

The Price of Simplicity

(Extended Abstract)

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Abstract—We study revenue-maximizing pricing by a service provider in a communication network and compare revenues from simple pricing rules to the maximum revenues that are feasible. In particular, we focus on flat entry fees as the simplest pricing rule. We provide a lower bound for the ratio between the revenue from this pricing rule and maximum revenue, which we refer to as the Price of Simplicity. We characterize what types of environments lead to a low Price of Simplicity and show that in a range of environments, the loss of revenue from using simple entry fees is small. We then study the Price of Simplicity for a simple non-linear pricing (price discrimination) scheme based on the Paris Metro Pricing. The service provider creates different service classes and charges differential entry fees for these classes. We show that the gain from this type of price discrimination is small, particularly in environments in which the simple entry fee pricing leads to a low Price of Simplicity.

I. INTRODUCTION

With the considerable increase in the commercial use of the Internet, the issue of how Internet services and network resources should be priced has become an important topic of analysis both in economics and in engineering communities. The Internet ISPs (Internet Service Providers), can be best approximated as charging fixed prices regardless of the value of the content that is being uploaded or downloaded. This “dumb pipe” model—with fixed pricing by carriers and no pricing by companies providing the services regardless of the content—is changing rapidly, however, as more content providers start charging customers for accessing their services and ISPs providing different qualities of service to different groups of users (see, for example, Odlyzko [1], [2]). The issue of different qualities of service (QoS) naturally raises the question of whether a scheme of non-linear pricing can be and will be implemented in communication networks in general and in the Internet in particular.

One drawback of differentiated pricing schemes in general is that the resulting pricing schemes tend to be highly nonlinear and not resemble the prices observed in practice. Whether simple pricing schemes can be used profitably in the context of the Internet is important, since complicated schemes may be too costly to implement or may be prone to be manipulated. In this paper, we study whether simple pricing schemes can approximate revenue-maximizing non-linear prices in communication networks. We focus on a stylized communication network in which at any given point in time, a service provider has a certain amount of network resources (e.g., bandwidth)

to be allocated among a number of users. We assume that there are N user classes, each represented by a utility function designating their utility and willingness to pay for a given amount of the resource (bandwidth). Using this model, we first study the profitability of the simplest pricing scheme, which charges a simple entry fee to all potential users and then divides the resource equally among users who pay the entry fee. We then compare revenue from this simple entry fee scheme to the maximum revenue that the service provider could secure, i.e., our strategy is to compare the profitability of the simple entry fee pricing to the maximal value of consumer surplus. We call the ratio of these two objects the *Price of Simplicity* (PoS). When the PoS is small, simple pricing schemes are unlikely to be revenue-maximizing and thus the actual pricing in practice has to be determined by an explicit comparison of the profitability of different pricing schemes and their costs in terms of complication. In contrast, when PoS is close to one, a simple pricing scheme can approximate revenue-maximization. Somewhat surprisingly, in many cases the PoS is high, indicating that using simple pricing schemes may not be too costly for service providers in communication networks. The worst-case (lower bound) corresponds to a situation which the utility functions are piece-wise linear (with a steeply-increasing first portion followed by a flat portion). In this case, the PoS is still bounded away from zero for any finite number of differentiated user classes, but as the number of user classes tends to infinity the PoS tends to zero.

We next consider the simplest scheme of differentiated pricing, which, following Odlyzko’s [4] work, is commonly referred to as the Paris Metro Pricing (PMP). In PMP a network is partitioned into several service classes, with each service class having a fixed fraction of the entire network capacity. The resource in each service class is distributed equally among the users that take part in that service class. According to this pricing scheme, service classes with higher prices will naturally have higher QoS to compensate (marginal) users for the higher prices that they are paying by offering them greater use of resources and greater utility. We characterize the revenue-maximizing PMP scheme and show that for the piece-wise linear utility function, the PMP scheme generates a similar PoS as the simple entry fee pricing. Consequently, the gain from this particular differentiated pricing scheme is relatively limited. This result, combined with the relatively good performance of the simple access fee pricing for general

concave utility functions, suggests that simple pricing rules might work quite well in modern communication networks.

