

Static Discrete Choice Models

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1 Pre-class reading: train2009

1.1 Reading Quiz

1. The most widely used discrete choice model is:
 - GEV
 - probit
 - logit
 - mixed logit
2. List the three properties that the choice set in a discrete choice model must satisfy
3. Describe the most common interpretation that is given to the distribution of ϵ (epsilon)

4. Assess the validity of the following claim: utility-maximizing behavior can be expressed by a random utility model (RUM), but not all RUMs express utility-maximizing behavior
5. Why do you think it is called a Random Utility Model?

2 What are discrete choice models?

Discrete choice models are one of the workhorses of structural economics and are deeply tied to economic theory:

- utility maximization
- revealed preference
- Used to model “utility” (broadly defined), for example:
 - consumer product purchase decisions
 - firm market entry decisions
 - investment decisions

2.1 Properties of discrete choice models

1. Agents choose from among a **finite** set of alternatives (called the choice set)
2. Alternatives in choice set are **mutually exclusive**
3. Choice set is **exhaustive**

2.2 Notation

Let d_i indicate the choice individual i makes where $d_i \in \{1, \dots, J\}$.

- Individuals choose d to maximize their utility, U , which generally is written as:

$$U_{ij} = u_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij} \tag{1}$$

where:

- u_{ij} relates observed factors to the utility individual i receives from choosing option j
- ϵ_{ij} are unobserved to the econometrician but observed to the individual

$$d_{ij} = 1 \text{ if } u_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij} > u_{ij'} + \epsilon_{ij'} \text{ for all } j' \neq j \tag{2}$$

2.3 Probabilities

With the ϵ 's unobserved, the probability of i making choice j is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{ij} &= \Pr(u_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij} > u_{ij'} + \epsilon_{ij'} \ \forall \ j' \neq j) \\ &= \Pr(\epsilon_{ij'} - \epsilon_{ij} < u_{ij} - u_{ij'} \ \forall \ j' \neq j) \\ &= \int_{\epsilon} I(\epsilon_{ij'} - \epsilon_{ij} < u_{ij} - u_{ij'} \ \forall \ j' \neq j) f(\epsilon) d\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

- From the researcher perspective, the choice is probabilistic
- There are some assumptions about the distribution of $f(\epsilon)$ that is needed to be made

Note that, regardless of what distributional assumptions are made on the ϵ 's, the probability of choosing a particular option does not change when we:

- Add a constant to the utility of all options (i.e. **only differences in utility matter**)
- Multiply by a positive number (need to **scale something**; e.g. the variance of the ϵ 's)

2.4 Variables

Suppose we have (observable by the econometrician):

$$\begin{aligned} u_{i1} &= \alpha Male_i + \beta_1 X_i + \gamma Z_1 \\ u_{i2} &= \alpha Male_i + \beta_2 X_i + \gamma Z_2 \end{aligned}$$

Since only differences in utility matter:

$$u_{i1} - u_{i2} = (\beta_1 - \beta_2)X_i + \gamma(Z_1 - Z_2)$$

- We can't tell whether men are happier than women, but can tell whether they more strongly prefer one option
 - $\alpha Male_i$ drops out (is not observable)
- We can only obtain differenced coefficient estimates on X 's
- We can only obtain an estimate of a coefficient that is constant across choices if its corresponding variable varies by choice

2.5 Number of Error Terms

Similar to the X 's, there are restrictions on the number of error terms

- This is because only differences in utility matter

Recall that the probability i will choose j is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{ij} &= \Pr(u_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij} > u_{ij'} + \epsilon_{ij'} \ \forall \ j' \neq j) \\ &= \Pr(\epsilon_{ij'} - \epsilon_{ij} < u_{ij} - u_{ij'} \ \forall \ j' \neq j) \\ &= \int_{\epsilon} I(\epsilon_{ij'} - \epsilon_{ij} < u_{ij} - u_{ij'} \ \forall \ j' \neq j) f(\epsilon) d\epsilon \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

where the integral is J dimensional

Rewriting the last line of (3) as a $J - 1$ dimensional integral over the differenced ϵ 's:

$$P_{ij} = \int_{\tilde{\epsilon}} I(\tilde{\epsilon}_{ij'} < \tilde{u}_{ij'} \ \forall \ j' \neq j) g(\tilde{\epsilon}) d\tilde{\epsilon} \tag{4}$$

- This means one dimension of $f(\epsilon)$ is not identified and must therefore be normalized
- Arises from only differences in utility mattering (**location normalization**)
- The scale of utility also doesn't matter (**scale normalization**)
 - The scale normalization implies we must place restrictions on the variance of ϵ 's
 - This mean that is impossible to compare across estimations

2.5.1 More on the scale normalization

The need to normalize scale means that we can never estimate the variance of $F(\tilde{\epsilon})$

