



Civil Aviation Co-operation Project  
中国 - 欧盟民用航空合作项目

EU-CHINA CIVIL AVIATION  
CO-OPERATION  
CONSOLIDATION PROJECT

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## Part II

# Airline Pricing

*Christophe BONTEMPS*

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## AIRLINE PRICING

- General pricing principles
  - the role of prices
  - consumer surplus
  - price discrimination
- Yield management
  - definition and basics
  - prices and price discrimination
  - fare classes management

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## General pricing principles

# Basic economic principles, price discrimination

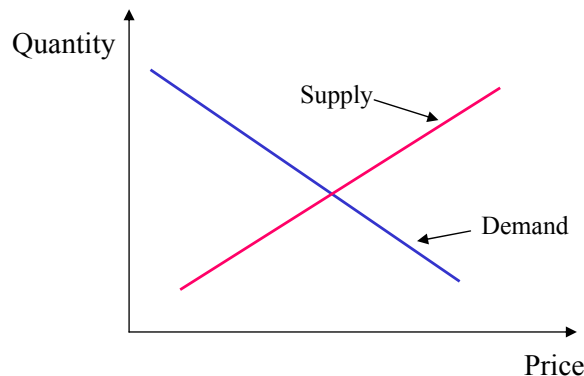
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## Prices ? What for ?

- To adjust demand and supply



- Example : Prices varying with time can be used to adjust a moving demand to a rigid (limited) supply

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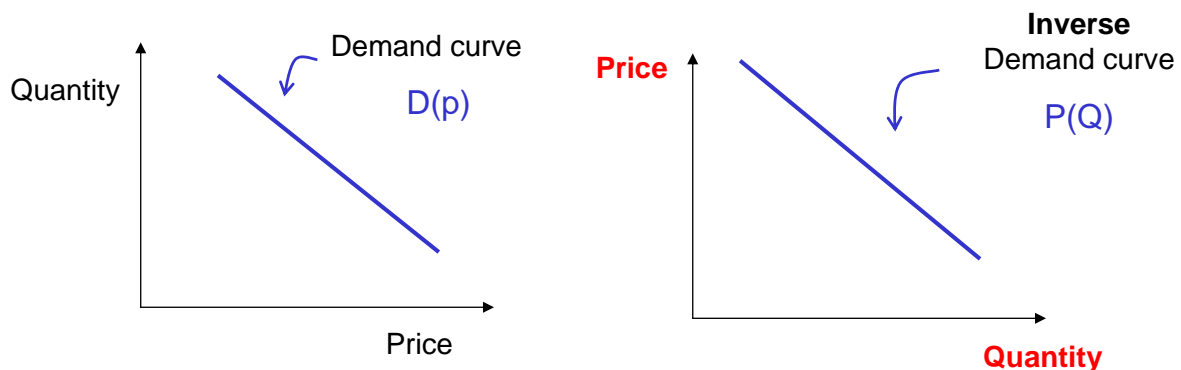


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## *A simple case : homogenous good and unique price*

- Consider a good with no variation in its composition nor its quality (homogenous)
- Suppose there is a unique price for this good on the market : The seller cannot discriminate among customers and change the price according to their purchasing power
  - This is the case for most goods, with a labeled price

## *Demand curve and inverse demand*



## Price and perfect competition

- **Assume that** each producer has a no influence on the price  $p^*$ .
  - he is a « *price-taker* »
- The producer chooses his production level  $Q^*$  in order to maximize his profit :

$$\text{Max } \Pi(Q) = p^* \times Q - c(Q)$$

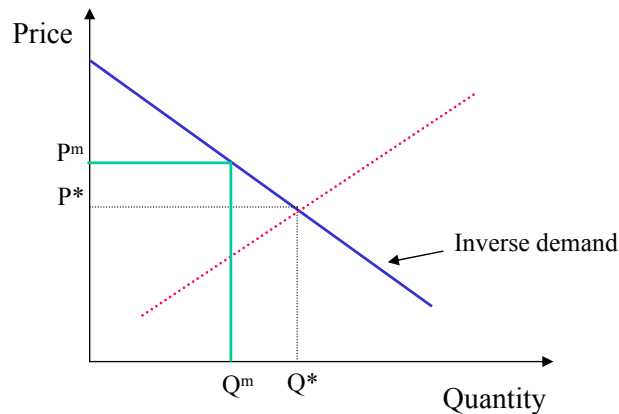
$$\text{thus: } c'(Q^*) = p^*$$

- The price on the market,  $p^*$ , is equal to the marginal cost of production

## Price and monopoly

- Consider the extreme case of a monopoly. The producer chooses its price  $p^m(Q)$  and its production  $Q^m$  as a function of the demand function
- $D(p)$ , is reverse to  $p(Q)$ 
$$\text{Max } \Pi(Q) = p^m(Q) \times Q - C(Q)$$
$$\text{so : } C'(Q^m) = p^m(Q) + p^{m'}(Q^m) \times Q^m$$
- The marginal cost is equal to the marginal revenue
- The price is higher and the quantity produced lower.

## Price and monopoly



One can show that :  $p^m > p^*$   
 $Q^m < Q^*$   
 and  $\Pi(Q^m) > \Pi(Q^*)$

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## Price and imperfect competition

- In a case of limited competition (restricted number of producers), the situation lies between the previous cases :
  - Each producer has some flexibility (limited by other producers) for defining its price
- The price lies between the previous prices.

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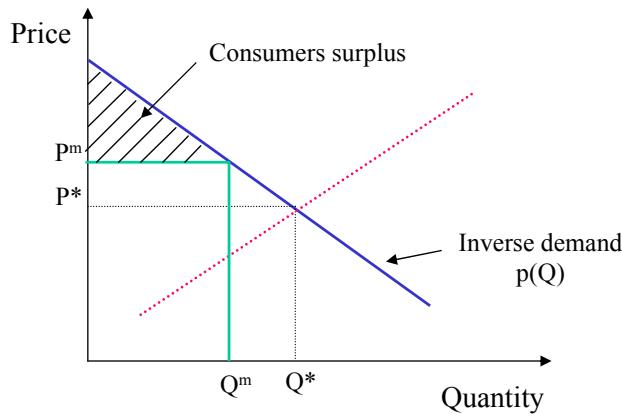


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## Consumers surplus



The “*consumers surplus*” is the area lying between the price paid and the inverse demand curve. This is a measure of the consumers “*welfare*” .

The surplus is higher under perfect competition : A firm with a market power tries to extract the consumers rent.

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## Complex case: heterogeneous goods and/or price discrimination

- There may be difference in the composition or in the quality of the goods (or services), leading to a price discrimination
- There may be price discrimination with homogenous goods in the case where firms are allowed to discriminate among their customers.
- The aims are :
  - surplus extraction (private sector)
  - redistribution (government social measures)

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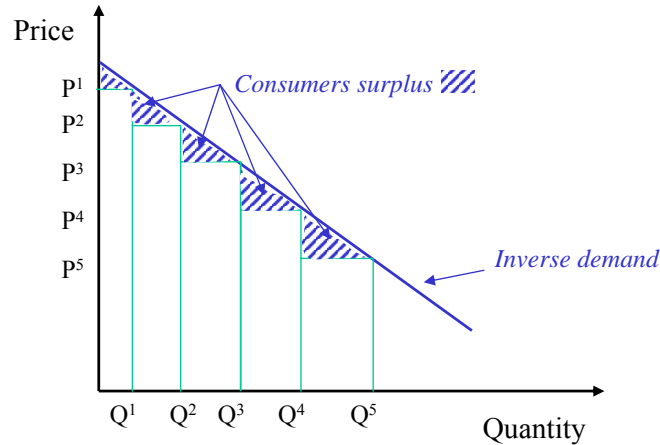
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## Surplus extraction

