Contents lists available at GrowingScience

# International Journal of Industrial Engineering Computations

homepage: www.GrowingScience.com/ijiec

Nash-stackelberg game perspective on pricing strategies for ride-hailing and aggregation platforms under bundle mode

Weina Xua, Gui-Hua Lina and Xide Zhua\*

<sup>a</sup>School of Management, Shanghai University, Shanghai 200444, China

### CHRONICLE

Article history:
Received November 10 2021
Received in Revised Format
December 25 2021
Accepted March 16 2022
Available online
March, 16 2022

Keywords: Stackelberg game Nash equilibrium Ride-hailing platform Pricing Service level Bundle mode

### ABSTRACT

The growing popularity of aggregation platforms has attracted widespread attention in the ride-hailing market in recent years. In order to obtain additional orders by charging commissions and slotting fees, many ride-hailing platforms choose to bundle with aggregation platforms. Unlike traditional reseller electronic channels, the bundle channels may affect pricing of platforms, service levels of drivers, market demands and they may further impact on profits. These different attitudes raise an interesting and key question about the influence of bundle channels in ride-hailing platforms. In this paper, we propose an analytical framework for pricing strategies of ride-hailing and aggregation platforms under bundle mode and analyze their pricing process from the perspective of Nash and Stackelberg games, where the platforms serve as leaders to determine optimal prices through Nash equilibrium and the drivers serve as followers to provide optimal service levels. Through sensitivity analysis of service levels and costs, we capture the distribution trends of profits between the platforms. Based on some numerical examples and results analysis, some interesting managerial insights on pricing of ride-hailing and aggregation platforms are gained.

© 2022 by the authors; licensee Growing Science, Canada

### 1. Introduction

With the rise of aggregation platforms in recent years, the shared mobility ecosystem is expected to be reinvented and the ride-hailing platforms are gradually shifting to technology investment to promote platform upgrades, improve user experience, and bring back their business essence. Through aggregating ride-hailing services, rather than operating new platforms, the aggregation platform can avoid head-on competition with these ride-hailing platforms and therefore significantly reduce costs as it does not need to invest everlasting capital to attract users. Using these bundle services in aggregation platforms, users no longer need to download, install and register multiple ride-hailing apps. Embedding a one-click function in the display page of a ride-hailing platform and making multi-platform multi-mode calls at the same time can help users call faster and thereby reduce their waiting times. Nowadays, ride-hailing service aggregation platforms are becoming a trend and gaining prominence during peak hours.

Some Chinese companies firstly set examples in the ride-hailing market. DiDi Chuxing and Amap (Alibaba-owned AutoNavi) have built aggregation platforms through their information capabilities and technical background. Amap aggregates more than 40 suppliers such as DiDi, Shenzhou, Shouqi and Caocao, and provides a variety of models and vehicle types across the country. As the first travel platform with over 100 million daily active users in China, Amap is able to provide extensive user access for ride-hailing platforms and boost their online refinement operations. DiDi Chuxing is both a ride-hailing platform and an aggregation platform that can access some services like Landao Chuxing, Liangzi Chuxing, and Henghao Yongche. The aggregation platform gives riders the possibility to go shopping around at the best price. Before making an order, riders

\* Corresponding author

E-mail: xidezhu@shu.edu.cn (X. Zhu)

2022 Growing Science Ltd. doi: 10.5267/j.ijiec.2022.3.002 can first compare prices through Amap and then choose the most preferred one by considering the service level and cost. Internet platforms with large flows choose the aggregation model, only require the minimal cost, and can realize traffic cash through information technologies to coordinate and match related services.

Bundle mode research makes a lot of sense for travelers, practitioners, enterprises, and society. Ride-hailing platforms choosing the aggregation model may greatly save costs to obtain new flow. Similarly, the aggregation platform needs only to coordinate, integrate, linkage of such external services, to attract consumers. By fully aggregating the existing capacity in the ride-hailing market, it can effectively reduce vehicle idleness, bringing about more improvement in urban travel. If the aggregation model is not well received, dozens of ride-hailing platforms are frantically developing their own apps and subsidies, and throwing the industry and society into chaos. The aggregation model, to a large extent, can improve the viscosity of users. However, for aggregation platforms, by providing high-frequency life services to consumers who are closely related to users, the user stickiness to large platforms may increase user usage and enhance the possibility that other platforms will be replaced. This increased user stickiness has an impact on user retention and activity of ride-hailing platforms.

This paper provides an analytical framework for ride-hailing and aggregation platforms through two Stackelberg games in the vertical, where the driver group serves both platforms on the service level and the platforms as leaders dictate the order prices for the driver group. We set up a Nash equilibrium in the horizontal between the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform to obtain optimal prices. We also analyze two pairs of parameters for the change in platform profits, namely, the cost coefficients of service level and costs.

