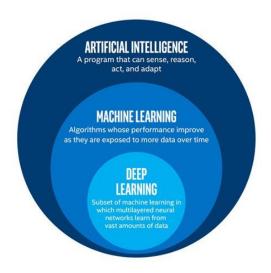
# EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS FOR MACHINE LEARNING

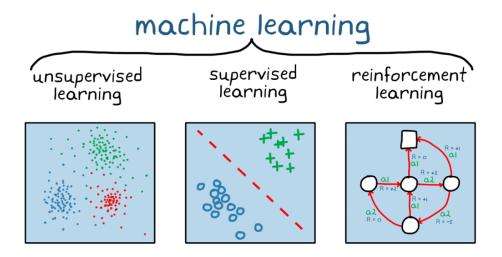
# A Brief History of Modern AI and its Applications

# **Definitions and Relationships**



- AI (Artificial Intelligence): Systems simulating human intelligence (sense, reason, act, adapt).
- ML (Machine Learning): Subfield of AI, enables machines to learn from data instead of explicit programming.
- **DL** (**Deep Learning**): Subfield of Machine Learning, uses multi-layer neural networks, automatically extracts features, improves with large datasets.

# **Machine Learning**



- Learns patterns from data, improves over time. May reach diminishing returns with excessive data.
- Types:
  - Supervised Learning: Labeled data → prediction (spam, fraud detection).
  - Unsupervised Learning: Unlabeled data → discover hidden structures (customer segmentation).

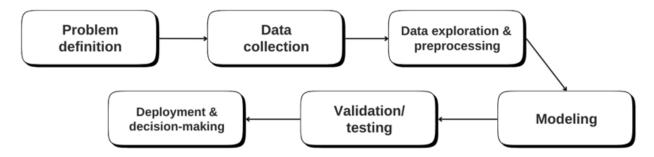
## Deep Learning vs. Traditional Machine Learning

- Traditional Machine Learning: Requires manual feature engineering; struggles with complex data (e.g., images with 65k features).
- **Deep Learning:** Automatically extracts features, excels with images/language.
- Comparison:
  - $\circ$  DL  $\rightarrow$  stronger with large datasets, less feature engineering.
  - $\circ$  Traditional Machine Learning  $\rightarrow$  better for small or dynamic datasets.

## **Factors Driving AI Growth**

- Availability of **big data**.
- Increased computing power (GPUs, cloud).
- Accessible tools (TensorFlow, PyTorch).

## **Basic Machine Learning Workflow Steps:**



#### **Historical Context**

- 1956: AI introduced at Dartmouth Conference.
- 1950s–70s: Perceptron, Arthur Samuel's Machine Learning → failed machine translation → first AI Winter.
  - Main reasons: lack of powerful computing systems and algorithms, high expectations that could not be met → lost faith → major powers like America cut funding.
- 1980s: Expert systems boom  $\rightarrow$  limited adaptability  $\rightarrow$  second AI Winter.
  - Main reasons: expert system revealed many limitations (high development and maintenance cost, lack of learnability and extensibility), collapse of the specialized Lisp machine market - base of AI, again high expectations that could not be met.
- 1990s–2000s: Machine Learning success in speech recognition, search, robotics; 1996: Deep Blue beat chess champion.
- 2006: Deep learning breakthrough → deeper neural networks feasible.
- 2009: ImageNet database with millions of labeled images.
- 2012: AlexNet  $\rightarrow$  major breakthrough in computer vision.
- **Today:** Strong progress in NLP, computer vision, translation, and deep learning.

#### **Real-World Applications**

- Advertising: Personalized marketing.
- Retail: Supply chain optimization.
- Transportation: Self-driving cars, logistics.

- Smart Homes: Voice-enabled entertainment, security.
- Healthcare: Diagnostics, drug discovery.
- Finance: Algorithmic trading, fraud detection.
- Government: Smart cities, citizen services, threat detection.
- **Society:** Maps & navigation (Google Maps, Waze), dynamic pricing (Uber/Lyft), social media recommendations and ads.

