

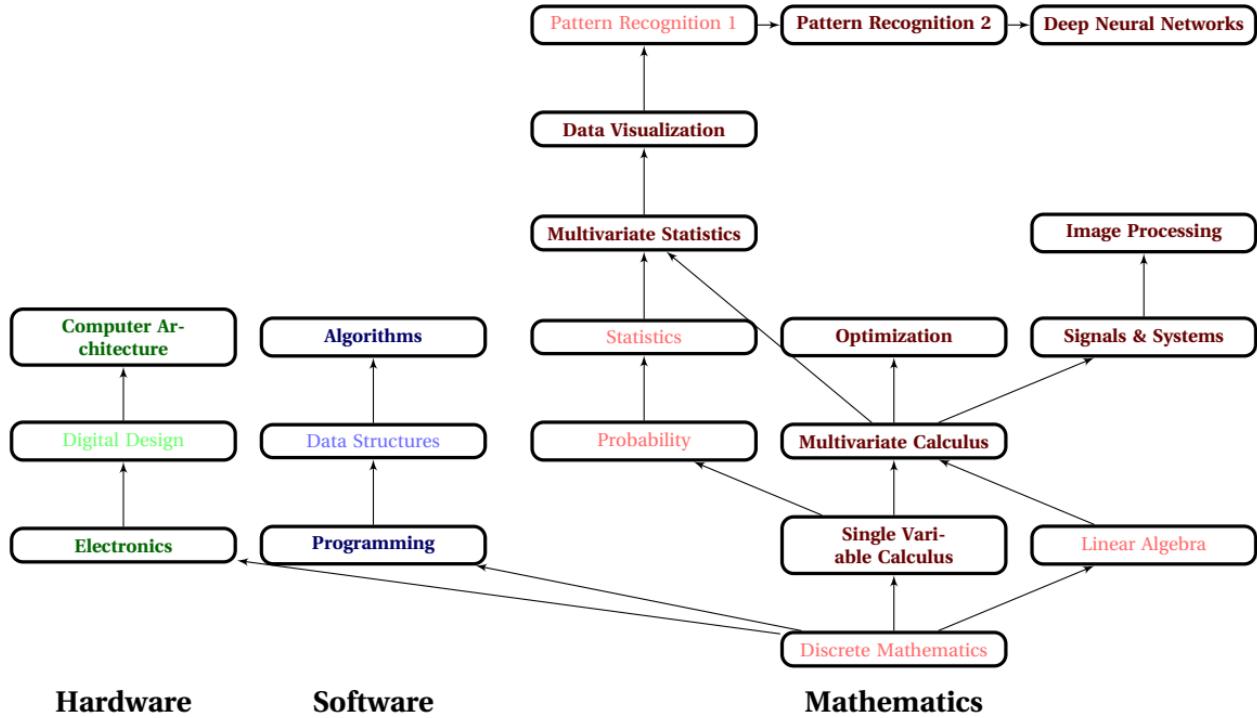
CS395
“Data Science”:
metro-rider snapshots from 15⁺ courses

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December 13, 2018

Anything new about the so-called “Data Science”?



Course Objectives

- To **direct, encourage, and push** students to study the whole set of 18-course-or-more field.
- To emphasize that is NOT a new field; it is a new fancy name.
- To provide a “trailer” of the field: (you study there not here)

Text

As **NOT** usual, lectures will **NOT** follow any particular text. However, some examples, figures, and numbers are borrowed from, e.g., [Hastie et al. \(2009\)](#); [Duda et al. \(2001\)](#); [Rice \(2007\)](#).

Prerequisites

Elementary probability and calculus (at the level of high school)

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Examples from Real Life

Example 1 (comparison of two methods) : Natrella M. (1963) "Experimental Statistics"; studies on latent heat of fusion of ice. The following table gives the change in total heat from ice at -72°C to water at 0°C in calories per gram of mass. (Example from ([Rice, 2007](#), P. 423))

Index	Method-A	Method-B
1	79.98	80.02
2	80.04	79.94
3	80.02	79.98
4	80.04	79.97
5	80.03	79.97
6	80.03	80.03
7	80.04	79.95
8	79.97	79.97
9	80.05	<i>NaN</i>
10	80.03	<i>NaN</i>
11	80.02	<i>NaN</i>
12	80	<i>NaN</i>
13	80.02	<i>NaN</i>

- Are they different?
- Is it a coincidence?
- What is the probability of that?

Example 2 (Email Spam) :

TABLE 1.1. Average percentage of words or characters in an email message equal to the indicated word or character. We have chosen the words and characters showing the largest difference between spam and email.

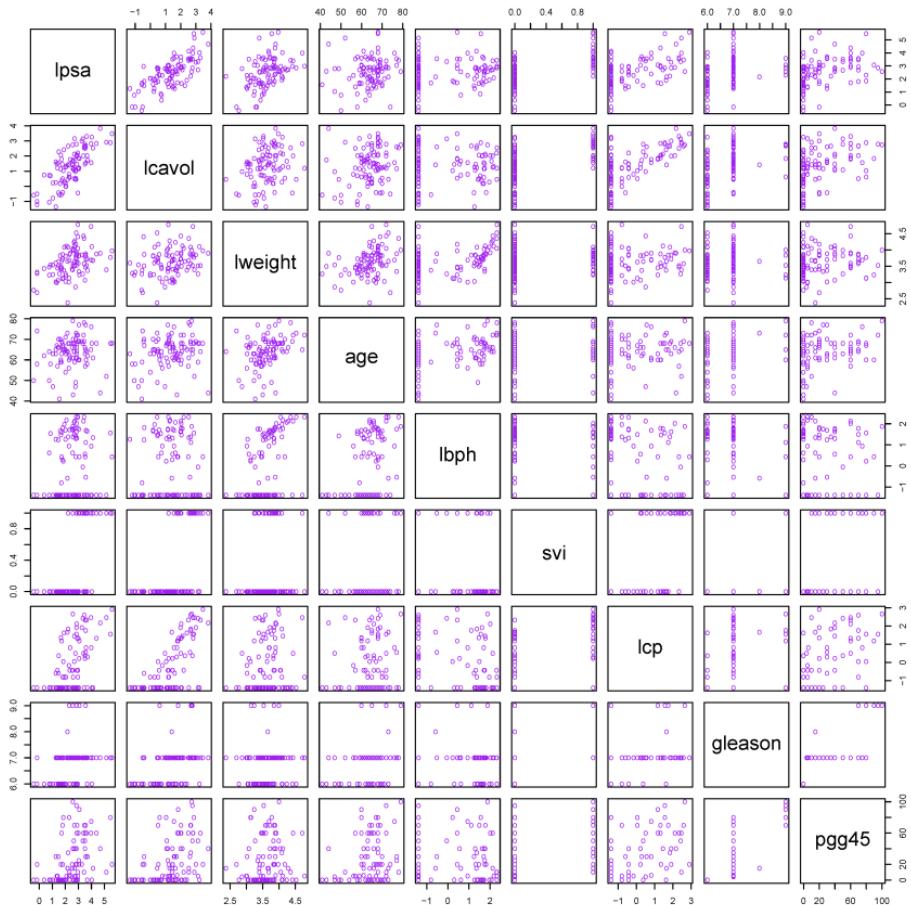
	george	you	your	hp	free	hpl	!	our	re	edu	remove
spam	0.00	2.26	1.38	0.02	0.52	0.01	0.51	0.51	0.13	0.01	0.28
email	1.27	1.27	0.44	0.90	0.07	0.43	0.11	0.18	0.42	0.29	0.01

- 4601 email messages to try to predict whether the email was junk or not. The true outcome (email or spam) is available. This is also called classification problem (as will be explained later).
- The rule could be:

```
if (%george<0.6)&(%you>1.5) then spam
else mail
```
- But is this the “best” rule?
- Not all errors are equal!!

Example 3 (Prostate Cancer) :

- 97 men (observations): predict the log of Prostate Specific Antigen ($lpsa$) from a number of measurements including log-cancer-volume ($lcavol$).
- This is a regression problem (of course supervised).
- Prostate-Specific Antigen (PSA): “Prostate-specific antigen, or PSA, is a protein produced by normal, as well as malignant, cells of the prostate gland.”



Example 4 (Handwritten Digit Recognition) :

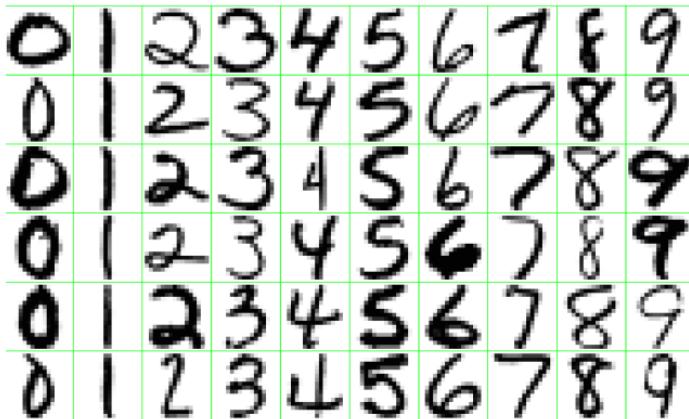


FIGURE 1.2. Examples of handwritten digits from U.S. postal envelopes.

- The data comes from the handwritten ZIP codes on envelopes from U.S. postal mail.
- The images are 16×16 eight-bit grayscale maps, with each pixel ranging from 0-255.
- The task is to predict (classify) each image from its features (16×16) features to one of the digits.
- I'd like to see one of the projects to study this dataset and apply NN to it.

Example 5 (DNA Expression Microarrays) :

- DNA is the basic material that makes up human chromosomes. On the DNA chip, and through fluoroscopy, the gene-expression is measured.
 - It ranges, e.g., between -6 to 6; positive values indicate higher expression (red) and negative indicate lower expression (green).
 - Thousands of genes (features) exist; this is always ill-posed problem.
 - The figure: experiment of 6830 genes (rows) (only 100 of them are displayed for clarity) and 64 samples (columns). The samples are 64 cancer tumor from different patients.
 - Which samples are most similar to each other (across genes)?
 - Which genes are most similar to each other (across samples)?
 - Do certain genes show very high (or low) expression for certain cancer samples?

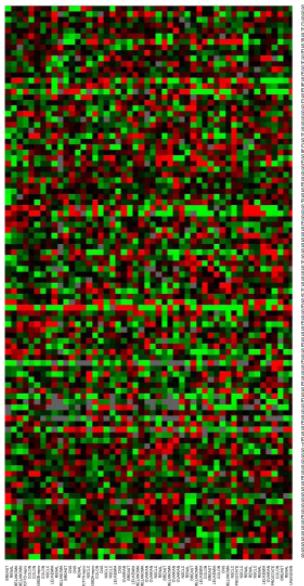


FIGURE 1.3. DNA microarray data: expression matrix.

1.2 Ponder on Examples

- Elementary statistical analysis and understanding measurements and data is fundamental.
- “**Learning** is the process of estimating an unknown input-output dependency or structure of a system using a limited number of observations.” ([Cherkassky and Mulier, 1998](#)).
- Statistical analysis and statistical learning plays a key role in many areas of science, finance and industry. Here are some examples of learning problems. **This is the newly called “Data Science”**

Chapter 2

A Snapshot of Probability

2.1 PDF, CDF, Inverse of CDF

PDF:

$$P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

$$P(X = c) = \int_c^c f(x) dx = 0,$$

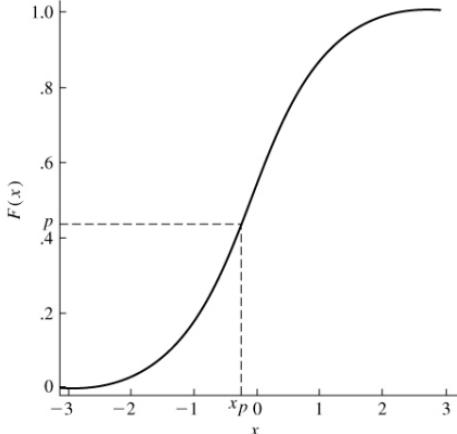
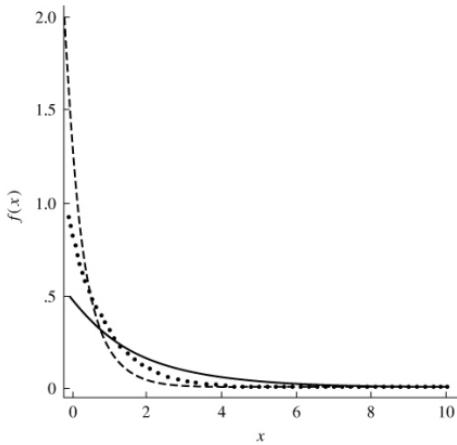
$$P(a < X < b) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a < X \leq b)$$

CDF:

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du = P(X \leq x)$$

$$f(x) = F'(x)$$

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$



Definition 6 (Inverse of CDF, F^{-1}) : The p^{th} quantile is defined as, the value x_p of the r.v. that satisfies $F(x_p) = p$.

- If F is monotonically (strictly) increasing, the p th quantile is unique (see figure).
- $F^{-1}(.5)$ is the median.
- $F^{-1}(.25)$ and $F^{-1}(.75)$ is the lower and upper quartile.

Example 7 Suppose

$$F(x) = x^2, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1,$$

$$x_p^2 = p,$$

$$x_p = \sqrt{p},$$

$$x_{.5} = \sqrt{.5} = .707$$

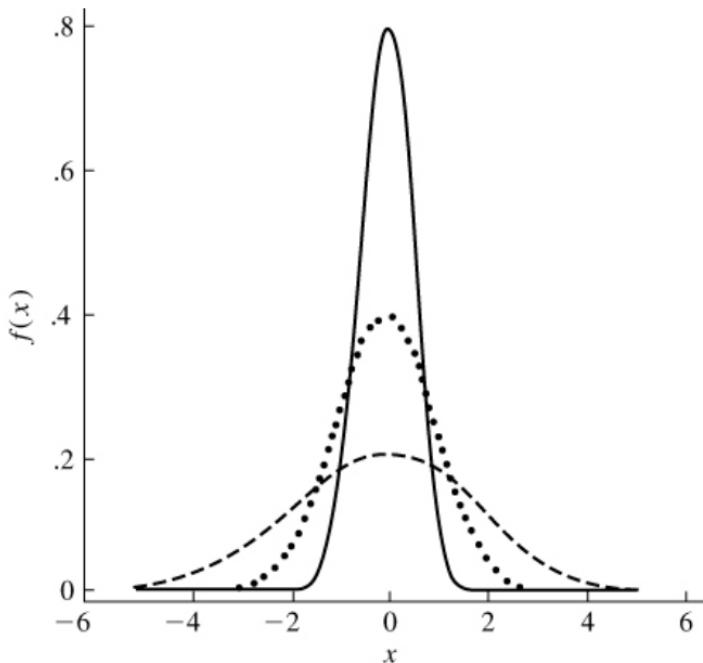
$$x_{.25} = \sqrt{.25} = .5$$

$$x_{.75} = \sqrt{.75} = .866$$

2.1.1 Normal Distribution: $Normal(\mu, \sigma^2)$ (our ever friend)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^2/\sigma^2}, \sigma > 0.$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) dt \stackrel{?}{=} 1$$



- *Normal* because it is normal (statisticians)
- *Gaussian* after Carl Friedrich Gauss in measuring errors (applied scientists)
- *Bell* because it has a bell shape (some other parties)
- symmetric around μ
- no closed form CDF; called Φ .
- Again: repeating an experiment many times under this pdf, how data looks like? How this apply to next example?

