

Regression Analysis

BUS 735: Business Decision Making and Research

Goals of this section

- Specific goals:
 - Learn how detect linear relationships between variables.
 - Learn how to detect relationships between ordinal and categorical variables.
 - Learn how to estimation the relationship between many variables.
- Learning objectives:
 - LO2: Be able to construct and use multiple regression models (including some limited dependent variable models) to construct and test hypotheses considering complex relationships among multiple variables.
 - LO6: Be able to use standard computer packages such as SPSS and Excel to conduct the quantitative analyses described in the learning objectives above.
 - LO7: Have a sound familiarity of various statistical and quantitative methods in order to be able to approach a business decision problem and be able to select appropriate

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 - LO7: Have a sound familiarity of various statistical and quantitative methods in order to be able to approach a business decision problem and be able to select appropriate methods to answer the question.

Chi-Squared Test for Independence

- Used to determine if two categorical variables are related.
- Example: Suppose a hotel manager surveys guest who indicate they will not return:

Reason for Stay	Reason for Not Returning		
	Price	Location	Amenities
Personal/Vacation	37	54	0
Business	34	55	19

- Data in the table are always frequencies that fall into individual categories.
- Could use this table to test if two variables are independent.

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Test of independence

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- **Null hypothesis:** there is no relationship between the row variable and the column variable.
- **Alternative hypothesis:** The two variables are dependent.
- Test statistic:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$$

- O : observed frequency in a cell from the contingency table.
- E : expected frequency assuming variables are independent.
- Large χ^2 values indicate variables are dependent (reject the null hypothesis).

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Correlation

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- A **correlation** exists between two variables when one of them is related to the other in some way.
- The **Pearson linear correlation coefficient** is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables.
 - Parametric test!
 - Null hypothesis: there is zero linear correlation between two variables.
 - Alternative hypothesis: there is [positive/negative/either] correlation between two variables.
- Spearman's Rank Test
 - Non-parametric test.
 - Behind the scenes - replaces actual data with their *rank*, computes the Pearson using ranks.
 - Same hypotheses.

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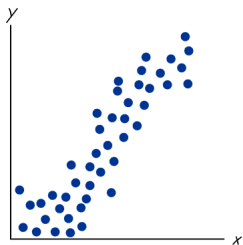
Correlation

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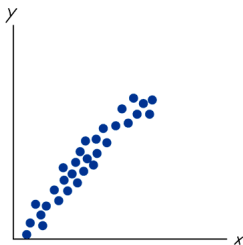
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Positive linear correlation

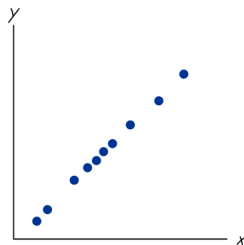
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(a) Positive correlation between x and y



(b) Strong positive correlation between x and y

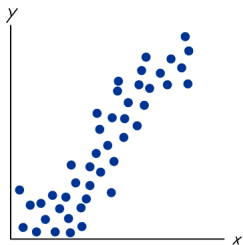


(c) Perfect positive correlation between x and y

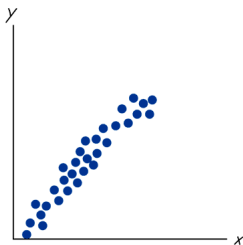
- Positive correlation: two variables move in the same direction.
- Stronger the correlation: closer the correlation coefficient is to 1.
- Perfect positive correlation: $\rho = 1$

Positive linear correlation

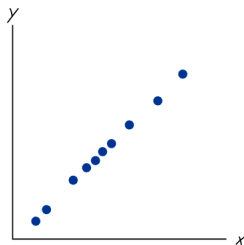
6 / 28



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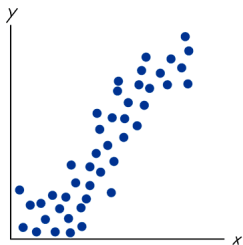


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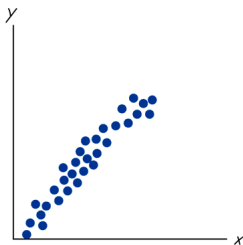
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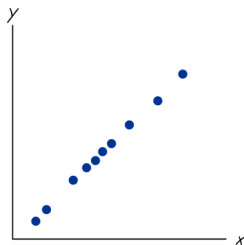
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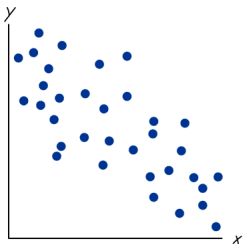


