

# Quadratic Forms of Random Variables

## 1 Quadratic Forms

For a  $k \times k$  symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \{a_{ij}\}$  the quadratic function of  $k$  variables  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)'$  defined by

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k a_{i,j}x_i x_j$$

is called the *quadratic form* with matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .

If  $\mathbf{A}$  is not symmetric, we can have an equivalent expression/quadratic form replacing  $\mathbf{A}$  by  $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}')/2$ .

**Definition 1.**  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  and the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  are called positive definite if

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} > 0, \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$$

and positive semi-definite if

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) \geq \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

For negative definite and negative semi-definite, replace the  $>$  and  $\geq$  in the above definitions by  $<$  and  $\leq$ , respectively.

**Theorem 1.** A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite if and only if it has a Cholesky decomposition  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}'\mathbf{R}$  with strictly positive diagonal elements in  $\mathbf{R}$ , so that  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}$  exists. (In practice this means that none of the diagonal elements of  $\mathbf{R}$  are very close to zero.)

*Proof.* The “if” part is proven by construction. The Cholesky decomposition,  $\mathbf{R}$ , is constructed a row at a time and the diagonal elements are evaluated as the square roots of expressions calculated from the current row of  $\mathbf{A}$  and previous rows of  $\mathbf{R}$ . If the expression whose square root is to be calculated is not positive then you can determine a non-zero  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  for which  $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \leq 0$ .

Suppose that  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}'\mathbf{R}$  with  $\mathbf{R}$  invertible. Then

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{R}'\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} = \|\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x}\|^2 \geq 0$$

with equality only if  $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . But if  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}$  exists then  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{0}$  must also be zero. □

### Transformation of Quadratic Forms:

**Theorem 2.** Suppose that  $\mathbf{B}$  is a  $k \times k$  nonsingular matrix. Then the quadratic form  $Q^*(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y}$  is positive definite if and only if  $Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  is positive definite. Similar results hold for positive semi-definite, negative definite and negative semi-definite.

*Proof.*

$$Q^*(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} > 0$$

where  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$  because  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  is nonsingular.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.** For any  $k \times k$  symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  the quadratic form defined by  $\mathbf{A}$  can be written using its spectral decomposition as

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \|\mathbf{q}'_i \mathbf{x}\|^2$$

where the eigendecomposition of  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}$  with  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  diagonal with diagonal elements  $\lambda_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ ,  $\mathbf{Q}$  is the orthogonal matrix with the eigenvectors,  $\mathbf{q}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$  as its columns. (Be careful to distinguish the bold face  $\mathbf{Q}$ , which is a matrix, from the unbolded  $Q(\mathbf{x})$ , which is the quadratic form.)

*Proof.* For any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  let  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ . Then

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{x}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{y}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}') = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i y_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \|\mathbf{q}'_i \mathbf{x}\|^2$$

This proof uses a common “trick” of expressing the scalar  $Q(\mathbf{x})$  as the trace of a  $1 \times 1$  matrix so we can reverse the order of some matrix multiplications.  $\square$

**Corollary 1.** A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite if and only if its eigenvalues are all positive, negative definite if and only if its eigenvalues are all negative, and positive semi-definite if all its eigenvalues are non-negative.

**Corollary 2.**  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{\Lambda})$  hence  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$  equals the number of non-zero eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$

## 2 Idempotent Matrices

**Definition 2** (Idempotent). The  $k \times k$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , is idempotent if  $\mathbf{A}^2 = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$ .

**Definition 3** (Projection matrices). A symmetric, idempotent matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is a projection matrix. The effect of the mapping  $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$  is orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\text{col}(\mathbf{A})$ .