2.1.2 Transformations

Theorem 8 (Transformation:) If $Y = g(X)$, g is monotonically increasing (or decreasing) and g^{-1} exists then

$$f_Y(y) = \left| \frac{1}{dy/dx} \right| f_X(g^{-1}(y))$$

Special case:

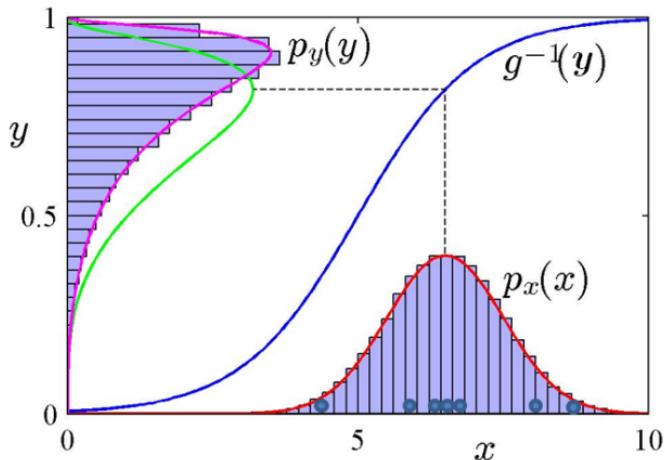
$$\begin{aligned} Y &= aX + b, & X &\sim N(\mu, \sigma^2) \\ Y &\sim N((b + a\mu), (a\sigma)^2). \end{aligned}$$

Interestingly: if

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma}X - \frac{\mu}{\sigma}, \end{aligned}$$

Then, Z has the standard Normal density:

$$Z \sim N(0, 1)$$



Corollary 9 If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ and $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ (a standard normal), then

$$P(Z < z) = \int_{-\infty}^z f_Z(u) du = \Phi(z)$$

$$\Phi(z) = 1 - \Phi(-z)$$

$$\frac{(X - \mu)}{\sigma} \sim Z$$

$$P(X < x) = P\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right) = P\left(Z < \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

Example 10 $[\sigma$ and $\mu]$:

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X - \mu| < \sigma) &= P(-\sigma < X - \mu < \sigma) \\ &= P\left(-1 < \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < 1\right) \\ &= P(-1 < Z < 1) \\ &= \Phi(1) - \Phi(-1) \\ &= .68 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X - \mu| < 2\sigma) &= \Phi(2) - \Phi(-2) \\ &= .9545, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X - \mu| < 3\sigma) &= \Phi(3) - \Phi(-3) \\ &= .9973 \end{aligned}$$

(almost all the probability measure)

Example 11 (IQ test Scores X) :

- Found that $X \sim N(100, 15^2)$.
- What is the probability \Pr that $X \in [120, 130]$?

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr &= P(120 < X < 130) \\&= P\left(\frac{120 - 100}{15} < \frac{X - 100}{15} < \frac{130 - 100}{15}\right) \\&= P(1.33 < Z < 2) \\&= \Phi(2) - \Phi(1.33) \\&= .9772 - .9082 \\&= .069.\end{aligned}$$

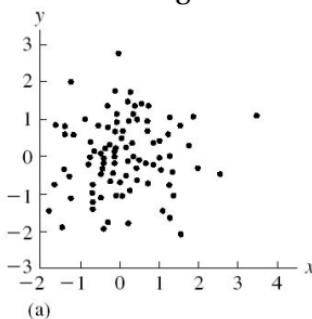
So, only 7% of students takes grades in that range.

2.2 Joint Distributions

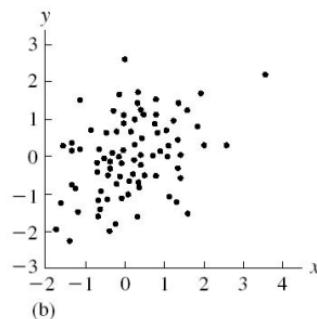
- Number of predators and Number of preys for a particular species in ecology.
- Height and Weight of particular category of distribution of people.
- A model for joint distribution of Age and Length in a population of fish.

Motivation by very simple example: $\{(0,0), (1,1)\}$ has different joint distribution than $\{(1,0), (0,1)\}$. However each of X and Y have the same marginal distribution.

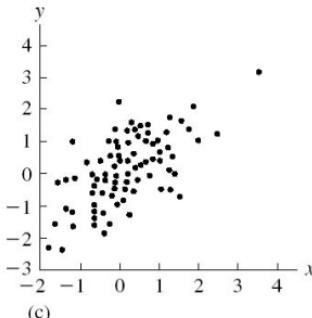
Another example: The Height and Weight of some species of fish are reported for 100 fishes. How they are related together?



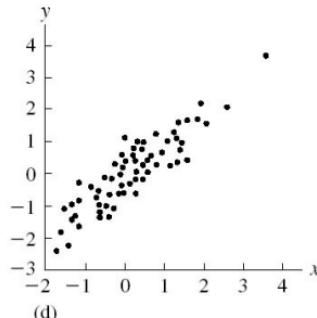
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Third example: lpsa vs. lcavol (Ex. 3)

Definition 12 If the joint cdf of two r.v. is differentiable, then their joint pdf function is defined as

$$f_{XY}(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F_{XY}(x,y);$$

and therefore

$$F_{XY}(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f_{XY}(u,v) du dv.$$

and it can be also shown that (see extra material):

$$P((X,Y) \in A) = \iint_A f_{XY}(u,v) du dv.$$

Marginal:

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x) &= F_{XY}(x,\infty) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(u,v) du dv. \end{aligned}$$

Example 13 : Consider the density

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y}, & 0 \leq x \leq y, \lambda > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Take care, it can be re-written as

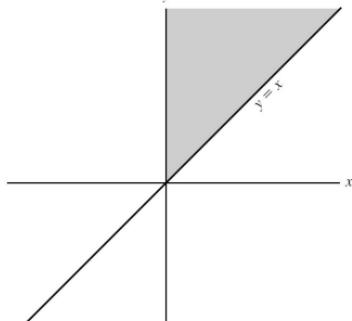
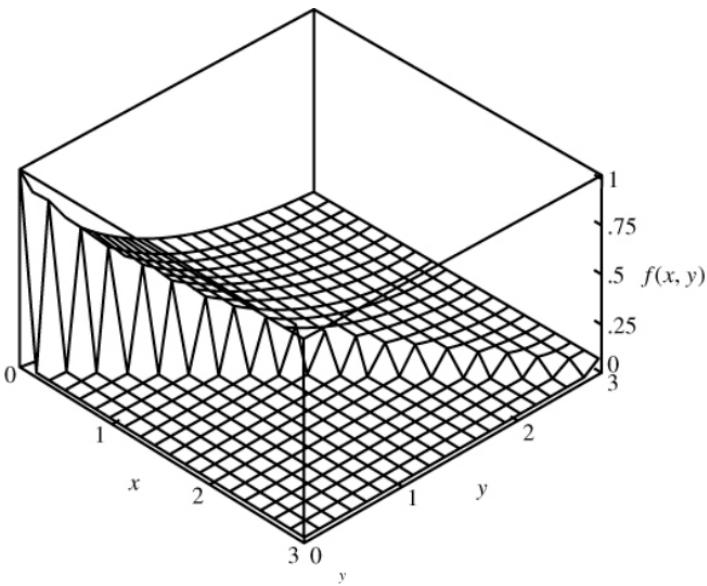
$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y} I_{0 \leq x} I_{x \leq y}, & \lambda > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \int_x^\infty \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y} dy \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

which is Exponential (λ)

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(y) &= \int_0^y \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y} dx \\ &= \lambda^2 y e^{-\lambda y}, \quad 0 \leq y, \end{aligned}$$

which is Gamma ($2, \lambda$).



2.3 Independent R.V.s

If

$$F_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2) = F_{X_1}(x_1) F_{X_2}(x_2).$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2) &= \frac{\partial^2 [F_{X_1}(x_1) F_{X_2}(x_2)]}{\partial X_1 \partial X_2} \\ &= f_{X_1}(x_1) f_{X_2}(x_2), \end{aligned}$$

Also, if

$$f_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2) = f_{X_1}(x_1) f_{X_2}(x_2),$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2) &= \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} f_{X_1 X_2}(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} f_{X_1}(x_1) f_{X_2}(x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} f_{X_1}(x_1) dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} f_{X_2}(x_2) dx_2 \\ &= F_{X_1}(x_1) F_{X_2}(x_2). \end{aligned}$$

How this is reflected on data? let's discuss figure in Sec.2.2.

Example 14 (cont. Ex. 13) :

$$f_{XY}(x,y) = \begin{cases} \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y}, & 0 \leq x \leq y, \lambda > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Take care, it looks like it factors; however it is not since

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y} I_{0 \leq x} I_{x \leq y}, & \lambda > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

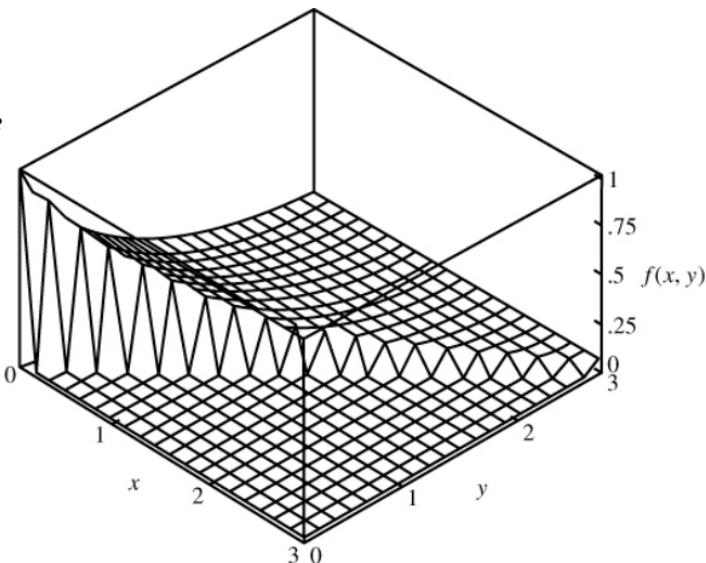
The marginal was

$$f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, 0 \leq x,$$

$$f_Y(y) = \lambda^2 y e^{-\lambda y}, 0 \leq y,$$

They are not independent, since

$$f_X f_Y \neq f_{XY}$$



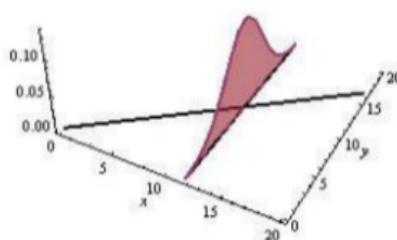
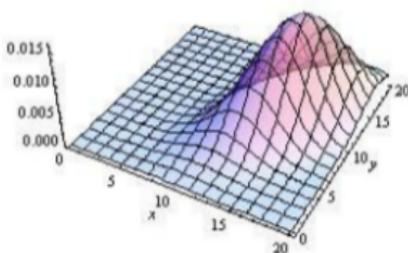
2.4 Conditional Distributions

Definition 15 The conditional density $f_{Y|X}(y|x)$ is defined as

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y) dy}$$

So the denominator is just a normalizing factor, and indeed $f_{Y|X}(y|x)$ is a pdf and integrates to one.

Let's try playing with Mathematica Notebook



Law of total probability:

$$f_{XY}(x,y) = f_{Y|X}(y|x) f_X(x),$$

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y) dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Y|X}(y|x) f_X(x) dx,$$

Bayes' rule:

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y) dy}$$

$$= \frac{f_{X|Y}(x|y) f_Y(y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X|Y}(x|y) f_Y(y) dy}$$

Example 16 (cont. Ex. 13) :

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y}, & 0 \leq x \leq y, \lambda > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases},$$

$$f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \quad 0 \leq x,$$

$$f_Y(y) = \lambda^2 y e^{-\lambda y}, \quad 0 \leq y.$$

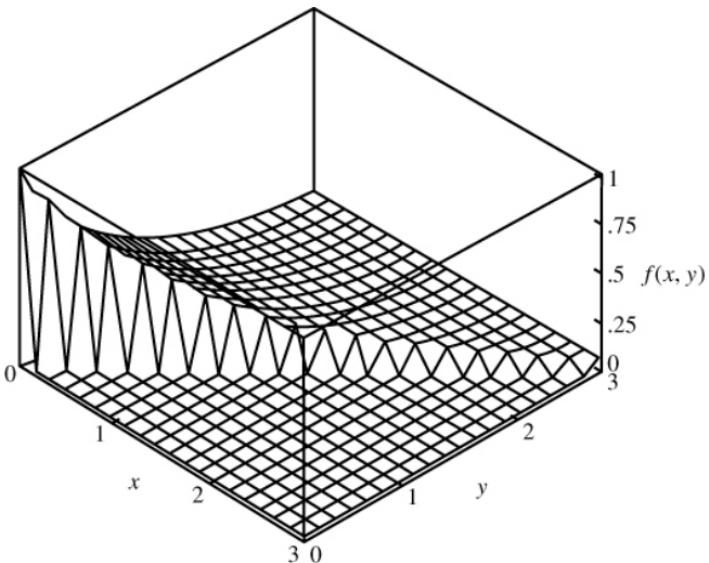
$$\begin{aligned} f_{Y|X}(y|x) &= \frac{\lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y}}{\lambda e^{-\lambda x}} \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda(y-x)}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq y, \lambda > 0, \end{aligned}$$

$Y|X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X|Y}(x|y) &= \frac{\lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y}}{\lambda^2 y e^{-\lambda y}} \\ &= \frac{1}{y}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq y, \end{aligned}$$

$X|Y \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1/y).$

Notice that: we can generate (X, Y) by generating x , followed by $y|x$ or by generating y followed $x|y$



2.5 Expected Values

Definition 17 If X is continuous r.v. then

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf_X(x) dx,$$

If $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| f_X(x) dx < \infty$; otherwise, it is undefined.

Example 18 ($Normal(\mu, \sigma^2)$) :

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] dx$$

Substitute $z = x - \mu$

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{(z)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]}_{symmetric} dz + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mu \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{(z)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]}_{pdf of Normal} dz = \mu.$$

So, the population parameters appear explicitly in the pdf. We say, $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. The figure shows the geometry of the normal distribution.

Data?

2.6 Variance and Standard Deviation

Definition 19 If X is r.v with $E(X)$, then

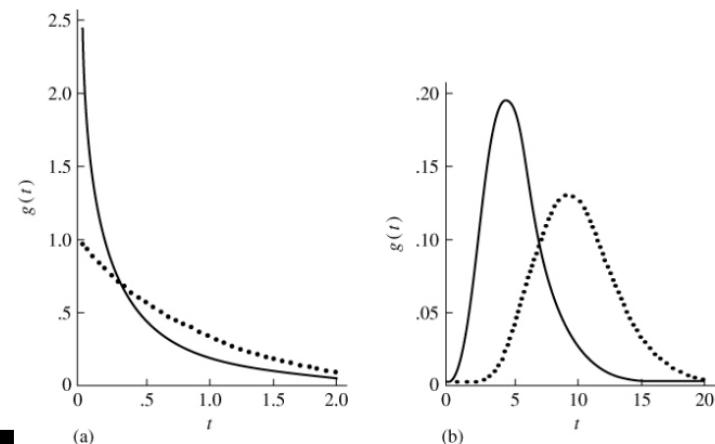
$$\sigma^2 \equiv \text{Var}(X) = E[(X - E(X))^2],$$
$$\sigma \equiv \text{SD}(X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)},$$

provided that $E[(X - E(X))^2] < \infty$.

Corollary 20 The variance, if exists, can be given by

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$$

Proof is HW.



Intuition:

- we need some measure for “dispersion”.
- SD has same units, so more meaningful.
- What is the pdf of $Y = X - E(X)$
- We could have defined it as:

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(|X - E(X)|),$$

How this is reflected on data?

which is called absolute deviance.