# **Retrieving and Cleaning Data**

# **Retrieving Data**

Data sources	Definition	Read command	Write command
CSV files	Comma - separated values	pd.read_csv("file.csv")	df.to_csv("file.csv", index = False)
JSON files	Key-value / nested format	pd.read_json("file.json")	df.to_json("file.json", orient="records")
SQL databases	Relational tables	pd.read_sql(query, conn)	df.to_sql("table", conn, if_exists="replace")
NoSQL databases	Non-relational (JSON-like)	MongoDB: collection.find() (via PyMongo)	collection.insert_many(df.to_dict( "records"))
APIs/ Cloud	Remote web data (JSON/CSV)	pd.read_json(url) or pd.read_csv(url)	Upload via API client

# **Data Cleaning Importance**

• **Purpose:** Essential for reliable ML; prevents garbage-in, garbage-out.

• Common Issues: Duplicates, inconsistent text, missing values, outliers, poor data management.

# **Handling Duplicates**

• Decide if duplicates are valid; filter carefully while retaining original data for analysis.

#### **Handling Missing Values**

- **Remove:** Drop rows (may lose information).
- Impute: Replace with mean/median (introduces uncertainty).
- Mask: Treat as a separate category (assumes similarity).

## **Handling Outliers**

- **Definition:** Extreme values that skew predictions.
- **Identification:** Visualizations (histogram, boxplot), interquartile range.
- Analysis: Investigate before removing; some provide insights.

#### **Residuals & Outlier Detection**

- **Residuals:** Difference between actual and predicted values; indicate model errors.
- Standardized/Studentized residuals: Assess impact on predictions.
- **Strategies:** Remove, transform, reassign, predict outlier values, or use robust models.

## **Exploratory Data Analysis and Feature Engineering**

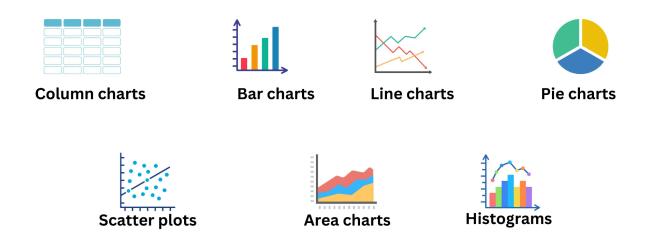
#### **Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA)**

- **Purpose:** Summarize dataset characteristics, identify patterns, trends, outliers, and need for cleaning or extra data.
- Techniques:
  - Statistics: Mean, median, min/max, correlations.
  - **Visualizations:** Histograms, scatter plots, box plots, pair plots, hexbin plots, facet grids.

#### • Sampling:

- Random sampling for large datasets.
- Stratified sampling to maintain proportion across categories.

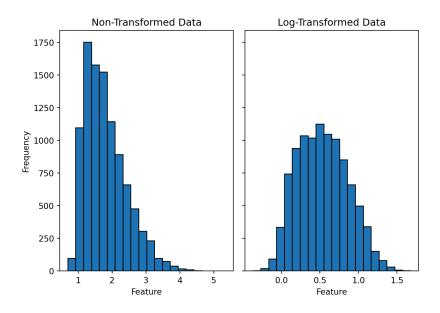
#### **Python Visualization Libraries**



- **Matplotlib:** Core plotting library; %matplotlib inline for notebooks.
- Pandas: Simplifies plotting on DataFrames.
- **Seaborn:** Built on Matplotlib; easier for aesthetically pleasing, statistical plots.
- **Techniques:** Scatter plots, histograms, boxplots, pair plots, hexbin, facet grids.

