



The consumer's problem is one of the core topics in microeconomics because it efficiently exposes the demand-supply dynamics of consumer behavior.

Lets assume a single consumer and a single product. Consumer's *utility*, i.e. *willingness-to-pay*, for the product is a measure for the product's full value to a consumer. Utility is personal: the same product creates different utilities for different consumers. Utility is sensitive to mental and physical states such as hunger, sleep, happiness, etc. Utility of a single product also depends on the availability of other products: complements and substitutes.

Consumer tries to maximize the *consumer surplus* (= utility - price) by aiming at a lower price. If the price remains higher than utility, the consumer will not buy.

Producer tries to maximize the *producer surplus*, i.e. *producer profit* (= consumer price – producer cost) by increasing prices and decreasing costs.

Social planner, i.e. society, tries to maximize the *social surplus*, i.e. social welfare (= consumer surplus + producer surplus), by increasing consumer utilities (via promoting innovations) and decreasing costs (via promoting competition). Politicians maintain the balance the between consumer and producer surplus.

Telecommunications services is often an oligopoly market and subject to close regulatory guidance, which affects the sharing of surplus between consumers and producers.



Lets assume a single consumer and a single product. Utility function u(x) describes utility as a function of product quantity x. Utility typically increases with quantity but in a decreasing manner. We say that u(x) is an increasing and concave function.

Since the consumer tries to maximize his net benefit, i.e. consumer surplus, he chooses a quantity with maximum net benefit $(=\max[u(x)-px))$. The first derivatives of utility and cost are equal at the optimal quantity x, or in other words, the marginal utility equals price.

Note that the cost of communication services typically represent only a small fraction of the consumer's total income. This means that the consumer's communications behavior is not very sensitive to his income level. It also means that the utility function can be considered quasilinear, which implies that utility functions can be kept less complex by ignoring the income level.



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Consider the service portfolio and subscriber base of a GSM operator. You can find the the service vector and its corresponding price vector from the operator's public tariff list. Each subscriber maximizes his consumer surplus, CS, by choosing the usage level for each service according to his personal utility function and price set by the operator. This can also be formulated as a subscriber's personal demand x(p), demand as a function of price. All personal demand functions together for the aggregate demand function, or total demand.

Demand function is simple if one subscriber's demand would not affect the other subscribers. In practice, however, a side-effect called network effect, or network externality, can create strong dependences between personal demand functions.

Demand function is also simple if the personal demand of one product would not affect the personal demand of other products. In practice, however, products are to some extent substitutes (SMS and MMS service) and/or complements (SIM card and GSM phone) to each other. This dependence is visible as cross-elasticity between products, price elasticity and demand elasticity.



Positive network effect can be illustrated with a simplistic market example: one producer (e.g. GSM operator), one product (e.g. GSM subcription), 100 customers, and a careful selection of a utility function, $u_i(n) = ni$

Note that the utility function is personalized, that is, it is different for each customer because customers are indexed with *i* and the index appears as a multiplier in the utility function. This relates to technology adoption life cycle with customer segmentation: early adopters, laggards.

Note that there is an explicit network effect because the utility function has the number of current customers, or likely customers, n as a multiplier in the utility function.

Price set at *p* the potential equilibrium points are 0 (nobody buys) and spots where price equals utility ("indifferent" customer at A, B). At indifference points there are customers, non-customers, and one indifferent customer, i = N-n. The utility of this indifferent customer equals price, that is, p = ni = n(N-n). This equation defines the demand curve as a parabola crossing origo and opening downwards (see picture).



The demand curve of our example shows the possible equilibrium points (0, A, B). The arrows indicate the direction of the force of network effect.

Point A is an unstable equilibrium because the network effect works away from it. A small perturbation in customer base at A will either cause market failure (moving to 0 customers) or market success (moving to B and n_2 customers).

We can say that n_2 is the critical mass, or minimum number of customers, required for this service to succeed. Often no single operator can achieve the critical mass and the operators willingly cooperate to achieve it together (e.g. in standards and interoperability).

The network effect, or demand-side economy of scale, tends to make the strong operators stronger and the weak ones weaker. In addition, the mass production advantage, or supply-side economy of scale, tends to do the same. Therefore the operator markets are closely monitored by the regulator.





The OECD statistics show the growth of household spending on communications from less than 1% to 3-4% between 1980 and 2000 when considered as percentage of total household spending.

This relative growth can be explained by the general increase in welfare which moves spending from basic necessities to more advanced technology-based consumption.

A rough estimate indicates that the mobile communications services have contributed c. 1% and Internet another 1%. Since mobile and Internet have already reached high consumer penetrations in industrialized markets, they cannot fuel much more growth without additional components. Some analysts predict that digital content is main engine of growth.





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Case Japan: Daily Usage Time

| | | Mobi | le Internet | | |
|--|--|--|---------------|-------------------|---------|
| | Minutes/day | Female | Male | Overall | |
| | <5 | 48.28 | 56.07 | 53.85 | |
| | 5-10 | 22.06 | 19.86 | 20.49 | |
| | 10-20 | 13.78 | 9.88 | 10.99 | |
| | 20-30 | 8.20 | 5.74 | 6.44 | |
| | 30-60 | 4.68 | 4.25 | 4.37 | |
| | 60-90 | 1.27 | 1.44 | 1.38 | |
| | >90 | 1.72 | 2.76 | 2.46 | |
| | More than 5 No clear control time of control | 0% of user relation lay vs. targ | rs use less t | han 5 min per day | |
| | • amount | of usage vs | . target con | itent | |
| ource: MoCoBe.com | survey, 2003 | | | | |
| elsinki University of Techno etworking Laboratory | blogy | S-38.041/H H | ämmäinen | | Slide ! |

One way to get more information about consumer behavior in communications is via direct consumer surveys.

This example survey by MoCoBe in Japan indicates that the consumer's usage portfolio of mobile Internet content remains the same at all times of day. It also suggests that consumers with large consumption and those with small consumption have similar structure in their content portfolio.



The survey also suggests that the amount of consumer's content consumption correlates closely with his duration of presence at each environment such as home, office, commuting, and leisure sites. On the other hand, the type of content does not correlate with the location of presence.

All these observations support the conclusion that the main indicator of a consumer's content usage is his personality. For instance, if a person listens to music at home via his handset, he is likely to do the same at school or in the office.

This conclusion motivates the industry players to invest in good understanding and segmentation of consumers.