- This contrasts with linear regression models, where we can easily estimate MSE
- The scale normalization means our β 's and γ 's are implicitly divided by an unknown variance term:

$$\begin{aligned}
u_{i1} - u_{i2} &= (\beta_1 - \beta_2)X_i + \gamma(Z_1 - Z_2) \\
&= \tilde{\beta}X_i + \gamma\tilde{Z} \\
&= \frac{\beta^*}{\sigma}X_i + \frac{\gamma^*}{\sigma}\tilde{Z}
\end{aligned}$$

- $\tilde{\beta}$ is what we estimate, but we will never know β^* because utility is scale-invariant

3 Logit Derivation

3.1 Where does the logit formula come from?

Consider a binary choice set $\{1, 2\}$. The Type 1 extreme value CDF for ϵ_2 is:

$$F(\epsilon_2) = e^{-e^{(-\epsilon_2)}}$$

To get the probability of choosing 1, substitute in for ϵ_2 with $\epsilon_1 + u_1 - u_2$:

$$\Pr(d_1 = 1|\epsilon_1) = e^{-e^{-(\epsilon_1 + u_1 - u_2)}} \quad (5)$$

- But ϵ_1 is unobserved so we need to integrate it out

Taking the integral over what is random (ϵ_1):

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(d_1 = 1) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \overbrace{\left(e^{-e^{-(\epsilon_1 + u_1 - u_2)}}\right)}^{p.d.f} \overbrace{f(\epsilon_1)}^{\text{dist}} d\epsilon_1 \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(e^{-e^{-(\epsilon_1 + u_1 - u_2)}}\right) e^{-\epsilon_1} e^{-e^{-\epsilon_1}} d\epsilon_1 \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-e^{-\epsilon_1} - e^{-(\epsilon_1 + u_1 - u_2)}\right) e^{-\epsilon_1} d\epsilon_1 \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-e^{-\epsilon_1} [1 + e^{u_2 - u_1}]\right) e^{-\epsilon_1} d\epsilon_1
\end{aligned}$$

- We can simplify by U-substitution where $t = \exp(-\epsilon_1)$ and $dt = -\exp(-\epsilon_1)d\epsilon_1$

- And adjusting the bounds of integration accordingly, $\exp(-\infty) = 0$ and $\exp(\infty) = \infty$

Substituting in then yields:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(d_1 = 1) &= \int_{-\infty}^0 \exp\left(-t \left[1 + e^{(u_2 - u_1)}\right]\right) (-dt) \\
&= \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left(-t \left[1 + e^{(u_2 - u_1)}\right]\right) dt \\
&= \frac{\exp\left(-t \left[1 + e^{(u_2 - u_1)}\right]\right)}{-\left[1 + e^{(u_2 - u_1)}\right]} \Bigg|_0^{\infty} \\
&= 0 - \frac{1}{-\left[1 + e^{(u_2 - u_1)}\right]} \\
&= \frac{\exp(u_1)}{\exp(u_1) + \exp(u_2)}
\end{aligned}$$

Consider our model from before:

$$u_{i1} - u_{i2} = (\beta_1 - \beta_2)X_i + \gamma(Z_1 - Z_2)$$

- We observe X_i , Z_1 , Z_2 , and d_i
- Assuming $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \stackrel{iid}{\sim} T1EV$ gives the likelihood of choosing 1 and 2 respectively as:

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{i1} &= \frac{\exp(u_{i1} - u_{i2})}{1 + \exp(u_{i1} - u_{i2})} \\
P_{i2} &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(u_{i1} - u_{i2})}
\end{aligned}$$

- Note: if $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \stackrel{iid}{\sim} T1EV$ then $\tilde{\epsilon}_1 \sim Logistic$, where $\tilde{\epsilon}_1 := \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2$

3.2 Likelihood function

We can view the event $d_i = j$ as a weighted coin flip

- This gives us a random variable that follows the Bernoulli distribution
- Supposing our sample is of size N , the likelihood function would then be

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}(X, Z; \beta, \gamma) &= \prod_{i=1}^N P_{i1}^{d_{i1}} P_{i2}^{d_{i2}} \\
&= \prod_{i=1}^N P_{i1}^{d_{i1}} [1 - P_{i1}]^{(1-d_{i1})}
\end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

where P_{i1} and P_{i2} are both functions of X, Z, β, γ

For many reasons, it's better to maximize the log likelihood function

- Taking the log of (6) gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\ell(X, Z; \beta, \gamma) &= \sum_{i=1}^N d_{i1} \log P_{i1} + (1 - d_{i1}) \log (1 - P_{i1}) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^2 d_{ij} \log P_{ij} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^N d_{i1} [\log (\exp(u_{i1} - u_{i2})) - \log (1 + \exp(u_{i1} - u_{i2}))] + \\
&\quad (1 - d_{i1}) [\log (1) - \log (1 + \exp(u_{i1} - u_{i2}))] \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^N d_{i1} [u_{i1} - u_{i2}] - \log (1 + \exp(u_{i1} - u_{i2}))
\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