There is little literature on bundle mode for ride-hailing and aggregation platforms, and even less research on models. This paper aims to fill this research gap in pricing and multi-channel layouts of ride-hailing and aggregation platforms. The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- (1) We dictate that the bundle service on pricing is common in practice, but it has not yet received sufficient research attention. This paper focuses on the reactions in terms of prices and profits when the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform involve the bundle service.
- (2) Observing that the ride-hailing platform is gaining increasing orders in the bundle mode, we consider a framework in which the driver group provides services to the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform respectively. Each platform serves as a leader in determining the price and influencing service level decisions for the driver group. We focus on the effect of introducing bundle services on direct selling. In addition, an equilibrium between the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform is explored to maximize their profits.
- (3) For ride-hailing platforms, to adopt or not to adopt the bundle option is a key in introducing the bundle service. One main difference between unbundled and bundled formats is that there is an additional price, whereas in the bundle option it is decided by the ride-hailing platform, but needs to share a certain fraction of the revenue with the aggregation platform for providing access. We test two groups of parameters (two cost coefficients of service levels and two costs) and obtain boundary lines of profit competition between the ride-hailing and aggregation platforms.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews some recent studies on pricing and service level modes, slotting fees and revenue sharing, and game models. Section 3 introduces the bundle mode, basis notations and assumptions. Section 4 describes the decision-making process for ride-hailing and aggregation platforms, as well as the Nash equilibrium between these platforms. Section 5 gives some examples and numerical analysis. Finally, Section 6 gives some conclusions and future work.

#### 2. Literature review

In this section, we describe the relationship between this research and some related streams of literature, which include pricing and service level modes, slotting fees and revenue-sharing, and game models.

### 2.1 Pricing and service level modes

This research belongs to a specific stream of pricing strategies. Interestingly, dynamic or surge pricing is controversial and has been questioned by riders, drivers, scholars, and policymakers. In contrast, the research by Banerjee et al. (2015) studies a pricing problem through a queueing-theoretic economic model. They show that dynamic pricing does not provide more payoff than static pricing with a large market limit. Research on this problem proceeds from the price differences between a conventional retailer channel and a direct online channel (Huang & Swaminathan, 2009; Matsui, 2017). A key distinction between no bundle and bundle formats is that there is an additional price, whereas in the bundle option they are decided by the ride-hailing platform, but that price is available on the aggregation platform. On the other hand, there is few research on non-discriminating pricing policy by manufacturers (Fruchter & Tapiero, 2005). Additionally, service level plays a strategic role in a dual-channel competitive market. Retail services have significant effects on customers' channel choice, demand, and loyalty (Littler & Melanthiou, 2006; Yan & Pei, 2011). Dumrongsiri et al. (2008) show that an increase in retailer's service quality may raise manufacturer's profit in dual-channel and consumer service sensitivity may benefit both parties in the dual-channel.

### 2.2 Slotting fees and revenue-sharing

Slotting fees and revenue-sharing contracts are two pricing instruments on aggregation platforms. Generally speaking, slotting fees are one-time charges that manufacturers pay to place their products on retail shelves. In this paper, the platform usage fee's analogy to slotting fee seems very appropriate. Bloom et al. (2000) summarize two earlier viewpoints regarding the role of slotting fees: product quality (Lariviere & Padmanabhan, 1997; Sullivan, 1997) and empty shelves (Marx & Shaffer, 2010). More recently, a new viewpoint argues that slotting fees arise from the operational costs or vertical margin differences (Dhar, 2013; Kuksov & Pazgal, 2007). In China's electronics retail market, slotting fees have long been criticized for creating unfair competition (Wang et al., 2012). Li (2009) analyzes various formats and origins of slotting fees in retail business. Moreover, the fixed-ratio revenue-sharing contract is the most common scheme studied so far to solve the profit assignment problem (Bart et al., 2021; Giannoccaro & Pontrandolfo, 2004). Wang et al. (2004) study the revenue-sharing contract between Amazon and its sellers on its platform, but they ignore slotting fees and the sellers can directly sell their products. Intuitively, slotting fees in our case are to cover the cost of a mini-store in the retail platform.

# 2.3 Stackelberg game and Nash equilibrium

Several studies indicate that the game schemes have a greater impact on competition outcomes and supply chain performance. In this paper, we consider two types of game schemes, namely, the Stackelberg game and Nash game. The Nash game allows us to deal with another supply-chain structure, in which the supplier and the retailer are equally powerful. Mixed equilibrium has been proposed as a consequence to study the equilibration behavior of multiple players in the ride-hailing system (Ban et al., 2019; Di & Ban, 2019). The Stackelberg game depicts a common supply chain system in reality, in which the platform is more powerful than the driver group. Many studies on pricing strategies have bi-level programs to assess the effects of transportation policies on traffic flows and system performance. Commonly, the decisions made by policy-makers or operators reside in the upper-level, and travelers respond through an equilibrate adjustment process in the lower-level (Yang & Bell, 2001). The Stackelberg game provides a good perspective to integrate the ride-hailing platform and users (both drivers and riders) in the transportation system. The diversity of objective functions varied in response to different decisions. The main reason for minimizing the total generalized travel costs rather than maximizing the overall occupancy ratio or minimizing the total number of solo drivers is that the latter two objectives may result in several optimal solutions, which does not help with decision-making (Di et al., 2018; Yang & Bell, 1997; Zhao et al., 2016).

# 3. Basic setting

In this section, we give a rough picture of the bundle mode. Notations and some assumptions as the basis of this paper are also introduced.