Example 21 (Normal Distribution) :

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(X) &= E(X - \mu)^2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left[\frac{-1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right] dx = \sigma^2.\end{aligned}$$

Then, wonderful; the Normal pdf is expressed in terms of its population parameters

Discussion: revisit the 6- σ rule.

Theorem 22 Suppose that $\text{Var}(X)$ exists, and X is not necessarily normal; then

1. if $Y = a + bX$ then

$$\text{Var}(Y) = b^2 \text{Var}(X) \quad \text{SD}(Y) = |b| \text{SD}(X).$$

2. if $Y = (X - \mu_X) / \sigma_X$ then

$$E(Y) = 0, \quad \text{Var}(Y) = 1.$$

Proof is HW.

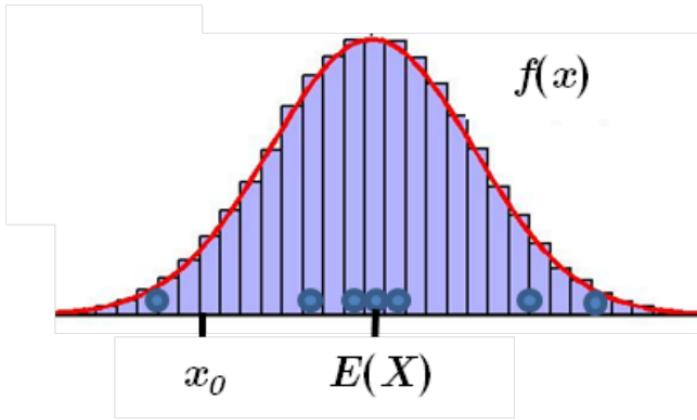
■

Example 23 (Simulation using Python.) Simulate 3 different datasets, each is 100 observations, from: $\mathcal{N}(0, 16)$, $\mathcal{U}(0, 4)$, $\mathcal{Exp}(2)$. Then plot the datasets with/without standardization:

2.7 A Model for Measurement Error

- Suppose that we measure a constant x_0 .
- Measurements are r.v. X , with μ and σ
- The error $X - x_0$ is a r.v; analyze it!
- Mean Squared Error (MSE):

$$MSE = E(X - x_0)^2$$



Theorem 24 (Mean Squared Error (MSE)) :

$$\begin{aligned} MSE &= \text{Variance} + \text{Bias}^2 \\ &= \sigma^2 + (\mu - x_0)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Proof with common trick. :

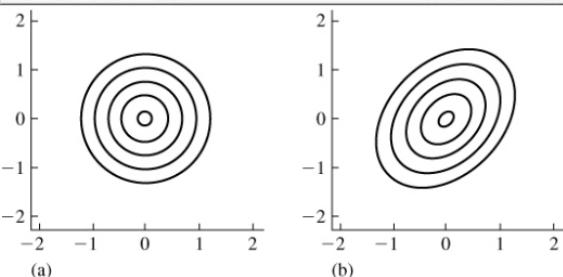
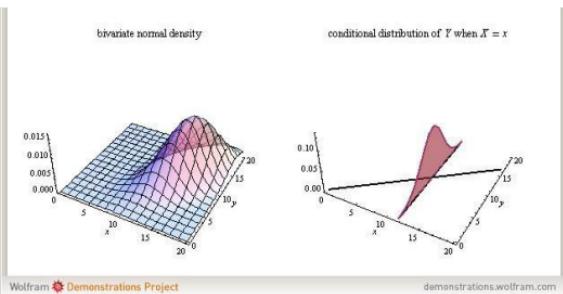
$$\begin{aligned} MSE &= E(X - x_0)^2 \\ &= E((X - \mu) + (\mu - x_0))^2 \\ &= E(X - \mu)^2 + 2(\mu - x_0)E(X - \mu) + (\mu - x_0)^2 \\ &= \sigma^2 + (\mu - x_0)^2 \end{aligned}$$

2.8 Covariance & Correlation

This section should have impact on your way of thinking and reading different situations in life

Definition 25 If X and Y are two r.v. with μ_X and μ_Y

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \\ &= E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \\ &= E[XY - \mu_X Y - \mu_Y X + \mu_X \mu_Y] \\ &= E[XY] - \mu_X \mu_Y - \mu_X \mu_Y + \mu_X \mu_Y \\ &= E[XY] - \mu_X \mu_Y.\end{aligned}$$



Intuition:

- we need to measure “Association”.
- $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ has the units of XY .
- If X and Y are independent $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$

Example 26

$$f(x, y) = 2x + 2y - 4xy, \quad 0 \leq x, y \leq 1,$$

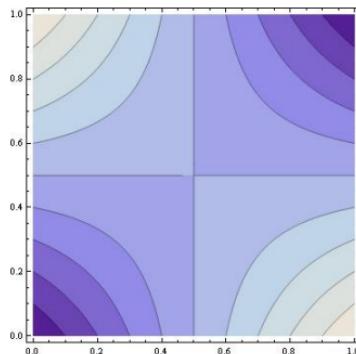
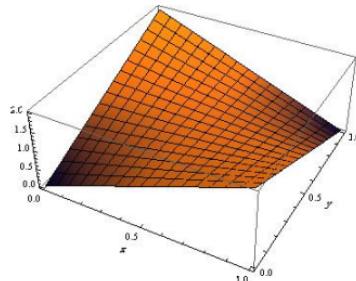
$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \int_0^1 (2x + 2y - 4xy) dy \\ &= 1, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$f_Y(y) = 1, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1$$

$$\mu_X = \mu_Y = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E(XY) - \mu_X \mu_Y$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy(2x + 2y - 4xy) dx dy - \frac{1}{4} \\ &= \frac{2}{9} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{-1}{36} \end{aligned}$$



Definition 27 (Correlation Coefficient) : If X and Y are jointly distributed then:

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}.$$

Lemma 28 (Motivation for the definition) :

1. $-1 \leq \rho_{XY} \leq 1$ and is dimensionless.
2. Under linear transformation $U = a_0 + a_1 X$, and $V = b_0 + b_1 Y$:

$$\text{Cov}(U, V) = a_1 b_1 \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

3. ρ_{XY} is invariant under this linear transformation:

Proof of 2 & 3.

$$\rho_{UV} = \frac{\text{Cov}(a_0 + a_1 X, b_0 + b_1 Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(a_0 + a_1 X) \text{Var}(b_0 + b_1 Y)}} = \frac{a_1 b_1 \text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{a_1^2 \text{Var}(X) b_1^2 \text{Var}(Y)}} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X) \text{Var}(Y)}} = \rho_{XY}$$

■

Example 29 (Revisit Ex. 26) :

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{-1/36}{(1/\sqrt{12})(1/\sqrt{12})} = \frac{-1}{3}.$$

Theorem 30 $\rho = \pm 1$ iff: $P(Y = a + bX) = 1$ for some a, b .

Example 31 (Counter Example) : X, Y indep.,

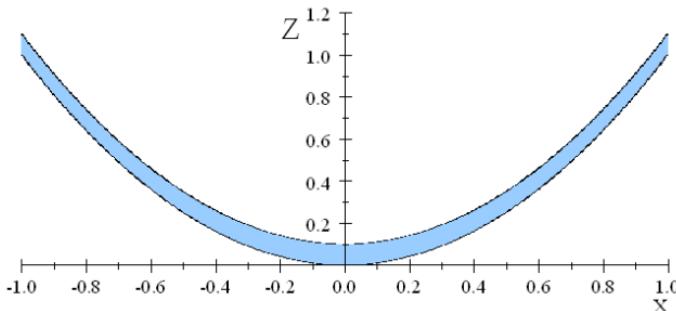
- $X \sim \text{Uniform}(-1, 1); f_X(x) = 1/2.$
- $Y \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1/10); f_Y(y) = 10.$
- $Z = X^2 + Y$: what is f_{XZ} and $\text{Cov}(X, Z)$?

$$f_{Z|X}(z|x) = 10, x^2 \leq z \leq x^2 + .1$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{XZ}(x, z) &= f_{Z|X}(z|x) f_X(x) = 10 \times \frac{1}{2} = 5. \\ &= 5, -1 \leq x \leq 1, x^2 \leq z \leq x^2 + 0.1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(X, Z) &= E[XZ] - E[X]E[Z] \\ &= E[X(X^2 + Y)] - 0E[Z] \\ &= E[X^3] + E[XY] \\ &= 0 + E[X]E[Y] \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Intuition: There is dependency, yet not linear.



Correlation is a measure of a linear relationship

X, Y	$\rho = 0$	$\rho \neq 0$
Dep.	T	T
Ind.	T	F

$\text{Independence} \rightarrow \text{Cov} = 0$

$\text{Cov} \neq 0 \rightarrow \text{Dependence}.$

Corollary 32 Consider $U = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$

1. In general:

$$\text{Var}(U) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i>j} a_i a_j \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$$

2. If X_i s are uncorrelated (or independent):

$$\text{Var}(U) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}(X_i)$$

3. If X_i s are i.i.d and $a_i = 1$:

$$\text{Var}(U) = n\sigma^2.$$

Observed Correlation Does Not Necessarily Imply Causation

May be one **or combination** of the following:

- **Example for A causes B :**

Many

- **Example for B causes A :**

Observation:

(A): the more firemen fighting a fire

(B): the bigger the fire is observed to be.

- **Example for (C) causes both:**

Observation (Quinn et. al., 1999, Nature):

(A): young children sleeping with the light

(B): more likely to develop myopia

Later study found that:

infants sleeping with the light on caused the development of myopia!!

However, they found that:

parental myopia (C) is correlated with child myopia (B)

myopic parents (C) were more likely to leave a light on (A) in their children's bedroom.

2.9 Conditional Expectation and Prediction

2.9.1 Definitions and Examples

Definition 33 (conditional expectation) :

$$E(Y|X=x) = \int y f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy \quad (2.1)$$

This takes us to “Regression Function”:

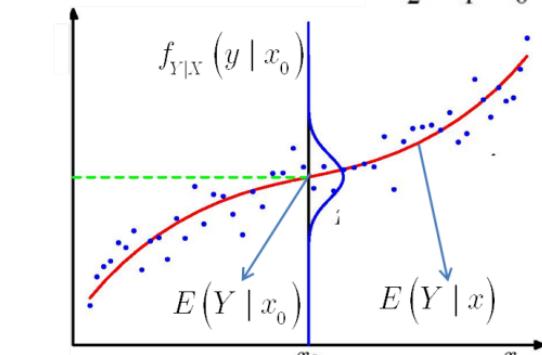
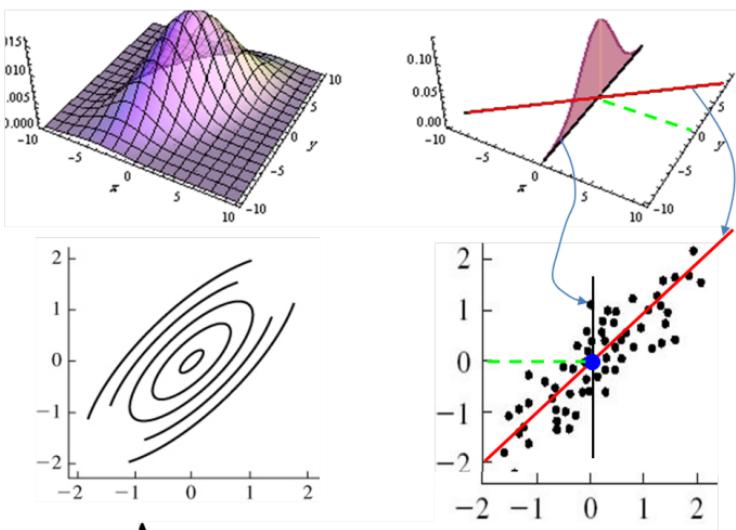
Theorem 34 (Law of Total Expectation) :

$E(Y) = E[E(Y|X)]$. We can also write it as:

$$E(Y) = E_X [E_{Y|X}(Y|X)].$$

Theorem 35 (Variance Decomposition) :

$$\text{Var}[Y] = \underset{X}{\text{Var}} [E_{Y|X}(Y|X)] + E_X \left[\underset{Y|X}{\text{Var}}[Y|X] \right].$$



2.9.2 Prediction

Let's predict a r.v. by constant (Sec. 2.7)

$$\begin{aligned} MSE &= E(Y - c)^2 \\ &= \underbrace{\text{Var}[Y]}_{\text{irreducible error}} + (E(Y) - c)^2 \\ c_{\min} &= \underset{c}{\operatorname{argmin}} [MSE] \\ &= E(Y). \end{aligned}$$

If we replace E by $E_{Y|X}$

$$c = h(X) = E_{Y|X}(Y|X),$$

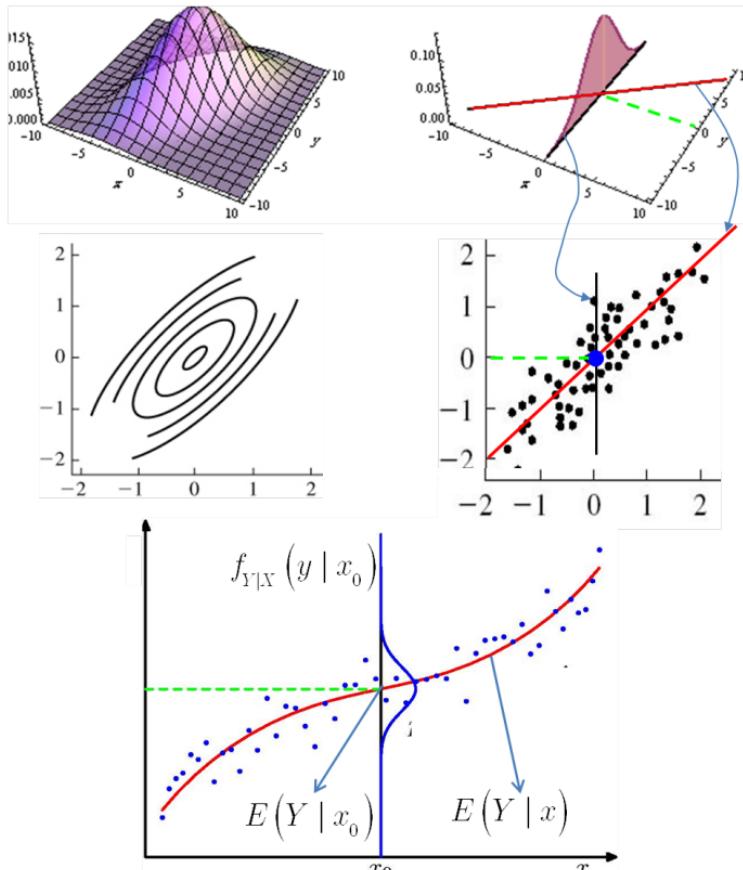
which minimizes

$$E_{Y|X} [(Y - h(X))^2 | X],$$

and therefore minimizes

$$\begin{aligned} MSE &= E(Y - h(X))^2 \\ &= E_X E_{Y|X} [(Y - h(X))^2 | X], \end{aligned}$$

which is the regression function. **This is what is Machine Learning is about!**



Chapter 3

A Snapshot of Statistics

3.1 Sampling, Statistics, and Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)

Definition 36 (Sampling) : The r.v. X_1, \dots, X_n are called a random sample of size n from the population F if X_1, \dots, X_n are i.i.d from F ; and hence:

$$f_{X_1 \dots X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_i f(x_i).$$

Definition 37 (A statistic) : Let X_1, \dots, X_n be a random sample of size n , and $T(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be a real- (or vector-) valued function whose domain includes the sample space of (X_1, \dots, X_n) . Then the r.v. $Y = T(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is called a statistic.

