

# Introduction to Choice Modeling

Data Science, General Assemb.ly

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Wednesday, 7 May , 2014

AGENDA

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- **Introduction to (applied) Choice Modeling**
  - Learning how to leverage data & use predictive models
  - Takeaway: understand behavioral patterns & decision making process
- **Discrete Choice Models**
  - LPM – Linear Probability Model
  - Non-Linear Probability Models:
    - Logit (Log-Normal dist.)
    - Probit (normal dist.)
    - Nested-Logit
    - Random Coefficient (RD)
    - BLP
    - ....
- **Practical Example**
  - Motivation in Real-World Interface

## How can we explain changes and differences between the choices we make – everyday?

- ▶ Choices?:
  - ❖ Whether I decide to work (be employed), or not?
  - ❖ Whether I decide to purchase 2% milk vs. non-fat milk?
  - ❖ Whether a firm decides to adopt a new technology?
  - ❖ Whether I decide to get married?
  - ❖ Whether Apple should invest in a new feature (or improve a current one)?

*All of these are important everyday choices we want to understand*

## What can we do ?

- We can try to *understand how decisions are made* (what drives our decision to choose, behave, or act in a certain way..)
- We can try to *understand how different features/attributes affect* our decisions or our behavior

*We will be able to make recommendations, create strategy, and policies*

### Example: Buy iPhone vs. Android?

How different attributes (e.g.: screen, design,..) or features (e.g.: Siri, Touch-Screen) affect our decision to buy an iPhone or other (Android)

*Seems to be important for manufacturers, marketers, and developers*

# MOTIVATION

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In order to answer these questions we need to understand agents' behavior (e.g.: consumers, firms, policies)

→ we need to define and estimate **Choice Models** –Discrete (binary) or Continues

- We will focus on Discrete Choice Models
- **Discrete Choice Models - A binary Choice:**
  - All of these questions deal with binary choices – 0 or 1 (notation: *outcome*  $\equiv y=(0,1)$ )
  - **Examples:**
    - ❖ Be employed, or not? →  $emp(0,1)$
    - ❖ Decided to purchase 2% milk or non-fat milk? →  $milk2\%(0,1)$
    - ❖ Firm decided to adopt a new technology? →  $platform(0,1)$
    - ❖ Get married? →  $married(0,1)$

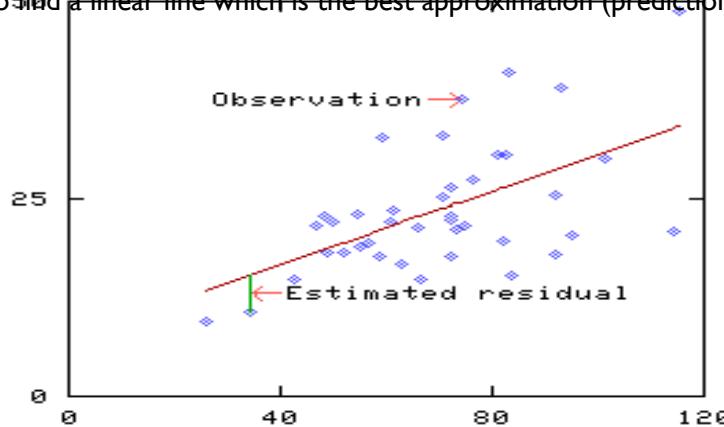
# FROM THEORY TO EMPIRICS

## A Fresh Reminder:

- We are living in a new era! – Big Data
- There are things we know ( $x \downarrow k$ ) and there are some that we don't know ( $u$ )
- OLS regression :  $y = \beta \downarrow 0 + \beta \downarrow 1 x \downarrow 1 + \beta \downarrow 2 x \downarrow 2 + \beta \downarrow 3 x \downarrow 3, \dots, + \beta \downarrow k x \downarrow k + u \uparrow error$   
outcome attributes Un-known information for the econometrician

## What are we trying to do? –Best Approximation

We want to find a linear line which is the best approximation (prediction) given all the data we have



