

# Openness in the Mobile Broadband Ecosystem

Mobile Broadband Working Group

Open Internet Advisory Committee  
Federal Communications Commission

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Committee available here](#)

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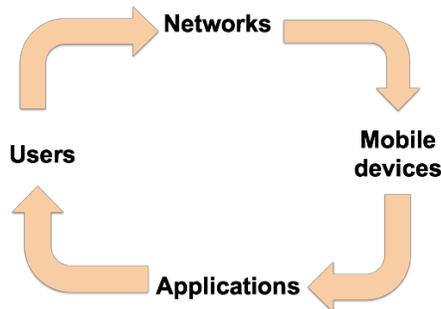
**The Mobile Broadband group also created an analysis of the mobile broadband ecosystem, identifying key players and articulating their relationships.**

The FCC’s Open Internet Order<sup>29</sup> characterizes “openness” as “the absence of any gatekeeper blocking lawful uses of the network or picking winners and losers online” and indicates that the openness of the Internet promotes a self-reinforcing “cycle of investment and innovation” (p. 3). In the mobile broadband ecosystem, a variety of players have significant roles in shaping the opportunities that the Internet provides, including mobile broadband providers (e.g., Verizon, AT&T, Sprint, and T-Mobile), device vendors (e.g., Apple, Samsung, and LG), operating system developers (e.g., Apple iOS and Google Android), network equipment vendors (e.g., Ericsson, Alcatel-Lucent, and Nokia-Siemens), and application developers and content providers.

This report examines the relationships between these parties and highlights the different kinds of influence they can have over openness, broadly defined. While many of these parties are not subject to the Open Internet Order, understanding the impact they can have on openness provides a more complete picture of the mobile broadband ecosystem. Because of our specific focus on mobile broadband, our analysis inherently reflects business and technical dynamics that may differ from those for fixed broadband networks. Also, while mobile broadband networks carry a variety of traffic (e.g., downloading e-books to Kindle devices, machine-to-machine communication, connected cars, etc.), this report focuses on the general, universal service that connects end-user mobile devices to the Internet.

## 1. Mobile Broadband Ecosystem

The mobile broadband ecosystem is built on a seemingly “virtuous cycle,” where *networks* that are fast, reliable, and widely available encourage the creation of *mobile devices* that connect to these networks, which spurs innovation in compelling *applications and content*, which in turn motivate more *users* to adopt the technology, spurring further investment in the underlying networks.



<sup>29</sup> FCC Open Internet Report and Order, December 2012.  
[http://hraunfoss.fcc.gov/edocs\\_public/attachmatch/FCC-10-201A1.pdf](http://hraunfoss.fcc.gov/edocs_public/attachmatch/FCC-10-201A1.pdf)

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Yet, the players in the mobile broadband ecosystem have complex relationships that can cause tensions that can dampen the incentives for innovation and investment. The main parties include the network (i.e., *mobile broadband providers* and *network equipment vendors*), the devices (i.e., *device manufacturers* and *operating-system developers*), the applications (i.e., *application developers*), and the *component manufacturers* who make the components used in mobile devices and network equipment.

### 1.1 Major Mobile Broadband Companies in the U.S. Market

In most sectors of the mobile broadband ecosystem, a small number of companies drive the market, as shown in the following table:

	<b>Ecosystem Players in the U.S. (1Q 2013)</b>
Smartphone vendor shipments <sup>30</sup>	Apple (38.3%), Samsung (28.8%), LG (9.9%), and many smaller players (< 5% each)
Smartphone OS market share (through 1Q13) <sup>31</sup>	Google Android (56.0%), Apple iOS (38.3%), and other smaller players (< 4%)
Mobile broadband provider market share <sup>32</sup>	Verizon Wireless (34%), AT&T Mobility (30.9%), Sprint (16%), T-Mobile USA (12.2%), and other smaller players (< 3%)
Radio access network equipment vendors <sup>33</sup>	Ericsson (50%), Alcatel-Lucent (36%), Nokia-Siemens (10%), Huawei (3%)
Application developers <sup>34</sup>	Many, diverse, most make < \$500/month

A few main vendors lead the sectors for creating smart phones (e.g., Apple, Samsung, and LG) and the operating systems that run on them (e.g., Google Android and Apple iOS), along with some smaller players. The U.S. has four main mobile broadband providers (Verizon, AT&T, Sprint, and T-Mobile). Mobile broadband providers can acquire equipment for cellular access networks from three main vendors (Ericsson, Alcatel-Lucent, and Nokia-Siemens), with Samsung a new entrant into the U.S. LTE equipment market, and Huawei a smaller player in some U.S. regional markets. In addition, a small number of companies create most of the components used in handsets (e.g., Qualcomm and Samsung) and the components used in network equipment (e.g., Texas Instruments, Broadcom, and Freescale). In contrast, the applications sector is extremely large and diverse, with many thousands of developers

<sup>30</sup> Strategy Analytics, “North America Smartphone Vendor & OS Market Share by Country: Q1 2013,” May 2013

<sup>31</sup> Ibid.

<sup>32</sup> Strategy Analytics, “Wireless Operator Performance Benchmarking Q4 2012,” April 2013

<sup>33</sup> Alcatel-Lucent internal analysis of Dell’Oro data, average over the last four quarters.

<sup>34</sup> Source: Vision Mobile

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

creating applications that compete for users' attention. The app market generated more than 13.4 billion downloads and \$2.2 billion of revenue<sup>35</sup> in the first quarter of 2013 alone. While most application developers operate at a very small scale (e.g., making less than \$500 per month), half of all app revenue comes from just 25 developers<sup>36</sup> --- mostly major game developers such as Zynga, Electronic Arts, Rovio, and Disney.

While mobile broadband providers are typically regional or national companies, the rest of the mobile broadband ecosystem is an international marketplace. While most of the leading companies in the U.S. have significant market share internationally, some companies play a much larger role in the rest of the world; for instance, Huawei has a much larger market share in the network equipment market internationally. Historically, the U.S. was the leader in cellular deployments, but lost the lead to Europe in 2G (GSM) and to Asia in 3G (WCDMA), before regaining the lead again with 4G (LTE). The U.S. also leads the recent innovations in smart phones, mobile operating systems, and applications. Still, the manufacturing of components and handsets mainly takes place outside the U.S., and the mobile broadband ecosystem relies heavily on international agreement for technology standards. In addition, many new mobile-broadband business trends, such as the decreasing role of carrier subsidies for mobile handsets, started outside the U.S., providing a unique opportunity to analyze the effects of emerging trends.