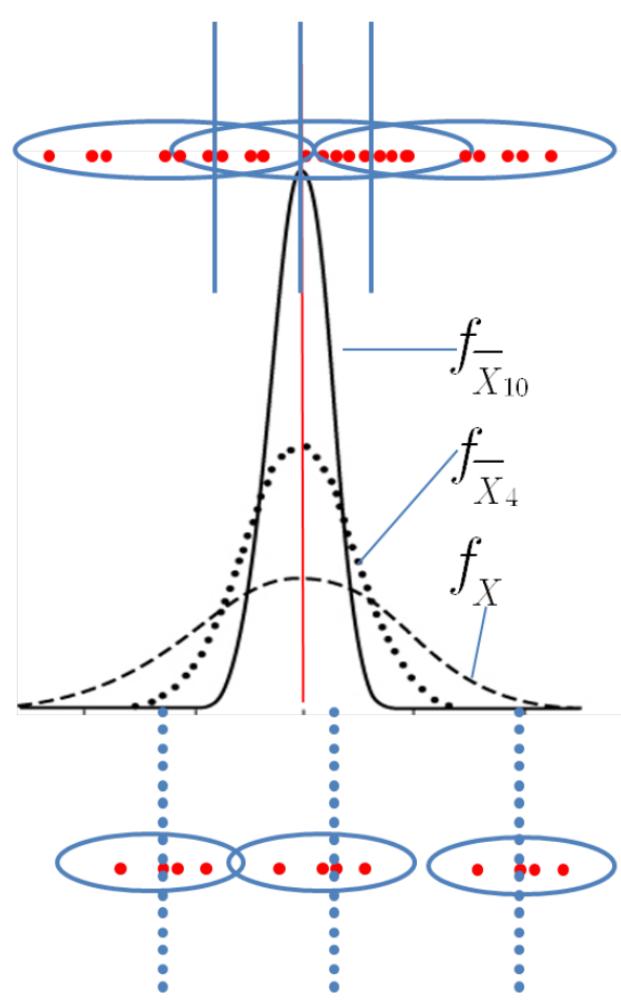
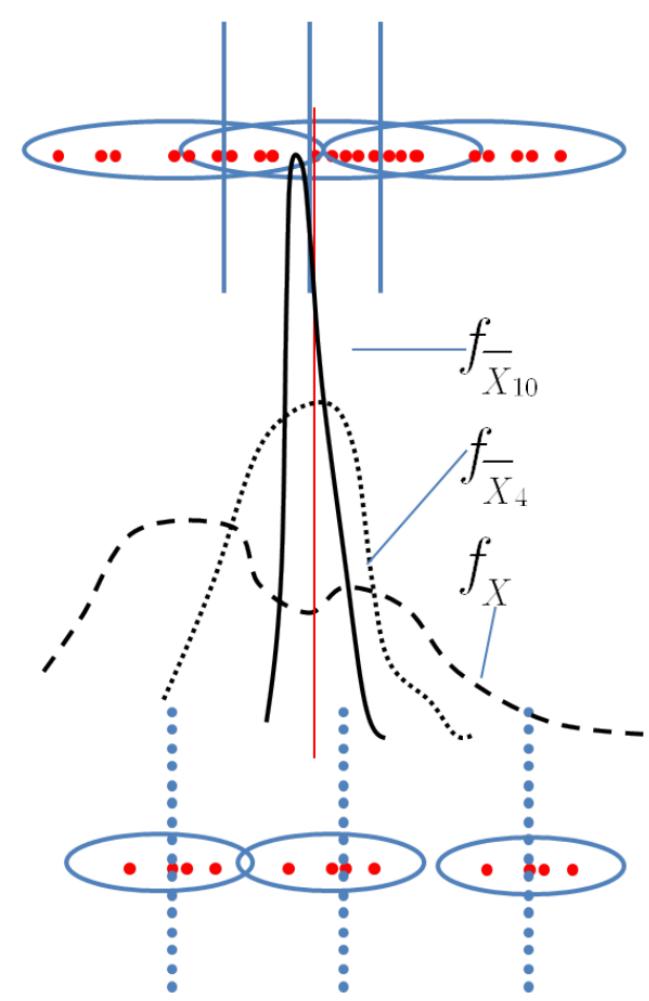
Definition 38 The sample mean is a statistic defined as:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i X_i$$

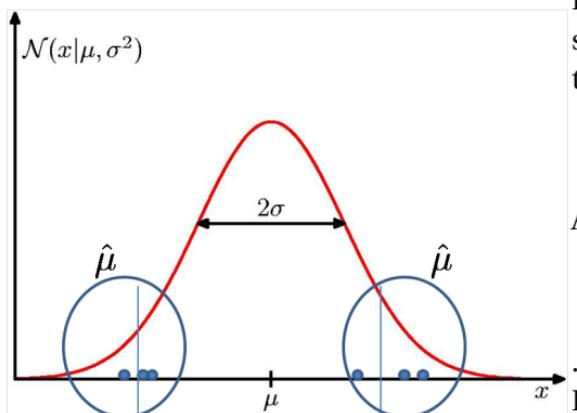
$$\begin{array}{cccccc} & & X_1 & X_2 & \dots & X_n & \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i X_i \\ \hline F & \xrightarrow{\text{Sample}_1} & x_1, & x_2, & \dots & x_n & \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i \\ F & \xrightarrow{\text{Sample}_2} & x_1, & x_2, & \dots & x_n & \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i \\ & & \vdots & & & & \end{array}$$

Theorem 39 (Weak Law of Large Numbers) : If X_1, \dots, X_n is a s.r.v., independent with **existing**, and common, μ and σ^2 (but not necessarily identical) then $\bar{X}_n (= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i) \xrightarrow{p} \mu$. A special case of the WLLN is when X_i s are i.i.d. (repeated measurements)

Let's see the meaning of the WLLN for \bar{X}_n :



3.2 Estimation and Estimators



Estimator is a real-valued function that tries to “close” in some sense to a population quantity. How “close”? Define a loss function, e.g., the Mean Square Error (MSE):

$$L(\hat{\mu}, \mu) = (\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2.$$

And, define the Risk to be the Expected loss:

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2$$

Important Decomposition for any estimator $\hat{\mu}$:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2 &= \mathbb{E}((\hat{\mu} - \mathbb{E}\hat{\mu}) + (\mathbb{E}\hat{\mu} - \mu))^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}(\hat{\mu} - \mathbb{E}\hat{\mu})^2 + \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2 + 2\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\mu} - \mathbb{E}\hat{\mu})(\mathbb{E}\hat{\mu} - \mu)] \\ &= \text{Var}\hat{\mu} + \text{Bias}^2(\hat{\mu})\end{aligned}$$

We could have defined other loss functions, e.g., the absolute deviance loss:

$$L(\hat{\mu}, \mu) = |\hat{\mu} - \mu|$$

One estimator may be better for one loss and not better for another loss.

3.3 Important Estimators

3.3.1 Estimation of μ_X

Sample mean \bar{X} as an estimator of μ_X : $\hat{\mu}_X = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$.

$$E\bar{X} = E \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = EX (= \mu)$$

$$Bias(\hat{\mu}) = E\hat{\mu} - \mu = 0$$

$$\text{Var}\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n^2} \left[\sum_i \sigma^2 + \sum_i \sum_j \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) \right] = \frac{1}{n} \sigma^2$$

This means that from sample to sample it will vary with this variance.

An estimator with zero bias is called “unbiased”. This means that on average it will be exactly as what we want.

HW: What about $\hat{\mu} = X^{(1)}$.

3.3.2 Estimation of σ^2

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= \mathbb{E}(X - \mu)^2 \\&= \mathbb{E}X^2 - \mu^2 \\ \widehat{\sigma^2} &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_i - \bar{X})^2 \\&= \frac{1}{n-1} \left(\sum_i x_i^2 - n\bar{X}^2 \right) \\ \mathbb{E}\widehat{\sigma^2} &= \sigma^2.\end{aligned}\tag{unbiased}$$

3.3.3 Estimation of $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Y) &= \mathbb{E}(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y) \\ &= \mathbb{E}XY - \mu_X\mu_Y \\ \widehat{\text{Cov}}(X, Y) &= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_i - \bar{X})(y_i - \bar{Y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} \left(\sum_i x_i y_i - n\bar{X}\bar{Y} \right) \\ \mathbb{E}\widehat{\text{Cov}}(X, Y) &= \text{Cov}(X, Y)\end{aligned}$$

(unbiased)

3.3.4 Quantile Estimation, Outliers, Cutoff, and Thick Tails

Recall the meaning of $F^{-1}(p)$; here, we will estimate them using order statistics. The ordered statistic $x_{(p=i.d.)}$ is defined by interpolation as:

$$x_{(i.d.)} = x_{(i)} + d(x_{(i+1)} - x_{(i)}) = (1-d)x_{(i)} + dx_{(i+1)} = \hat{F}^{-1}(p) \quad (\text{sample } p^{\text{th}} \text{ quantile})$$

$$x_{((n+1)/2)} = \begin{cases} x_{((n+1)/2)}, & n \text{ is odd.} \\ x_{(n/2+1/2)} = (1/2)(x_{(n/2)} + x_{(n/2+1)}) & n \text{ is even.} \end{cases} = \hat{F}^{-1}(0.5) \quad (\text{sample median: M})$$

$$x_{((1+(n+1)/2)/2)} = x_{((n+3)/4)} = \hat{F}^{-1}(0.25) \quad (\text{sample lower quartile: } Q_L)$$

$$x_{((n+1)/2+n)/2} = x_{((3n+1)/4)} = \hat{F}^{-1}(0.75) \quad (\text{sample upper quartile: } Q_U)$$

$$W_L = \min x_i \geq Q_L - 1.5(Q_U - Q_L) \quad (\text{sample lower cutoff})$$

$$W_U = \max x_i \leq Q_U + 1.5(Q_U - Q_L) \quad (\text{sample upper cutoff})$$

Example 40

34	35	36	37	45	52	56	58	66	68	74	90	100	140
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14

Rank of M , Q_L , Q_U is 7.5, 4.25, 10.75

$$M = 56 + 0.5(58 - 56) = 57$$

$$Q_L = 37 + 0.25(45 - 37) = 39$$

$$Q_U = 68 + 0.75(74 - 68) = 72.5$$

$$d_Q = (72.5 - 39) = 33.5$$

$$Q_L - 1.5 d_Q = 39 - 1.5 \times 33.5 = -11.25 \quad W_L = 34$$

$$Q_U + 1.5 d_Q = 72.5 + 1.5 \times 33.5 = 122.75 \quad W_U = 100$$

Example 41 (meaning of quantile from $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$) :

$$p = F(x_p) = P(X < x_p) = \Phi\left(\frac{x_p - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

$$F^{-1}(p) = x_p = \mu + (\Phi^{-1}(p))\sigma$$

$$Q_L = F^{-1}(0.25) = \mu - 0.6745\sigma$$

$$Q_U = F^{-1}(0.75) = \mu + 0.6745\sigma$$

$$d_Q = 1.349\sigma$$

$$W_L = Q_L - 1.5d_Q = \mu - 2.698\sigma$$

$$W_U = Q_U + 1.5d_Q = \mu + 2.698\sigma$$

$$P(X < W_L) + P(X > W_U) = 2P(X < W_L) = 2\Phi\left(\frac{(\mu - 2.698\sigma) - \mu}{\sigma}\right) = 2\Phi(-2.698) = 0.00698$$

So, a sample (patch) of 1000 obs. will have almost 7 obs. outside the cutoffs.

Definition 42 (Hoaglin et al. (2000)) :

Outlier *observation with different underlying behavior as compared with the bulk of the data which deserves more investigation. The cutoffs W_L and W_U will be arbitrarily used for outlier detection. Outliers could be:*

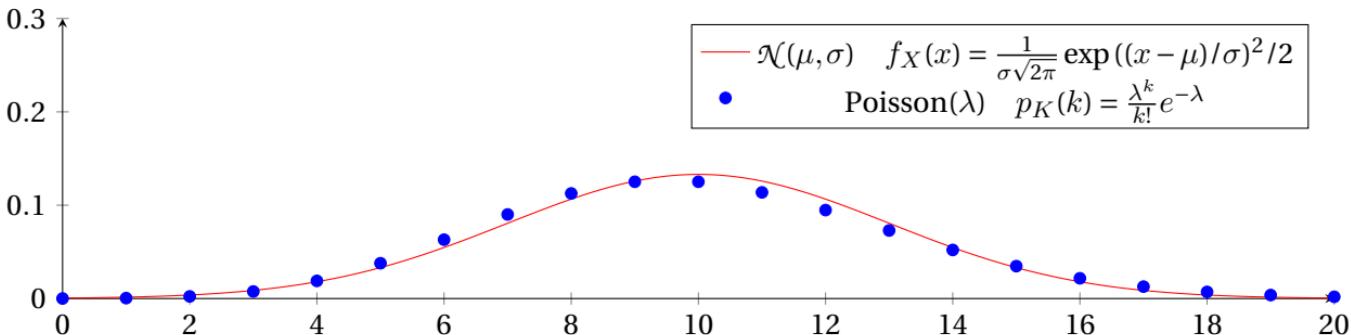
- *false value due to measurement error.*
- *right value due to thick tail.*

Resistance *insensitivity to misbehavior in data. A resistant method produces results that change only slightly when small part of the data is replaced by new numbers, possibly very different from the original ones.*

Chapter 4

A Snapshot of Data Visualization

4.1 A Quantitative Variable



- Here, $\mu = 10$, $\sigma = 3$, $\lambda = 10$ (how do you know from figure?)
- $P(X = x) = 0, P(K = k) \neq 0$.
- How samples look like?
- What about cluttering (observations overlaying each other).

Example 43 (iris dataset) : (150 observations, by R. A. Fisher, the father of Statistics)

Index	SepalLength	SepalWidth	PetalLength	PetalWidth	Class
1	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	Iris-setosa
2	4.9	3	1.4	0.2	Iris-setosa
3	4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2	Iris-setosa
4	4.6	3.1	1.5	0.2	Iris-setosa
5	5	3.6	1.4	0.2	Iris-setosa
6	5.4	3.9	1.7	0.4	Iris-setosa
7	4.6	3.4	1.4	0.3	Iris-setosa
8	5	3.4	1.5	0.2	Iris-setosa
9	4.4	2.9	1.4	0.2	Iris-setosa
10	4.9	3.1	1.5	0.1	Iris-setosa
.					
.					
51	7	3.2	4.7	1.4	Iris-versicolor
52	6.4	3.2	4.5	1.5	Iris-versicolor
53	6.9	3.1	4.9	1.5	Iris-versicolor
54	5.5	2.3	4	1.3	Iris-versicolor
55	6.5	2.8	4.6	1.5	Iris-versicolor
56	5.7	2.8	4.5	1.3	Iris-versicolor
57	6.3	3.3	4.7	1.6	Iris-versicolor
58	4.9	2.4	3.3	1	Iris-versicolor
59	6.6	2.9	4.6	1.3	Iris-versicolor
60	5.2	2.7	3.9	1.4	Iris-versicolor
.					
.					
101	6.3	3.3	6	2.5	Iris-virginica
102	5.8	2.7	5.1	1.9	Iris-virginica
103	7.1	3	5.9	2.1	Iris-virginica
104	6.3	2.9	5.6	1.8	Iris-virginica
105	6.5	3	5.8	2.2	Iris-virginica
106	7.6	3	6.6	2.1	Iris-virginica
107	4.9	2.5	4.5	1.7	Iris-virginica
108	7.3	2.9	6.3	1.8	Iris-virginica
109	6.7	2.5	5.8	1.8	Iris-virginica
110	7.2	3.6	6.1	2.5	Iris-virginica
.					
.					

- Knowing the physics of the problem helps understanding data.
- Iris is a genus of species of flowering plants with showy flowers. (In Arabic: Alsawsan).
- Iris is extensively grown as ornamental plant, medicine, drugs.



