

Introduction to Choice Modeling

Data Science, General Assemb.ly

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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 manufactures, marketers, and developers

MOTIVATION

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 Continuous

- 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? → $\text{emp}(0,1)$
 - ❖ Decided to purchase 2% milk or non-fat milk? → $\text{milk2\%}(0,1)$
 - ❖ Firm decided to adopt a new technology? → $\text{platform}(0,1)$
 - ❖ Get married? → $\text{married}(0,1)$

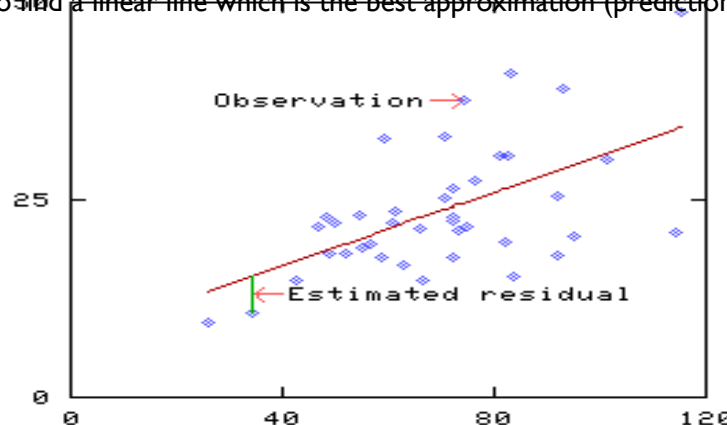
FROM THEORY TO EMPIRICS

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 \uparrow \uparrow
 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) : $\text{MIN}(y - x\beta)$
- 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

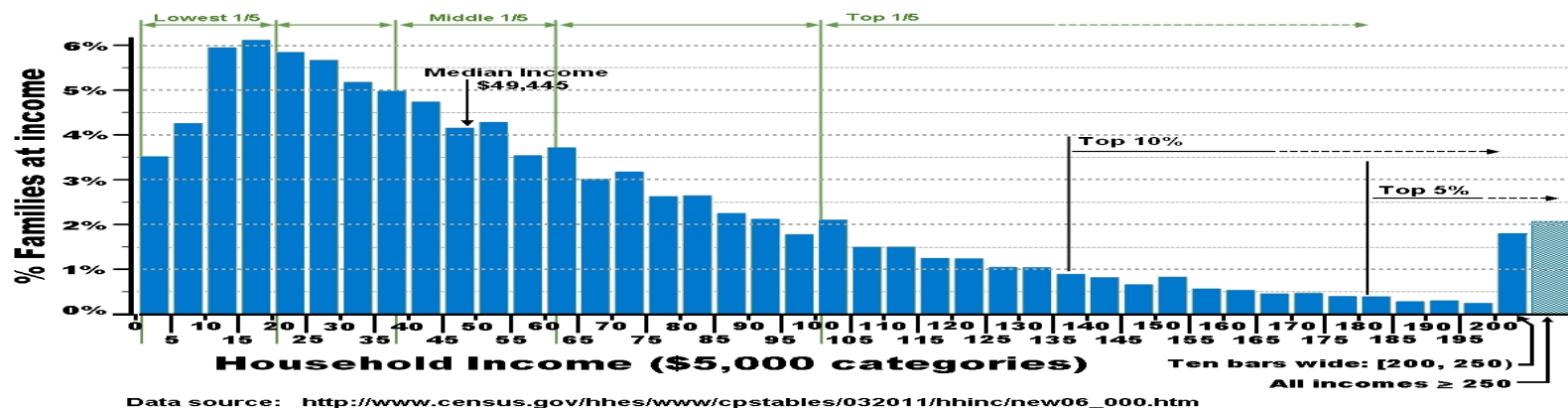
Three common models:

- 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

LPM – Linear Probability Model

In general the empirical model is:

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

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

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_{kt} (the variables) and the error-term $u_{lit} \rightarrow corr(x_{kt}, u) = 0$

If $corr(x_{kt}, u) \neq 0 \rightarrow$ the estimators (β_{kt}) are biased!

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- ▶ 8 2. The error-term is normally distributed ($u \sim normal(\mu, \sigma^2)$)

MODELS OF DISCRETE CHOICE – LPM

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

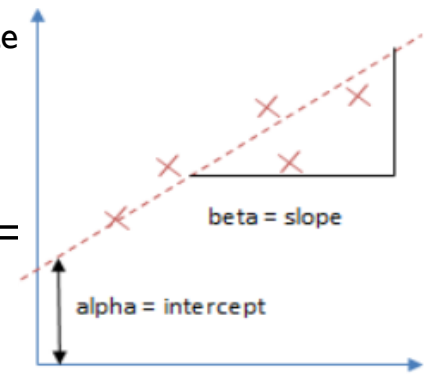
- The outcome (y) gets a probability interpretation (different from OLS)
- We should define the 'Probability of Success' - $Prob(y=1)$ based on our inte