3.3 Multinomial Logit Estimation

Adding more choices with i.i.d. Type I extreme value errors yields the **multinomial logit**

- Normalizing with respect to alternative J we have (for $j \in \{1, \dots, J-1\}$)

$$u_{ij} - u_{iJ} = (\beta_j - \beta_J)X_i + \gamma(Z_j - Z_J) \tag{8}$$

We observe X_i, Z_1, \dots, Z_J , and d_i . The likelihood of choosing j and J respectively is:

$$P_{ij} = \frac{\exp(u_{ij} - u_{iJ})}{1 + \sum_{j'=1}^{J-1} \exp(u_{ij'} - u_{iJ})}, \quad P_{iJ} = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j'=1}^{J-1} \exp(u_{ij'} - u_{iJ})} \tag{9}$$

The log likelihood function we maximize is then:

$$\ell(X, Z; \beta, \gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\sum_{j=1}^{J-1} (d_{ij} = 1)(u_{ij} - u_{iJ}) \right] - \ln \left(1 + \sum_{j'=1}^{J-1} \exp(u_{ij'} - u_{iJ}) \right) \tag{10}$$

4 Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)

One of the properties of the multinomial logit model is **IIA**

- P_{ij}/P_{ik} does not depend upon what other alternatives are available:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{P_{ij}}{P_{ik}} &= \frac{e^{u_{ij}} / \sum_{j'} e^{u_{ij'}}}{e^{u_{ik}} / \sum_{j'} e^{u_{ij'}}} \\
&= \frac{e^{u_{ij}}}{e^{u_{ik}}} \\
&= e^{u_{ij} - u_{ik}}
\end{aligned}$$

4.1 Advantage of IIA

IIA can simplify estimation. Instead of using as our likelihood

$$P_{ij} = \frac{\exp(u_{ij})}{\sum_{j'}^J \exp(u_{ij'})}, \quad (11)$$

we can use the conditional likelihood $P_i(j|j \in K)$ where $K < J$.

- The log likelihood function is then (beggGray1984):

$$L(\beta, \gamma | d_i \in K) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\sum_{j=1}^{K-1} (d_{ij} = 1)(u_{ij} - u_{iK}) \right] - \ln \left(1 + \sum_{j'=1}^K \exp(u_{ij'} - u_{iK}) \right)$$

4.2 Disadvantage of IIA

Most famously illustrated by the “red bus/blue bus problem”

- Consider a commuter with the choice set {ride a blue-colored bus, drive a car}
- Now add a red-colored bus to the choice set
- Assume that the only difference in utility between a red bus and a blue bus is in ϵ
- This will **double** the probability of taking a bus
- Why? $P(\text{blue bus})/P(\text{car})$ does not depend upon whether the red bus is available

5 Expected Utility

It is possible to move from the estimates of the utility function to expected utility

- (or at least differences in expected utility)
- Individual i is going to choose the best alternative
- Thus, expected utility from the best choice, V_i , is given by:

$$V_i = E \max_j (u_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij})$$

where the expectation is over all possible values of ϵ_{ij}

For the multinomial logit, this has a closed form:

$$V_i = \ln \left(\sum_{j=1}^J \exp u_{ij} \right) + C \quad (12)$$

where C is Euler’s constant (a.k.a. Euler-Mascheroni constant)

- We will use this later when we discuss dynamic discrete choice models

5.1 Alternative expression for expected utility

Note that we can also express V_i as:

$$\begin{aligned} V_i &= \ln \left(\sum_{j=1}^J \frac{\exp(u_{iJ}) \exp(u_{ij})}{\exp(u_{iJ})} \right) + C \\ &= \ln \left(\sum_{j=1}^J \exp(u_{ij} - u_{iJ}) \right) + u_{iJ} + C \\ &= \ln \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^{J-1} \exp(u_{ij} - u_{iJ}) \right) + u_{iJ} + C \end{aligned}$$

- This representation will become useful later in the course

5.2 From Expected Utility to Consumer Surplus

We may want to transform utility into dollars to get consumer surplus

- We need something in the utility function (such as price) that is measured in dollars
- Suppose $u_{ij} = \beta_j X_i + \gamma Z_j - \delta p_j$
- The coefficient on price, δ then gives the utils-to-dollars conversion:

$$E(CS_i) = \frac{1}{\delta} \left[\ln \left(\sum_{j=1}^J \exp u_{ij} \right) + C \right] \quad (13)$$

- We can calculate the change in consumer surplus after a policy change as $E(CS_{i2}) - E(CS_{i1})$ where the C 's cancel out