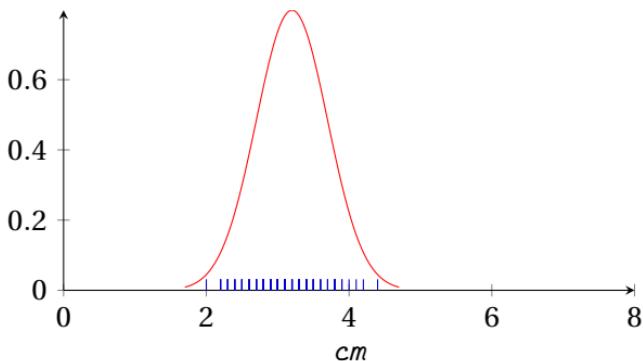
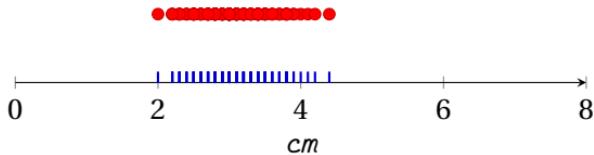
Per Hoaglin et al. (2000):

- How nearly symmetric the sample is?
- How spread out the numbers are?
- Whether a few values are far removed from the rest?
- Whether there are concentrations of data?
- Whether there are gaps in the data?

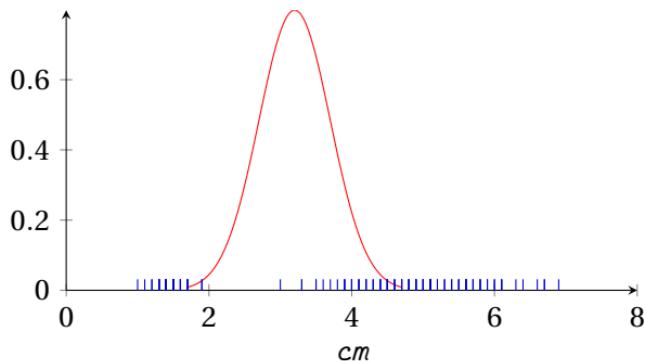
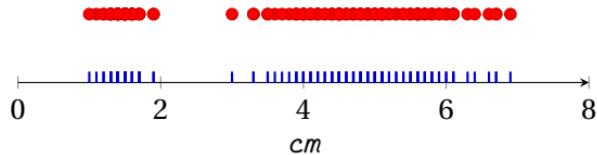
4.1.1 Rug Plot (the simplest ever)

Example 44 (iris dataset) .

SepalWidth



PetalLength



Hints for sense: Some observations clutter each other; standardize scale,

4.1.2 Histograms: (for more details check St 121.)

$$I_{(c)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } c \text{ is } T \\ 0 & \text{if } c \text{ is } F \end{cases}, \quad (\text{indicator function})$$

$$I_{(c)} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\Pr(c)).$$

For data x_1, \dots, x_n divide the data range T to K equal regions of equal width Δ (so that $K = T/\Delta$)

$$\begin{aligned} T_k &= [t_0 + \Delta k, t_0 + \Delta(k+1)[\\ &= [t_k, t_{k+1}[, \quad k = 0, \dots, K-1, \end{aligned}$$

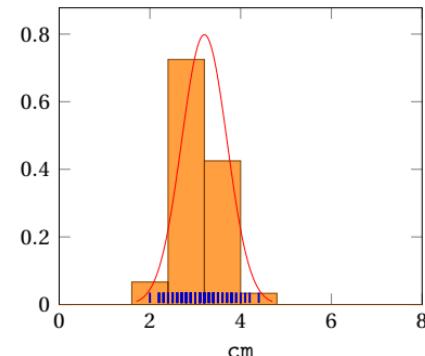
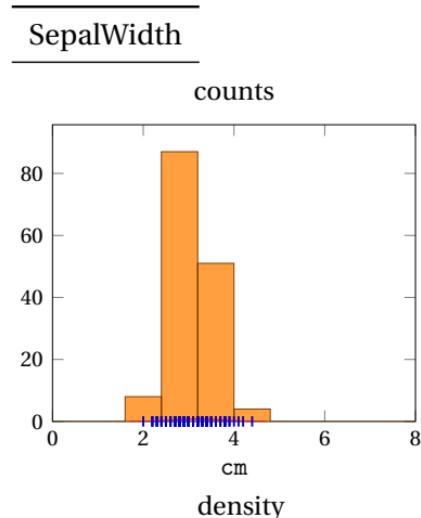
Notice: decreasing Δ increases K .

We have three versions of histogram:

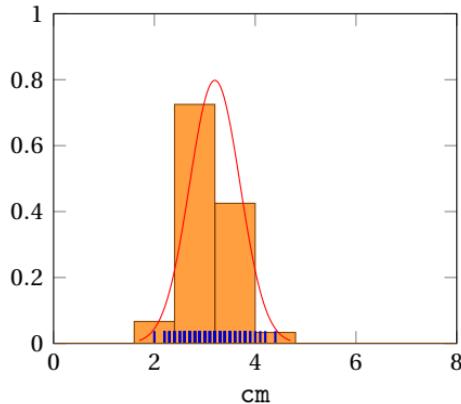
$$N_k = \sum_{i=1}^n I_{(X_i \in T_k)}, \quad (\text{counts})$$

$$R_k = \frac{N_k}{n} \xrightarrow{p} \Pr(X \in T_k) \quad (\text{relative counts})$$

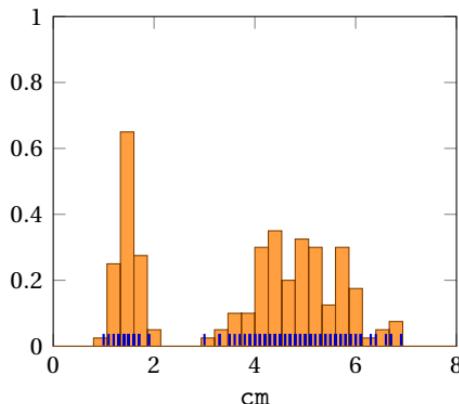
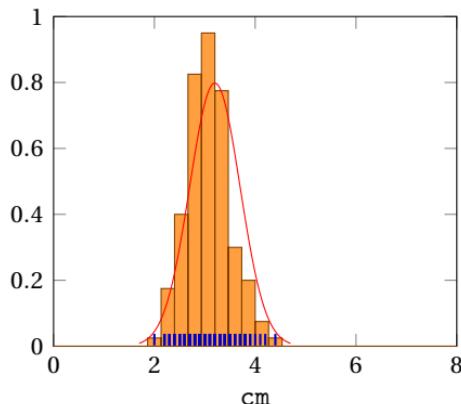
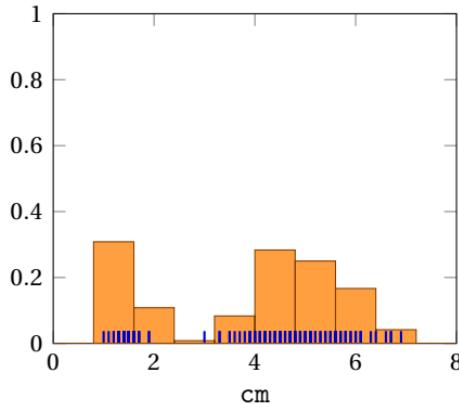
$$f_k = \frac{N_k}{\Delta n} \xrightarrow{p} \frac{\Pr(X \in T_k)}{\Delta} \approx \frac{f_X(t_k)\Delta}{\Delta} = f_X(t_k) \quad (\text{density})$$



SepalWidth



PetalLength



Hints for sense: bins = 10 vs. 30; unify X and Y scale for comparison;

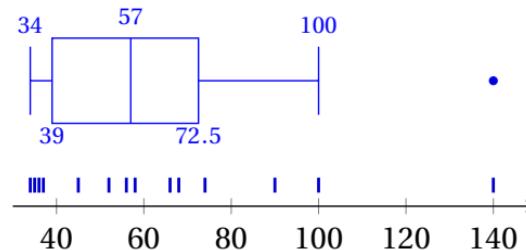
4.1.3 Box Plot

back to example 41

To observe at a glance: location, spread, skewness, tail length, and outlying data points.

lower whisker	lower quartile	median	upper quartile	upper whisker
$Q_L - 1.5d_Q \leq \min x_i = W_L$	Q_L	M	Q_U	$W_U = \max x_i \leq Q_U + 1.5d_Q$

Example 45 (Letter Values) .



Rank of M, QL, QU is 7.5, 4.25, 10.75

$$M = 56 + 0.5(58 - 56) = 57$$

$$Q_L = 37 + 0.25(45 - 37) = 39$$

$$Q_U = 68 + 0.75(74 - 68) = 72.5$$

$$d_Q = (72.5 - 39) = 33.5$$

$$39 - 1.5 \times 33.5 = -11.25$$

$$72.5 + 1.5 \times 33.5 = 122.75$$

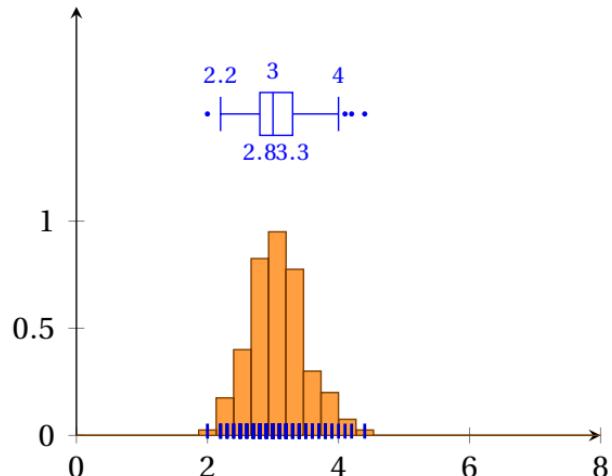
we could have defined a boxplot based on mean and variance => less resistant.

Why boxplot is not defined in terms of $W_L = \hat{F}^{-1}(0.05)$

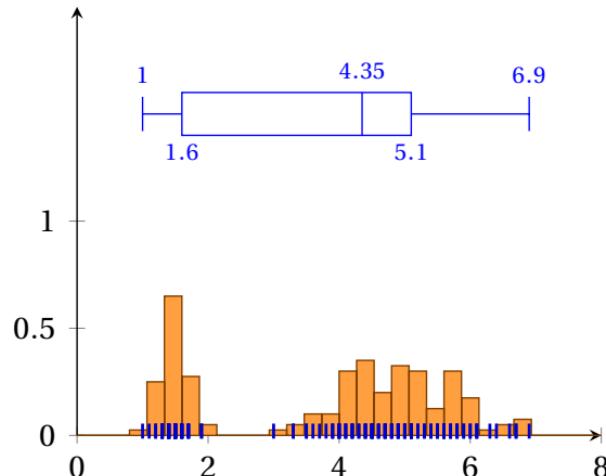
why boxplot is not defined in terms of mean and variance

for small patches $\Pr(X < W_L)$

SepalWidth



PetalLength



Comparison

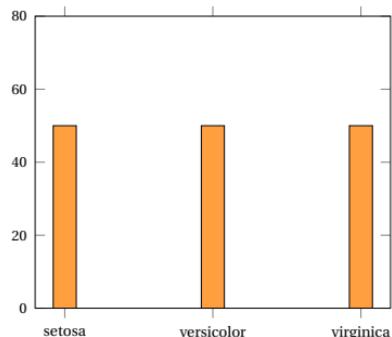
	Rug plot	Histogram	Boxplot
density	0 (clutter)	1	0 (region)
values	1	1	0 (region)
large N	0 (clutter)	1	1
resistance	0 (outliers)	0 (outliers)	1
discrete	0 (clutter)	1	1

Clutter could be alleviated by α -channel.

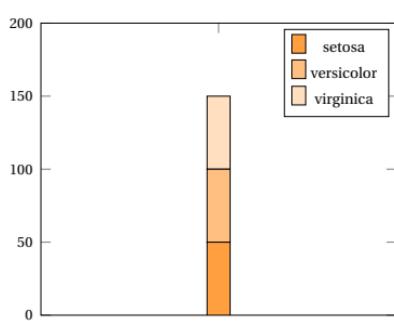
4.2 A Categorical Variable

Suppose we have only last column of table in Sec. 4.3; no numerical values. Only histogram-like charts: bar chart, stacked bar, pie chart, or any equivalent.

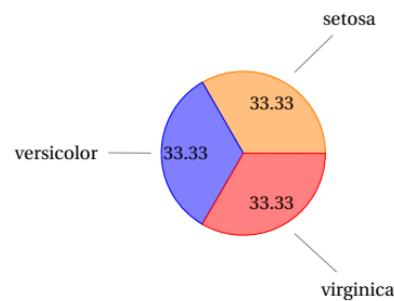
4.2.1 Bar chart



4.2.2 Stacked plot



4.2.3 Pie chart



- Bar chart is more professional and scientific; pie chart is more for illustration.
- More details can be put on the bar chart (including boxplot for each class, etc.)
- Bar chart and Stacked plot are utilized more for several patches.

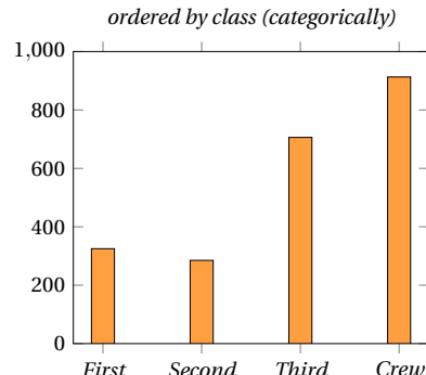
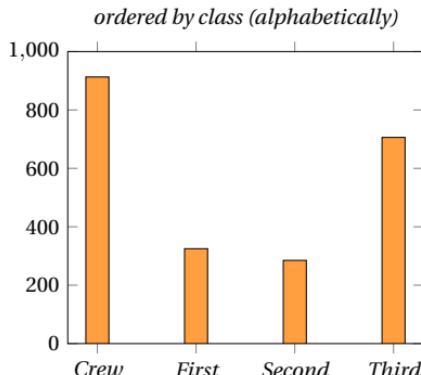
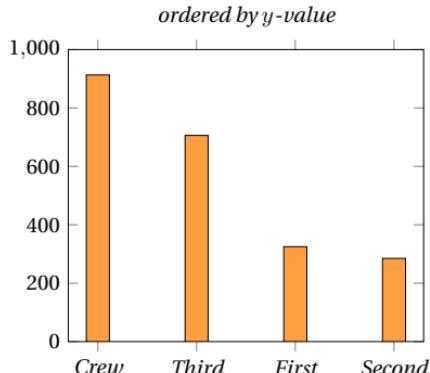
4.3 An Ordered Categorical Variable

Exactly as “bar chart” with ordered x -axis.

Example 46 (No. of Titanic passengers and crew) : We can consider the variable (*passenger class*) as:

- categorical (as previous example) and order by y -value. (sorting will provide more information for the same ink).
- ordered categorical and order it alphabetically (nonsense in this example).
- ordered categorical and order it by class rank (makes sense here).