**Theorem 4.** All the eigenvalues of an idempotent matrix are either zero or one.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of the idempotent matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then there exists a non-zero  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ . But  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{AAx}$  because  $\mathbf{A}$  is idempotent. Thus

$$\lambda\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{AAx} = \mathbf{A}(\lambda\mathbf{x}) = \lambda(\mathbf{Ax}) = \lambda^2\mathbf{x}$$

and

$$\mathbf{0} = \lambda^2\mathbf{x} - \lambda\mathbf{x} = \lambda(\lambda - 1)\mathbf{x}$$

for some non-zero  $\mathbf{x}$ , which implies that  $\lambda = 0$  or  $\lambda = 1$ . □

**Corollary 3.** *The  $k \times k$  symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is idempotent of  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = r$  iff  $\mathbf{A}$  has  $r$  eigenvalues equal to 1 and  $k - r$  eigenvalues equal to 0*

*Proof.* A matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  with  $r$  eigenvalues of 1 and  $k - r$  eigenvalues of zero has  $r$  non-zero eigenvalues and hence  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = r$ . Because  $\mathbf{A}$  is symmetric its eigendecomposition is  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}'$  for an orthogonal  $\mathbf{Q}$  and a diagonal  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ . Because the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  are the same as those of  $\mathbf{A}$ , they must be all zeros or ones. That is all the diagonal elements of  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  are zero or one. Hence  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  is idempotent,  $\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{\Lambda} = \mathbf{\Lambda}$ , and

$$\mathbf{AA} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}' = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}' = \mathbf{A}$$

is also idempotent. □

**Corollary 4.** *For a symmetric idempotent matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , we have  $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$ , which is the dimension of  $\text{col}(\mathbf{A})$ , the space into which  $\mathbf{A}$  projects.*

### 3 Expected Values and Covariance Matrices of Random Vectors

An  $k$ -dimensional *vector-valued random variable* (or, more simply, a *random vector*),  $\mathcal{X}$ , is a  $k$ -vector composed of  $k$  scalar random variables

$$\mathcal{X} = (\mathcal{X}_1, \dots, \mathcal{X}_k)'$$

If the expected values of the component random variables are  $\mu_i = E(\mathcal{X}_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$  then

$$E(\mathcal{X}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathcal{X}} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k)'$$

Suppose that  $\mathcal{Y} = (\mathcal{Y}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_m)'$  is an  $m$ -dimensional random vector, then the *covariance* of  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$ , written  $\text{Cov}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$  is

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathcal{XY}} = \text{Cov}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = E[(\mathcal{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathcal{X}})(\mathcal{Y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathcal{Y}})']$$

The *variance-covariance* matrix of  $\mathcal{X}$  is

$$\text{Var}(\mathcal{X}) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathcal{XX}} = E[(\mathcal{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathcal{X}})(\mathcal{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathcal{X}})']$$

Suppose that  $\mathbf{c}$  is a constant  $m$ -vector,  $\mathbf{A}$  is a constant  $m \times k$  matrix and  $\mathcal{Z} = \mathbf{AZ} + \mathbf{c}$  is a linear transformation of  $\mathcal{X}$ . Then

$$E(\mathcal{Z}) = \mathbf{A}E(\mathcal{X}) + \mathbf{c}$$

and

$$\text{Var}(\mathcal{Z}) = \mathbf{A} \text{Var}(\mathcal{X}) \mathbf{A}'$$

If we let  $\mathcal{W} = \mathbf{B}\mathcal{Y} + \mathbf{d}$  be a linear transformation of  $\mathcal{Y}$  for suitably sized  $\mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{d}$  then

$$\text{Cov}(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{W}) = \mathbf{A} \text{Cov}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) \mathbf{B}'$$

**Theorem 5.** *The variance-covariance matrix  $\Sigma_{\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}}$  of  $\mathcal{X}$  is a symmetric and positive semi-definite matrix*

*Proof.* The result follows from the property that the variance of a scalar random variable is non-negative. Suppose that  $\mathbf{b}$  is any nonzero, constant  $k$ -vector. Then

$$0 \leq \text{Var}(\mathbf{b}'\mathcal{X}) = \mathbf{b}'\Sigma_{\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}}\mathbf{b}, \text{ which is the positive, semi-definite condition.}$$