Some companies play a significant role in multiple parts of the mobile broadband ecosystem, giving them extra influence. While industry forces often work against having a primary “vertical player” (e.g., Motorola, in earlier days), several companies increasingly play multiple roles in the mobile broadband sector. For example, the top handset manufacturer (Samsung) also sells LTE equipment, as well as the low-level components used in other handsets (such as the Apple iPhone)<sup>37</sup>. Huawei also sells both mobile devices and network equipment. As such, Samsung and Huawei can have a unique relationship with carriers, by having bundled offerings of handsets and network equipment. Apple and Google also have significant influence in multiple parts of the ecosystem. Apple creates devices (e.g., iPhones and iPads) that are tied to its own operating system (iOS), and also develops mobile applications that come bundled with the device. Google has the lead mobile operating system (Google Android), and also creates popular applications and, recently, mobile handsets. In the next subsection, we discuss the interaction between these and other companies in the mobile broadband ecosystem.

### 1.2 Complex Inter-Relationships in the Mobile Broadband Ecosystem

Each of the players in the mobile broadband ecosystem is affected by the policies and practices of the others, including:

**Users:** End-users identify strongly with their mobile devices, from the early Razr flip phone to the Apple iPhone. With the emergence of smart phones, users increasingly associate their entire mobile broadband experience with their device, and particularly with the operating system (e.g., Apple iOS and Google

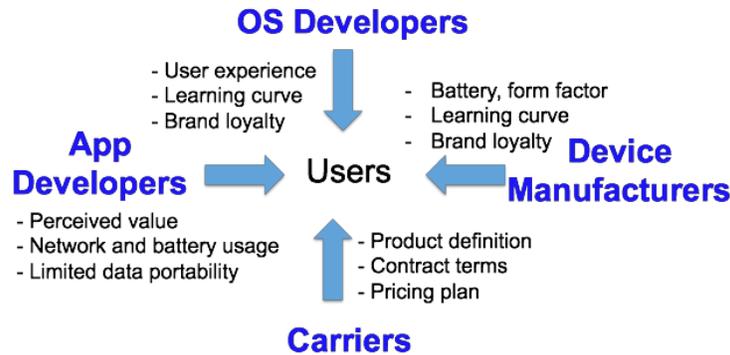
<sup>35</sup>[http://news.cnet.com/8301-1035\\_3-57578563-94/app-market-soars-with-13.4-billion-downloads-in-q1-2013/](http://news.cnet.com/8301-1035_3-57578563-94/app-market-soars-with-13.4-billion-downloads-in-q1-2013/)

<sup>36</sup><http://www.canalys.com/newsroom/top-25-us-developers-account-half-app-revenue>

<sup>37</sup><http://www.economist.com/blogs/dailychart/2011/08/apple-and-samsungs-symbiotic-relationship>

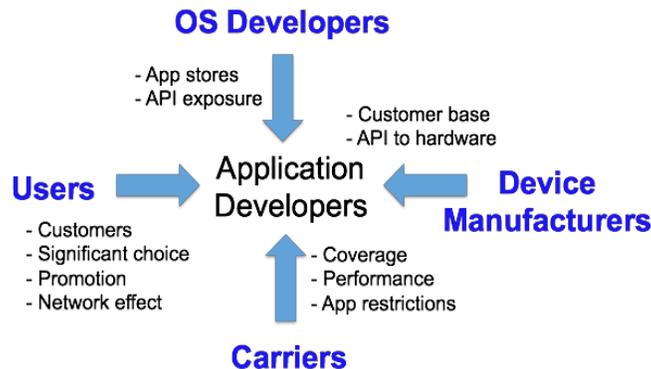
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Android) and its associated “app store”. Using the same platform as friends and family members also eases communication through instant messaging, video conferencing, and photo sharing applications bundled with the operating system.



Many users stay with the same platform over time, due to brand loyalty, adoption of built-in features like automatic syncing of data with cloud services (e.g., Apple iCloud), and the learning curve for adapting to a new operating system. The users increase the value of their mobile devices through mobile applications, some of which come pre-installed on the device; these applications may also have a significant impact on battery lifetime and bandwidth consumption, though most users have difficulty determining which of their applications are the “resource hogs.” Despite the emphasis on the device and the applications, the relationship with the mobile broadband provider is important, too. Most users receive a handset as part of the service contract from their carrier, though the emergence of tablet computers, and changes in the device pricing model being introduced by some carriers (e.g., T-Mobile), are increasing the fraction of mobile devices purchased directly. The mobile broadband provider also has significant influence over the users in terms of pricing plan (e.g., unlimited bandwidth, bandwidth caps, or usage-based billing) and contract restrictions (e.g., early-termination fees, limitations on tethering, etc.).

**Application developers:** The ecosystem includes a large and diverse group of developers creating applications for a variety of platforms (e.g., Apple iOS and Google Android).

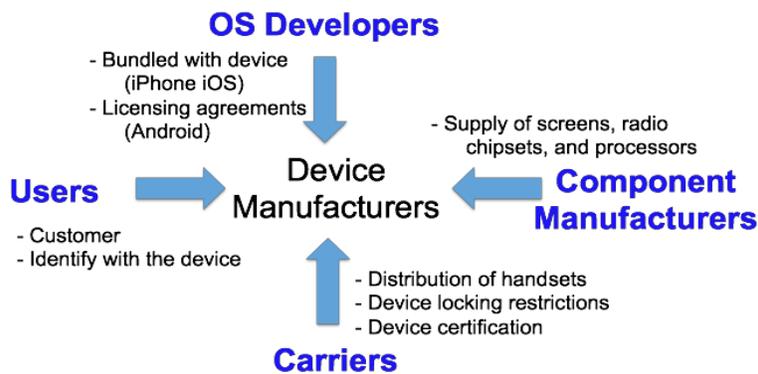


Applications range from network and device utilities, to mobile access to online content, to mobile games, and location-centric applications. Creating a successful application is challenging, and typically requires creating a separate version for each operating-system platform, and relying on whatever Application

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

Programming Interfaces (APIs) the operating system developers and device manufacturers make available. A range of business models have emerged, as application developers and consumers experiment with different monetization paths, including initial purchase price, “freemium” or free download with limited functionality and pay-to-upgrade charges, ad-supported, and free (or paid) download with in-app purchasing of extras or subscription services. Application developers are somewhat dependent on “App Stores” (the largest app stores are operated by Apple and Google) to distribute their applications, in exchange for a fraction (e.g., 20-30%) of their revenue. In addition, the large number of available “apps” mean that users have tremendous choice, forcing developers to keep prices low to compete with free or low-cost apps; many apps rely on advertising for revenue, and “word of mouth” from users to promote their applications. In addition, application developers rely on mobile broadband providers for good coverage and performance, and are subject to the terms and conditions of the end-user’s service contract which may restrict the use of certain apps.

**Device manufacturers:** Devices such as smart phones, tablets, and smart meters connect to mobile broadband networks. Many end-users identify more strongly with their mobile devices than with their mobile broadband provider.