Reproduced

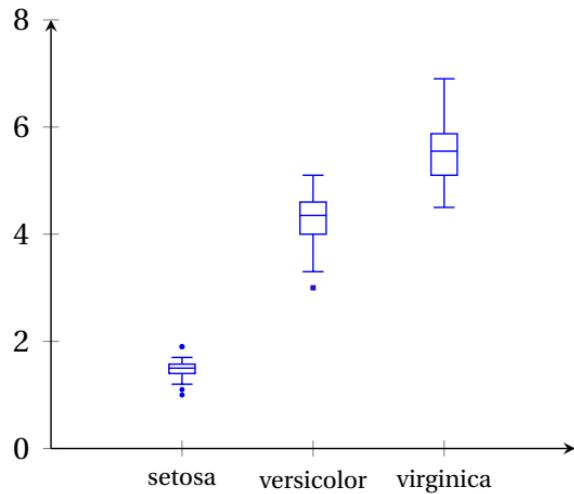
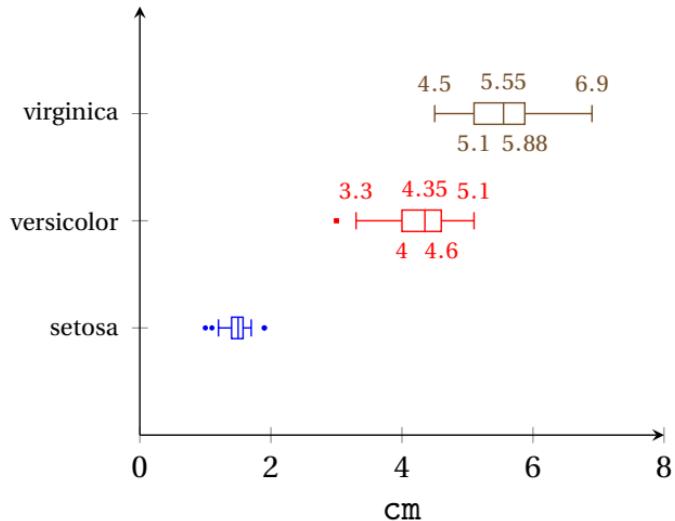


4.4 Two Variables

$$\{\text{Quant}, \text{Cat}\} \times \{\text{Quant}, \text{Cat}\}$$

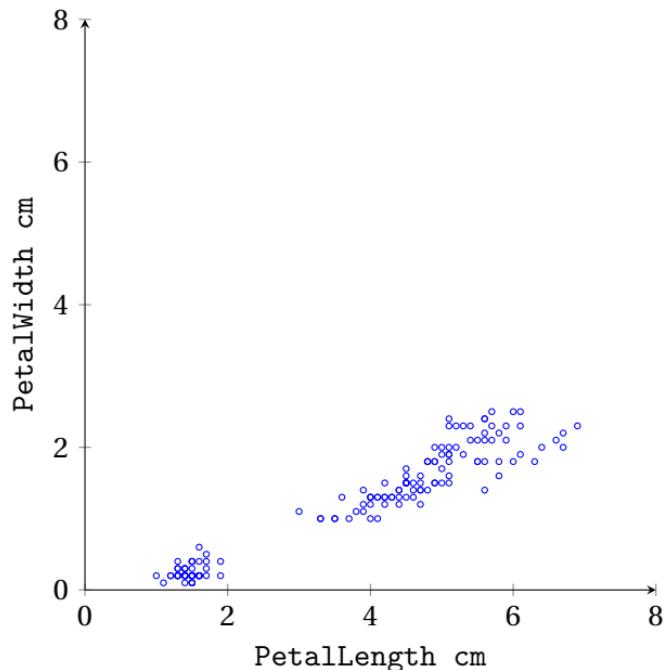
4.4.1 Quantitative-Categorical

PetalLength

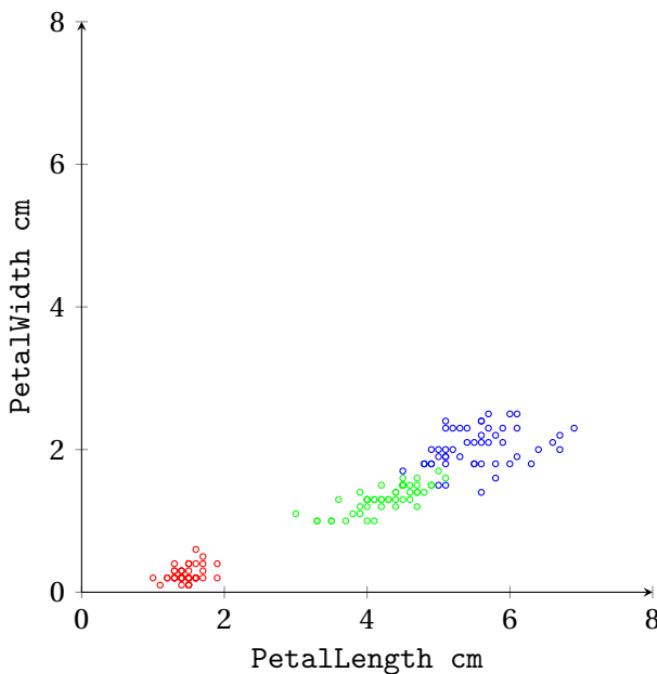


- coloring has no value here!
- categories here can be called patches.
- categories can be ordered by median

4.4.2 Quantitative-Quantitative



4.4.3 Quantitative-Quantitative-Categorical



- same scale for X and Y .
- DV points us towards the right model.

4.5 Contemplation in Higher Dimensions With a “Data Science” Coffee Blend: Mathematics, Software, و الشعر العربي, and Pattern Recognition

4.5.1 Scatter Matrix Plot and Parallel Coordinates

4.5.2 Illustration vs. Exploration

- Objective: teaching vs learning
- Software: (\LaTeX family) vs (data exploration family)

4.5.3 Rigor vs Ad-hoc & Theoreticians vs Practitioners

- Had we projected data to another subspace, would it be classified better!! Could we visualize it in a lower subspace, by using a set of orthonormal basis (Ex. 78)

$$\hat{Y} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'Y \quad \mathbf{P} = \frac{X_1X'_1}{X'_1X_1} + \dots + \frac{X_nX'_n}{X'_nX_n} = \mathbf{P}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{P}_n, \quad \hat{Y} = \mathbf{P}_1Y + \dots + \mathbf{P}_nY.$$

- **Practitioners** should have a basic level of rigor when applying and **Researchers** should have the most rigorous possible level.

4.5.4 من قصيدة “ذرف العبرات على من زعم التعرف على الأنماط بغير علوم الرياضيات”

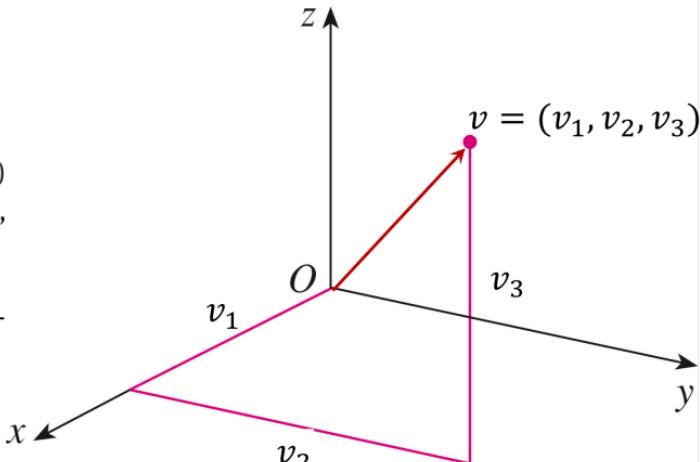
بيانات رسّمناها فكُنْ بصائرنا تُخَبِّرُنا اليقينا
فَرُبَّ مُصنِّفاتٍ قد أَيَّينَ وَمَا غَفَلَتْ عُيُونُ النَّاظرِينَا

Chapter 5

A Snapshot of Linear Algebra

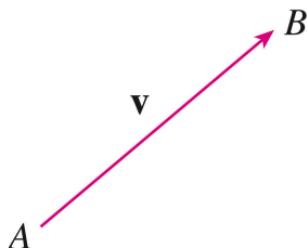
5.1 Back to School: visual space!

- We locate a point in a 3D space by three numbers.
- The coordinates are perpendicular.
- The order of the axes X, Y, Z : “right-hand” rule.
- The 3-tuple (3 ordered elements, or triple) $(v_1, v_2, v_3) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^3 = \{(x, y, z) | x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$, the set of all points.
- The following are equivalent (some books differentiate; we do not):
 - the 3-tuple $v = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$.
 - the point $v = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$.
 - the arrow connecting O to v , i.e., the vector $v = \overrightarrow{Ov} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$.
- The line segment \overline{Ov} consists of **all** points, not only v .

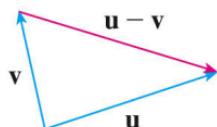
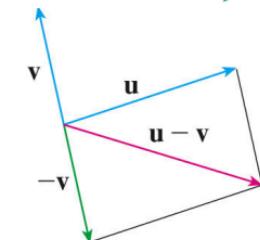
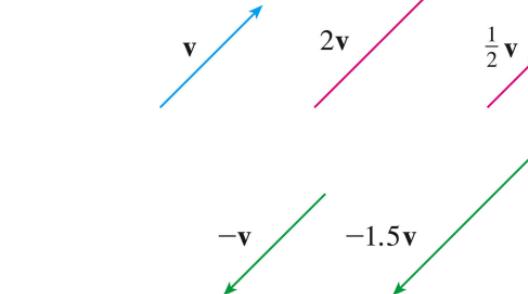
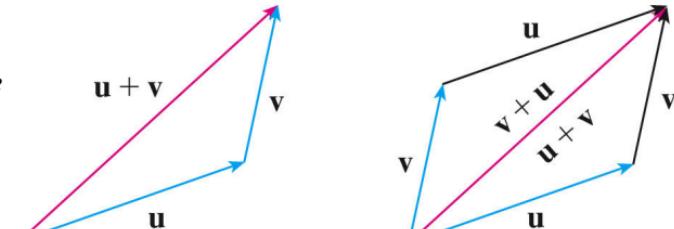


Definition 47 (Geometric Manipulation) .

- A vector is used to indicate a displacement in some direction; starting point is not important*
- Start at any point A , move a distance in the direction of \overrightarrow{Ov} , and end at B . Then, $\overrightarrow{AB} = \overrightarrow{Ov} = v$. ($B \neq \overrightarrow{AB}$; but $v = \overrightarrow{Ov}$)*



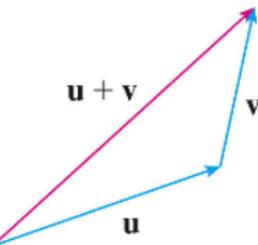
- Addition: $u + v$*
- Scalar Multiplication: If c is a scalar, then $u = cv$ is a vector whose length is $|c| \times \text{length of } v$ and direction:*
- Scalar and Addition:*



Definition 48 (Algebraic Treatment) . *Addition and**Scalar: if $a = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$, $b = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$:*

$$a + b = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, a_3 + b_3),$$

$$ca = (ca_1, ca_2, ca_3).$$

**Proof of equivalence.** Trivial. ■**Lemma 49 (Properties of Vectors)** . *For any two vectors a and b ,*

$$a + b = b + a$$

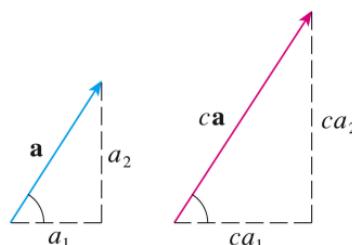
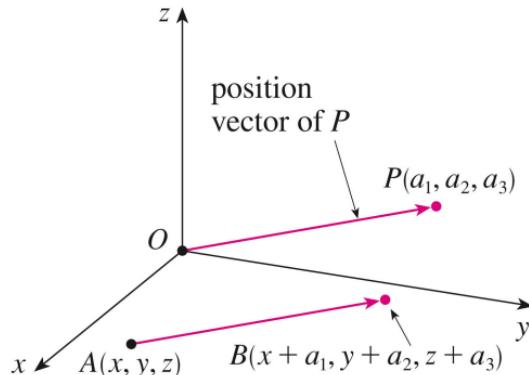
$$a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$$

$$a + \mathbf{0} = a$$

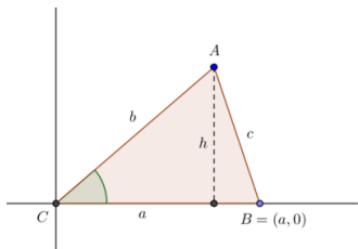
$$a + (-a) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$c(a + b) = ca + cb$$

$$(c + d)a = ca + da$$

**Proof.** It is quite straight forward to prove (HW) ■

5.2 Angle, Lengths, and Dot Products (visual space and school again)



- Notation: the vector u , with 3-tuple (u_1, u_2, u_3) is written as:
 $u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix}$ or $u' = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$.
- it is a school business to prove that (whether 2D or 3D):

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$$

$$\|u - v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 - 2\|u\|\|v\|\cos \theta$$

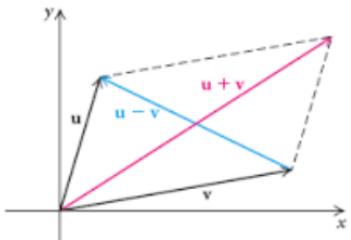
$$2\|u\|\|v\|\cos \theta = (u_1^2 + u_2^2) + (v_1^2 + v_2^2) - (u_1 - v_1)^2 - (u_2 - v_2)^2 = 2u_1v_1 + 2u_2v_2$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{u_1v_1 + u_2v_2}{\|u\|\|v\|}.$$

- This is why we defined the dot product to be:

$$u'v = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 = \|u\|\|v\|\cos \theta.$$

- When $u'v$ is zero we say they are orthogonal.
- If $u = v$, then $\theta = 0$, $u'u = u_1u_1 + u_2u_2 = \|u\|^2$.
- u is **unit vector** if $\|u\| = 1$. Then $\forall u$, $u/\|u\|$ is a unit vector.



$$u'v = \|v\|\|u\|\cos \theta = \|v\| \times \text{Projection Length of } u \text{ on } v$$

$$u'(v/\|v\|) = \text{Projection Length of } u \text{ on } v$$

$$v'(u/\|u\|) = \text{Projection Length of } v \text{ on } u.$$

Lemma 50 (Properties) .

- Basic properties:

$$u'v = v'u$$

$$\|au\| = |a|\|u\|$$

$$a(u'v) = (au)'v = au'v$$

$$(au + bv)'w = au'w + bv'w$$

$$(u + v)'(u + v) = u'u + 2u'v + v'v.$$

- Cauchy-Schwartz inequality: $-\|u\|\|v\| \leq u'v \leq \|u\|\|v\|$

Proof. immediate from both: $-1 \leq \cos \theta \leq 1$ and $u'v = \|u\|\|v\| \cos \theta$. ■

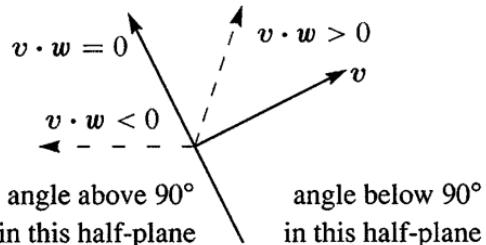
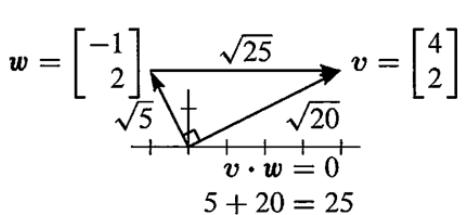
- Traingular inequality: $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$

Proof. $\|u + v\|^2 = (u + v)'(u + v) = u'u + 2u'v + v'v \leq \|u\|^2 + 2\|u\|\|v\| + \|v\|^2 = (\|u\| + \|v\|)^2$. ■

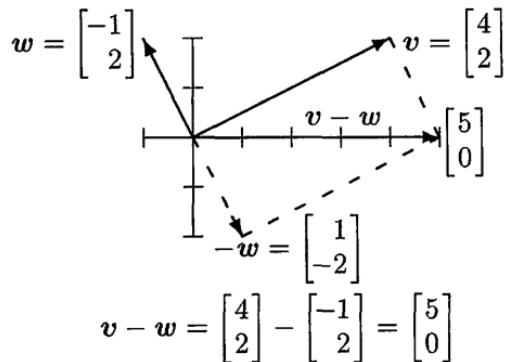
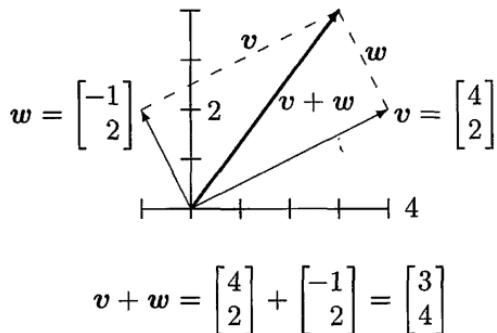
- Then, we can generalize this definition in higher dimensions, and define the angle between two vectors for $p > 3$.