□

## 4 Mean and Variance of Quadratic Forms

**Theorem 6.** *Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a  $k$ -dimensional random vector and  $\mathbf{A}$  be a constant  $k \times k$  symmetric matrix. If  $E(\mathcal{X}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}$  and  $\text{Var}(\mathcal{X}) = \Sigma$ , then*

$$E(\mathcal{X}'\mathbf{A}\mathcal{X}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\Sigma) + \boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} E(\mathcal{X}'\mathbf{A}\mathcal{X}) &= \text{tr}(E(\mathcal{X}'\mathbf{A}\mathcal{X})) \\ &= E[\text{tr}(\mathcal{X}'\mathbf{A}\mathcal{X})] \\ &= E[\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathcal{X}\mathcal{X}')] \\ &= \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}E[\mathcal{X}\mathcal{X}']) \\ &= \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}(\text{Cov}(\mathcal{X}) + \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}')) \\ &= \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\Sigma_{\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}}) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}') \\ &= \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\Sigma_{\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}}) + \boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} \end{aligned}$$

□

## 5 Distribution of Quadratic Forms in Normal Random Variables

**Definition 4** (Non-Central  $\chi^2$ ). *If  $\mathcal{X}$  is a (scalar) normal random variable with  $E(\mathcal{X}) = \mu$  and  $\text{Var}(\mathcal{X}) = 1$ , then the random variable  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{X}^2$  is distributed as  $\chi_1^2(\lambda^2)$ , which is called the noncentral  $\chi^2$  distribution with 1 degree of freedom and non-centrality parameter  $\lambda^2 = \mu^2$ . The mean and variance of  $\mathcal{V}$  are*

$$E[\mathcal{V}] = 1 + \lambda^2 \text{ and } \text{Var}[\mathcal{V}] = 2 + 4\lambda^2$$

As described in the previous chapter, we are particularly interested in random  $n$ -vectors,  $\mathbf{Y}$ , that have a *spherical normal distribution*.

**Theorem 7.** *Let  $\mathcal{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$  be an  $n$ -vector with a spherical normal distribution and  $\mathbf{A}$  be an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix. Then the ratio  $\mathcal{Y}'\mathbf{A}\mathcal{Y}/\sigma^2$  will have a  $\chi_r^2(\lambda^2)$  distribution with  $\lambda^2 = \boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}/\sigma^2$  if and only if  $\mathbf{A}$  is idempotent with  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = r$*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\mathbf{A}$  is idempotent (which, in combination with being symmetric, means that it is a projection matrix) and has  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = r$ . Its eigendecomposition,  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}'$ , is such that  $\mathbf{V}$  is orthogonal and  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$  is  $n \times n$  diagonal with exactly  $r = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$  ones and  $n - r$  zeros on the diagonal. Without loss of generality we can (and do) arrange the eigenvalues in decreasing order so that  $\lambda_j = 1, j = 1, \dots, r$  and  $\lambda_j = 0, j = r + 1, \dots, n$ . Let  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{V}'\mathcal{Y}$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\mathcal{Y}'\mathbf{A}\mathcal{Y}}{\sigma^2} &= \frac{\mathcal{Y}'\mathbf{V}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}'\mathcal{Y}}{\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{\mathcal{X}'\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\mathcal{X}}{\sigma^2} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \frac{\mathcal{X}_j^2}{\sigma^2} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^r \frac{\mathcal{X}_j^2}{\sigma^2} \end{aligned}$$

(Notice that the last sum is to  $j = r$ , not  $j = n$ .) However,  $\frac{\mathcal{X}_j}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}_j'\boldsymbol{\mu}/\sigma, 1)$  so  $\frac{\mathcal{X}_j^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_1^2((\mathbf{v}_j'\boldsymbol{\mu}/\sigma)^2)$ . Therefore

$$\sum_{j=1}^r \frac{\mathcal{X}_j^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{(r)}^2(\lambda^2) \text{ where } \lambda^2 = \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{V}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}'\boldsymbol{\mu}}{\sigma^2} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}}{\sigma^2}$$