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

β_{jk} is the expected change in the probability of 'success' - $Prob(y_{it}=1)$

$$\beta_{jk} = \partial Prob(y_{it}=1|X) / \partial x_{itj} \text{ where } x_{itj} \in X$$

- The effect of β_{jk} 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

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_{it}
 - year – year of the survey
 - Sex – male (1), female (0)
 - Age
 - Marital status (1= married, 2= divorced, 3= widow, 4= single, 5= married live alone)
 - Schooling – years of education
 - Working_hours – number of hours at work (per week)
 - emp – 1 (yes) 0 (no) [if working_hours > 10 a week]
 - ..
 - 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

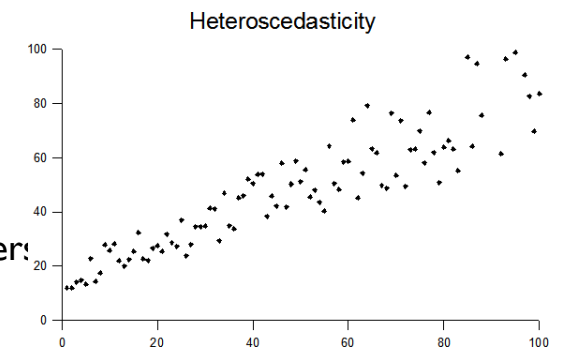
- The predicted probability is not necessarily defined between 0-1

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

If n natic: (497/22,768)

- 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

LPM – CONCLUSIONS

LPM –

- Easy to estimate (OLS regression)
- The predicted ('expected') probability is not necessarily between 0-1
- The effect of the parameters (β_{lit}) on the expected/predicted probability is constant
(each change in x_{lit} 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

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

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

The general form of the model is: $\text{Prob}(y_{lit} = 1 | X) = G(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2, \dots, + \beta_k x_k)$

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

- 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 constrain
 - $G(z)$ - can also be a non-linear function (the effect of the β_{lit} varies across observations)

There are two useful functions:

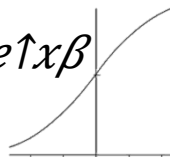
- The logistic function (Logit Model)
- The standard normal function (Probit Model)

PROBIT/LOGIT MODEL

Functions properties

Logit

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

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


This is the CDF of the standard logistic distribution function

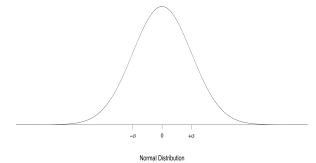
Probit

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

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

$$\text{And } \phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right)$$

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 ∞
- Symmetry around 0 : $1 - G(z) = G(-z)$

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

ESTIMATION (IN PRACTICE)

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:

$$\log L(\beta; y_1, x_1, y_2, x_2, y_3, x_3, \dots, y_n, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \{y_i \log[G(x_i \beta)] + (1 - y_i) \log[1 - G(x_i \beta)]\}$$

- 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 β_k

- The intuition behind the process:

1. Start with a random 'guess' about the magnitude of the coefficients (β_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):

