

# Simple Linear Regression

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February 11, 2026

## Warm-up

Suppose from a population of male Adelie penguins we take measurements on flipper length and find the following statistics:

$$\bar{x} = 190\text{mm}, \quad \hat{\sigma} = 6.54\text{mm}$$

If a particular penguin had a standardized flipper length of  $z = -0.5$ , what was the length of his flipper in millimeters?

# Z-scores and Correlation

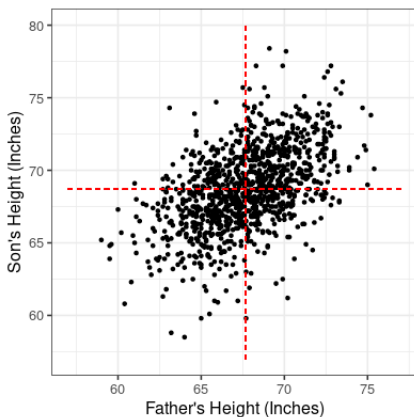
Recall that:

- ▶ **Z-scores** or **standardized scores** relate each observation to the mean and standard deviation of the variable
  - ▶  $z = 0$  corresponds to the average and  $z = 1$  corresponds to one standard deviation
- ▶ **Correlation** specifies the *linear* relationship between two quantitative variables

# Pearson's Height Data

	Mean ( $\mu$ )	SD ( $\sigma$ )	Correlation ( $r_{xy}$ )
Father	67.68	2.74	0.501
Son	68.68	2.81	

Father	Son
65.0	59.8
63.3	63.2
65.0	63.3
65.8	62.8
61.1	64.3
63.0	64.2
$\vdots$	$\vdots$



## Regression towards the mean

	Mean ( $\mu$ )	SD ( $\sigma$ )	Correlation ( $r_{xy}$ )
Father	67.68	2.74	0.501
Son	68.68	2.81	

The correlation coefficient tells us how much “regression” we expect to observe in terms of standardized values:

$$z_S = r \times z_F$$

If the father is one and a half standard deviations above average ( $z_F = 1.5$ ), and the correlation between heights is 0.501, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} z_S &= r \times z_F \\ &= 0.501 \times 1.5 \\ &= 0.752 \end{aligned}$$

# Correlation and Prediction

	Mean ( $\mu$ )	SD ( $\sigma$ )	Correlation ( $r_{xy}$ )
Father	67.68	2.74	0.501
Son	68.68	2.81	

From here, we can back substitute the value for  $z_S$  to get our unstandardized predictions:

$$\begin{aligned}z_S &= 0.752 \\ \left( \frac{\hat{y} - 68.68}{2.81} \right) &= 0.752 \\ \hat{y} &= 0.752 \times 2.81 + 68.68 \\ \hat{y} &= 70.793\end{aligned}$$

Where  $\hat{y}$  represents our best guess for  $y$ , given a value for  $x$

# Regression Line

The relationship  $z_y = r \times z_x$  can always be manipulated to rewrite the relationship between the variables  $X$  and  $y$  so they fit the formula

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

We interpret these as follows:

- ▶  $\hat{\beta}_0$  represents the *intercept*, or the estimated value of  $y$  when  $X = 0$
- ▶  $\hat{\beta}_1$  represents the *slope*, indicating the magnitude of change in  $y$  given a unit change in  $X$

## Regression Line from Z Scores

	Mean ( $\mu$ )	SD ( $\sigma$ )	Correlation ( $r_{xy}$ )
Father	67.68	2.74	0.501
Son	68.68	2.81	

Note that  $z_F = 1.5$  corresponds to  $X = 71.79$

$$z_S = r \times z_F$$
$$\left( \frac{\hat{y} - 68.68}{2.81} \right) = r \times \left( \frac{X - 67.68}{2.74} \right)$$
$$\hat{y} = 33.9 + 0.514X$$

Where  $\hat{y}$  represents our best guess for  $y$ , given a value for  $X$

# Predictions

The formula for the regression line

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + X\beta_1$$

can be expressed in terms our our original variables and what we wish to predict

$$\widehat{\text{Son's Height}} = 33.9 + 0.514 \times \text{Father's Height}$$

From this, there are a few things about lines we can observe:

- ▶ Using this line, *given* the Father's height, we can predict the son's height using this line by plugging in a value for the father's height
- ▶ "For each 1 inch change in Father's height, we expect to see a 0.51 inch change in Son's height"
- ▶ Intercept interpretation

# Linear Model in R

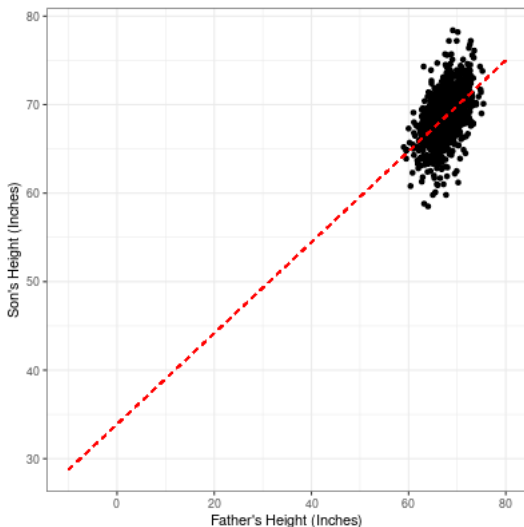
Creating linear models in R is simple; the `lm()` function creates a *linear model* that requires a *formula* component, `Son ~ Father` and a `data` argument, specifying the dataset containing the variables

```
1 > lm(formula = Son ~ Father, data = dat)
2
3 Coefficients:
4 (Intercept)      Father
5      33.893       0.514
```