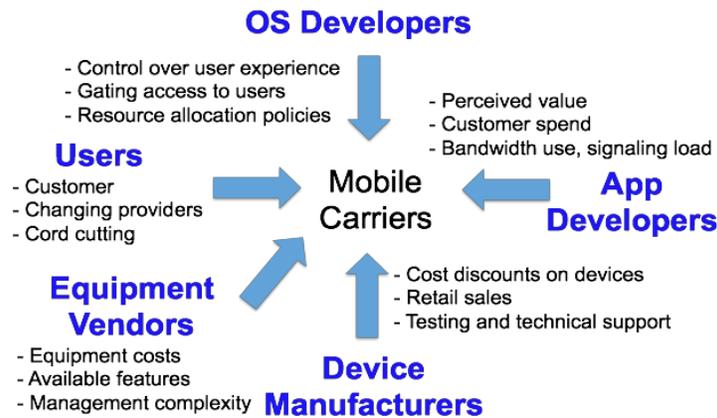


While many handset manufacturers rely on mobile providers to offer sizeable discounts on price of devices sold to consumers (colloquially known as “device subsidies”), the market increasingly includes tablet computers that are sold directly to consumers. Most mobile providers “lock” handsets on their networks, restricting their customers from using the devices with other carriers. The device manufacturers also rely heavily on the component manufacturers for a regular supply of parts. Companies like Qualcomm, Samsung, Intel, and Infineon make radio chipsets and processors that govern radio network operations and compatibility, features, and performance. Even if existing components are limited in functionality, device manufacturers typically find that building their own components is prohibitively expensive. The relationship with component manufacturers is particularly complicated if the company also sells its own mobile devices; for example, Samsung is a leading manufacturer of mobile handsets but is also the primary supplier of screens for its chief device competitor, Apple.

**Operating-system developers:** The operating system (OS) runs on the devices and provides a development platform for applications. In some cases, the operating system is provided by the device manufacturer (e.g., Apple iOS and Blackberry OS). In other cases, the operating system is provided separately (e.g., Google Android and Microsoft Windows Mobile). Some operating system developers

seek to limit the “fragmentation” of the OS software to avoid problems with interoperability, where applications work on one device but not another. Yet, device manufacturers may want to customize the software or experiment with new features. Though Google’s Android operating system is open source, recent changes in the terms of service<sup>38</sup> for the Android software development kit prevent developers from creating their own “fork” of the code, to reduce code fragmentation. Similarly, Microsoft’s Windows Mobile 7.5/8 is specifically licensed to select hardware partners under terms that greatly limit the variability of the OS implementation across devices. While Android and Apple iOS are by far the largest players in the mobile OS market, the landscape sometimes changes rapidly, as evidenced by the rapid penetration of Google Android OS in the past few years. There are also efforts to launch new, competitive operating systems, such as Mozilla’s Firefox OS and Samsung’s Tizen. Each OS platform also has very different philosophies towards “openness,” with regard to both the OS itself and the application environment it enables.

**Mobile broadband providers:** Users typically pay mobile carriers to access mobile network services, either through a “post-paid” monthly subscription or a “pre-paid” monthly purchase.

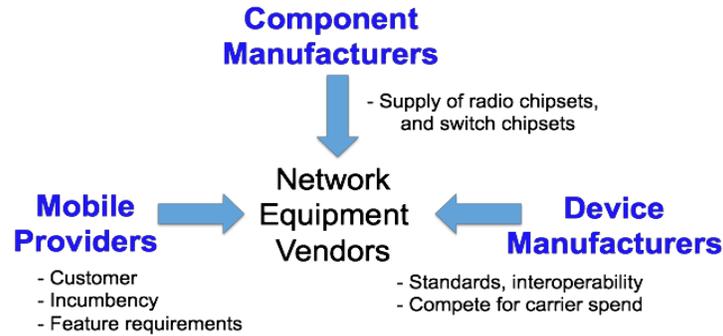


Historically, mobile carriers tightly controlled both the devices and services available to users, but the ecosystem has evolved such that operating system developers, device manufacturers, and application developers have greater control over the user experience and the consumption of network resources. Users who identify primarily with their mobile device may be more willing to change providers at the end of their service contracts, leading to competition over service plans across carriers. The design decisions by application developers influence the consumption of network bandwidth and signaling resource and can degrade performance for all users in congested cells. For example a “chatty” application that sends regular updates every 60 seconds can easily overwhelm signaling resources on the radio access network. The rapid emergence of new applications written by a large community of developers with widely varying expertise makes managing a carrier network challenging. Carriers have little ability to influence a user’s choice of applications or an application developer’s efficiency in using network resources other than through various forms of usage-based pricing. If data usage continues to grow, carriers will face significant costs to expand network capacity. Carriers’ technical options for managing network resources are also limited by the capabilities in the underlying network equipment and mobile devices. Carriers may

<sup>38</sup> [http://www.theregister.co.uk/2012/11/15/android\\_sdk\\_fragmentation\\_license\\_change/](http://www.theregister.co.uk/2012/11/15/android_sdk_fragmentation_license_change/)

also limit their experimentation with alternative network-management practices to avoid drawing attention from regulators like the FCC.

**Network equipment vendors:** Mobile broadband providers rely on equipment like cellular base stations, serving and packet gateways, and mobility control software to build and manage their mobile broadband infrastructure.



Buying this equipment is a significant capital expense for the carriers as they expand their network footprint, and the capabilities of the equipment influence how the operators can manage their customers' traffic. This, together with the entrance of low-cost players, has driven the rapid commoditization of the network equipment market, and an attendant limit in the level of research and development that can be supported. While the network equipment vendors do not interact directly with end users, or the application and operating system developers, the interplay with device manufacturers is more significant. The network equipment and mobile devices must implement the same standard protocols for the radio access network, leading to cooperation (and competition) in standards bodies leading to more complex standards and the need for extensive interoperability testing. In addition, network equipment vendors must compete with device manufacturers for the limited capital the carriers have to spend on equipment and device subsidies. The network equipment vendors are also dependent on the component manufacturers (e.g., Texas Instruments, Broadcom, and Freescale) that make the chipsets used in their equipment for the radio access and cellular core networks.

In conclusion, the mobile broadband ecosystem has complex power dynamics that affect the incentives each party has to invest in innovation. These dynamics shift rapidly over time in response to business trends (e.g., the prominence of the Blackberry giving way to the iPhone, the emergence of the open Android operating system as a replacement for Apple iOS, and the transition from circuit voice to VoIP with the attendant ecosystem changes). In the next section, we present several case studies of technology and business trends that are affecting openness in the mobile broadband ecosystem.

## 2. Case Studies

In this section, we present several case studies that illustrate how the inter-relationships in the mobile broadband ecosystem can affect the incentives of different parties to invest and innovate.

