

- Probability Sampling :- is the method of selecting sample from a large population based on randomness
- \* Simple random sampling :- Every person has equal chance of being selected
  - \* Cluster sampling :- The population is divided into clusters and a random sample of these clusters is selected. All member within the chosen clusters are included in the final sample
  - \* Stratified sampling :- The population is divided into homogenous, mutually exclusive subgroup called strata. Then, random samples are taken from each strata.

### → Non-Probability Sampling :-

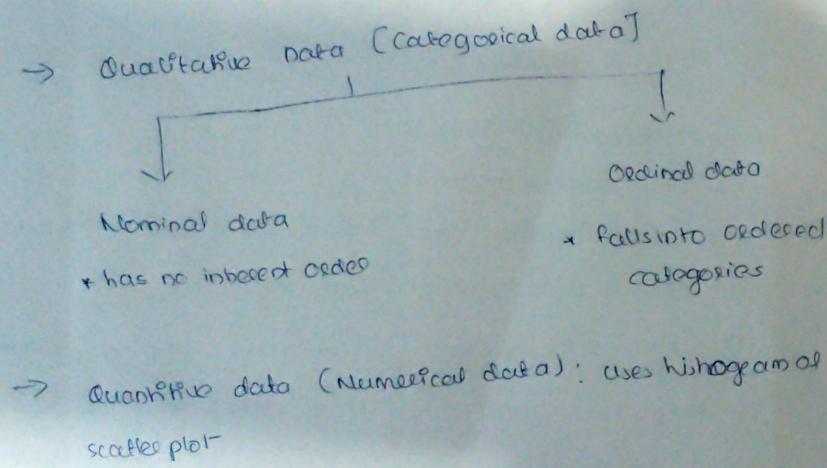
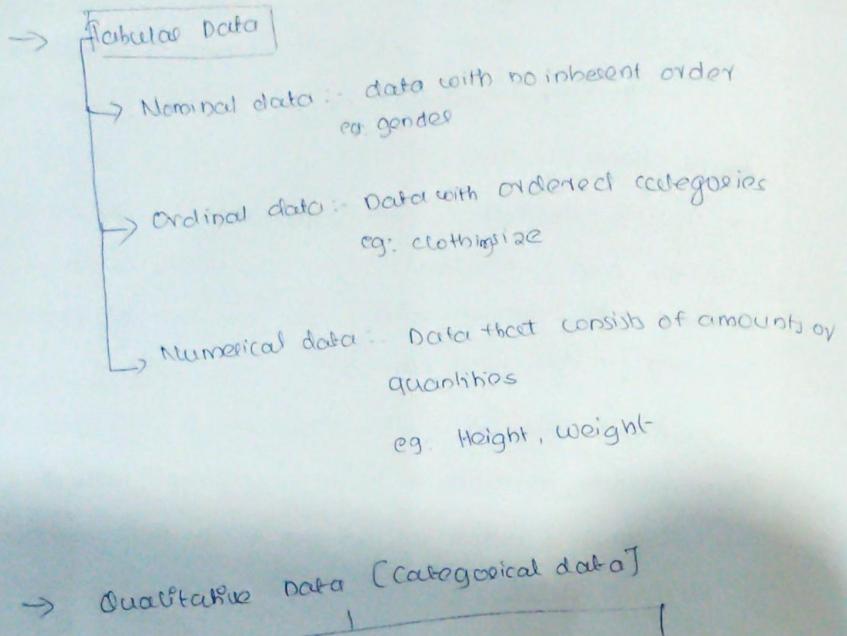
- non-random method
- no guarantee that every individual will be included
- has higher risk of sampling bias

i) Volunteer Sampling :- Volunteers make up the sample

ii) Purposive sampling :- A researcher use their best judgement to select a sample that they think is most fitting.

iii) Quota sampling :- Sampling is done until a specific number of units (quota) for various subpopulations have been selected.

iv) Snowball sampling :- participants recruit other participants to join the sample.