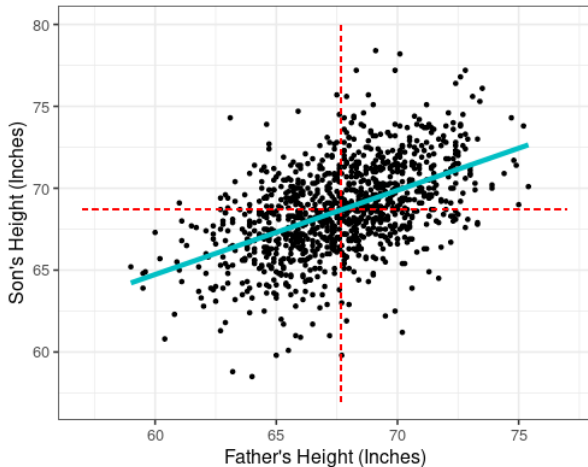
The output gives us the intercept along with a value for the slope

# Intercept Interpretation/Extrapolation

$$\widehat{\text{Son's Height}} = 33.9 + 0.51 \times \text{Father's Height}$$



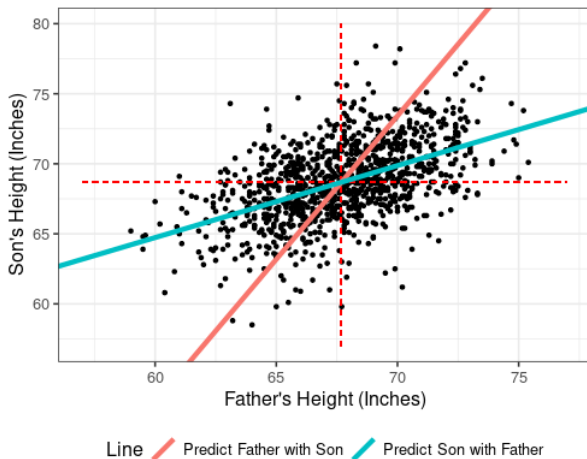
# Using Correlation to Make Predictions



*“Given father’s height, the average height of the son is...”*

# Symmetry

Unlike correlation, where  $r_{xy} = r_{yx}$ , regression is *asymmetrical*: the choice of explanatory and response variables matter



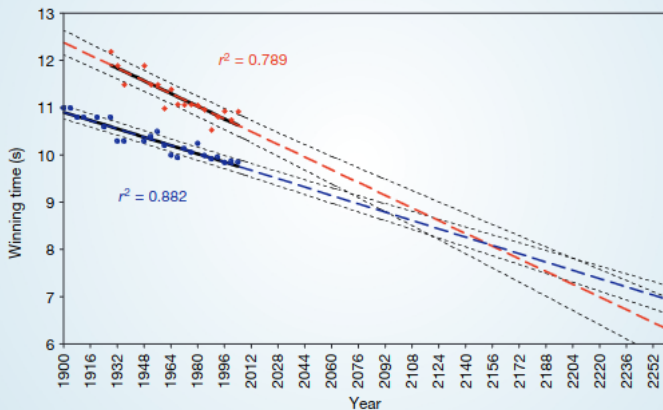
# Extrapolation

In 2004, an article was published in *Nature* titled “Momentous sprint at the 2156 Olympics.” The authors plotted the winning times of men’s and women’s 100m dash in every Olympic contest, fitting separate regression lines to each; they found that the two lines will intersect at the 2156 Olympics. Here are a few of the headlines:

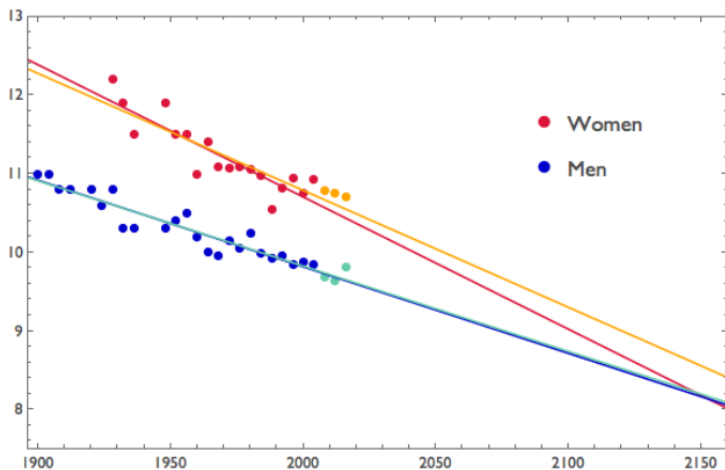
- ▶ “Women ‘may outsprint men by 2156’” – BBC News
- ▶ “Data Trends Suggest Women Will Outrun Men in 2156” – Scientific American
- ▶ “Women athletes will one day out-sprint men” – The Telegraph
- ▶ “Why women could be faster than men within 150 years” – The Guardian

# Momentous sprint at the 2156 Olympics?

Women sprinters are closing the gap on men and may one day overtake them.

