Note: Math Tools

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Lecturer: *Typed by: Zhuohua Shen*

Contents

Chapter 1

Complex Analysis

References:
- CUHKSZ: MAT3253 - Complex Variables notes by Kenneth Shum (2022-2023 Spring)

1.1 Complex Numbers

Polar form of complex numbers $z = x + iy = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$ for $r, \theta \geq 0$.
- 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 $z_1 z_2 z_3 = 0$, then at least one of the three factors is zero.
- If $\Re(z_1), \Re(z_2) > 0$, then $\mathrm{Arg}(z_1 z_2) = \mathrm{Arg}(z_1) + \mathrm{Arg}(z_2)$, 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) $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$, $(z_1+z_2)^* = z_1^* + z_2^*, (z_1 z_2)^* = z_1^* z_2^*$; (v) $\Re(z) = (z+z^*)/2, \Im(z) = (z-z^*)/(2i)$; (vi) $|z_1 + z_2| \leq |z_1| + |z_2|$; (vii) $z_1 \neq z_2$, then $|z_2 - z_1|^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2 - 2r_1 r_2 \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$; (viii) $|z_1 + z_2|^2 \leq |z_1|^2 + 2|\Re(z_1 z_2^*)| + |z_2|^2$, and $|\Re(z_1 z_2^*)| \leq |z_1|\,|z_2|$.
- (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) $(z_1 + z_2)^m = \sum_{k=0}^{m} \binom{m}{k} z_1^k z_2^{m-k}$ 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, $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$.

Example 1.1.1.
- *(Summation of $\cos k\theta$)*
$$1 + \cos\theta + \cos 2\theta + \cdots + \cos n\theta = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sin((2n+1)\theta/2)}{2\sin(\theta/2)}, \quad 0 < \theta < 2\pi.$$
- *(Chebyshev polynomials) Let $m = n/2$ if n is even and $(n-1)/2$ if n is odd, then*
$$\cos n\theta = \sum_{k=0}^{m} \binom{n}{2k} (-1)^k \cos^{n-2k}(\theta)\sin^{2k}(\theta), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$
Write $x = \cos\theta$, the above becomes a polynomial $T_n(x)$ of degree n in the variable x.

1.1.1 Transformation

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

plane and is called the point at infinity, and is denoted by the symbol ∞. The Riemann sphere is often called the *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.

1.2 Complex functions

1.2.1 Complex sequences and series

- 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 $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ 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 $|z_n| \nrightarrow 0$, 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.

1.2.2 Basic complex functions

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

Definition 1.2.1. For $\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbb{C}$, 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 $e^{a+ib} = e^a e^{ib}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (complex trigonometric, hyperholic trigonometric)
$$\sin(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{z^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \cos(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}, \quad \tan(z) := \frac{\sin(z)}{\cos(z)},$$
$$\sinh(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \cosh(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}, \quad \tanh(z) := \frac{\sinh(z)}{\cosh(z)}.$$

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

Complex logarithm and complex power

Since $e^z = e^{z+2\pi k i}, k \in \mathbb{Z}$, 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

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

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. $\gamma(t)$, $t_k \leq t \leq t_{k+1}$, 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

Linear Algebra

References:

- CUHKSZ: MAT2040 - Linear Algebra, by Dr. Dongxu Ji (2020-2021 Summer).
- CUHK: STAT5030 - Linear Models, by Prof. Yuanyuan Lin (2024-2025 Spring)
- Peng Ding - *Linear Model and Extensions*: appendix A.
- Robb J. Muirhead - *Aspects of multivariate statistical theory* [2]: appendix A.
- Ronald Christensen - *Plane Answers to Complex Questions: The Theory of Linear Models* [1], 2nd: Appendix B.

Notations:

- Column space/range/image of $n \times m$ matrix $A = (\boldsymbol{a}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{a}_m)$ is $\mathrm{Col}(A) = \{\alpha_1 \boldsymbol{a}_1 + \cdots + \alpha_m \boldsymbol{a}_m : \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
- Row space of A is $\mathrm{Col}(A^\top)$.
- Kernel/null space/nullspace of A is $\ker(A) = \{\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m : A\boldsymbol{v} = \mathbf{0}_n\}$.
- Rank of A is $\mathrm{r}(A)$.
- Trace of A is $\mathrm{tr}(A)$.
- Eigenvalues of A are $\lambda(A)$.

