Dynamic Pricing in Ridesharing Platforms A Queueing Approach

Sid Banerjee | Ramesh Johari | Carlos Riquelme Cornell | Stanford | Stanford rjohari@stanford.edu

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## **Ridesharing and Pricing**

# **Ridesharing platforms**



Examples of major platforms: Lyft, Uber, Sidecar

### **This talk: Pricing and ridesharing**

Ridesharing is somewhat unique among online platforms:

The platform sets the transaction price.

Our goal: Understand optimal pricing strategy.

#### **Our contributions**

- 1. A model that combines:
  - Strategic behavior of passengers and drivers
  - Pricing behavior of the platform
  - Queueing behavior of the system
- 2. What are the advantages of *dynamic* pricing over *static* pricing?
  - Static: Constant over several hour periods
  - Dynamic: Pricing changes in response to system state; "surge", "prime time"

#### **Related work**

Our work sits at a nexus between several different lines of research:

- 1. Matching queues (cf. [Adan and Weiss 2012])
- 2. Strategic queueing models (cf. [Naor 1969])
- 3. Two-sided platforms (cf. [Rochet and Tirole 2003, 2006])
- 4. Revenue management (cf. [Talluri and van Ryzin 2006])
- **5.** *Large-scale matching markets* (cf. [Azevedo and Budish 2013])
- 6. Mean field equilibrium (cf. [Weintraub et al. 2008])

### Model

#### **Two types: Strategic and queueing**

We need a strategic model that captures:

- 1. Platform pricing
- 2. Passenger incentives
- 3. Driver incentives

We need a *queueing model* that captures:

- 1. Driver time spent idling vs. driving
- 2. Ride requests blocked vs. served

#### **Preliminaries**

- 1. Focus on a *block* of time (e.g., several hours) over which arrival rates are roughly stable
- 2. Focus on a single region (e.g., a single city neighborhood)
  - For technical simplicity
  - Insights generalize to networks of regions
- 3. Focus on throughput: rate of completed rides
  - For technical simplicity
  - Same results for profit, when system is supply-limited
  - Similar numerical results for welfare; theory ongoing

## Strategic modeling: Platform pricing

Platforms:

- Earn a (fixed) fraction γ of every dollar spent (e.g., 20%)
- Need *both* drivers (supply) and passengers (demand)
- Use pricing to align the two sides

Load-dependent pricing:

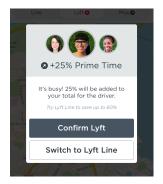
If # of available drivers = A, then price offered to ride = P(A)

# Strategic model: Platform pricing

In practice:

- Platforms charge a timeand distance-dependent base price
- Platforms manipulate price through a multiplier
- Base price typically is not varied

In our model:  $price \equiv multiplier.$ 



#### Strategic model: Passengers

How do passengers enter?

- Passenger ≡ one ride request
- Sees instantaneous ride price
- ► Enters if price < reservation value V
- $V \sim F_V$ , i.i.d. across ride requests

$$\mu_0 =$$
exogenous rate of "app opens".  
 $\mu =$ actual rate of rides requested.

Then when A available drivers present:

$$\mu = \mu_0 \overline{\mathsf{F}}_V(P(A)).$$

### **Strategic model: Drivers**

How do drivers enter?

- Sensitive to *expected earnings over the block*
- Choose to enter if: reservation earnings rate C× expected total time in system
  < expected earnings while in system</li>
- ► *C* ~ F<sub>*C*</sub>, i.i.d. across drivers
- $\Lambda_0 = {\rm exogenous \ rate \ of \ driver \ arrival.} \\ \lambda = {\rm actual \ rate \ at \ which \ drivers \ enter.} \\ {\rm Then:}$

$$\lambda = \Lambda_0 \mathsf{F}_C \left( \frac{\mathsf{expected earnings in system}}{\mathsf{expected time in system}} \right)$$

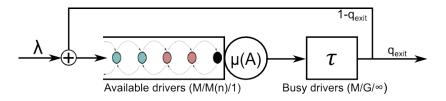
# **Queueing model**

- **1.** Drivers enter at rate  $\lambda$ .
- 2. When A drivers available, ride requests arrive at rate  $\mu(A)$ .
- 3. If a driver is available, ride is *served*; else *blocked*.
- 4. Rides last exponential time, mean  $\tau$ .
- 5. After ride completion:
  - With probability q<sub>exit</sub>: Driver signs out
  - With probability  $1 q_{exit}$ : Driver becomes available

### **Queueing model: Steady state**

Jackson network of two queues: M/M(n)/1 and  $M/M/\infty$ 

 $\implies$  product-form steady state distribution  $\pi$ .



