

# Measurement of Consumer Welfare

## NBER Methods Lectures

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# Introduction

- A common use of empirical demand models is to compute consumer welfare
- We will focus on welfare gains from the introduction of new goods
- The methods can be used more broadly:
  - other events: e.g., mergers, regulation
  - CPI
- In this lecture we will cover
  - Hausman (96): valuation of new goods using demand in product space
  - consumer welfare in DC models

## Hausman, “Valuation of New Goods Under Perfect and Imperfect Competition” (NBER Volume, 1996)

- Suggests a method to compute the value of new goods under perfect and imperfect competition
- Looks at the value of a new brand of cereal – Apple Cinnamon Cheerios
- Basic idea:
  - Estimate demand
  - Compute “virtual price” – the price that sets demand to zero
  - Use the virtual price to compute a welfare measure (essentially integrate under the demand curve)
  - Under imperfect competition need to compute the effect of the new good on prices of other products. This is done by simulating the new equilibrium

# Data

Monthly (weekly) scanner data for RTE cereal in 7 cities over 137 weeks

Note: the frequency of the data. Also no advertising data.

## Multi-level Demand Model

- Lowest level (demand for brand  $w$  \ segment): AIDS

$$s_{jt} = \alpha_j + \beta_j \ln(y_{gt} / \pi_{gt}) + \sum_{k=1}^{J_g} \gamma_{jk} \ln(p_{kt}) + \varepsilon_{jt}$$

where,

- $s_{jt}$  dollar sales share of product  $j$  out of total segment expenditure
- $y_{gt}$  overall per capita segment expenditure
- $\pi_{gt}$  segment level price index
- $p_{kt}$  price of product  $k$  in market  $t$ .

$\pi_{gt}$  (segment price index) is either Stone logarithmic price index

$$\pi_{gt} = \sum_{k=1}^{J_g} s_{kt} \ln(p_{kt})$$

or

$$\pi_{gt} = \alpha_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{J_g} \alpha_k p_k + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{J_g} \sum_{k=1}^{J_g} \gamma_{kj} \ln(p_k) \ln(p_j).$$

## Multi-level Demand Model

- Middle level (demand for segments)

$$\ln(q_{gt}) = \alpha_g + \beta_g \ln(Y_{Rt}) + \sum_{k=1}^G \delta_k \ln(\pi_{kt}) + \varepsilon_{gt}$$

where

- $q_{gt}$  quantity sold of products in the segment  $g$  in market  $t$
- $Y_{Rt}$  total category (e.g., cereal) expenditure
- $\pi_{kt}$  segment price indices

# Multi-level Demand Model

- Top level (demand for cereal)

$$\ln(Q_t) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(I_t) + \beta_2 \ln \pi_t + Z_t \delta + \varepsilon_t$$

where

- $Q_t$  overall consumption of the category in market  $t$
- $I_t$  real income
- $\pi_t$  price index for the category
- $Z_t$  demand shifters

# Estimation

- Done from the bottom level up;
- IV: for bottom and middle level prices in other cities.