Interval data: - continuous interval : Temp

Quasi- Interval Data: - special case of Interval

Ratio Data :- Height

Year of Experience

Statistical Inference: - The process of using statistical analysis to deduce properties of an underlying probability distribution

Methods:

- \* hypothesis tests
- \* Confidence Intervals

null hypothesis

Alternative hypothesis

→ Classification:

B2B

Observation: - A situation where you want to make a prediction

- Each observation has certain aspects that describe the observation, and these are called attributes
- The attributes are known and each observation belongs to a specific category, which is called a class, and the class is not known.
- In classification, the goal is to correctly predict the classes of observations using the observations attributes.
- In order to make predictions, you need training data
- Training data consists of set of observations that have already been correctly classified, analyze the training data and then build something called a classifier

- A classifier is a algorithm that helps classify future observations whose classes you do not already know

Binary classification :- include two classes

Multiclass :- include multiple classes

### k-nearest neighbour algorithm (K-NN algorithm)

The algorithm finds the most similar data points to a new, unclassified point and uses their properties to make the decision

- Mean
- Median
- Mode
- Range
- SD : How far data points are from each other
- Normally distributed dataset:  
68% 95% 99.7%
- Sample : Subset of entire population
- Random sample : each sample has some probability
- Sample size : Number of units chosen.
- Central Limit theorem: states that as more and more

samples are collected, the average of all the individual samples will result in a normal distribution

- standard error: measure how big the diff might be b/w your sample average and the actual average of the entire population

- Confidence Interval : - will have both upper and lower limit

- Hypothesis tests :-

- bias :- Sample must be unbiased
- independence : data must be independent from other
- Systematic Sampling
- Opportunity Sampling
- Stratified Sampling
- Cluster Sampling : all units in one cluster are homogenous
- Standard error:

$$\sigma_p = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$$

standard deviation

- Q 80% of customers pay with a debit or credit card,  
25 customers are chosen at random each day. 68% of samples would have p-hats between:

$$P = 0.80$$

$$n = 25$$

confidence interval - 68,

Population : entire group ; complete data set

Sample : subset of population

•  $\mu$  - population mean

•  $\bar{x}$  - sample mean

•  $\sigma$  - standard deviation (population)

(how spread out the data in the dataset from its mean.)

$$\sqrt{\frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$$

•  $s$  - sample standard deviation

$$\sqrt{\frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$$

• Variance - square of S.D

• Quartiles are the values that divide a set into four equal parts.

$Q_1$  - first quartile

$Q_2$  - second " - Median

$Q_3$  - third "

$$IQR = Q_3 - Q_1$$

$$\text{Upper Limit} = Q_1 + 1.5 * IQR$$

$$\text{Lower Limit} = Q_3 + 1.5 * IQR$$

• Covariance : These measures how two variables change together ; positive covariance and negative covariance

• Correlation : How strong is the relation  
-1 to 1

→ Using numpy and ~~scipy~~

→ statistics module has mean, median, mode, stdev, variance

→ numpy.quantile()

→ numpy.percentile()

→ Hypothesis : The basic idea is to formulate a statement, or hypothesis and then use statistical tests to determine whether the evidence from your data supports or refutes it

Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) : states that there is no effect, no diff or no relationship

Alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) : contradicts the null hypothesis

If  $p \leq \alpha$ , you ~~reject~~ the null hypothesis

$p > \alpha$ , you ~~accept~~ the null hypothesis ;

[not accept, lack evidence to reject pt]

## Percentile & Quartiles

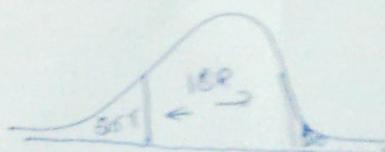
- Using percentiles, you may estimate the percentages of the data that should fall above and below a certain value
- 1st quartile - 25<sup>th</sup> percentile
- 2nd quartile, median - 50<sup>th</sup> percentile
- 3rd quartile - 75<sup>th</sup> percentile
- A quartile is a type of percentile

## Measures of Variability

- Variability describes how far apart data points lie from each other and from the center of distribution
- Variability is also referred to as spread, scatter or dispersion
  - \* Range : the diff b/w the highest and lowest values
  - \* Interquartile range :- the range of the middle half of a distribution
  - \* Standard deviation : average dist from the mean
  - \* Variance : average of squared dist from the mean

## Interquartile range :

- \* It gives you the spread of the middle of your distribution
- \* Contains half of the values



