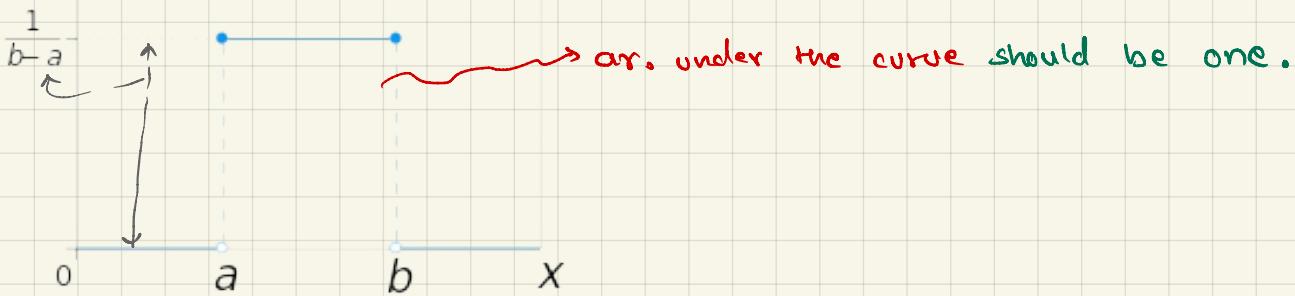


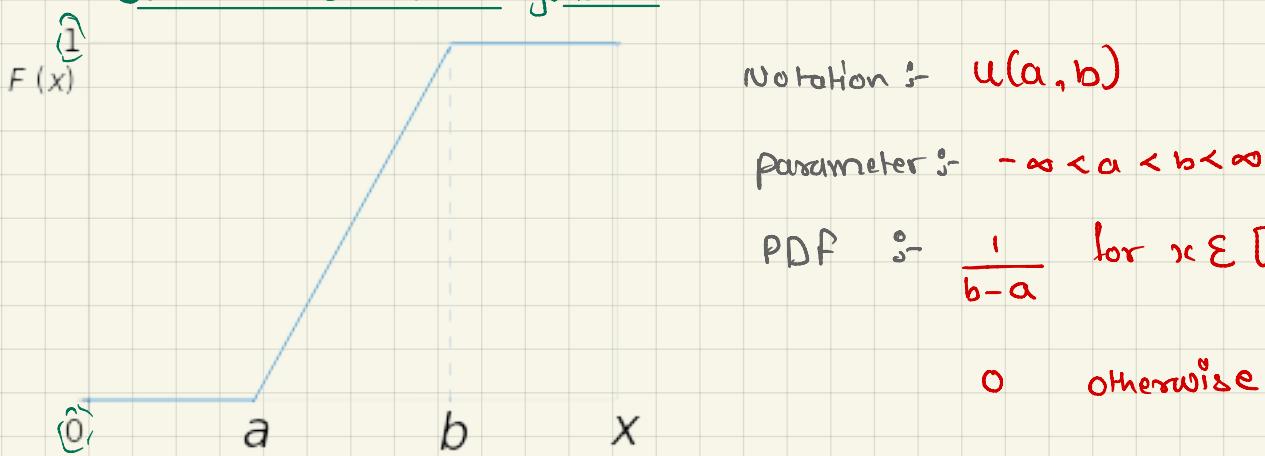
## Continuous uniform distribution

Probability density function (not mass function)

$f(x)$



Cumulative distribution function



Parameter :-  $-\infty < a < b < \infty$

PDF :-  $\frac{1}{b-a}$  for  $x \in [a, b]$

0 otherwise

## Random number Generator (uniform distribution)

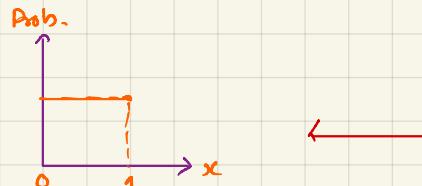
→ stdlib.h → rand()

C, Java

pseudo random number generators.

→ If not it's explicitly called out, most random no. generator are uniform generator.

import random  
print(random.random())



→ These nos are randomly generated with uniform distribution,  
↓ it means  
the no. b/w '0 to 1' have equal probability to get selected.

→ suppose →  $n$  data points & I want to uniformly sample from this data points  
 ↓  
 The chances or probability for getting selected in ' $m$ ' is equal for all data points in ' $n$ '.

Q) If you don't know about 'Pandas' & 'NumPy' and your task is

$$D = x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_{150}$$

There is ' $\frac{30}{150} = 0.2$ ' chance that this ' $x_i$ ' belongs to  $D'$ .  
 $D' = x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, \dots, x'_{30}$

↓ Sample uniformly

## Random Number Generator (Uniform Distribution)

```
[1] import random
print(random.random())
0.05856684124159628
```

```
[2] #load IRIS dataset with 150 points.
from sklearn import datasets
iris = datasets.load_iris()
d = iris.data
d.shape
```

→ (PL, PW, SL, SW)

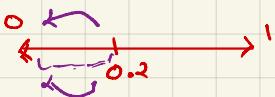
```
(150, 4)
```

→ I want to generate random 30 point data set from this data set.

```
[3] # Sample 30 points randomly from the 150 point dataset
n=150
m=30
p = m/n → 0.2
print(p)
sampled_data = []
for i in range(0,n):
    a = random.random() → U(0,1)
    # print(a)
    if a <= p:
        sampled_data.append(d[i,:])
print(sampled_data)
print(len(sampled_data))
```

→ I know this generate a random value from '0' to '1' with equal probability.

