Math tools

Note: Math Tools

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Chapter 1

Complex Analysis

References:

• CUHKSZ: MAT3253 - Complex Variables notes by Kenneth Shum (Spring 2023)

1.1 Complex Numbers

Polar form of complex numbers $z = x + iy = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ for $r, \theta \ge 0$.

- If $z_k = r_k(\cos\theta_k + i\sin\theta_k)$ for k = 1, 2, then $z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 [\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)]$.
- If $z_1z_2z_3=0$, then at least one of the three factors is zero.
- If $\Re(z_1)$, $\Re(z_2) > 0$, then $\operatorname{Arg}(z_1 z_2) = \operatorname{Arg}(z_1) + \operatorname{Arg}(z_2)$, where principal arguments in $(-\pi, \pi]$ are used.

Properties of complex numbers (i) $(z^*)^* = z$; (ii) $z^* = z$ iff $z \in \mathbb{R}$; (iii) $zz^* = |z|^2 = x^2 + y^2$; (iv) $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$, $\overline{(z_1+z_2)^*} = z_1^* + z_2^*, \overline{(z_1z_2)^*} = z_1^* z_2^*$; (v) $\Re(z) = (z+z^*)/2, \Im(z) = (z-z^*)/(2i)$; (vi) $|z_1+z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$; (vii) $z_1 \ne z_2$, then $|z_2-z_1|^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2 - 2r_1r_2\cos(\theta_1-\theta_2)$; (viii) $|z_1+z_2|^2 \le |z_1|^2 + 2|\Re(z_1z_2^*)| + |z_2|^2$, and $|\Re(z_1z_2^*)| \le |z_1| |z_2|$.

• (DeMoivre formula) $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$, $(\cos\theta+i\sin\theta)^n = \cos(n\theta)+i\sin(n\theta)$

- (Binomial formula) $(z_1 + z_2)^m = \sum_{k=0}^m {m \choose k} z_1^k z_2^{m-k}$ for $m \in \mathbb{N}^+, z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$. (Geometric series) $\sum_{k=0}^n z^k = (1-z^{n+1})/(1-z)$.

n-th root of a complex number w is the n-th root of z_0 if $w^n = z_0$.

• (n-th root of unity) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, the solution of $z^n = 1$ is $z = \cos(2\pi k/n) + i\sin(2\pi k/n)$, $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$. If we write $w = \cos(2\pi/n) + i\sin(2\pi/n)$, then the *n*-th root is w^k , $k = 0, \dots, n-1$.

Example 1.1.1.

• (Summation of $\cos k\theta$)

$$1 + \cos \theta + \cos 2\theta + \dots + \cos n\theta = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sin((2n+1)\theta/2)}{2\sin(\theta/2)}, \quad 0 < \theta < 2\pi.$$

• (Chebyshev polynomials) Let m = n/2 if n is even and (n-1)/2 if n is odd, then

$$\cos n\theta = \sum_{k=0}^{m} {n \choose 2k} (-1)^k \cos^{n-2k}(\theta) \sin^{2k}(\theta), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Write $x = \cos \theta$, the above becomes a polynomial $T_n(x)$ of degree n in the variable x.

1.1.1Transformation

Linear fractional/Möbius/bilinear transformation

$$f(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d} = \frac{a}{c} + \frac{bc-ad}{c} \frac{1}{cz+d}, \quad a,b,c,d \in \mathbb{C}, \ ad-bc \neq 0.$$

- b = 0, c = 0, d = 1, rotation $f(z) = az = re^{i\theta}z$
- a = 1, c = 0, d = 1, translation f(z) = z + b;
- a=0,b=1,c=1,d=0, inversion function f(z)=1/z, that maps circles and straight lines to circles and straight lines;
- f(z) = rz, $0 < r \in \mathbb{R}$, scaling.

All four types of transformation maps circle/line to circle/line. If ad - bc = 0, then f(z) is a constant.