## Basic Bivariate Analysis

The analysis using two variables is referred to as

### Bivariate Analysis

#### Pearson Correlation

- Correlation is a statistical measure that expresses the extent to which two variables are linearly related.
- Correlation coefficient -1 to 1
- closer to zero, the weaker relationship
- positive value indicates a positive correlation, where the values of both variables tend to increase together
- Negative value indicate a neg correlation, where the value of one variable tend to increase when the values of the other variable decrease

$$\rho = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

#### Covariance

$$\text{cov}(x,y) = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{n}$$

#### Correlation

$$r(x,y) = \frac{\text{cov}(x,y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

→ Covariance measures how two variables change together. It indicates the direction of the linear relationship b/w variables

→ Correlation is a standardised version of covariance. It measures both the direction and strength of the linear relationship

→ The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) is a foundational concept states that the sampling distribution of the mean of any independent, rv will be normal or nearly normal, if the sample size is large enough

## Estimation & Hypothesis Testing

→ Estimation :-

When we try to conclude about the values of statistics

→ Type of Estimate :

\* Point Estimate

\* Interval Estimate

→  $H_0$  : null hypothesis

$H_1$  : Alternative hypothesis

To accept  $H_0$  we need evidence

→ Degrees of freedom

\* The number of values in a statistic's final calculation that are liable to vary is known as the degree of freedom or "df"

\* The entire number of measures -

Total number of measurement (limitations)

= number of degrees of freedom

\*  $(n-1)$

- The hypothesis we test or validate is called "Null hypothesis". Alternate hypothesis is the hypothesis that negates or challenges the null hypothesis.

→ Different types of Error

Reject $H_0$	Null hypothesis is True Type I error (FP)	Null hypothesis is false Correct outcome
Fail to Reject $H_0$	Correct Outcome	Type II error (FN)

→ Significance level and P-value

- The level where we want to fix the probability of Type-I error is known as the level of significance or simply significance level of the test

$P(\text{Type I error}) = \text{Level of Significance} = \alpha$

- Generally, we fix the value of alpha at a very low value (like 0.05 or 0.01)

→ P. value :

- P value indicates given a dataset, probability is that the null hypothesis is true

- If P value is lower than significance level, then we reject the null hypothesis. Else we accept the null hypothesis

## Applied Statistical Tests

- To validate some of the ideas

1, one tailed vs two tailed tests

2, Z tests

3, t-test

4, ANOVA

5 Chi-Square test

6 Parametric vs Non Parametric test

• One tailed vs Two tailed tests

• One tailed & two tailed tests in hypothesis testing are alternate ways of computing the statistical significance of a parameter inferred from a dataset

• Two tailed is used when we want to know the difference b/w two things, don't have specific direction

• One tail specific sp direction

### Z-test

• When sample size is greater than 30

1, State the null and alternative hypothesis

• Compute Z statistics

•  $H_0$  :- state there is no significant difference

$H_1$  :- Opp of  $H_0$

2, Set the significance level ( $\alpha$ )

3, Calculate the Z-test statistics

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - M}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$

$\bar{X}$  - Sample mean

M - Population mean

$\sigma$  - Population S.D

n - Sample size

4, Determine the critical value(s) or p-value

Find the critical Z-value from a standard normal distribution table that corresponds to your chosen  $\alpha$ .

If your calculated Z-test statistic falls into the rejection region (the tails beyond the critical value), you reject the null hypothesis.

5, Compare your Z-test statistic to the critical values(s) or p-value to the significance level ( $\alpha$ ).

If  $p\text{-value} \leq \alpha$ , reject the null hypothesis

$p\text{-value} > \alpha$ , fail to reject the null hypothesis

### t-test

- when standard deviation is not known
- we replace the population mean by sample mean
- follows a t-distribution with degrees of freedom  $(n-1)$
- compare the means of two groups

#### 1. State the hypothesis

$H_0$  : assumes there is no significant diff b/w the group

$H_1$  : states that a significant diff exists

#### 2. Choose the Right T-Test

There are three main types of t-tests

- One sample :- Compares the means of a single sample to a known or hypothesized mean
- Independent Sample T-test: Compares the means of two separate, independent groups
- Paired Sample T-test: Compares the means from the same group at two different times (before and after)

#### 3. Calculate The T statistic

$$\text{One sample : } T = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$

Two. Sample Independent :-

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{S_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}$$

$\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2$  - Mean of two samples

$n_1, n_2$  - Sizes of two samples

$S_p$  - pooled standard deviation of the two sample

$$S_p = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1-1)s_1^2 + (n_2-1)s_2^2}{n_1+n_2-2}}$$

Paired Sample :-

$$t = \frac{\bar{d} - M_d}{S_d / \sqrt{n}}$$

$\bar{d}$  - mean of the paired difference

$M_d$  - hypothesized population mean of diff (usually 0)

$S_d$  - standard deviation of the diff.