$$Prob(y_i = emp(1)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ schooling} + \beta_2 \text{ age} + \beta_3 (\text{age})^2 + \beta_4$$

```
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]

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```
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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:

emplo	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
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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

- We want to compute

- Schooling years :

- In order to compute y_i we need to calculate the logistic $G(z)$ function: $G(z) = e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1} / (1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1})$

$$y_i = G(z) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1}} = \frac{e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling } 16 + \beta_2 \text{age } 31 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr } 31^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04 } 1)}}{1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling } 16 + \beta_2 \text{age } 31 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr } 31^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04 } 1)}} = 0.8236$$

$$y_i = G(z) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1}} = \frac{e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling } 16 + \beta_2 \text{age } 45 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr } 45^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04 } 1)}}{1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{schooling } 16 + \beta_2 \text{age } 45 + \beta_3 \text{agesqr } 45^2 + \beta_4 \text{child04 } 1)}} = 0.8538$$

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

INTERPRETING THE RESULTS (LOGIT)

- Since $y_{li} = f(0,1)$ we cannot interpret the estimators/coefficients β_{li} as we did in the simple OLS model.

- Recall (OLS): one unite change (+/- 1) in x_{li} increases/decreases the outcome y_{li} by β_{li}

- We need to go back to the functions and compute the predicted value for y_{li}

(because the function $G(z)$ is not a linear function (OLS))

- However, the sign of the estimators (β_{li}) 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:

- Case I: x_{li} is a continues variable (think about angles ($0^\circ - 360^\circ$), age, incme....)

- You need to compute the direct effect (or ‘odds ratio’)

$$\beta_{lj} = \partial \text{Prob}(y=1) / \partial x_{lj} = \partial G(\beta_{l0} + x\beta) / \partial x_{lj} = g(\beta_{l0} + x\beta) \cdot \beta_{lj},$$

where $g(z)$ in logit equals to: $g(z) = e^{\beta_{l0} + x\beta} / (1 + e^{\beta_{l0} + x\beta})^2$

Pay attention that in this model the effect of a singular estimator (β_{lj}) depends on all other estimators in the

regression $(\beta_{l0} + x\beta)$, where $x\beta = \beta_{l1} x_{l1} + \beta_{l2} x_{l2} \dots$

INTERPRETING THE RESULTS (LOGIT)

I. Case II: x_{li} is a dummy (binary) variable (insurance (1,0))

I. You need to compute the difference between $|x_{li}(=1) - x_{li}(0)|$

$$\beta_{lj} = \partial \text{Prob}(y=1) / \partial x_{li} = G(\beta_{l0} + \beta_{l1} \cdot 1 + \beta_{lj} x_{lj}) - G(\beta_{l0} + 0 + \beta_{lj} x_{lj})$$

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

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

Let's go back to our example –

	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

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

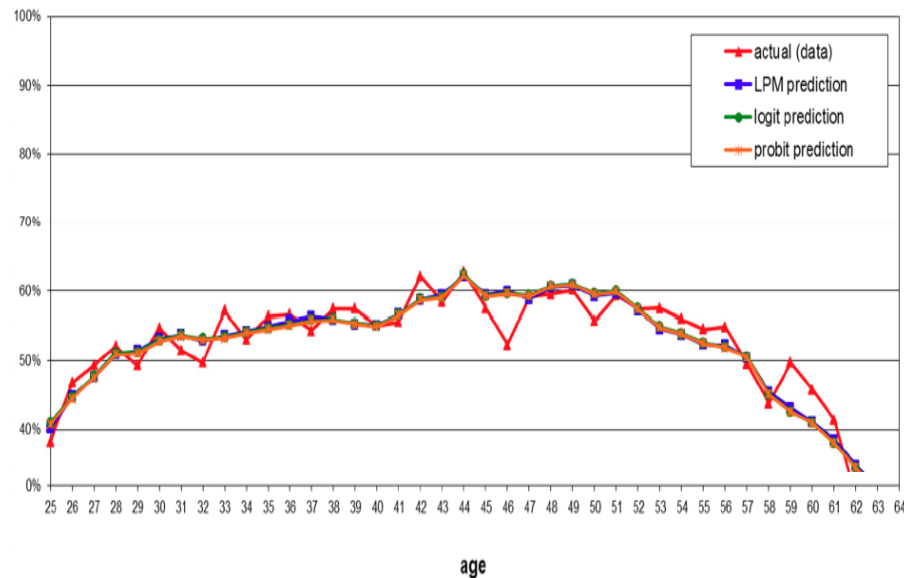
▪ We cannot intuitively interpret the magnitude of the coefficients in the logit/probit models

ESTIMATION (& FITNESS)

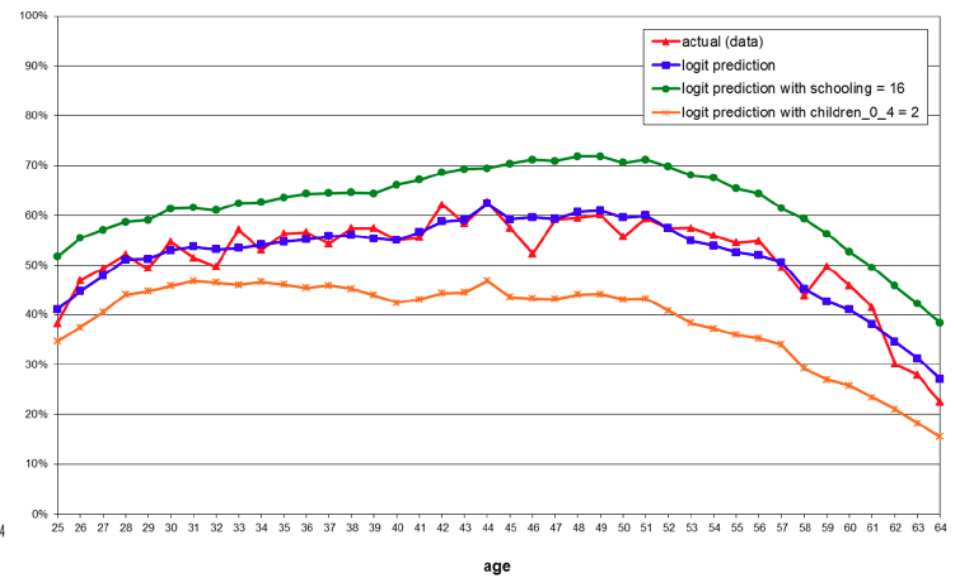
We can see that we overcome the biggest issue with the LPM model ($0 > Prob(\cdot) < 1$):

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
empl0	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 Femaels, 2010 - Actual and Predicted



Employment Rate of Married Femaels, 2010 - Actual and Predicted



EXAMPLE & CONCLUSIONS

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 ($y = \text{milk2\%}(1,0)|x$) 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
