

# Handbook of Applied Mathematics

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# **Part 1**

## **Mathematical Foundation**

# Chapter 1

## Analysis

### 1.1 Calculus

#### 1.1.1 Mean value theorem

**Theorem 1. (Rolle's theorem)** Given  $n \geq 2$  and  $f \in C^{n-1}([a, b])$  with  $f^{(n)}(x)$  exists at each point of  $(a, b)$ , suppose that  $f(x_0) = \dots = f(x_n) = 0$  for  $a \leq x_0 < \dots < x_n \leq b$ , then there is a point  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that  $f^{(n)}(\xi) = 0$ .

**Theorem 1.1. (Lagrange's mean value theorem)** Given  $f \in C^1([a, b])$ , then there exists  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that

$$f'(\xi) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

**Theorem 1.2. (Cauchy's mean value theorem)** Given  $f, g \in C^1([a, b])$ , then there exists  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that

$$(f(b) - f(a))g'(\xi) = (g(b) - g(a))f'(\xi).$$

If  $g(a) \neq g(b)$  and  $g'(\xi) \neq 0$ , this is equivalent to

$$\frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}.$$

**Theorem 1.3. (First mean value theorems for definite integrals)** Given  $f \in C([a, b])$  and  $g$  integrable and does not change sign on  $[a, b]$ , then there exists  $\xi$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = f(\xi) \int_a^b g(x)dx.$$

**Theorem 1.4. (Second mean value theorems for definite integrals)** Given  $f$  a integrable function and  $g$  a positive monotonically decreasing function, then there exists  $\xi$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = g(a) \int_a^\xi f(x)dx.$$

If  $g$  is a positive monotonically increasing function, then there exists  $\xi$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = g(b) \int_\xi^b f(x)dx.$$

If  $g$  is a monotonically function, then there exists  $\xi$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = g(a) \int_a^\xi f(x)dx + g(b) \int_\xi^b f(x)dx.$$

#### 1.1.2 Series

**Definition 1.5.** A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is **absolute convergent** if the series of absolute values  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges.

**Theorem 1.6.** If a series is absolute convergent, then any reordering of it converges to the same limit.

**Theorem 1.7. (n-th term test)** If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ , then the series divergent.

**Theorem 1.8. (Direct comparison test)** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  is convergent and exists  $N > 0$ , for all  $n > N$ ,  $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent; if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  is divergent and exists  $N > 0$ , for all  $n > N$ ,  $0 \leq b_n \leq a_n$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is divergent.

**Theorem 1.9. (Limit comparison test)** Given two series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  with  $a_n \geq 0, b_n > 0$ . Then if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = c \in (0, \infty)$ , then either both series converge or both series diverge.

**Theorem 1.10. (Ratio test)** Given  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and

$$R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|, r = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|,$$

if  $R < 1$ , then the series converges absolutely; if  $r > 1$ , then the series diverges.

**Theorem 1.11. (Root test)** Given  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  and

$$R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (|a_n|)^{\frac{1}{n}},$$

if  $R < 1$ , then the series converges absolutely; if  $R > 1$ , then the series diverges.

**Theorem 1.12. (Integral test)** Given  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n)$  where  $f$  is monotone decreasing, then the series converges iff the improper integral

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

is finite. In particular,

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n) \leq f(1) + \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

**Theorem 1.13. (Alternating series test)** Given  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$  where  $a_n$  are all positive or negative, then the series converges if  $|a_n|$  decreases monotonically and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ .

### 1.1.3 Multivariable calculus

**Theorem 1.14. (Green's theorem)** Let  $\Omega$  be the region in a plane with  $\partial\Omega$  a positively oriented, piecewise smooth, simple closed curve. If  $P$  and  $Q$  are functions of  $(x, y)$  defined on an open region containing  $\Omega$  and have continuous partial derivatives there, then

$$\oint_{\partial\Omega} (Pdx + Qdy) = \iint_{\Omega} \left( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dxdy$$

where the path of integration along  $C$  is anticlockwise.

**Theorem 1.15. (Stokes' theorem)** Let  $\Omega$  be a smooth oriented surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with  $\partial\Omega$  a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve. If  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (F_x(x, y, z), F_y(x, y, z), F_z(x, y, z))$  is defined and has continuous first order partial derivatives in a region containing  $\Omega$ , then

$$\iint_{\Omega} (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot d\mathbf{S}(x) = \oint_{\partial\Omega} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x}$$

**Theorem 1.16. (Gauss-Green theorem (Divergence theorem))** For a bounded open set  $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that  $\partial\Omega \in C^1$  and a function  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = (F_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, F_n(\mathbf{x})) : \overline{\Omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) \in C^1(\Omega) \cap C(\overline{\Omega})$ ,

$$\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\partial\Omega} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS(x),$$

where  $\mathbf{n}$  is outward pointing unit normal vector at  $\partial\Omega$ .

**Definition 1.17.** An **implicit function** is a function of the form

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0,$$

where  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are variables.

**Theorem 1.18.** Let  $F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) : \mathbb{R}^{n+m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be a differentiable function of two variables, and  $(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0)$  the point that  $F(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) = \mathbf{0}$ . If the Jacobian matrix

$$J_{F, \mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) = \left( \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial y_j}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) \right)$$

is invertible, then there exists an open set  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  containing  $\mathbf{x}_0$  such that there exists a unique function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that  $f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$  and  $F(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{y})) = \mathbf{0}$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$ .

Moreover,  $f$  is continuously differentiable and, denoting the left-hand panel of the Jacobian matrix shown in the previous section as

$$J_{F, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) = \left( \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{y}_0) \right),$$

the Jacobian matrix of partial derivatives of  $f$  in  $\Omega$  is given by

$$\left( \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}) \right)_{m \times n} = - (J_{F, \mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x})))_{m \times m}^{-1} (J_{F, \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x})))_{m \times n}.$$

## 1.2 Real Analysis



### 1.2.1 Lebesgue Measure

**Definition 1.19.** Given an bounded interval  $I \in \mathbb{R}$ , denoted by  $\ell(I)$  the **length** of the interval defined as the distance of its endpoints,

$$\ell([a, b]) = \ell((a, b)) = b - a.$$

**Definition 1.20.** For any subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ , the **Lebesgue outer measure**  $m^*(E)$  is defined as

$$m^*(E) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(I_i) : \{I_i\}_{i=1}^n \text{ is a sequence of open intervals that } E \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n I_i \right\}.$$

**Theorem 1.21.** If  $E_1 \subset E_2 \subset \mathbb{R}$ , then  $m^*(E_1) \leq m^*(E_2)$ .

**Theorem 1.22.** Given an interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,  $m^*(I) = \ell(I)$ .

**Theorem 1.23.** Given  $\{E_i \subset \mathbb{R}\}_{i=1}^n$ ,  $m^*\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n m^*(E_i)$ .

