k+1} \geq \alpha_{k+1} - \alpha_{k+2} \) for each \( k \leq K \).

Definition 6. Auction \( l \) and auction \( l' \) join to form auction \( \tilde{l} \) if auction \( \tilde{l} \) has capacity \( C_{\tilde{l}} \) such that

\[
\max\{C_l, C_{l'}\} \leq C_{\tilde{l}} \leq C_l + C_{l'}
\]

and if auction \( \tilde{l} \) has click-through rate

\[
\alpha_{\tilde{k}l} = \max\{\alpha_{kl}, \alpha_{kl'}\}
\]

where \( \alpha_{kl} (\alpha_{kl'}) \) is the click-through rate of slot \( k \) in auction \( l \) (\( l' \)).

By taking the capacities of each auction as the size of the set of consumers choosing the engine, inequality (19) bounds \( C_{\tilde{l}} \). Because some consumers use multiple search engines, we allow for overlap of capacity between two ad platforms—meaning a joined ad platform might have less capacity than the sum of capacities of its contributors. Furthermore, we assume that no consumer of either engine is lost upon join.

When auctions join, what click-through rates result? We envision ad platforms choosing the best components of each contributor, which implies click-through rates given by the stronger of the joining platforms. Hence the approach in (20).

5.1 Joining auctions to make all advertisers better off

In the following theorem, we provide a condition in which a joined auction offers a sufficient improvement in capacity and technology to make every advertiser weakly better off ex post.

Theorem 7. Suppose auctions \( l \) and \( l' \) join to form auction \( \tilde{l} \). Let \( C_l \geq C_{l'} \) and \( \alpha_{kl'} \geq \alpha_{kl} \) for each \( k \leq K \). Then every advertiser is weakly better off ex post if:

\[
C_l \geq \frac{C_{l'}\alpha_{kl'} + C_l\alpha_{kl}}{(N-k)\alpha_{k+1,l'} - (N-k-1)\alpha_{kl}} \quad \forall k \leq K.
\]

Proof. Suppose auction \( l \) and \( l' \) join to form \( \tilde{l} \) and, without loss of generality, let \( n_{l^*} \geq n_{l'^*} \).

Consider an advertiser who does not receive any position in either auction before the join. Such an advertiser is ranked in position \( k > n_l^* \). Because that advertiser already achieves utility of 0, the joined auction \( \tilde{l} \) cannot make it worse off.
Consider an advertiser who receives a position in each of the auctions before the join. We introduce new notation to characterize ex post utility: denote by \( u_l(v, k) \) the utility of an advertiser with value \( v \) who wins position \( k \) in auction \( l \). Under VCG, we have:

\[
u_l(v, k) = C \alpha_{kl} v - C \sum_{n^* > j \geq k} (\alpha_{jl} - \alpha_{j+1,l})v_{(j+1)} \tag{22}
\]

where \( \alpha_{kl} = 0 \) for \( k \geq K \).

Prior to the join, an advertiser with valuation \( v \) who receives positions in both auctions must receive position \( k \leq n^*_l \) in auction \( l \), yielding utility \( u_l(v, k) + u_{l'}(v, k) \).

Using assumption \ref{eq:21} we get:

\[
C_{\tilde{l}} \alpha_{k\tilde{l}} v - C_l \alpha_{kl} v - C_{l'} \alpha_{kl'} v \geq C_l (N - k) (\alpha_{kl} - \alpha_{k+1,l}) v \\
C_{\tilde{l}} \sum_{n^*_l > j \geq k} (\alpha_{jl} - \alpha_{j+1,l}) v_{(j+1)} \geq C_{\tilde{l}} \sum_{n^*_l > j \geq k} (\alpha_{jl} - \alpha_{j+1,l}) v_{(j+1)} - S, \tag{23}
\]

where \( S = C_{l'} \sum (\alpha_{jl'} - \alpha_{j+1,l'}) v_{(j+1)} + C_l \sum (\alpha_{jl} - \alpha_{j+1,l}) v_{(j+1)} \).

The last inequality \ref{eq:23} implies:

\[
C_{\tilde{l}} \alpha_{k\tilde{l}} v - C_{\tilde{l}} \sum (\alpha_{jl} - \alpha_{j+1,l}) v_{(j+1)} \geq C_l \alpha_{kl} v - C_l \sum (\alpha_{jl} - \alpha_{j+1,l}) v_{(j+1)} + C_{l'} \alpha_{kl'} v - C_{l'} \sum (\alpha_{jl'} - \alpha_{j+1,l'}) v_{(j+1)},
\]

which is equivalent to:

\[
u_l(v, k) \geq u_l(v, k) + u_{l'}(v, k). \tag{24}
\]

Therefore an advertiser receiving a position in both auctions is better off after the join.