### 2.1 App Stores: App Developers and Operating System Developers

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

App stores have become an omnipresent feature of mobile broadband. Consumers and app developers both benefit from the convenience that they provide, but app store operators can also restrict the development of mobile applications by leveraging their control over which applications are made available and under what conditions. This section explains some of the motivations for the creation of app stores, explores how app stores may impede openness, and discusses how the trend towards web-based app development might change these dynamics in the future.

The development of mobile app stores – and the app-centric nature of the mobile environment in general – is in some ways a reaction to issues that have arisen with other common software distribution models: traditional desktop software and web-based applications.

In the desktop environment, installed programs have access to a computer's operating system under permission systems that vary as to their robustness and security properties. During the early to mid-2000s, prevalence of malware on personal computers was especially high<sup>39</sup>. The rise in malware was correlated with the emerging prevalence of downloadable, executable content and a runtime model that allowed users to easily and inadvertently introduce malicious code into their machines. Thus, the pure desktop model, with associated malware risks, was seen by some early smartphone innovators as inappropriate for smartphones<sup>40</sup>.

Web-based applications, on the other hand, are becoming increasingly robust and are generally safer to run by virtue of the fact that they are confined to the browser<sup>41</sup>. Unfortunately, web applications still lack direct access to many mobile devices' underlying functionality and hardware and thus cannot perform the same functions or provide the same performance as local apps. Although the continued development of HTML5 (discussed below), sophisticated JavaScript APIs, and other web technologies are rapidly pushing web apps forward, in-browser applications still lag behind in some cases in terms of functionality and convenience.

The app-centric model for mobile broadband has therefore been viewed as a way to combine trust and functionality. Apps often undergo review by platform providers and run in a semi-sandboxed environment on the phone's software platform, increasing trust. Because they run locally on the device, they can be hardware-accelerated and have access to a more rich suite of device features than web-based apps.

Apple, Google, Microsoft, and other app store providers shape these dynamics and the overall openness of the mobile app landscape through the policies that they set. These policies concern a variety of technical, operational, and business aspects, including:

- **Installation sources:** On some devices and operating systems (notably Apple's), going through the app store is the *only* way to install an app on non-jailbroken devices. Apple allows web-based applications to be saved as bookmarks, but the user interface and interactions with web

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<sup>39</sup> [http://download.microsoft.com/download/1/A/7/1A76A73B-6C5B-41CF-9E8C-33F7709B870F/Microsoft\\_Security\\_Intelligence\\_Report\\_Special\\_Edition\\_10\\_Year\\_Review.pdf](http://download.microsoft.com/download/1/A/7/1A76A73B-6C5B-41CF-9E8C-33F7709B870F/Microsoft_Security_Intelligence_Report_Special_Edition_10_Year_Review.pdf)

<sup>40</sup> [http://www.nytimes.com/2007/01/11/technology/11cnd-apple.html?\\_r=0](http://www.nytimes.com/2007/01/11/technology/11cnd-apple.html?_r=0)

<sup>41</sup> <http://blog.chromium.org/2008/10/new-approach-to-browser-security-google.html>

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

bookmarks and installed apps are not always equivalent. In contrast, Google Play is one of many avenues for app developers to get their apps onto Android devices; Android users can download apps directly from web sites or from other app stores and the OS includes a setting that allows users to “accept apps from unknown sources.” Established providers such as Amazon have created their own app stores and developer resources to get apps onto Android-based devices, such as the Kindle Fire.

- **Screening policies:** App store providers have a variety of policies and procedures for screening apps before and after they have been placed in the store. Apps may be reviewed for performance, functionality, access to user data, security, user interface design, and content. Apple reviews all apps before they can appear in the App Store, rejects those that do not meet its App Review Guidelines<sup>42</sup>, and may remove apps even after they have been approved. Microsoft uses a similar process and policy<sup>43</sup>. Google generally does not do up-front app screening but removes apps from Play that are found to have security vulnerabilities or that violate Google’s terms<sup>44</sup>. Google has also removed specific tethering apps from its app store, reportedly at the request of carriers, because carriers forbid the use of tethering in some of their service plans<sup>45</sup>. Incidentally, the mobile OS vendors also have the capability to remotely uninstall malicious apps<sup>46</sup> directly from users’ devices.
- **Revenue-sharing requirements:** App store providers can establish terms that allow them to retain a portion of apps’ purchase prices, in-app subscription fees, or ad revenue. Apple, Google, and Microsoft generally retain a 20-30% share of app purchase prices (as does Amazon for its Android-based store)<sup>47</sup>. They may also set the terms about how subscriptions and content can be sold within apps<sup>48</sup>.
- **App store navigation:** App store providers choose which apps to feature prominently in their stores and how to categorize apps, at times making decisions that run counter to app developers’ desires<sup>49</sup>.

All of these policies have the potential to limit the openness of mobile app development. Developers that want to be able to reach users of non-jailbroken Apple devices have no choice but to comply with the terms that Apple sets for the App Store, including the revenue-sharing policies, standards concerning what Apple considers to be “objectionable” content, and technical limitations that include the inability to

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<sup>42</sup> <https://developer.apple.com/appstore/guidelines.html>

<sup>43</sup> <http://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/windows/apps/hh694083.aspx>

<sup>44</sup> <http://play.google.com/about/developer-distribution-agreement.html>

<sup>45</sup> [http://news.cnet.com/8301-30686\\_3-20059461-266.html](http://news.cnet.com/8301-30686_3-20059461-266.html)

<sup>46</sup> <http://latimesblogs.latimes.com/technology/2011/03/google-removing-virus-infected-android-apps-from-phones-tablets-promises-better-secutiry.html>

<sup>47</sup> <https://developer.apple.com/programs/ios/distribute.html>

<sup>48</sup> <https://developer.apple.com/in-app-purchase/>

<sup>49</sup> <http://www.businesswire.com/news/home/20130314005784/en/Adblock-Reports-Removal-Google-Play-Store-Android>

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

obtain administrative privileges, tether, or alter the “look and feel” of the app<sup>50</sup>. The Android ecosystem is free of many of these limitations, but Google still retains the final say over which apps may appear in Google Play and how easy they are to find and use. On some devices, Google Play is a central source for Android apps despite there being other ways for users to obtain them.

In principle, the convenience and security of the app store model need not be tied to store provider policies limiting the operation or availability of certain apps. Cydia, for example, provides an app store and directory for jailbroken Apple devices, allowing users to more easily discover apps without subjecting app developers to restrictive installation policies or revenue-sharing agreements. While app stores play a pivotal role in the user experience of mobile broadband, it is important to distinguish between the barriers erected by app stores’ policies, technical limitations on app development that may be platform-specific but unrelated to app store policies, and the security properties that motivated the development of app stores in the first place. For example, operating system vendors could make the full suite of hardware APIs available to all browsers and apps while still retaining an app store model. This would ease the development of independent apps, but would still subject app developers to the terms set by the app store providers. By the same token, sandboxing and other techniques for making code execution safer could be supported by operating system vendors regardless of whether they enforce an app store model on their platforms or not.