**Definition 1.24.** The sets  $E$  are said to be **Lebesgue-measurable** if

$$\forall A \subset \mathbb{R}, m^*(A) = m^*(A \cap X) + m^*(A \cap (\mathbb{R} \setminus A))$$

and its Lebesgue measure is defined as its Lebesgue outer measure:  $m(E) = m^*(E)$ .

**Theorem 1.25.** The set of all measurable sets  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  forms a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  where

- $\mathcal{F}$  contains the sample space:  $\mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
- $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under complements: if  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , then also  $(\mathbb{R} \setminus A) \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
- $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under countable unions: if  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}, i = 1, \dots$ , then also  $(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \in \mathcal{F}$ .

**Definition 1.26.** A **measurable space** is a tuple  $(X, \mathcal{F})$  consisting of an arbitrary non-empty set  $X$  and a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^X$ .

## 1.3 Complex Analysis

**Definition 1.27.** Given an open set  $\Omega$  and a function  $f(z) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , the **derivative** of  $f(z)$  at a point  $z_0 \in \Omega$  is defined as the limits

$$f'(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{f(z) - f(z_0)}{z - z_0},$$

and the function is said to be **complex differentiable** at  $z_0$ .

**Definition 1.28.** A function  $f(z)$  is holomorphic on an open set  $\Omega$  if it is complex differentiable at every point of  $\Omega$ .

**Theorem 1.29.** If a complex function  $f(x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  is holomorphic, then  $u$  and  $v$  have first partial derivatives, and satisfy the Cauchy–Riemann equations,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x},$$

or equivalently,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \bar{z}} = 0.$$

**Theorem 1.30. (Cauchy's integral theorem)** Given a simply connected domain  $\Omega$  and a holomorphic function  $f(z)$  on it, for any simply closed contour  $C$  in  $\Omega$ ,

$$\int_C f(z) dz = 0.$$

**Theorem 1.31. (Residue formula)** Suppose that  $f$  is holomorphic in an open set containing a toy contour  $\gamma$  and its interior, except for some points  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  inside  $\gamma$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum_{k=1}^n \text{res}_{z_k} f,$$

where for a pole  $z_0$  of order  $n$ ,

$$\text{res}_{z_0} f = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \left( \frac{d}{dz} \right)^{n-1} (z - z_0)^n f(z).$$

## 1.4 Important Inequalities

### 1.4.1 Fundamental inequality

**Theorem 1.32. (Fundamental inequality)**

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+, \frac{2}{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b}} \leq \sqrt{ab} \leq \frac{a+b}{2} \leq \sqrt{\frac{a^2+b^2}{2}}, \text{ equality holds iff } a = b.$$

### 1.4.2 Triangle inequality

**Theorem 1.33. (Triangle inequality)**

$$\begin{aligned} a, b \in \mathbb{C}, \quad ||a| - |b|| &\leq |a \pm b| \leq |a| + |b|, \\ \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad ||\mathbf{a}| - |\mathbf{b}|| &\leq \|\mathbf{a} \pm \mathbf{b}\| \leq \|\mathbf{a}\| + \|\mathbf{b}\|. \end{aligned}$$

### 1.4.3 Bernoulli inequality

**Theorem 1.34. (Bernoulli inequality)**

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\forall x \in (-1, +\infty), \forall a \in [1, +\infty), (1+x)^a \geq 1+ax, \\
 &\forall x \in (-1, +\infty), \forall a \in (0, 1), (1+x)^a \leq 1+ax, \\
 &\forall x \in (-1, +\infty), \forall a \in (-1, 0), (1+x)^a \geq 1+ax, \\
 &\forall x_i \in \mathbb{R}, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \quad \prod_{i=1}^n (1+x_i) \geq 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \\
 &\forall y \geq x > 0, \quad (1+x)^y \geq (1+y)^x.
 \end{aligned}$$

#### 1.4.4 Jensen's inequality

**Theorem 1.35. (Jensen's inequality)** For a real convex function  $f(x) : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , numbers  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in [a, b]$  and weights  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , the Jensen's inequality can be start as

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i f(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i} \geq f\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i}\right).$$

And for concave function  $f$ ,

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i f(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i} \leq f\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i}\right).$$

Equality holds iff  $x_1 = \dots = x_n$  or  $f$  is linear on  $[a, b]$ .

#### 1.4.5 Cauchy–Schwarz inequality

**Theorem 1.36. (Cauchy–Schwarz inequality)**

**Discrete form.** For real numbers  $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}, n \geq 2$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2 \geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \right)^2.$$

Equality holds iff  $\frac{a_1}{b_1} = \dots = \frac{a_n}{b_n}$  or  $a_i = 0$  or  $b_i = 0$ .

**Inner product form.** For a inner product space  $V$  with a norm induced by the inner product,

$$\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V \quad \|\mathbf{a}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{b}\| \geq |\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle|.$$

Equality holds iff  $\exists k \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } k\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b} \text{ or } \mathbf{a} = k\mathbf{b}$ .

**Probability form.** For random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ ,

$$\sqrt{E(X^2)} \cdot \sqrt{E(Y^2)} \geq |E(XY)|.$$

Equality holds iff  $\exists k \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } kX = Y \text{ or } X = kY$ .

**Integral form.** For integrable functions  $f, g \in L^2(\Omega)$ ,

$$\left( \int_{\Omega} f^2(x) dx \right) \left( \int_{\Omega} g^2(x) dx \right) \geq \left( \int_{\Omega} f(x)g(x) dx \right)^2.$$

Equality holds iff  $\exists k \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } kf(x) = g(x) \text{ or } f(x) = kg(x)$ .

### 1.4.6 Hölder's inequality

**Theorem 1.37. (Hölder's inequality)**

**Discrete form.** For real numbers  $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{R}, n \geq 2$  and  $p, q \in [1, +\infty)$  that  $\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{q}\right) = 1$ ,

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n b_i^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \geq \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i.$$

Equality holds iff  $\exists c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}, c_1^2 + c_2^2 \neq 0, \text{ s.t. } c_1 a_i^p = c_2 b_i^q$ .