While we are not aware of other studies investigating the price of simplicity (or other concepts related to the costs of using simple pricing schemes), there is a large related literature upon which we are building. A classic paper by Myerson [5] characterized optimal auctions in situations where potential buyers have identically distributed private values. This corresponds to one of the simplest cases of non-linear pricing. Non-linear pricing in general is studied in Wilson [6], while the large literature on optimal auctions is surveyed in Krishna [7]. Particularly notable are the papers by Cremer and McLean [3], which show how full surplus extraction may be possible in certain situations. Second, the environment we analyze is closely related to that in Acemoglu *et al.* [8]. They consider entry pricing schemes in communication networks where the service provider also determines the resource allocation rule. They show that the revenue-maximizing policy for the service provider satisfies the marginal user principle, whereby the resource allocation rule is chosen to maximize the utility of the marginal user, that is, the user who is just indifferent between participating and not participating in the network. When we turn to networks with different service classes (the PMP), we provide a simple generalization of this result.

Third, there is now a large literature investigating game-theoretic equilibria in communication networks (see the survey by Ozdaglar and Srikant [9]). One branch of this literature focuses on the strategic interactions among users [10]–[12]. This literature typically characterizes worst-case efficiency losses from strategic interactions, which is referred to as the Price of Anarchy (PoA) following the work by Papadimitriou [13]. Another branch integrates the strategic interactions between users and service providers as well as among users [14]–[20]. This work has not focused on price discrimination or non-linear pricing, though our framework is considerably simpler than some of the models studied in this literature, since it has a single service provider rather than competition among service providers.

The rest of the extended abstract is organized as follows. In Section II we study the case of a single service class, characterize the PoS for a class of utility functions and determine a tight lower bound. We then consider a multi-class service structure in Section III and show that its worst case revenue efficiency is identical to that of the single service-class regime. Finally, we conclude in Section IV. Due to paucity of space, we will not present any of the proofs in this extended abstract.

II. SINGLE SERVICE CLASS

Let us consider the case where there is a single class of service, and the service provider sets a single entry price. Let C denote the bandwidth of the link, and let p be the entry price. Let $\mathcal{N} = \{1, \dots, N\}$ denote the set of potential users. We consider the case of ordered utilities, where the utility function of user i is given by

$$u_i(x) = \alpha_i u(x),$$

where $\alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2 \geq \dots \geq \alpha_N > 0$. Such utility functions might be seen in practice when all users are running identical applications, but their valuations of the applications are different. This would mean that the shape of the QoS curve would be the same for all of them up to a scaling factor. Throughout the extended abstract we adopt the following assumption on the utility function $u(x)$.

Assumption 1: The utility function $u : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is concave, nondecreasing, and satisfies $u(0) = 0$.

We assume that the ISP divides C equally among the users entering the system. Thus, if \tilde{N} users enter the system, then each user would obtain a bandwidth of C/\tilde{N} . Users enter the system only if the utility they gain from the bandwidth allocation x exceeds the entry price, i.e., $u_i(x) \geq p$. Under these conditions, we can characterize the revenue that would be obtained by the ISP using the following result.

Result 1: (Marginal user principle [8]) For a given vector $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N\}$ with $\alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2 \geq \dots \geq \alpha_N$, the maximum revenue that the service provider can obtain by posting a single entry price, denoted by $\mathcal{R}_{MUP}(\alpha, u)$, is given by

$$\mathcal{R}_{MUP}(\alpha, u) = \max_{i \in \mathcal{N}} \left\{ i \alpha_i u\left(\frac{C}{i}\right) \right\}.$$

This result is straightforward since we assume equal allocation of network resources among participants. It is a special case of the result in [8], where the authors were concerned with the determination of the allocation rule.