When z = -d/c, $f(z) = \infty$, we extend the domain. The Riemann sphere is three-dimensional sphere with the south pole touching the origin of the complex plane. The stereographic projection s a function that maps a complex number z = x + iy in the complex plane to the point P(x, y) on the Riemann sphere such that (x, y), P(x, y) and the north pole of the sphere are colinear. The north pole of the sphere does not correspond to any point on the complex blane and is called the point at infinity, and is denoted by the symbol ∞. The Riemann sphere is botten and is denoted by the symbol ∞. one-point compactification of the complex plane.

Extended complex number system/extended complex plane $\bar{\mathbb{C}}, \hat{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$.

• Given complex numbers $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$ with $ad - bc \neq 0$, define a linear fractional transformation on $\bar{\mathbb{C}}$ by

$$f(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{az+b}{cz+d} & \text{if } z \neq -d/c, z \neq \infty \\ \infty & \text{if } z = -d/c \\ a/c & \text{if } z = \infty \end{cases}$$

which is a bijection on the Riemann sphere.

Complex functions 1.2

Complex sequences and series 1.2.1

- Distance $d(z_1, z_2) = |z_1 z_2|$.
- Open disc of radius r centered at z_0 : $D(z_0, r) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z z_0| < r\}$. Neighborhood of ∞ is $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| > R\}$ for some large R.
- Convergence of complex sequence $(z_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$: converges to $L \in \mathbb{C}$ if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $|z_n L| < \epsilon, \forall n > N$. We write $\lim_{n \to \infty} z_n = L$. $(z_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to ∞ iff $1/|z_n| \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ $(|z_n| \to \infty)$. It diverges if z_n does not converge to any $L \in \mathbb{C}$ ($\to \infty$ is also divergent for \mathbb{C}).
- Cauchy sequence $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } |z_m z_n| \leq \epsilon, \forall m, n \geq N.$
 - If $z_n = x_n + iy_n$, then z_n is Cauchy iff x_n, y_n Cauchy.
 - $-z_n$ converges iff z_n is Cauchy.
- Complex series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} z_k := \lim_n \sum_{k=1}^n z_k$ if the limit exists. We call it converges absolutely if $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |z_k|$ converges. We call it converges conditionally if $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} z_k$ converges but $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |z_k|$ diverges.
 - (n-th term test) If $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} z_k$ converges, then $\lim_n |z_n| = 0$. If $|z_n| \to 0$, then $\sum_k z_k$ diverges.
 - (Absolute convergence test) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |z_k|$ converges, then $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} z_k$ converges.
 - (Limit ratio test) Assume $\lim_n |a_{n+1}/a_n|$ exists and is equal to L. (a) $L > 1 \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges, (b) $L < 1 \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges absolutely, (c) L = 1, no conclusion.
 - If $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$ and $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k$ converges absolutely, then $(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k)(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k) = (\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k)$, where $c_k = \sum_{j=0}^{k} a_j b_{k-j}$.
 - If a series converges absolutely, then a series obtained by rearranging the terms converges to the same limit.

1.2.2Basic complex functions

<u>Power series</u> A complex power series centered at the origin is a series in the form $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z_k^k$, $a_k \in \mathbb{C}$.

Definition 1.2.1. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$, define

• (complex exponential function)

$$e^z := \exp(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!},$$

we have $e^{z_1+z_2} = e^{z_1}e^{z_2}$, $e^{-z} = (e^z)^{-1}$, $e^z \neq 0$, $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$, and $e^{a+ib} = e^ae^{ib}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

• (complex trigonometric, hyperholic trigonometric)

$$\sin(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{z^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \cos(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}, \quad \tan(z) := \frac{\sin(z)}{\cos(z)},$$

$$\sinh(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \cosh(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}, \quad \tanh(z) := \frac{\sinh(z)}{\cosh(z)}.$$

$$\sinh(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \qquad \cosh(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}, \qquad \tanh(z) := \frac{\sinh(z)}{\cosh(z)}$$

They are all converges absolutely.

Theorem 1.2.2. $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$,

(Euler's formula) $e^{iz} = \cos z + i \sin z$

$$\cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \quad \sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i},$$
$$\cosh(z) = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}, \quad \sinh(z) = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2},$$

thus we have $\cosh(iz) = \cos z$, $\sinh(iz) = i \sin z$.

