

Basics of Linear Models

Motivation for models of the mean function

Previously we assumed that rvs Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n are iid. $\Rightarrow E(Y_i) = E(Y_j)$ for every i, j . A more interesting model is

$$E(Y_i) = f_i(\underbrace{\text{observed variables}}_{\substack{\text{covariates, predictors,} \\ \text{explanatory variables}}})$$

E.g. Y_i : score of i -th student on the final exam. f_i : function of study time, difficulty of exam, past performance on quizzes, etc.

The mean function f_i relates the expectation of Y_i —response variable—to the corresponding explanatory variables. Mathematically,

$$E(Y_i) = f_i(\underbrace{x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{im}}_{\mathbf{x}_i^T}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \Rightarrow \begin{cases} Y_i = \underbrace{Y_i - E(Y_i)}_{\text{error}_i} + E(Y_i) \\ = E(Y_i) + \text{error}_i \\ = f_i(\mathbf{x}_i^T, \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \text{error}_i \end{cases}$$

Most generally, this is a nonlinear model, i.e., $f_i(\mathbf{x}_i^T, \boldsymbol{\beta})$ is a nonlinear function of the coefficients $\boldsymbol{\beta}$.

Linear Models

If $f_i(\mathbf{x}_i^T, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} = \sum_{j=1}^m x_{ij} \beta_j$ where \mathbf{x}_i^T is a vector of explanatory variables and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is the vector of coefficients. Then we have a statistical linear model (LM), meaning that the mean function is linear in the coefficients β_j ; the mean function need not be linear in covariates.

Examples:

- $E(Y_i) = \beta_0$
- $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1}$
- $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i1}^2$

→ these are LMs since expectation is linear in β_i 's.

- $E(Y_i) = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2})$

→ not an LM.

Our focus: statistical linear models; hence, no more f_i 's to denote the mean functions.

The (linear) least squares problem: given a vector of observations \mathbf{Y} and a matrix of covariates \mathbf{X} , find a vector of model coefficients \mathbf{b} that minimizes

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{b})^2 = (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})^T (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}) = \text{SSE}(\mathbf{b}), \text{ the sum of squared errors.}$$

$Y_i = \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \text{error}_i \Rightarrow$ estimate $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ as the value of \mathbf{b} that minimizes $\text{SSE}(\mathbf{b})$.

Example: Let $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \text{error}_i$.

\Rightarrow we find a line $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$ that minimizes $\text{SSE}(\mathbf{b})$, the sum of squared *vertical* distances to the points (x_i, y_i) from line $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x$. In matrix form

$$Y_i = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_i^T \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \text{error}_i$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1^T \\ 1 & x_2^T \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n^T \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \text{error}_i,$$

In statistics, if x_i is a scalar, this is known as simple linear regression. If x_i^T is a vector, we have multiple linear regression.

Aside: β_0 is known as an “intercept”, estimated by $\hat{\beta}_0$. In the model, the column of ones can be absorbed into the x_i^T ’s.

How to solve the least squares problem? \Rightarrow find $\frac{\partial \text{SSE}(\mathbf{b})}{\partial \mathbf{b}}$, set to 0, solve, get $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$, assuming \mathbf{X} is of full rank (\mathbf{X} is $n \times m, n > m$).

How to solve the least squares problem “statistically”? Assume:

$$Y_i = \underbrace{\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\sum_{j=1}^m x_{ij} \beta_j} + \varepsilon_i$$

where ε_i ’s are iid $\text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$. In vector-matrix form,

$$\underset{n \times 1}{\mathbf{Y}} = \underset{n \times m}{\mathbf{X}} \overset{m \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \underset{n \times 1}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$$

$Y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$, the Y_i ’s are independent but not identically distributed.

Since we know the joint pdf of the Y_i ’s let’s use ML estimation to estimate $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and σ^2 .