2.1 Spaces

2.1.1 Spaces, rank, and related factorization

Theorem 2.1.1 (Column spaces and rank). *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.*

1. $\mathrm{Col}(A) = \mathrm{Col}(A^\top A)$, *so* $\mathrm{r}(A) = \mathrm{r}(A^\top A)$.
2. *If $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is nonsingular, then* $\mathrm{Col}(AB) = \mathrm{Col}(A)$, *so* $\mathrm{r}(AB) = \mathrm{r}(A)$.

Theorem 2.1.2 (Properties of rank). *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.*

1. $\mathrm{r}(A) = \mathrm{r}(A^\top)$.
2. $\mathrm{r}(A) \le \min(n, m)$.
3. $\mathrm{r}(AB) \le \min\{\mathrm{r}(A), \mathrm{r}(B)\}$.
4. *If A, B have same size, then* $\mathrm{r}(A + B) \le \mathrm{r}(A) + \mathrm{r}(B)$.
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* $\mathrm{r}(ABC) = \mathrm{r}(B)$.
6. *If $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ such that $AB = \mathbf{0}$, then* $\mathrm{r}(B) \le m - \mathrm{r}(A)$.
7. *A is full column/row rank iff $A^\top A / AA^\top$ is nonsingular.*
8. *The system of equations $A\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{c}$ is consistent iff* $\mathrm{r}(A) = \mathrm{r}([A, \boldsymbol{c}])$.

Theorem 2.1.3 (Rank-related factorization).

1. *(Full-rank factorization) If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with $\mathrm{r}(A) = k$, 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 $n \times n$ $A \succeq \mathbf{0}$, $\mathrm{r}(A) = r$, 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 Matrix inverse

Theorem 2.2.1 (Push-through identity). *Let $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times k}, V \in \mathbb{R}^{k\times n}$, then*

$$(I_n + UV)^{-1}U = U(I_n + VU)^{-1}. \tag{2.1}$$

Theorem 2.2.2 (Sherman–Morrison–Woodbury formula/matrix inversion lemma). *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n}, C \in \mathbb{R}^{k\times k}, U \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times k}$, and $V \in \mathbb{R}^{k\times n}$. A is invertible. Then*

$$(A + UCV)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}U\big(C^{-1} + VA^{-1}U\big)^{-1}VA^{-1}. \tag{2.2}$$

Specially,

1. *if $A = I_n$ and $C = I_k$, then*
$$(I_n + UV)^{-1} = I_n - U(I_k + VU)^{-1}V.$$
2. *If $\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then $A + \boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{v}^\top$ is invertible iff $1 + \boldsymbol{v}^\top A^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} \neq 0$. In this case, we have the Sherman–Morrison formula*
$$\left(A + \boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{v}^\top\right)^{-1} = A^{-1} - \frac{A^{-1}\boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{v}^\top A^{-1}}{1 + \boldsymbol{v}^\top A^{-1}\boldsymbol{u}}.$$

2.2.2 Types of inversion

Left and right inverse

Definition 2.2.3 (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 $AA_{right}^{-1} = I_n$.

We can find these inverses by Theorem 2.1.2: if

- A full column rank $\mathrm{r}(A) = m$, then $A^\top A$ nonsingular, and $A_{left}^{-1} = (A^\top A)^{-1}A^\top$; A^- is also a left inverse.
- A full row rank $\mathrm{r}(A) = n$, then AA^T nonsingular, and $A_{right}^{-1} = A^\top(AA^\top)^{-1}$; A^- is also a right inverse.

Moore–Penrose inverse

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

Definition 2.2.4 (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 2.2.5 (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 2.2.6. *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. If A is symmetric with eigendecomposition $A = P^\top DP$, then $A^+ = P^\top D^+P$, where D^+ is given in Ex. 2.2.5.
2. Full-rank factorization $A = B_{n\times r}C_{r\times m}$ of rank r. We have
$$A^+ = C^\top(CC^\top)^{-1}(B^\top B)^{-1}B^\top.$$
3. SVD $A = UDV^\top$, then $A^+ = VD^+U^\top$.

Theorem 2.2.7. *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times m}$.*

1. *The M-P inverse is unique.*
2. $(A^\top)^+ = (A^+)^\top$.
3. $\mathrm{r}(A^+) = \mathrm{r}(A)$.
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 $\mathrm{r}(A) = m$, then $A^+ = A_{lrft}^{-1} = (A^\top A)^{-1}A^\top$.*
8. *If $\mathrm{r}(A) = n$, 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.*
10. *AA^+ (A^+A) is a p.p.m. onto $\mathrm{Col}(A)$ ($\mathrm{Col}(A^\top)$).*

Generalized Inverse

Definition 2.2.8 (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. $\forall A$, G-inverse exists.