However, for a given vector α , the maximum revenue that a service provider can obtain by any selling mechanism is upper bounded by the entire consumer surplus that he can extract under complete information i.e., as the optimal solution of the following problem.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize}_{x \geq 0} && \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} \alpha_i u(x_i) && (1) \\ & \text{subject to} && \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} x_i \leq C. \end{aligned}$$

We denote the optimal value of the preceding problem by $\mathcal{R}_S(\alpha, u)$. Since the utility function u is concave by assumption, a vector x^S is an optimal solution of problem (1) if and only if there exists a scalar $\mu \geq 0$ such that $\mu \left(\sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} x_i^S - C \right) = 0$ and

$$\alpha_i u'(x_i^S) = \mu, \quad \text{if } x_i^S > 0, \quad (2)$$

$$\geq \mu, \quad \text{if } x_i^S = 0. \quad (3)$$

Cremer and Mclean [3] show that under some assumptions on the correlation of values of customers, using an individual lottery for each customer can be used to extract the entire surplus. However, in this extended abstract we are interested in the highest loss of revenue incurred by using the simple selling mechanism that posts a single entry price. We next define our revenue loss metric.

Definition 1: (Price of Simplicity) Given a utility function u , we define the *price of simplicity (PoS)* as the worst-case ratio of the revenue under single posted price to the maximum

revenue that the service provider can obtain under complete information; i.e.,

$$PoS(u) = \inf_{\alpha \geq 0} \frac{\mathcal{R}_{MUP}(\alpha, u)}{\mathcal{R}_S(\alpha, u)}. \quad (4)$$

We can assume without loss of generality that the infimum in the preceding definition is taken over all α such that $\alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2 \geq \dots \geq \alpha_N$ and $\alpha_1 = 1$. We have the following simple result.

Lemma 1: Let the utility function u satisfy Assumption 1. Let α and $\tilde{\alpha}$ be two nonnegative vectors in \mathbb{R}^N such that $\alpha \geq \tilde{\alpha}$ (i.e., $\alpha_i \geq \tilde{\alpha}_i$ for all $i \in \mathcal{N}$). Then,

$$\mathcal{R}_S(\alpha, u) \geq \mathcal{R}_S(\tilde{\alpha}, u).$$

Using the preceding monotonicity result, we can show that at the optimal solution of the problem defined in (4), all terms in the numerator of the objective function are equalized.

Proposition 2: Let the utility function u satisfy Assumption 1. There exists an optimal solution $[1, \alpha_2^*, \dots, \alpha_N^*]$ of the problem defined in (4) such that

$$u(C) = i\alpha_i^* u\left(\frac{C}{i}\right), \quad i = 2, \dots, N. \quad (5)$$

The following corollary follows naturally from the above characterization of the worst case vector α .

Corollary 1: Let the utility function u satisfy Assumption 1. We can express the PoS (cf. Definition 1) as

$$PoS(u) = \frac{u(C)}{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} \frac{u(C)}{iu(C/i)} u(x_i^S)}, \quad (6)$$

where x_i^S is an optimal solution of the problem in (1) for $\alpha_i = \frac{u(C)}{iu(C/i)}$.

We next investigate the PoS for different kinds of utility functions. Our goal is to provide a tight lower bound on the PoS .

Worst-case utility function

We provided an explicit characterization of the loss of revenue when using a single entry price above. We next provide a lower bound on the revenue loss. We first provide a few examples using standard utility functions and then go on to lower bound. We assume w.l.o.g that $C = 1$.

Examples: Consider the utility function

$$u(x) = \log(1 + x)$$

We can find an explicit expression for the PoS in this case using simple Lagrange multiplier techniques, which turns out to be 87.8012%. Now, consider the utility function

$$u(x) = 1 - e^{-x}$$

We evaluate the PoS in this case as 84.4756%.

The above utility functions can be said to represent so called ‘‘elastic-traffic’’ (such as data transfers), in which user utility is strictly concave-increasing in the allocated bandwidth. Many

of the currently used data transfer protocols such as TCP, can be modeled using such utility functions. The examples seem to suggest that the PoS may not be too high. We provide a lower bound on the price of simplicity, which shows that for large N , the PoS can actually be arbitrarily bad.