- By setting different prices for different quantities, the producer may extract some money to the consumers surplus



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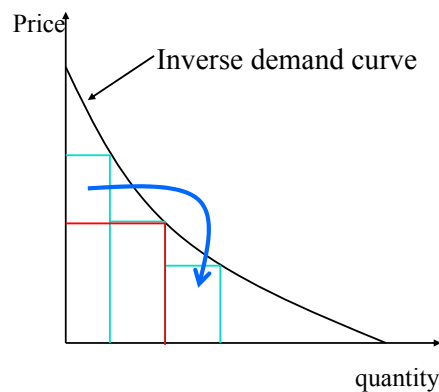
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## Redistribution

Part of the money extracted from the surplus by setting higher prices for some consumers can be used to define lower prices for others



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## Price discrimination : definition

There is price “discrimination” if the differences in the prices paid by two customers are not justified by the costs differences for the service or the good

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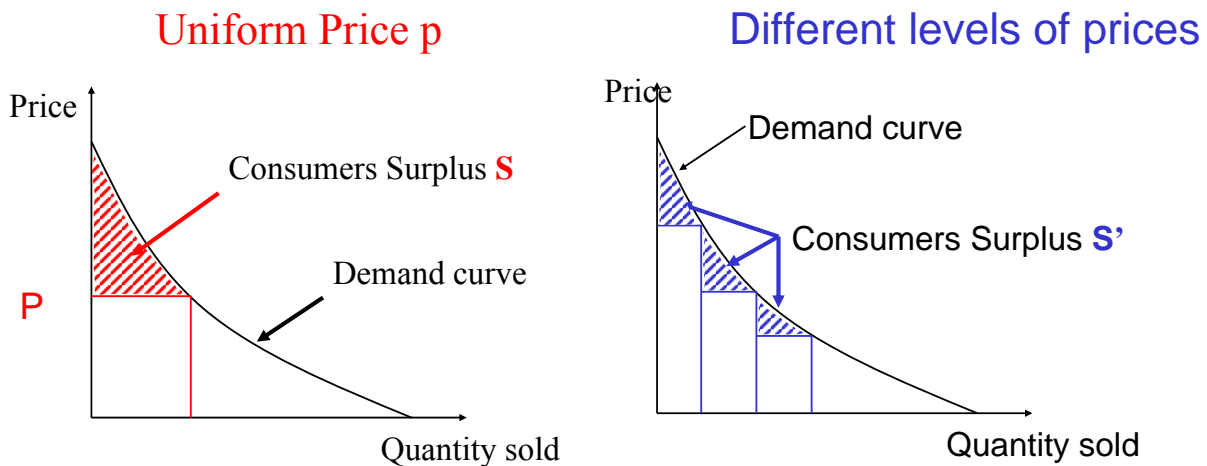


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## Price discrimination : illustration



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## *Price discrimination: conditions*

Conditions :

- The firm must have a sufficient market power (monopoly or oligopoly)
- Few trade possibility between customers
  - The good is non resalable between customers
- The consumers preferences must be different

## *Three types of price discrimination*

- 1st degree : Perfect discrimination
  - Theoretical case where the willingness to pay is perfectly known
- 2nd degree : discrimination using filtering and auto-selection.
  - *Ex*: Quantity rebates
- 3rd degree : discrimination using signals on consumers preferences
  - *Ex* : Discount for students, family, etc.

## Price discrimination : Consequences

- The firms extracts parts of the consumers surplus.
- The global effect on the total welfare is not clear
  - The surplus is extracted
  - Results in different prices allowing people with less WTP to travel
- Very often, there is a redistribution from the consumers with a low price elasticity (high revenues) to the consumers with a high price elasticity (low revenues)
  - The surplus variation depends on the quantity produced.

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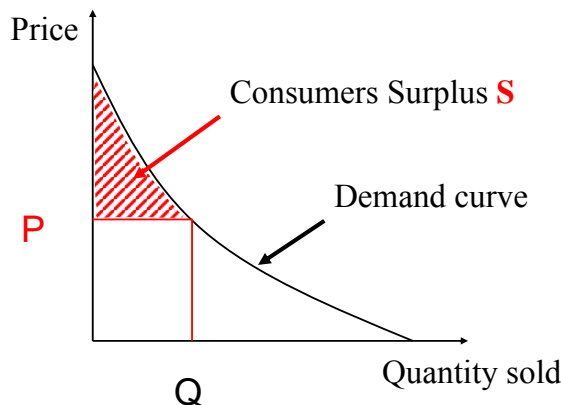
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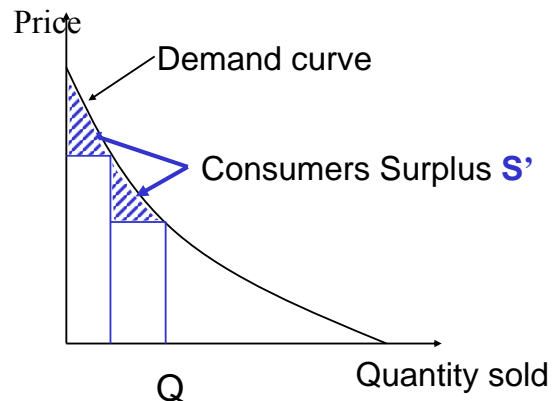
## The consumers surplus is lower...

$$S > S'$$

Uniform Price  $p$



Different levels of prices



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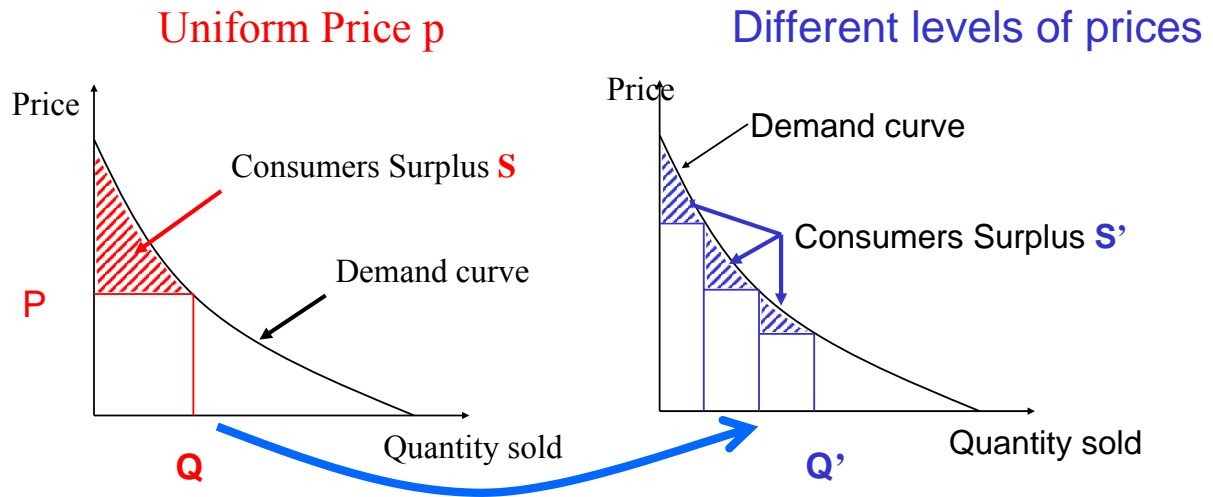


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## ...unless the quantity produced is changed



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## Price discrimination and quality

- One shows that the quality provided for people with the lowest quality valuation is lowered: the firm use the lowest quality goods to segment the market

“What the company is trying to do is prevent the passengers who can pay the second-class ticket fare from traveling third-class; It harms the poor, not because it wants to hurt them but to frighten the rich.”