$n$  - Number of paired observations

#### 4. Determine the Degrees of freedom (df)

$$df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$$

#### 5. Find the Critical Value or P-value

Using your degree of freedom and a chosen significance level

Find the critical t-value from a t-table

If your calculated t-statistic is larger than the critical t-value you reject the null hypothesis.

Calculated  $t > t_{critical}$  : reject null

### F distribution

→ To compare two variances.

1. State hypothesis

$H_0$  : Variances are equal

$H_1$  : Variances are not equal

2. Set the significance level ( $\alpha$ )

3. Calculate the F-test statistic

$$F = \frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$$

$s_1^2$  - Larger sample variance

$s_2^2$  - The smaller sample variance

4. Determine the Degree of freedom

Numerator degree of freedom (df<sub>1</sub>) :  $n_1 - 1$

Denominator degree of freedom (df<sub>2</sub>) :  $n_2 - 1$

5. Find the critical value or p-value

If your calculated F-statistic is greater than the critical F-value from the table, you reject the null hypothesis

$F_{calculated} > F_{critical}$  : reject  $H_0$

Parametric Test

Z-test

t-test

ANOVA

Non-Parametric Test

Chi-square test

- Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

m: rows  
n: columns  
m x n

- Rectangular matrix
- Square matrix
- Diagonal matrix
- Symmetrical matrix  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$
- Identity matrix - I  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 3 \\ 9 & 4 \\ 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 11 & 31 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D+C = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 5 \\ 12 & 8 \\ 11 & 38 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Matrix multiplication
- Scalar multiplication

$$1 \times A = D$$

m x n      m x r

$$\begin{bmatrix} -5 & -1 \\ -6 & 0 \\ 11 & 21 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 15 & 6 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (-75-1) & (-30-2) & (-80-3) \\ (-90+0) & -36 & -84 \\ (165+21) & 66+48 & 44+72 \end{bmatrix}$$

M            A

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -76 & -32 & -23 \\ -90 & -36 & -84 \\ 186 & 114 & 116 \end{bmatrix}$$

A.M

$$\begin{bmatrix} 15 & 6 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -5 & -1 \\ -6 & 0 \\ 11 & 24 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -75-36+44 & -15+0+96 \\ -5-12+33 & -1+0+72 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -67 & 81 \\ 16 & 71 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 75 \\ 36 \\ 8 \\ 44 \\ \hline 27 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 113 \\ 33 \\ 19 \\ \hline 18 \end{array}$$

Transpose  $[A^T]$

$$A: \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$2 \times 4$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 2 & 8 \\ 3 & 9 \\ 4 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$4 \times 2$

- $M = M^T$ ; then it's a symmetric matrix

- Determinant : only applicable only for square matrix

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 19 \\ 9 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [90 - 108]$$

$$|M| = -38$$

- Inverse of matrix

$$MM^{-1} = I$$

$M^{-1}$  does not exist when  $|M| = 0$

A.  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$     V =  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$     U =  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$     W =  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$AV = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AU = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AW = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Eigen vector

- Eigen value

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$\lambda$  - eigenvalue

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$\lambda$  = eigen value

v - eigen vector

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$$(A \cdot v) - (\lambda \cdot v) = 0$$

$$(A - \lambda I)v = 0$$

$$A - \lambda I = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad v \text{ is non-zero}$$

$$|(A - \lambda I)| = 0$$

Find eigenvalue of

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} 1-\lambda & 4 \\ 3 & 2-\lambda \end{matrix}$$

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$$\begin{vmatrix} -d & 1 \\ 1 & -d \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(-d)^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$d^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$d = \pm 1$$

eigen values are +1 and -1

$$(A - dI)v = 0$$

when  $d=1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$-x_1 + x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 - x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 = x_2$$