Proposition 3: Let the utility function u satisfy Assumption 1. Then for any N , we have

$$PoS(u) \geq \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{i}},$$

and the bound is tight (satisfied with equality) for the piecewise linear utility function

$$u_{pwl}(x, N) \triangleq \begin{cases} Nx & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{N} \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq \frac{1}{N}. \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

The utility function $u_{pwl}(x, N)$ would be representative of real-time traffic, wherein the user utility increases with increasing bandwidth up to a point, after which excess bandwidth is irrelevant. Thus, the single-class scheme is not efficient for real-time traffic.

III. GENERALIZED METRO PRICING

We next consider an extension of the pricing scheme described in the previous section and assume that the ISP divides the available bandwidth into M parts or *classes* and charges a separate price p_j for each class. We refer to this pricing scheme as *generalized metro pricing* since it is reminiscent of Odlyzko’s Paris Metro Pricing scheme [4]. Suppose that the service provider divides the available bandwidth C into M classes with class set $\mathcal{M} = \{1, \dots, M\}$ and assigns price p_j to class j . We assume without loss of generality that $C = 1$. There are N potential users with user set $\mathcal{N} = \{1, \dots, N\}$. Given the price vector set by the service provider $p = [p_j]_{j \in \mathcal{M}}$, we assume that the payoff function of user i that is assigned to class j is given by

$$\pi_i(x) = \alpha_i u(x) - p_j,$$

where $u(x)$ is a utility function that satisfies Assumption 1, and $\alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2 \geq \dots \geq \alpha_N > 0$.

For each class j , the service provider chooses a price p_j , the amount of bandwidth that would be available per user x_j , and the number of users to include n_j to maximize his revenue. As in Paris Metro Pricing, we assume that for $k \geq j$, $x_k \leq x_j$. Given the price vector $p = [p_j]_{j \in \mathcal{M}}$, the allocation vector $x = [x_j]_{j \in \mathcal{M}}$, and the vector of number of users admitted in each class $n = [n_j]_{j \in \mathcal{M}}$, the revenue of service provider is given by

$$\Pi(p, x, n) = \sum_{j=1}^M p_j n_j.$$

The service provider should set the prices, the allocation vector, and the number of users admitted in each class such that for user i designated for class j , the individual rationality constraints given by

$$\alpha_i u(x_j) - p_j \geq 0,$$

and the incentive compatibility constraints given by

$$\alpha_i u(x_j) - p_j \geq \alpha_i u(x_k) - p_k \quad \text{for all } k \neq j,$$

are satisfied. The following arguments use the ordered utility assumption and allow us to write down the incentive compatibility constraints in a compact form.

Lemma 4: Let j and \bar{j} be two classes such that $j \leq \bar{j}$ (i.e., $x_j \geq x_{\bar{j}}$) with $p_j \geq p_{\bar{j}}$. Let i and \bar{i} be two users such that $\alpha_i \geq \alpha_{\bar{i}}$. Then we have the following results on when the users have no incentive to change their service classes.

Satisfaction with better QoS: If $\alpha_{\bar{i}} u(x_j) - p_j \geq \alpha_{\bar{i}} u(x_{\bar{j}}) - p_{\bar{j}} \Rightarrow \alpha_i u(x_j) - p_j \geq \alpha_i u(x_{\bar{j}}) - p_{\bar{j}}$, i.e., users i and \bar{i} would prefer better QoS class j to worse QoS class \bar{j} .

Satisfaction with worse QoS: If $\alpha_i u(x_{\bar{j}}) - p_{\bar{j}} \geq \alpha_i u(x_j) - p_j \Rightarrow \alpha_{\bar{i}} u(x_{\bar{j}}) - p_{\bar{j}} \geq \alpha_{\bar{i}} u(x_j) - p_j$, i.e., users i and \bar{i} would prefer worse QoS class \bar{j} to better QoS class j .