Since $e^z = e^{z+2\pi ki}$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the inverse function of e^z is multi-valued. For $0 \neq w \in \mathbb{C}$, define the complex log function as

$$\log(w) := \log|w| + i(\arg(w) + 2\pi k), \ k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Define the principal complex log function as

$$Log(w) := log |w| + i arg(w), arg(w) \in (-\pi, \pi] \text{ or } [0, 2\pi).$$

Given $0 \neq z \in \mathbb{C}$, define the complex power by

$$z^w := \exp(w \log(z)).$$

The angle function, parametric curve and winding number

Suppose $\theta(z)$ is continuous, $\theta(z_0) = 0$, then as $z \to z_0$ from the right, $\theta(z) \to 2\pi \neq 0$. To prevent closed cycle around the origin, let the domain of angle function be the half plane.

- If $H = \{x + iy : y > 0\}$, the range is $(0, \pi)$, the for $z \in H$, define $F(x, y) := \cos^{-1}(x/\sqrt{x^2 + y^2})$.
- If $H_{\alpha} = \{x + iy : y > \tan(\alpha)x\}$ for $\alpha > 0$, define $F_{\alpha} := F(e^{-i\alpha}z) + \alpha$.

The parametric curve is a function $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$ continuous, $\gamma(t)$ is the location at time t. If $\gamma(a)=\gamma(b)$, then we call it closed curve.

Given $\gamma : [a, b] \to \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$, divide [a, b] into $a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_{n-1} < t_n = b$ s.t. $\gamma(t)$, $t_k \le t \le t_{k+1}$, is inside $H_{\alpha(k)}$ for $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$. Define

- change in angle in the kth part: $F_{\alpha(k)}(\gamma(t_{k+1})) F_{\alpha(k)}(\gamma(t_k))$,
- overall change of angle: $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} [F_{\alpha(k)}(\gamma(t_{k+1})) F_{\alpha(k)}(\gamma(t_k))],$
- branch: A continuous angle function as a function of t.

Note that it doesn't depend on the sub-division of the curve and how we parameterize the curve. The winding number/index of a closed parametric curve not passing through the origin is $(2\pi)^{-1}$ (change in angle).

1.2.3 Complex differentiability

Limit and continuity

Chapter 2

Matrix Algebra

References:

- Peng Ding Linear Model and Extensions: appendix A.
- Robb J. Muirhead Aspects of multivariate statistical theory [1]: appendix A.

Notations:

- Column space/range/image of $n \times m$ matrix $A = (a_1, \dots, a_m)$ is $Col(A) = \{\alpha_1 a_1 + \dots + \alpha_m a_m : \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
- Row space of A is $Col(A^{\top})$.
- Kernel/null space/nullspace of A is $ker(A) = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^m : Av = \mathbf{0}_n \}.$
- Rank of A is r(A).
- Trace of A is tr(A).
- Eigenvalues of A are $\lambda(A)$.

2.1 Spaces

2.1.1 Spaces, rank, and related factorization

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Theorem 2.1.1 (Rank). Let A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}.

1. \mathbf{r}(A) = \mathbf{r}(A^{\top}).

2. \mathbf{r}(A) \leq \min(n, m).

3. \mathbf{r}(AB) \leq \min\{\mathbf{r}(A), \mathbf{r}(B)\}.

4. If A, B have same size, then \mathbf{r}(A + B) \leq \mathbf{r}(A) + \mathbf{r}(B).

5. If A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}, and A and C are nonsingular, then \mathbf{r}(ABC) = \mathbf{r}(B).

6. If B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p} such that AB = \mathbf{0}, then \mathbf{r}(B) \leq m - \mathbf{r}(A).

7. A is full column/row rank iff A^{\top}A/AA^{\top} is nonsingular.
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Point 7 is proved by SVD.

Theorem 2.1.2 (Rank-related factorization).

- 1. (Full-rank factorization) If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with r(A) = k, then A = BC for some full column rank $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ and full row rank $C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m}$.
- 2. (Non-negative definite) If $n \times n$ $A \succeq \mathbf{0}$, r(A) = r, then
 - $\exists B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}$ of rank r such that $A = BB^{\top}$;
 - $\exists C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ nonsingular such that $A = C \begin{bmatrix} I_r & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} C^{\top}$.