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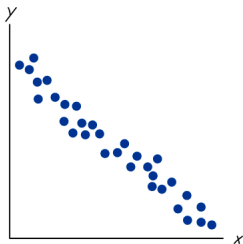
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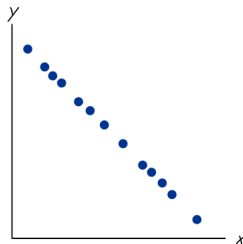
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(d) Negative correlation between x and y



(e) Strong negative correlation between x and y

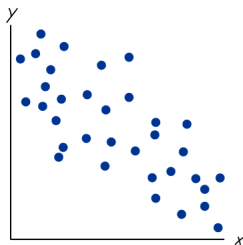


(f) Perfect negative correlation between x and y

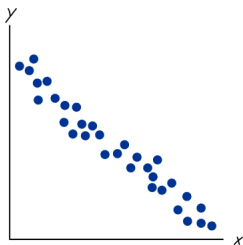
- Negative correlation: two variables move in opposite directions.
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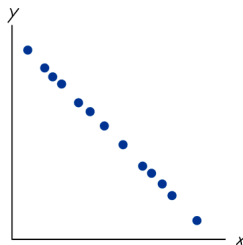
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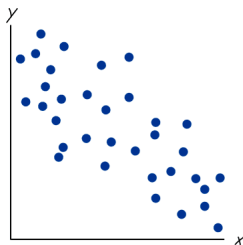


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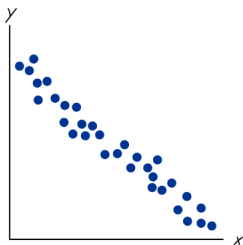
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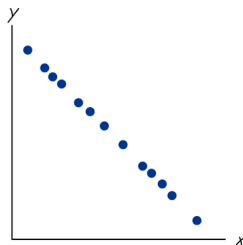
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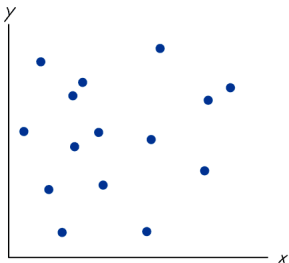


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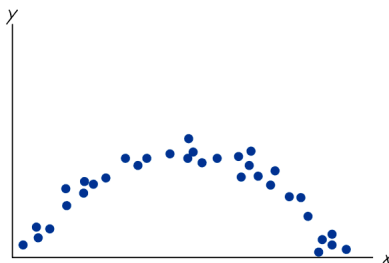
- Negative correlation: two variables move in opposite directions.
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No linear correlation

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(g) No correlation between x and y

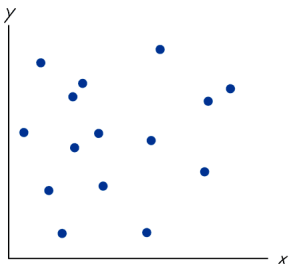


(h) Nonlinear relationship between x and y

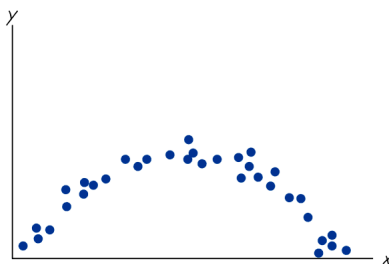
- Panel (g): no relationship at all.
- Panel (h): strong relationship, but not a *linear* relationship.
 - Cannot use regular correlation to detect this.

No linear correlation

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Example: Public Expenditure

- Data from 1960! about public expenditures per capita, and variables that may influence it:
 - Economic Ability Index
 - Percentage of people living in metropolitan areas.
 - Percentage growth rate of population from 1950-1960.
 - Percentage of population between the ages of 5-19.
 - Percentage of population over the age of 65.
 - Dummy variable: Western state (1) or not (0).
- Is there a statistically significant linear correlation between the percentage of the population who is young and the public expenditure per capita?
- Is there a statistically significant linear correlation between the public expenditure per capita and whether or not the state is a western state?

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Regression

- Regression line: equation of the line that describes the linear relationship between variable x and variable y .
- Need to assume that *independent variables* influence *dependent variables*.
 - x : *independent or explanatory variable*.
 - y : *dependent variable*.
 - Variable x can influence the value for variable y , but not vice versa.
- Example: How does smoking affect lung capacity?
- Example: How does advertising affect sales?