## Table 5.6: overall elasticities for family segment

Table 5.6 Overall Elasticities for Family Segment of RTE Cereal

	Cheerios	Honey-Nut Cheerios	Apple- Cinnamon Cheerios	Corn Flakes	Kellogg's Raisin Bran	Rice Krispies	Frosted Mini- Wheats	Frosted Wheat Squares
Cheerios	-1.92572 (0.05499)	0.01210 (0.04639)	0.04306 (0.07505)	-0.02798 (0.06123)	0.03380 (0.05836)	-0.20642 (0.07398)	0.23990 (0.06455)	0.13 (0.10)
Honey-Nut Cheerios	0.03154 (0.03080)	-1.98037 (0.05808)	0.21247 (0.06808)	-0.21316 (0.04805)	0.07136 (0.04861)	0.00079 (0.05199)	-0.05929 (0.06752)	0.33 (0.12)
Apple-Cinnamon Cheerios	0.01747 (0.01919)	0.08317 (0.02690)	-2.17304 (0.07525)	-0.04561 (0.03144)	0.05287 (0.03224)	-0.00824 (0.03111)	-0.04682 (0.04591)	-0.14 (0.08)
Corn Flakes	0.07484 (0.03008)	-0.13069 (0.03850)	-0.02343 (0.06503)	-2.16585 (0.06155)	0.15311 (0.04759)	-0.01918 (0.04555)	0.03460 (0.06405)	0.13 (0.10)
Kellogg's Raisin Bran	0.03995 (0.03184)	0.06155 (0.04109)	0.12056 (0.07011)	0.07455 (0.05064)	-2.06965 (0.07614)	-0.28837 (0.05456)	0.36331 (0.06673)	0.46 (0.11)
Rice Krispies	-0.02457 (0.03109)	0.08459 (0.03368)	0.07548 (0.05384)	-0.00219 (0.04071)	-0.21300 (0.04308)	-2.17246 (0.06354)	0.07967 (0.04854)	-0.15 (0.07)
Frosted Mini-Wheats	0.10797 (0.02567)	-0.04239 (0.04189)	-0.06872 (0.06978)	-0.03001 (0.04629)	0.24504 (0.04735)	-0.00943 (0.04162)	-2.55178 (0.11603)	0.78 (0.16)
Frosted Wheat Squares	0.01315 (0.00656)	0.03020 (0.01217)	-0.03440 (0.02015)	0.00473 (0.01216)	0.05064 (0.01274)	-0.02772 (0.01045)	0.12664 (0.02682)	-3.17 (0.15)
Post Raisin Bran	-0.02239 (0.02908)	0.04018 (0.03840)	0.07738 (0.06837)	0.06288 (0.04415)	-0.16016 (0.04953)	0.26985 (0.04521)	0.04499 (0.06495)	-0.14 (0.11)

Note: Numbers in parentheses are asymptotic standard errors

# Welfare

- Value of AC-Cheerios
- Under perfect competition approx. \$78.1 million per year for the US
- Imperfect competition: needs to simulate the world without AC Cheerios
  - assumes Nash Bertrand
  - ignores effects on competition
  - finds approx \$66.8 million per year;
- Extrapolates to an overall bias in the CPI 20%-25% bias.

# Comments

- Most economists find these numbers too high
  - are they really?
- Questions about the analysis
  - IVs (advertising)
  - computation of Nash equilibrium (has small effect)

## Consumer Welfare Using the Discrete Choice Model

- Assume the indirect utility is given by

$$u_{ijt} = x_{jt}\beta_i + \alpha_i p_{jt} + \zeta_{jt} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

$\varepsilon_{ijt}$  i.i.d. extreme value

- The *inclusive value* (or social surplus) from a subset  $A \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, J\}$  of alternatives:

$$\omega_{iAt} = \ln \left( \sum_{j \in A} \exp \{ x_{jt} \beta_i - \alpha_i p_{jt} + \zeta_{jt} \} \right)$$

- The expected utility from  $A$  prior to observing  $(\varepsilon_{i0t}, \dots, \varepsilon_{iJt})$ , knowing choice will maximize utility after observing shocks.
- Note
  - If no hetero ( $\beta_i = \beta$ ,  $\alpha_i = \alpha$ ) IV captures average utility in the population;
  - w\ hetero need to integrate over it
  - if utility linear in price convert to dollars by dividing by  $\alpha_i$
  - with income effects conversion to dollars done by simulation

# Applications

- Trajtenberg (JPE, 1989) estimates a (nested) Logit model and uses it to measure the benefits from the introduction of CT scanners
  - does not control for endogeneity (pre BLP) so gets positive price coefficient
  - needs to do "hedonic" correction in order to do welfare
- Petrin (JPE, 2003) uses the BLP data to repeat the Trajtenberg exercise for the introduction of mini-vans
  - adds micro moments to BLP estimates
  - predictions of model with micro moments more plausible
  - attributes this to "micro data appear to free the model from a heavy dependence on the idiosyncratic logit "taste" error