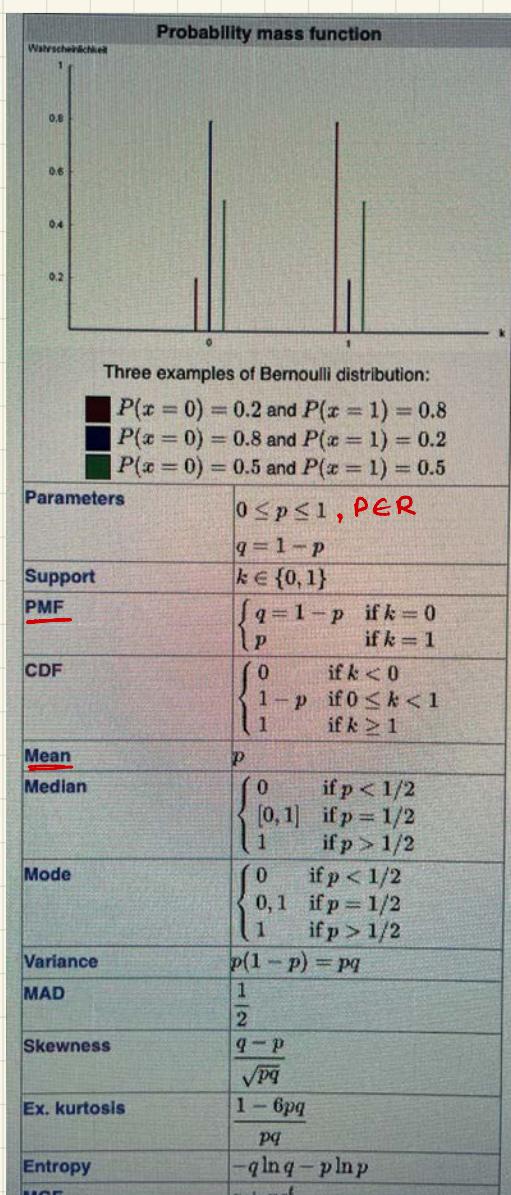
→ random no. generator are never perfect. So, whenever you run this it will keep on changing. (It will not always be '30' it will be roughly around '30').



→ random no. generator are never perfect. So, whenever you run this it will keep on changing. (It will not always be '30' it will be roughly around '30').

# Bernoulli and Binomial Distribution

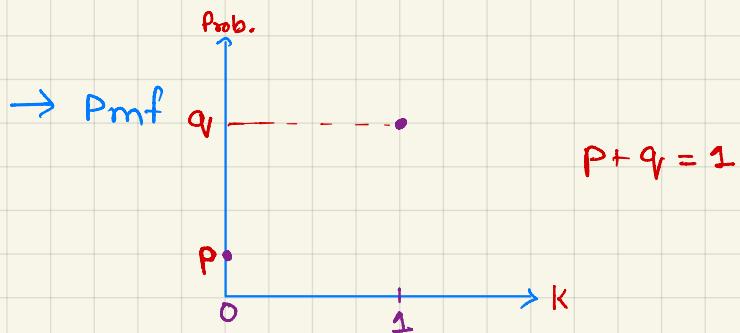
## Bernoulli's



→ It has only two outcomes  $\rightarrow 1 \rightarrow$  with probability  $p$   
 $\rightarrow 0 \rightarrow$  with probability  $1-p$

→  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(P=0.5)$   
 ↪ it is like coin toss  $\rightarrow H(1)$   
 $\rightarrow T(0)$

→ it is a discrete random variable.



Bernoulli and binomial distributions are closely related, but they differ in how they model events:

- Bernoulli Models a single event or non-event trial. It has two possible outcomes: 0 or 1.
- Binomial Models multiple events occurring at the same time. It's the sum of independent and identically distributed Bernoulli random variables.

### Bernoulli Distribution Examples

1. Flipping a coin: The outcome of a single coin flip can be modeled as a Bernoulli random variable, where "heads" is considered a success (1) and "tails" is a failure (0). The probability of success (getting heads) is  $p = 0.5$ .
2. Rolling a die: The outcome of rolling a single die can be modeled as a Bernoulli random variable, where rolling a "6" is considered a success (1) and any other number is a failure (0). The probability of success (rolling a 6) is  $p = 1/6$ .
3. Passing a test: The outcome of a student taking a test can be modeled as a Bernoulli random variable, where "passing" the test is a success (1) and "failing" the test is a failure (0). The probability of success (passing the test) is the student's exam score.

### Binomial Distribution Examples

1. Flipping a coin 10 times: The number of heads obtained in 10 coin flips can be modeled as a binomial random variable, with  $n = 10$  trials and  $p = 0.5$  for the probability of getting heads on each flip.
2. Rolling a die 20 times: The number of times a "6" is rolled in 20 die rolls can be modeled as a binomial random variable, with  $n = 20$  trials and  $p = 1/6$  for the probability of rolling a 6 on each roll.
3. Students passing a test: If 100 students take a test, and each student has a 70% chance of passing, the number of students who pass the test can be modeled as a binomial random variable, with  $n = 100$  trials and  $p = 0.7$  for the probability of passing.

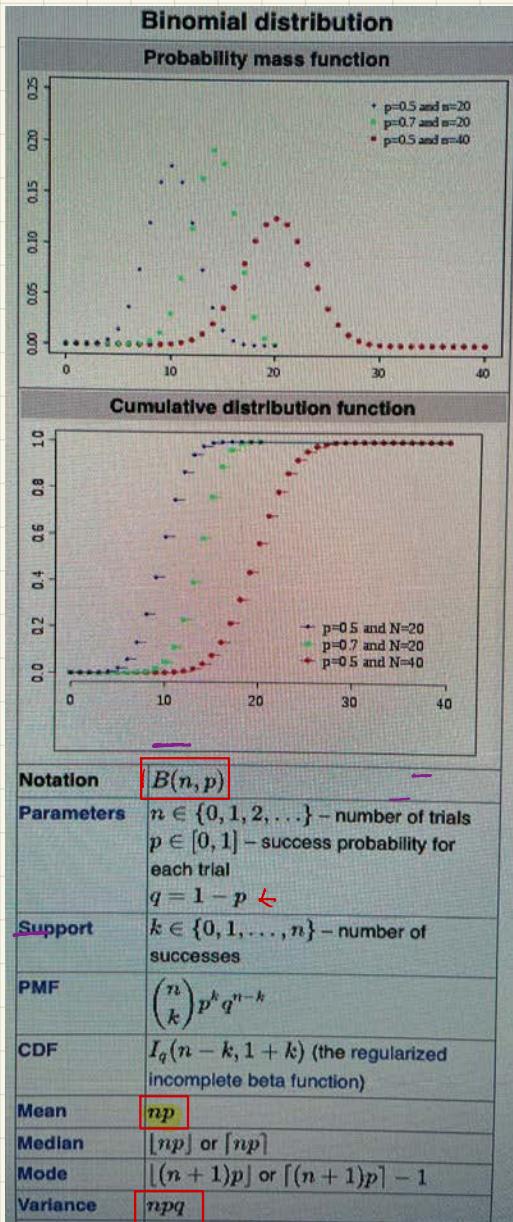
# Binomial

→ Two parameters →  $n \rightarrow$  no. of trials (e.g. no. of coin tosses)  
 ↳  $p \rightarrow$  prob. value (e.g. prob. of getting head)