- Step 1: write down the likelihood; here, $f_i(\cdot|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$ is the pdf of Y_i :

$$\begin{aligned} L(y_1, \dots, y_n | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) &= \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(y_i | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\ &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})^2}_{(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})}\right) \end{aligned}$$

- Step 2: log-likelihood:

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) &= \ln(L(y_1, \dots, y_n | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)) \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} \ln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}). \end{aligned}$$

- Step 3. Find the gradient of $\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$ with respect to $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and σ^2 , set the gradient to 0, solve for $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and σ^2 .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} &= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} 2\mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \\ \frac{\partial \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)}{\partial \sigma^2} &= -\frac{n}{2} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})}{(\sigma^2)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{solve, get } \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} \text{ and } \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}).$$

- Step 4. Make sure we found the maximizers of $L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$ by showing that all eigenvalues of the matrix of second derivatives of $L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$ —known as the Hessian—are negative. (Equivalently, $(-1) \cdot \text{Hessian}$ is positive definite.)

Some jargon: estimating $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\sigma^2 \equiv$ “fitting the model”

- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \equiv$ ML and LS estimator of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$.
- $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is the vector of fitted values (it estimates $\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$).
- $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$: vector of true errors. (do not confuse residuals with true errors)
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$: vector of residuals.
- $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{Y}$

Let \mathbf{P} be a matrix such that

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_1 & \mathbf{P}_2 \\ n \times m & n \times (n-m) \end{bmatrix}$$

1. Columns of \mathbf{P} form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^N , (columns are “perpendicular” and have length 1), i.e., $\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$.

2. Columns of \mathbf{P}_1 form an orthonormal basis for the column space of \mathbf{X} . Column space of \mathbf{X} : $\{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{d} \in \mathbb{R}^M\}$
3. Columns of \mathbf{P}_2 form a basis for the orthogonal complement of column space for \mathbf{X} (null space of \mathbf{X}^T : $\{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{z} = 0\}$).

Observation: one can write

- $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{P}_1^T$
- $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) = \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_2^T$.
- $\mathbf{X} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{H} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{P}_1 \mathbf{P}_1^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})(\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = (\mathbf{X} - \underbrace{\mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}}_{\mathbf{I}}) \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_2^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_2^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$

Let $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{P}_1^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{P}_2^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{P}^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ so that $\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_1^T \\ \mathbf{P}_2^T \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{U} \\ \mathbf{W} \end{bmatrix}$

Program: show that \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{W} are independent. Hence $h(\mathbf{V})$ and $g(\mathbf{W})$ are independent for any choice of h and g .

Goal: find the distribution of $\mathbf{V} = h(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \mathbf{P}^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. Recall: in one dimension, if $Z = h(T)$ then

$$\underbrace{f_Z(z)}_{\text{pdf of } Z} = \underbrace{f_T(h^{-1}(z))}_{\text{pdf of } T} \cdot \underbrace{\left| \frac{\partial h^{-1}(z)}{\partial z} \right|}_{\substack{\text{Jacobian of} \\ \text{the inverse} \\ \text{transformation}}}$$

$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{P}^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = h^{-1}(\mathbf{V}) = (\mathbf{P}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{V}$. Since $\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{P}^T)^{-1}$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{v}) &= f_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}(h^{-1}(\mathbf{v})) \cdot |\det(\mathbf{P})| \\ f_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) &= \prod_{i=1}^n (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\varepsilon_i^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\ f_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{v}) &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P} \mathbf{v}}{2\sigma^2}\right) \cdot |\det(\mathbf{P})| \\ &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}}{2\sigma^2}\right) \cdot |\det(\mathbf{P})| \\ &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2\sigma^2}\right) \cdot |\det(\mathbf{P})| \end{aligned}$$

since $\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u} \\ \mathbf{w} \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^m u_i^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{m-n} w_j^2$

$$= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-m/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}}{2\sigma^2}\right) \cdot \underbrace{|\det(\mathbf{P})|}_{=1} \cdot (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-(n-m)/2} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

\Rightarrow using factorization criterion, \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{W} are independent, actually, U_i 's and W_j 's are iid Normal($0, \sigma^2$).

Implications:

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^T \widehat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} &= \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \underbrace{(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})^T (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})}_{(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}) = \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_2^T} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \mathbf{P}_2 \underbrace{\mathbf{P}_2^T}_{\mathbf{W}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{W} \\ W_i &\stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2), \quad \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{W} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-m} W_i^2 = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-m} \left(\frac{W_i}{\sigma} \right)^2 \sim \chi_{n-m}^2 \\ \Rightarrow \tilde{\sigma}^2 &= \frac{\widehat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^T \widehat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}}{n-m}: \text{ unbiased estimator of } \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

Shortcut notation: let \perp denote “independence”, i.e. $\mathbf{U} \perp \mathbf{W}$ if \mathbf{U} is independent of \mathbf{W} .