- **The method?** - We minimize the 'error-term'/residual' (distance between the points) :  $MIN(u \uparrow 2) = MIN((y - x\beta) \uparrow 2)$
- OLS is a linear regression – the effect of the estimated parameters ( $\beta \downarrow k$ ) on the outcome ( $y$ ) is linear (i.e., constant)
- How do we interpret the results? – one unit change in  $x \downarrow k$  (increase/decrease) will change  $y$  by  $\beta \downarrow k$  ('linearity')

# MODELS OF DISCRETE CHOICE

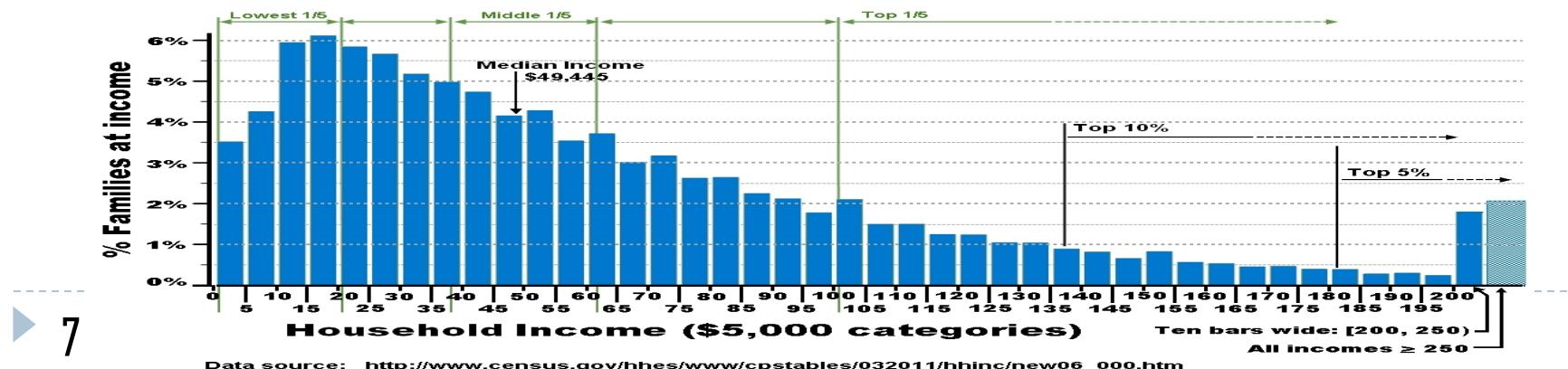
Three common models:

- LPM – Linear Probability Model
- Non-Linear Models (Advanced)
- Probit (assuming Normal dist.)
- Logit (assuming Log-Normal dist.)
- Each model has its own **features** (*assumptions*)
- Each model has its own **pros and cons**

The most important question in the industry (also in academia): *How to choose the 'right' model?*

A: depends on the *assumptions* we make on the *distribution of the error-term* (Log, Normal, etc.)

Example: It is known that income (proxy for employment) is Log-Normal distributed (Why?)



# MODELS OF DISCRETE CHOICE – LPM

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## LPM – Linear Probability Model

In general the empirical model is:

$$y_{it} = \beta_{0t} + \beta_{1t} x_{1t} + \beta_{2t} x_{2t} + \beta_{3t} x_{3t} + \dots + \beta_{kt} x_{kt} + u_{it} ; \text{Where: } y_{it} = 1 \text{ or } 0$$

→ The LPM is a simple OLS regression with a binary dependent variable  $y_{it} = \text{emp}(1,0)$

Why to choose this model:

- Pros: Easy to estimate and compute 😊
- It's generally accepted that the unknown information (unobserved to us) is normally distributed across our sample
  - **Intuition:** Choices are made in a *random way* (with a mean of 0 – on average)

Assumptions:

1. Exogenous – no correlation between  $x_{it}$  (the variables) and the error-term  $u_{it}$   $\rightarrow \text{corr}(x_{it}, u) = 0$   
If  $\text{corr}(x_{it}, u) \neq 0 \rightarrow$  the estimators ( $\beta_{it}$ ) are biased!
2. The error-term is normally distributed ( $u \sim \text{normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ )

# MODELS OF DISCRETE CHOICE – LPM

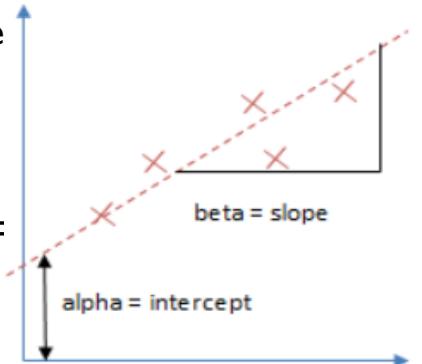
In Practice - Since  $y_{lit}$  is now a binary choice (1,0):

- The outcome ( $y$ ) gets a probability interpretation (different from OLS)
- We should define the 'Probability of Success' -  $Prob(y=1)$  based on our inte

How should we interpret the estimated coefficients (results - betas)?

$\beta_{\downarrow k}$  is the expected change in the probability of 'success' -  $Prob(y_{\downarrow i}=1)$

$$\beta_{\downarrow k} = \partial Prob(y_{\downarrow i}=1|X) / \partial x_{\downarrow j} \text{ where } x_{\downarrow j} \in X$$



- The effect of  $\beta_{\downarrow k}$  is linear on the outcome ( $y$ ) and from here the name – LPM

Some bad news:

The expected (predicted) probability is not necessarily defined between 0-1 (does not make sense..)

## LPM – REAL EXAMPLE

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Question: How do having children affect married women's choice to work (be employed) ?

- Seems to be an important question in order to understand unemployment rate and to define optimal strategies/policies

Data – Israeli Labour Force Survey for the years 1985-2010 (a panel data – time series)

- Notation: Observation  $\rightarrow i$ ; Year  $\rightarrow t$
- Variables:  $x_{ik}$ 
  - 1. year – year of the survey
  - 2. Sex – male (1), female (0)
  - 3. Age
  - 4. Marital status (1= married, 2= divorced, 3= widow, 4= single, 5= married live alone)
  - 5. Schooling – years of education
  - 6. Working\_hours – number of hours at work (per week)
  - 7. emp – 1 (yes) 0 (no) [if working\_hours > 10 a week]
  - 8. ..
  - 9. Controls (demographics), etc

- We need to choose from this huge data-set only: married women who have children

## LPM – REAL EXAMPLE

We will use [python](#) in order to run an OLS simple regression with binary dependent variable - LPM model:

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	22768
Model	796.424037	7	113.774862	F( 7, 22760)	=	530.62
Residual	4880.18313	22760	.214419294	Prob > F	=	0.0000
Total	5676.60717	22767	.249334878	R-squared	=	0.1403
				Adj R-squared	=	0.1400
				Root MSE	=	.46305

emplo	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
schooling	.0317368	.0007409	42.84	0.000	.0302846 .0331891
age	.0617393	.0028811	21.43	0.000	.0560922 .0673864
age_sq	-.0007611	.000032	-23.81	0.000	-.0008238 -.0006985
children_0_4	-.0710904	.0048222	-14.74	0.000	-.0805422 -.0616386
children_5_9	-.0391121	.0043027	-9.09	0.000	-.0475458 -.0306785
children_10_14	-.0485788	.0044201	-10.99	0.000	-.0572426 -.039915
children_15_17	-.0499378	.0064346	-7.76	0.000	-.06255 -.0373256
_cons	-.9485538	.0620296	-15.29	0.000	-1.070136 -.8269716

- All the variables are [statistically significant \(p-value\)](#)
- All variables are consistent with our [intuition \(signs\)](#)
- [How to interpret the results? \(recall\):](#)
  - Each additional schooling year increases the *probability* of being employed by 3.2 biases point (0.317)
  - Having children between the ages of 0-4 decrease the *probability* of being employed by 7.1% (- 0.710)

This model – Discrete Choice – can help us *understand our behavior in real life circumstances*

## LPM – EXAMPLE (AND SOME PROBLEMS..)

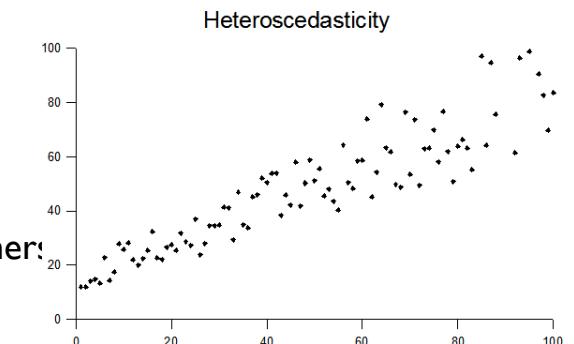
Problems with LPM model:

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
emp10	22768	.5260014	.4993344	0	1
emp_hat	22768	.5260014	.1870334	-.4886191	1.172533

- The predicted probability is not necessarily defined between 0-1

Why? For some observations that prediction of the model result is :  $y_{lit} \equiv emp_{lit} < 0$  or  $emp_{lit} > 1$

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
emp_hat	497	-.0502759	.268012	-.4886191	1.172533



- Another disadvantage of the LPM – Heteroscedasticity:
  - The variance across agents (observations) changes across our sample
  - Some observations ('agents') have different variabilities (std.) from others
  - Heteroscedasticity can invalidate statistical tests of significance
  - The estimators are not biased!

We can easily fix this in python

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## LPM – CONCLUSIONS

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### LPM –

- Easy to estimate (OLS regression)
- The predicted ('expected') probability is not necessarily between 0-1
- The effect of the parameters ( $\beta$ ) on the expected/predicted probability is constant  
(each change in  $x$  will increase/decrease the probability in a constant fashion)

### How can we overcome these crucial issues?

- There are more sophisticated models of discrete choice such as:
  - Probit (assuming standard normal distribution)
  - Logit (assuming standard log-normal distribution)

## PROBIT/LOGIT MODEL

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The general model (like LPM) tries to predict the 'probability of success':

$$\text{Prob}(y_{it}=1 | x_{it}) = \text{Prob}(y_{it}=1 | x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots, x_{it})$$

The general form of the model is:  $\text{Prob}(y_{it}=1 | X) = G(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{it1} + \beta_2 x_{it2} + \dots + \beta_k x_{itk})$

$$s.t. : 0 < G(z) < 1$$

- In order to ensure that the predicted values will be between 0-1 ( $0 < \text{Prob}(\cdot) < 1$ ) we need to choose a function ( $G(z)$ ) that satisfies this constraint
- $G(z)$  - can also be a non-linear function (the effect of the  $\beta_{it}$  varies across observations)

There are two useful functions:

- The logistic function (Logit Model)
- The standard normal function (Probit Model)

# PROBIT/LOGIT MODEL

## Functions properties

### Logit

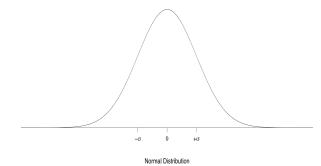
- In the logit model the function ( $G(z)$ ):

$$G(z) = e^{z\beta} / (1 + e^{z\beta})$$

This is the CDF of the standard logistic distribution function

### Probit

- In the Probit model the function ( $G(z)$ ):



$$G(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \phi(v) dv = \theta(z)$$

$$\text{And } \phi(z) = \sqrt{2\pi} \exp(-z^2/2)$$

This is the CDF of the standard normal distribution function

Both functions are:

- Increasing
- ~Equal to 0 when  $Z$  goes to  $-\infty$
- ~Equal to 1 when  $Z$  goes to  $\infty$
- Symmetry around 0:  $1 - G(z) = G(-z)$

In general we can present logit/probit models as a sub-section of latent variable:  $y^* = \beta_0 + x\beta + u$ ,  $y = 1 \text{ if } [y^* > 0]$

# ESTIMATION (IN PRACTICE)

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These models are not linear (the functions) → we **cannot** estimate them using OLS methodology

How do we do it? – using Maximum Likelihood Estimation process

- The log-likelihood of the observations in the sample is:

$$\log L(\beta; y \downarrow 1, x \downarrow 1, y \downarrow 2, x \downarrow 2, y \downarrow 3, x \downarrow 3, \dots, y \downarrow n, x \downarrow n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \{y \downarrow i \log[G(x \downarrow i \beta)] + (1 - y \downarrow i) \log[1 - G(x \downarrow i \beta)]\}$$

- The function is non-linear and so there is no close form solution (analytic) for the estimators.

