

Model Selection and Validation

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Regression Analysis

Manual model selection

Caution regarding scatterplots

Model Building and Types of Studies

Model Selection

Model Validation (briefly)

Salary example

<https://github.com/zh3nis/MATH440/tree/main/chp09/salary.R>

Model annual salary (in \$1000) as function of

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- ▶ political affiliation (po1 = D for Democrat, po1 = R for Republican, and po1 = O for other).

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Model annual salary (in \$1000) as function of

- ▶ age (in years),
- ▶ education (years of post-high-school education), and
- ▶ political affiliation (pol = D for Democrat, pol = R for Republican, and pol = O for other).

```
> salary_data = read.table("path/to/salary.txt", header=FALSE)
> colnames(salary_data) = c('salary', 'age', 'educ', 'pol')
> head(salary_data)
```

	salary	age	educ	pol
1	38	25	4	D
2	45	27	4	R
3	28	26	4	O
4	55	39	4	D
5	74	42	4	R
6	43	41	4	O

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Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	17.0313	7.3459	2.318	0.03735	*
age	0.8983	0.1968	4.565	0.00053	***
educ	1.5039	1.1841	1.270	0.22632	
pol0	-16.5404	4.8807	-3.389	0.00484	**
polR	9.1587	4.8482	1.889	0.08139	.

Residual standard error: 8.209 on 13 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8374, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7873

- ▶ We can also test quadratic effects and interactions.
- ▶ From the initial fit, educ is not needed with age and pol in the model. Let's refit:

Droc educ?

```
> m2 = update(m1, . ~ . - educ)
```

```
> anova(m1, m2)
```

Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: salary ~ age + educ + pol

Model 2: salary ~ age + pol

	Res.Df	RSS	Df	Sum of Sq	F	Pr(>F)
1	13	876.03				
2	14	984.72	-1	-108.7	1.6131	0.2263

```
> summary(m2)
```

```
lm(formula = salary ~ age + pol, data = salary_data)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	21.5172	6.5806	3.270	0.00559 **
age	1.0345	0.1686	6.136	2.58e-05 ***
pol0	-16.7414	4.9838	-3.359	0.00468 **
polR	8.6379	4.9354	1.750	0.10196

Residual standard error: 8.387 on 14 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8172, Adjusted R-squared: 0.778

Add 2nd order terms?

```
> salary_data$age2 = salary_data$age^2  
> m3 = update(m2, . ~ . + age2 + age*pol)  
> summary(m3)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = salary ~ age + pol + age2 + age:pol, data = salary_data)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	-20.94355	20.34047	-1.030	0.32528	
age	3.17751	0.93793	3.388	0.00606	**
pol0	-16.90846	22.83050	-0.741	0.47444	
polR	-1.18699	21.44129	-0.055	0.95684	
age2	-0.02514	0.01255	-2.004	0.07037	.
age:pol0	0.05101	0.65536	0.078	0.93936	
age:polR	0.28944	0.61956	0.467	0.64950	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 7.434 on 11 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8871, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8256

Drop 2nd order terms?

```
> anova(m3, m2)
```

Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: salary ~ age + pol + age2 + age:pol

Model 2: salary ~ age + pol

	Res.Df	RSS	Df	Sum of Sq	F	Pr(>F)
1	11	607.88				
2	14	984.72	-3	-376.84	2.2731	0.1369

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We don't need *all* the 2nd order terms ($p = 0.137$), although there's some indication in the table of regression effects that age^2 might be needed.

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```
> anova(m4, m2)
```

Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: salary ~ age + pol + age2

Model 2: salary ~ age + pol

	Res.Df	RSS	Df	Sum of Sq	F	Pr(>F)
1	13	645.09				
2	14	984.72	-1	-339.64	6.8444	0.02134 *

Final model

Our final model is

$$\text{salary}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \text{age} + \beta_2 \cdot \mathbb{I}[\text{pol} = \text{O}] + \beta_3 \cdot \mathbb{I}[\text{pol} = \text{R}] + \beta_4 \cdot \text{age}^2 + \epsilon_i$$

```
> summary(m4)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = salary ~ age + pol + age2, data = salary_data)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	-24.751745	18.529243	-1.336	0.20452	
age	3.272388	0.867049	3.774	0.00232	**
polO	-15.891696	4.198662	-3.785	0.00227	**
polR	9.260234	4.152253	2.230	0.04399	*
age2	-0.024576	0.009394	-2.616	0.02134	*