# 3.1. Model description

The order sales system consists of a ride-hailing platform, an aggregation platform, and a driver group. Price and service level are core factors interacting among those three stakeholders. There are two Stackelberg games where the driver group serves each platform respectively on the service levels and each platform as a leader dictates the order prices for the driver group. The two platforms aim at a Nash equilibrium to obtain optimal prices, as illustrated in Fig. 1.

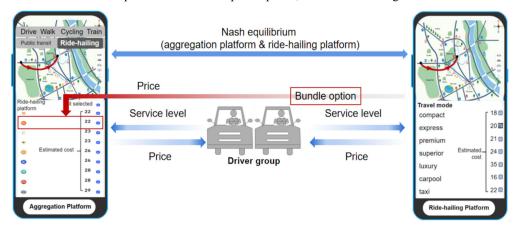


Fig. 1. Structure of the bundle mode

The ride-hailing platform bundles its partial business to the aggregation platform. On the basis that both platforms keep the original channel with the driver, there is an additional sales channel established by the aggregation platform to provide orders for the ride-hailing platform. A Stackelberg game is built to capture prices of the bundle channel and the direct channel jointly for the ride-hailing platform in the upper-level and the service levels by the driver group in the lower-level. Another Stackelberg game between the aggregation platform (leader) and the driver group (follower) determines the price in the upper-

level and the service levels in the lower-level. The aggregation platform charges the ride-hailing platform commission and slotting fees. The competition between two platforms is formulated by a Nash game.

### 3.2. Assumptions

We make the following assumptions as the basis of this paper:

- A1: The marginal cost of the order is zero.
- A2: All orders from the ride-hailing platform are homogeneous.
- A3: The drivers service both the aggregation platform and the ride-hailing platform.

The assumption A1 literally describes a situation where an additional unit can be produced without increasing the total cost of production. Offering another unit of an order has zero marginal cost when the order is non-rivalrous, which means it is possible for a rider to get an order without impairing the ability of others to simultaneously consume it as well. A2 indicates that the ride-hailing platform offers the same orders through the aggregation platform and its own channel. A3 means that drivers are multi-homing for both the aggregation platform and the ride-hailing platform.

#### 4. Mathematical model

Assume that demand functions are linear in prices and service level, which have been widely adopted. That is, the order demand decreases with the rise of price and increases with the rise of service level on its own channel. Meanwhile, this demand grows with the rise of price and falls with the rise of service level on rival channels (Dan et al., 2012; Gurnani et al., 2007; Wei et al., 2020). Let  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  be the base demands of the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform, respectively. The parameter  $\alpha$  measures the price substitution of its own channel. The parameter  $\beta$  is the cross-price substitution of the rival channel. Besides, the parameter  $\gamma$  measures the demand sensitivity of its own service level. The parameter  $\delta$  measures the service level sensitivity of another platform. Suppose that  $0 \le \beta \le \alpha \le 1$  and  $0 \le \delta \le \gamma \le 1$ , where  $\alpha \ge \beta$  means that the ownership price effect is prior to the cross-price effect, while  $\gamma \ge \delta$  means that the ownership service level effect is prior to the cross-service level effect. In the bundle mode, the ride-hailing platform bundles onto the aggregation platform, which means that the ride-hailing platform is going to seize the market share from the aggregation platform. Let  $p_r$  and  $p_b$  be the prices of the direct and bundle channels of the ride-hailing platform, respectively. Let  $p_a$  be the price of the direct channel of the aggregation platform. Denote by  $s_r$  and  $s_a$  the driver group's service levels to the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform, respectively, with  $s_r, s_a \in [s_l, s_h]$ . Both  $p_b$  and  $p_r$  grow with the rise of  $s_r$  or the fall of  $s_a$ . Moreover, as  $s_a$  rises, the price  $p_a$  goes up, which results the decline of  $p_r$  to deal with this price competition. Thus, the demand function of the direct channel of the ride-hailing platform is given by

$$D_r = D_1 - \alpha p_r + \beta (p_h + p_g) + \gamma s_r - \delta s_g. \tag{1}$$

Let  $\theta \in [0,1]$  be the potential proportion of orders that the ride-hailing platform acquires from the aggregation platform. The smaller  $\theta$  is, the riders are more loyal to the aggregation platform. The base demand of the bundle channel of the ride-hailing platform is  $\theta D_2$ . Then, the demand function of the bundle channel of the ride-hailing platform is given by

$$D_b = \theta D_2 - \alpha p_b + \beta (p_r + p_a) + \gamma s_r - \delta s_a. \tag{2}$$

Thus, the total demand of the ride-hailing platform is  $D_r + D_b$ . Note that the base demand of the direct channel of the aggregation platform is  $(1 - \theta)D_2$ . Hence, the demand function of the aggregation platform is

$$D_a = (1 - \theta)D_2 - \alpha p_a + \beta(p_r + p_b) + \gamma s_a - \delta s_r. \tag{3}$$

Thus, the profit of the driver group from the ride-hailing platform is

$$w_r(p_r - c_r)D_r + w_r(p_h - c_r)D_h. (4)$$

Correspondingly, the profit of the driver group from the aggregation platform is

$$w_a(p_a - c_a)D_a. (5)$$

The driver group costs  $\eta_r s_r^2/2$  and  $\eta_a s_a^2/2$  to obtain orders from the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform, respectively. Therefore, the utility of the driver group is

$$\pi_d = w_r(p_r - c_r)D_r + w_r(p_b - c_r)D_b + w_a(p_a - c_a)D_a - \frac{1}{2}\eta_r s_r^2 - \frac{1}{2}\eta_a s_a^2.$$
(6)