(Dupuit 1849)

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## Price discrimination in practice

- Very popular in transportation
  - Motorway tariffs: the cars pay for the trucks (Political decision)
  - Airline and railway pricing : Price discrimination and “revenue management”
  - Air traffic control pricing : small planes get subsidies from bigger ones
- Can be criticized when the purpose is consumers surplus extraction without competition on the market

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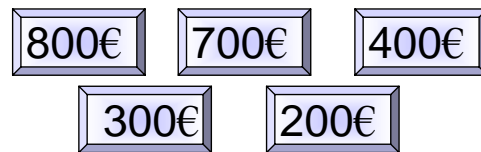
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## Practical example

(G. Van Ryzin)

- 5 customers with different valuations (unobservable)
- 2 flights with a 3 seats capacity
- The maximum obtainable revenue is  
 $R=800+700+400+300+200=2400\text{€}$



Departure 8:00 AM



Departure 11:00 AM

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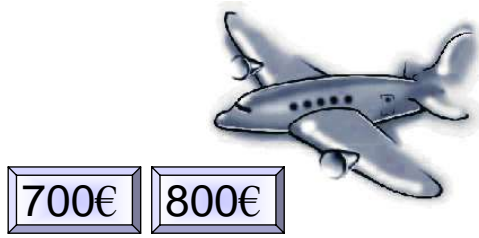
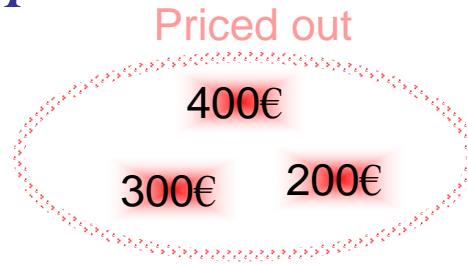
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## Case I

- Price is set to 700€ for each flight
- Revenue =  $2 \times 700 = 1400$
- 58% of Maximum Revenue



Departure 8:00 AM



Departure 11:00 AM

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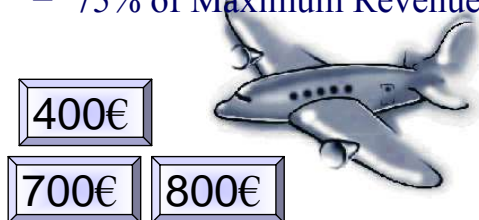
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## Case II

- One introduce discrimination through restrictions
- Price :
  - 700€ no restrictions
  - 400€ if Saturday night stay
- Revenue =  $2 \times 700 + 400 = 1800$ €
- 75% of Maximum Revenue



Departure 8:00 AM

The second plane  
is still empty



Departure 11:00 AM

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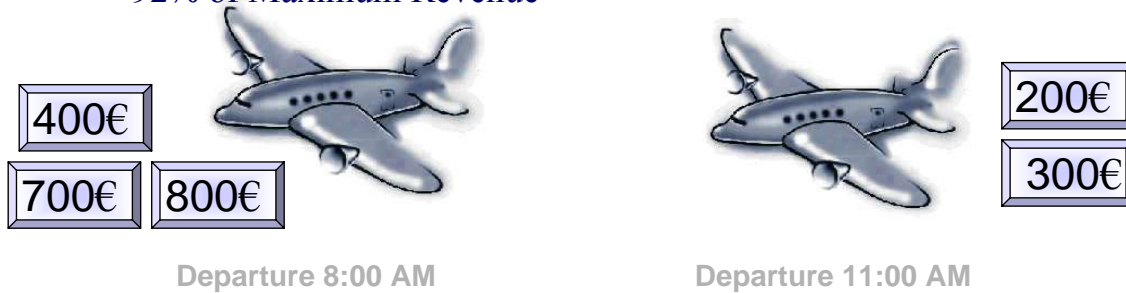
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## Case III

- One introduce capacity controlled discount Price :
  - 700€ no restrictions
  - 400€ if Saturday night stay
  - 200€ available on second, less demanded plane
- Revenue =  $2 \times 700 + 400 + 2 \times 200 = 2200€$ 
  - 92% of Maximum Revenue



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## « Revenue Management »

### Revenue optimization methods



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## *From load-factor maximization to revenue optimization*

- “Revenue management” is a method for maximizing the total revenues of an airline. The goal is different from “simply” have the highest load factor.
  - The term “yield management” is improper but originally and currently used
- This tool can be used as soon as
  - The service provided is perishable
  - Capacity is quite fixed
  - Demand is flexible

## *Origins of the «Revenue Management»*

- The "Airline Deregulation Act" in 1978 (USA) states the freedom of competition principle
- Freedom of fares
  - Price discrimination is possible
  - New entrants
  - The airlines in activity develop computer programs managing the information and improving marketing strategies
- The US airlines have invented the “revenue management”.

## Principles of «Revenue Management»

- Simultaneous control of supply and demand in order to maximize revenues.
  - Demand is controlled through fares adjustments ( $p_i$ ) and bookings
  - Supply  $q_i$  is monitored through the available capacity  $Q$

$$\max_{p_i, q_i} \Pi (p_i, q_i) = \sum_i p_i \times b(p_i, q_i) - C(Q)$$

such that  $\sum_i q_i \leq Q$

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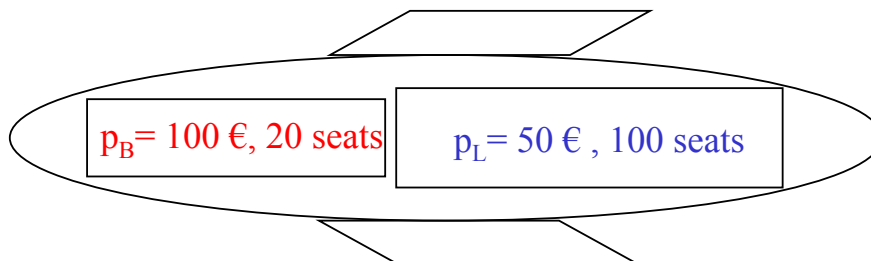
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## A simple example

- Two fares
- One airplane with a fixed configuration



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## Questions :

- How to set the prices ?
  - Knowledge of the demand
  - Compare with other airline (market survey)
  - Costs
- How to discriminate between consumers ?
  - Using restrictions on the service provided
- How to set the capacity of each class ?
  - Accurate demand forecast within each class of price

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## Prices before and after deregulation

- Before
  - Prices fixed by the regulator ; two classes (economic and first)
  - Prices linked to distance



- After
    - Prices disconnected to costs
- $P [A,B] = \alpha + \beta \times \text{distance} [A,B]$

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## *Profit maximization before and after deregulation*

- Before

$$\text{Max}\Pi(p_f, q_f, p_e, q_e) = \text{Max}_{q_f, q_e} (p_f \times q_f + p_e \times q_e - C(Q_e + Q_f))$$

such that  $q_f \leq Q_f$  and  $q_e \leq Q_e$

- competition through frequencies and service to stimulate demand

- After

$$\text{Max}\Pi(p_f, q_f, p_e, q_e) = \text{Max}_{p_f, q_f, p_e, q_e} (p_f \times b_f(p_f, q_f, p_e, q_e) + p_e \times b_e(p_f, q_f, p_e, q_e) - C(Q_e + Q_f))$$

- Competition through prices and restrictions

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## *Prices: current situation*

- Prices are adjusted following :
  - Competition (oligopolies !)
  - Passengers characteristics or preferences (willingness to pay)

But...