Residual standard error: 7.044 on 13 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8802, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8434

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Scatterplots

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Scatterplots

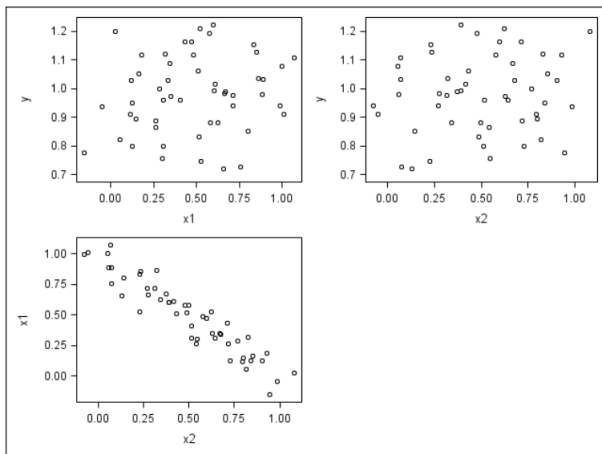
- ▶ Scatterplots show the *marginal* relationship between Y and each of the x_1, \dots, x_k . They *cannot* show you anything about the joint relationship among the Y, x_1, \dots, x_k .
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- ▶ Actually, any strong relationship between Y and x_j marginally doesn't mean that x_j will be needed in the presence of other variables.

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- ▶ Nonlinear relationship between Y and x_j ($j = 1, \dots, k$) *marginally* may or may not be present in the joint relationship.
- ▶ Actually, any strong relationship between Y and x_j marginally doesn't mean that x_j will be needed in the presence of other variables.
- ▶ Seeing no marginal relationship between Y and x_j does not mean that x_j is not needed in a model including other predictors.

No relationship?

Here Y vs. x_1 and Y vs. x_2 shows nothing. There seems to be some multicollinearity though.



proc reg output

x_1 important marginally? $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \epsilon_i$

Variable	DF	Parameter	Standard	t Value	Pr > t
		Estimate	Error		
Intercept	1	0.94576	0.03602	26.26	<.0001
x1	1	0.06974	0.06311	1.11	0.2745

x_2 important marginally? $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i$

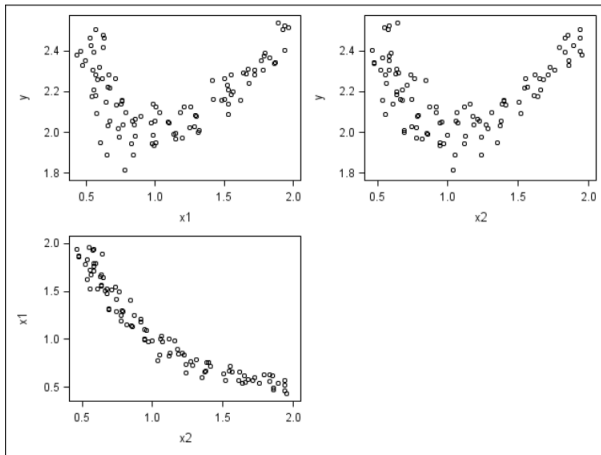
Variable	DF	Parameter	Standard	t Value	Pr > t
		Estimate	Error		
Intercept	1	0.95180	0.03730	25.52	<.0001
x2	1	0.05603	0.06458	0.87	0.3898

x_1, x_2 important jointly? $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i$

Variable	DF	Parameter	Standard	t Value	Pr > t
		Estimate	Error		
Intercept	1	-0.08151	0.10876	-0.75	0.4572
x1	1	1.07327	0.11065	9.70	<.0001
x2	1	1.08548	0.11271	9.63	<.0001

Nonlinear relationship?

Marginally, x_1 and x_2 have highly nonlinear relationships with Y .
Should we transform?