One trend that may shift developers and users away from existing app store models is the continued maturation of the suite of HTML5 technologies<sup>51 52</sup>. HTML5 comprises the latest versions of the building blocks of the web plus a wide variety of newly developed APIs that give mobile developers access to critical device functionality, including sensors (camera, microphone, etc.), the file system, network interfaces, graphics support, and much more. Because it is based on open, interoperable web standards, the HTML5 technology suite allows developers to build applications from a single code base that work on any device with an up-to-date browser -- which means most any smartphone or tablet already in use. Thus, as HTML5 takes hold as an app development platform, developers will be able to distribute their apps across platforms, independent of whether they are also offered in app stores. HTML5 also includes a variety of security features designed to prevent the kinds of attacks that are often associated with downloadable software and that motivated the development of app stores.

Many HTML5 components are already fully functional and supported by the major browsers, but certain parts of the technology suite are still in the process of being developed and standardized, and questions remain about whether web-based apps can match the performance and user experience of platform-specific ones. As the tools that developers need to create HTML5-based apps that are equivalent or superior to platform-specific apps become increasingly available, the role of app stores in influencing which apps are available and under which conditions may be diminished.

### **2.2 Service Agreements: Users and Mobile Broadband Providers**

Mobile broadband providers have a direct influence on how their customers can access networked services. Service agreements constrain how customers can use their mobile devices. These agreements

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<sup>50</sup> <https://www.eff.org/deeplinks/2012/05/apples-crystal-prison-and-future-open-platforms#gatekeeper>

<sup>51</sup> <http://www.w3.org/TR/html5/>

<sup>52</sup> <http://www.whatwg.org/specs/web-apps/current-work/multipage/>

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

illustrate the tensions between the providers' need to limit financial risks (e.g., in discounting or “subsidizing” handsets for customers willing to sign a long-term contract, expanding network capacity, and setting prices for multi-year contracts) and the benefits of giving users flexibility in how they use their mobile devices in a rapidly changing environment.

**Billing model:** Most mobile broadband providers offer service contracts with a variety of pricing plans. Over the years, unlimited, “all you can eat” data plans have largely given way to plans with bandwidth caps (where subscribers lose network speed after exceeding the cap) or additional charges for additional increments of bandwidth consumption. Still, some providers have many subscribers on “grandfathered” unlimited data plans, increasing the likelihood of high bandwidth consumption when certain applications (e.g., streaming video) or user practices (e.g., tethering) become popular. To manage traffic from these subscribers, some carriers “throttle” top users (i.e., limiting their bandwidth consumption during periods of peak load). Usage caps and usage-based billing encourage users to limit their use of network bandwidth (or defer usage until wired or WiFi connectivity is available), while only indirectly constraining usage during periods of peak load. Alternatives like time-dependent pricing, where providers offer lower prices during off-peak hours (and higher prices when the network is congested), have received significant academic attention, but to our knowledge have not been offered in the market.

**Device locking:** Many carriers provide customers with a “locked” phone that cannot work with other carriers. Software on the phone ties the subscriber ID (on the SIM card in GSM phones) to the serial number of that particular phone, preventing the customer from using the SIM card in a different phone, or using the phone with a different SIM card. While unlocked phones are common in Europe, most U.S. providers offer locked phones that prevent customers from switching service providers (without buying a new phone), temporarily using a different SIM card during international travel to avoid large roaming fees, or selling an old phone to another user. Providers vary in whether they offer unlocked cell phones (possibly at a higher price) or are willing to unlock a phone after the contract ends (i.e., after recouping the cost of the device subsidy). Recently, the Library of Congress moved to ban mobile users from unlocking their phones without the carriers' permission<sup>53</sup>, treating attempts to circumvent device locking as violating the anti-circumvention provisions of the Digital Millennium Copyright Act (DMCA). In response, some regional and rural providers have supported efforts to allow users to legally unlock their phones<sup>54</sup> without their providers' permission.

**Tethering:** Many providers restrict customers from “tethering” to share a mobile broadband connection with other devices, such as a laptop. Some providers do not allow tethering on certain data plans (e.g., unlimited plans), or require customers to pay extra (above the normal cost of their data plan) for tethering. The rationale is that tethering often leads to a substantial increase in bandwidth usage, beyond what the provider may have anticipated when designing its network and pricing structures. In 2012, Verizon was accused of requesting that Google remove tethering applications from the Android app store, so customers could not use these applications as a way to avoid paying a \$20/month tethering fee. The FCC ultimately reached a consent decree<sup>55</sup> and settlement with Verizon, under the terms of which Verizon

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<sup>53</sup> <https://dl.dropboxusercontent.com/u/3155588/SJUD%20cell%20phone%20bill.pdf>

<sup>54</sup> <http://www.mobilenapps.com/articles/7901/20130314/phone-unlocking-small-carriers-backing-bill-for-apples-iphone-access.htm>

<sup>55</sup> <http://www.fcc.gov/document/order-and-consent-decree-verizon-wireless-pay-125-million>

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

could not block access to tethering applications<sup>56</sup>, making it possible for users with unlimited data plans to tether without paying extra charges; customers subject to usage caps or usage-based billing would have their tethering traffic metered just like any other data traffic. This decision by the FCC was specific to Verizon (under the conditions attached to spectrum licenses that Verizon purchased at auction), and the FCC has not taken any action as to other providers.

**Application restrictions:** Some providers impose restrictions on what mobile applications a subscriber can run under specific pricing plans. A good example is the evolution of AT&T's policies concerning Apple's FaceTime application for high-quality video calls, as discussed in an earlier report<sup>57</sup> from our OIAC working group. FaceTime is automatically integrated into the calling features of the mobile device, and makes heavy use of radio network bandwidth in both directions between the device and the cellular base station. When FaceTime first became available over cellular data networks, AT&T limited the use of FaceTime to customers of its MobileShare data plan, where multiple devices share a single limit for total data usage. Later, AT&T broadened the range of plans that support FaceTime, but still did not support the application for subscribers on its legacy unlimited data plan; recently, AT&T announced that all customers<sup>58</sup> (even those on unlimited data plans) will be able to run FaceTime over the cellular LTE network by the end of 2013. Another example of carriers imposing application restrictions occurs when they prohibit the use of tethering applications in their terms of service. These restrictions sometimes arise *after* a customer has chosen a specific service contract, when the emergence of a new application leads to heightened concerns about sudden increases in bandwidth usage.