# Putting it together: Equilibrium

Given pricing policy  $P(\cdot)$ ,

system equilibrium is  $(\lambda, \mu, \pi, \iota, \eta)$  such that:

- **1.**  $\pi$  is the steady state distribution, given  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$
- 2.  $\eta$  is the expected earnings per ride, given  $P(\cdot)$  and  $\pi$
- 3.  $\iota$  is the expected idle time per ride, given  $\pi$  and  $\lambda$
- **4.**  $\lambda$  is the entry rate of drivers, given  $\iota$  and  $\eta$ :

$$\lambda = \Lambda_0 \mathsf{F}_C \left( \frac{\eta}{\iota + \tau} \right)$$

**5.**  $\mu(A)$  is the arrival rate of ride requests when A drivers are available, given  $P(\cdot)$ :

$$\mu = \mu_0 \overline{\mathsf{F}}_V(P(A)).$$

# Putting it together: Equilibrium

If price increases when number of available drivers decreases:

- Equilibria always exist under appropriate continuity of F<sub>C</sub>, F<sub>V</sub>.
- Equilibria are unique under reasonable conditions

### Large Market Limit

## The challenge

- To understand optimal pricing, we need to characterize system equilibria.
- In particular, need sensitivity of equilibria to changes in pricing policy.
- Our approach: *asymptotics* to simplify analysis.

#### Large market asymptotics

Consider a sequence of systems indexed by *n*.

- In *n*'th system, exogenous arrival rates are  $n\Lambda_0$ ,  $n\mu_0$ .
- In *n*'th system, pricing policy is  $P_n(\cdot)$ .
- ► In each system, this gives rise to a system equilibrium.

We analyze pricing by looking at asymptotics of equilibria.

# **Static Pricing**

## What is static pricing?

Static pricing means: price policy is constant. Let P(A) = p for all A.

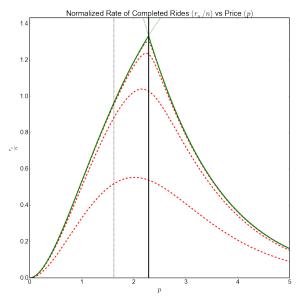
#### Theorem

Let  $r_n(p)$  denote the equilibrium rate of completed rides in the n'th system. Then:

$$r_n(p) \to \hat{r}(p) \triangleq \min\{\Lambda_0 \mathsf{F}_C(\gamma p/\tau)/q_{\text{exit}}, \mu_0 \overline{\mathsf{F}}_V(p)\}.$$

#### Throughput = min { available supply, available demand }

## **Static pricing: Illustration**



# **Static pricing: Interpretation**

Note that at *any price*, queueing system is always stable:

- When supply < demand: Drivers become fully saturated
- When supply > demand: Drivers forecast high idle times and don't enter

Balance price  $p_{bal}$ : Price where supply = demand

Corollary

The optimal static price is  $p_{bal}$ .

# **Dynamic pricing**

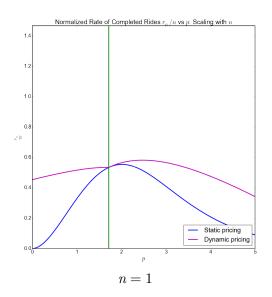
# What is dynamic pricing?

Meant to capture "surge" (Uber) and "prime time" (Lyft) pricing strategies.

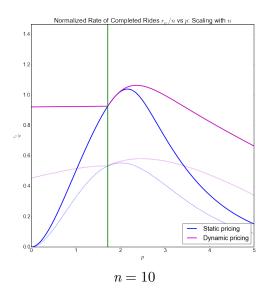
We focus on threshold pricing:

- Threshold θ
- High price *p<sub>h</sub>* charged when available drivers < θ</li>
- Low price p<sub>ℓ</sub> < p<sub>h</sub> charged when available drivers > θ

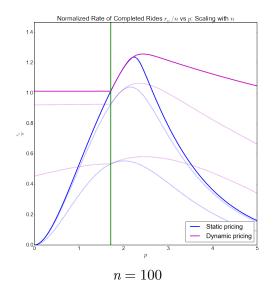
- Fix one price, and vary the other price.
- Compare to static pricing.



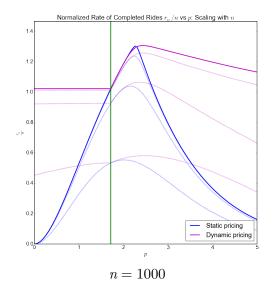
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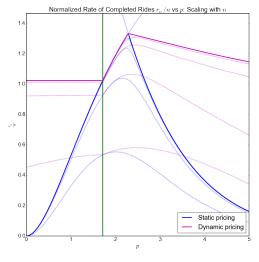
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- Fix one price, and vary the other price.
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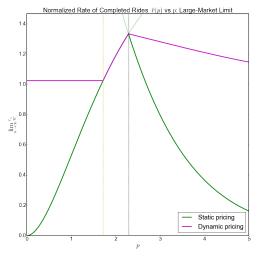


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 $n \to \infty$ 

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 $n \to \infty$ 

# **Optimal dynamic pricing**

#### Theorem

Let  $r_n^*$  be the rate of completed rides in the *n*'th system, using the optimal static price.