Example 51 $w = (-1, 2)', v = (4, 2)', \text{ then}$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{w'v}{\|w\|\|v\|} = \frac{(-1)(4) + (2)(2)}{\sqrt{(-1)^2 + (2)^2}\sqrt{(4)^2 + (2)^2}} = \frac{0}{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{20}} = 0$$



Example 52 (Linear Combination) .



5.3 Extension and Abstraction: Vectors and Linear Combinations

Extension in both: meaning and number of components to treat applications.

Definition 53 (Vector) *The ordered p -tuple (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p) , $v_i \in \mathcal{R}$, is called a p -dimensional vector.*

Definition 54 (dot product (inner product), length, angle)

$$\begin{aligned}\langle u, v \rangle &= u \cdot v = u'v = \left(\begin{array}{c} u_1, \\ \vdots, \\ u_p \end{array} \right) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_p \end{pmatrix} \\ &= u_1v_1 + \cdots + u_pv_p = \sum_{i=1}^p u_i v_i \\ \|u\| &= \sqrt{u'u} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \cdots + u_p^2} \\ \cos \theta &= \frac{u'v}{\|u\|\|v\|}.\end{aligned}$$

Definition 55 (Linear Combination: generalization to adding vectors; this is the abstraction) .
Consider the two p -dimensional vectors v and w , and $c, d \in R$. We call $cv + dw$ a linear combination.

$$c \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_p \end{pmatrix} + d \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} cv_1 + dw_1 \\ \vdots \\ cv_p + dw_p \end{pmatrix}.$$

5.4 Rules for Matrix Operations

Definition 56 (Matrix) : A matrix $A_{m \times n}$ is a square array (of size $m \times n$) of “objects” (could be numbers could be other blocks of matrices). The element a_{ij} is located in row i and column j respectively. We say $A = (a_{ij})$ or in some books $A = ((a_{ij}))$ to denote:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Languages handle matrices differently; e.g., Matlab images, C (row-wise), Fortran (column-wise), etc.
- Traversing matrices is $\Theta(m \times n)$.

5.4.1 Matrix Transpose

Definition 57 The transpose of the matrix $A_{m \times n}$ is $(A')_{n \times m}$, where $A_{ij} = (A')_{ji}$

Example 58

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 18 & 17 & 11 \\ 19 & -4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, A' = \begin{pmatrix} 18 & 19 \\ 17 & -4 \\ 11 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Notice:

- $(A')' = A$.
- For vectors:

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 19 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, x' = (19 \quad -4 \quad 0).$$

we usually write $x = (19 \quad -4 \quad 0)'$, or $x' = (19 \quad -4 \quad 0)$ to save vertical space.

Definition 59 (Symmetric Matrices (around diagonal)) A square matrix $A_{m \times m}$ is called symmetric if $A_{ij} = A_{ji}$; i.e., $A = A'$.

Example 60 (write a SW to check the symmetry of) : $A = \begin{pmatrix} 18 & 17 & 11 \\ 17 & -4 & 0 \\ 11 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

5.4.2 Matrix Trace

Definition 61 For a square matrix $A_{m \times m}$, the trace, $\text{trace}(A)$, (for short $\text{tr}(A)$), is defined as the sum of diagonal elements; i.e.,

$$\text{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^m A_{ii}.$$

HW: write a C function to calculate the trace. (of course $\Theta(m)$)

Corollary 62

$$\begin{aligned}\text{tr}(A) &= \text{tr}(A') . \\ \text{tr}(x) &= x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.\end{aligned}$$

Proof.

$$\text{tr}(A) = \sum_i A_{ii} = \sum_i (A')_{ii} = \text{tr}(A').$$

■

Example 63

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 7 & 6 \\ 8 & 3 & 9 \\ 4 & -2 & -8 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{tr}(A) = -4.$$

5.4.3 Addition, Subtraction, and Scaling

Definition 64 For equal size matrices $A_{m \times n}$ and $B_{m \times n}$, and for a scalar λ :

- the matrix $C = A \pm B$ is defined as

$$C_{ij} = A_{ij} \pm B_{ij},$$

- the matrix $D = \lambda A$ is defined as

$$D_{ij} = \lambda A_{ij},$$

- we say that $A = B$ if $A_{ij} = B_{ij} \forall i, j$.
- and a matrix, all of whose components are zeros, is written as $\mathbf{0}_{m \times n}$.
- Of course, $A + \mathbf{0} = A$

Corollary 65 It is quite easy to show that

$$\begin{aligned}(A + B)' &= A' + B' \\ \text{tr}(A + B) &= \text{tr}(A) + \text{tr}(B)\end{aligned}$$

5.4.4 Matrix Multiplication

$$C = A_{m \times n} B_{n \times p} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & & b_{1p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & & b_{np} \end{pmatrix} = C_{m \times p}$$

The general element C_{ij} is the dot product of Row_i and Col_j :

$$C_{ik} = a'_i b_k = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} b_{jk} = a_{i1} b_{1k} + a_{i2} b_{2k} + \dots + a_{in} b_{nk}.$$

However, we can partition either (or both) $A_{m \times n}$ and $B_{n \times p}$ as rows and/or columns to see the multiplication differently. This has a great value in mathematical treatments and semantics. We have only 4 ways to do that:

1. $A_{m \times 1}, B_{1 \times p}$.
2. $A_{1 \times n}, B_{n \times p}$.
3. $A_{1 \times n}, B_{n \times 1}$.
4. $A_{m \times n}, B_{n \times 1}$.

Now, we will treat each case in detail.

1- As dot products

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \begin{pmatrix} a'_1 \\ \vdots \\ a'_m \end{pmatrix} (b_1 \quad \cdots \quad b_p) && (A_{m \times 1} B_{1 \times p} \text{ partitioning}) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a'_1 b_1 & \cdots & a'_1 b_p \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a'_m b_1 & \cdots & a'_m b_p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{1j} b_{j1} & \cdots & \sum_{j=1}^n a_{1j} b_{jp} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^n a_{mj} b_{j1} & \cdots & \sum_{j=1}^n a_{mj} b_{jp} \end{pmatrix} \\ C_{ik} &= a'_i b_k = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} b_{jk} = a_{i1} b_{1k} + \cdots + a_{in} b_{nk} \end{aligned}$$

Example 66

$$\begin{aligned} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 3+4 & 2+16 & 0-4 \\ 3+5 & 2+20 & 0-5 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 18 & -4 \\ 8 & 22 & -5 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

2- As linear combinations of columns of A

$$\begin{aligned}
 C &= (a_1 \quad \cdots \quad a_n) \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & & b_{1p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & & b_{np} \end{pmatrix} && (A_{1 \times n} B_{n \times p} \text{ partitioning}) \\
 &= (b_{11}a_1 + \cdots + b_{n1}a_n \quad \cdots \quad b_{1p}a_1 + \cdots + b_{np}a_n) \\
 &= (\sum_j b_{j1}a_j \quad \cdots \quad \sum_j b_{jp}a_j) \\
 &= (c_1 \quad \cdots \quad c_p) \\
 C_{ik} &= (c_k)_i = \left(\sum_j b_{jk}a_j \right)_i = \sum_j (b_{jk}a_j)_i = \sum_j b_{jk}a_{ij}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 67

$$\begin{aligned}
 C &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \left(3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 1 \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 4 \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad 0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + -1 \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \right) \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} (3+4) & (2+16) & (0-4) \\ (3+5) & (2+20) & (0-5) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 18 & -4 \\ 8 & 22 & -5 \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

3- As linear combinations of rows of B

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b'_1 \\ \vdots \\ b'_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{A}_{m \times n} B_{n \times 1} \text{ partitioning})$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b'_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}b'_n \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}b'_1 + \cdots + a_{nm}b'_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{1j}b'_j \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{j=1}^n a_{mj}b'_j \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c'_1 \\ \vdots \\ c'_m \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C_{ik} = (c'_i)_k = \left(\sum_j a_{ij}b'_j \right)_k = \sum_j (a_{ij}b'_j)_k = \sum_j a_{ij}b_{jk}.$$

Example 68

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1(3 & 2 & 0) + 4(1 & 4 & -1) \\ 1(3 & 2 & 0) + 5(1 & 4 & -1) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} (3+4 & 2+16 & 0-4) \\ (3+5 & 2+20 & 0-5) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 18 & -4 \\ 8 & 22 & -5 \end{pmatrix}$$

4- As summation of outer products, each is a matrix

Example 69

$$\begin{aligned} C &= (a_1 \quad \cdots \quad a_n) \begin{pmatrix} b'_1 \\ \vdots \\ b'_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{$A_{1 \times n} B_{n \times 1}$ partitioning}) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= a_1 b'_1 + \cdots + a_n b'_n &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (3 \quad 2 \quad 0) + \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} (1 \quad 4 \quad -1) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n a_j b'_j, &= \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 16 & -4 \\ 5 & 20 & -5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 18 & -4 \\ 8 & 22 & -5 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$a_j b'_j = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nj} \end{pmatrix} b'_j = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1j} b'_j \\ \vdots \\ a_{nj} b'_j \end{pmatrix},$$

$$C_{ik} = (\sum_j a_j b'_j)_{ik} = \sum_j (a_j b'_j)_{ik} = \sum_j a_{ij} b_{jk}.$$

Product with Diagonal Matrix

Definition 70 A matrix D is diagonal if $D_{ij} = 0 \forall i \neq j$; i.e.,

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & d_m \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since there is no confusion, we subscript d_i instead of d_{ii} . We also, for short, write $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$.

Row scaling:

$$D_{m \times m} A_{m \times n} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & d_m & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a'_1 \\ \vdots \\ a'_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 a'_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_m a'_m \end{pmatrix}$$

Column scaling:

$$A_{m \times n} D_{n \times n} = (a_1 \quad \cdots \quad a_n) \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_n \end{pmatrix} = (a_1 d_1 \quad \cdots \quad a_n d_n)$$

Definition 71 The identity matrix I is a special case diagonal matrix and defined as

$$I_{m \times m} = \text{diag}(1, \dots, 1)$$

It is obvious that $IA = AI = A$.

Transpose of a Product

Lemma 72 *For conforming matrices $A_{m \times n}$ and $B_{n \times p}$,*

$$(AB)' = B'A',$$

and more general

$$(A_1 \cdots A_n)' = A_n' \cdots A_1'.$$

Trace of a Product

The trace is defined only for a square matrix; hence, for a product to have a trace it must be $A_{m \times n}B_{n \times m}$.

Lemma 73 *For two-side conforming matrices $A_{m \times n}$ and $B_{n \times m}$,*

$$\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA),$$

and more general

$$\text{tr}(A_1 \cdots A_n) = \text{tr}(A_n \cdots A_1).$$

5.4.5 The Laws of Algebra

Theorem 74 $\forall A_{m \times n}, B_{m \times n}, C_{m \times n}, c \text{ scalar, we have}$

$$A + B = B + A$$

(commulative)

$$c(A + B) = cA + cB$$

(distributive)

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C,$$

(associative)

and

$$C(A + B) = CA + CB,$$

$(\forall A_{m \times n}, B_{m \times n}, C_{k \times m})$

$$(A + B)C = AC + BC,$$

$(\forall A_{m \times n}, B_{m \times n}, C_{n \times p})$

$$A(BC) = (AB)C$$

$(\forall A_{m \times n}, B_{n \times p}, C_{p \times q})$

$$A_{m \times n}B_{n \times m} \neq B_{n \times m}A_{m \times n}$$

$$A_{m \times m}B_{m \times m} \neq B_{m \times m}A_{m \times m}$$

Example 75 (Counter Example for $AB \neq BA$)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 8 \\ 12 & 18 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} & = & \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 11 \\ 12 & 23 \end{pmatrix} & \neq & \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 18 & 26 \end{pmatrix} & = & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \\ A & & B & & B & & A \end{matrix}$$

Example 76 Factor $Y = X P X + Q X^2 + X$ and find the constraints on the order of matrices.
It is clear that all matrices will be of order $m \times m$.

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= X P X + Q X^2 + X \\ &= (X P + Q X + I) X \\ &= X P X + Q X X + X \end{aligned}$$

Product with Scalar and Quadratic Forms

Back to Definition 48 it is very important, sometimes, to make sure of conforming even for scalars; i.e., we write

$$y_{m \times 1} a_{1 \times 1} \text{ NOT } ay.$$

This is because, sometimes, $a_{1 \times 1}$ itself is a matrix multiplication that if dissembled it should conform with the remaining of equation

$$\begin{aligned} a_{1 \times 1} &= x'_{1 \times m} A_{m \times m} x_{m \times 1} \\ y_{n \times 1} a_{1 \times 1} &= \underline{y_{n \times 1}} \underline{x'_{1 \times m}} A_{m \times m} \underline{x_{m \times 1}} \\ a_{1 \times 1} y_{n \times 1} &= \underline{x'_{1 \times m}} A_{m \times m} \underline{x_{m \times 1}} \underline{y_{n \times 1}} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{WRONG!})$$

Example 77 Expand and simplify $y = (x - \mu)' \Sigma (x - \mu)$, where x and μ are vectors and Σ is a symmetric matrix.

$$\begin{aligned}y &= (x - \mu)' \Sigma (x - \mu) \\&= (x' - \mu') \Sigma (x - \mu) \\&= x' \Sigma x - x' \Sigma \mu - \mu' \Sigma x + \mu' \Sigma \mu \\&= x' \Sigma x - x' \Sigma \mu - (\mu'_{1 \times p} \Sigma_{p \times p} x_{p \times 1})' + \mu' \Sigma \mu \quad (\text{scalar}' = \text{scalar}) \\&= x' \Sigma x - x' \Sigma \mu - x' \Sigma \mu + \mu' \Sigma \mu \\&= x' \Sigma x - 2x' \Sigma \mu + \mu' \Sigma \mu\end{aligned}$$

5.5 Projection

5.5.1 Projection on Single Vector

Suppose: $\mathbf{X}_{p \times 1} = X$. If $X' = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$, we simply get the first component Y_1 .

If $X' = (1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2})$, we project on the $\pi/4$ direction; this will be the value of the new vector in the direction of X .

$$\begin{aligned} X'Y &= \|X\| \|Y\| \cos(Y, X) \\ &= \|X\| \times \text{Projected Length} \end{aligned}$$

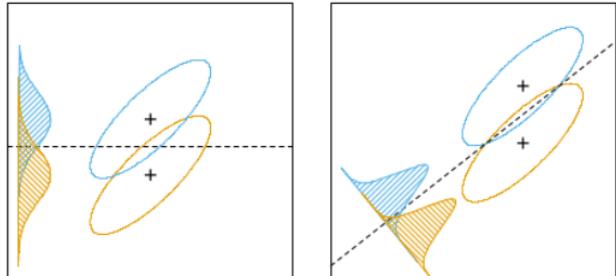
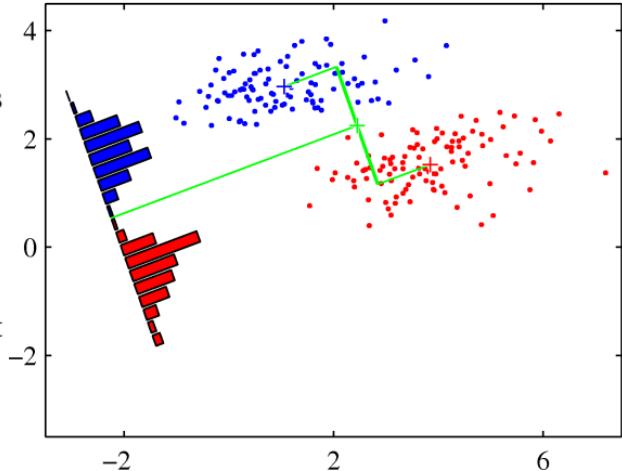
If we need the projected length only, then project on a unit vector $\frac{X'}{\|X'\|}$, then

$$\frac{X'}{\|X\|} Y = \|Y\| \cos(Y, X).$$

Multiply this scalar in the direction of the projection to get the new component in the direction X

$$\hat{Y} = \left(\frac{X}{\|X\|} \right) \left(\frac{X'}{\|X\|} Y \right) = \frac{XX'}{(X'X)} Y = \mathbf{P}_{p \times p} Y_{p \times 1},$$

where we call \mathbf{P} the projection matrix of the direction X .