We are using numeric estimation in order to compute the values of each  $\beta \downarrow k$

- **The intuition behind the process:**

1. Start with a random 'guess' about the magnitude of the coefficients ( $\beta \downarrow k$ )
2. Compute the log-likelihood function (from above)
3. With respect to the sign of the first derivative we choose another close 'guess' (higher or lower value) – and compute once again the log-likelihood
4. Continue (2-3) until you reach the point at which there is no change in the result of the log-likelihood expression formula (converge)

## ESTIMATION - IN PRACTICE

- In order to [compute the Logit Model](#) in Python use (Lab):

$$Prob(y \downarrow i = emp(1)) = \beta \downarrow 0 + \beta \downarrow 1 \text{ schooling} + \beta \downarrow 2 \text{ age} + \beta \downarrow 3 (age)^{12} + \beta \downarrow 4$$

```
Iteration 0:  log likelihood = -15750.775
Iteration 1:  log likelihood = -13979.924
Iteration 2:  log likelihood = -13960.74
Iteration 3:  log likelihood = -13960.718
Iteration 4:  log likelihood = -13960.718

Logistic regression                                         Number of obs     =      22768
                                                               LR chi2(7)      =     3580.11
                                                               Prob > chi2    =     0.0000
                                                               Pseudo R2      =     0.1136

Log likelihood = -13960.718
```

emp10	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
schooling	.1644975	.0041895	39.26	0.000	.1562863 .1727087
age	.2820811	.0136117	20.72	0.000	.2554026 .3087596
age_sq	-.0035001	.0001516	-23.09	0.000	-.0037973 -.003203
children_0_4	-.3870174	.0240956	-16.06	0.000	-.4342438 -.3397909
children_5_9	-.2057233	.0207747	-9.90	0.000	-.246441 -.1650056
children_10_14	-.2434284	.0211916	-11.49	0.000	-.2849632 -.2018935
children_15_17	-.2569445	.0308171	-8.34	0.000	-.3173451 -.196544
_cons	-6.805008	.2963469	-22.96	0.000	-7.385837 -6.224178

- Some questions:
  - Which coefficient is/are significant? Consistent with our intuition?
  - What is the [expected] probability that a women with 16 years of schooling, in the age of 31, and with 0-4 years old children – will go to work (be employed)?

# ESTIMATION - IN PRACTICE [EXPECTED PROB]

- What is the [expected] probability that a women with 16 years of schooling, in the age of 31, and with 0-4 years old children – will go to work (be employed)?

```

Iteration 0:  log likelihood = -15750.775
Iteration 1:  log likelihood = -13979.924
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Iteration 3:  log likelihood = -13960.718
Iteration 4:  log likelihood = -13960.718

Logistic regression
Number of obs = 22768
LR chi2(7) = 3580.11
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Pseudo R2 = 0.1136
Log likelihood = -13960.718

```

- Let's do it together:

emp10	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
schooling	.1644975	.0041895	39.26	0.000	.1562863 .1727087
age	.2820811	.0136117	20.72	0.000	.2554026 .3087596
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_cons	-6.805008	.2963469	-22.96	0.000	-.7.385837 -.6.224178

- In order to compute  $y_{li}$  we need to calculate the logistic  $G(z)$  function:  $G(z) = e^{z\beta} / (1 + e^{z\beta})$

$$y_{li} = G(z) = e^{z\beta} / (1 + e^{z\beta}) = e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling} 16 + \beta_2 \text{age} 31 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr} 31^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04})} / (1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling} 16 + \beta_2 \text{age} 31 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr} 31^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04})})$$

$$1) / (1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling} 16 + \beta_2 \text{age} 31 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr} 31^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04})}) = 0.8236$$

$$y_{li} = G(z) = e^{z\beta} / (1 + e^{z\beta}) = e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling} 16 + \beta_2 \text{age} 45 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr} 45^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04})} / (1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling} 16 + \beta_2 \text{age} 45 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr} 45^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04})})$$

$$1) / (1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling} 16 + \beta_2 \text{age} 45 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr} 45^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04})}) = 0.8538$$

$$\frac{\exp(-6.0805 + 16 \times 0.1644 + 31 \times 0.282 + 31^2 \times (-0.0035) + 1 \times (-0.387))}{1 + \exp(-6.0805 + 16 \times 0.1644 + 31 \times 0.282 + 31^2 \times (-0.0035) + 1 \times (-0.387))}$$