Recall:

$$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{P}_1^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \quad \mathbf{X} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{P}_1 \cdot \underbrace{\mathbf{P}_1^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{\mathbf{U}}, \quad \tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{W}}{n-m} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \widehat{\varepsilon}_j^2}{n-m}$$

Hence $\mathbf{X} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \perp \tilde{\sigma}^2$ since these are made from disjoint subsets of independent random variables (the V_i 's).

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \cdot \mathbf{X} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \perp \tilde{\sigma}^2 \\ \mathbf{a}^T \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &= \sum_{j=1}^m a_j \widehat{\beta}_j \perp \tilde{\sigma}^2 \quad \mathbf{a}: m \times 1 \text{ constant vector}\end{aligned}$$

Goal: find the distribution of $\mathbf{a}^T \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a}^T \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &= \mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \underbrace{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \mathbf{a}^T \underbrace{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}}_{\mathbf{I}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T}_{\mathbf{c}^T: \text{ row vector}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \\ &= \mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \underbrace{\mathbf{c}^T \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i \varepsilon_i}\end{aligned}$$

Recall: $\varepsilon_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$. Mgf of ε_i is $m(t) = \exp(t^2 \sigma^2 / 2)$. What is the distribution of

$Z = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \varepsilon_i$?

Mgf of Z is

$$\begin{aligned}M_Z(t) &= \mathbb{E}(e^{tZ}) = \mathbb{E}\left(\exp\left(t \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \varepsilon_i\right)\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\mathbb{E}(\exp(tc_i \varepsilon_i))}_{m(tc_i)} \quad \text{by independence of } \varepsilon_i \text{'s} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \exp\left(\frac{t^2 c_i^2 \sigma^2}{2}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{t^2}{2} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2 \cdot \sigma^2\right)\end{aligned}$$

which is the mgf of $\text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2 &= \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \underbrace{\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}}_{\mathbf{I}} \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{a}. \\ \Rightarrow \mathbf{a}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &\sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{a}) \end{aligned}$$

Special Cases

- Let \mathbf{I} be an $m \times n$ identity matrix. Let $\mathbf{I}_{i\bullet}$ be the i -th row of \mathbf{I} and $\mathbf{I}_{\bullet j}$ be the j -th column of \mathbf{I} . $\Rightarrow \mathbf{I}_{\bullet i} = (\mathbf{I}_{i\bullet})^T \Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_i = \mathbf{I}_{i\bullet} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\beta}_i \sim \text{Normal}(\beta_i, \sigma^2 \underbrace{\mathbf{I}_{i\bullet} (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{I}_{i\bullet}}_{\substack{[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{ii} \\ \text{the } i\text{-th entry} \\ \text{on main diagonal}}}).$$

- let $\mathbf{a}^T = \mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}^T$ be a vector of covariates for a new random variable \mathbf{Y}_{New} .
 $\mathbf{Y}_{\text{New}} \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$. An estimator of $\mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$ is $\mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$.

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim \text{Normal}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{\text{New}}).$$

CIs and tests for $\mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$

Let $\theta = \mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$.

$$P(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \theta}{\sqrt{\sigma^2} \sqrt{\mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{a}}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

If σ^2 were known, can use as a pivot for θ . If σ^2 is unknown: replace σ^2 by $\tilde{\sigma}^2$.

$$\begin{aligned} P(\theta) &= \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \theta}{\sqrt{\tilde{\sigma}^2} \sqrt{\mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{a}}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\sigma^2}}{\sqrt{\sigma^2}} = \frac{N(0, 1)}{\sqrt{\frac{\chi_{n-m}^2}{n-m}}} \quad \text{and numerator } \perp \text{ denominator.} \\ \Rightarrow P(\theta) &\sim t(\text{df} = n - m). \end{aligned}$$

E.g., if $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$, then $P(\theta_0) \sim t(\text{df} = n - m)$ under H_0 when σ^2 is unknown and is estimated by $\tilde{\sigma}^2$. \Rightarrow Can do tests and CIs about θ as before.