

STA 35C: Statistical Data Science III

Lecture 4: Simple Linear Regression

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Agenda

Statistical learning:

- *Definition:* A set of tools for understanding data and making informed predictions
- *Goal:* Estimate a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ that
 - (1) minimizes the reducible error $\hat{f}(X) - f(X)$, and
 - (2) is interpretable
- Methodologies typically fall under parametric or nonparametric approaches

Today: We begin exploring concrete methods. Specifically, we'll discuss:

- Categorizing statistical learning problems
- (Linear) Regression
- Simple linear regression

Supervised vs. unsupervised learning

Most statistical learning problems fall into two categories: supervised or unsupervised

In **supervised learning**:

- Each predictor observation x_i is accompanied by a response y_i
- “Supervised” because the responses guide (supervise) the analysis
- Many classical statistical learning methods operate in the supervised learning domain
 - *Example:* linear regression, logistic regression, support vector machine, etc.

In **unsupervised learning**:

- We have observations x_i but no response y_i
- “Unsupervised” because there is no response to guide the analysis
- Often used to explore relationships among observations or variables
 - *Example:* Cluster analysis, dimension reduction, etc.

Sometimes, whether an analysis is supervised or unsupervised is less clear-cut

Illustration: Supervised vs. unsupervised learning

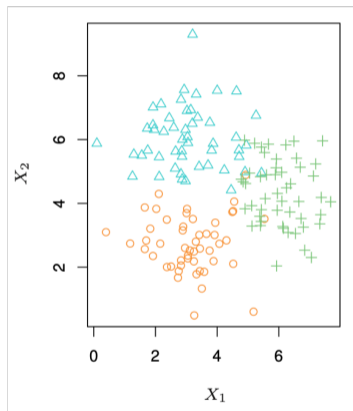
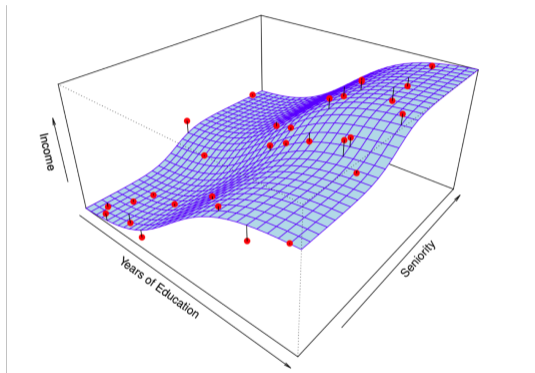


Figure: Supervised vs. unsupervised learning

Regression vs. classification

Variables can be quantitative or qualitative (categorical):

- Quantitative variables take numeric values
- Qualitative variables belong to one of K different *classes*

Depending on whether the **response** is quantitative or qualitative:

- Problems with a *quantitative* response are called **regression** problems
- Problems with a *qualitative* response are called **classification** problems

However, this distinction is not always crisp (e.g., linear vs. logistic regression)

Whether **predictors** are qualitative or quantitative is generally considered less important

Illustration: Regression vs. classification

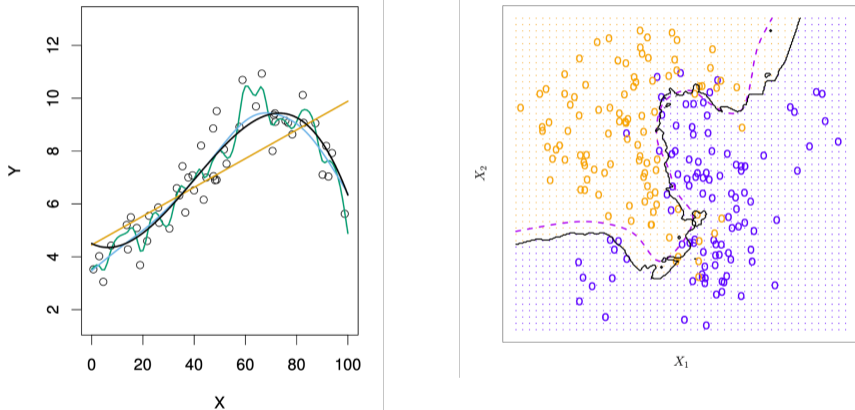


Figure: Regression vs. classification

Regression: What do we want to do with this?

Regression problems are supervised learning problems with a *quantitative* response

Typical questions we want to address via regression include:

- Is there any relationship between X and Y ?
- How strong is it? (How much of Y is explained by X ?)
- How large is the association? (How does Y change per unit change in X ?)
- How accurately can we predict Y given X ?
- Is the relationship linear?

With multiple predictors, we can also ask (in future lectures):

- Which X are associated with Y ?
- Are there interactions among X ?

