

# Linear Algebra and Probability

The Extremely Abridged Version for Data Analytics

# Matrices and Vectors

Matrix: A rectangular array of numbers, e.g.,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ :

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

Vector: A matrix consisting of only one column (default) or one row, e.g.,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

# Matrix Math

If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ ,  $C = AB$ , then  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ :

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

Special cases: Matrix-vector product, inner product of two vectors. e.g., with  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$x^T y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

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

Distributive:  $A(B + C) = AB + AC$

Non-commutative:  $AB \neq BA$

# Operators and Properties

Transpose:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , then  $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ :  $(A^T)_{ij} = A_{ji}$

Properties:

$$(A^T)^T = A$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

$$(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

Trace:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , then:  $tr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ii}$

Properties:

$$tr(A) = tr(A^T)$$

$$tr(A + B) = tr(A) + tr(B)$$

$$tr(\lambda A) = \lambda tr(A)$$

If  $AB$  is a square matrix,  $tr(AB) = tr(BA)$

# Special Matrices

Identity matrix:  $I = I_n \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ :

$$I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i=j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$\forall A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ :  $AI_n = I_m A = A$

Diagonal matrix:  $D = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$ :

$$D_{ij} = \begin{cases} d_i & j=i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Symmetric matrices:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is symmetric if  $A = A^T$ .

Orthogonal matrices:  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is orthogonal if

$$UU^T = I = U^T U$$

- - -

# Linear Independence and Rank

A set of vectors  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  is linearly independent if

$$\nexists \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}: \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i = 0$$

Rank:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , then  $\text{rank}(A)$  is the maximum number of linearly independent columns (or equivalently, rows)

Properties:

$$\text{rank}(A) \leq \min\{m, n\}$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T)$$

$$\text{rank}(AB) \leq \min\{\text{rank}(A), \text{rank}(B)\}$$

$$\text{rank}(A + B) \leq \text{rank}(A) + \text{rank}(B)$$

# Matrix Inversion

If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ , then the inverse of  $A$ , denoted  $A^{-1}$  is the matrix that:  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$

Properties:

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

$$(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$$

# Really Useful Things Matrix Operations Can Do!

- Rotate a vector
- Solve linear systems of equations

A linear system might be described by the following equations:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 = b_2$$

$$a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 = b_3$$

These equations could be written in matrix form as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix equation could be written as:  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$

rotation matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x\cos\theta - y\sin\theta \\ x\sin\theta + y\cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

NOTE: this is a 2 by 1 column vector,  
not a 2 by 2 matrix.





# Probability

Sample Space  $\Omega$ : Set of all possible outcomes

Event Space  $\mathcal{F}$ : A family of subsets of  $\Omega$

Probability Measure: Function  $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with properties:

- 1  $P(A) \geq 0 \quad (\forall A \in \mathcal{F})$
- 2  $P(\Omega) = 1$
- 3  $A_i$ 's disjoint, then  $P(\bigcup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$

For events  $A, B$ :

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

$A, B$  independent if  $P(A|B) = P(A)$  or equivalently:  
 $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

Bayes Rule

**LIKELIHOOD**

The probability of "B" being True, given "A" is True

**PRIOR**

The probability "A" being True. This is the knowledge.

The diagram illustrates Bayes Rule with the equation  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) \cdot P(A)}{P(B)}$ . Yellow arrows point from the labels to the corresponding parts of the equation: 'LIKELIHOOD' points to  $P(B|A)$ , 'PRIOR' points to  $P(A)$ , 'POSTERIOR' points to  $P(A|B)$ , and 'MARGINALIZATION' points to  $P(B)$ .

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) \cdot P(A)}{P(B)}$$

**POSTERIOR**  
The probability of "A" being True, given "B" is True

**MARGINALIZATION**  
The probability "B" being True.

# Random Variables

A random variable  $X$  is a function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Example: Number of heads in 20 tosses of a coin

Probabilities of events associated with random variables defined based on the original probability function. e.g.,

$$P(X = k) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) = k\})$$

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)  $F_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ :

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

Probability Mass Function (pmf):  $X$  discrete then

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x)$$

pmf is also known as, a discrete probability density function

CDF:

$$0 \leq F_X(x) \leq 1$$

$F_X$  monotone increasing, with  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$ ,  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_X(x) = 1$

pmf:

$$0 \leq p_X(x) \leq 1$$

$$\sum_x p_X(x) = 1$$

$$\sum_{x \in A} p_X(x) = p_X(A)$$

# Common Random Variables

$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  ( $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} p & x=1, \\ 1-p & x=0. \end{cases}$$