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Regression line

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- Population regression line:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

- The actual coefficients β_0 and β_1 describing the relationship between x and y are unknown.
- Use sample data to come up with an estimate of the regression line:

$$y_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i + e_i$$

- Since x and y are not perfectly correlated, still need to have an error term.

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Predicted values and residuals

- Given a value for x_i , can come up with a **predicted value** for y_i , denoted \hat{y}_i .

$$\hat{y}_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i$$

- This is not likely be the actual value for y_i .
- Residual** is the difference *in the sample* between the actual value of y_i and the predicted value, \hat{y}_i .

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i$$

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$$\hat{y}_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i$$

- This is not likely be the actual value for y_i .
- Residual** is the difference *in the sample* between the actual value of y_i and the predicted value, \hat{y}_i .

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i$$

Multiple Regression

- Multiple regression line (population):

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,i} + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_{k-1} x_{k-1} + \epsilon_i$$

- Multiple regression line (sample):

$$y_i = b_0 + b_1 x_{1,i} + b_2 x_2 + \dots + b_k x_k + e_i$$

- k : number of parameters (coefficients) you are estimating.
- ϵ_i : error term, since linear relationship between the x variables and y are not perfect.
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Least Squares Estimate

- How should we obtain the “best fitting line”.
- Ordinary least squares (OLS) method.
- Choose sample estimates for the regression coefficients that minimizes:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

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Interpreting the slope

- Interpreting the slope, β : amount the y is predicted to increase when increasing x by one unit.
- When $\beta < 0$ there is a negative linear relationship.
- When $\beta > 0$ there is a positive linear relationship.
- When $\beta = 0$ there is no linear relationship between x and y .
- SPSS reports sample estimates for coefficients, along with...
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- Data from 1960 about public expenditures per capita, and variables that may influence it.
- In SPSS, choose *Analyze* menu and select *Regression and Linear*.
- Select *EX* (Expenditure per capita) as your dependent variable. This is the variable your are interested in explaining.
- Select your independent (aka explanatory) variables. These are the variables that you think can explain the dependent variable. I suggest you select these:
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Sum of Squares Measures of Variation

- **Sum of Squares Regression (SSR):** measure of the amount of variability in the dependent (Y) variable that is explained by the independent variables (X's).

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$$

- **Sum of Squares Error (SSE):** measure of the unexplained variability in the dependent variable.

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- The **coefficient of determination** is the percentage of variability in y that is explained by x .

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST}$$

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Adjusted R^2

- R^2 will likely increase (slightly) even by adding nonsense variables.
- Adding such variables increases in-sample fit, but will likely hurt out-of-sample forecasting accuracy.
- The Adjusted R^2 penalizes R^2 for additional variables.

$$R^2_{\text{adj}} = 1 - \frac{n-1}{n-k-1} (1 - R^2)$$

- When the adjusted R^2 increases when adding a variable, then the additional variable really did help explain the dependent variable.
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F-test for Regression Fit

- F-test for Regression Fit: Tests if the regression line explains the data.
- Very, very, very similar to ANOVA F-test.
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- In the previous example, how much of the variability in public expenditure is explained by the following four variables:
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- Is the combination of these variables significant in explaining public expenditure?
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Crucial Assumptions for Regression

- **Linearity:** a straight line reasonably describes the data.
 - Exceptions: experience on productivity, ordinal data like education level on income.
 - Consider transforming variables.
- **Stationarity:**
 - The central limit theorem: behavior of statistics as sample size approaches infinity!
 - The mean and variance must exist and be constant.
 - Big issue in economic and financial time series.
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Multicollinearity

- **Multicollinearity:** when two or more of the explanatory variables are highly correlated.
- With multicollinearity, it is difficult to determine the effect coming from a specific individual variable.
- Correlated variables will have standard errors for coefficients will be large (coefficients will be statistically insignificant).
- Examples:
 - experience and age used to predict productivity
 - size of store (sq feet) and store sales used to predict demand for inventories.
 - parent's income and parent's education used to predict student performance.
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- **Homoscedasticity:** when the variance of the error term is constant (it does not depend on other variables).
- Counter examples (heteroscedasticity):
 - Impact of income on demand for houses.
 - Many economic and financial variables related to income suffer from this.
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