Simple linear regression

Simple linear regression predicts Y from a single variable X , assuming an approximately linear relationship between X and Y

Mathematically, we assume

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon,$$

- *Model parameters:* β_0 (intercept), β_1 (slope) are fixed, unknown constants
- ϵ is an error term

We often say we *regress* Y on X

Once we have *estimated* $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ from *training data*, we can predict

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$$

Example

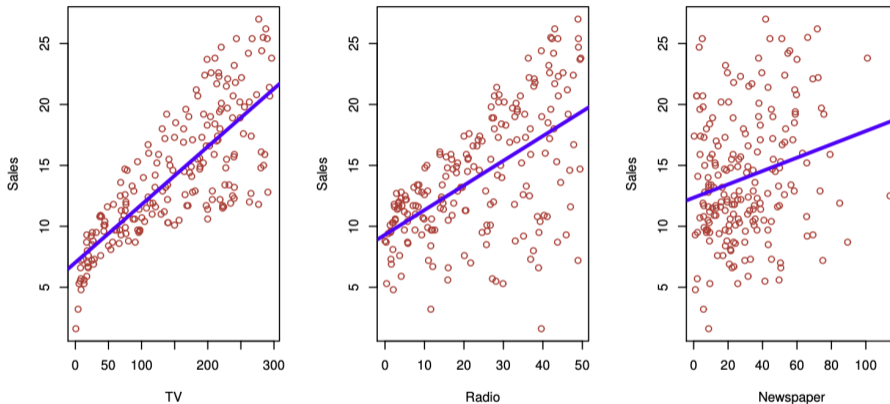


Figure: The Advertising data set shows Sales of a product in 200 different markets against advertising budgets for three media: TV, Radio, and Newspaper [JWHT21, Figure 2.1].

Estimating the coefficients: Least squares

In practice, β_0 and β_1 are unknown and must be estimated from data

$$(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n).$$

We want the fitted line $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$ to be close to the true line $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x$

The most common approach involves the **least squares** criterion:

- The Residual sum of squares (RSS) is defined as

$$\text{RSS} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - y_i)^2$$

- The *least squares* approach chooses $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ to minimize the RSS
- The solutions are

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$$

where $\bar{y} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$ and $\bar{x} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$

Pop-up quiz: Least squares coefficients

Dataset: Three observations:

$$(x_1, y_1) = (1, 2), \quad (x_2, y_2) = (2, 3), \quad (x_3, y_3) = (3, 6).$$

Question: What are the estimated slope $\hat{\beta}_1$ and intercept $\hat{\beta}_0$?

Hints (partial sums to speed up):

$$\bar{x} = 2, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{2 + 3 + 6}{3} = 3.667, \quad \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = 2, \quad \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = 4.$$

Multiple-choice answers:

- a) $\hat{\beta}_1 = 2, \quad \hat{\beta}_0 = -0.333$
- b) $\hat{\beta}_1 = 1.5, \quad \hat{\beta}_0 = 1$
- c) $\hat{\beta}_1 = 2, \quad \hat{\beta}_0 = 0$
- d) $\hat{\beta}_1 = 3, \quad \hat{\beta}_0 = -2$

Properties of the least squares estimator

$(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$ estimate (β_0, β_1) using data, so they need not be the same

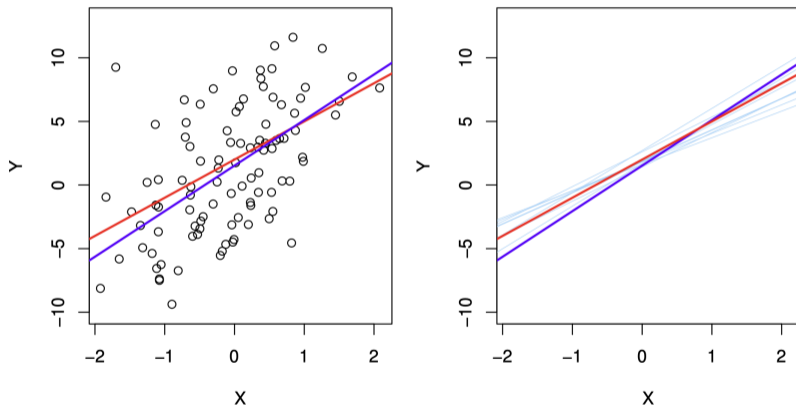


Figure: Least squares coefficient estimates from 100 data points. Red: population regression line, Blue: least squares line, Light blue: ten separate least squares lines [JWHT21, Figure 3.3].

Properties of the least squares estimator (cont'd)

Unbiasedness: $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are *unbiased* estimators of β_0 and β_1

- $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_0] = \beta_0$ and $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}_1] = \beta_1$
- If we *repeat the least squares regression using new samples* from the same population, then their average converges to the population regression line

Sampling distribution: Nevertheless, we only have one dataset!