## Table 5: RC estimates

TABLE 5  
RANDOM COEFFICIENT PARAMETER ESTIMATES

VARIABLE	RANDOM COEFFICIENTS ( $\gamma$ 's)	
	Uses No Microdata (1)	Uses CEX Microdata (2)
Constant	1.46 (.87)*	3.23 (.72)**
Horsepower/weight	.10 (14.15)	4.43 (1.60)**
Size	.14 (8.60)	.46 (1.07)
Air conditioning standard	.95 (.55)*	.01 (.78)
Miles/dollar	.04 (1.22)	2.58 (.14)**
Front wheel drive	1.61 (.78)**	4.42 (.79)**
$\gamma_{mi}$	.97 (2.62)	.57 (.10)**
$\gamma_{sw}$	3.43 (5.39)	.28 (.09)**
$\gamma_{su}$	.59 (2.84)	.31 (.09)**
$\gamma_{pv}$	4.24 (32.23)	.42 (.21)**

## Table 8: welfare estimates

TABLE 8  
 AVERAGE COMPENSATING VARIATION CONDITIONAL ON MINIVAN PURCHASE, 1984:  
 1982-84 CPI-ADJUSTED DOLLARS

	OLS Logit	Instrumental Variable Logit	Random Coefficients	Random Coefficients and Microdata
Compensating variation:				
Median	9,573	5,130	1,217	783
Mean	13,652	7,414	3,171	1,247
Welfare change from difference in:				
Observed characteristics				
$(\delta_j + \mu_{ij})$	-81,469	-44,249	-820	851
Logit Error ( $\epsilon_{ij}$ )	95,121	51,663	3,991	396
Income of minivan purchasers:				
Estimate from model	23,728	23,728	99,018	36,091
Difference from actual (CEX)	-15,748	-15,748	59,542	-3,385

## Discussion

- The micro moments clearly improve the estimates and help pin down the non-linear parameters
- What is driving the change in welfare?
- One option
  - welfare is an order statistic
  - by adding another option we increase the number of draws
  - hence (mechanically) increase welfare
  - as we increase the variance of the RC we put less and less weight on this effect



## A different take

- The analysis has 2 steps
  1. Simulate the world without\with minivans (depending on the starting point)
  2. Summarize the simulated\observed prices and quantities into a welfare measure
- Both steps require a model
- If we observe pre- and post- introduction data might avoid step 1
  - does not isolate the effect of the introduction
- Logit model fails (miserably) in the first step, but can deal with the second
  - just to be clear: heterogeneity is important
  - NOT advocating for the Logit model
  - just trying to be clear where it fails

## Red-bus-Blue-bus problem Debreu (1960)

- Originally, used to show the IIA problem of Logit
- Worst case scenario for Logit
- Consumers choose between driving car to work or (red) bus
  - working at home not an option
  - decision of whether to work does not depend on transportation
- Half the consumers choose a car and half choose the red bus
- Artificially introduce a new option: a blue bus
  - consumers color blind
  - no price or service changes
- In reality half the consumers choose car, rest split between the two color buses
- Consumer welfare has not changed

## Example (cont)

Suppose we want to use the Logit model to analyze consumer welfare generated by the introduction of the blue bus

$$u_{ijt} = \zeta_{jt} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

	$t = 0$		$t = 1$			
	observed		predicted		observed	
option	share	$\zeta_{j0}$	share	$\zeta_{j1}$	share	$\zeta_{j1}$
car	0.5					
red bus	0.5					
blue bus	–					
welfare						