Regression output

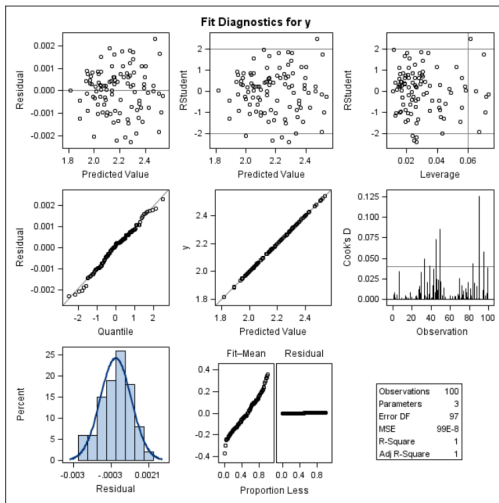
Let's try fitting a simple main effects model without any transformation.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i$$

Variable	DF	Parameter	Standard	t Value	Pr > t
		Estimate	Error		
Intercept	1	-0.00036626	0.00130	-0.28	0.7791
x1	1	1.00022	0.00059936	1668.80	<.0001
x2	1	1.00009	0.00060998	1639.54	<.0001

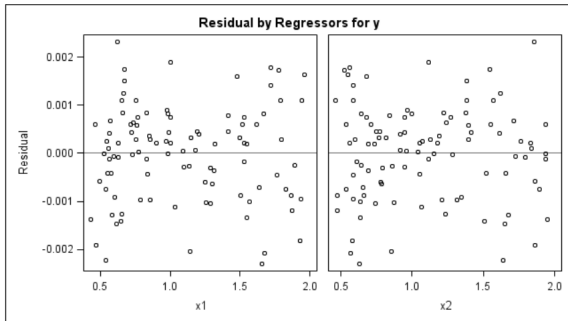
both x_1 and x_2 are important, but does the model fit okay?

Model fit is okay



Look at Y_i vs. \hat{Y}_i and R^2 !

No pattern here, either



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9.1 Model building overview (pp. 343–349)

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Model validation should not be confused with model diagnostics (residual analysis).

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 - ▶ **Exploratory studies:** it is hypothesized that some or all of potential predictors are associated with Y .

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9.2 Surgical unit example

- ▶ First steps often involve plots:
 - ▶ Plots to indicate correct functional form of predictors and/or response.
 - ▶ Plots to indicate possible interaction.
 - ▶ Exploration of correlation among predictors (maybe).
 - ▶ Often a first-order model is a good starting point.
- ▶ Once a reasonable set of potential predictors is identified, formal model selection begins.
- ▶ If the number of predictors is large, say $k \geq 10$, we can use (automated) stepwise procedures to reduce the number of variables (and models) under consideration.

Surgical unit example: predictors

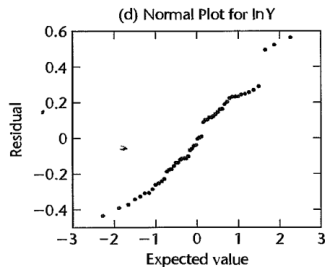
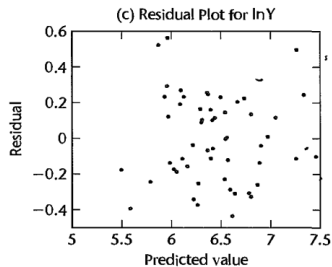
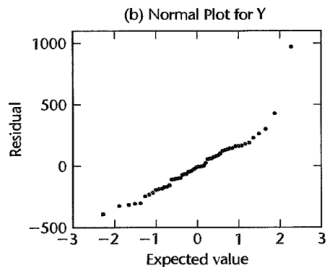
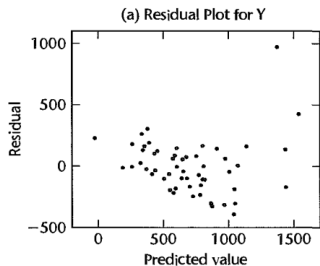
A hospital surgical unit was interested in predicting survival in patients undergoing a particular type of liver operation. A random selection of 108 patients was available for analysis.