- We care about how far $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$ can deviate from their expected values
- Under certain assumptions¹, the standard errors of $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are:

$$\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_0)^2 = \sigma^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right] \quad \text{and} \quad \text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1)^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

where $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(\epsilon)$, which is typically unknown and has to be estimated

¹For these to be strictly valid, we must assume ϵ_i for all i have variance σ^2 and are uncorrelated

Inference about the model parameters

Usually, we estimate $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(\epsilon)$ using the *residual standard error* (RSE):

$$\hat{\sigma} = \text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}}$$

where $\text{RSS} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i - y_i)^2$

Confidence Intervals: Standard errors can be used to compute confidence intervals

- A 95% confidence interval of β_i is approximately $\hat{\beta}_i \pm 1.96 \cdot \text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_i)$
- There is approximately a 95% chance that the (random) interval

$$\left[\hat{\beta}_i - 1.96 \cdot \text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_i), \hat{\beta}_i + 1.96 \cdot \text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_i) \right]$$

contains the true value of β_i

Inference about the model parameters (cont'd)

Hypothesis Testing: Standard errors can also be used for hypothesis tests on β_0 or β_1

- A common test:

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0 \quad (\text{no relationship}) \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_1 : \beta_1 \neq 0 \quad (\text{some relationship}).$$

- Compute a *t-statistic* and compare to a *t-distribution* w/ $(n - 2)$ degrees of freedom:

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$

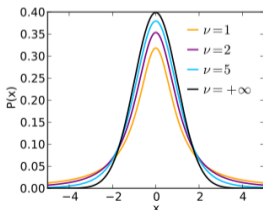


Figure: *t*-distribution (image from [Wikipedia](#)).

Pop-up quiz: Confidence interval / hypothesis test

Let's use the *same dataset* as before:

(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 6),

We found $\hat{\beta}_1 = 2$ and $\hat{\beta}_0 = -0.333$; also observe that $\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = 2$

1) **Residual standard error:** We have $n = 3$, so $n - 2 = 1$. The RSS is

$$\text{RSS} = \sum_{i=1}^3 (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = 0.666 \dots \quad (\approx \frac{2}{3}) \quad \implies \quad \hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}} = ?$$

2) **Standard error of $\hat{\beta}_1$:** $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} = ?$

3) **Hypothesis test:** $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$ vs. $H_1 : \beta_1 \neq 0$. What is the t -statistic $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1)} = ?$

Multiple-choice answers:

A) $\hat{\sigma} \approx 0.82$, $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1) \approx 0.58$, $t \approx 3.46$.

B) $\hat{\sigma} \approx 1.0$, $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1) \approx 0.5$, $t \approx 2.0$.

C) $\hat{\sigma} \approx 0.58$, $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1) \approx 0.82$, $t \approx 0.71$.

D) $\hat{\sigma} \approx 0.50$, $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1) \approx 0.25$, $t \approx 8.0$.

Assessing the accuracy of the model

The quality of a linear fit is typically assessed using RSE or the R^2 statistic

- **Residual standard error (RSE):** “average deviation of Y from the regression line”

$$\text{RSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{RSS}}{n-2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2},$$

which is an estimate of the standard deviation of ϵ

- **The R^2 :** “the proportion of variance in Y explained by X ”

$$R^2 = \frac{\text{TSS} - \text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}} = 1 - \frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}}$$

where $\text{TSS} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ is the total sum of squares (TSS)

The R^2 statistic

The R^2 ranges from 0 to 1, and is independent of the scale of Y

- R^2 near 1 indicates most variability in Y is explained by the linear regression model
- R^2 near 0 indicates little variability is explained
 - e.g., the linear model assumption is wrong or the error variance σ^2 is large

Recall the (sample) correlation:

$$\widehat{\text{Cor}}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

- In simple linear regression, $R^2 = r^2$, where $r = \text{Cor}(X, Y)$
- This equality does *not* hold in multiple linear regression

Wrap-up

Simple linear regression assumes a model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon,$$

with the model parameters typically estimated by least squares

We can address the five key questions:

- Is there any relationship between X and Y ? \Rightarrow Test $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$
- How much of Y is explained by X ? $\Rightarrow R^2$
- How does Y change per unit change in X ? $\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_1$
- How accurately can we predict Y given X ? $\Rightarrow \text{Var}(Y|X)$, related to R^2
- Is the relationship linear? $\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, R^2$

Next lecture: multiple linear regression

References



Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani.

An Introduction to Statistical Learning: with Applications in R, volume 112 of *Springer Texts in Statistics*.

Springer, New York, NY, 2nd edition, 2021.