Consider an advertiser with valuations \( v \) who receives position \( k \) in auction \( l \) with \( n^*_l \geq k > n^*_{l'} \). Such an advertiser will have ex post utility of \( u_l(v, k) \). Since we have already shown \ref{eq:24}, such an advertiser, who wins a single position, is also better off after the join. \( \square \)

The conditions in Theorem 7 stipulate intuitive requirements for advertisers to gain from a joined ad auction: the resulting click-through rate and auction capacity must be sufficiently improved relative to the offerings of the ad auctions when separate. First, the auction with fewer advertisers must add value to the join through a point-wise larger click-through rate. Second, there must be minimal overlap between the two auctions, so that \( C_{\tilde{l}} \) is sufficiently larger than both \( C_l \) and \( C_{l'} \). It is necessary for \( C_{\tilde{l}} \) to be sufficiently large so that advertisers in auction \( l \) (who already face higher prices due to more advertisers in \( l \)) gain sufficiently from joining the two auctions.
5.2 Example with exponential click-through rates

Suppose click-through rates \( \alpha_{kl} = \beta_{l}^{k} \) for each \( k \leq K \) where \( \beta_{l} < 1 \). Note that these exponential click-through rates obey both monotonic ordering of \( \alpha_{kl} \) and the \textit{diminishing differences} property. Following the framework in Theorem 7, we set \( \beta_{l} = \beta_{l'} > \beta_{l} \). Condition (21) then becomes:

\[
C_{l} - C_{l'} + C_{l} \frac{\beta_{l}^{k}}{\beta_{l'}^{k}} \geq C_{l}(1 - \beta_{l'})(N - k).
\]

Because \( \beta_{l} < \beta_{l'} \), we know:

\[
C_{l} - C_{l'} - C_{l} \frac{\beta_{l}}{\beta_{l'}} \leq C_{l} - C_{l'} - C_{l} \frac{\beta_{l}^{k}}{\beta_{l'}^{k}}
\]

and

\[
C_{l}(1 - \beta_{l'})(N - 1) \geq C_{l}(1 - \beta_{l'})(N - k).
\]

Thus the generalized restrictions in equation (25) become:

\[
C_{l} - C_{l'} - C_{l} \frac{\beta_{l}}{\beta_{l'}} \geq C_{l}(1 - \beta_{l'})(N - 1)
\]

(26)

because this condition implies the required restrictions for each \( k \leq K \).

By the subadditive property of joined auction \( \tilde{l} \) and equation (26):

\[
C_{l'} + C_{l} \geq C_{\tilde{l}} \geq C_{l}(1 - \beta_{l'})(N - 1) + C_{l'} + C_{l} \frac{\beta_{l}}{\beta_{l'}}
\]

which requires:

\[
C_{l'} + C_{l} \geq C_{l}(1 - \beta_{l'})(N - 1) + C_{l'} + C_{l} \frac{\beta_{l}}{\beta_{l'}}.
\]

Rearranging:

\[
\frac{C_{l}}{C_{\tilde{l}}} \geq (N - 1) \frac{1 - \beta_{l'}}{1 - \frac{\beta_{l}}{\beta_{l'}}}
\]

(27)

Since \( C_{l} \leq C_{\tilde{l}} \) and \( N \geq 2 \) (so that the RHS of (27) is not trivially 0), inequality (27) requires:

\[
1 - \frac{\beta_{l}}{\beta_{l'}} > 1 - \beta_{l'}.
\]
Rearranging yields the requirement:

$$\beta_v > \sqrt{\beta_l}.$$  \hfill (28)

Condition (28) requires that the auction with superior technology have $\beta_v$ sufficiently larger than $\beta_l$. Furthermore, if $N$ is very large, then $\beta_v$ must approach 1 in order to satisfy the requirement in (27). Note that these are necessary conditions, but not sufficient conditions.

5.3 Joining auctions that make some advertisers worse off

In this section we show that a joined auction can negatively affect overall advertiser welfare. Consider the following definition.

**Definition 8.** Auction $l$ is uniformly stronger than auction $l'$ if and only if $C_l \geq C_{l'}$, and $\alpha_{kl} \geq \alpha_{kl'}$ for each $k$. We denote this by $A_l \succeq_{us} A_{l'}$.

If one of the auctions is uniformly stronger than the other and if the resulting capacity remains equal to its original capacity (i.e. the uniformly weaker auction represents a subset of consumers of the stronger auction), then joining the auctions will make some advertisers weakly worse off. The following theorem identifies sufficient conditions that make advertisers worse off:

**Theorem 9.** Suppose $A_l \succeq_{us} A_{l'}$, and auctions $l$ and $l'$ join in the manner of Definition 6. If $C_l = C_{l'}$, then any advertiser that wins in both auctions is worse off.