**Two-sided pricing:** Usage caps and usage-based billing naturally make users conservative about running bandwidth-intensive applications (e.g., video streaming and online gaming). Some content providers and mobile providers may be willing to offer "toll free" or "sender pays" services, where the bandwidth consumed is sponsored or paid by the content provider, rather than counted towards the customers' usage cap. Broad use of two-sided pricing is not (yet) common in the U.S. mobile broadband market<sup>59</sup>, though several European and Asian providers have partnered with content providers to offer plans that do not count applications like Facebook and Spotify against a usage cap<sup>60</sup>. These trends raise interesting questions about openness. On the one hand, "toll-free" data may facilitate end-users' ability to access mobile content at a reasonable cost from those providers willing to subsidize the cost of delivering the data. Enabling content providers to pay for data delivery offers users an incentive to access the sponsored content. In the short run, this is beneficial for consumers of that content, particularly for budget conscious users on smaller data plans. On the other hand, sponsored delivery potentially works *against*<sup>61</sup> the goals of

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<sup>56</sup> <http://bits.blogs.nytimes.com/2012/07/31/fcc-verizon-tethering/>

<sup>57</sup> <http://transition.fcc.gov/cgb/events/ATT-FaceTimeReport.pdf>

<sup>58</sup> <http://www.macobserver.com/tmo/article/att-opening-facetime-over-cellular-to-all>

<sup>59</sup> Discussions of two-sided pricing sometimes reference the Amazon Kindle e-reader device, which in some cases is sold to users without requiring them to purchase a separate service contract with a carrier despite the fact that the device uses a cellular network. However, e-book downloads consume relatively little bandwidth and do not constitute general, universal Internet service. As the Kindle started supporting basic Web browsing, and some users started [tethering the device](#) to use as a mobile hotspot, Amazon started [capping the free cellular bandwidth usage to 50 megabytes per month](#).

<sup>60</sup> [http://www.npt.no/marked/markedregulering-smp/marked/marked-7/\\_attachment/2362?\\_ts=139b9fde471](http://www.npt.no/marked/markedregulering-smp/marked/marked-7/_attachment/2362?_ts=139b9fde471)

<sup>61</sup> <http://media.law.stanford.edu/publications/archive/pdf/schewick-statement-20100428.pdf>

openness because (i) increasing the costs for content providers may reduce innovation and (ii) smaller, upstart content providers cannot easily amortize the “chargeback” costs through advertising revenue or subscription fees. Entrenching the largest content providers that have the means to strike deals for sponsored data with carriers puts new entrants at a disadvantage. This is clearly an area of ongoing debate.

The evolution of service contracts and pricing plans show that there is a great deal of experimentation in mobile business models, which is enabling innovation and value to customers and others in the ecosystem. Some business models raise concerns about carriers restricting the way consumers use their mobile devices and about long-term impacts on application and content innovation.

### **2.3 Network-Unfriendly Apps: Mobile Broadband Providers and App Developers**

The applications running on mobile devices have a profound influence on the network resource demands for mobile providers. While supporting the resource demands of applications is also important in wireline networks, mobile broadband networks raise several unique challenges. First, mobile apps are written by millions of software developers, including an unprecedented number of novice programmers who have little understanding of how high-level design decisions affect the usage of network and battery resources. Second, radio access networks have very limited bandwidth, particularly on the “uplink” from the mobile devices to the cellular base station, making it relatively easy for one rogue application to consume most of the available resources. Third, communication in cellular networks requires mobile devices to first establish a “bearer” with the base station, leading to signaling overhead. Fourth, expanding the capacity of a cellular network requires a substantial upfront investment for acquiring spectrum licenses, deploying cell towers, and transitioning to new technologies (e.g., LTE).

For mobile providers, applications that (unwittingly) consume excessive bandwidth and signaling resources cause congestion for other users in the short term, and require a larger investment in network capacity in the long term. In addition, applications that waste network bandwidth or battery lifetime limit the value of a mobile broadband service to end users, particularly if users are subject to usage caps or usage-based billing. As a result, without greater transparency to increase user awareness of an application’s efficiency -- and usage-based pricing models to incent them to choose the most efficient applications -- providers could see a limited return on the substantial investment required to expand network capacity, and still face the risk of a new mobile application swamping the available resources. Mobile applications can consume excessive network resources in several ways:

**Chatty applications consuming excessive signaling resources:** In contrast with wireline networks, mobile devices cannot communicate over a cellular network without first establishing a “bearer” to the cell tower. Establishing a bearer requires the mobile device to exchange several control messages over the cellular network. To avoid the overhead of establishing a new bearer, the mobile device continues to occupy transmission channels and codes until a period of inactivity expires. As such, transmitting a small amount of data can consume significant resources in the radio access network, as well as significant battery resources on the mobile device. The problem is exacerbated by “chatty” applications that periodically send short messages to monitor user behavior, maintain a connection for “pushing” data to the mobile device, or update the display of advertisements. Depending on the frequency of the messages, each transmission may require establishing a new bearer, at the expense of additional signaling resources.

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

A recent study<sup>62</sup> showed that some applications consume as little as 1.7% of network bandwidth, but up to 30% of signaling capacity. Signaling load is a low-level issue that even a seasoned application developer might not consider, and it may cause an application that worked perfectly well on a wireline network to overwhelm a cellular network.

**Aggressive applications consuming excessive bandwidth:** The Internet relies on end-host computers to adapt their sending rates in response to network congestion, to ensure fair sharing of the available bandwidth. Applications using the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) automatically send data more quickly when the network is lightly loaded, and more slowly when the network is congested enough to drop packets. In addition to decreasing the sending rate, multimedia applications may adjust the audio or video encoding to continue streaming data quickly enough for continuous playback despite the reduced available bandwidth. However, some applications do not use TCP or perform “TCP-friendly” congestion control, open multiple parallel TCP connections to receive a larger share of the limited bandwidth, or do not use adaptive content encodings. The encoding issue was apparently at play with Apple’s FaceTime application, as discussed in an earlier report<sup>63</sup> by this OIAC working group. In addition, some operating systems are intentionally more aggressive than the protocol standards prescribe in sending data at the start of a TCP connection<sup>64</sup>, to reduce latency particularly for small transfers. Given the Internet protocols place important resource-management functionality at the end hosts, the sharing of the limited bandwidth in a cellular network is not completely within the provider’s control.