2.2 Inversion

2.2.1 Types of inversion

Left and right inverse

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Definition 2.2.1 (Left/right inverse). Let A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}. The left inverse A_{left}^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} satisfies A_{left}^{-1}A = I_m, and the right inverse A_{right}^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} satisfies AA_{right}^{-1} = I_n.
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- 10 A full column rank $\mathbf{r}(A) = m$, then $A^{\top}A$ nonsingular, and $A_{left}^{-1} = (A^{\top}A)^{C}HA^{T}P$, TER~2. MATRIX~ALGEBRA
 - A full row rank r(A) = n, then AA^T nonsingular, and $A_{right}^{-1} = A^{\top}(AA^{\top})^{-1}$.

Moore-Penrose inverse

It is used when left/right inverse cannot be obtained.

Definition 2.2.2 (Moore–Penrose inverse/pseudoinverse). Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. $A^+ \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is defined as a Moore–Penrose (M-P) inverse of A if

- 1. AA^+ and A^+A are symmetric;
- 2. $AA^{+}A = A$;
- 3. $A^+AA^+ = A^+$.

Example 2.2.3 (M-P inverse of a diagonal matrix). Let $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, WLOG, assume $n \geq m$. $D_{ii} = d_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$, while others are zero. Then $D^+ \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ satisfies $D^+_{ii} = 1/d_i$ if $d_i \neq 0$ and zero otherwise, $i = 1, \ldots, m$.

Theorem 2.2.4. Each matrix A has an A^+ .

If $A = \mathbf{0}$, then $A^+ = \mathbf{0}$. If $A \neq \mathbf{0}$, two ways to construct A^+ :

1. Full-rank factorization $A = B_{n \times r} C_{r \times m}$ of rank r. We have

$$A^{+} = C^{\top} (CC^{\top})^{-1} (B^{\top}B)^{-1}B^{\top}.$$

2. SVD $A = UDV^{\top}$, then $A^+ = VD^+U^{\top}$.

Theorem 2.2.5. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

- 1. The M-P inverse is unique.
- 2. $(A^{\top})^+ = (A^+)^{\top}$.
- 3. $r(A^+) = r(A)$.
- 4. If A is symmetric, then $A^+ = (A^+)^\top$.
- 5. If A is nonsingular, then $A^{-1} = A^+$.
- 6. If A is symmetric idempotent, then $A^+ = A$.
- 7. If r(A) = m, then $A^+ = A_{lrft}^{-1} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$.
- 8. If r(A) = n, then $A^+ = A_{right}^{-1} = A^{\top} (AA^{\top})^{-1}$.
- 9. The matrices AA^+ , A^+A , $I_n AA^+$, and $I_m A^+A$ are all symmetric idempotent.

Generalized Inverse

Definition 2.2.6 (Generalized inverse). Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. The generalized inverse (G-inverse) $A^- \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ satisfies $AA^-A = A$.

It is obvious that the M-P inverse is also a G-inverse.

Theorem 2.2.7.

- 1. G-inverse may not be unique.
- 2. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with rank k > 0.
 - (a) $r(A^{-}) \ge k$.
 - (b) A^-A and AA^- are idempotent.
 - (c) $r(A^-A) = r(AA^-) = k$.
 - (d) $A^-A = I_m$ iff $\mathbf{r}(A) = m$.
 - (e) $AA^{-} = I_n \text{ iff } r(A) = n.$
 - (f) $tr(A^{-}A) = tr(AA^{-}) = k = r(A)$.
 - (g) If A^- is any G-inverse of A, then $(A^-)^{\top}$ is a G-inverse of A^{\top} .
- 3. Let $K = A(A^{\top}A)^{-}A^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$,
 - (a) K is invariant for any G-inverse of $A^{\top}A$.
 - (b) $K = AA^{+}$.
 - (c) K is symmetric and idempotent.
 - (d) r(K) = tr(K) = r(A).