**Integral form.** For functions  $f \in L^p(\Omega), g \in L^q(\Omega)$  and  $p, q \in [1, +\infty)$  that  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ ,

$$\left( \int_{\Omega} |f(x)|^p dx \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left( \int_{\Omega} |g(x)|^q dx \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \geq \int_{\Omega} f(x)g(x) dx.$$

### 1.4.7 Young's inequality

**Theorem 1.38. (Young's inequality)** For  $p, q \in [1, +\infty)$  that  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ ,

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*, \frac{a^p}{p} + \frac{b^q}{q} \geq ab.$$

Equality holds iff  $a^p = b^q$ .

### 1.4.8 Minkowski inequality

**Theorem 1.39. (Minkowski inequality)** For a metric space  $S$ ,

$$\forall f, g \in L^p(S), p \in [1, +\infty], \|f\|_p + \|g\|_p \geq \|f + g\|_p.$$

For  $p \in (1, +\infty)$ , equality holds iff  $\exists k \geq 0$ , s.t.  $f = kg$  or  $kf = g$ .

## 1.5 Special Functions

### 1.5.1 Gaussian function

**Definition 1.40.** A **Gaussian function**, or a **Gaussian**, is a function of the form

$$f(x) = a \exp\left(-\frac{(x-b)^2}{2c^2}\right),$$

where  $a \in \mathbb{R}^+$  is the height of the curve's peak,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  is the position of the center of the peak and  $c \in \mathbb{R}^+$  is the standard deviation or the Gaussian root mean square width.

**Theorem 1.41.** The integral of a Gaussian is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a \exp\left(-\frac{(x-b)^2}{2c^2}\right) dx = ac\sqrt{2\pi}.$$

**Definition 1.42.** A **normal distribution** or a **Gaussian distribution** is a continuous probability distribution of the form

$$f_{\mu,\sigma}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-((x-\mu)^2)/(2\sigma^2)),$$

where  $\mu$  is the mean and  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation.

### 1.5.2 Dirac delta function

**Definition 1.43.** The **Dirac delta function** centered at  $\bar{x}$  is

$$\delta(x - \bar{x}) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} f_{\bar{x},\varepsilon}(x - \bar{x}),$$

where  $f_{\bar{x},\varepsilon}$  is a normal distribution with its mean at  $\bar{x}$  and its standard deviation as  $\varepsilon$ .

**Theorem 1.44.** The Dirac delta function satisfies

$$\delta(x - \bar{x}) = \begin{cases} +\infty, & x = \bar{x} \\ 0, & x \neq \bar{x} \end{cases} \quad \int_{-\infty}^x \delta(x - \bar{x}) dx = \begin{cases} 1, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

where  $H(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \delta(x - \bar{x}) dx$  is called **Heaviside function** or **step function**.

**Theorem 1.45.** If  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x - \bar{x}) f(x) dx = f(\bar{x}).$$

### 1.5.3 Gamma function

**Definition 1.46.** The **Gamma function** defined on  $\mathbb{C}$  is

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{+\infty} t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt,$$

where  $\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$ .

**Theorem 1.47.** The Gamma function satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in \mathbb{C}, \quad \Gamma(x+1) &= x\Gamma(x), \\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \Gamma(n) &= (n-1)!. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 1.48.** The Gamma function satisfies

$$\forall x \in (0, 1), \Gamma(1-x)\Gamma(x) = \frac{\pi}{\sin(\pi x)},$$

which implies

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}.$$

### 1.5.4 Beta Function

**Definition 1.49.** For  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , the **Beta function** is defined as

$$B(p, q) = \int_0^1 x^{p-1} (1-x)^{q-1} dx.$$

**Theorem 1.50.** The Beta function satisfies

$$\forall p, q \in \mathbb{R}^+, B(p, q) = B(q, p) = \frac{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(q)}{\Gamma(p+q)}.$$

**Theorem 1.51.** The Beta function satisfies

$$\forall p > 0, \forall q > 1, B(p, q) = \frac{q-1}{p+q-1} B(p, q-1),$$

$$\forall p > 1, \forall q > 0, B(p, q) = \frac{p-1}{p+q-1} B(p-1, q),$$

$$\forall p > 1, \forall q > 1, B(p, q) = \frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{(p+q-1)(p+q-2)} B(p-1, q-1).$$

## Chapter 2

### Algebra

#### 2.1 Linear Space

**Definition 2. (Linear Space)** A **linear space** over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is a nonempty set  $V$  with a addition and a scalar multiplication that satisfies

- (1) Associativity of addition:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}$ ,
- (2) Commutativity of addition:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in V, (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z})$ ,
- (3) Identity element of addition:  $\exists \mathbf{0} \in V, \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x}$ ,
- (4) Inverse elements of addition:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, \exists \mathbf{y} \in V, \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ ,
- (5) Compatibility of multiplication:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, a, b \in \mathbb{F}, (ab)\mathbf{x} = a(b\mathbf{x})$ ,
- (6) Identity element of multiplication:  $\exists 1 \in \mathbb{F}, \forall \mathbf{x} \in V, 1\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ ,
- (7) Distributivity:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, a, b \in \mathbb{F}, (a + b)\mathbf{x} = a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{x}$ ,
- (8) Distributivity:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V, a \in \mathbb{F}, a(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = a\mathbf{x} + a\mathbf{y}$ .

**Notation 2.1.** The **dimension** of a linear space  $V$  is written as  $\dim(V)$ .

**Definition 2.2.** Denoted by  $V_1, \dots, V_n$  linear spaces over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , the **product of linear spaces** is defined as

$$V_1 \times \dots \times V_n = \{(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n) : \mathbf{v}_1 \in V_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in V_n\},$$

which is also a linear space over  $\mathbb{F}$ .

**Definition 2.3.** Given a linear space  $V$ , a subspace  $U \subset V$  and  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ , the **coset** (or **affine subset**) is defined as

$$\bar{\mathbf{v}} = \{\mathbf{w} \in V : \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \in U\}.$$

**Definition 2.4.** Given a linear space  $V$  and a subspace  $U \subset V$ , the **quotient space** is defined as

$$V/U = \{\mathbf{v} + U : \mathbf{v} \in V\}.$$

##### 2.1.1 Linear map

**Definition 2.5.** Denoted by  $V$  and  $W$  the linear spaces over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , a function  $f : V \rightarrow W$  is called a linear map between  $V$  and  $W$  if it satisfies

- (1) Additivity:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V, f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$ ;
- (2) Homogeneity:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, \forall k \in \mathbb{F}, f(k\mathbf{x}) = kf(\mathbf{x})$ .

**Notation 2.6.** Denoted by  $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$  the set of all linear maps between  $V$  and  $W$  (it also be written as  $\mathcal{L}(V)$  if  $V = W$ ).