*Proof.* The assumption implies that $\alpha_{kl} = \alpha_{kl} \geq \alpha_{kl'}$ for each $k \leq K$ and $C_l = C_{l'}$. Then the joined auction will be identical to auction $l$, and thus $u_l(v,k) = u_l(v,k)$ for any $v$ and $k$. Prior to the join, if an advertiser wins position $k \leq n_{l'}^*$ (and thus the advertiser receives a placement in both auctions), then its total pre-merger utility of $u_l(v,k) + u_{l'}(v,k)$ is greater than its post-merger utility $u_l(v,k)$.

5.4 Joint auctions with endogenous capacity and technology

We now return to the foundations of consumer choice to more closely model the change in capacities when joining auctions. Suppose there are three auctions $l \in \{A, B, C\}$ positioned on a unit segment with uniformly distributed consumers. Individually, each auction solves the following optimization:

$$\max_{s_l} C_l(s_l)(1 - \beta_l)\bar{V}(a_l s_l + b_l) \quad \forall l$$  \hfill (29)
where \( \hat{s} \) represents a vector of three search costs. Denote the solution triple as \( (\hat{s}_A, \hat{s}_B, \hat{s}_C) \).

Without loss of generality, let auctions \( A \) and \( B \) join. The new platform’s technology will be the pointwise maximum of \( A \) and \( B \), and the new platform will retain the sum of the prior capacities. Moreover, consider a case in which one auction, \( A \), has a technology that pointwise dominates that of engine \( B \) \( (a_A > a_B \text{ and } b_A > b_B) \) and \( C_A < C_B \). The optimization program under a joined platform will be:

\[
\max_{s_A, s_B} \left( C_A(\hat{s}) + C_B(\hat{s}) \right) \left( 1 - \beta_A \right) V(a_A s_A + b_A).
\]  \( (30) \)

When \( A \) and \( B \) join, the joined platform replaces the technology of \( B \) with \( A \). Then the marginal benefit of increasing search cost at \( B \) is the increase in \( C_A \) (since \( A \)’s technology replaced \( B \)’s technology), while the marginal cost is a reduction in \( C_B \). By noting that \( C - C_C(\hat{s}) = C_A(\hat{s}) + C_B(\hat{s}) \) and \( \frac{\partial C_l}{\partial s_l'} > 0 \quad \forall l \neq l' \), we can conclude that total capacity will only decrease in response to increasing \( s_B \). Then the solution to the joint maximization becomes \( s^*_B = 0 \leq \hat{s}_B \).

On the other hand, the total cost of increasing \( s_A \) in a joined platform is exactly the same as the marginal cost of increasing \( s_A \) in \( A \) alone, while the marginal benefit to technology remains unchanged. Then the joined platform will set \( s_A \) such that \( s^*_A = \hat{s}_A \).

What will be the effect on the resulting individual and aggregate capacity and technology? In order to predict \( C \)'s best response to the join between \( A \) and \( B \), we examine the first order condition of \( (29) \) for \( C \):

\[
C_C(s_c, s_{-c}) = -\frac{1}{a_c} \frac{\partial C_C}{\partial s_c}(a_C s_C + b_C).
\]  \( (31) \)

Because consumers’ utilities are linear in the cost of search, the partial derivative on the RHS is a constant. Point \( x_1 \) in Figure 2 illustrates the equilibrium market share of \( C \) prior to join. After the join, \( A \) and \( B \) adjust their search costs from \( \hat{s}_{-c} \) to \( s^*_{-c} \), effectively reducing \( C \)'s market share. Thus, \( C \) would find it undesirable to retain the former level of \( \hat{s}_C \) (point \( x_2 \)), and \( C \) best-responds by reducing its search cost to \( s^*_C \). At location \( x_3 \), \( C \)'s market share has decreased while the combined market share of \( A \) and \( B \) has increased. Therefore

\[
C_A(s^*) + C_B(s^*) \geq C_A(\hat{s}) + C_B(\hat{s}) \geq \max\{C_A(\hat{s}), C_B(\hat{s})\}.
\]

Thus, both \( A \) and \( B \) enjoy increased capacity. Moreover, \( A \)'s superior technology replaces \( B \)'s technology, so more advertisers will enter \( B \). Similarly, by retaining the same level of technology while increasing capacity, \( A \) attracts more advertisers. Because \( A \) and \( B \) each attract more advertisers, the expected payment of advertisers on \( A \) and \( B \) will increase.
6 Conclusion

Increasing search engine concentration makes it important to understand how advertisement auctions compete. With multi-homing, an advertiser enters an ad auction if the expected benefit to entry outweighs the associated cost, independent of outcomes in other auctions. Hence traditional considerations of competition on reserve price or entry cost do not apply. We therefore examined the supply side of ad auctions: search engines compete on capacity (each user picks only one search engine) and compete by setting search cost to balance advertisement clicks (the amount of inventory available for purchase in an auction) against user utility.