- (e) $KA = A; A^{\top}K = A^{\top}$.
- (f) $(A^{\top}A)^{-}A^{\top}$ is a G-inverse of A for any G-inverse of $A^{\top}A$.
- (g) $A(A^{\top}A)^{-}$ is a G-inverse of A^{\top} for any G-inverse of $A^{\top}A$.

2.3 Special matrices

2.3.1 Idempotent matrices

Definition 2.3.1 (Idempotent matrices). $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ if $A^2 = A$.

Theorem 2.3.2. A is idempotent.

- $1. \ All \ idempotent \ matrices(except \ I) \ are \ singular.$
- 2. r(A) = tr(A).
- 3. $\lambda(A)$ is either 0 or 1.
- 4. If A symmetric, all $\lambda(A)$'s are 0 or 1, then A is idempotent.

Chapter 3

Optimization

References:

- CUHKSZ: MAT3007 Optimization I
- CUHKSZ: MAT3220 Optimization II. Textbook:
- 1. Introduction to Nonlinear Optimization: Theory, Algorithms, and Applications with MATLAB, Amir Beck.
 - 2. Convex Optimization, S. Boyd and L. Vandenberghe.
 - 3. Nonlinear Programming, D. Bertsekas.
 - 4. First-Order Methods in Optimization, Amir Beck

3.1 Nonlinear Optimization

3.1.1 KKT Conditions

Theorem 3.1.1 (The Fritz-John necessary conditions). Let x^* be a local minimum of the problem

min
$$f(x)$$

s.t. $g_i(x) \le 0$, $i = 1, 2, ..., m$

where $f, g_1, \ldots, g_m \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Then \exists multipliers $\lambda_0, \ldots, \lambda_m \geq 0$, which are not all zeros, such that

$$\lambda_0 \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\lambda_i g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

A major drawback of the Fritz-John conditions is, they allow $\lambda_0 = 0$. Under an additional regularity condition, we can assume $\lambda_0 = 1$. Let $I(x^*)$ be the set of active constraints at x^* :

$$I(\mathbf{x}^*) = \{i : g_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0\}.$$

Theorem 3.1.2 (The KKT conditions for inequality constrained problems). Let x^* be a local minimum of

min
$$f(x)$$

s.t. $g_i(x) \le 0$, $i = 1, 2, ..., m$

where $f, g_1, \ldots, g_m \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$. If $\{\nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*)\}_{i \in I(\boldsymbol{x}^*)}$ are linearly independent. Then $\exists \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m \geq 0$ such that

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i \nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$$
$$\lambda_i g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

Theorem 3.1.3 (The KKT conditions for inequality/equality constrained problems). Let x^* be a local minimum of

min
$$f(\mathbf{x})$$

s.t. $g_i(\mathbf{x}) \le 0$, $i = 1, 2, ..., m$
 $h_j(\mathbf{x}) = 0$, $j = 1, ..., p$ (3.1)

where $f, g_1, \ldots, g_m, h_1, \ldots, h_p \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$. If $\{\nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \nabla h_j(\boldsymbol{x}^*), i \in I(\boldsymbol{x}^*), j = 1, \ldots, p\}$ are linearly independent.

Then $\exists \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m \geq 0, \ \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_p \in \mathbb{R}, \ such \ that$

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^p \mu_j \nabla h_j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \mathbf{0},$$

$$\lambda_i g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$
(3.2)

Consider problem (1), a feasible point \boldsymbol{x}^* is called a KKT point if $\exists \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m \geq 0, \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_p \in \mathbb{R}$, such that (3.2) holds. \boldsymbol{x}^* is called regular if $\{\nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \nabla h_j(\boldsymbol{x}^*), i \in I(\boldsymbol{x}^*), j = 1, \ldots, p\}$ are linearly independent.

• The additional requirement of regularity is not required in linearly constrained problems in which no such assumption is needed.

Bibliography

 $[1]\ {\rm R.\ J.\ Muirhead}.\ {\it Aspects\ of\ multivariate\ statistical\ theory}.\ {\it John\ Wiley\ \&\ Sons},\ 1982.\ 2$