- Prices are disconnected to costs
  - Prices are defined by strategic consideration (fidelity, image)
  - The marginal cost is “fuzzy”
  - Can airlines completely ignore the cost constrains ?

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## *Restrictions : the “packages” price -ticket*

Airlines propose “menus” or packages with prices and services characteristics

- Numerous price class : F, J, S, B, M, Q... corresponding to prices
- Characteristics : Origin-destination, but also services and restrictions (date restrictions, no date change, week-end included, )

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## *Restrictions examples*

- Third degree discrimination (objective characteristics):
  - Student prices, family prices, retired people discount
- Second degree discrimination
  - Week-end special fares, non-refundable tickets, no date change, special tariff if ticket bought X-days in advance...
  - Goal : discriminate among users considering their willingness to pay, or their constraints (time, schedule)

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## *How to set prices ?*

- Consumers preferences are represented through their “utility”  $U$  for a service  $s$  at a price  $p(s)$

$$U_i = \theta_i \cdot s - p(s)$$

- The trade-off between price and restrictions has to be well studied
- Competition outlook
  - The competition limits the airline power on the consumers
- Rules of separability, flexibility, degressivity and readability

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## *Pricing rules*

- Separability
  - Services and prices have to be different enough
- Flexibility
  - Ability for the airline to change fares
- Degressivity
  - Ability to “surclass” with limited additional cost
- Readability
  - The tariff has to be clear for consumers

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## *Price and discrimination*

- The different services sold distinguish through prices and quality
  - The restrictions imposed are variation (degradation) of the service quality
- Airlines discriminate their consumers using quality and not quantity
  - It is really discrimination since the variation in quality has a cost quite small for the airline, compared to the variation of the price (price ratio 1 to 10)

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## *How to organize the booking with different classes*

- Booking behavior
- Trade-off between «spoilage» and «spill»
- Quota capacity computation on a two class example
- Dynamic allocation
- Revenue management over a Network
- Overbooking , no-show and go-show
- Consumers behavior models

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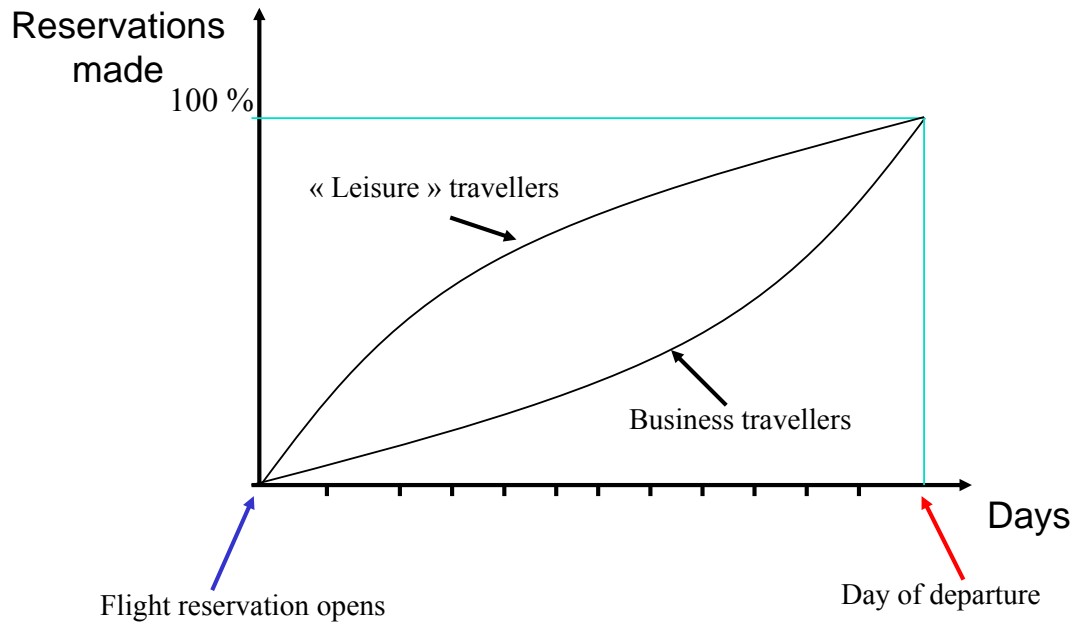


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## Booking behavior



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## Booking behavior

- The “high fare” passengers reserve lately their seat.
  - Schedule change, uncertainty
- The “low fare” book rather in advance
  - Tendency is also linked to restrictions
- The problem is to protect the “high fare” seats until few days before departure, without losing the “low fare” ones (change of airline !)

Managing this Trade-off is not simple !

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## *The core of the trade-off problem*

- The number of seats asked within each class (demand) is by nature random
- Let's consider a “high fare” demand with mean H (let's assume a normal distribution)
- If one allocate a small quota (less than H), there is a risk of rejecting “high fare” consumers (Spill)
- If one allocate a high quota (more than H), there is a risk of empty seats (spoilage).

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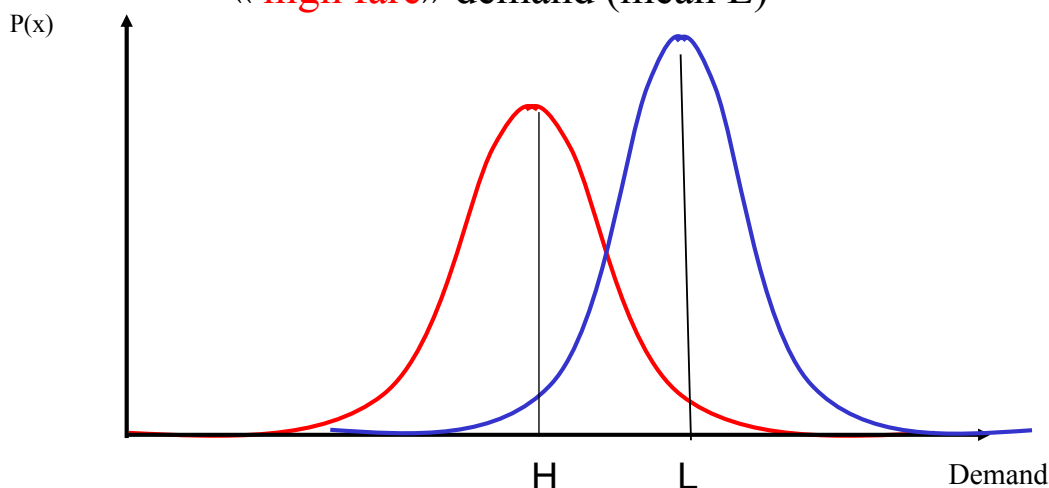
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## *Distribution of demand*

« low fare » demand (mean H) and  
« high fare » demand (mean L)



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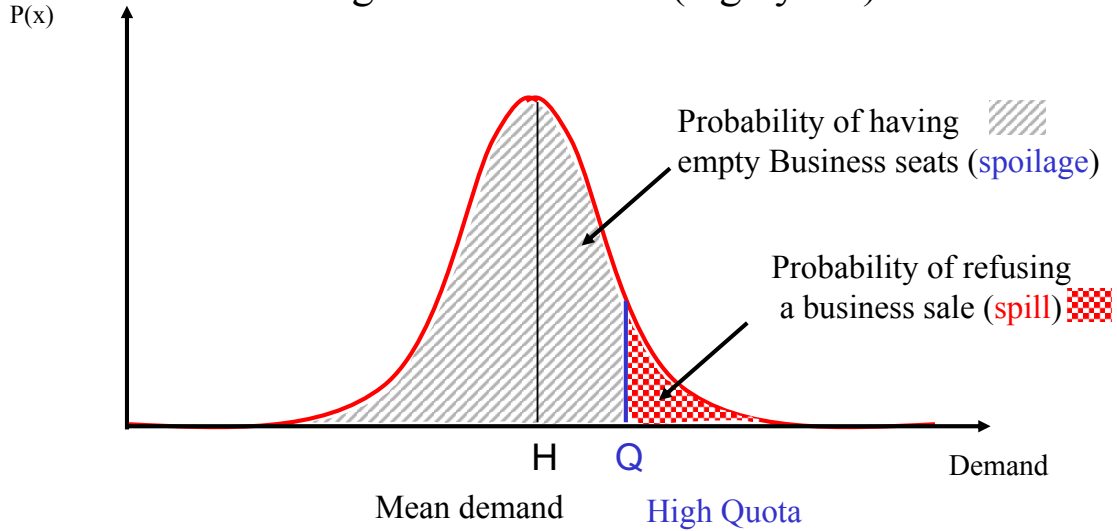
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# Distribution of demand