5.5.2 Projection on Set of Vectors (subspace)

When we express a vector in lower subspace of vectors, the columns of $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$:

$$\hat{Y} = X_1\hat{\beta}_1 + \dots + X_n\hat{\beta}_n$$

We need to minimize (this is **optimization**) the remaining error

$$e = Y - \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}.$$

After we differentiate w.r.t. $\hat{\beta}$ and equate to zero we get:

$$e' \mathbf{X} = 0$$

, **perpendicular; wonderful!**. The solution will be

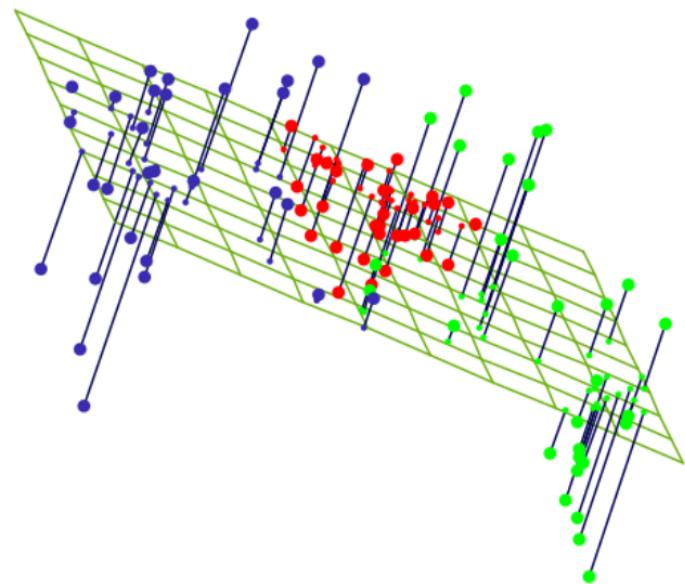
$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' Y$$

Therefore, the projection \hat{Y} is

$$\hat{Y} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}' Y$$

and the projection matrix \mathbf{P} is

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'$$



Interestingly, when X_i and X_j are orthogonal:

$$\mathbf{P} = \frac{X_1 X'_1}{X'_1 X_1} + \dots + \frac{X_n X'_n}{X'_n X_n} = \mathbf{P}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{P}_n$$

$$\hat{Y} = \mathbf{P}_1 Y + \dots + \mathbf{P}_n Y.$$

Example 78 (Simulation using Python) :

This is a very good opportunity to emphasize the contemplation of Sec. 4.5

Chapter 6

A Snapshot of Multivariate Probability and Statistics

6.1 Random Vectors

A p -dimensional random vector X is $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)'$ has joint pdf

$$f_X = f_{X_1, \dots, X_p}$$

Mean:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu &= EX \\ &= (EX_1, \dots, EX_p)'\end{aligned}$$

Covariance Matrix Σ ($= \text{Cov}(X)$):

$$\Sigma = E(X - \mu)(X - \mu)'$$

$$= E\left[\begin{pmatrix} X_1 - \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ X_p - \mu_p \end{pmatrix} (X_1 - \mu_1, \dots, X_p - \mu_p)'\right]$$

$$= E\begin{pmatrix} (X_1 - \mu_1)^2 & \dots & (X_1 - \mu_1)(X_p - \mu_p) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \\ (X_p - \mu_p)(X_1 - \mu_1) & & (X_p - \mu_p)^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \dots & \sigma_{1p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \\ \sigma_{p1} & & \sigma_p^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \dots & \rho_{1p}\sigma_1\sigma_p \\ \vdots & \ddots & \\ \rho_{1p}\sigma_1\sigma_p & & \sigma_p^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Σ is symmetric; i.e., $\sigma_{ij} = \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \text{Cov}(X_j, X_i) = \sigma_{ji}$

6.2 Multinormal Distribution

X is said to have a multinormal distribution ($X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$) if

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{((2\pi)^p |\Sigma|)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)' \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)},$$

$$\mathbb{E}X = \mu, \quad \text{Cov}(X) = \Sigma.$$

Remark: what is the case of $p = 1$?

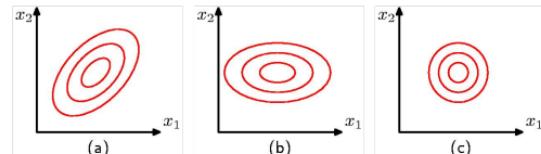
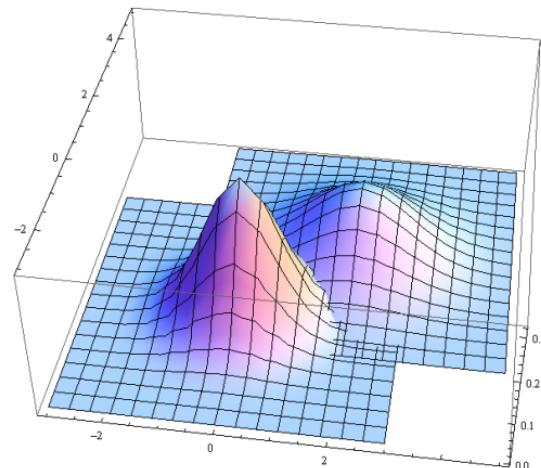
You can generate a covariance matrix by choosing $\sigma_i^2, i = 1, \dots, p$; then choose ρ_{ij} , where $-1 \leq \rho_{ij} \leq 1$. In the case of $p = 2$:

- (a) $\rho > 0$
- (b) $\rho = 0$, and $\sigma_2 < \sigma_1$.
- (c) $\rho = 0$, and $\sigma_2 = \sigma_1$.

For diagonal Σ (uncorrelated components),

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^p (2\pi\sigma_i^2)^{1/2}} \exp \left[\sum_{i=1}^p -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2} \right] \\ &= \prod_i \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_i^2)^{1/2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2} \right], \end{aligned}$$

which is joint of p independent normals. This is not the case for other distributions.



Simulations, why, and example:
Revisit Example 78 for Σ building and data generation.

6.3 Estimation

Estimation of μ and Σ is nothing but estimation of their components; in vector form:

$$\hat{\mu} \equiv \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i = \frac{1}{n} \left[\begin{pmatrix} x_{11} \\ \vdots \\ x_{1p} \end{pmatrix} + \dots + \begin{pmatrix} x_{n1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{np} \end{pmatrix} \right] = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_{i1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_{ip} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{X}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{X}_p \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_i - \bar{X})(x_i - \bar{X})' =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_{i1} - \bar{X}_1)^2 & \dots & \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_{i1} - \bar{X}_1)(x_{ip} - \bar{X}_p) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_{ip} - \bar{X}_p)(x_{i1} - \bar{X}_1) & \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (x_{ip} - \bar{X}_p)^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \widehat{\sigma}_1^2 & \dots & \widehat{\sigma}_{1p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \widehat{\sigma}_{p1} & \dots & \widehat{\sigma}_p^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Usually, we put data as $\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} x'_1 \\ \vdots \\ x'_n \end{pmatrix}$, then:

$$\hat{\mu}' = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x'_i$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-1} ((x_1 - \mu) \dots (x_n - \mu)) \begin{pmatrix} (x_1 - \mu)' \\ \vdots \\ (x_n - \mu)' \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{n-1} \mathbf{X}'_c \mathbf{X}_c.$$

Example 79 (Running example to Data Science II) :

$$\hat{\mu}' = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x'_i = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1}' \mathbf{X}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1}' \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 4 & 9 \\ 4 & 8 \\ 4 & 7 \\ 6 & 10 \\ 6 & 11 \\ 6 & 9 \\ 8 & 15 \\ 8 & 13 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (4.3333 \quad 8.5)$$

`mu = np.mean(X, 0)`

$$\mathbf{X}_c = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1} \bar{\mathbf{X}}' =$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|cc|cc} 0 & 2 & 4.333 & 8.5 & -4.3 & -6.5 \\ 2 & 6 & 4.333 & 8.5 & -2.3 & -2.5 \\ 2 & 7 & 4.333 & 8.5 & -2.3 & -1.5 \\ 2 & 5 & 4.333 & 8.5 & -2.3 & -3.5 \\ 4 & 9 & 4.333 & 8.5 & -0.333 & 0.5 \\ 4 & 8 & 4.333 & 8.5 & -0.333 & -0.5 \\ 4 & 7 & 4.333 & 8.5 & -0.333 & -1.5 \\ 6 & 10 & 4.333 & 8.5 & 1.7 & 1.5 \\ 6 & 11 & 4.333 & 8.5 & 1.7 & 2.5 \\ 6 & 9 & 4.333 & 8.5 & 1.7 & 0.5 \\ 8 & 15 & 4.333 & 8.5 & 3.7 & 6.5 \\ 8 & 13 & 4.333 & 8.5 & 3.7 & 4.5 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{X}_c = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{mu}$$

$$\widehat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-1} (\mathbf{X}_c' \mathbf{X}_c)$$

$$= \frac{1}{11} \begin{pmatrix} 70.667 & 94.0 \\ 94.0 & 137.0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6.4242 & 8.5454 \\ 8.5454 & 12.4545 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Sigma} = 1/(n-1)*\text{np}.dot(\mathbf{X}_c.T, \mathbf{X}_c)$$

In one step:
88

$$\text{Sigma} = \text{np}.cov(\mathbf{X}.T)$$

6.4 Transformation by Projection

Theorem 80 (Mean and Covariance Matrix after Transformation) : For any random vector $X_{p \times 1}$, any matrix of m column vectors $A_{p \times m}$, as a set of m projections from \mathbf{R}^p to \mathbf{R}^m such that: $A'_{m \times p} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha'_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha'_m \end{pmatrix}$,

We have:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E} A'_{m \times p} X_{p \times 1} &= A' \mathbb{E} X = A' \mu. \\ \text{Cov}(A'_{m \times p} X_{p \times 1}) &= A' \text{Cov}(X) A = A' \Sigma A.\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 81 (Normal Transformation) : If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ then $A' X \sim \mathcal{N}(A' \mu, A' \Sigma A)$.

Hints:

- The two theorems above are extension to the uni-variate case.
- Revisit Example 78

Chapter 7

A Snapshot of Optimization

7.1 Motivation and Applications

- *optimization problem* is an abstraction of how to make “best” possible choice of $x \in \mathbf{R}$.
- *constraints* represent firm requirements or specifications that limit the possible choices.
- *objective function* represents the *cost* to minimize or the *utility* to maximize for each x .

Examples:

<i>Any problem</i>		<i>Portfolio Optimization</i>	<i>Device Sizing</i>	<i>Data Science</i>
$x \in \mathbf{R}$	choice made	investment in capitals	dimensions	parameters
f_i, h_i	firm requirements /conditions	overall budget	engineering constraints	regularizer
f_0	cost (or utility)	overall risk	power consumption	error

- Amazing variety of practical problems.
- In particular, data science: two sub-fields: construction and assessment.
- The construction of: Least Mean Square (LMS), Logistic Regression (LR), Support Vector Machines (SMV), Neural Networks(NN), Deep Neural Networks (DNN), etc.

7.2 Mathematical Optimization

Definition 82 A mathematical optimization problem or just optimization problem, has the form:

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad f_0(x)$$

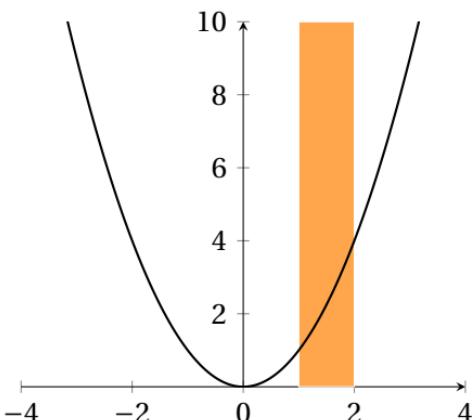
$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{subject to:} & f_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \\ & h_i(x) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, p, \end{array}$$

- $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$, optimization variable
- $f_0 : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, objective function
- $f_i : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, inequality constraints (functions)
- $h_i : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, equality constraints (functions)
- $\{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid f_i(x) = 0, h_i(x) = 0\}$, feasible set
- x^* , solution or optimal
if x^* is feasible and $f_0(x^*) \leq f_0(z) \forall \text{ feasible } z$.
- minimize $f_0 \equiv$ maximize $-f_0$.
- $f_i \leq 0 \equiv -f_i \geq 0$.
- unconstrained problem when $m = p = 0$.
-

Example 83 :

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad x^2$$

$$\text{subject to:} \quad x \leq 2 \wedge x \geq 1.$$



$$x^* = 1.$$

Example 84 :

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad (x_1 - 1)^2 + x_2 - 2$$

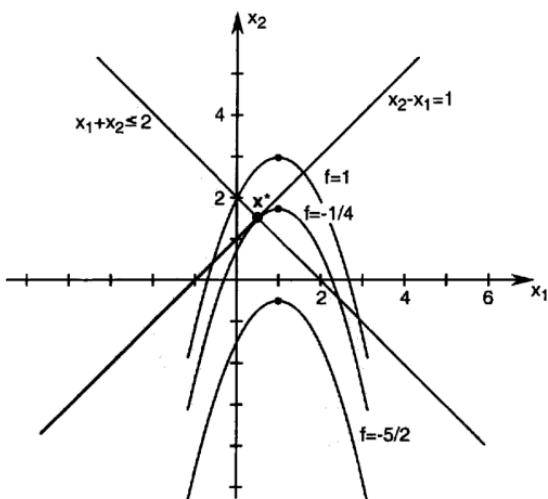
$$\text{subject to:} \quad x_2 - x_1 = 1$$

$$x_1 + x_2 \leq 2.$$

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad f_0(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{subject to:} \quad f_i(x) &\leq 0, & i &= 1, \dots, m \\ h_i(x) &= 0, & i &= 1, \dots, p, \end{aligned}$$

- $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$, *optimization variable*
- $f_0 : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, *objective function*
- $f_i : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, *inequality constraints (functions)*
- $h_i : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, *equality constraints (functions)*
- $\{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid f_i(x) = 0, h_i(x) = 0\}$, *feasible set*
- x^* , *solution or optimal*
if x^* is feasible and $f_0(x^*) \leq f_0(z) \forall \text{ feasible } z$.



$$x^* = (1/2, 3/2)'.$$

7.3 Solving Optimization Problems

- A *solution method* for a class of optimization problems is an algorithm that computes a solution.
- Even when the *objective function* and constraints are smooth, e.g., polynomials, the solution is very difficult.
- There are three classes where solutions exist, theory is very well developed, and amazingly found in many practical problems:

Linear Programming \subset Quadratic Programming (Least Squares) \subset Convex Optimization \subset Non-linear Optimization

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