- X_1 blood clotting score
- X_2 prognostic index
- X_3 enzyme function test score
- X_4 liver function test score

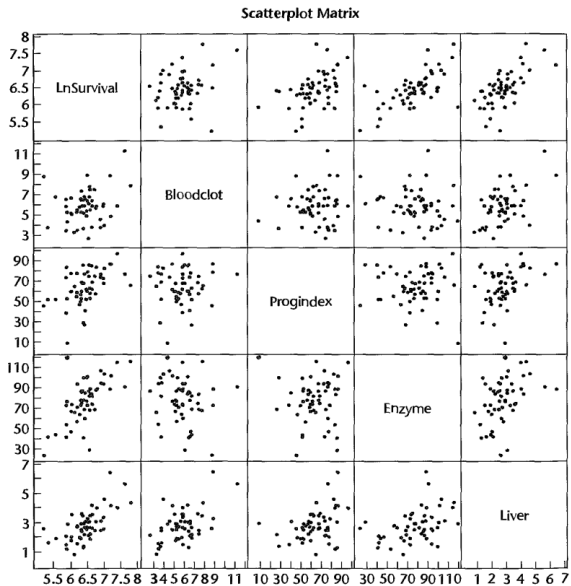
...

Case Number	Blood-Clotting Score	Prognostic Index	Enzyme Test	Liver Test	Age	Gender	Alc. Use: Mod.	Alc. Use: Heavy	Survival Time	$Y'_i = \ln Y_i$
i	X_{i1}	X_{i2}	X_{i3}	X_{i4}	X_{i5}	X_{i6}	X_{i7}	X_{i8}	Y_i	
1	6.7	62	81	2.59	50	0	1	0	695	6.544
2	5.1	59	66	1.70	39	0	0	0	403	5.999
3	7.4	57	83	2.16	55	0	0	0	710	6.565
...
52	6.4	85	40	1.21	58	0	0	1	579	6.361
53	6.4	59	85	2.33	63	0	1	0	550	6.310
54	8.8	78	72	3.20	56	0	0	0	651	6.478

Surgical unit example: residual plots



Surgical unit example: scatterplot matrix



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Say we have k predictors x_1, \dots, x_k and we want to find a good subset of predictors that predict the data well. There are several useful criteria to help choose a subset of predictors.

Adjusted- R^2 , R_a^2

The *adjusted* R^2 , denoted R_a^2 “fixes” R^2 to provide a measure of how good the model will predict data not used to build the model. For a candidate model with $p - 1$ predictors

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- ▶ R_a^2 penalizes model for being too complex.
- ▶ Problem: R_a^2 is greater for a “bigger” model whenever the F-statistic for comparing bigger to smaller is greater than 1 (**show this**). We usually want F-statistic to be a *lot* bigger than 1 before adding in new predictors

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- ▶ If irrelevant variables are added, R_a^2 may decrease unlike “regular” R^2 (R_a^2 can be negative!).
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- ▶ Problem: R_a^2 is greater for a “bigger” model whenever the F-statistic for comparing bigger to smaller is greater than 1 (**show this**). We usually want F-statistic to be a *lot* bigger than 1 before adding in new predictors \Rightarrow *too liberal*.

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- ▶ $2p$ is “penalty” term for adding predictors.
- ▶ Like R_a^2 , AIC favors models with small SSE, but penalizes models with too many variables p .
- ▶ \Rightarrow Between two models, we prefer the one with lower AIC.

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- BIC is similar to AIC, but for $n \geq 8$, the BIC “penalty term” is more severe.

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Full model with k predictors and Reduced model with $p - 1$ predictors.

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- ▶ The Full model always has $C_{k+1} = k + 1$.

Mallow's C_p

If $C_p \approx p$ then the reduced model predicts as well as the full model. If $C_p < p$ then the reduced model is estimated to be less *biased* than the full model.

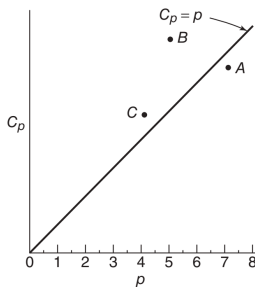


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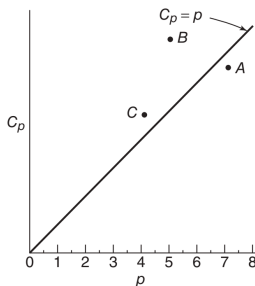


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In practice, just choose model with smallest C_p .

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R_a^2 , AIC, BIC, and C_p may give different “best” models, or they may agree. Ultimate goal is to find model that balances:

- ▶ A good fit to the data.
- ▶ Low bias.
- ▶ Parsimony.

All else being equal, the simpler model is often easier to interpret and work with. Christensen (1996) recommends C_p and notes the similarity between C_p and AIC.