For given prices  $p_r \ge c_r$ ,  $p_b \ge c_r$  and  $p_a \ge c_a$ , the driver group aims to obtain the optimal service levels by maximizing its utility. It is clear that  $\pi_d$  is jointly quadratic concave in  $s_r$  and  $s_a$ . Using the first-order optimality conditions, we obtain the optimal service level offered to the ride-hailing platform as

$$\bar{s}_r = \frac{\gamma}{\eta_r} \omega_r (p_r + p_b - 2c_r) - \frac{\delta}{\eta_r} \omega_a (p_a - c_a) \tag{7}$$

and the optimal service level offered to the aggregation platform as

$$\bar{s}_a = \frac{\gamma}{\eta_a} \omega_a (p_a - c_a) - \frac{\delta}{\eta_a} \omega_r (p_r + p_b - 2c_r). \tag{8}$$

We can further obtain

$$\frac{\partial \bar{s}_r}{\partial p_r} > 0, \quad \frac{\partial \bar{s}_r}{\partial p_b} > 0, \quad \frac{\partial \bar{s}_r}{\partial p_a} < 0, \\
\frac{\partial \bar{s}_a}{\partial p_r} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial \bar{s}_a}{\partial p_b} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial \bar{s}_a}{\partial p_a} > 0.$$
(9)

These results indicate that, the driver group's best response service level for the ride-hailing platform increases with the rise of  $p_r$  or  $p_b$ , and decreases with the rise of  $p_a$ . A rise in price prompts the platform to improve its service level for the lack of demand. Accordingly, it is necessary to enhance the service level covering a previous shortage of the profit. On the contrary,  $p_b$ ,  $p_r$  increase with the little fall in  $\bar{s}_a$  and  $p_a$  increases with the decline in  $\bar{s}_r$ . A rise in price of the rival platform brings about the demand of its platform growing accordingly, which also boosts the profit. For the service level set by the platform, it does not need to be as high as before to attract rider flows. Thus, we update the demand functions as

$$\overline{D}_r = D_1 - \alpha p_r + \beta (p_b + p_a) + \gamma \overline{s}_r - \delta \overline{s}_a, \tag{11}$$

$$\overline{D}_{h} = \theta D_{2} - \alpha p_{h} + \beta (p_{a} + p_{r}) + \gamma \overline{s}_{r} - \delta \overline{s}_{a}, \tag{12}$$

$$\overline{D}_b = \theta D_2 - \alpha p_b + \beta (p_a + p_r) + \gamma \overline{s}_r - \delta \overline{s}_a, 
\overline{D}_a = (1 - \theta) D_2 - \alpha p_a + \beta (p_r + p_b) + \gamma \overline{s}_a - \delta \overline{s}_r.$$
(12)

When the ride-hailing platform bundles into the aggregation platform, they are simultaneously competitive and cooperative. The aggregation platform provides the channel for the ride-hailing platform to increase order volume and increases its revenue by charging the revenue commission and slotting fees. Let  $\lambda \in (0,1)$  be the commission ratio. The revenue of the aggregation platform due to the transaction volume is  $\lambda p_b \overline{D}_b$ . Let  $\sigma \ge 0$  be the slotting fee including a fixed technical service fee and a fixed deposit. Since  $1 - w_r$  is the revenue sharing ratio for the ride-hailing platform, to determine the prices  $p_b$  and  $p_r$ , the ride-hailing platform's profit-maximization model is

$$\max_{p_r \ge c_r, \ p_b \ge c_r} \pi_r = (1 - w_r) \left( (p_r - c_r) \overline{D}_r + (p_b - c_r) \overline{D}_b \right) - \lambda p_b \overline{D}_b - \sigma. \tag{14}$$

Since the revenue sharing ratio of the aggregation platform is  $1 - w_a$ , the aggregation platform's profit-maximization model

$$\max_{p_a \ge c_a} \pi_a = (1 - w_a)(p_a - c_a)\overline{D}_a + \lambda p_b \overline{D}_b + \sigma. \tag{15}$$

In the competition between the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform, each platform selects its pricing policy in a non-cooperative manner, seeking to maximize its interests at a maximal profit until an equilibrium is achieved. Recall that a pricing policy  $(p_r^*, p_b^*, p_a^*)$  constitutes a Nash equilibrium if  $\pi_r(p_r^*, p_b^*, p_a^*) \ge \pi_r(p_r, p_b, p_a^*)$ ,  $\forall p_r, p_b \ge \pi_r(p_r, p_b, p_a^*)$  $c_r$ , and  $\pi_a(p_r^*, p_b^*, p_a^*) \ge \pi_a(p_r^*, p_b^*, p_a)$ ,  $\forall p_a \ge c_a$ .