$$\rightarrow Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$$

The binomial distribution is a discrete probability distribution that describes the number of successes in a sequence of independent experiments, each with a yes-no question and a Boolean-valued outcome. The Gaussian distribution is a special case of the binomial distribution when the number of tries is large enough. It applies to a large number of variables and has a symmetric and unimodal shape with tails that extend to positive and negative infinity.

A binomial distribution has a finite amount of events, while a normal distribution has an infinite number. In a binomial distribution, there are no data points between any two data points, while a normal distribution has continuous data points.



# Log-normal distribution

•  $X \sim \text{log-normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  if  $\ln(X)$  has a normal distribution

→ you can convert 'log-normal distribution' to 'Gaussian / Normal distribution'.)

We want to convert log → Gaussian  
coz → we have many algo. or  
concepts for Gaussian.

Q) if we know  $x \sim \text{log-normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

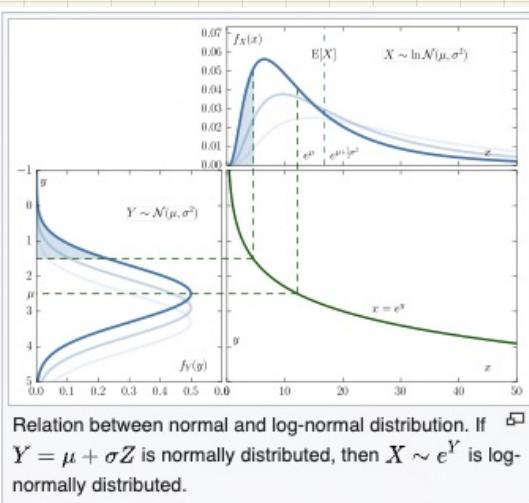
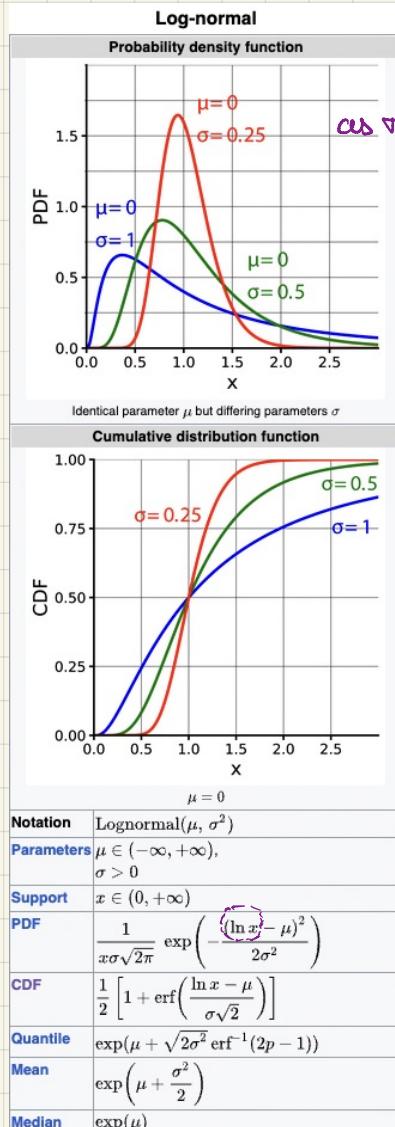
$x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$

Q) is  $x$  is log normal?

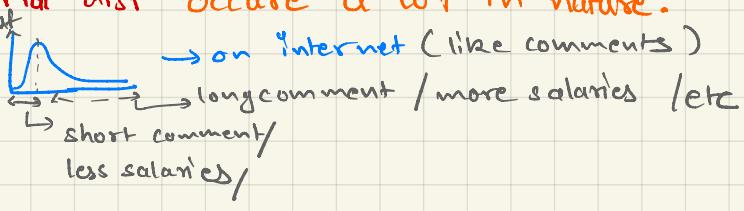
→  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$   
 $\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$   
 $\ln(x_1), \ln(x_2), \dots, \ln(x_n)$   
 $\downarrow$   
 $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$

↳ (Q-Q plot)  
 $y_i$ 's are Gaussian

If it's true then  
 $X \sim \text{log-normal}$

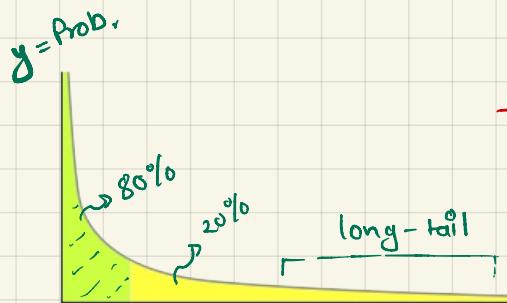


→ log-normal dist" occur a lot in nature.