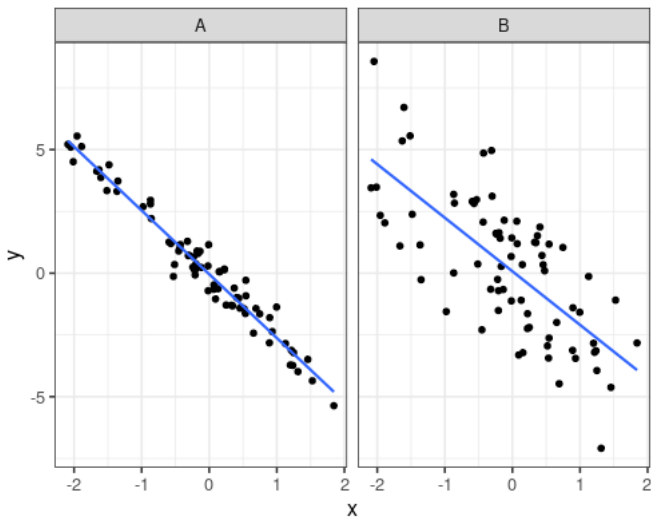


## 12 years of data later



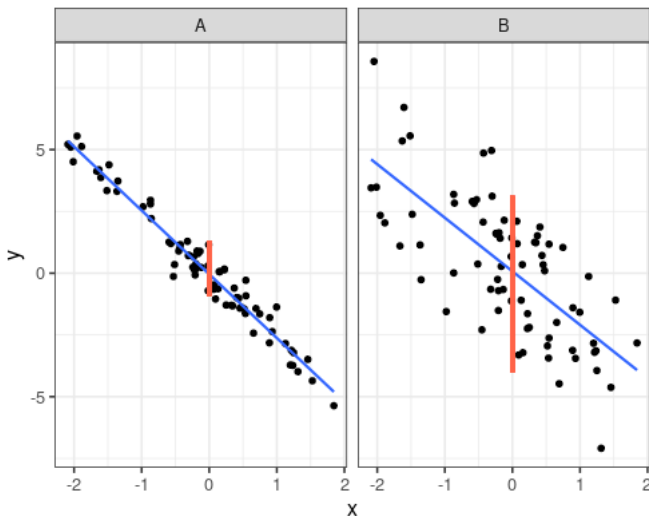
# Assessing Quality of Fit

“How much variability is left once I have selected my prediction on the line?”



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# Total Sum of Squares

If we had an outcome  $y$  and no predictor variable  $x$ , our best guess for an estimate of  $y$  would simply be the mean,  $\bar{y}$

From this, we get a sense of the *total variance* by taking the *sum of squares*:

$$\text{Total Sum of Squares} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

We can think of this as our baseline: this is how much variability we see with no other predictors

# Regression Sum of Squares

Now assume for each  $y_i$  we used a variable  $x_i$ , along with their correlation, to create an estimated value  $\hat{y}_i$ , with

$$\hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$

We could then ask ourselves: how much variability is left once I have used my predictor to make  $\hat{y}_i$ ? This gives us the *residual sum of squares*:

$$\text{Residual Sum of Squares} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

# Coefficient of Determination

Now consider the ratio of variance explained in model against variance without model:

$$\frac{\text{Residual SS (SSR)}}{\text{Total SS (SST)}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

If our model is no better than guessing the average (i.e., if  $\hat{y} = \bar{y}$ ), this ratio would be 1; if we are able to perfectly predict each value  $y_i$ , this ratio would be 0

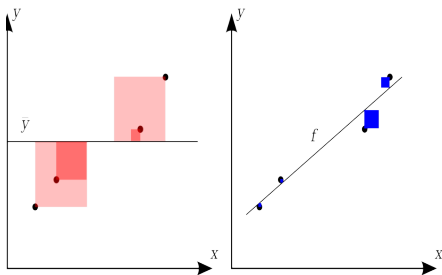
Our **coefficient of determination** or  $R^2$  (R-squared) is defined as

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSR}{SST}$$

Somewhat surprisingly, in the case with a single predictor variable we have that the coefficient of determination is simply the squared correlation

$$R^2 = r^2$$

$$\frac{\text{Residual SS (SSR)}}{\text{Total SS (SST)}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$



$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{Leftover Variance}}{\text{Total Variance}}$$

We should be able to

- ▶ Describe how correlation and regression related
- ▶ Be able to predict an outcome, given a predictor
- ▶ Interpret the slope and intercept (if applicable)
- ▶ Assess the quality of a fitted line