**Theorem 2.7.** For linear space  $V, W$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  and linear maps  $f, g \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ , if we define

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, \forall k \in \mathbb{F}, (f + g)(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad (kf)(\mathbf{x}) = kf(\mathbf{x}),$$

then  $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$  is a linear space.

**Theorem 2.8.** For a linear map  $f \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ ,  $f(\mathbf{0}) = f(0\mathbf{v}) = 0f(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$ .

**Theorem 2.9.** Given  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  the basis of linear space  $V$  and  $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$  the basis of linear space  $W$ , then there exists the only linear map  $f \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$  such that

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, f(\mathbf{v}_i) = \mathbf{w}_i.$$

**Definition 2.10.** For a linear map  $f \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ , the **kernal** (or **null space**) of  $f$  is defined as

$$\ker(f) = \{\mathbf{v} \in V : f(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}\},$$

where  $\ker(f)$  is a subspace of  $V$  and the number  $\dim(\ker(f))$  is the **nullity** of  $f$  which also written as  $\text{nullity}(f)$

**Definition 2.11.** For a linear map  $f \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ , the **image** of  $f$  is defined as

$$\text{im}(f) = \{\mathbf{w} \in W : \mathbf{w} = f(\mathbf{v}), \mathbf{v} \in V\},$$

where  $\text{im}(f)$  is a subspace of  $W$  and the number  $\dim(\text{im}(f))$  is the **dimension** (or **rank**) of  $f$  which also written as  $\text{rank}(f)$

**Theorem 2.12. (Rank–nullity theorem)** For a linear map  $f \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ ,

$$\dim(\ker(f)) + \dim(\text{im}(f)) = \dim(V).$$

**Definition 2.13.** A **isomorphism** is a invertible linear map.

**Definition 2.14.** Two linear spaces are called **isomorphic** if there exists a invertible linear map between them.

**Theorem 2.15.** Two linear spaces  $V, W$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  are isomorphic iff  $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$ .

**Theorem 2.16.** For a linear space  $V$  that  $\dim(V) < +\infty$  and a linear map  $f \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ , the following statements are equivalent:

- (1)  $f$  is invertible;
- (2)  $f$  is injective;
- (3)  $f$  is surjective.

## 2.2 Metric Space

**Definition 2.17. (Metric)** For a nonempty set  $X$ , the **metric** is a function  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies

- (1) Positive definiteness:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in X, d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq 0, d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ ,
- (2) Symmetry:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in X, d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$ ,
- (3) Triangle inequality:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in V, d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \geq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ ,

**Definition 2.18. (Metric space)** A **metric space** is a set  $X$  provided with a metric.

**Notation 2.19. (Neighbourhood)** For a metric space  $X$ , the **neighbourhood** of  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  with radius  $\varepsilon > 0$  is defined as

$$U_X(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) = \{t : d(\mathbf{x}, t) < \varepsilon, t \in X\}.$$

**Notation 2.20. (Punctured neighbourhood)** For a metric space  $X$ , the **punctured neighbourhood** of  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  with radius  $\varepsilon > 0$  is defined as

$$U_X^\circ(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) = U_X(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \setminus \{\mathbf{x}\} = \{t : d(\mathbf{x}, t) < \varepsilon, t \in X \setminus \{\mathbf{x}\}\}.$$

### 2.2.1 Completeness & Compactness

**Theorem 2.21. (Cauchy's convergence test)** A sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$  in a metric space  $X$  is convergent (or said a **cauchy sequence**) iff

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ s.t. } \forall m, n > N, \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_m\| < \varepsilon.$$

**Definition 2.22. (Completeness)** A metric space  $X$  is **complete** iff all cauchy sequence of  $X$  is convergent in  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.23. (Supremum and infimum principle)** For a nonempty set  $X$ , if the upper/lower bound of  $X$  exists, then the supremum/infimum of  $X$  exists.

**Theorem 2.24. (The monotone bounded convergence Theorem)** For a bounded sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$ , if it is increased, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}_n = \sup\{\mathbf{x}_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

If it is decreased, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}_n = \inf\{\mathbf{x}_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

### 2.2.2 Cover

**Definition 2.25. (Cover)** For a metric space  $S \subseteq X$ , A **cover** of  $S$  is a set of open sets  $\{D_n\}$  satisfies

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in X, \exists D_n, \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x} \in D_n.$$

**Definition 2.26. (Compactness)** A metric space  $X$  is called **compact** if every open cover of  $X$  has a finite subcover.

### 2.2.3 Cantor's intersection Theorem

**Theorem 2.27. (Cantor's intersection Theorem)** For a decreasing sequence of nested non-empty compact, closed subsets  $S_n \subseteq X, n \in \mathbb{N}$  of a metric space, if  $\{S_n\}$  satisfies

$$S_0 \supset S_1, \dots, \supset S_n \supset \dots,$$

then

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} S_k \neq \emptyset.$$

where there is only one point  $\mathbf{x} \in \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} S_k$  for a complete metric space.

**Corollary 2.28.** For decreasing sequence of nested non-empty compact, closed subsets  $S_n \in X, n \in \mathbb{N}$  of a complete metric space and  $\{\mathbf{x}\} = \bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} S_k$ , then

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N > 0, \text{ s.t. } \forall n > N, X_n \subset U_X(x, \varepsilon).$$

## 2.2.4 Cluster point

**Definition 2.29. (Cluster point)** For a metric space  $S \subseteq X$ , the **cluster point** of  $S$  is the point  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  satisfies

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, U_X^\circ(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \cap S \neq \emptyset.$$

**Theorem 2.30.** For a convergent sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_n : n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall i \neq j, \mathbf{x}_i \neq \mathbf{x}_j\} \subseteq X$ , the point  $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}_n$  is a cluster point of  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.31. (Bolzano–Weierstrass Theorem)** For a metric sapce  $X$  and a bounded infinite subset  $S \in X$ , there exists at least one cluster point of  $X$ .

## 2.3 Normed Space

**Definition 2.32. (Norm)** For a linear space  $V$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , the **norm** is a function  $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  that satisfies

- (1) Positive definiteness:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, \|\mathbf{x}\| \geq 0, \|\mathbf{x}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = 0$ ;
- (2) Absolute homogeneity:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, k \in \mathbb{F}, \|k\mathbf{x}\| = |k|\|\mathbf{x}\|$ ;
- (3) Triangle inequality:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V, \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\| \geq \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|$ .

**Definition 2.33. (Normed space)** A **normed space** is a linear space  $V$  over the the field  $\mathbb{F}$  with a norm.