etc

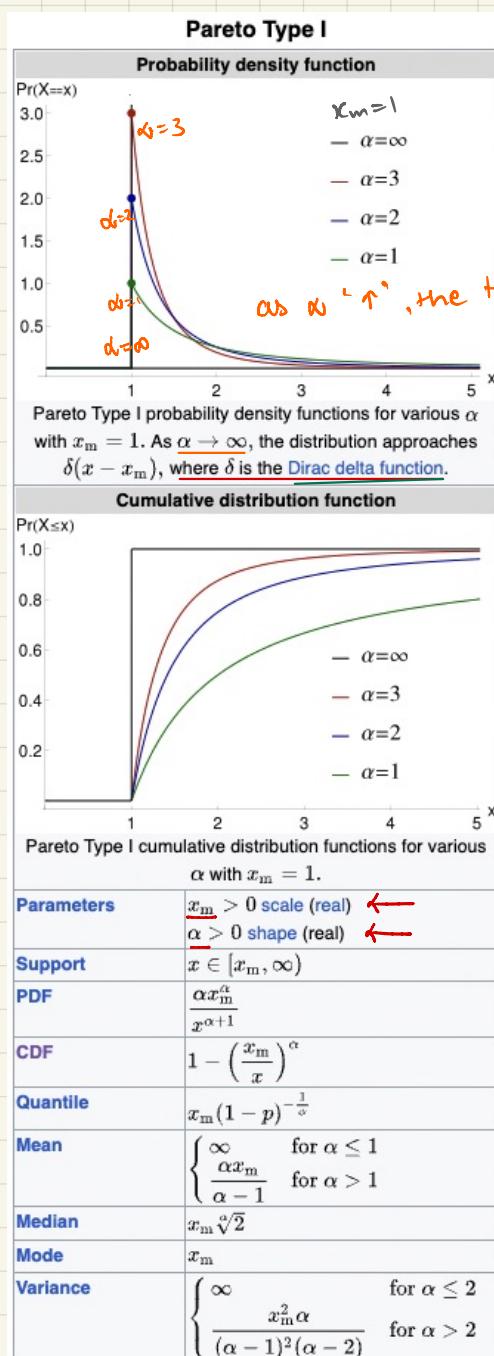
# Power law and Pareto dist<sup>n</sup>



→ it follows 80-20 rule → 80% of time you will find the result in 20% of distribution. (approx).

→ They occur lot in 'internet' (in comments)

→ Whenever log-log follows a dist<sup>n</sup> it's called 'Pareto dist<sup>n</sup>'.

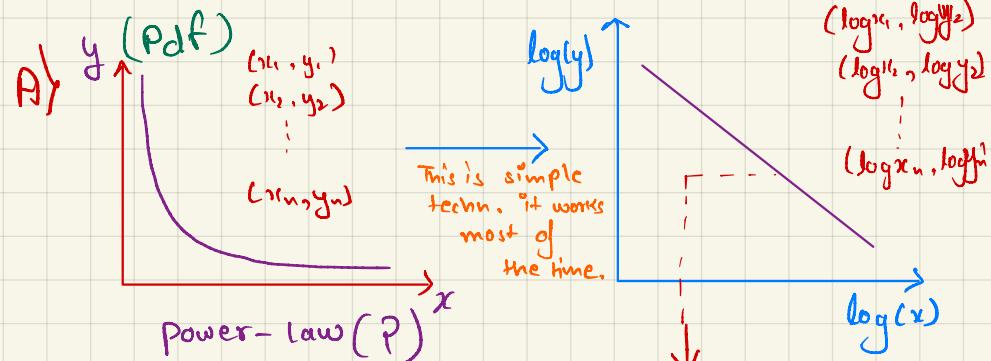


→ have two parameters.

## Applications:-

- size of human settlements (cities, rural etc)
- oil reserve (few large oil reser. and large few reser.)

Q) How to determine the dist<sup>n</sup> we have is a pareto-dist<sup>n</sup> or not?

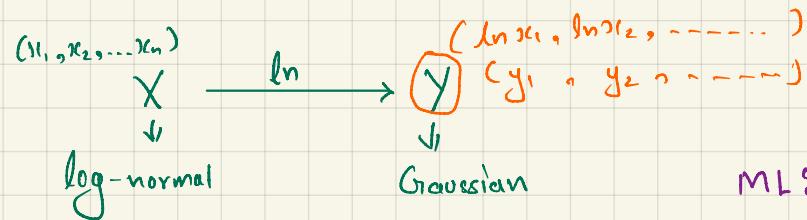


If you get st. line  
we can say it follow  
Power-law.

OR

Q-Q plot →  $(x, y)$   
 $\downarrow$  obs.  
 $\rightarrow$  pareto

# Power-transform (Box-cox transform)



ML :- { assume that a feature variable Gaussian distn.

Q) Can we convert our "power-law/pareto" to Gaussian distn?

↳ we can do that by Power-transform (Box-cox transform)

Pareto ~  $X : [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$

Gaussian ~  $Y : [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n]$  ↪ conversion

① box-cox ( $x$ ) = ( $\lambda$ ) lambda

②  $y_i = \begin{cases} \frac{x_i^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} & \text{if } \lambda \neq 0 \\ \ln(x_i) & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \quad i: 1 \rightarrow n \end{cases}$

Gaussian distn.

if  $\lambda = 0$

$\Rightarrow x_i \sim \text{log-normal}$

else

$x \xrightarrow{\text{box-cox}(x)} \lambda \xrightarrow{\text{Y(gaussian)}}$

(pareto)

scipy.stats.boxcox( $x$ ,  $\lambda$ mbda=None, alpha=None, optimizer=None)

Return a dataset transformed by a Box-Cox power transformation.

"boxcox" → module → function → if you know, give it. otherwise, it will compute by itself.

↳ it will return 1-D array

```
>>> from scipy import stats
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

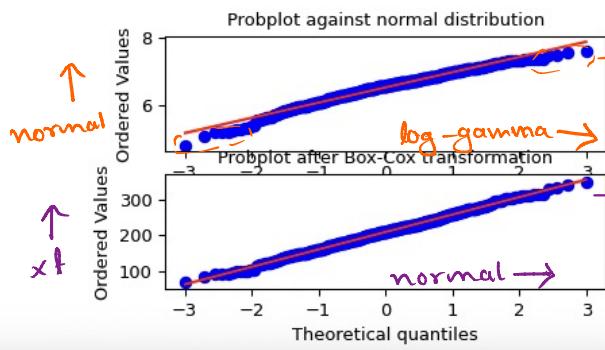
We generate some random variates from a non-normal distribution and make a probability plot for it, to show it is non-normal in the tails:

```
>>> fig = plt.figure()
>>> ax1 = fig.add_subplot(211)
>>> x = stats.loggamma.rvs(5, size=500) + 5
>>> prob = stats.probplot(x, dist=stats.norm, plot=ax1)
>>> ax1.set_xlabel('')
>>> ax1.set_title('Probplot against normal distribution')
```

We now use `boxcox` to transform the data so it's closest to normal:

```
>>> ax2 = fig.add_subplot(212)
>>> xt, _ = stats.boxcox(x)
>>> prob = stats.probplot(xt, dist=stats.norm, plot=ax2)
>>> ax2.set_title('Probplot after Box-Cox transformation')
```

```
>>> plt.show()
```



creating random variable from `disb` called "loggamma".  
plotting 'Q-Q' plot with normal `disb`.

we have verified that '`xt`' is gaussian.

loggamma      normal  
          <--      -->

lots of deviation here, so, r.v. x & y not coming from similar disb.

most of pt. lie close to line, so,  
'`xt`' and 'normal' follow the same disb.'

# Application of non-gaussian distb"

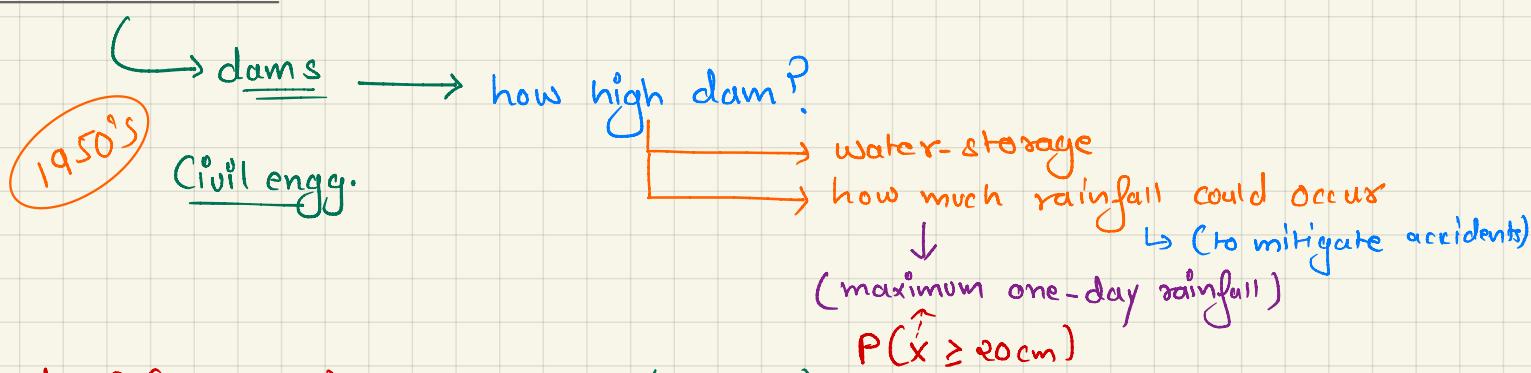
- uniform → random-no. generating?
- Bernoulli's, Binomial
- log-normal, Pareto

There are 100's of distb".

Q) Why do we have this much distb"?

random variable follows  $\xrightarrow{\text{well-studied}}$   $\xrightarrow{\text{distb"}}$  Theoretical model

## "Weibull" distb"



If  $P(X > 20\text{cm})$  is v.v.small ( $\leq 0.1\%$ )

Rainfall data  $\rightarrow$  30 yrs; 50 yrs

$$P(X \geq 20\text{cm}) = ?$$

Percentiles

$$\frac{1}{200} = 0.5\%$$

not trustworthy

(Coz only 'one' data-point in '200' data-points has  $> 20\text{cm}$ )

(So, if there is no observation what should we do?)

(we can't say the  $P(X > 20\text{cm})$  is zero)

(distb" theoretical model)  
 (how data is distributed)

10cm
5cm
1cm
1cm
1cm
:
:
:

Can we fit a known & well-suited distb"/theoretical model

Gaussian - X  
 log-normal - X

Weibull distb" fit

To understand particle size

①  $\rightarrow X = \text{max-daily rainfall}$

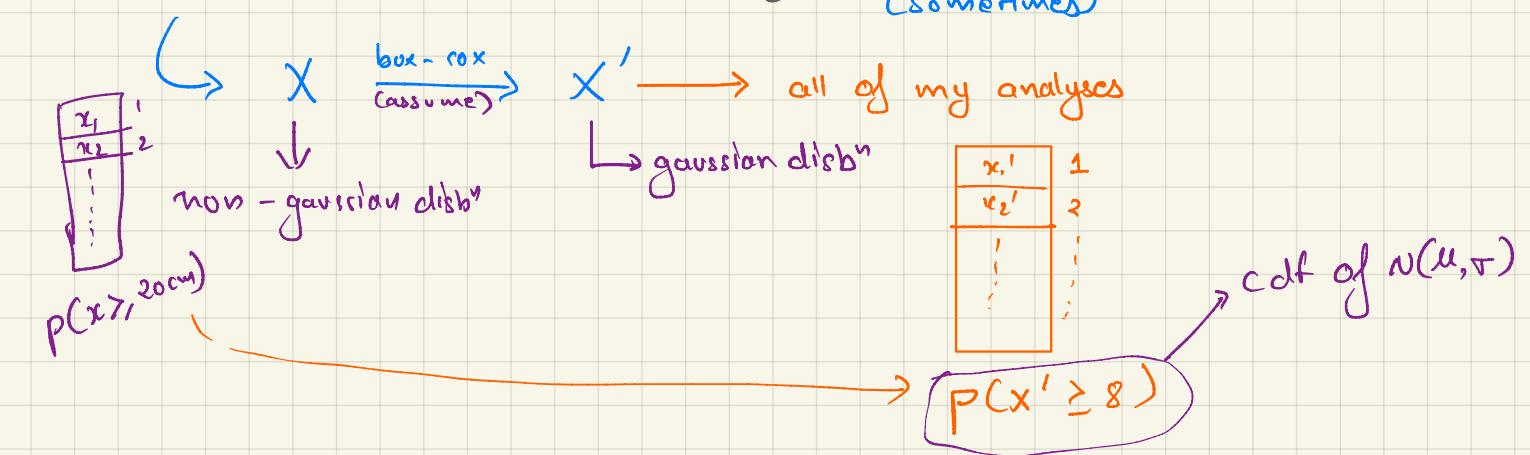
②  $\rightarrow$  it follows Weibull's distb"

③  $\rightarrow$  CDF or PDF  $\frac{(P > 20\text{cm})}{\text{CDF of } X} = \frac{1 - P(X \leq 20\text{cm})}{\text{CDF of } X}$   
 more trustworthy

→ when I tried to use non-parametric method (mean, median, percentile) there we got "0.5%". But, I can't trust this because I have only one observation / or I am relying only on one-data point. Where if I use all observation data and fit in a model that result is more trustworthy than non-parametric method because I am relying on many data points.