$X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$  ( $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):  $p_X(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1}$

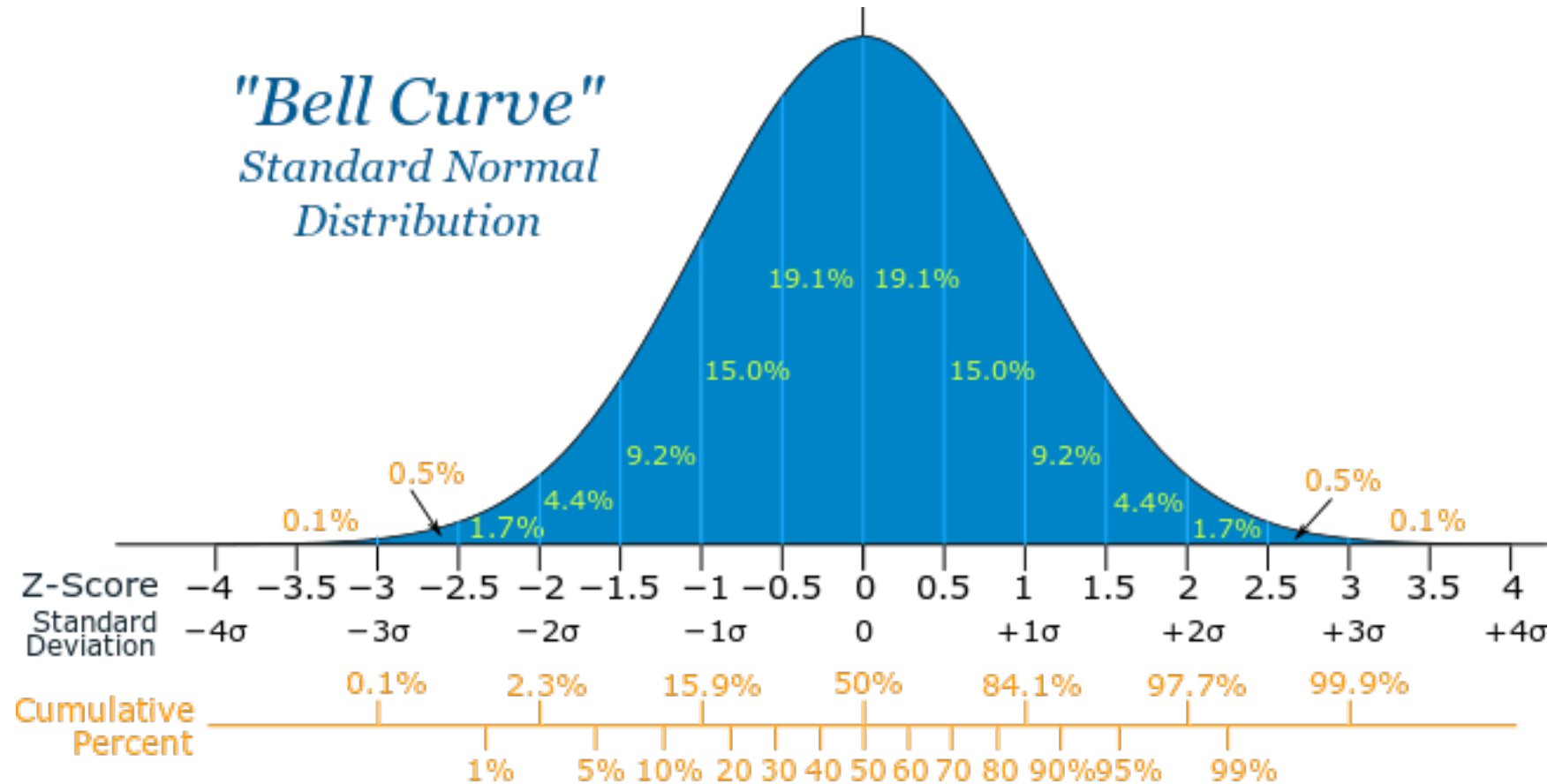
$X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$  ( $a < b$ ):

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ :

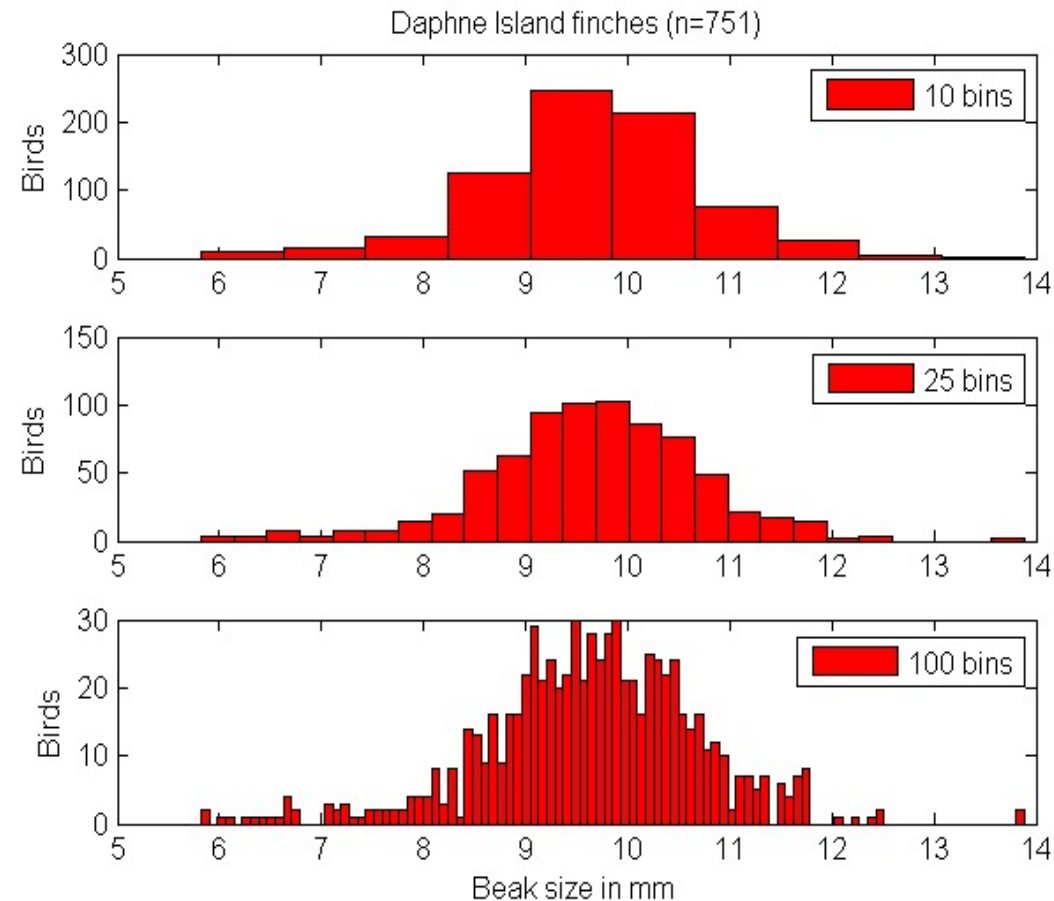
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