## 2.4 Inner Product Space

**Definition 2.34. (Inner product)** For a linear space  $V$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , the **inner product** on  $V$  is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$  that satisfies

- (1) Positive definiteness:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \geq 0, \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = 0$ ,
- (2) Conjugate symmetry:  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \overline{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$ ,
- (3) Linearity in the first argument:  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in V, a, b \in \mathbb{F}, \langle a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = a\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + b\langle \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ .

**Definition 2.35. (Inner product space)** An **inner product space** is a linear space  $V$  over the field  $\mathbb{F}$  with an inner product.

**Theorem 2.36.** Given a inner product space  $V$  and the norm defined as  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$  satisfies

$$\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V, \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = 2 \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2 \|\mathbf{y}\|^2.$$

### 2.4.1 Orthonormal system

**Definition 2.37.** A subset  $W$  of an inner product space  $V$  is called **orthonormal** if

$$\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in S, \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \begin{cases} 0, & u \neq v \\ 1, & u = v. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 2.38.** The **Gram-Schmidt process** takes in a finite or infinite independent list  $(\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots)$  and output two other lists  $(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots)$  and  $(\mathbf{u}_1^*, \mathbf{u}_2^*, \dots)$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_{n+1} &= \mathbf{u}_{n+1} - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle \mathbf{u}_{n+1}, \mathbf{u}_i^* \rangle \mathbf{u}_i^*, \\ \mathbf{u}_{n+1}^* &= \frac{\mathbf{v}_{n+1}}{\|\mathbf{v}_{n+1}\|}, \end{aligned}$$

with the recursion basis as  $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1$ .

**Definition 2.39.** Let  $(\mathbf{u}_1^*, \mathbf{u}_2^*, \dots)$  be a finite or infinite orthonormal list. The **orthogonal expansion** or **Fourier expansion** for an arbitrary  $\mathbf{w}$  is the series

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}_i^* \rangle \mathbf{u}_i^*,$$

where the constants  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}_i^* \rangle$  are known as the **Fourier coefficients** of  $\mathbf{w}$  and the term  $\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}_i^* \rangle \mathbf{u}_i^*$  is the **projection** of  $\mathbf{w}$  on  $\mathbf{u}_i^*$ .

**Theorem 2.40. (Minimum properties of Fourier expansions)** Let  $\mathbf{u}_1^*, \mathbf{u}_2^*, \dots$  be an orthonormal system and let  $\mathbf{w}$  be arbitrary. Then

$$\forall a_1, \dots, a_n, \|\mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}_i^* \rangle \mathbf{u}_i^*\| \leq \|\mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mathbf{u}_i^*\|,$$

where  $\|\mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mathbf{u}_i^*\|$  is minimized only when  $a_i = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}_i^* \rangle$ .

**Theorem 2.41. (Bessel inequality)** Let  $\mathbf{u}_1^*, \mathbf{u}_2^*, \dots$  be an orthonormal system and let  $\mathbf{w}$  be arbitrary. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}_i^* \rangle|^2 \leq \|\mathbf{w}\|^2.$$

## 2.5 Banach Space

**Definition 2.42. (Banach space)** A **Banach space** is a complete normed vector space.

## 2.6 Hilbert Space

**Definition 2.43. (Hilbert space)** A **Hilbert space** is a inner product space that is also ce with respect to the distance function induced by the inner product.a complete metric space.

## 2.7 Single Variable Polynomial

**Definition 2.44.** Denoted by  $\mathbb{V}$  a linear space and  $x$  the variable, a **(single variable) polynomial** over  $\mathbb{V}$  is defined as

$$p_{n(x)} = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i,$$

where  $c_0, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{V}$  are constants that called the **coefficients of the polynomial**.

**Definition 2.45.** Given a polynomial  $p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i$  where  $c_n \neq 0$ , the degree of  $p(x)$  is marked as  $\deg(p(x)) = n$ . In particular, the degree of zero polynomial  $p(x) = 0$  is  $\deg(0) = -\infty$ .

**Theorem 2.46.** Denoted by  $\mathbb{P}_n = \{p : \deg(p) \leq n\}$  the set of polynomials with degree no more than  $n$  ( $n \geq 0$ ), and  $\mathbb{P} = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}_n$  the set contains all polynomials, then  $\mathbb{P}_n$  is a linear space and satisfies

$$\{0\} = \mathbb{P}_0 \subset \mathbb{P}_1 \subset \dots \subset \mathbb{P}_n \subset \dots \mathbb{P}$$

**Theorem 2.47. (Vieta's formulas)** Given a polynomial  $p \in \mathbb{P}_n$  with the coefficients being real or complex numbers, denoted by  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  the complex roots, then

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 + \dots + x_n = -c_{n-1}, \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n x_i x_j = c_{n-2}, \\ \dots \\ \prod_{i=1}^n x_i = (-1)^n c_0, \end{array} \right.$$

where  $c_n = 1$  WLOG.

## 2.8 Orthogonal Polynomial

**Definition 2.48.** Given a weight function  $\rho(x) : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ , satisfies

$$\int_a^b \rho(x) dx > 0, \int_a^b x^k \rho(x) dx > 0 \text{ exists.}$$

The set of **orthogonal polynomials** on  $[a, b]$  with the weight function  $\rho(x)$  is defined as

$$\{p_i, i \in \mathbb{N}\} \subset L_\rho([a, b]) = \left\{ f(x) : \int_a^b f^2(x) \rho(x) dx < \infty \right\}.$$

where  $\{p_i, i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  are calculate from  $\{x^n, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  using the Gram-Schmidt process with the inner product

$$\forall f, g \in L_\rho([a, b]), \langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b \rho(x) f(x) g(x) dx.$$

**Theorem 2.49.** Orthogonal polynomials  $p_{n-1}(x), p_n(x), p_{n+1}(x)$  satisfies

$$p_{n+1}(x) = (a_n + b_n x) p_n(x) + c_n p_{n-1}(x).$$

where  $a_n, b_n, c_n$  are depends on  $[a, b]$  and  $\rho$ .

**Theorem 2.50.** The orthogonal polynomial  $p_n(x)$  on  $[a, b]$  with the weight function  $\rho(x)$  has  $n$  roots on  $(a, b)$ .