→ Weibull → particle size  
 ↓  
 → civil Engg.

box-cox transform / Power-transform (sometimes)



# Co-variance

↳ how to measure relationship b/w random variable.

→ X : heights  
Y : weights

	x = h	y = w
s <sub>1</sub>	160	62
s <sub>2</sub>	150	54
s <sub>n</sub>	140	48

Q} is there any relationship b/w "X" & "Y"  
for eg:-  $X \uparrow, Y \uparrow$   
 $\text{or}$   
 $X \uparrow, Y \downarrow$

→ There are three ways to do that

- Co-variance
- Pearson correlation coeff.
- Spearman rank corr. coeff.

# Co-variance

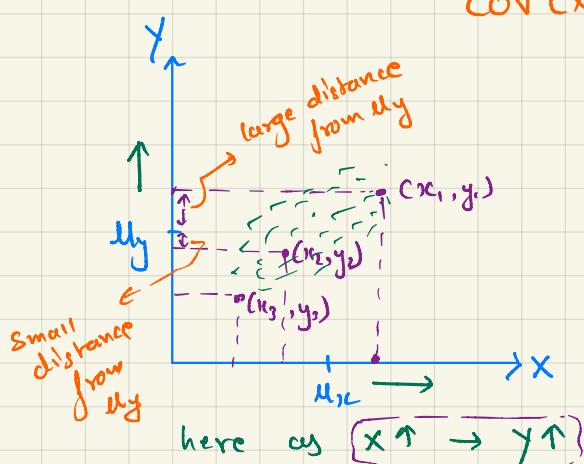
$$\text{cov}(x, y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n) * (y_i - \bar{y}_n)$$

$$\text{Var}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}_n)^2$$

$$\text{cov}(x, x) = \text{Var}(x)$$

if  $\text{cov}(x, y) = \text{+ve}$  as  $X \uparrow, Y \uparrow$

$\text{cov}(x, y) = \text{-ve}$  as  $X \uparrow, Y \downarrow$



$$\text{co}(x_1, y_1) = +$$

$$\text{co}(x_2, y_2) = -$$

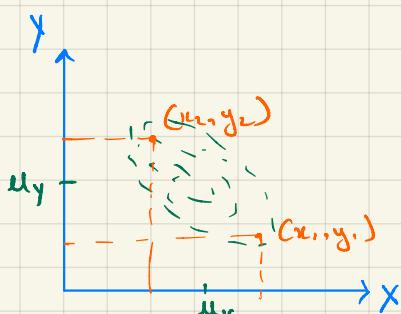
$$\text{co}(x_3, y_3) = -$$

(Coz distance from 'M' is large).

+ → large value

- → small value

- → v. large



$$(x_1, y_1) \rightarrow +$$

$$(x_2, y_2) \rightarrow -$$

- → large '-ve'

-

here as  $x \uparrow \rightarrow y \downarrow$

## Problem with co-variance

$$\text{① } \text{cov}(x, y)$$

↑ cm (height)  
kg (wt.)

↓ same data set just changed the unit/physical

→ Co-variance does not match.

$$\text{cov}(x', y')$$

↑ lbs (wt.)  
ft (height)

→ we can fix that problem by using → pearson correlation coefficient.

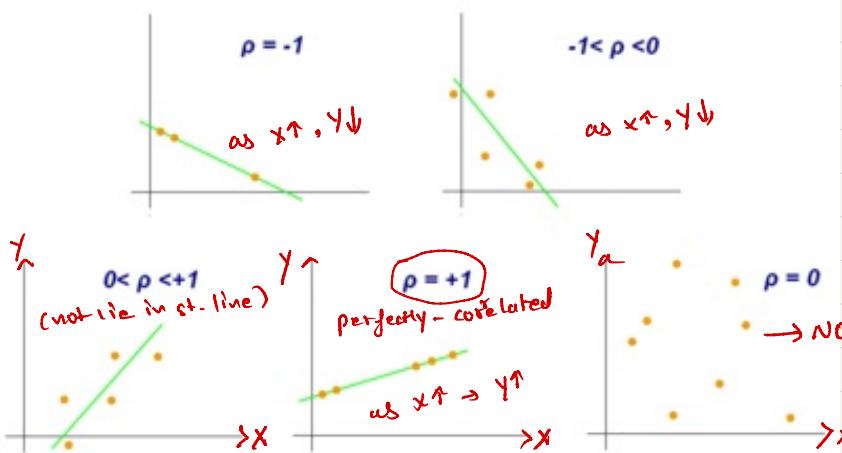
## Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC)

$$P_{x,y} = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(x)} \sqrt{\text{var}(y)}} ; \quad \sqrt{\text{var}(x)}$$

$$-1 \leq P \leq 1$$

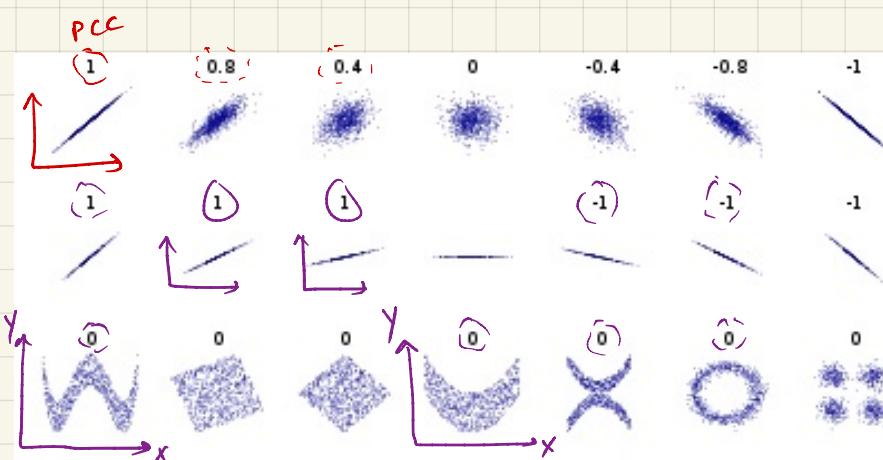
→ as  $x \uparrow \rightarrow y \uparrow \rightarrow \text{co}(x, y) \rightarrow +$  → but don't know how '+ve'

$x \uparrow \rightarrow y \downarrow \rightarrow \text{co}(x, y) \rightarrow -$  → " " " " " much '-ve'



→ NO relationship (Not linear relationship) b/w  $x, y$ .  
→ PCC & co-var. are biased towards linear relationship.

→ showing biasness towards linearity.