**Inefficient applications transferring redundant data:** A mobile application often needs to display the same data to the end user more than once, such as previously-downloaded images or articles. Caching content on the mobile device is an effective way to avoid duplicate transmission of the same data, reducing the consumption of battery, bandwidth, and signaling resources. Despite some support for caching on mobile devices, a recent study<sup>65</sup> found that redundant data transfers still consume 18-20% of bandwidth and 6% of signaling load. Rather than performing data transfers themselves, many mobile applications use HTTP libraries. Unfortunately, many of these libraries do not perform caching at all, or do not fully support the HTTP protocol standards for caching. Similarly, some mobile Web browsers do not make effective use of caching. In addition, cached data does not always survive an application crashing or a mobile device rebooting, leading to further wasted transfers and battery resources. In some cases, software bugs can cause excessive downloading of redundant content, as was in the case with an earlier bug in Apple iOS 6.0<sup>66</sup> that caused duplicate downloads of certain podcasts<sup>67</sup>. Enforcing usage caps and usage-based billing can help carriers recoup the cost of duplicate data transmissions, but also gives users the perception of a lower quality of experience for a given price for their mobile broadband service, and does not provide a direct incentive to app developers to reduce redundant transmissions.

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<sup>62</sup> Feng Qian et al, “Periodic transfers in mobile applications: Network-wide origin, impact, and optimization,” in *Proceedings of the World Wide Web Conference*, May 2012.

[http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~zmao/Papers/periodic\\_www2012.pdf](http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~zmao/Papers/periodic_www2012.pdf)

<sup>63</sup> <http://transition.fcc.gov/cgb/events/ATT-FaceTimeReport.pdf>

<sup>64</sup> <http://blog.benstrong.com/2010/11/google-and-microsoft-cheat-on-slow.html>

<sup>65</sup> Feng Qian et al, “Web caching on smart phones: Ideal vs. reality,” in *Proceedings of MobiSys*, June 2012. [http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~zmao/Papers/caching\\_mobisys2012.pdf](http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~zmao/Papers/caching_mobisys2012.pdf)

<sup>66</sup> <http://venturebeat.com/2012/11/14/ios-6-0-bug-causing-massive-data-consumption-on-podcasts/#bmb=1%20%E2%80%A6>

<sup>67</sup> <http://labs.prx.org/2012/11/14/ios-6-0-devours-data-plans-causes-cdn-overages/>

Although applications may consume excessive resources, the incentives of all of the parties---application developers, mobile broadband providers, and end users---are generally aligned. More efficient applications lead to better performance (and better battery lifetime) for users, and lower loads on the network. As such, the main challenges are *education* (of application developers, so they can write network-friendly apps) and *visibility* (for users, so they know which applications are hogging resources). A good example of education of developers is AT&T's Application Resource Optimization (ARO) tool<sup>68</sup> and associated training, which helps application developers understand how their apps would behave on mobile broadband networks. ARO helped the developers of the popular Pandora application substantially reduce their consumption of energy and signaling resources by transmitting audience measurement data less frequently. A good example of visibility is the reviews of applications in app stores, which increasingly comment on an application's use of battery and bandwidth (though not signaling load). Further investment in tools, training, and rating of applications would help application developers and users alike make more informed decisions about resource consumption.

### **2.4 Wi-Fi Offloading: Competition for Mobile Providers**

One technology trend that is changing the dynamics of the mobile broadband market is the growth of non-commercial, wireless Internet access, typically provided using unlicensed spectrum approaches such as Wi-Fi, in many cases, backhauled over a pre-existing (wired) broadband connection.

Over the past 10 years, there has been an exponential growth in cellular data traffic, driven primarily by the dramatic increase in use of smart phones and tablets. As a consequence of the growth in demand, mobile broadband providers are aggressively expanding their network capacity. In addition, due to the prevalence of Wi-Fi on smart phones and tablets, and the increasing availability of Wi-Fi-enabled Internet service in public places (e.g. coffee shops, airports, campuses, hotels) and Wi-Fi-enabled routers at home and in the enterprise, an increasing fraction of mobile wireless data traffic is carried over Wi-Fi access, rather than cellular networks, with different studies suggesting that anywhere from 20-80% of wireless data traffic is carried over Wi-Fi, and ~30-50% of the 'mobile' data traffic may be *cost-effectively* offloaded from cellular networks, depending on the specific deployment scenario<sup>69</sup>.

One of the key differences between Wi-Fi networks and cellular networks is that Wi-Fi users may be subject to interference from users of neighboring access points. The quality of a Wi-Fi connection as compared to a cellular data connection may therefore suffer in the presence of interference due to a lower signal-to-noise ratio, resulting in a significantly diminished throughput relative to cellular networks in public settings; a recent paper<sup>70</sup> suggests that less than a third of mobile data traffic may be carried over Wi-Fi networks even in campus environments with dense Wi-Fi deployments. Likewise, similar Quality of Service (QoS) mechanisms that offer hierarchical or differential scheduling and queuing of data flows

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<sup>68</sup> <http://www.att.com/gen/press-room?pid=22388>

<sup>69</sup> Randall Schwartz and Magnus Johansson, "Carrier WiFi Offload: Building a business case for carrier WiFi offload," Wireless 20/20, March 2012.

<http://www.wireless2020.com/docs/CarrierWiFiOffloadWhitePaper03202012.pdf>

<sup>70</sup> Shu Liu and Aaron Striegel, "Casting doubts on the viability of WiFi offloading," in *Proceedings of ACM SIGCOMM Workshop on Cellular Networks*, August 2012.

<http://conferences.sigcomm.org/sigcomm/2012/paper/cellnet/p25.pdf>

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

with different priorities may not be available on Wi-Fi and cellular connections, depending on their configuration. But the availability of cheap or free capacity (and considerable spectrum, e.g., ~400 Mhz in the 5Ghz band<sup>71</sup>) makes Wi-Fi-based solutions attractive for simple web services delivery. Furthermore, with the emergence of usage-based pricing for cellular data services, which encourages users to manage their cellular data usage, and provides unlimited access when the user is connected to certain Wi-Fi Access Points (their own at home, or in a public place), it is legitimate to ask “will Wi-Fi eventually carry a large enough share of mobile user traffic to cause a significant change in the mobile broadband market, and change the essential economics?”. This section explores some aspects of this question.

To address this question, we must first identify the types of Wi-Fi solutions. For the purposes of this discussion, we characterize three types of Wi-Fi: (i) non-public indoor (owned/operated by an individual or business), (ii) public indoor including both free or fee-based (likely owned and operated by a business, and provided to its customers) and commercial (owned and operated by a Wi-Fi network operator), and (iii) public outdoor (likely owned and operated by a network provider or campus-based business, or municipality).

