

Discrete Choice Theory and Travel Demand Modelling

The Multinomial Logit Model

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This lecture:

- Basics of Discrete Choice Theory
- Application: Travel Demand Modelling
- Literature: Koppelman and Bhat (2006) ch. 1-4 (parts)

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 - Multinomial=more than two alternatives

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- Nobel prize in 2000 to Dan McFadden and Jim Heckman, see http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/economics/laureates/2000/

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- Application of the model to new data
- This lecture gives the basics of the definition of a logit model

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- Choices between several “discrete” (separate, non-overlapping) alternatives
- The order of the decisions can be modelled in several different ways

Simple illustrative example

- Choice of transport mode made by students of this course (fictive)
- Choice set: $M = \{\text{bicycle, t-bana}\}$
- Random sample of 30 students

	Programme			
	Trafiktek. $x = 1$	Stadsplan. $x = 2$	Master $x = 3$	
Bicycle ($y = 1$)	1	10	2	13
T-bana ($y = 2$)	5	4	8	17
	6	14	10	30
	20%	45%	35%	100 %

Simple illustrative example

- Dependent variable (choice)

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if bicycle} \\ 2 & \text{if t-bana} \end{cases}$$

- Independent (explanatory) variable

$$x = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if Trafiktek.} \\ 2 & \text{if Stadsplan.} \\ 3 & \text{if Master} \end{cases}$$

Simple illustrative example

- Estimate the probability to choose bicycle, $\hat{P}(y = 1)$
- The *joint* probability of choosing bicycle *and* following the master programme is

$$\hat{P}(y = 1, x = 3) = 2/30 = 0.07$$

- The *marginal* probability of choosing bicycle is the *sum* of the joint probabilities over *all values* of the explanatory variable:

$$\hat{P}(y = 1) = \sum_{k=1}^3 \hat{P}(y = 1, x = k) = \frac{1}{30} + \frac{10}{30} + \frac{2}{30} = \frac{13}{30} = 0.43$$

Simple illustrative example

- Conditional probability

$$P(y = i | x = k) = \frac{P(y = i, x = k)}{P(x = k)}, \quad P(x = k) > 0$$

- Conditional probability of choosing bicycle given student from the master program

$$\hat{P}(y = 1 | x = 3) = \frac{2/30}{10/30} = 0.2$$

Simple illustrative example

- In the same way we obtain

$$\hat{P}(y = 1|x = 1) = \hat{\pi}_1 = 0.17$$

$$\hat{P}(y = 1|x = 2) = \hat{\pi}_2 = 0.71$$

$$\hat{P}(y = 1|x = 3) = \hat{\pi}_3 = 0.2$$

- $P(y = i|x = k) = \pi_k$ is the behavioral model, here we estimate it from the sample ($\hat{\pi}_k$)

Simple illustrative example

Assumptions:

- Only the programme affiliation matters for mode choice!
- Only these two alternatives available
- Preferences are stable over time
- Then we can forecast the modal shares for another distribution of students

Simple illustrative example

- Shares before: 20% Trafiktek., 45% Stadsplan., 35% Master
- Future shares: 40% Trafiktek., 20% Stadsplan., 40% Master
- Probability of choosing bicycle under new scenario

$$\begin{aligned}P(y = 1) &= \sum_{k=1}^3 P(y = 1|x = k)P(x = k) \\ &= 0.4\hat{\pi}_1 + 0.2\hat{\pi}_2 + 0.4\hat{\pi}_3 \\ &= 0.29\end{aligned}$$

Simple illustrative example

- $P(x = k)$ can easily be obtained and forecasted
- $P(y = i|x = k)$: simple behavioral model
- This lecture focuses on behavioral models, namely the probability of choosing an alternative given a set of available alternatives
 $M = \{\text{bicycle, t-bana}\}$ and the explanatory variable x (Programme)
- In this example, $P(\text{bicycle}|M, x)$ or simpler $P(y = 1|x)$

- Decision-maker
 - individual (person/household)
 - socio-economic characteristics (age, gender, education etc.)
- A number of alternatives, i.e. the choice set
 - could be specific to the individual or household, i.e. dependent on the index t : $C_t = \{1, 2, \dots, J_t\}$ with J_t alternatives
- Attributes of each alternative (price, quality)
- A decision rule, e.g. utility maximisation

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- The alternative with the highest utility, relative to all the other alternatives, is chosen

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 - translation: $U_i + const - (U_j + const) = U_i - U_j$
 - scale: $\alpha U_i - \alpha U_j = \alpha(U_i - U_j) \leq 0$ iff $U_i - U_j \leq 0, \alpha > 0$

Deterministic utility maximisation

- Individual t *always* chooses alternative i if $U_{it} \geq U_{jt}, \forall j \in C_t$
- Example of deterministic choice, $C = \{\text{bicycle, t-bana}\}$

If $U_{\text{bicycle}} > U_{\text{t-bana}} \Rightarrow P(\text{bicycle}) = 1$

If $U_{\text{bicycle}} < U_{\text{t-bana}} \Rightarrow P(\text{bicycle}) = 0$



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 - measurement errors

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 - preferences of the individual
- The assumed distribution and correlation structure of ε determines the type of model: probit, logit, nested logit etc.