### 2.8.1 Legendre polynomial

**Definition 2.51.** The **Legendre polynomial** is defined on  $[-1, 1]$  with the weight function  $\rho(x) = 1$ .

**Theorem 2.52.** The Legendre polynomials  $\{p_i(x), i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  satisfies

$$\int_{-1}^1 p_i(x) p_j(x) dx = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{2i+1}, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 2.53.** The Legendre polynomial  $p_{n-1}, p_n, p_{n+1}$  satisfies

$$p_{n+1}(x) = \frac{2n+1}{n+1} x p_n(x) - \frac{n}{n+1} p_{n-1}(x).$$

**Example 2.54.** The first three terms of Legendre polynomials is

$$p_0(x) = 1, \quad p_1(x) = x, \quad p_2(x) = \frac{3}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}.$$

### 2.8.2 Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind

**Definition 2.55.** The **Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind** is defined on  $[-1, 1]$  with the weight function  $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ .

**Theorem 2.56.** The Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind  $\{p_i(x), i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  satisfies

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} p_i(x) p_j(x) dx = \begin{cases} \pi & i = j = 0 \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & i = j \neq 0 \\ 0 & i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 2.57.** The Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind  $p_{n-1}, p_n, p_{n+1}$  satisfies

$$p_{n+1}(x) = 2xp_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x).$$

**Example 2.58.** The first three terms of Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind is

$$p_0(x) = 1, \quad p_1(x) = x, \quad p_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1.$$

### 2.8.3 Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind

**Definition 2.59.** The **Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind** is defined on  $[-1, 1]$  with the weight function  $\rho(x) = \sqrt{1-x^2}$ .

**Theorem 2.60.** The Chebyshev polynomials of the second kind  $\{p_i(x), i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  satisfies

$$\int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} p_i(x) p_j(x) dx = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi}{2}, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 2.61.** The Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind  $p_{n-1}, p_n, p_{n+1}$  satisfies

$$p_{n+1}(x) = 2xp_n(x) - p_{n-1}(x).$$

**Example 2.62.** The first three terms of Chebyshev polynomials of the second kind is

$$p_0(x) = 1, \quad p_1(x) = 2x, \quad p_2(x) = 4x^2 - 1.$$

### 2.8.4 Laguerre polynomial

**Definition 2.63.** The **Laguerre polynomial** is defined on  $[0, +\infty)$  with the weight function  $\rho(x) = x^\alpha e^{-x}$ .

**Theorem 2.64.** The Laguerre polynomial  $\{p_i(x), i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  satisfies

$$\int_0^{+\infty} x^\alpha e^{-x} p_i(x) p_j(x) dx = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma(n+\alpha+1)}{n!}, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 2.65.** For  $\alpha = 0$ , the Laguerre polynomial  $p_{n-1}, p_n, p_{n+1}$  satisfies

$$p_{n+1}(x) = (2n+1-x)p_n(x) - n^2 p_{n-1}(x).$$

**Example 2.66.** For  $\alpha = 0$ , the first three terms of Laguerre polynomial is

$$p_0(x) = 1, \quad p_1(x) = -x + 1, \quad p_2(x) = x^2 - 4x + 2.$$

### 2.8.5 Hermite polynomial (probability theory form)

**Definition 2.67.** The **Hermite polynomial** is defined on  $(-\infty, +\infty)$  with the weight function  $\rho(x) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$ .

**Theorem 2.68.** The Hermite polynomial  $\{p_i(x), i \in \mathbb{N}\}$  satisfies

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} p_i(x) p_j(x) dx = \begin{cases} n!, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 2.69.** For  $\alpha = 0$ , the Hermite polynomial  $p_{n-1}, p_n, p_{n+1}$  satisfies

$$p_{n+1}(x) = xp_n(x) - np_{n-1}(x).$$

**Example 2.70.** For  $\alpha = 0$ , the first three terms of Hermite polynomial is

$$p_0(x) = 1, \quad p_1(x) = x, \quad p_2(x) = x^2 - 1.$$



## Chapter 3

# Ordinary Differential Equation

**Definition 3.** Given a function  $F$ , an **explicit ordinary differential equation** of order  $n$  takes the form

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{u}^{(n-1)}, \dots, \mathbf{u}', \mathbf{u}, t) = \mathbf{u}^{(n)},$$

an **implicit ordinary differential equation** of order  $n$  takes the form

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{u}^{(n)}, \dots, \mathbf{u}', \mathbf{u}, t) = \mathbf{0},$$

**Definition 3.1.** An ODE is **autonomous** if it does not depend on the variable  $x$ .

**Definition 3.2.** A ODE is **linear** if can be written as

$$\sum_{i=0}^n A_i(t) \mathbf{u}^{(i)} + \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{0},$$

where  $A_i(t)$  and  $r(t)$  are continuous functions of  $t$ .

**Definition 3.3.** A linear ODE is **homogeneous** if  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ , and there is always the trivial solution  $\mathbf{u} \equiv \mathbf{0}$ .

**Definition 3.4.** An ODE is **separable** if can be written as

$$P_1(x)Q_1(y) = P_2(x)Q_2(y) \frac{dy}{dx}.$$

**Definition 3.5.** For initial value  $(\mathbf{u}_0, t_0) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$ ,  $T \geq t_0$  and  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \times [t_0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , the **initial value problem** (IVP) is to find  $u(t) \in C^1([t_0, T])$  satisfies

$$\mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}, t), \quad \mathbf{u}(t_0) = \mathbf{u}_0.$$

**Theorem 3.6.** Given an IVP, denoted by  $u_0 = u$ ,  $u_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  the  $i$ th derivative of  $u$ , then the ODE

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{u}^{(n-1)}, \dots, \mathbf{u}', \mathbf{u}, t) = \mathbf{u}^{(n)}$$

can be written as an IVP,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}'_0 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}'_{n-2} \\ \mathbf{u}'_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_{n-1} \\ \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{u}_{n-1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_0, t) \end{pmatrix}.$$

### 3.1 General Theory

**Theorem 3.7. (Peano existence theorem)** Given an IVP with an open set  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$ , if  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}, t) \in C(\Omega)$  and  $(\mathbf{u}_0, t_0) \in \Omega$ , then there is a local solution  $\tilde{\mathbf{u}} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies the IVP, where  $U$  is a neighbourhood of  $t_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 3.8. (Picard–Lindelöf theorem)** Given an IVP with an open set  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$ , if  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}, t) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is continuous in  $t$  and Lipschitz continuous in  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $(\mathbf{u}_0, t_0) \in \Omega$ , then there is a unique local solution  $\tilde{\mathbf{u}} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies the IVP, where  $U$  is a neighbourhood of  $t_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 3.9. (Comparison theorem)** Given two IVPs

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}'_1 &= \mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{u}_1, t), & \mathbf{u}_1(t_0) &= \mathbf{u}_0, \\ \mathbf{u}'_2 &= \mathbf{f}_2(\mathbf{u}_2, t), & \mathbf{u}_2(t_0) &= \mathbf{u}_0, \end{aligned}$$

and a open set  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$ , if for all  $(\mathbf{u}, t) \in \Omega$ ,  $\mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{u}, t) < \mathbf{f}_2(\mathbf{u}, t)$ , then