## « High fare » demand (high yield)



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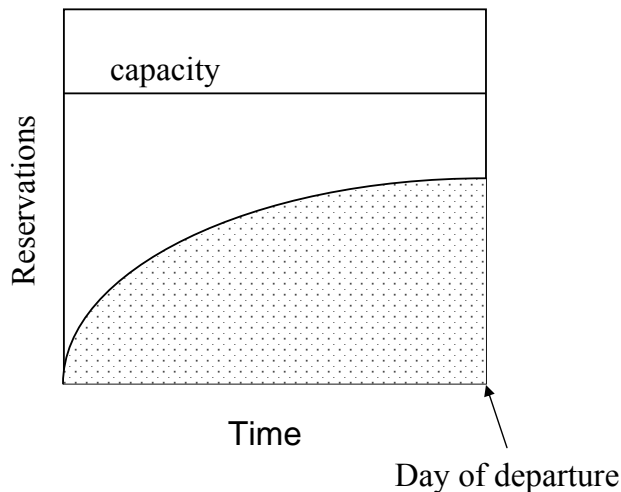


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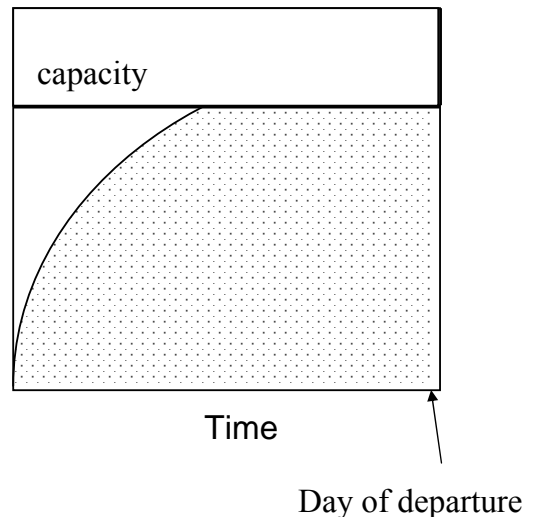


# Spoilage and Spill

## Spoilage



## Spill



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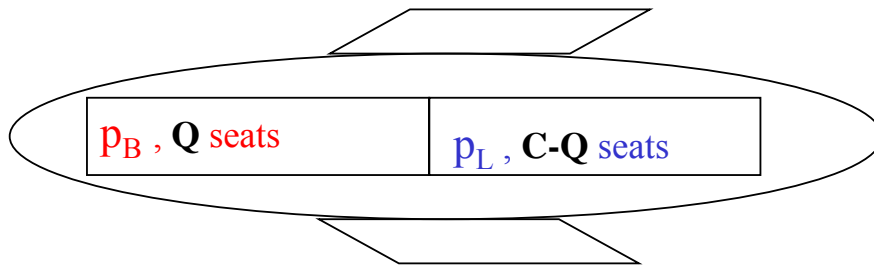
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## *A simple example with two independent classes*

- One airplane with a fixed configuration  $C$  = total capacity
- Two fares PL (leisure) and PB (business)
- The demand distributions for the two classes  $x_L$  and  $x_B$  are assumed to be known  $f_L(x)$  and  $f_B(x)$ .



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## *Determination of the Quota ( $Q$ ) for two independent classes*

- The problem is to compute the value of  $Q$  such that the global revenue is maximum
- The global revenue is not deterministic, for each class one has the expectation of the revenue (linked to the probability of asking a seat = demand distribution)
- Global revenue is  $= E(R_L) + E(R_B)$

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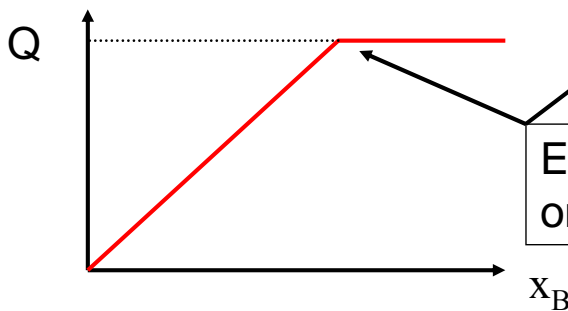
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## Determination of the Quota ( $Q$ ) for two independent classes

- Let's compute the expectation of revenue for the business class

$$E(R_B) = \int_0^Q p_B \cdot x_B \cdot f_B(x_B) \cdot dx_B + \int_T^{\infty} p_B \cdot Q \cdot f_B(x_B) \cdot dx_B$$



Even if the demand  $x_B$  exceeds  $Q$ , one cannot sell more than  $Q$  seats

## Determination of the Quota ( $Q$ ) for two independent classes

- Total revenue =  $E(R_B) + E(R_L)$

$$E(R_B) = \int_0^Q p_B \cdot x_B \cdot f_B(x_B) \cdot dx_B + \int_Q^{\infty} p_B \cdot Q \cdot f_B(x_B) \cdot dx_B$$

$$E(R_L) = \int_0^{C-Q} p_L \cdot x_L \cdot f_L(x_L) \cdot dx_L + \int_{C-Q}^{\infty} p_L \cdot (C - Q) \cdot f_L(x_L) \cdot dx_L$$

## Determination of the Quota (Q)

- The derivation relative to the unknown variable Q gives

$$\frac{dE(R)}{dQ} = p_B \int_Q^\infty f_B(x_B).dx_B - p_L \int_{C-Q}^\infty f_L(x_L).dx_L = 0$$

$$p_B \int_Q^\infty f_B(x_B).dx_B = p_L \int_{C-Q}^\infty f_L(x_L).dx_L$$

## What does it means ?

- Let's define EMSV = "expected marginal seat value"