These different types of Wi-Fi access points have different characteristics in terms of accessibility, security, and performance, as well as different degrees of utility to the user. They also have different economics. The benefits and limitations of each are summarized in the following table:

	<b>Cost to Operate</b>	<b>Accessibility</b>	<b>Service Continuity</b>	<b>Radio Performance</b>	<b>Commercial Service</b>	<b>Cellular Offload Potential</b>
<b>Type 1</b> (non-public indoor)	<b>Low</b> (unmanaged & connected to existing BB)	<b>Limited</b> (only to individual users or employees)	<b>Limited</b>	<b>Not managed</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>&gt; 50%</b>
<b>Type 2</b> (public indoor)	<b>Medium</b> (managed by connected to existing BB)	<b>Good</b> (subject to business rules)	<b>Some</b> (indoor continuity)	<b>Some management</b>	<b>Yes</b> (direct or indirect payment or subscription)	<b>&lt; 50%</b>
<b>Type 3</b> (public outdoor)	<b>High</b> (managed & uses new network connection)	<b>Good</b> (subject to subscription or business rules)	<b>More</b> (outdoor continuity and cellular networking)	<b>More management</b>	<b>Yes</b> (subscription service)	<b>&lt; 50%</b>

The preceding table summarizes the essential properties of the different Wifi deployment types, with the table categories and entries defined as follows:

- **Cost to Build and Operate:** This refers to existence of a backhaul network, power, and Wi-Fi access point management

<sup>71</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\\_of\\_WLAN\\_channels](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_WLAN_channels)

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

- Low cost: Pre-existing, economical backhaul and power with no AP management
- High cost: New backhaul and power network and sophisticated management
- Accessibility: This refers to the ability to connect to Wi-Fi APs
  - Limited: Restricted only to certain users (e.g. employees)
  - Good: Can be accessed by anyone willing to subscribe or agree to terms and conditions
- Service Continuity: This refers to ability to maintain a session or connectivity when moving from one location to another
  - Limited: Little or no ability to seamlessly connect to neighboring AP
  - Some: Able to maintain session between APs in similar location, from same provider
  - More: Session and service continuity by interworking with other APs and/or the cellular network
- Radio Performance: This refers to management of the Wi-Fi air interface
  - Not managed: Air interface configuration independent of all other APs
  - Some management: Some coordination of APs via common controller
  - More management: Coordination of APs via common controller, with interference management
- Commercial Service: This refers to whether a Service Provider owns and manages APs
  - No: APs owned by private individual or entity
  - Yes: APs owned by commercial entity (business, building provider) or Service Provider
- Cellular Offload Potential: This concerns the potential of a Wi-Fi AP to offload cellular network traffic
  - There are many different estimates of the how much data offload can be achieved by a Wi-Fi network (see the preceding references for examples), but it is broadly agreed that somewhere between 50-75% of time the average user is in home or in an enterprise environment where Wi-Fi experiences relatively little interference and so is highly effective at offloading data traffic, and consequently only 25-50% of the time is the user outdoors or in a public indoor location, where a combination of Wi-Fi and cellular networks would provide the solution.

What does this simple analysis suggest about the impact of Wi-Fi solutions on the mobile broadband market? The growth of these free or lower cost alternatives in any market clearly benefits consumers in terms of providing access to more wireless capacity. However, it is also the case that the user experience amongst Wi-Fi services varies widely, with registration procedures not being seamless, the network performance sometimes poor due to interference, and inconsistent deployment of recent Wi-Fi security enhancements. Some of these issues are being addressed by the Hotspot 2.0 initiative<sup>72</sup> of the Wi-Fi Alliance, which seeks to increase the degree of ‘management’ of Wi-Fi access points, and to provide seamless authentication and session continuity (between Wi-Fi access points within the same area). Based on these trends, mobile operators are increasingly integrating Wi-Fi solutions with their cellular offers and encouraging use of Wi-Fi for unlimited data offload for ‘best effort’ services. Indeed, 3GPP is working in standards to allow seamless session continuity between cellular and Wi-Fi solutions, per serving area or per cell, or even per application in future, based on the local availability of capacity, and the needs of the application, as well as user preference and services agreements.

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<sup>72</sup>[http://www.cisco.com/en/US/solutions/collateral/ns341/ns524/ns673/white\\_paper\\_c11-649337.html](http://www.cisco.com/en/US/solutions/collateral/ns341/ns524/ns673/white_paper_c11-649337.html)

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

These emerging trends effectively mean that Wi-Fi will not just be a wireless broadband solution, but will also become an essential part of providing mobile broadband services to users. Furthermore, given the lower barrier for entry into the Wi-Fi solution space (due to the absence of the need to acquire spectrum or to support wide-area coverage, or mobility), the number of providers that can and will likely enter this space is significant and will likely therefore stimulate additional innovation in wireless data services.

So the future of mobile broadband should consider the combined roles of licensed and unlicensed spectrum solutions, as they are complementary parts of the space, with licensed spectrum approaches providing coverage and capacity with full mobility, security, and quality of service, and unlicensed approaches providing additional capacity with some (e.g., indoor) mobility and nomadicity, but with more limited QoS capabilities and inconsistent security implementation, at least in the near future.

Looking forward, there will be further evolutions of this licensed/unlicensed paradigm to include ‘shared spectrum’ approaches, based on white-space spectrum (spectrum in and around the TV frequencies that is either unused or infrequently used) or in higher frequency bands such as the 3.5GHz band currently licensed for military use, but for which the FCC has indicated the desire to make available for commercial use by multiple parties in a shared way (use it when you need it, then release it) in a Notice of Public Rule Making (NPRM)<sup>73</sup>.

Consequently, we conclude that the user mobile broadband experience will be provided by a combination of complementary approaches, and potentially a variety of different providers, indoor, outdoor, at home, and at work. This dynamism to the mobile broadband market suggests that the future of user choice and experience delivery will continue to grow and expand, with increasing value delivered by the expanded ecosystem.

### 3. Conclusions

The mobile broadband ecosystem is complex and dynamic, with a variety of players affecting the user experience and the incentives for further innovation and investment. This report encourages the FCC to take a broad view of interactions between the different players in the mobile broadband ecosystem, even though most of the parties involved are not subject to the Open Internet Order. Also, we recommend being watchful of recent trends, such as HTML5 and Wi-Fi offloading, that may lead to greater competition, as well as the emergence of several “vertical players” with growing influence spanning multiple parts of the ecosystem.

We believe that transparency, education, and competition are important complements to existing FCC oversight in helping achieve the goal of a healthy mobile broadband ecosystem. Transparency can take many forms, such as the disclosures required by the Open Internet Order, and improved communication to users (about applications’ battery and network resource consumption) and application developers (about the policies by which app stores and carriers might restrict access to their applications). Education includes teaching application developers how to create “network friendly” applications. Finally, competition includes both a healthy balance *between* the various parts of the ecosystem as well as having

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<sup>73</sup> <http://www.fcc.gov/document/enabling-innovative-small-cell-use-35-ghz-band-nprm-order>

## Open Internet Advisory Committee - 2013 Annual Report

multiple viable choices *within* each part of the ecosystem. The combination of all these factors will help ensure all players – not just those subject to the Open Internet Order – contribute to the openness and health of the mobile Internet.

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