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- ▶ Automated procedures *cannot* assess a good functional form for a predictor, *cannot* think about which interactions might be important, etc.
- ▶ Anyway, automated procedures are widely used and *can* produce good models. But they can also produce models that are *substantially inferior* to other models built from the same predictors using scientific input and common sense.

Example: cruise ships

<https://github.com/zh3nis/MATH440/blob/main/chp09/cruise.R>

A cruise ship company wishes to model the crew size needed for a ship using predictors such as: age, tonnage, passengers, length, cabins and passenger density (passdens).

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```
> cruise <- read.fwf("http://www.stat.ufl.edu/~winner/data/cruise_ship.dat", ...)
```

```
> head(cruise)
```

	ship	cline	age	tonnage	passengers	length	cabins	passdens	crew
1	Journey	Azamara	6	30.277	6.94	5.94	3.55	42.64	3.55
2	Quest	Azamara	6	30.277	6.94	5.94	3.55	42.64	3.55
3	Celebration	Carnival	26	47.262	14.86	7.22	7.43	31.80	6.70
4	Conquest	Carnival	11	110.000	29.74	9.53	14.88	36.99	19.10
5	Destiny	Carnival	17	101.353	26.42	8.92	13.21	38.36	10.00
6	Ecstasy	Carnival	22	70.367	20.52	8.55	10.20	34.29	9.20

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Without concerning ourselves with potential interactions we will look at simple additive models.

Cruise ships — Full model

```
> fit0 = lm(crew ~ age + tonnage + passengers + length + cabins + passdens, data=cruise)
> summary(fit0)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = crew ~ age + tonnage + passengers + length + cabins +
    passdens, data = cruise)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-1.7700	-0.4881	-0.0938	0.4454	7.0077

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-0.5213400	1.0570350	-0.493	0.62258
age	-0.0125449	0.0141975	-0.884	0.37832
tonnage	0.0132410	0.0118928	1.113	0.26732
passengers	-0.1497640	0.0475886	-3.147	0.00199 **
length	0.4034785	0.1144548	3.525	0.00056 ***
cabins	0.8016337	0.0892227	8.985	9.84e-16 ***
passdens	-0.0006577	0.0158098	-0.042	0.96687

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.9819 on 151 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9245, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9215

F-statistic: 308 on 6 and 151 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

Best subsets

```
> library(leaps)
> allcruise <- regsubsets(crew ~ age + tonnage + passengers + length + cabins + passdens,
+                          nbest=4, data=cruise)
> all_output <- summary(allcruise)
> with(all_output, round(cbind(which, rsq, adjr2, cp, bic), 3))
```

	(Intercept)	age	tonnage	passengers	length	cabins	passdens	rsq	adjr2	cp	bic
1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0.904	0.903	37.772	-360.238
1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0.860	0.859	125.086	-300.954
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0.838	0.837	170.523	-277.122
1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0.803	0.801	240.675	-246.201
2	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0.916	0.915	15.952	-376.131
2	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.912	0.911	24.261	-368.502
2	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0.911	0.909	26.792	-366.249
2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0.908	0.907	32.443	-361.332
3	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0.922	0.921	5.857	-382.878
3	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0.919	0.918	11.341	-377.413
3	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0.918	0.916	14.023	-374.808
3	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0.917	0.915	15.909	-373.002
4	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0.924	0.922	3.847	-381.933
4	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0.923	0.921	5.084	-380.652
4	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0.923	0.921	5.197	-380.534
4	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0.919	0.917	13.056	-372.631
5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.924	0.922	5.002	-377.752
5	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0.924	0.922	5.781	-376.939
5	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0.924	0.921	6.240	-376.462
5	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0.920	0.917	14.904	-367.717
6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.924	0.921	7.000	-372.692

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```
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3	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0.922	0.921	5.857	-382.878
3	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0.919	0.918	11.341	-377.413
3	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0.918	0.916	14.023	-374.808
3	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0.917	0.915	15.909	-373.002
4	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0.924	0.922	3.847	-381.933
4	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0.923	0.921	5.084	-380.652
4	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0.923	0.921	5.197	-380.534
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5	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0.924	0.922	5.002	-377.752
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A good model choice might be the model with 4 predictors: tonnage, passengers, length, and cabins, whose $R_a^2 = 0.922$, $C_p = 3.847$, and $BIC = 381.933$.