In what follows, for simplicity, we denote by

$$K_1 = \gamma^2 / \eta_r + \delta^2 / \eta_a$$
,  $K_2 = \gamma \delta / \eta_r + \gamma \delta / \eta_a$ ,  $K_3 = \gamma^2 / \eta_a + \delta^2 / \eta_r$ , (16)

$$L_{1} = \frac{(1 - w_{r})(\alpha c_{a} - \beta c_{r} - 2K_{1}w_{r}c_{r}) - (1 - w_{r} - \lambda)(\theta D_{2} - 2K_{1}w_{r}c_{r} + K_{2}w_{a}c_{a})}{(1 - w_{r} - \lambda)(K_{2}w_{a} - \beta)},$$
(17)

$$L_2 = \frac{(\beta + K_1 w_r)(2 - 2w_r - \lambda)}{(1 - w_r - \lambda)(K_2 w_c - \beta)},$$
(18)

$$(1 - w_1)(R - K_1 w_1 + 2I_1(K_1 w_1 - g_1)) \tag{19}$$

$$L_{3} = \frac{(1 - w_{a})(\beta - K_{2}w_{r} + 2L_{2}(K_{3}w_{a} - \alpha))}{(1 - w_{a})(K_{2}w_{r} - \beta + 2L_{4}(\alpha - K_{3}w_{a})) + \lambda(K_{2}w_{a} - \beta)'}$$

$$L_4 = \frac{2(K_1 w_r - \alpha)}{K_2 w_a - \beta},\tag{20}$$

$$L_{5} = \frac{(1 - w_{a})((1 - \theta)D_{2} + \alpha(c_{a} - 2L_{1}) + 2K_{2}w_{r}c_{r} + 2(L_{1} - c_{a})K_{3}w_{a})}{(1 - w_{a})(K_{2}w_{r} - \beta + 2L_{4}(\alpha - K_{3}w_{a})) + \lambda(K_{2}w_{a} - \beta)}.$$
(21)

We further make the following assumption.

**Assumption 1**. 
$$\lambda < 1 - w_r$$
,  $\alpha > \max \left\{ \frac{2 - 2w_r - 3\lambda/2}{4(1 - w_r - \lambda)} + K_1 w_r, 4(\beta + K_1 w_r)^2 + K_1 w_r, K_3 w_a \right\}$ 

**Proposition 1**. Under Assumption 1, the optimal prices of the direct channel of the ride-hailing platform, the bundle channel, and the direct channel of the aggregation platform are respectively given by

$$p_r^* = ((1 - w_r)(D_1 + \alpha c_r - \beta c_r - 4K_1w_rc_r + K_2w_ac_a) + L_5(2 - 2w_r - \lambda)(\beta + K_1w_r)$$

$$+ (1 - w_r)(\beta - K_2w_a)(L_1 + L_2L_5 + L_4L_5 + L_3L_4L_5))$$

$$/(L_3(\beta + K_1w_r)(2w_r - \lambda - 2) + 2(1 - w_r)(\alpha - K_1w_r)$$

$$+ L_3(1 - w_r)(L_2 + L_3L_4)(K_2w_a - \beta)),$$
(22)

and

$$p_h^* = L_5 + L_3 p_r^*, \quad p_a^* = L_1 + L_4 L_5 + (L_2 + L_3 L_4) p_r^*.$$
 (23)

Moreover, the service levels provided by the driver group to the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform are respectively given by

$$s_r^* = \frac{\gamma}{\eta_r} w_r (L_5 + (L_3 + 1)p_r^* - 2c_r) - \frac{\delta}{\eta_r} w_a (L_1 + L_4 L_5 + (L_2 + L_3 L_4)p_r^* - c_a), \tag{24}$$

$$s_r^* = \frac{\gamma}{\eta_a} w_a (L_1 + L_4 L_5 + (L_2 + L_3 L_4) p_r^* - c_a) - \frac{\delta}{\eta_a} w_r (L_5 + (L_3 + 1) p_r^* - 2c_r).$$
 (25)

**Proof.** First of all, we can show that  $\pi_r$  is jointly quadratic concave in  $p_r$  and  $p_b$ , while  $\pi_a$  is quadratic concave in  $p_a$ . In fact, the Hessian matrix of  $\pi_r$  with respect to  $p_b$  and  $p_r$  is

$$\partial^2 \pi_r = \begin{bmatrix} 2(1 - w_r)(K_1 w_r - \alpha) & (2 - 2w_r - \lambda)(\beta + K_1 w_r) \\ (2 - 2w_r - \lambda)(\beta + K_1 w_r) & 2(1 - w_r - \lambda)(K_1 w_r - \alpha) \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (26)

The first order principal minor of Hessian matrix  $2(1-w_r)(K_1w_r-\alpha)<0$ . By Assumption 1, we have  $(4\alpha-4K_1w_r-1)(1-w_r-\lambda)>1-w_r-\frac{\lambda}{2}>0$  and  $1-w_r>1-w_r-\frac{\lambda}{2}>0$ . Then, we have

$$(4\alpha - 4K_1w_r - 1)(1 - w_r - \lambda)(1 - w_r) > \left(1 - w_r - \frac{\lambda}{2}\right)^2,\tag{27}$$

which implies  $4(1-w_r)(\alpha-K_1w_r)(1-w_r-\lambda) > (4\alpha-4K_1w_r-1)(1-w_r-\lambda)(1-w_r) > \left(1-w_r-\frac{\lambda}{2}\right)^2$ . Since  $\alpha-K_1w_r > 4(\beta+K_1w_r)^2$ , we have

$$4(1 - w_r)(\alpha - K_1 w_r)^2 (1 - w_r - \lambda) - (2 - 2w_r - \lambda)^2 (\beta + K_1 w_r)^2 > 0.$$
(28)