□

**Corollary 5.** *For  $\mathbf{A}$  a projection of rank  $r$ ,  $(\mathcal{Y}'\mathbf{A}\mathcal{Y})/\sigma^2$  has a central  $\chi_r^2$  distribution if and only if  $\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}$*

*Proof.* The  $\chi_r^2$  distribution will be central if and only if

$$0 = \boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mu}'\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} = \|\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}\|^2$$

□

**Corollary 6.** *In the full-rank Gaussian linear model,  $\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n)$ , the residual sum of squares,  $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\|^2$  has a central  $\sigma^2 \chi_{n-r}^2$  distribution.*

*Proof.* In the full rank model with the QR decomposition of  $\mathbf{X}$  given by

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{Q}_1 \quad \mathbf{Q}_2] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $\mathbf{R}$  invertible, the fitted values are  $\mathbf{Q}_1\mathbf{Q}'_1\mathcal{Y}$  and the residuals are  $\mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{y}$  so the residual sum of squares is the quadratic form  $\mathcal{Y}'\mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{Q}'_2\mathcal{Y}$ . The matrix defining the quadratic form,  $\mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{Q}'_2$ , is a projection matrix. It is obviously symmetric and it is idempotent because  $\mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{Q}'_2\mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{Q}'_2 = \mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{Q}'_2$ . As

$$\mathbf{Q}'_2\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{Q}'_2\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}_0 = \mathbf{Q}'_2\mathbf{Q}_1\mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\beta}_0 = \underbrace{\mathbf{0}}_{(n-p)\times n} \mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\beta}_0 = \underbrace{\mathbf{0}}_{(n-p)\times p} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 = \mathbf{0}_{n-p}$$

the ratio

$$\frac{\mathcal{Y}'\mathbf{Q}_2\mathbf{Q}'_2\mathcal{Y}}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{n-p}$$

and the RSS has a central  $\sigma^2\chi^2_{n-p}$  distribution. □

**R Exercises:** Let's check some of these results by simulation. First we claim that if  $\mathcal{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, 1)$  then  $\mathcal{X}^2 \sim \chi^2(\lambda^2)$  where  $\lambda^2 = \mu^2$ . First simulate from a standard normal distribution

```
> set.seed(1234) # reproducible "random" values
> X <- rnorm(100000) # standard normal values
> zapsmall(summary(V <- X^2)) # a very skew distribution
```

```
   Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
0.0000  0.1026  0.4521  0.9989  1.3190 20.3300
```

```
> var(V)
```

```
[1] 1.992403
```

The mean and variance of the simulated values agree quite well with the theoretical values of 1 and 2, respectively.

To check the form of the distribution we could plot an empirical density function but this distribution has its maximum density at 0 and is zero to the left of 0 so an empirical density is a poor indication of the actual shape of the density. Instead, in Fig. 1, we present the quantile-quantile plot for this sample versus the (theoretical) quantiles of the  $\chi^2_1$  distribution.

Now simulate a non-central  $\chi^2$  with non-centrality parameter  $\lambda^2 = 4$

```
> V1 <- rnorm(100000, mean=2)^2
> zapsmall(summary(V1))
```

```
   Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
0.000  1.773  3.994  5.003  7.144 39.050
```

```
> var(V1)
```