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$d = -1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$y_1 + y_2 = 0$$

$$y_1 + y_2 = 0$$

$$y_1 = -y_2$$

$$y_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - d \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} d & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 2-d & 1 \\ 0 & 2-d \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(2-d)(2-d) - 1 = 0$$

$$4 - 2d - 2d + d^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$d^2 - 4d + 4 = 0$$

$$d = 2$$

eigen value = 2

when  $d = 2$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$x_2 = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

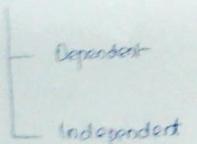
## Pillars of O.S

- 1. Lin. alg.
- 2. Prob. of statistics
- 3. Calculus
- 4. Comp. Science

## Probability

- Sample space:
- Event  $\rightarrow$  set of outcome from sample space
- Probability  $\rightarrow$  chance of occurrence of event
  - $\frac{\text{(event) count}}{\text{Sample count}}$

## Event



- Joint Probability ; Marginal probability ; Conditional probability
- $p(C) = \frac{15}{32}$        $p(T) = \frac{17}{32}$

$$p(m) = \frac{2}{32}$$

$$p(n) = \frac{30}{32}$$

	M	N	
C	$\frac{30}{(32)^2}$	$\frac{450}{(32)^2}$	$\frac{180}{(32)^2}$
T	$\frac{34}{(32)^2}$	$\frac{17 \times 30}{(32)^2}$	$\frac{117}{(32)}$
	$64/(32)^2$	$960/(32)^2$	$32 \times 32$

$$P(T) = P(T, M) + P(T, N)$$

$$= \frac{34}{32} + \frac{17/32}{(32)^2}$$

Spec - 9

$$\begin{aligned} \text{M/S} &= 23 \\ \text{G/M} &= 15 \\ \text{B} &= 17 \end{aligned}$$

	S	M/S
G	$\frac{9}{32} \times \frac{15}{32}$	$\frac{23}{32} \times \frac{15}{32}$
B	$\frac{9}{32} \times \frac{17}{32}$	$\frac{23}{32} \times \frac{17}{32}$

$$P(G, S) = \frac{135}{(32)^2}$$

$$P(G, M/S) = \frac{345}{(32)^2}$$

$$P(B, S) = \frac{153}{(32)^2}$$

$$P(B, M/S) = \frac{391}{(32)^2}$$

Conditional probability :-

$$P(R/C) = \frac{P(R \cap C)}{P(C)}$$

$$P(C|R) = \frac{P(C \cap R)}{P(R)}$$

$$P(R|C) = P(C|R) \times P(R)$$

$$P(C|R) = P(C|R) \times P(R)$$

$$P(R|C) \times P(C) = P(C|R) \times P(R)$$

$$P(R|C) = \frac{P(C|R) \times P(R)}{P(C)}$$

Baye's theorem | Baye's rule

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

P(B) - Prior

P(BA) - Likelihood

P(A|B) - posterior

P(B) - evidence

Rainy

$$P(C|R) = 0.6$$

$$P(C|R') = 0.4$$

not raining

$$P(C|R) = 0.1$$

$$P(C|R') = 0.9$$

$$P(R|C) = \frac{P(C|R) \times P(R)}{P(C)}$$

$$= 0.6 \times 0.75$$

$$P(C)$$

$$P(C|R) = 0.6$$

$$P(C|R') = 0.1$$

$$P(C) = ?$$

$$P(C|R) = \frac{P(C|R)}{P(R)}$$

$$P(C|R') = \frac{P(C|R')}{P(R')} \quad , \quad P(C|R) = \frac{P(C|R)}{P(R)}$$

$$P(C|R) + P(C|R') = P(C)$$

$$P(C|R) = \frac{P(C|R)}{P(R)}$$

$$P(C) = P(C|R)P(R) + P(C|R')P(R')$$

$$= 0.6 \times 0.75 + 0.1 \times 0.25$$

$$= 0.475$$

$$P(R|C) = \frac{0.6 \times 0.75}{0.475} = 0.947$$

## LINEAR ALGEBRA

- Algebra is a branch of mathematics in which arithmetical operations and formal manipul<sup>n</sup> are applied to abstract symbols rather than specific numbers
- Linear Algebra is a branch of mathematics that lets you concisely describe coordinates and interactions of planes in higher dimensions and perform oper<sup>n</sup> on them
- study of vectors and linear functions
- main building blocks are linear equ<sup>n</sup>,  
vectors and matrices  
linear transform<sup>n</sup>,  
determinants and vector spaces