Using the model’s first stage equilibrium entry strategies, we find empirical evidence for the result that multi-homing advertisers are associated with greater traffic and larger reach. In the second stage, comparative statics around consumer choice parameters offer a stylized view of search engine market conditions: Google has greater market share and (some suggest) superior technology, while Yahoo retains higher market share than Microsoft despite (some say) inferior technology.

Our approach informs understanding of the advertiser welfare implications of joining auction platforms. Joining ad platforms can attract substantial regulatory attention: In November 2008, the Department of Justice planned to file antitrust charges to stop the proposed Google-Yahoo transaction. Then, in 2009, the Department of Justice approved the proposed partnership between Microsoft and Yahoo. At first glance it might seem paradoxical for the Department of Justice to claim that the Google-Yahoo transaction is undesirable, for advertisers and for the economy as a whole, while the Microsoft-Yahoo transaction purportedly offers net benefits. But our analysis suggests that that conclusion is entirely possible. In particular, by creating a joined ad platform of larger size than Microsoft or Yahoo alone, the transaction lets advertisers spread participation costs over a larger purchase—making it worth the while of small to midsize advertisers to sign up with the joined Microsoft-Yahoo platform.

Questions of ad platform participation cost remain timely. Advertisers, competing search engines, and others have long questioned Google policies that raise advertisers’ costs of multi-homing, most notably through API terms and conditions that complicate advertisers’ efforts to copy, export, and/or synchronize campaign data from Google onto other ad platforms. Edelman (2008) Competition regulators recognized and endorsed these concerns—prompting
Google’s commitments to the FTC and proposed commitments to the European Commission, promising to cease these practices in the corresponding regions. Our analysis shows why API restrictions (and other efforts to increase advertisers’ costs of using multiple platforms) can be so effective in hindering competing platforms’ growth.

We view our contribution as threefold. First, whereas standard models of online advertising take advertisers’ participation as exogenous, we explicitly model an advertiser’s decision to use or ignore a given ad platform, and we provide empirical support for our model. Second, we offer a model of search cost to demonstrate competition across platforms, and we provide empirical support for our model. Third, we analyze the prospect of joining auctions and characterize when such joins do and do not increase welfare.
References


### Table 1: Advertiser Size and Multi-homing Status (Source 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advertiser Status</th>
<th>Normalized Impression Count</th>
<th>Normalized Advertiser Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Google only</td>
<td>17.34</td>
<td>1000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo only</td>
<td>26.01</td>
<td>338.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft only</td>
<td>80.92</td>
<td>84.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google and Yahoo</td>
<td>663.58</td>
<td>209.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google and Microsoft</td>
<td>78.03</td>
<td>24.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo and Microsoft</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google, Yahoo, and Microsoft</td>
<td>1000.00</td>
<td>65.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - Our data source did not identify any advertisers using Yahoo and Microsoft but not Google.

### Table 2: Advertiser Size and Multi-homing Status (Source 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advertiser Status</th>
<th>Proportion Ranked</th>
<th>Average Ranked</th>
<th>Average Reach</th>
<th>Average Page-Views</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Google only</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>17,428,974</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo only</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>14,784,742</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft only</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>15,838,598</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google and Yahoo</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>8,305,741</td>
<td>17.11</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google and Microsoft</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>7,234,154</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo and Microsoft</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>8,325,335</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google, Yahoo, and Microsoft</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td>3,803,684</td>
<td>62.94</td>
<td>5.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3: Advertiser Presence Rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presence Rank</th>
<th>Reach</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Page Views</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft only</td>
<td>0.0832***</td>
<td>-1.01e-08***</td>
<td>0.8360***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo only</td>
<td>(0.0208)</td>
<td>(4.29e-10)</td>
<td>(0.2551)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo and Microsoft</td>
<td>20.64</td>
<td>0.0079</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google Only</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google and Microsoft</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google and Yahoo</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google, Yahoo, and Microsoft</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26286</td>
<td>26286</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Ordered Probit Regressions of Advertiser Presence Rank on Reach, Rank and Page Views

\[ * - P < 0.10 \]
\[ ** - P < 0.05 \]
\[ *** - P < 0.01 \]
Figure 1: Advertiser Reach and Multi-homing Status (Source 2)
Figure 2: Joint Auctions with Endogenous Capacity and Technology