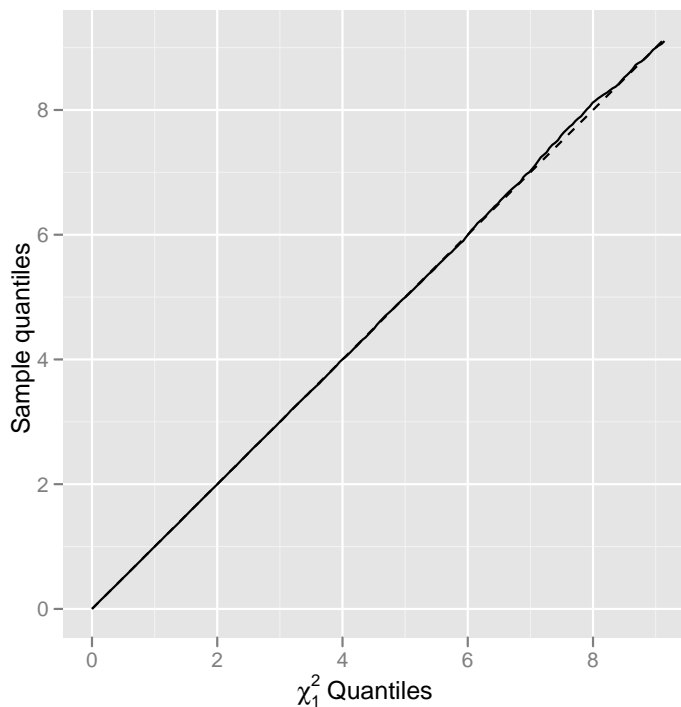


Figure 1: A quantile-quantile plot of the squares of simulated  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  random variables versus the quantiles of the  $\chi_1^2$  distribution. The dashed line is a reference line through the origin with a slope of 1.

```
[1] 17.95924
```

The sample mean is close to the theoretical value of  $5 = 1 + \lambda^2$  and the sample variance is close to the theoretical value of  $2 + 4\lambda^2$  although perhaps not as close as one would hope in a sample of size 100,000.

A quantile-quantile plot versus the non-central distribution,  $\chi_1^2(4)$ , (Fig. 2) and versus the central distribution,  $\chi_1^2$ , shows that the sample does follow the claimed distribution  $\chi_1^2(4)$  and is stochastically larger than the  $\chi_1^2$  distribution.

More interesting, perhaps is the distribution of the residual sum of squares from a regression model. We simulate from our previously fitted model `lm1`

```
> lm1 <- lm(optden ~ carb, Formaldehyde)
> str(Ymat <- data.matrix(unname(simulate(lm1, 10000))))
```

```
num [1:6, 1:10000] 0.088 0.258 0.444 0.521 0.619 ...
- attr(*, "dimnames")=List of 2
..$ : chr [1:6] "1" "2" "3" "4" ...
..$ : NULL
```