### Imp Applications:

- 1) Data set and Data files
- 2) Images and Photographs
- 3) Data Preparation ; One hot encoding

The process of converting categorical data into a numerical format that machine learning algorithm can understand

- 4) Linear Regression
- 5) Regularization
- 6) Principal Component Analysis

- 7) Latent Semantic Analysis
- 8) Recommendation Systems
- 9) Deep Learning

Vectors :- is a one-dimensional array of numbers

- \* dimensionality: the no: of elements in the vector
- \* orientation: column orientation or row orientation

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

3D column vector

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

3D row vector

vectorAsList : [1,2,3,4,5]

vectorAsArray : np.array([1,2,3,4,5])

rowVector = np.array([[1,2,3,4,5]])

columnVector = np.array([[1]])

np.array([[[1],[2],[3],[4],[5]]])

### Dot multiplication

$$\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$$

$$\bar{a} = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]$$

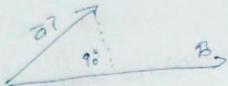
$$\bar{b} = [6, 7, 8, 9, 10]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} &= b \cdot c \\ a \cdot (b+c) &= a \cdot b + a \cdot c \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} &= 1 \cdot 6 + 2 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot 8 + 4 \cdot 9 + 5 \cdot 10 \\ &= 130 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Magnitude} = \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}}$$

Vector projection of a vector  $a$  onto a vector  $b$



$$\text{formula: } \text{Proj}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2} \mathbf{b}$$

Vector projection is the process of finding how much of one vector,  $\mathbf{a}$ , is in the direction of another vector  $\mathbf{b}$ . You can think of it as the shadow that vector  $\mathbf{a}$  casts onto a line defined by vector  $\mathbf{b}$ . The result of a vector projection is another vector that points in the same direction of  $\mathbf{b}$ , but with a length equal to the shadow.

### Basic vectors

$\rightarrow e_1$  and  $e_2$  are called unit vectors along the x-axis and y-axis  $(1, 0)$   $(0, 1)$

$\rightarrow$  any vector can be represented uniquely as a combination of <sup>basic unit</sup> vectors

$\rightarrow$  Unit vectors or basis vectors form a basis for space  
 $\rightarrow$  Any vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in space can be written as a linear combination of these two vectors.

$\rightarrow$  If dot products are zero, then orthogonal

$$e_1 = [1, 0]$$

$$e_2 = [0, 1]$$

$$v = [2, 3]$$

$$= 2[1, 0] + 3[0, 1]$$

new basis

$$b_1 = [1, 1]$$

$$b_2 = [-1, 1]$$

Find new coordinates of vector  $v$  in this new basis

Projection of  $v$  onto  $b_1$

$$\text{Proj}_{b_1} v = \frac{v \cdot b_1}{\|b_1\|^2}$$

$$v \cdot b_1 = (2)(1) + 3(1) = 5$$

$$\|b_1\|^2 = 1^2 + 1^2 = 2$$

$$c_1 = 5/2 = 2.5$$

$$\text{Proj}_{b_2} v = \frac{v \cdot b_2}{\|b_2\|^2} =$$

$$V.b_2 = (2)(-1) + (3)(1) = 1$$

$$\|b_2\|^2 = (-1)^2 + 1^2 = 2$$

$$c_2 = \|b_2\|^{-1} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$V_{new} = [c_1, c_2] = [2, \sqrt{2}, 0.5]$$

### Spanning Set:

Types of matrix transformation:-

Scaling

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Inversion

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{rotation matrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{1d.v}{\|v\| \|d\|} = \frac{100}{40} = 2.5$$

$$C = (0e + 1)(e) = 1d.v$$

$$0.e_1 + e_1 = \frac{e_1}{\|e_1\| \|d\|}$$

$$0.e_2 + e_2 = \frac{e_2}{\|e_2\| \|d\|}$$

$$\frac{6d.v}{\|v\| \|d\|} = \frac{200}{40} = 5$$