# Decision rules



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## Decision rules

#### The whole story

- Inidividuals make choices
- Analyst represents choices in a model
  - 1. Define a structure
  - 2. Estimate parameters
  - 3. Apply model and produce outputs





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#### **Real-world process**

- Decision-maker:
  - faces choice situation
  - uses an internal process
  - reaches outcome
- Analyst:
  - observes inputs (maybe in part)
  - observes outcome
  - does NOT observe process



#### From real-world process to mathematical model

#### Step 1: observe choice

 $\Box$  dependent variable for our model (Y)

#### Step 2: identify factors influencing choices

 characteristics of alternatives (x), choice setting (w), and decision-maker (z)

#### Step 3: Build model

$$\Box Y = m(\beta, x, w, z), \text{ where } m() \text{ reflects model} \\ \text{structure and } \beta \text{ are parameters}$$



#### **Decision rules**

- Mathematical representation of choice process
- Does not imply that people make choices according to the rules we use
- □ Simply *convenient* way of representing process
- Factors to consider
  - behavioural realism
  - tractability
  - properties of outputs



# Compensatory *vs* non-compensatory



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# Compensatory vs non-compensatory

#### Two contrasting approaches

#### Compensatory models

- □ Changes in one attribute can be counteracted by changes in another attribute
- □ Theory: increases in cost can always be counteracted by reductions in time
- $\hfill\square$  Practice: depends on size of change that is needed
- □ Key foundation of random utility maximisation (RUM)

#### Non-compensatory and semi-non-compensatory models

- □ Some changes cannot be counteracted, or only partially
- □ Non-compensatory example: Elimination by aspects (EBA)
- Semi-non-compensatory example: Random Regret Minimisation (RRM)

### Compensatory vs non-compensatory

#### Elimination by aspects (EBA): overview

#### Gradual elimination of alternatives

Attribute	Drug A	Drug B	Drug C	Drug D	Rule
Cost	\$5 per day	\$10 per day	\$15 per day	\$20 per day	$Cost \leqslant \$15$
Risk	1 in 500	1 in 1,000	1 in 2,000	1 in 5,000	Risks $\leqslant$ 1 in 1,000
Success	60%	70%	80%	90%	Success rate $\ge 75\%$

#### □ Clearly not compensatory

Key reference: Tversky, A. (1972), 'Elimination by aspects: A theory of choice', Psychological Review 79, 281-299.



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#### General concept of utility maximisation

- Notion grounded in micro-economic theory
- Alternatives characterised by utility
  - based on attributes which influence behaviour
- Assume rational behaviour
  - choose alternative with highest utility
- Trade-off behaviour:
  - good performance on one attribute compensates for poor performance on another
  - e.g. higher cost compensated by faster journey

Key reference: Marschak, J. (1960), 'Binary choice constraints on random utility indications', in K. Arrow, ed., Stanford Symposium on Mathematical Methods in the Social Sciences, Stanford University Press, Stanford, CA, pp. 312-329.



#### Utility specification

#### Decision-maker

- $\Box$  Person *n*, with  $n = 1, \ldots, N$
- □ Faces  $T_n$  choice situations, with  $t = 1, ..., T_n$
- $\Box$  Characteristics  $z_n$  (observed)
- Vector of preferences/tastes β<sub>n</sub> (estimated)

#### Choice-set and context

- $\Box$  J mutually exclusive alternatives, with  $j = 1, \ldots, J$
- $\Box$  Choice context described by  $w_{nt}$
- $\Box$  Alt. *j* described by set of *K* attributes

$$\Box$$
 In situation *t*,  $x_{jnt} = \langle x_{jnt,1}, ..., x_{jnt,K} \rangle$ 

$$U_{jnt} = f(\beta_n, x_{jnt}, w_{nt}, z_n)$$

#### Utility and choice

- $\Box$  For now, drop indices *n* and *t*
- $\Box$  Choice index given by Y
- Alternative with highest utility is chosen

 $Y = i \iff U_i > U_j \ \forall j \neq i$ 

 Observation: only differences in utility matter

$$egin{aligned} U_j^* &= U_j + \Delta \,\,orall j \ Y^* &= Y \,\,orall \Delta \end{aligned}$$

