Presentation Script

# Introduction

# Data Description

The real estate data has 43 variables in all which have been classified into 4 different categories: transactional (mainly involving price and dates), socio-economic (consisting of different social and economic factors affecting the price of real estates), sustainability (denoting the energy efficiency) and geographical (denoting the various regions of England and Wales).

Next, we come to the repeated sales prices. The plots of the logarithms of the percentage change and the time period between two transactions are shown and it is clear that both of them are not normal.

The summary numbers out the various aspects like mean, median, normality, etc. of several variables including the two prices, their logarithms, percentage change and time period. The value of the normality also proves the fact that both the plots in the previous slide was not normal.

Energy efficiency has denoted by the EPC (Energy Performance Certificate) which ranges from a scale of 1 to 100 and has been divided in 7 categories: 1-20, 21-38.... 92-100 naming them A, B, C .... G. So, A is the best and G is the worst.  
The EPC summary chart shows that none are of type A also very few are of type G with the highest being of type G.

These are the geographical distributions of the real estates among England and Wales.

Now, we will look at various Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) Variables which includes a discrete and a continuous plot (i.e., rank and decile) of every variable which includes Income Deprivation rank, Crime Rank, Employment Deprivation etc. Here 1 is the best and 10 is the worst.

# Hedonic Regression

Now let me explain the key idea behind hedonic models and construct a hedonic index.

The hedonic regression framework is widely believed to have been developed by Court in 1939.

The main idea of hedonic models is to decompose the characteristics of similar heterogeneous assets, and give them separate values.

A dummy variable can take one of two values, either 0 or 1.

If we consider the EPC\_D for example, its dummy variable would be 1 when the house is of EPC rating D, and 0 otherwise.

So, we move to formulate the model. We take P\_it to be the Price at time t and i denotes the variable number. We model the ln price with multiple

regression. Let's run the regression with R. We get the estimated coefficients.

Moving on to Partial Changes, if we change x\_jt by delta x\_jt then the Price changes from P\_t to P'\_t. Now performing some jugglery here, we can see

that the ratio of the two prices is exponent of the coefficient times the change. Note one thing that in hedonic regression the change is discrete.

And it can be 1 or -1 because we are considering the dummy variables. Without any loss of generality, we may assume that it is 1. Now the exponents of this coefficients

give us a measure for the change in prices as the dummy variable is changed. These values are known as hedonic index

Let's construct the hedonic index. We just plot the exponents of the coefficients. Here is the graph.

We can see that there are peaks in London. This shows that if the house shifts to London (hypothetically speaking) then there is huge change in price. Also, we can notice

a dip in change of price in epc g. Moreover, this dip makes it lesser than one. Which shows that if non epc d house is made g then there is a decrease in price. Now why D?

because we have referenced on d [as explained in previous slide]

Let’s move on to the diagnostic plots of this regression

1. Residual vs Fitted

This plot shows if residuals have non-linear patterns. There could be a non-linear relationship between predictor variables and an outcome variable and the pattern could show up in this plot if the model doesn’t capture the non-linear relationship.

1. Normal Q-Q

This plot shows if residuals are normally distributed. Do residuals follow a straight line well or do they deviate severely? It’s good if residuals are lined well on the straight dashed line.

1. Scale-Location

It’s also called Spread-Location plot. This plot shows if residuals are spread equally along the ranges of predictors. This is how you can check the assumption of equal variance (homoscedasticity). It’s good if you see a horizontal line with equally (randomly) spread points.

1. Cook’s Distance

We plot Cook’s Distance against row number, we can see if highly influential points exhibit any relationship to their position in the dataset. We can see there are too less points with high Cook’s Distance. This shows that although the data had many outliers pointed out by the boxplot but they mostly have low influence.

1. Residuals vs Leverage

This plot helps us to find influential cases (i.e., subjects) if any. Not all outliers are influential in linear regression analysis (whatever outliers mean). We look for cases outside of a dashed line, Cook’s distance. When cases are outside of the Cook’s distance (meaning they have high Cook’s distance scores), the cases are influential to the regression results. We can barely see Cook’s distance lines (a red dashed line) because all cases are well inside of the Cook’s distance lines.

1. Cook’s Distance vs Leverage

Cook's distance and leverage are used to detect highly influential data points, i.e., data points that can have a large effect on the outcome and accuracy of the regression. High leverage observations are ones which have predictor values very far from their averages, which can greatly influence the fitted model.

The contours in the scatterplot are standardized residuals labelled with their magnitudes.

# Price vs Socio-Economic

In linear regression, we assume that the errors are normally distributed. This assumption allows us to construct confidence intervals and conduct hypothesis tests. We also know that the predicted value has a normal distribution under a fixed value of explanatory variables. Hence, the original variables better be normal. However, the histograms clearly suggest that they are not. They are left skewed.

By transforming our target variable, we can (hopefully) normalize our errors (if they are not already normal). We can use the Box-Cox transformation to transform the Y into as close to a normal distribution as the Box-Cox transformation permits. Now, in Box-Cox, we try out these transformations of Y. Then we choose the of lambda that provides the best approximation for the normal distribution of our response variable.

Basically we start with y and then transform it to f(y) and then we perform the regression.

Now, we come to the part of selecting lambda. This log-likelihood function is an estimator just like method of moments. Here, it estimates the lambda. So, what Box-Cox does basically is reduces the standard deviation. In order to do that the we choose the lambda for which log-likelihood is maximized. R does the whole process for us by checking values of lambda from -2 to 2. This is the log-likelihood plot for price\_1. We can see lambda is quite close to 0.

This is the log-likelihood plot for price\_2. However, the lambda is not 0 here. Here the lamda comes out to be -0.3 approximately.

Now this is the price\_1 variable as seen in one of the previous slides. Since lambda was zero, we apply log to price\_1.

Here is the outcome. We can see that it is much closer to normal.

Next this is the price\_2 variable as seen in one of the previous slides. Here lambda is -0.30303, we apply y^lambda-1/lambda to price\_2.

Hence, we get the following output, which also looks like normal.

Then we run the regression to obtain the coefficients. Here is a fancy plot of the coefficients. We can see that crime and barrier score hardly has any effect on the price\_1

Similarly, in the case of price\_2 too. Most of the coefficients are small but after taking the inverse transform of the function. It may become quite relevant.

Then we move to the partial residue plots.

# Repeat Sales Index

We can clearly see the major retractions in 1998 and 2011. We can also notice that the index level for this repeat sales index had reached its highest level in 2012.