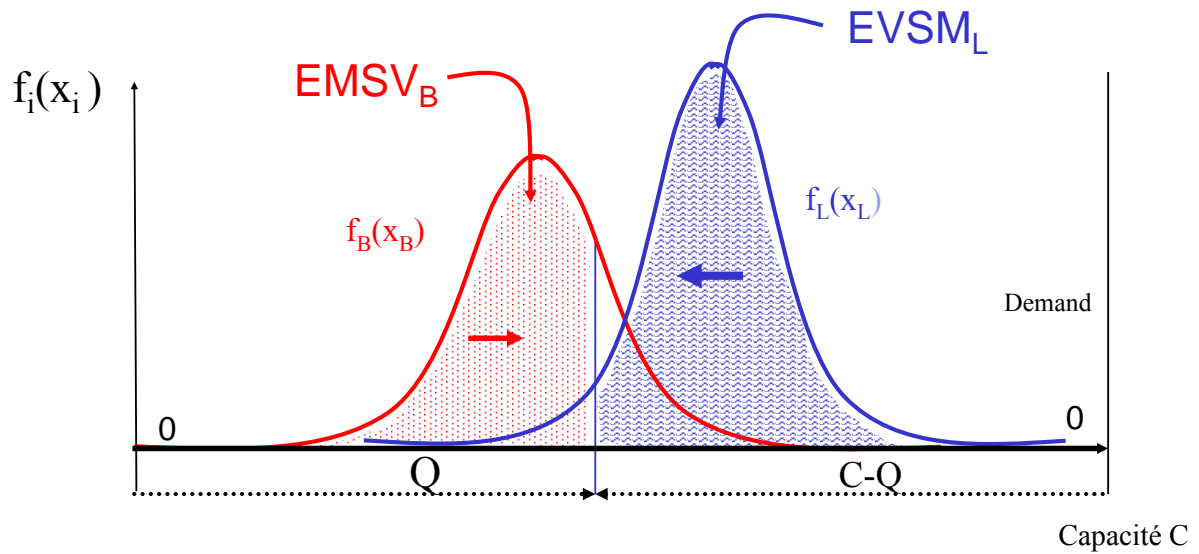
$$EMSV_i = p_i \int_{S_i} f_i(x_i).dx_i$$

$$i = B, L$$

- In the case of independent (partitioned fare) classes, the EVSM must be equal in each class.

$$EMSV_B = EMSV_L$$

## Graphical illustration



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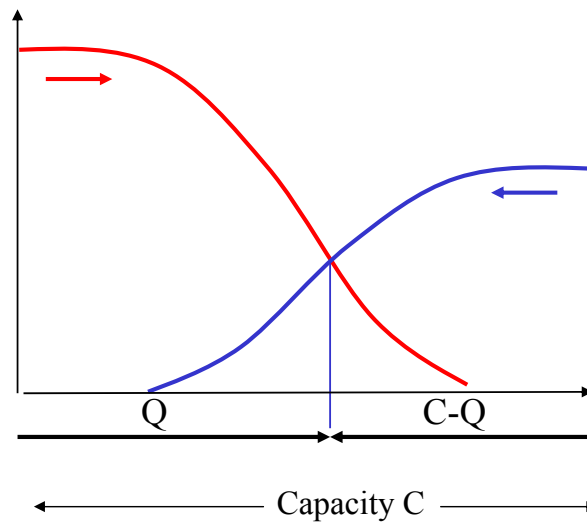
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## Graphical illustration

$$ESMV_i = p_i (1 - F_i(x))$$



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## Remarks

- In this simple case, the formula for the optimal quota :

$$p_B \int_Q^{\infty} f_B(x_B).dx_B = p_L \int_{C-Q}^{\infty} f_L(x_L).dx_L$$

depends on

- The distributions of the individual demands in each class
- The prices for each class

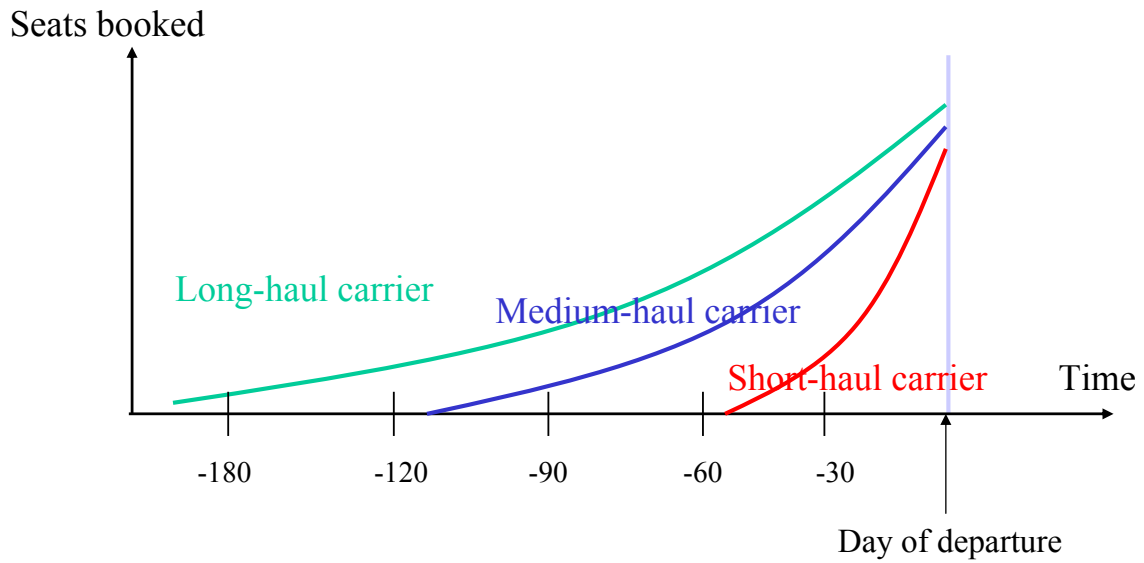
## Dynamic allocation

- The demands are estimated for each flight, using information on the booking and on past experiences, the computation of Q is done using the previous formula

But...

- The computation has to be revised if the booking behavior shows that the demands are not the one expected
- The demands (and Q) have to be re-estimated using actualized estimations of the demands.
  - In practice, one only revise the allocation if the reservation are not conform to the expectations.

## General shape of booking over time



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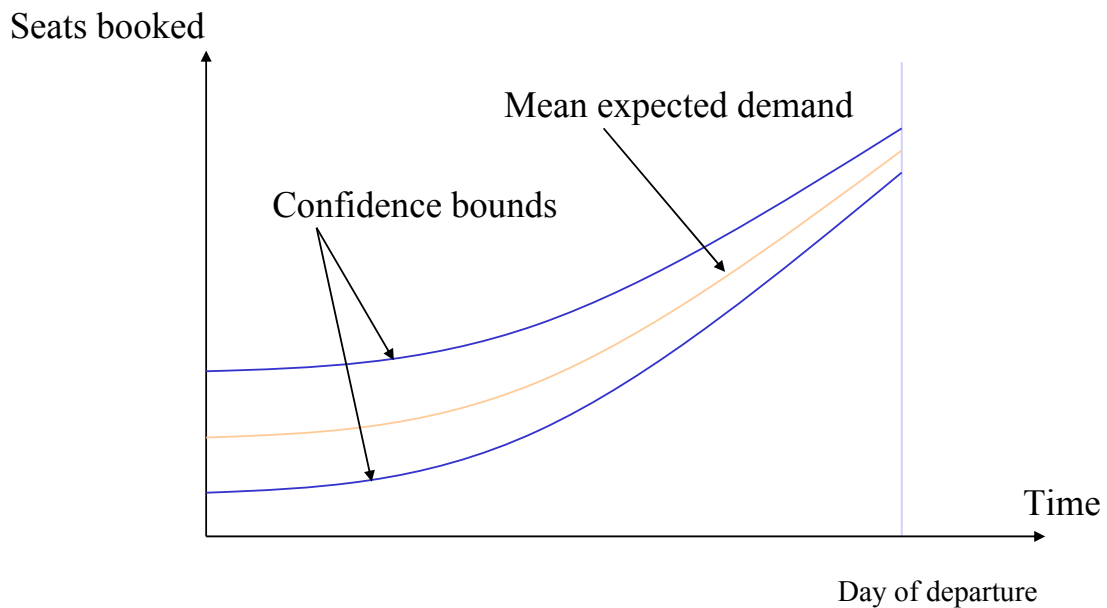