Let  $r_n^{**}$  be the rate of completed rides in the *n*'th system, using the optimal threshold pricing strategy.

Then if  $F_V$  has monotone hazard rate,

$$\frac{r_n^* - r_n^{**}}{n} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

# **Optimal dynamic pricing**

#### In other words:

*In the fluid limit, no dynamic pricing policy yields higher throughput than optimal static pricing.* 

# **Optimal dynamic pricing**

#### In other words:

*In the fluid limit, no dynamic pricing policy yields higher throughput than optimal static pricing.* 

This result is reminiscent of similar results in the classical revenue management literature (e.g., [Gallego and van Ryzin, 1994]).

The main differences arise due to the presence of a two sided market.

#### **Proof sketch**

Under threshold pricing:

- Drivers are sensitive to *two* quantities: idle time, and price.
- ▶ Show that optimal  $\theta_n^* \to \infty$ , but chosen so that idle time  $\to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
- In this limit, drivers are sensitive to the *average* price per ride:

$$p_{\mathsf{avg}} = \pi_h p_h + \pi_\ell p_\ell,$$

where  $\pi_h, \pi_\ell$  are  $\approx$  probabilities of being below or above  $\theta$ , respectively.

► If *p*<sub>avg</sub> decreases, fewer drivers will enter.

### Proof sketch (cont'd)

We note that:

- 1. If  $p_{\ell} < p_h \leq p_{\mathsf{bal}}$ , then  $p_{\mathsf{avg}} = p_h$ .
- **2.** If  $p_{\mathsf{bal}} \leq p_{\ell} < p_h$ , then  $p_{\mathsf{avg}} = p_{\ell}$ .
- **3.** If  $p_{\ell} < p_{\mathsf{bal}} < p_h$ , then  $\pi_{\ell} > 0, \pi_h > 0$ .

In first two cases, *de facto* static pricing.

## Proof sketch (cont'd)

We explore the third case.

Suppose that we start with  $p_\ell < p_h = p_{\sf bal}$  (so  $p_{\sf avg} = p_h$ ).

Now increase  $p_h$ :

- ▶ Before π<sub>ℓ</sub> = 0, but now π<sub>ℓ</sub> > 0, so some customers pay p<sub>ℓ</sub>; this lowers p<sub>avg</sub>.
- *p<sub>h</sub>* higher, so customers arriving when *A* < θ pay more; this increases *p*<sub>avg</sub>.

When  $F_V$  is MHR, we show that the first effect dominates the second, so throughput falls.

#### **Robustness**

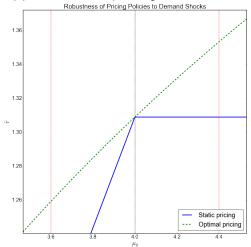
## The value of dynamic pricing

How does dynamic pricing help?

- When system parameters are known, performance does not exceed static pricing.
- When system parameters are unknown, dynamic pricing naturally "learns" them.

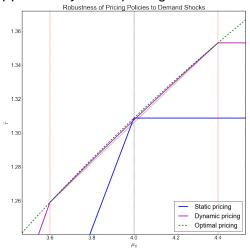
#### **Robustness: Illustration**

#### What happens to static pricing in a demand shock?



#### **Robustness: Illustration**

#### What happens to dynamic pricing in a demand shock?



#### **Robustness: Dynamic pricing**

We can formally establish the observation in the previous illustration:

- Suppose  $F_C$  is logconcave, and  $\mu_0^{(1)} < \mu_0^{(2)}$  are fixed.
- ▶ Let  $p_{bal,n}^{(1)}$ ,  $p_{bal,n}^{(2)}$  = optimal static prices in the *n*'th system.
- Let  $r_n^{(1)}, r_n^{(2)} =$  optimal throughput in the *n*'th system.
- Suppose now the true  $\mu_0 \in [\mu_0^{(1)}, \mu_0^{(2)}]$ .
- Using both prices  $p_{\mathsf{bal},n}^{(1)}, p_{\mathsf{bal},n}^{(2)}$  is robust:
  - There exists a sequence of threshold pricing policies with throughput at any such  $\mu_0$  (in the fluid scaling)  $\geq$  the linear interpolation of  $r_n^{(1)}$  and  $r_n^{(2)}$ .

(Same holds w.r.t.  $\Lambda_0$ .)

#### Conclusion

## **Platform optimization**

This work is an example of *platform optimization*: Requires understanding *both* operations and economics. Other topics under investigation:

- Network modeling (multiple regions): Our main insights generalize
- 2. Effect of pricing on aggregate welfare
- 3. Modeling driver heat maps
- 4. Fee structure: changing the percentage
- **5.** Effect of changing the matching algorithm