## Example (cont)

$$u_{ijt} = \zeta_{jt} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

$t = 0$			$t = 1$			
	observed		predicted		observed	
option	share	$\zeta_{j0}$	share	$\zeta_{j1}$	share	$\zeta_{j1}$
car	0.5	0				
red bus	0.5	0				
blue bus	–	–				
welfare	$\ln(2)$					

normalizing  $\zeta_{car0} = 0$ , therefore  $\zeta_{bus0} = 0$

## Example (cont)

$$u_{ijt} = \zeta_{jt} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

	$t = 0$		$t = 1$			
	observed		predicted		observed	
option	share	$\bar{\zeta}_{j0}$	share	$\bar{\zeta}_{j1}$	share	$\bar{\zeta}_{j1}$
car	0.5	0	0.33	0		
red bus	0.5	0	0.33	0		
blue bus	–	–	0.33	0		
welfare	$\ln(2)$		$\ln(3)$			

If nothing changed, one might be tempted to hold  $\zeta_{jt}$  fixed.  
This is the usual result: with predicted shares Logit gives gains

## Example (cont)

$$u_{ijt} = \tilde{\zeta}_{jt} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

$t = 0$			$t = 1$			
	observed		predicted		observed	
option	share	$\tilde{\zeta}_{j0}$	share	$\tilde{\zeta}_{j1}$	share	$\tilde{\zeta}_{j1}$
car	0.5	0	0.33	0	0.5	
red bus	0.5	0	0.33	0	0.25	
blue bus	–	–	0.33	0	0.25	
welfare	$\ln(2)$		$\ln(3)$			

Suppose we observed actual shares

## Example (cont)

$$u_{ijt} = \zeta_{jt} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

$t = 0$			$t = 1$			
	observed		predicted		observed	
option	share	$\zeta_{j0}$	share	$\zeta_{j1}$	share	$\zeta_{j1}$
car	0.5	0	0.33	0	0.5	0
red bus	0.5	0	0.33	0	0.25	$\ln(0.5)$
blue bus	–	–	0.33	0	0.25	$\ln(0.5)$
welfare	$\ln(2)$		$\ln(3)$		$\ln(2)$	

To rationalize observed shares we need to let  $\zeta_{jt}$  vary  
 What exactly did we mean when we introduced blue bus?

## Generalizing from the example

- In the example, the Logit model fails in the first step
- Holds more generally,
  - with Logit, expected utility is  $\ln(1/s_{0t})$
  - since  $s_{0t}$  did not change in the observed data the Logit model predicted no welfare gain
  - Monte Carlo results in Berry and Pakes (2007) give similar answer
    - find that pure characteristics model matters for the estimated elasticities (and mean utilities) but not the welfare numbers
    - conclude: "the fact that the contraction fits the shares exactly means that the extra gain from the logit errors is offset by lower  $\delta$ 's, and this roughly counteracts the problems generated for welfare measurement by the model with tastes for products."



## Generalizing from the example

- With more heterogeneity. Logit will get second step wrong
  - difference with RC

$$\ln\left(\frac{1}{s_{0,t}}\right) - \ln\left(\frac{1}{s_{0,t-1}}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{s_{0,t-1}}{s_{0,t}}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{\int s_{i,0,t-1} dP_{\tau}(\tau)}{\int s_{i,0,t} dP_{\tau}(\tau)}\right)$$

and

$$\int \left[ \ln\left(\frac{1}{s_{i,0,t}}\right) - \ln\left(\frac{1}{s_{i,0,t-1}}\right) \right] dP_{\tau}(\tau) = \int \ln\left(\frac{s_{i,0,t-1}}{s_{i,0,t}}\right) dP_{\tau}(\tau)$$

- the difference depends on the change in the heterogeneity in the probability of choosing the outside option,  $s_{i,0,t}$
- difference can be positive or negative

## Final comments

- The key in the above example is that  $\tilde{\zeta}_{jt}$  was allowed to change to fit the data.
- This works when we see data pre and post (allows us to tell how we should change  $\tilde{\zeta}_{jt}$ )
- What if we do not not have data for the counterfactual?
  - have a model of how  $\tilde{\zeta}_{jt}$  is determined
  - make an assumption about how  $\tilde{\zeta}_{jt}$  changes
  - bound the effects
- Nevo (ReStat, 2003) uses the latter approach to compute price indexes based on estimated demand systems