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## Dynamic of booking



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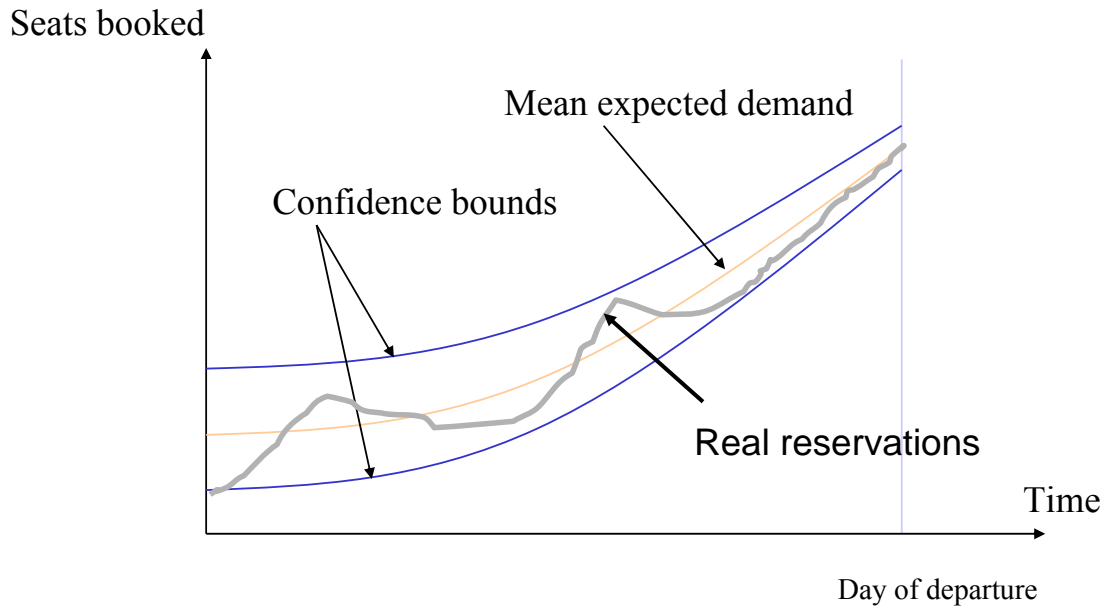


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# Dynamic of booking



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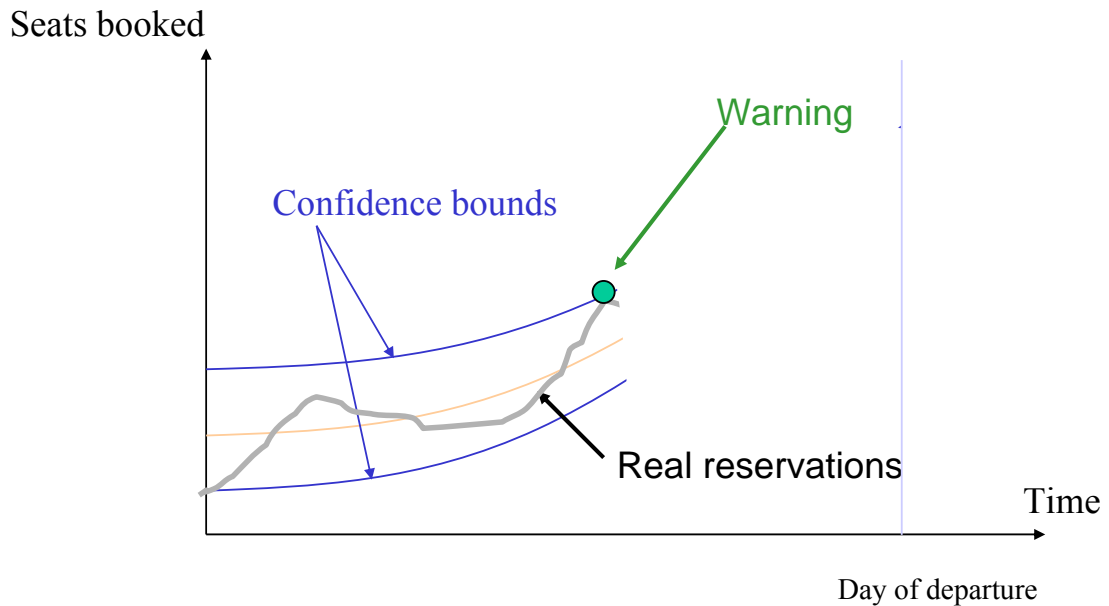
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# Dynamic of booking



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## *New allocation*

- When a warning appears, one must re-allocate the seats within each class according to the new (unexpected) demand
  - Revise the demand forecasts
  - Can be done manually or almost automatically
- There may be systems with systematic re-allocation for specific dates (J-90, J-45, J-30...). For each date, one compare the real and expected demand in each class

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## *Limits I*

We have assumed in the previous example, the complete independence of the demands, but :

- Some passengers are ready to switch from one class to another (if their first choice is full)
- One must introduce a probability of accepting a fare  $P_B$  if one has been rejected in a  $P_L$  fare class
- Complex statistical computations + estimation of this probability = experimental stage

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## *Limits II*

We have assumed that a reserved ticket is a sold ticket,  
but :

- Not true for tickets with possibility of change in the date of departure, or refundable
- Some people simply don't take the plane they've booked and cancel their flight at the last minute « No-show »
- On the contrary, some people do not reserve « Go-Show »

## *« No-shows »*

- Some passengers with a reservation do not board and do not cancel their reservation (about 15%)
  - This proportion of no-shows is higher for the most demanded flights
  - % of “no show” is decreasing with flight distance
  - Frequent pattern for “business” travelers (multiple reservations)
  - Shadow reservations on several airlines
- One solution is to «over-book» in order to fill the empty seats even if there are no-shows

## « Go-shows »

- This pattern is the inverse of the previous : people arrive at airport without any reservation
- May compensate the no-shows deficit
- Induces a lot of uncertainty in airline revenue maximization program

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## “over-booking”

- Used to balance the cancelled reservation and the “no-shows”
  - Tours operators may use these empty seats
- Trade-off between two risks
  - Risks of empty seats if one accept few reservations (*spoilage*)
  - Risk of having too many people for the capacity available (*denied access*)

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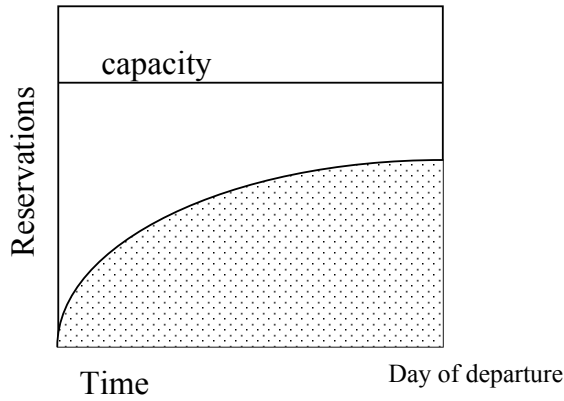


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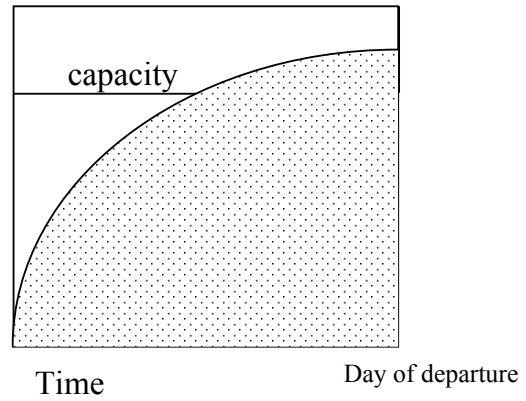
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## Spoilage and denied access