# Feature Engineering & Variable Transformation

- **Purpose:** Optimize model performance, handle skewed distributions, outliers.
- Transformations:



- **Log transformation:** Normalizes skewed data, handles diminishing returns (e.g., budget vs. box office revenue).
- $\circ$  **Polynomial features:** Add flexibility  $(x^2, x^3, ...)$  while keeping the model linear in parameters.
- Encoding Categorical Features:
  - **Nominal:** One-hot encoding.
  - o **Binary:** 0/1 encoding,
  - o **Ordinal:** Integer encoding while respecting order.
- Feature Scaling:
  - Standard Scaling (mean=0, std=1)

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

○ Min-Max Scaling (0–1)

$$x' = \frac{x - \min(x)}{\max(x) - \min(x)}$$

• Robust Scaling (IQR-based).

$$X_{new} = \frac{X - X_{median}}{IQR}$$

• Important for distance-based algorithms like KNN; ensures meaningful comparisons.

#### **Inferential Statistics and Hypothesis Testing**

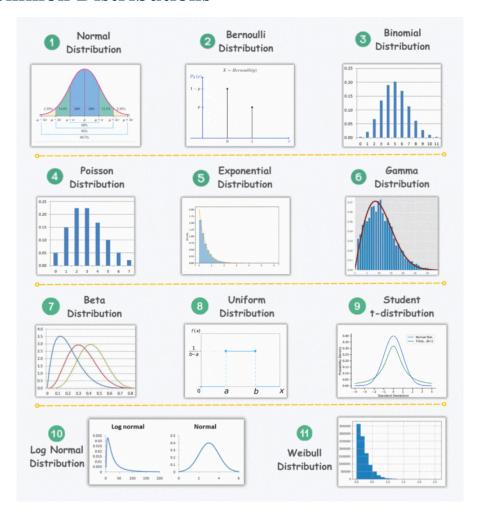
#### **Estimation vs. Inference**

- Estimation: Provides a point estimate of a parameter (e.g., sample mean = 20).
- **Inference:** Goes further by estimating the population distribution and attaching measures of uncertainty (e.g.,confidence intervals CI = 19%–21%).

#### Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Models

- **Parametric Models:** Assume a specific distribution, defined by finite parameters (e.g., linear regression, normal distribution).
- **Non-Parametric Models:** Make fewer assumptions, rely more heavily on observed data (e.g., histograms, kernel density).

# **Common Distributions**



Distribution	Definition	Parameters	Example
Uniform	All outcomes equally likely	a,b (min, max)	Dice rolls, lottery
Normal (Gaussian)	Bell-shaped, around the mean	μ (mean), σ (std)	Heights, test scores
Log-Normal	Log values follow Normal	μ,σ (of log)	Income, stock prices
Exponential	Time between random events	λ (rate)	Waiting time for arrivals
Poisson	Event counts in fixed interval	λ (rate)	Number of emails per hour

#### Frequentist vs. Bayesian Statistics

- **Frequentist:** Relies on repeated sampling. Estimates probabilities without prior assumptions.
- Bayesian: Treats parameters as random variables. Combines prior beliefs with observed data → updates to posterior distribution.

#### **Hypothesis Testing**

- Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>): No effect.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): Effect exists.
- **Bayesian Approach:** Produces posterior probabilities instead of strict reject/accept decisions.

## Type I and Type II Errors

	Actual True/ False		
Predicted	True Positive	False Positive (Type I)	
Positive/ Negative	False Negative (Type II)	True Negative	

• Note: The power of a test = 1 - P(Type II error).

#### Significance Levels & P-Values

- Significance Level (α): Threshold for rejecting H<sub>0</sub> (commonly 0.05).
- **P-Value:** Probability of observing data as extreme as current sample under H<sub>0</sub>.
- **Bonferroni Correction:** Adjusts  $\alpha$  when running multiple tests to reduce false positives.

#### **Correlation vs. Causation**

• **Correlation**: A statistical relationship when two variables change together (increase or decrease). It shows association.

- Caussation: Occurs when one variable directly causes a change in the other. It is a cause effect relationship.
- Confounding Variables: A third factor may drive both variables.
- Spurious Correlations: Random coincidences.
- **Business Caution:** Use correlation for prediction, but never assume direct cause without deeper analysis.