Choice probability:

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{bicycle}|C) &= P(U_{\text{bicycle}} > U_{\text{t-bana}}) \\ &= P(V_{\text{bicycle}} + \varepsilon_{\text{bicycle}} > V_{\text{t-bana}} + \varepsilon_{\text{t-bana}}) \\ &= P(V_{\text{bicycle}} - V_{\text{t-bana}} > \varepsilon_{\text{t-bana}} - \varepsilon_{\text{bicycle}} = \varepsilon)\end{aligned}$$



- Normal distribution: the *sum* of many independent, identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables is approximately distributed Normal:

$$\varepsilon \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

- This leads to the *probit model*, which does not have an analytic (“closed”) form, and is therefore computationally cumbersome (multi-dimensional numeric integration),
 - both for estimation of parameters and forecasting

Gumbel distribution

- Gumbel distribution/“Extreme-Value type I”: The *maximum* of many i.i.d. random variables (scaled appropriately) is Extreme-Value distributed
- If two random variables U_1 and U_2 are distributed Gumbel(V_i, η) with cumulative distribution function (c.d.f.)

$$F(U_i; V_i, \eta) = \exp(-\exp(-\eta(U_i - V_i)))$$

with location V_i and scale η , then the maximum of U_1 and U_2 is distributed Logistic:

$$P(U_1 \geq U_2) = \frac{\exp(\eta(V_1 - V_2))}{1 + \exp(\eta(V_1 - V_2))} = \frac{\exp(\eta V_1)}{\exp(\eta V_1) + \exp(\eta V_2)}$$

- This is the binomial logit model

- The multinomial logit model:

$$P\left(U_i \geq \max_{j \in C} (U_j)\right) = F_{\max}(V_i; \eta) = \frac{\exp(\eta V_i)}{\sum_{j \in C} \exp(\eta V_j)}$$

- Normally, the scale parameter η is set to 1

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- Under certain assumptions, this can be done using a multinomial logit model (MNL)
- The probability of an alternative depends on socio-economic characteristics of the individual and the attributes of the available alternatives
- With some more assumptions, the model can be used for predicting future or hypothetical choices

- What is the probability that a student chooses t-bana if it costs 20 kr and bicycle is free?
- We assume that the deterministic utilities are:
$$V_{\text{t-bana}} = \beta_c \text{Cost}_{\text{t-bana}}$$
$$V_{\text{bicycle}} = \beta_c \text{Cost}_{\text{bicycle}} + \beta_s \text{Student}$$
where $\beta_c = -0.1$ and $\beta_s = 0.05$
- $P(\text{t-bana} | \{\text{t-bana}, \text{bicycle}\}) = e^{(-0.1 \cdot 20)} / (e^{(-0.1 \cdot 20)} + e^{(0.05)}) \approx 0.11$
- How do you interpret the β_c and β_s values? Sign?
- Are any important variables omitted?

Better formulation

$$V_{\text{tbana}} = ASC_{\text{t-bana}} + \beta_C \text{Cost}_{\text{t-bana}} + \beta_T \text{TravelTime}_{\text{t-bana}}$$
$$V_{\text{bicycle}} = \beta_C \text{Cost}_{\text{bicycle}} + \beta_T \text{TravelTime}_{\text{bicycle}} + \beta_S \text{Student}$$

How to determine the parameters

- What about unknown parameters (β -s and ASC)?
- Estimated from observed data
- Maximum-likelihood estimation
- Previous course, there is also a continuation course given next year

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- ...which are the components of the model (decision-maker, alternatives, explanatory variables, etc.)
- ...which are the underlying assumptions
- During the course project you will be a user of a travel demand model (with given parameters)

Koppelman and Bhat (2006), *A Self Instructive Course in Mode Choice Modeling: Multinomial and Nested Logit Models*

- Chapter 1: 1.1–1.2
- Chapter 2: all
- Chapter 3: all
- Chapter 4: 4.1