1. If A nonsingular, then only $A^- = A^{-1}$.
2. If $A = \mathbf{0}_{n\times m}$, then $A^- = \mathbf{0}$.
3. If D is diagonal like Example 2.2.5, then let $D^- = D^+$.
4. If A is symmetric with eigendecomposition $A = P^\top DP$, then let $A^- = A^+$, symmetric.
5. If $\mathrm{r}(A) = r$, then by SVD, $A = U_{n\times n}\begin{bmatrix}\Sigma_{r\times r} & \mathbf{0}\\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0}\end{bmatrix}V_{m\times m}^\top$. Let $A^- = V\begin{bmatrix}\Sigma^{-1} & B\\ C & D\end{bmatrix}U^\top$, $\forall B, C, D$.
6. If G_1, G_2 are G-inverse of A, then so is G_1AG_2.

Note that

- G-inverse may not be unique by the above construction.
- A is symmetric, A^- may not be symmetric.

Theorem 2.2.9 (Properties of G-inverse)**.** *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times m}$ with rank $k > 0$.*

1. $\mathrm{r}(A^-) \geq k$.
2. *A^-A and AA^- are idempotent.*
3. *$\ker(A^-A) = \ker(A)$ and $\mathrm{Col}(AA^-) = \mathrm{Col}(A)$.*
4. $\mathrm{r}(A^-A) = \mathrm{r}(AA^-) = k$.
5. *$A^-A = I_m$ (i.e., A^- is a left inverse of A) iff $\mathrm{r}(A) = m$.*
6. *$AA^- = I_n$ (i.e., A^- is a right inverse of A) iff $\mathrm{r}(A) = n$.*
7. $\mathrm{tr}(A^-A) = \mathrm{tr}(AA^-) = k = \mathrm{r}(A)$.
8. *If A^- is any G-inverse of A, then $(A^-)^\top$ is a G-inverse of $A^\top$.*
9. *The system of equations $A\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{c}$ is consistent iff $\forall A^-$ of A, $AA^-\boldsymbol{c} = \boldsymbol{c}$ (i.e. $A^-\boldsymbol{c}$ is a solution).*
10. *If G, H are G-inverses of $(A^\top A)$, then*
    (a) *$AGA^\top A = AHA^\top A = A$, i.e., $A(A^\top A)^-A^\top A = A$ for any G-inverse $(A^\top A)^-$.*
        - *$(A^\top A)^-A^\top$ is a G-inverse of A for any G-inverse of $A^\top A$.*

    (b) *$AGA^\top = AHA^\top$, i.e., $A(A^\top A)^-A^\top$ the same for any G-inverse $(A^\top A)^-$.*
    (c) *Since $A^\top A$ is symmetric, $\exists (A^\top A)^-$ symmetric such that $A(A^\top A)^-A^\top$ symmetric. So by ii, $A(A^\top A)^-A^\top$ symmetric for all $(A^\top A)^-$.*
    (d) *$A(A^\top A)^-A^\top$ is the p.p.m. onto $\mathrm{Col}(A)$, see Example 2.3.5.*

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.

1. *All idempotent matrices(except I) are singular.*
2. *If A is idempotent, then $\mathrm{r}(A) = \mathrm{tr}(A)$, and $\lambda(A)$ is either 0 or 1.*
3. *If A symmetric, all $\lambda(A)$'s are 0 or 1, then A is idempotent.*
4. *If A and V are symmetric and $V \succ \mathbf{0}$, then AV has eigenvalues 0 and 1 implies that AV is idempotent.*

2.3.2 Perpendicular projection matrices

See appendix B of [1].

Definition 2.3.3 (Perpendicular projection matrices)**.** $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ is a perpendicular projection matrix (p.p.m.) onto $\mathrm{Col}(X)$ ($X \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times m}$) iff

1. $\forall \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathrm{Col}(X)$, $M\boldsymbol{v} = \boldsymbol{v}$. (Projection - Idempotent)

2. $\forall \boldsymbol{w} \perp \mathrm{Col}(X)$, $M\boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{0}$. (Perpendicularity - Symmetric)

If M satisfies $M\boldsymbol{v} = \boldsymbol{v}, \forall \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathrm{Col}(M)$, then M is called the projection operator (matrix) onto $\mathrm{Col}(M)$ along $\ker(M)$. Any projection operator that is not p.p.m. is called an oblique projection operator.