→ does not depend on slope.

→ does not capture non-linear relationship.

$$y = \sin(x) + \text{err}_\text{small}$$

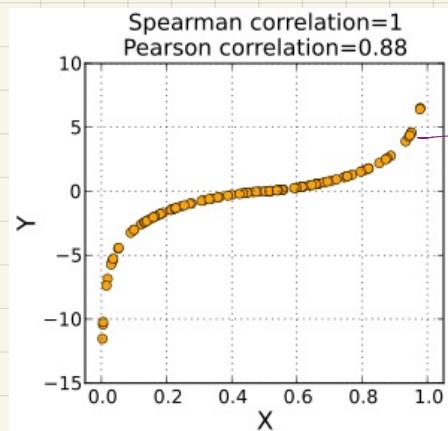
$$y = x^2 + \text{err}_\text{small}$$

→ for finding full-fledge model we learn regression model in ML.

# Spearman's rank correlation ( $\gamma$ ) → Two ways of calculating that $\rightarrow \gamma = \text{cov}(r_x, r_y)$

→ monotonically non-decreasing → if  $x_2 > x_1$  and  $y_2 > y_1$  (always)

→ " decreasing → if  $x_2 < x_1$  and  $y_2 < y_1$  (always)



→ This data have monotonically non-decreasing form but still pcc → 0.88, so, we want to correct it.  
so, we want that relationship which can caught a little bit of non-linearity too.

$$\Rightarrow \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} & X & Y & r_{x_1} & r_y & \rho_{x,y} \end{array} \rightarrow \text{linear relationship.}$$

$$S_1 \quad 160 \quad 52 \quad 4 \quad 3$$

$$\gamma = \rho_{r_x, r_y}$$

$$S_2 \quad 150 \quad 66 \quad 2 \quad 4$$

$$S_3 \quad 170 \quad 68 \quad 5 \quad 5$$

$$S_4 \quad 140 \quad 46 \quad 1 \quad 1$$

$$S_5 \quad 158 \quad 81 \quad 3 \quad 2$$

English (mark)	Maths (mark)	Rank (English)	Rank (maths)	d	$d^2$
56	66	9	4	5	25
75	70	3	2	1	1
45	40	10	10	0	0
71	60	4	7	3	9
62	65	6	5	1	1
64	56	5	9	4	16
58	59	8	8	0	0
80	77	1	1	0	0
76	67	2	3	1	1
61	63	7	6	1	1

Where  $d$  = difference between ranks and  $d^2$  = difference squared.

We then calculate the following:

$$\sum d_i^2 = 25 + 1 + 9 + 1 + 16 + 1 + 1 = 54$$

We then substitute this into the main equation with the other information as follows:

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d_i^2}{n(n^2 - 1)}$$

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \times 54}{10(10^2 - 1)}$$

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{324}{990}$$

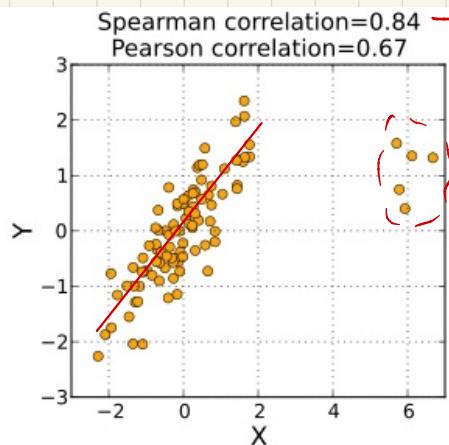
$$\rho = 1 - 0.33$$

$$\rho = 0.67$$

→ if  $X \uparrow$  and  $Y \uparrow$  → linear or not  $\rightarrow \gamma = 1$

→ if  $X \uparrow$  and  $Y \downarrow$  → linear or not  $\rightarrow \gamma = -1$

→ much more robust towards outliers.



$$\gamma = \rho_{r_x, r_y} = \frac{\text{cov}(r_x, r_y)}{\sqrt{r_x} \sqrt{r_y}}$$

or

$$\gamma = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d_i^2}{n(n^2 - 1)}$$

→ Two ways of calculating Spearman correlation.