#### A simple example

- Choice between two train services
- Alternatives can only be distinguished via their attributes
- Both attributes are numerical
- □ Use a linear in attributes specification
- □ If  $T_1$  increases by one minute,  $U_1$  changes by  $\beta_T$
- $\Box$  Expect  $\beta_T$  and  $\beta_C$  to be negative

#### Unlabelled choice alternatives

Train 1 Train 2

Travel time (T)	45 min	30 min
Travel cost (C)	£7	£12

#### Utility specification

$$U_1 = \beta_T T_1 + \beta_C C_1$$

$$U_2 = \beta_T T_2 + \beta_C C_2$$

#### **Choice outcome**

- Choice depends on differences in utilities
- If sensitivity to time increases, differences in time matter more (same for cost)
- If all sensitivities increase by same factor, order of preferences does not change

Utility specification  

$$U_1 = \beta_T T_1 + \beta_C C_1$$

$$U_2 = \beta_T T_2 + \beta_C C_2$$

#### Choice outcome

$$Y = 1 \iff \beta_T (T_1 - T_2) > \beta_C (C_2 - C_1)$$
$$\beta_T, \beta_C < 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\beta_T}{\beta_C} (T_2 - T_1) > C_1 - C_2$$

#### Example for our choice task: $T_1 > T_2$ and $C_1 < C_2$

- $\Box$  Option 1 will be chosen if  $\frac{\beta_T}{\beta_C} < \frac{C_2 C_1}{T_1 T_2}$ 
  - not willing to pay extra cost to save time
- □ Option 2 will be chosen if  $\frac{\beta_T}{\beta_C} > \frac{C_2 C_1}{T_1 T_2}$
- No information from observations with dominant alternative
- $\hfill\square$  To find  $\beta$  values, need many observations with changing attribute levels

Choice scenario							
	Train 1	Train 2					
Travel time (T)	45 min	30 min					
Travel cost (C)	£7	£12					

Choice outcome  

$$Y = 1 \iff \frac{\beta_T}{\beta_C} < \frac{C_2 - C_1}{T_1 - T_2}$$

#### We can solve this graphically





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#### Shortcomings of deterministic utility theory

- $\hfill\square$  Often make observations of
  - inconsistent behaviour
  - non-transitive preferences
- □ Cause of inconsistencies cannot be specified in deterministic framework
  - lack of analyst's knowledge of individual's decision processes
  - unobserved attributes
  - unobserved heterogeneity
  - incorrectly measured attributes
  - poor information on availabilities
  - non-linearities in preferences
- $\hfill\square$  To accommodate this, we move to a probabilistic model

#### Random utility theory

- $\Box$  Utility  $U_{jn}$  is a random variable
  - deterministic part V<sub>jn</sub>
  - random part ε<sub>jn</sub>
- Deterministic part specified to capture role of observed explanators
- $\Box \ \varepsilon_{jn}$  measures deviation from modelled utility for alternative *j* and respondent *n*

Additive utility structure

$$U_{jn} = V_{jn} + \varepsilon_{jn}$$

Deterministic part of utility  $V_{jn} = f(\beta_n, x_{jn})$ 

#### Implications for probabilities

- Deterministic utility theory
  - Alternative with highest utility is chosen
- Random utility theory
  - Probability of choosing alternative increases with deterministic utility
- $\square$  Probability of person *n* choosing alternative *i* given by:

$$P_{in} = \Pr\left(V_{in} + \varepsilon_{in} > V_{jn} + \varepsilon_{jn} \; \forall j \neq i\right)$$

#### Binary deterministic choice



#### Binary probabilistic choice



#### Only differences in utility matter

□ Probability of person *n* choosing alternative *i* given by:

$$P_{in} = \Pr\left(V_{in} + \varepsilon_{in} > V_{jn} + \varepsilon_{jn} \; \forall j \neq i\right)$$

- $\Box$  Adding same value to  $V_{jn}$   $\forall j$  will not change probabilities
- Observation: only differences in utilities matter
- □ Implication: parameters only identified if they capture differences across alternatives
  - require normalisation for e.g. alternative specific constants