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{u}_1(t) > \mathbf{u}_2(t), & t > t_0, (\mathbf{u}_1(t), t), (\mathbf{u}_2(t), t) \in \Omega, \\ \mathbf{u}_1(t) < \mathbf{u}_2(t), & t < t_0, (\mathbf{u}_1(t), t), (\mathbf{u}_2(t), t) \in \Omega, \end{cases}$$

## 3.2 Exact solutions

**Example 3.10.** Given an initial point  $(y_0, x_0)$ , and a separable equation

$$P_1(x)Q_1(y) = P_2(x)Q_2(y)\frac{dy}{dx},$$

the solution of the equation is

$$\int_{x_0}^x \frac{P_1(t)}{P_2(t)} dt = \int_{y_0}^y \frac{Q_2(t)}{Q_1(t)} dt.$$

**Example 3.11.** Given an initial point  $(y_0, x_0)$ , and a first-order homogeneous equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = F\left(\frac{y}{x}\right),$$

the solution of the equation is

$$\int_{x_0}^x \frac{1}{t} dt = \int_{\frac{y_0}{x_0}}^{\frac{y}{x}} \frac{1}{F(t) - t} dt.$$

**Example 3.12.** Given an initial point  $(y_0, x_0)$ , and a first-order separable equation

$$yM(xy) + xN(xy)\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = 0,$$

the solution of the equation is

$$\int_{x_0}^x \frac{1}{t} dt = \int_{y_0 x_0}^{yx} \frac{N(t)}{t(N(t) - M(t))} dt,$$

where  $C$  is a constant.

**Example 3.13.** Given a  $n$ th-order, linear, inhomogeneous, constant coefficients equation

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i \frac{\partial^i y}{\partial x^i} = 0,$$

the solution of the equation is

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \left( \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} c_{ij} x^{j-1} \right) e^{\alpha_i x},$$

where  $\{c_{ij}\}$  are constants and  $\alpha_i$  is the root of

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i = 0$$

that repeated  $m_i$  times.

### 3.3 Important ODEs

#### 3.3.1 Bernoulli differential equation

**Definition 3.14.** The **Bernoulli differential equation** takes the form

$$y' + P(x)y = Q(x)y^n,$$

where  $n \neq 0, 1$ .

**Theorem 3.15.** The solution of the Bernoulli differential equation is

$$y = (z(x))^{\frac{1}{1-n}},$$

where  $z(x)$  is the solution of

$$z' + (1-n)P(x)z + (1-n)Q(x) = 0.$$

#### 3.3.2 Riccati equation

**Definition 3.16.** The **Riccati equation** takes the form

$$y' = q_0(x) + q_1(x)y + q_2(x)y^2,$$

where  $q_0(x) \neq 0, q_2(x) \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 3.17.** If  $u$  is one particular solution of the Riccati equation, the general solution is obtained as  $y = u + \frac{1}{v}$ , where  $v$  satisfies

$$v' + (q_1(x) + 2q_2(x)u)v + q_2(x) = 0.$$

# Chapter 4

## Partial Differential Equation

**Definition 4.** A 2th order partial differential equation in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  takes the form

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^n a_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) u_{x_i x_j} + \sum_{i=0}^n b_i(\mathbf{x}) u_{x_i} + c(\mathbf{x}) u(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}),$$

where  $a_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) = a_{ji}(\mathbf{x})$ .

**Definition 4.1.** Let  $A(\mathbf{x}) = (a_{ij}(\mathbf{x}))_{n \times n}$  be a symmetric matrix, and  $\lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$  the eigenvalues of  $A$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , then

- The equation is **elliptic** at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $\lambda_i < 0$
- The equation is **parabolic** at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if  $\lambda_1 = 0$  and for  $i = 2, \dots, n$ ,  $\lambda_i < 0$ ;
- The equation is **hyperbolic** at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if  $\lambda_1 > 0$  and for  $i = 2, \dots, n$ ,  $\lambda_i < 0$ ;

**Definition 4.2.** The boundary conditions for the unknown function  $y$ , constants  $c_0, c_1$  specified by the boundary conditions, and known scalar functions  $g, h$  specified by the boundary conditions, where

- **Dirichlet boundary condition:**  $y = g$ ;
- **Neumann boundary condition:**  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial n} = g$ ;
- **Robin boundary condition:**  $c_0 y + c_1 \frac{\partial y}{\partial n} = g$  where  $c_0, c_1 \neq 0$ ;
- **Mixed boundary condition:**  $y = g$  and  $c_0 y + c_1 \frac{\partial y}{\partial n} = h$  where  $c_0, c_1 \neq 0$ ;
- **Cauchy boundary condition:**  $y = g$  and  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial n} = h$ .

### 4.1 Poisson's Equation

**Definition 4.3.** A Poisson's equation in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  takes the form

$$-\Delta u = f(\mathbf{x}),$$

where  $\Delta$  is the Laplace operator,  $u, f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

### 4.2 Heat Equation

**Definition 4.4.** A Heat equation in  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$  takes the form

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - a^2 \Delta u = f(\mathbf{x}, t),$$

where  $\Delta$  is the Laplace operator on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $u, f : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

### 4.3 Wave Equation

**Definition 4.5.** A **Wave equation** in  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$  takes the form

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} - a^2 \Delta u = f(\mathbf{x}, t),$$

where  $\Delta$  is the Laplace operator on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $u, f : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Chapter 5

## Probability Theory

**Definition 5.** A **probability space** is a triple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  consisting of

- the sample space  $\Omega$ : an arbitrary non-empty set;
- the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^\Omega$ : a set of subsets of  $\Omega$ , called events, such that
  - $\mathcal{F}$  contains the sample space:  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
  - $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under complements: if  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , then also  $(\Omega \setminus A) \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
  - $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under countable unions: if  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}, i = 1, \dots$ , then also  $(\cup_{i=1}^\infty A_i) \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
- the probability measure  $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ : a function such that
  - $P$  is countably additive (also called  $\sigma$ -additive): if  $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^\infty \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  is a countable collection of pairwise disjoint sets, then  $P(\cup_{i=1}^\infty A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty P(A_i)$ ;
  - the measure of the entire sample space is equal to one:  $P(\Omega) = 1$ .