*Spoilage*



*denied access*

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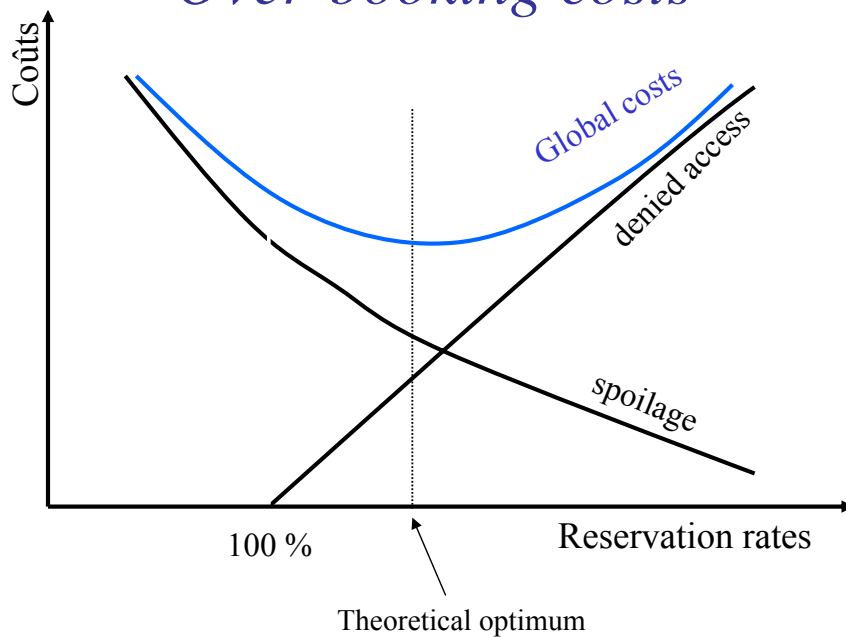


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## Over-booking costs



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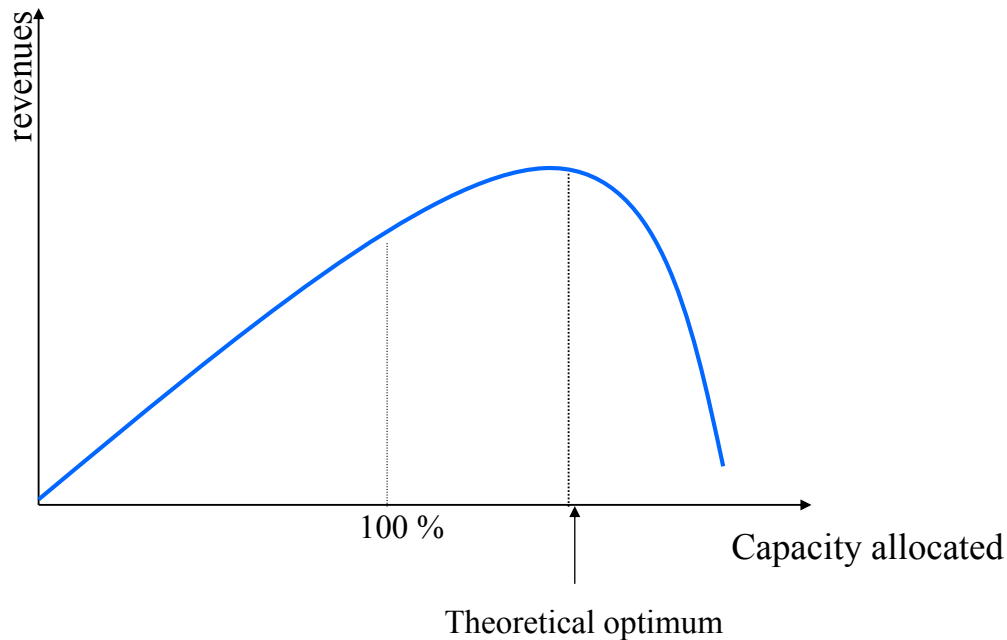


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## Over-booking benefits



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## How to compute the over-booking rate ?

- One accept over-booking in a class  $i$  as long as
  - The “Expected Marginal Seat Value” for class  $i$  is greater than the expected cost of a denied access :

$$EMSV_i \geq k \times Pr$$

- Where  $k$  is the cost of a denied access, and  $Pr$  the probability that the final demand exceeds the capacity
- One may be able to know the average denied access as a function of the reservation rate and its variance
- In the practice it is quite hard since the «no-shows» are hard to forecast with precision (high variability)

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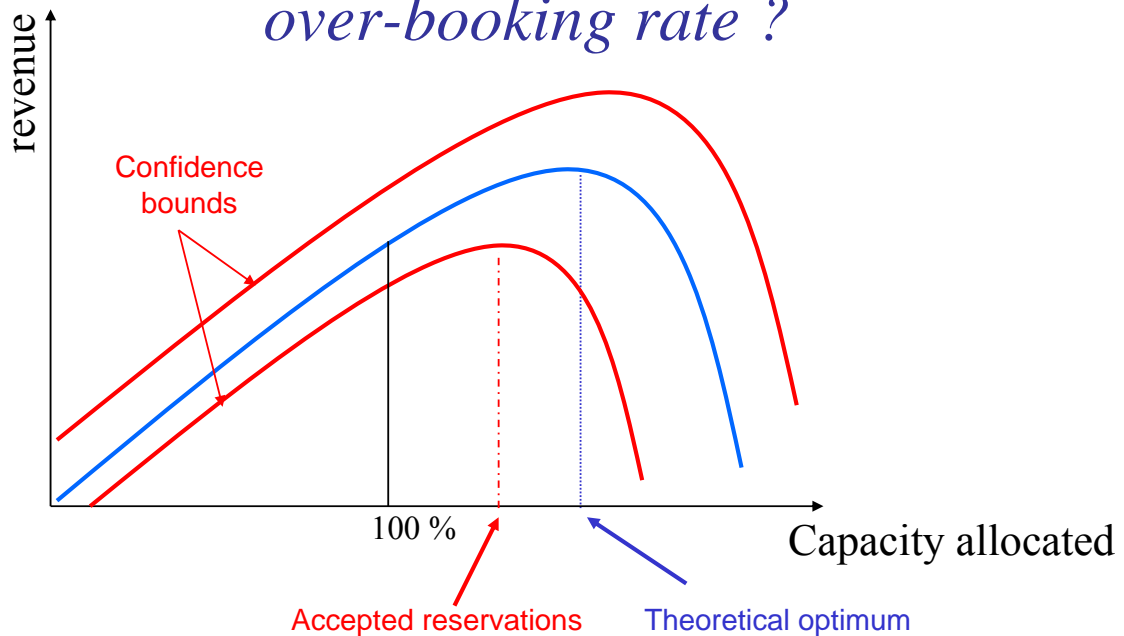


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## How to compute the over-booking rate ?



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## Managing denied access

- Usually airline managers are trying to find volunteers for a flight change using financial compensations
- Otherwise, denied access will be applied in priority to “low fare” passengers (difficult in practice)
- The airline must propose a denied access traveler a posterior flight

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## *Final remarks*

- Revenue management has changed the pricing and management of airlines but also the travelers behavior
  - Some last minute seats are available and people may know that feature
  - Booking behavior may be affected by a too complex mechanism
- The system is quite complex, demand is still a random variable
  - There is a cost to such a mechanism (experts, software, management)
  - There is also a cost in making mistakes !! (Denied access, over-booking or empty seats)
- Major airlines propose such a complex mechanism that pricing seems fuzzy to travelers (readability problem)

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## *Final remarks*

### Low cost airlines propose a simple revenue management scheme

- « Our fares change as seats are sold » easyjet
- Price increases with time
- Very clear pricing
- Very cheap management system based only on booking dynamic over time
- Still this is revenue management but not based on restrictions
  - very few “no-show” since the tickets are non refundable

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