# Gaussian (aka Normal) Distribution

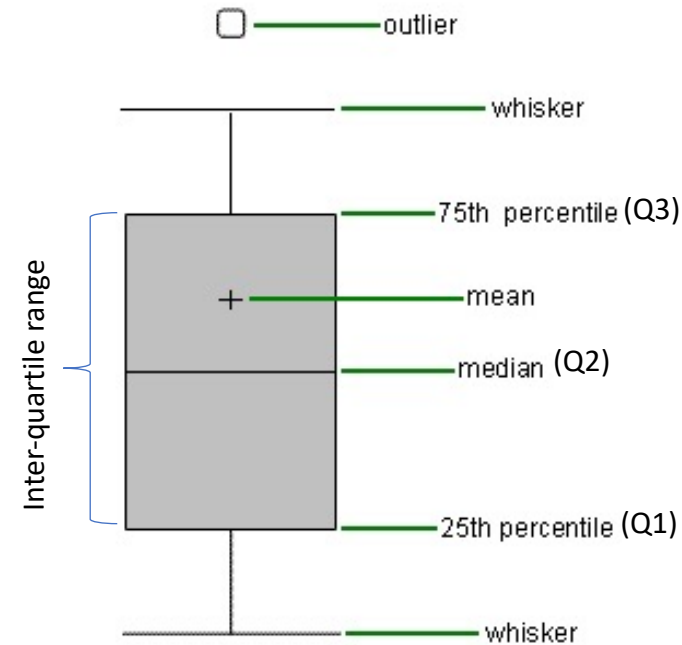


# Univariate Analysis – Continuous Variables

- Distributions



- Box and Whisker Plots & Quartiles

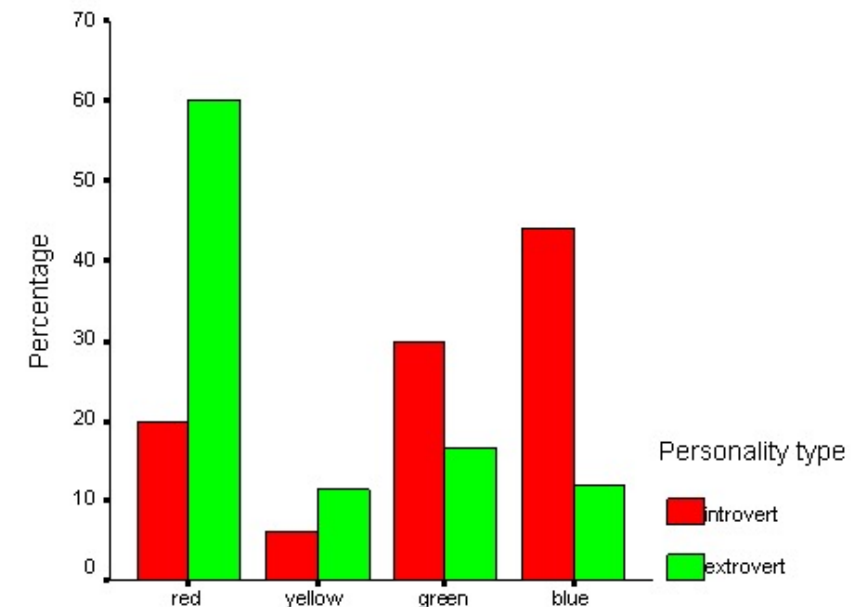
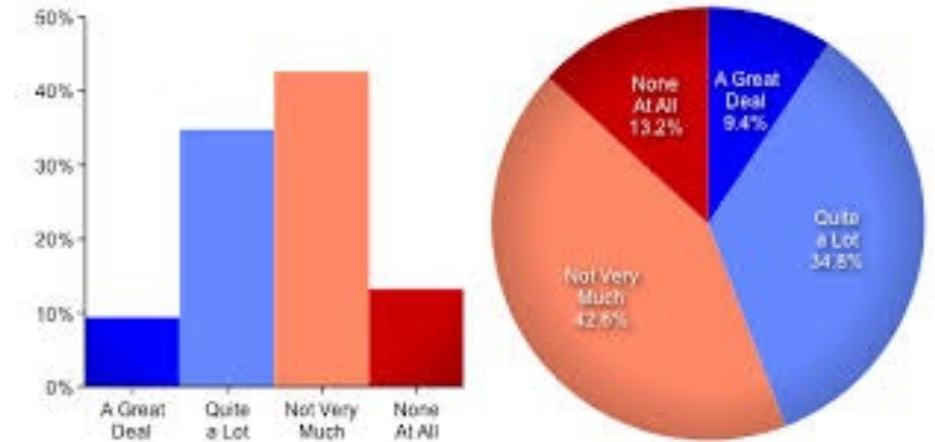


Outlier = larger than Q3 or smaller than Q1 by at least 1.5 times the inter-quartile range.