# INTERPRETING THE RESULTS (LOGIT)

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- Since  $y_{\downarrow i} = f(0,1)$  we cannot interpret the estimators/coefficients  $\beta_{\downarrow i}$  as we did in the simple OLS model.
  - Recall (OLS): one unite change (+/- 1) in  $x_{\downarrow i}$  increases/decreases the outcome  $y_{\downarrow i}$  by  $\beta_{\downarrow i}$
- We need to go back to the functions and compute the predicted value for  $y_{\downarrow i}$   
(because the function  $G(z)$  is not a linear function (OLS))
  - However, the sign of the estimators ( $\beta_{\downarrow i}$ ) can be interpret immediately – always in the same direction
- There are 4 types of variables, and therefore there are 4 cases for interpreting the coefficients:
  1. Case 1:  $x_{\downarrow i}$  is a continues variable (think about angles ( $0^\circ - 360^\circ$ ), age, incme....)
  1. You need to compute the direct effect ( or 'odds ratio')  
$$\beta_{\downarrow j} = \partial \text{Prob}(y=1) / \partial x_{\downarrow j} = \partial G(\beta_{\downarrow 0} + x\beta) / \partial x_{\downarrow j} = g(\beta_{\downarrow 0} + x\beta) \cdot \beta_{\downarrow j},$$
where  $g(z)$  in logit equals to:  $g(z) = e^{\uparrow \beta_{\downarrow 0} + x\beta} / (1 + e^{\uparrow \beta_{\downarrow 0} + x\beta})^{1/2}$   
Pay attention that in this model the effect of a singular estimator ( $\beta_{\downarrow j}$ ) depends on all other estimators in the regression ( $\beta_{\downarrow 0} + x\beta$ ), where  $x\beta = \beta_{\downarrow 1} x_{\downarrow 1} + \beta_{\downarrow 2} x_{\downarrow 2} \dots$

# INTERPRETING THE RESULTS (LOGIT)

- Case II:  $x \downarrow i$  is a dummy (binary) variable (insurance (1,0))

- You need to compute the difference between  $|x \downarrow i (1) - x \downarrow i (0)|$

$$\beta \downarrow j = \partial \text{Prob}(y=1) / \partial x \downarrow 1 = G(\beta \downarrow 0 + \beta \downarrow 1 \cdot 1 + \beta \downarrow j \cdot x \downarrow j) - G(\beta \downarrow 0 + 0 + \beta \downarrow j \cdot x \downarrow j)$$

where  $G(z)$  in logit equals to:  $G(z) = e^z x \beta / (1 + e^z x \beta)$  [CDF]

There are many more cases of course.. Python can do the job for

Let's go back to our example –

- The sign of the coefficients are all the same (direction)

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We cannot intuitively interpret the magnitude of the coefficients in the logit/probit models-----

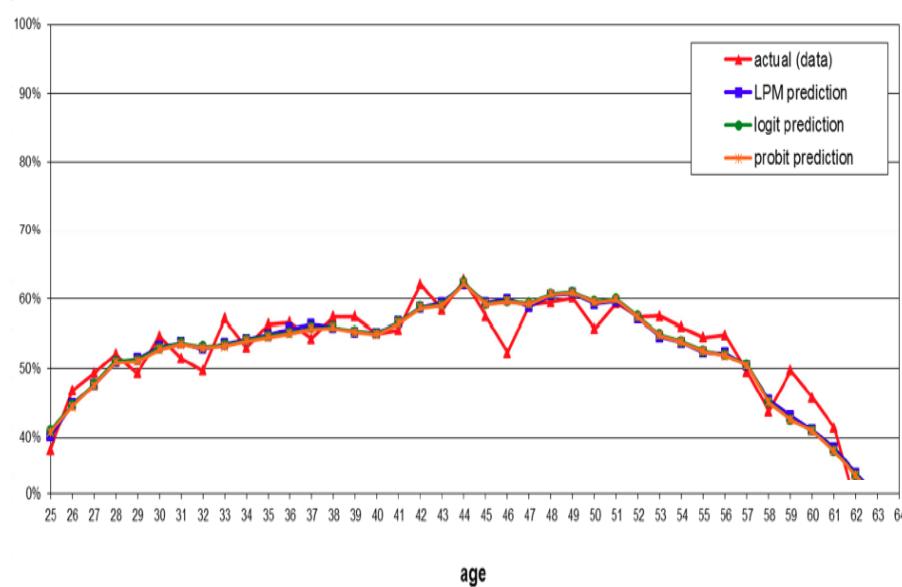
	LPM	logit	probit
schooling	0.032	0.164	0.098
age	0.062	0.282	0.173
age_sq	-0.001	-0.004	-0.002
children_0_4	-0.071	-0.387	-0.234
children_5_9	-0.039	-0.206	-0.124
children_10_14	-0.049	-0.243	-0.147
children_15_17	-0.050	-0.257	-0.156
_cons	-0.949	-6.805	-4.133