Any idempotent matrix M is a projection operator onto $\mathrm{Col}(M)$.

Theorem 2.3.4 (Properties of p.p.m.). *Let M be a p.p.m. onto $\mathrm{Col}(X)$ ($X \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times m}$).*

1. *p.p.m.'s are unique.*
2. $\mathrm{Col}(M) = \mathrm{Col}(X)$.
3. *M is idempotent and symmetric.*
4. $MX = X$.
5. *M is a p.p.m. onto $\mathrm{Col}(M)$ iff M is idempotent and symmetric.*
6. *Let $\boldsymbol{o}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{o}_r \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be orthonormal basis of $\mathrm{Col}(X)$. Let $O = \begin{bmatrix}\boldsymbol{o}_1 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{o}_r\end{bmatrix}$. Then $OO^\top = \sum_{i=1}^r \boldsymbol{o}_i\boldsymbol{o}_i^\top$ is the p.p.m. onto $\mathrm{Col}(X)$.*

There are two methods to find the p.p.m. of $\mathrm{Col}(X)$. The first one is to find the orthonormal basis of $\mathrm{Col}(X)$, the second one uses the G-inverse shown in Example 2.3.5.

Example 2.3.5. *Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times m}$. Then by the property of $(A^\top A)^-$ in Theorem 2.2.9, $K = X(X^\top X)^- X^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ is the p.p.m. (also unique) onto $\mathrm{Col}(X)$. We have*

1. *K is idempotent and symmetric.*
2. $\mathrm{r}(K) = \mathrm{r}(X)$.
3. *$KX = X$ and $X^\top K = X^\top$.*
4. $K = XX^+$.

Theorem 2.3.6 (Relationships between two p.p.m. (Thm B.45–49 [1])). *Let $M_\bullet$ be $n \times n$.*

1. *Let M_1, M_2 be two p.p.m. $M_1 + M_2$ is the p.p.m. onto $\mathrm{Col}(M_1, M_2)$ iff $\mathrm{Col}(M_1) \perp \mathrm{Col}(M_2)$.*
2. *If M_1, M_2 symmetric, $\mathrm{Col}(M_1) \perp \mathrm{Col}(M_2)$, and $(M_1 + M_2)$ p.p.m., then M_1 and M_2 are p.p.m.*
3. *Let M and M_0 be p.p.m. with $\mathrm{Col}(M_0) \subset \mathrm{Col}(M)$. Then*
   - *$M - M_0$ is a p.p.m.; and*
   - *$\mathrm{Col}(M - M_0) = \mathrm{Col}(M_0)^\perp$ w.r.t. $\mathrm{Col}(M)$.*
   - $\mathrm{r}(M) = \mathrm{r}(M_0) + \mathrm{r}(M - M_0)$.

One particular application: I_n is the p.p.m. onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. $\forall$ other p.p.m. M_0, $\mathrm{Col}(M_0) \subset \mathrm{Col}(I_n) = \mathbb{R}^n$, $I_n - M_0$ is a p.p.m. onto $\mathrm{Col}(M_0)^\perp$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Chapter 3

Optimization

References:

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  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.
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3.1 Nonlinear Optimization

3.1.1 KKT Conditions

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

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & f(\boldsymbol{x}) \\ s.t. \quad & g_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \le 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, m \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_0 \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) &= \mathbf{0} \\ \lambda_i g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) &= 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, m. \end{aligned}$$

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 $I(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$ be the set of active constraints at $\boldsymbol{x}^*$:

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & f(\boldsymbol{x}) \\ s.t. \quad & g_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \le 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, m \end{aligned}$$

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 $\exists \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m \ge 0$ such that

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & f(\boldsymbol{x}) \\ s.t. \quad & g_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \le 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, m \\ & h_j(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \quad j = 1, \ldots, p \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

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*

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i \nabla g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \mu_j \nabla h_j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}, \\ \lambda_i g_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, m. \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

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] R. Christensen et al. *Plane answers to complex questions*, volume 35. Springer, 2002. 2, 2.3.2, 2.3.6

[2] R. J. Muirhead. *Aspects of multivariate statistical theory.* John Wiley & Sons, 1982. 2