Suppose that users $\mathcal{N}_j \subset \mathcal{N}$ are assigned to class $j \in \mathcal{M}$, with user $i \in \mathcal{N}$ being associated with α_i . Define $i_{\max}(j) = \arg \max_i \alpha_i$, $i \in \mathcal{N}_j$ and $i_{\min}(j) = \arg \min_i \alpha_i$, $i \in \mathcal{N}_j$. Suppose that the set of users $\mathcal{N}'_j = \{i : i_{\min}(j) \leq i \leq i_{\max}(j)\}$ were assigned to class j . Lemma 4 implies that if user $i_{\max}(j)$ has no incentive to move to a better QoS class, and user $i_{\min}(j)$ has no incentive to move to a worse QoS class for all classes j , then if $\mathcal{N}_j = \mathcal{N}'_j$ for all j , none of the users assigned to any class would have an incentive to leave. On the other hand, if $\mathcal{N}_j \neq \mathcal{N}'_j$ for some j , then some user in some class would have an incentive to change. Thus, given the vector of number of users in each class $n = [n_j]_{j \in \mathcal{M}}$, the previous lemma implies that the following allocation of users to classes is a necessary condition for equilibrium.

Condition 1:

Users $1, \dots, n_1 \rightarrow$ class 1,

Users $n_1 + 1, \dots, n_1 + n_2 \rightarrow$ class 2,

\vdots

Users $n_1 + \dots + n_{M-1} + 1, \dots, n_1 + \dots + n_M \rightarrow$ class M .

This motivates us to define the following notation. For any user $i \in \mathcal{N}$, let j_i denote the class that user i is assigned to, i.e., j_i is an integer in \mathcal{M} that satisfies $n_1 + \dots + n_{j_i-1} + 1 \leq i \leq n_1 + \dots + n_{j_i}$. Note that $j_{n_1+\dots+n_j} = j$. Also note that by the preceding discussion for any user with index $i \leq q$, we must have $j_i \leq j_q$. We then have the following lemma.

Lemma 5: (Single Crossing Property) If the assignment of users to classes satisfies Condition 1 and

$$\alpha_i u(x_{j_i}) - p_{j_i} \geq \alpha_i u(x_{j_{i+1}}) - p_{j_{i+1}} \quad \forall i \in \mathcal{N} \quad j_i < M,$$

with equality for $i = n_1 + \dots + n_j$, then no user has an incentive to deviate from his assigned class to any other class.

The next proposition provides an explicit characterization of the price of each class.

Proposition 6: If the assignment of users to classes satisfies Condition 1 and

$$p_j = \sum_{k=j}^M \alpha_{n_1+\dots+n_k} (u(x_k) - u(x_{k+1})) \quad \forall j \leq M,$$

where n_j is as defined in Condition 1, and by definition, $u(x_{M+1}) = 0, p_{M+1} = 0$, then no user has an incentive to deviate from his assigned class to any other class.

Note that the proposition automatically requires that $p_k \geq p_l$ for all service classes $k \leq l$. Coupled with our requirement that $x_k \geq x_l$ for all service classes $k \leq l$, this means that the condition is that a better QoS corresponds to a higher price, which is what we would intuitively expect. We can then write the revenue-maximization problem as

Result 2: (Generalized Marginal User Principle) For a given vector $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N\}$ with $\alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2 \geq \dots \geq \alpha_N$, and the number of service classes $M \leq N$ the maximum revenue that the service provider can obtain by generalized metro pricing, denoted by $\mathcal{R}_{GMP}(\alpha, u)$, satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize}_{x, n} \sum_{j=1}^M p_j n_j \\ & \text{subject to } p_j = \sum_{k=j}^M \alpha_{n_1+\dots+n_k} (u(x_k) - u(x_{k+1})) \quad \forall j \leq M. \\ & \quad \text{with } x_{M+1} = 0 \\ & \quad \sum_{j=1}^M n_j \leq N, \quad \sum_{j=1}^M x_j n_j \leq 1, \end{aligned}$$

We refer to the above as the *generalized marginal user principle* since the price vector p depends only on the users $n_1, n_1 + n_2, n_1 + n_2 + n_3, \dots, n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_M$, i.e., on the users who lie at the boundary of each service class.