# ESTIMATION (& FITNESS)

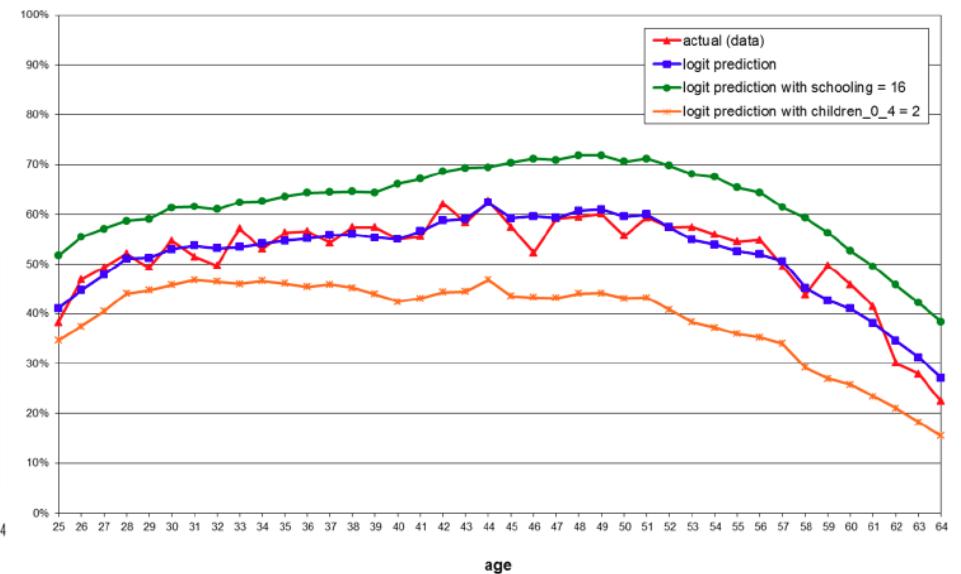
We can see that we overcome the biggest issue with the LPM model ( $0 > Prob(\cdot) < 1$ ):

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
emp10	22768	.5260014	.4993344	0	1
emp_lpm	22768	.5260014	.1870334	-.4886191	1.172533
emp_logit	22768	.5260014	.1901581	.0052596	.9680831
emp_probit	22768	.5247376	.1885883	.0008062	.9791964

Employment Rate of Married Females, 2010 - Actual and Predicted



Employment Rate of Married Females, 2010 - Actual and Predicted



# EXAMPLE & CONCLUSIONS

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Discrete Choice Models are very useful in order to understand (and predict) consumers' behavior

Allowing us to create Optimal Strategies

Suppose you are the Head of Marketing at Target

- You want to understand why consumers are choosing 2% milk vs. fat-milk?  
(effects on revenues, promotions, demand, prices, etc.)
- You Have the Data! (e.g.: purchases, product's attributes, expenses, # time-bought..)
- You can use Discrete Choice Models ( $y=milk2\%(1,0)|x$ ) in order to better understand your consumers → predict their behavior
- It has a large effect on defining Optimal Strategies (Operational, Marketing, etc.)
  - Tailored Promotions (and discounts – shifting demand)
  - Psychological Manipulations (buy 1 pay 3\$, buy 2 pay 6\$ - buying in bundle)
  - “Healthier Campaigns” – converting consumers to buying healthier products
  - Large effect on revenues and operations

# LAB

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