Thus, the Hessian matrix of  $\pi_r$  with respect to  $p_b$  and  $p_r$  is a negative definite matrix, which means that  $\pi_r$  is concave in  $p_b, p_r$ . Furthermore, since

$$\nabla_{p_a} \pi_a = (1 - w_a)((1 - \theta)D_2 - 2\alpha p_a + \alpha c_a + \beta (p_r + p_b) - K_2 w_r (p_r + p_b - 2c_r)$$

$$+2K_3 w_a (p_a - c_a)) + \lambda p_b (\beta - K_2 w_a).$$
(29)

The Hessian matrix of  $\pi_a$  with respect to the variable  $p_a$  is  $\partial_{p_a}^2 \pi_a = 2(1 - w_a)(K_3 w_a - \alpha) < 0$ . Hence,  $\pi_a$  is a concave function with respect to  $p_a$ .

The above result indicates that both platforms' models are convex optimization problems, which means that their stationary points are necessarily optimal solutions. By direct calculations, we can obtain the conclusion.

Denote by

$$\overline{p}_r = ((1 - w_r)(D_1 + \alpha c_r + \beta(p_a + 2p_b - c_r) + 2K_1 w_r(p_b - 2c_r) - K_2 w_a(p_a - c_a)) - \lambda(K_1 w_r + \beta))/(2(1 - w_r)(p_a - k_1 w_r))$$
(30)

$$-w_r)(\alpha - K_1 w_r),$$

$$\overline{p}_b = ((1 - w_r)(\theta D_2 + \alpha c_r + \beta (p_a + 2p_r - c_r) + 2K_1 w_r (p_r - 2c_r) - K_2 w_a (p_a - c_a)) - \lambda (K_1 w_r - \alpha))/(-(1 - w_r)(2\alpha + 2K_1 w_r))$$

$$\frac{-w_r)(3\alpha + 2K_1w_r)}{\overline{p}_a} = ((1 - w_a)((1 - \theta)D_2 - 2(\alpha - w_aK_3)p_a + (\alpha - 2w_aK_3)c_a + (\beta - K_2w_r)(p_r + p_b) + 2K_2w_rc_r)) + \lambda p_b(\beta - K_2w_a))/(2(1 - w_a)(\alpha - w_aK_3)).$$
(32)

Under the assumption that  $\beta < \min\{K_2w_a, K_2w_r\}$ , we have following results: If  $c_r \le p_r < \overline{p}_r$ , then  $\partial \pi_r^*/\partial p_r > 0$ ; if  $p_r > \overline{p}_r$ , then  $\partial \pi_r^*/\partial p_r < 0$ . Furthermore, if  $c_r \le p_b < \overline{p}_b$ , then  $\partial \pi_r^*/\partial p_b > 0$ ; if  $p_b > \overline{p}_b$ , then  $\partial \pi_r^*/\partial p_b < 0$ . Moreover, if  $0 \le p_b + p_r - 2c_r \le \lambda/(1-w_r) < 1$ , then  $\partial \pi_r^*/\partial p_a > 0$ ; if  $p_r + p_b - 2c_r \le \lambda/(1-w_r) < 1$ , then  $\partial \pi_r^*/\partial p_a < 0$ . On the other hand, we have  $\partial \pi_a^*/\partial p_r < 0$  and  $\partial \pi_a^*/\partial p_r < 0$ . If  $c_a \le p_a < \overline{p}_a$ , then  $\partial \pi_a^*/\partial p_a > 0$ ; if  $p_a > \overline{p}_a$ , then  $\partial \pi_a^*/\partial p_a < 0$ .

The above results show that the ride-hailing platform's profit always decreases with increasing  $p_a$  and the aggregation platform's profit always decreases with the rise of rival channel prices  $p_r$  and  $p_b$ . With the rise of  $p_r$  and  $p_b$ , the profit of the ride-hailing platform grows and peaks at  $\overline{p}_r$  and  $\overline{p}_b$ , followed by the declining profit instead. Similarly, with the increase of  $p_a$ , the profit of the aggregation platform grows and peaks at  $\overline{p}_a$ , followed by the decreasing profit instead.

# 5. Numerical results and analysis

In this section, we analyze the impacts of the following two pairs of parameters on the bundle mode for the ride-hailing platform and the aggregation platform through numerical experiments:

- (i)  $\eta_r$  and  $\eta_a$ : cost coefficients of service level provided for two platforms;
- (ii)  $c_r$  and  $c_a$ : cost prices of two platforms.

For clarity, in the figures given below, we use the blue legend color to represent the ride-hailing platform and the green legend color to represent the aggregation platform. We tested some combinations of parameters of the ride-hailing platform with the change of the demand scale  $\theta$ . For figures with obvious rules, we summarize some results of critical points and boundaries under some specific parameters setting. All numerical tests were performed in MATLAB.