AIC full vs reduced

```
> fit3 <- update(fit0, . ~ . - age - passdens)
> AIC(fit3)
[1] 448.3229
> AIC(fit0)
[1] 451.4394
```

9.4 Automated variable search

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- ▶ Forward Selection (Bottom up approach)
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We will explore these procedures using two different elimination/selection criteria. One that uses t-test and p-value and another that uses the AIC value.

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4. Continue until all predictors have p-values $\leq \alpha_s$.

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 - ▶ If $p\text{-value} \leq \alpha_e$, keep this variable and fit all two variable models that include this predictor.
 - ▶ If $p\text{-value} > \alpha_e$, stop and keep previous model.

Forward selection

1. Select a significance level to *enter* the model (e.g. $\alpha_e = 0.20$, generally .05 is too low, causing too few variables to be entered).
2. Fit all simple regression models.
3. Consider the predictor with the highest t-statistic (lowest p-value).
 - ▶ If $p\text{-value} \leq \alpha_e$, keep this variable and fit all two variable models that include this predictor.
 - ▶ If $p\text{-value} > \alpha_e$, stop and keep previous model.
4. Continue until no new predictors have $p\text{-values} \leq \alpha_e$.

Stepwise regression

1. Select α_s and α_e , ($\alpha_e < \alpha_s$).

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Stepwise regression

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2. Start like Forward Selection (bottom up process) where new variables must have p-value $\leq \alpha_e$ to enter.
3. Re-test all “old variables” that have already been entered, must have p-value $\leq \alpha_s$ to stay in model.
4. Continue until no new variables can be entered and no old variables need to be removed.

Backward and Forward for cruise ships

```
> library(olsrr)
> ols_step_backward_p(fit0)
```

Elimination Summary

Step	Variable Removed	R-Square	Adj. R-Square	C(p)	AIC	RMSE
1	passdens	0.9245	0.922	5.0017	449.4412	0.9786
2	age	0.924	0.9221	3.8468	448.3229	0.9782

```
> ols_step_forward_p(fit0)
```

Selection Summary

Step	Variable Entered	R-Square	Adj. R-Square	C(p)	AIC	RMSE
1	cabins	0.9041	0.9034	37.7724	479.2060	1.0886
2	length	0.9160	0.9149	15.9524	460.2507	1.0221
3	passengers	0.9220	0.9205	5.8566	450.4411	0.9878
4	tonnage	0.9240	0.9221	3.8468	448.3229	0.9782

Stepwise procedure for cruise ships

```
> ols_step_both_p(fit0)
```

Stepwise Selection Summary

Step	Variable	Added/ Removed	R-Square	Adj. R-Square	C(p)	AIC	RMSE
1	cabins	addition	0.904	0.903	37.7720	479.2060	1.0886
2	length	addition	0.916	0.915	15.9520	460.2507	1.0221
3	passengers	addition	0.922	0.921	5.8570	450.4411	0.9878
4	tonnage	addition	0.924	0.922	3.8470	448.3229	0.9782

Manual model selection

Caution regarding scatterplots

Model Building and Types of Studies

Model Selection

Model Validation (briefly)

PRESS_p criterion

$$\text{PRESS}_p = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_{i(i)})^2 \quad \left(= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{e_i}{1 - h_{ii}} \right]^2 \right),$$

where $\hat{Y}_{i(i)}$ is the fitted value at \mathbf{x}_i with the (\mathbf{x}_i, Y_i) omitted.

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where $\hat{Y}_{i(i)}$ is the fitted value at \mathbf{x}_i with the (\mathbf{x}_i, Y_i) omitted.

- ▶ This is leave-one-out prediction error. The smaller, the better.
- ▶ Having $\text{PRESS}_p \approx \text{SSE}_p$ supports the *validity* of the model with p predictors (p. 374).

Caveats for automated procedures

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- ▶ There is no “best” way to search for good models.
- ▶ There may be *several* “good” models.
- ▶ If you use the same data to *estimate* the model and *choose* the model, the regression effects are *biased*! This leads to the idea of data splitting; one portion of the data is the *training data* and the other portion is the *validation set* (Section 9.6, p. 372). PRESS_p can also be used.