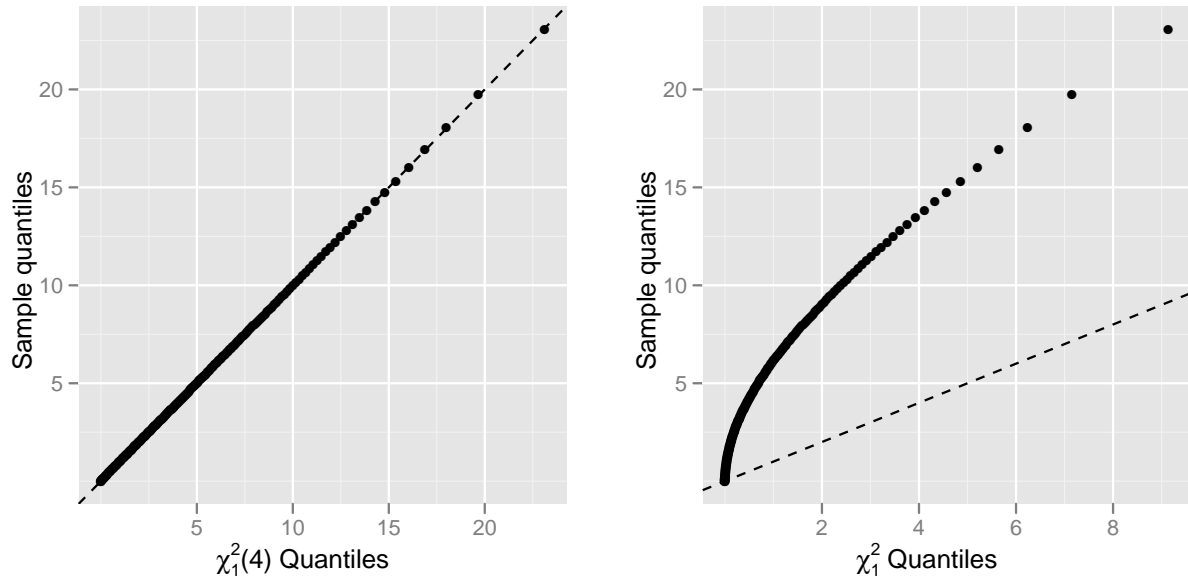


Figure 2: Quantile-quantile plots of a sample of squares of  $\mathcal{N}(2, 1)$  random variables versus the quantiles of a  $\chi_1^2(4)$  non-central distribution (left panel) and a  $\chi_1^2$  central distribution (right panel)

```
> str(RSS <- deviance(fits <- lm(Ymat ~ carb, Formaldehyde)))
num [1:10000] 0.000104 0.000547 0.00055 0.000429 0.000228 ...
> fits[["df.residual"]]
[1] 4
```

Here the `Ymat` matrix is 10,000 simulated response vectors from model `lm1` using the estimated parameters as the true values of  $\beta$  and  $\sigma^2$ . Notice that we can fit the model to **all** 10,000 response vectors in a single call to the `lm()` function.

The `deviance()` function applied to a model fit by `lm()` returns the residual sum of square, which is not technically the deviance but is often the quantity of interest.

These simulated residual sums of squares should have a  $\sigma^2 \chi_4^2$  distribution where  $\sigma^2$  is the residual sum of squares in model `lm1` divided by 4.

```
> (sigsq <- deviance(lm1)/4)
[1] 7.48e-05
> summary(RSS)
   Min.  1st Qu.  Median    Mean  3rd Qu.    Max.
6.997e-07 1.461e-04 2.537e-04 3.026e-04 4.114e-04 1.675e-03
```