5.1 Cost coefficients of service levels

In our experiments, we set  $\alpha = 0.8$ ,  $\beta = 0.2$ ,  $\gamma = 0.5$ ,  $\delta = 0.15$ ,  $w_r = 0.7$ ,  $w_a = 0.7$ ,  $c_r = 8$ ,  $c_a = 8$ ,  $\lambda = 0.1$ ,  $\sigma = 50$ ,  $D_1 = 200$ , and  $D_2 = 300$ . The numerical results for the cost coefficients of service levels in ride-hailing and aggregation platforms respectively, the boundaries and critical points of the profit for both platforms are shown in Fig. 2.

A three-dimensional surface plot can be created in Fig. 2, where the blue grid surface fills the ride-hailing platform and the green face grid surface fills the aggregation platform. The function plots the values in platforms' profits ( $\pi_r$  and  $\pi_a$ ) as heights above a grid in the  $\eta_r - \eta_a$  plane, where  $\eta_r$  and  $\eta_a$  are both on the ranges of [1, 50] with one unit step. Projecting grid surfaces, the color with the greater profit will cover the other color.

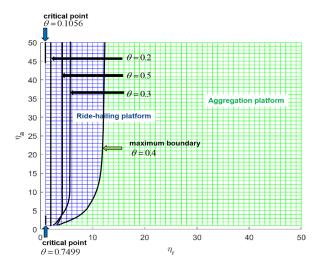


Fig. 2. Profits of both platforms with different combinations of  $\eta_r$  and  $\eta_a$ 

We draw six boundaries between the green and the blue with the growth of  $\theta$ . It can be observed that the blue line starts to appear on the  $\eta_r - \eta_a$  plane (i.e.,  $\eta_r = 1, \eta_a = 50$ ) and the critical point is  $\theta = 0.1056$ . The blue area gradually expands as  $\theta$  rises, which is the largest at  $\theta = 0.4$  and disappears at  $\theta = 0.7499$ . Starting from the critical point  $\theta = 0.2992$ , a small change of the demand percentage  $\theta$  will bring more profits to the ride-hailing platform. The more demand the ride-hailing platform obtains from the aggregation platform, the less profit it gets when bundled with the aggregation platform. This may be explained by the revenue sharing so that the ride-hailing platform pays more with the increasing demand.

# 5.2 Cost prices of two platforms

The other parameters were set as  $\alpha = 0.8$ ,  $\beta = 0.2$ ,  $\gamma = 0.5$ ,  $\delta = 0.15$ ,  $w_r = 0.7$ ,  $w_a = 0.7$ ,  $\eta_r = 48$ ,  $\eta_a = 40$ ,  $\lambda = 0.1$ ,  $\sigma = 50$ ,  $D_1 = 200$ , and  $D_2 = 300$ . The numerical results for the boundaries of the differences of profits for two platforms are shown in Fig. 3.

Projecting grid surfaces onto the  $c_r - c_a$  plane in Fig. 3, the color with the greater profit will cover the other color. We draw boundaries between the green and the blue with the changes of  $\theta$ . The locations where the blue starts and disappears on the  $c_r - c_a$  plane are both on  $c_r = 5$ ,  $c_a = 20$ , which correspond to the critical point  $\theta = 0.234$  and  $\theta = 0.573$ , respectively. To be specific, as the rise of  $\theta$  beginning at 0.234, the area of the blue gradually expands at the maximum region with  $\theta = 0.405$ , followed by the progressively smaller areas until the blue disappears at  $\theta = 0.573$ .

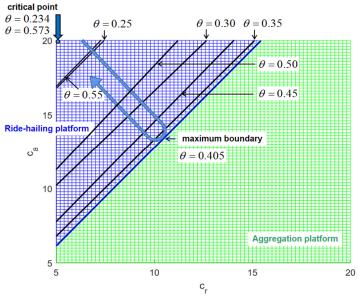


Fig. 3. Profits of both platforms with different combinations of  $c_r$  and  $c_a$ 

The change rate of  $\theta$  is inconsistent with the one of the intercept of boundary on the  $c_a$  axis. The ride-hailing platform reduces costs to gain more profits than the aggregation platform. If  $\theta$  is within [0, 0.234) or (0.573, 1], the aggregation platform always has more profits than the ride-hailing platform. If  $\theta$  is within [0.234, 0.573], under some conditions, the ride-hailing

platform has more profits in competition with the aggregation platform (for example, when  $\theta = 0.405$ , the ride-hailing platform chose cost  $c_r$  if  $c_r < 0.7536c_a + 0.3275$ ).

#### 6. Conclusions

We have presented an analytical framework for ride-hailing platforms under bundle mode, where the ride-hailing and aggregation platforms serve as leaders and the driver group serves as follower and, on the other hand, the two platforms play a Nash game. We have analyzed the impact of two pairs of parameters on profit, namely, the cost coefficients of service levels provided for the platforms and their cost prices. We have obtained some interesting managerial insights on pricing of ride-hailing and aggregation platforms by comprehensive numerical experiments and results analysis.

In the future, we will study the ride-hailing platforms with elastic travel demands. In the early study on aggregation platforms, accepting bundle services has always been a right choice for ride-hailing platforms. However, when many more platforms settle in, the demands allocated to ride-hailing platforms by aggregation platforms decrease generally, which will inevitably lead to competition formed by ride-hailing platforms within aggregation platforms. Moreover, as aggregation platforms increase, it is worth considering the number of bundled ride-hailing platforms introduced to aggregation platforms. Revenue-sharing contracts, commissions, and slotting fees rather than prices, are also worth studying.

# Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 11901380, 12071280) and Shanghai Pujiang Program (No. 2020PJC058).

#### References

- Ban, X.G., Dessouky, M., Pang, J.S., & Fan, R. (2019). A general equilibrium model for transportation systems with e-hailing services and flow congestion. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, 129, 273–304.
- Banerjee, S., Johari, R., & Riquelme, C. (2015). Pricing in ride-sharing platforms: a queueing-theoretic approach. *In Proceedings of the Sixteenth ACM Conference on Economics and Computation (pp. 639–639). ACM.*
- Bart, N., Chernonog, T., & Avinadav, T. (2021). Revenue-sharing contracts in supply chains: a comprehensive literature review. *International Journal of Production Research*, 59, 6633–6658.
- Bloom, P. N., Gundlach, G. T., & Cannon, J. P. (2000). Slotting allowances and fees: Schools of thought and the views of practicing managers. *Journal of Marketing*, 64(2), 92-108.
- Dan, B., Xu, G., & Liu, C. (2012). Pricing policies in a dual-channel supply chain with retail services. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 139(1), 312-320.
- Dhar, T. (2013). Can margin differences in vertical marketing channels lead to contracts with slotting fees?. *Management Science*, 59(12), 2766-2771.
- Di, X., & Ban, X. J. (2019). A unified equilibrium framework of new shared mobility systems. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, 129, 50-78.
- Di, X., Ma, R., Liu, H. X., & Ban, X. J. (2018). A link-node reformulation of ridesharing user equilibrium with network design. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, 112, 230-255.
- Dumrongsiri, A., Fan, M., Jain, A., & Moinzadeh, K. (2008). A supply chain model with direct and retail channels. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 187(3), 691-718.
- Fruchter, G. E., & Tapiero, C. S. (2005). Dynamic online and offline channel pricing for heterogeneous customers in virtual acceptance. *International Game Theory Review*, 7(02), 137-150.
- Fruchter, G. E., & Tapiero, C. S. (2005). Dynamic online and offline channel pricing for heterogeneous customers in virtual acceptance. *International Game Theory Review*, 7(02), 137-150.
- Gurnani, H., Erkoc, M., & Luo, Y. (2007). Impact of product pricing and timing of investment decisions on supply chain coopetition. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 180(1), 228-248.
- Huang, W., & Swaminathan, J. M. (2009). Introduction of a second channel: Implications for pricing and profits. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 194(1), 258-279.
- Kuksov, D., & Pazgal, A. (2007). Research note—the effects of costs and competition on slotting allowances. *Marketing Science*, 26(2), 259-267.
- Lariviere, M. A., & Padmanabhan, V. (1997). Slotting allowances and new product introductions. *Marketing Science*, 16(2), 112-128.
- Li, J. (2009). An analysis framework to the reason of slotting allowance-based on the research of the retailers' profit-making model in china. *Chinese Journal of Management*, *6*, 1691–1695.
- Littler, D., & Melanthiou, D. (2006). Consumer perceptions of risk and uncertainty and the implications for behaviour towards innovative retail services: the case of internet banking. *Journal of retailing and consumer services*, 13(6), 431-443.
- Marx, L. M., & Shaffer, G. (2010). Slotting allowances and scarce shelf space. *Journal of Economics & Management Strategy*, 19(3), 575-603.

- Matsui, K. (2017). When should a manufacturer set its direct price and wholesale price in dual-channel supply chains?. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 258(2), 501-511.
- Sullivan, M. W. (1997). Slotting allowances and the market for new products. *The Journal of Law and Economics*, 40(2), 461-494.
- Wang, Y. Y., Lau, H. S., & Wang, J. C. (2012). Defending and improving the 'slotting fee': how it can benefit all the stakeholders dealing with a newsvendor product with price and effort-dependent demand. *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, 63(12), 1731-1751.
- Wang, Y., Jiang, L., & Shen, Z. J. (2004). Channel performance under consignment contract with revenue sharing. *Management science*, 50(1), 34-47.
- Wei, J., Lu, J., & Zhao, J. (2020). Interactions of competing manufacturers' leader-follower relationship and sales format on online platforms. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 280(2), 508-522.
- Yan, R., & Pei, Z. (2009). Retail services and firm profit in a dual-channel market. *Journal of retailing and consumer services*, 16(4), 306-314.
- Yan, R., & Pei, Z. (2011). Information asymmetry, pricing strategy and firm's performance in the retailer-multi-channel manufacturer supply chain. *Journal of Business Research*, 64(4), 377-384.
- Yang, H., & Bell, M. G. (2001). Transport bilevel programming problems: recent methodological advances. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, 35(1), 1-4.
- Yang, H., & Bell, M. G. (1997). Traffic restraint, road pricing and network equilibrium. Transportation Research Part B: Methodological, 31(4), 303-314.
- Zhao, L., Xu, X., Gao, H. O., Wang, J., & Xie, Y. (2016). A bi-level model for GHG emission charge based on a continuous distribution of travelers' value of time (VOT). *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment*, 47, 371-382.



© 2022 by the authors; licensee Growing Science, Canada. This is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC-BY) license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).