# Correlation does not imply causation

## Correlation Vs Causation

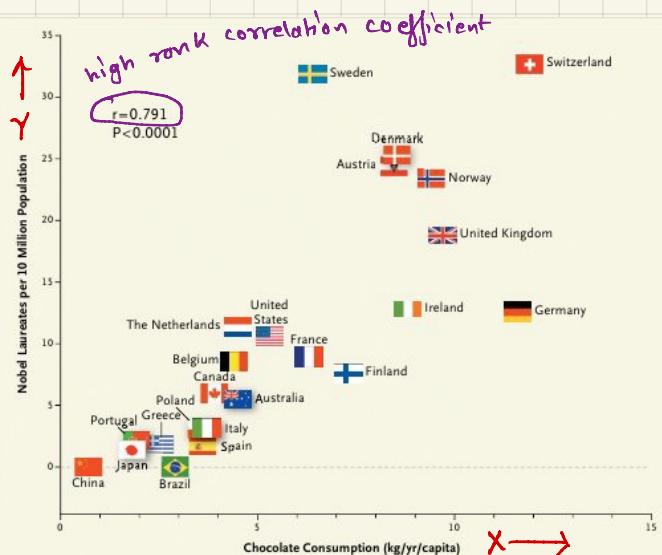


Figure 1. Correlation between Countries' Annual Per Capita Chocolate Consumption and the Number of Nobel Laureates.

→ here as  $X \uparrow$  our  $Y \uparrow$  hence it is correlated

→ Can I say ( $X$  causes  $Y$ ) means

as chocolate consumption ( $\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{person} \times \text{year}}$ )

inc' in our no. of Nobel laureates

also inc'?

↳ that's absurd/incorrect.

→ Just because two variable are correlated it does not mean one causes other.

→ There is a whole chapter for "Causal model" in adv. statistics & Maths.

## Application of Correlation → not causation

Q) Is salary correlated with sq.-footage of your home?

↳ I'm not saying higher salary causes you to look for big home.

→ we can say higher salary ppl. tend to buy big home.

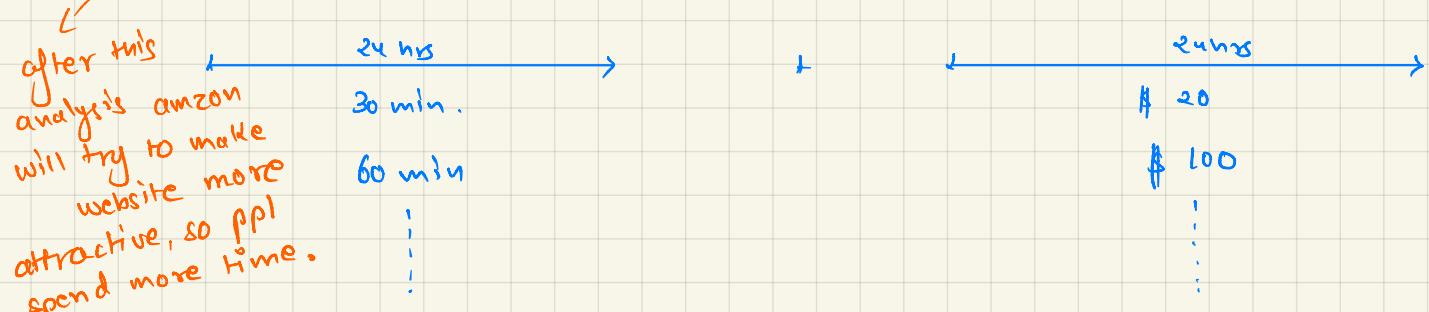
as  $X \uparrow$  our  $Y \uparrow$

Q) Is #year-of-education correlated with income?

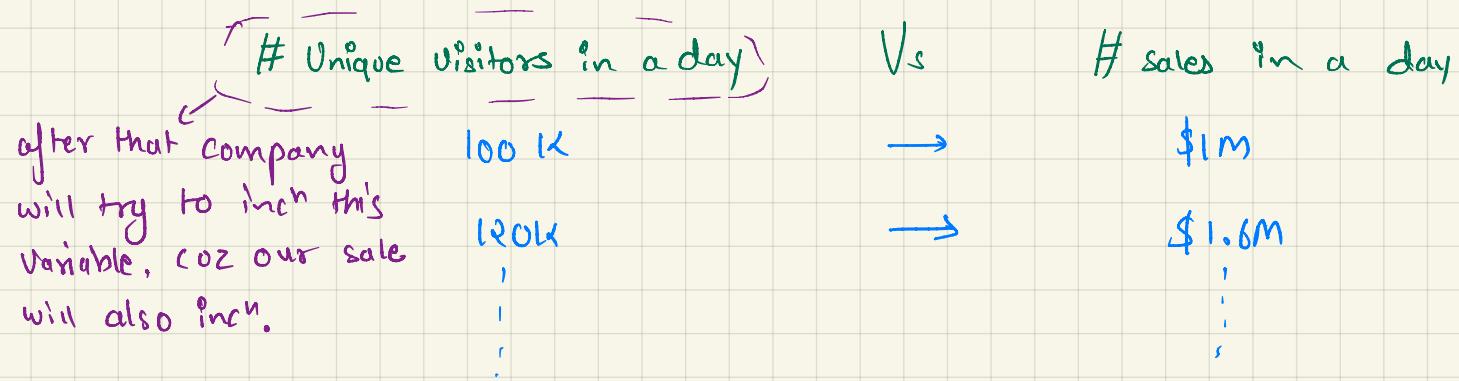
↳ we are not saying #year-of-education caused higher income.

Q) E-commerce :- amazon.com

Is time-spent in 24 hrs is correlated with money-spent in the next 24 hrs.



Q) E-commerce :-



Q) Medicine

(dosage of a drug/medicine)

1 mg  
2 mg  
3 mg  
:  
:

(reduction in blood-sugar)

x  
y  
z  
-  
-

→ as  $X \uparrow$  our  $Y \downarrow$  (I know that from data)

## Confidence Interval

`disb" ← X: heights`

$\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{10}\}$  — random sample from  $X$  of size 10

Q) estimate the population mean of  $X = 11$

$$\mu \approx \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \rightarrow \text{simple avg}$$

pop-mean

sample-mean

as  $n \uparrow$ , our  $(\bar{x} \rightarrow \mu)$

$\hat{m} = \bar{x}$  → point estimation

$$\Rightarrow \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{10}\}$$

{ 180, 162, 158, 172, 168, 180, 171, 183, 165, 176 } → height of ppl  
in 'cm'.

$$\text{Point estimate of } \mu = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} x_i = 168.5 \text{ cm}$$

If I can say (assume) \_\_\_\_\_

$$\text{an } \mu \in [162.1, 174.9] \xrightarrow{\text{interval}}$$

95% probability  
→ confidence

→ This is a  
Confidence-Interval  
Statement.

↳ much more meaningful in terms of point estimation.