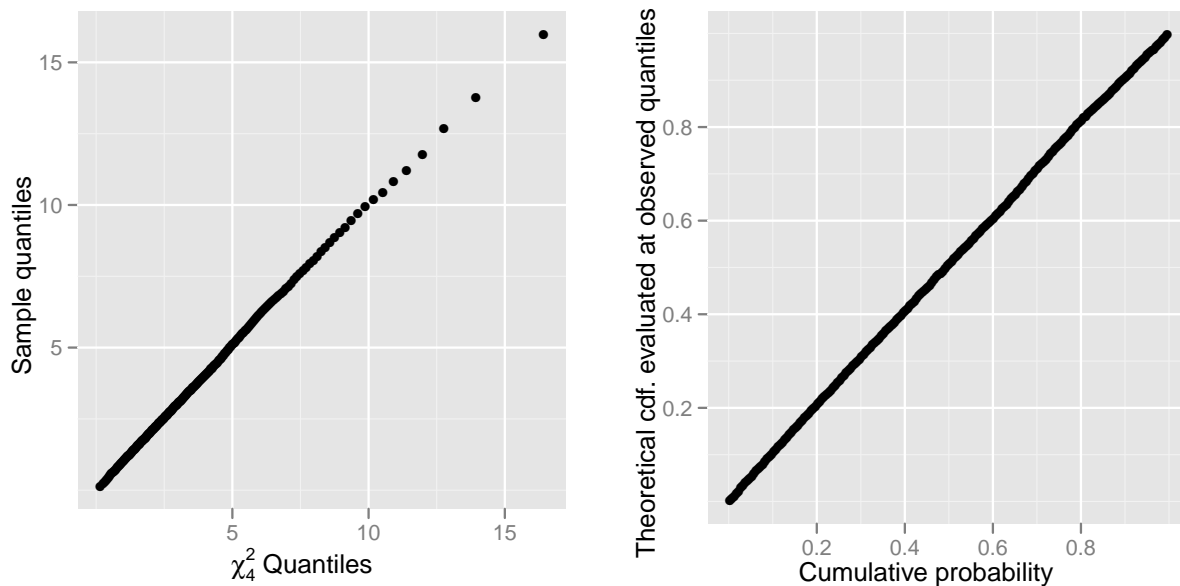


Figure 2.3: Quantile-quantile plot of the scaled residual sum of squares,  $RSS_{sq}$ , from simulated responses versus the quantiles of a  $\chi_4^2$  distribution (left panel) and the corresponding probability-probability plot on the right panel.

We expect a mean of  $4\sigma^2$  and a variance of  $2 \cdot 4(\sigma^2)^2$ . It is easier to see this if we divide these values by  $\sigma^2$

```
> summary(RSSsc <- RSS/sigsq)
```

Min.	1st Qu.	Median	Mean	3rd Qu.	Max.
0.009354	1.953000	3.392000	4.045000	5.500000	22.390000

```
> var(RSSsc)
```

```
[1] 8.000057
```

A quantile-quantile plot with respect to the  $\chi_4^2$  distribution (Fig. 2.3) shows very good agreement between the empirical and theoretical quantiles. Also shown in Fig. 2.3 is the probability-probability plot. Instead of plotting the sample quantiles versus the theoretical quantiles we take equally spaced values on the probability scale (function `ppoints()`), evaluate the sample quantiles and then apply the theoretical cdf to the empirical quantiles. This should also produce a straight line. It has the advantage that the points are equally spaced on the x-axis.

We could also plot the empirical density of these simulated values and overlay it with the theoretical density (Fig. 2.4).

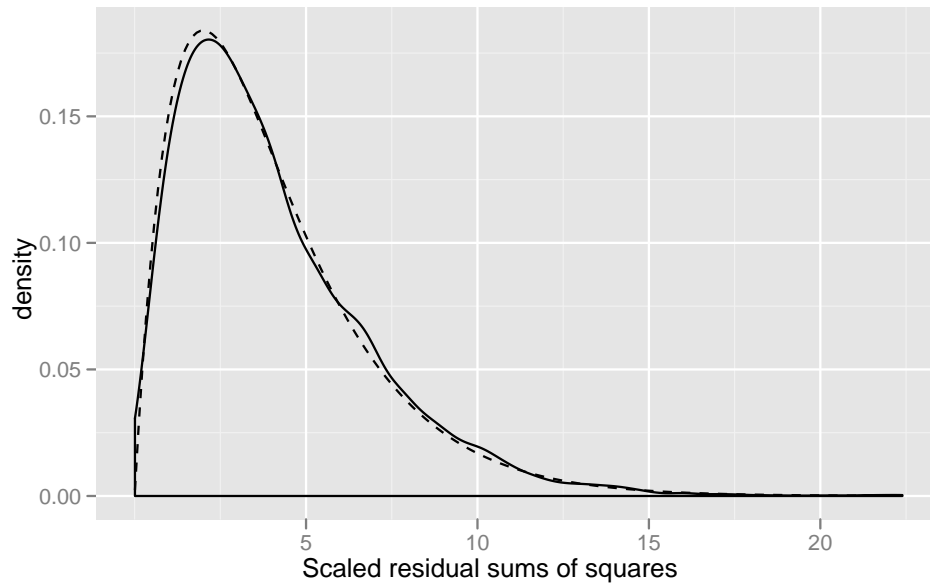


Figure 2.4: Empirical density plot of the scaled residual sums of squares,  $\text{RSSsq}$ , from simulated responses. The overlaid dashed line is the density of a  $\chi_4^2$  random variable. The peak of the empirical density gets shifted a bit to the right because of the way the empirical density is calculated. It uses a symmetric kernel which is not a good choice for a skewed density like this.