# Univariate Analysis – Categorical Variables

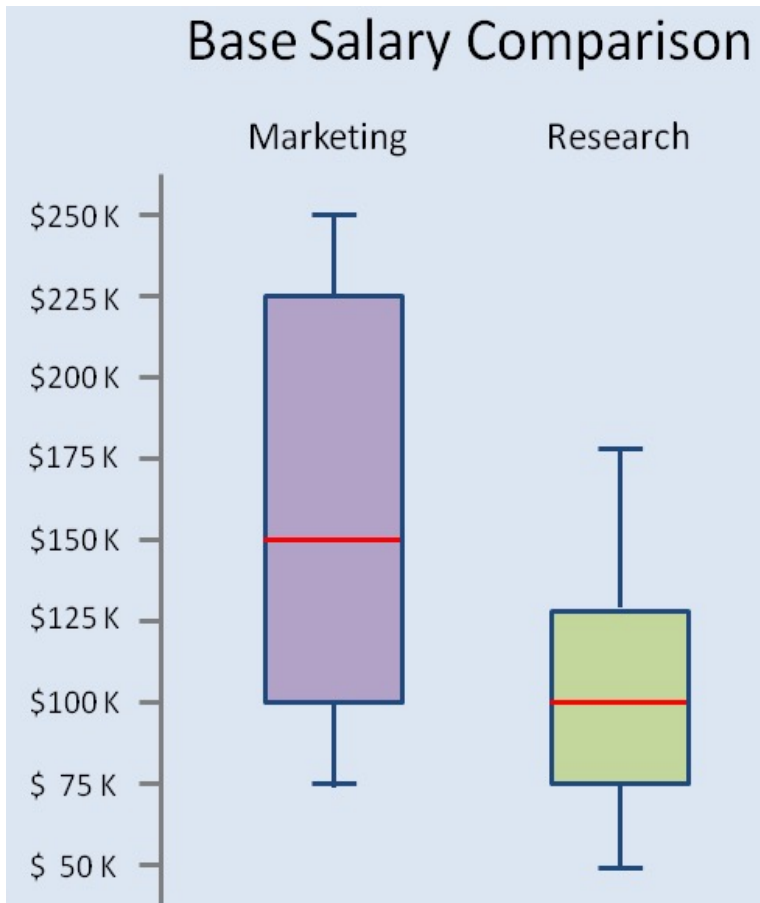
- Frequency Table, bar chart, pie chart

Degree	Frequency	Percentage
High School	2	5.0
Bachelor's	7	17.5
MBA	20	50.0
Master's	3	7.5
Law	4	10.0
PhD	4	10.0
	40	



# Bivariate Analysis – Continuous & Categorical

- Box and Whisker Plots



- Z-Test – is the difference in these statistically significant?

$$z = \frac{|\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2|}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

Example: For the Marketing group of 900 people ( $n = 900$ ), the mean score on the test was 9.78, with a std dev ( $s$ ) = 4.05.

For the Research group of 1000 people ( $n = 1000$ ), the mean score on the test was 15.10, with a std dev ( $s$ ) = 4.28.

$$z = \frac{(9.78 - 15.10) - 0}{\sqrt{\frac{4.05^2}{900} + \frac{4.28^2}{1000}}} = \frac{-5.32}{\sqrt{\frac{16.40}{900} + \frac{18.32}{1000}}} = \frac{-5.32}{\sqrt{.018 + .018}} = \frac{-5.32}{.19} = -28$$

Look up z-score in a table, see if it falls below  $p=0.05$ , if it does, reject the null hypothesis, there is a statistical difference

# Set Theory

Abridged from the excellent resource at

<http://www.math.clemson.edu/~mjs/courses/misc/settheory.pdf>



# What is a Set?

- A set is one of those fundamental mathematical ideas whose nature we understand without direct reference to other mathematical ideas. Quite simply,

A set is a collection of distinct objects.

# Subsets, Equality, and Size

- Two sets  $S$  and  $T$  are equal, written  $S = T$ , if  $S$  and  $T$  contain exactly the same elements.
- A set  $S$  is a subset of another set  $T$ , written  $S \subset T$  if every element of  $S$  is also an element of  $T$ .
- The cardinality of a set  $S$  is denoted  $|S|$  and is the number of elements in the set

# Intersections and Unions

- The intersection of two sets  $S$  and  $T$ , written  $S \cap T$  is the set of elements common to both  $S$  and  $T$ , i.e.,
  - $S \cap T = \{x : x \in S \text{ and } x \in T\}$
- The union of two sets  $S$  and  $T$ , written  $S \cup T$ , is the set of elements that are in either  $S$  or  $T$  or both, i.e.,
  - $S \cup T = \{x : x \in S \text{ or } x \in T\}$

# Set Differences and Complements

- The difference between  $S$  and  $T$ , written  $S \setminus T$ , is the set of elements in  $S$  but not also in  $T$ :
  - $S \setminus T = \{x : x \in S \text{ and } x \notin T\}$
- Relative to a universe  $U$ , the complement of  $S$ , written  $S^c$ , is the set of all elements of the universe not contained in  $S$ , i.e.,
  - $S^c = \{x : x \in U \text{ and } x \notin S\}$