Worst Case Utility Function

In the preceding discussion, we characterized the maximum revenue that could be obtained using GMP. Let us define a revenue efficiency metric

$$\eta_{GMP}(\alpha, u, M) = \frac{\mathcal{R}_{GMP}(\alpha, u, M)}{\mathcal{R}_S(\alpha, u)}, \quad (8)$$

where $\mathcal{R}_S(\alpha, u)$ is as defined in Problem 1 and by definition $\inf_{\alpha > 0} \eta_{GMP}(\alpha, u, 1) = PoS(u)$. We would like to know whether there is an increase in revenue efficiency due to the extra degrees of freedom that GMP provides.

We first consider a few examples of the revenue efficiency associated with the utility functions considered earlier. For simplicity, for a given utility function u , let us assume that the vector α satisfies (5), $M = 2$ and the capacity $C = 1$ is divided equally among the two service classes. Under these circumstances, we can show numerically that for

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= \log(1+x), & \eta_{GMP}(\alpha, \log(1+x), 2) &= 95.2\% \\ u(x) &= 1 - e^{-x}, & \eta_{GMP}(\alpha, 1 - e^{-x}, 2) &= 94.8\%, \end{aligned}$$

which are both higher than the PoS values calculated for these utility functions in Examples 1 and 2. This suggests that perhaps GMP might be able to extract a greater surplus than a single service class for all utility functions.

We next consider the revenue obtained by charging multiple prices with the piece-wise linear utility function $u_{pwl}(x, N)$

defined in (7). We will show that in fact, the GMP scheme is identical to a single class scheme as far as revenue is concerned regardless of the number of service classes, and the maximum revenue is obtained by assigning all the capacity to the first service class. We have the following proposition.

Proposition 7: Suppose that there are N potential users and $u(x)$ is piece-wise linear as defined in (7), with $\alpha = [1, \frac{1}{2}, \dots, \frac{1}{N}]$ (satisfies (5)). The revenue efficiency obtained using GMP with any number of service classes $M \leq N$ is

$$\eta_{GMP}(\alpha, u_{pwl}, M) \leq \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{N}},$$

with equality for $M = 1$.

We conclude that in the worst case situation studied, GMP has no effect on the revenue obtained, and an ISP would have little incentive to implement such a scheme if user utilities resemble the piece-wise linear functions that we constructed.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we presented results on price-based discrimination for bandwidth allocation in wire-line communication networks. Our objective was to study the revenue efficiency of single and multi-class pricing schemes as compared to the maximum possible revenue, and to the best of our knowledge, our work is the first attempt to provide a rigorous analysis of such pricing. Our assumption was that all the potential users would be running the same application, with each user valuing the application differently. This causes all the user utilities to have the same shape up to a scaling factor, i.e., the utility functions are of the form $u_i(x) = \alpha_i u(x)$, where $\alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2 \geq \dots \geq \alpha_N > 0$. We further assumed that the utility functions are concave and increasing in the amount of bandwidth allocated. Finally, we assumed that users are individually rational, and would not join the system unless they had non-negative payoffs.

We first studied the case of a single service class with a fixed entrance fee. We showed that the worst-case ratio of revenues occurs when the set $\{\alpha_i\}$ is such that the ISP obtains the same revenue, regardless of the number of users who enter the system. We showed that for some typical utility functions representing elastic traffic (such as data transfers), the revenue efficiency is of the order of 85 – 90%. Hence, the current simple flat-rate pricing adopted by many ISPs is quite efficient in extracting revenue for elastic traffic. We also determined a tight lower-bound on the efficiency, and we showed that an arbitrarily low revenue efficiency could result from a utility function that is piece-wise linear with an initial increasing phase followed by a horizontal phase. Such a utility function would be representative of real-time traffic such as video streaming.

We then studied the case where the available bandwidth would be divided into chunks, and the entry fee for each chunk would be determined in advance. We showed how the incentive compatibility constraints of the users results in a *generalized marginal user principle*, in which only the marginal user in each class is instrumental in setting the price. Using this

characterization of prices, we showed that even the simple artifice of dividing the available capacity into two parts results in an increased revenue for elastic traffic. However, we also proved the surprising result that regardless of the number of service classes, the revenue efficiency when the users have piece-wise linear utility functions is identical to that of a single class scheme.

V. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported in part by NSF grants CCF 06-34891, CNS 07-21286, and DMI 0545910.

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