### 5.1 Characteristic functions

### 5.2 Probability limit theorems

## **Chapter 6**

### **Stochastic Process**

#### **6.1 Poisson process**

#### **6.2 Markov chain**

# **Chapter 7**

## **Statistics**



## **Chapter 8**

### **Graph**

#### **8.1 Shortest Path**

#### **8.2 Matching**

#### **8.3 Network Flow**

#### **8.4 Tree**

## **Chapter 9**

### **Combinatorics**

#### **9.1 Generating function**

#### **9.2 Inclusion–exclusion principle**

#### **9.3 Special Numbers**

##### **9.3.1 Catalan number**

##### **9.3.2 Stirling number**

# **Part 2**

# **Scientific Computing**

# Chapter 10

## Interpolation

### 10.1 Polynomial Interpolation

#### 10.1.1 Lagrange formula

**Definition 10.** To interpolate given points  $(x_0, f(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$ , the Lagrange formula is

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n f(x_i) l_i(x),$$

where the **elementary Lagrange interpolation polynomial** (or **fundamental polynomial**) for pointwise interpolation  $l_k(x)$  is

$$l_k(x) = \prod_{i=0, i \neq k}^n \frac{x - x_i}{x_k - x_i}.$$

In particular, for  $n = 0, l_0(x) = 1$ .

#### 10.1.2 Newton formula

**Definition 10.1.** The  $k$ th divided difference ( $k \in \mathbb{N}^+$ ) on the **table of divided differences**

$$\begin{array}{c|cccccc} x_0 & f[x_0] & & & & & \\ x_1 & f[x_1] & f[x_0, x_1] & & & & \\ x_2 & f[x_2] & f[x_1, x_2] & f[x_0, x_1, x_2] & & & \\ x_3 & f[x_3] & f[x_2, x_3] & f[x_1, x_2, x_3] & f[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3] & & \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \end{array}$$

where the **divided differences** satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} f[x_0] &= f(x_0), \\ f[x_0, \dots, x_k] &= \frac{f[x_1, \dots, x_k] - f[x_0, \dots, x_{k-1}]}{x_k - x_0}. \end{aligned}$$

**Corollary 10.2.** Suppose  $(i_0, \dots, i_k)$  is a permutation of  $(0, \dots, k)$ . Then

$$f[x_0, \dots, x_k] = f[x_{i_0}, \dots, x_{i_k}].$$

**Theorem 10.3.** For distinct points  $x_0, \dots, x_n$  and  $x$ , we have

$$f(x) = f[x_0] + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) + \dots + f[x_0, \dots, x_n] \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (x - x_i) + f[x_0, \dots, x_n, x] \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i).$$

**Definition 10.4.** The **Newton formula** for interpolating the points  $(x_0, f(x_0)), \dots, (x_n, f(x_n))$  is

$$p_n(x) = f[x_0] + f[x_0, x_1](x - x_0) + \dots + f[x_0, \dots, x_n] \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (x - x_i).$$

### 10.1.3 Neville-Aitken algorithm

**Definition 10.5.** Denote  $p_0^{[i]}(x) = f(x_i)$  for  $i = 0, \dots, n$ . For all  $k = 0, \dots, n-1$  and  $i = 0, \dots, n-k-1$ , define

$$p_{k+1}^{[i]}(x) = \frac{(x - x_i)p_k^{[i+1]}(x) - (x - x_{i+k+1})p_k^{[i]}(x)}{x_{i+k+1} - x_i}.$$

Then each  $p_k^{[i]}(x)$  is the interpolating polynomial for the function  $f$  at the points  $x_i, \dots, x_{i+k}$ . In particular,  $p_n^{[0]}(x)$  is the interpolating polynomial of degree  $n$  for the function  $f$  at the points  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ .

### 10.1.4 Hermite interpolation

**Definition 10.6.** Given distinct points  $x_0, \dots, x_k$  in  $[a, b]$ , non-negative integers  $m_0, \dots, m_k$ , and a function  $f \in C^M[a, b]$  where  $M = \max_{i=0, \dots, k} (m_i)$ , the **Hermite interpolation problem** seeks a polynomial  $p(x)$  of the lowest degree satisfies

$$\forall i \in \{0, \dots, k\}, \forall \mu \in \{0, \dots, m_i\}, p^{(\mu)}(x_i) = f^{(\mu)}(x_i).$$

**Definition 10.7. (Generalized divided difference)** Let  $x_0, \dots, x_k$  be  $k+1$  pairwise distinct points with each  $x_i$  repeated  $m_i + 1$  times; write  $N = k + \sum_{i=0}^k m_i$ . The  $N$ th divided difference associated with these points is the coefficient of  $x^N$  in the polynomial  $p$  that uniquely solves the Hermite interpolation problem.

**Corollary 10.8.** The  $n$ th divided difference at  $n+1$  “confluent” (i.e. identical) points is

$$f[x_0, \dots, x_0] = \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(x_0),$$

where  $x_0$  is repeated  $n+1$  times on the left-hand side.

### 10.1.5 Approximation

**Definition 10.9.** Given condition functions  $c_0, \dots, c_k : \mathbb{P}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ , the **Approximation problem** seeks a polynomial  $p_n(x)$  of the given degree  $n$  satisfies a unconstrained optimization

$$\min_{p_n \in \mathbb{P}_n} \sum_{i=0}^k c_i(p_n^{(m_i)}).$$

where condition function  $c(p)$  includes but is not limited to

$$|p^{(m)}(x)|, (p_n^{(m)}(x))^2, \int_a^b |p^{(m)}| \, dx, \int_a^b (p^{(m)})^2 \, dx.$$

**Example 10.10.** For non-negative integers  $m_0, \dots, m_k$  and condition functions  $c_i(p_n) = (p_n^{(m_i)}(x))^2$ , denote by

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i$$

the polynomial of the given degree  $n$ , then the  $m$ th derivative of  $p_n$  is

$$p_n^{(m)}(x) = \sum_{i=m}^n \frac{i!}{(i-m)!} c_i x^{i-m}.$$

All above implies the least squares system

$$\begin{cases} p_n^{(m_0)}(x) = \sum_{i=m_0}^n \frac{i!}{(i-m_0)!} c_i x^{i-m_0} = 0, \\ \dots \\ p_n^{(m_k)}(x) = \sum_{i=m_k}^n \frac{i!}{(i-m_k)!} c_i x^{i-m_k} = 0, \end{cases}$$

which can be solved by algorithms such as Householder transformation.

### 10.1.6 Error analysis

**Theorem 10.11.** Let  $f \in C^n[a, b]$  and suppose that  $f^{(n+1)}(x)$  exists at each point of  $(a, b)$ . Let  $p_n(x) \in \mathbb{P}_n$  denote the unique polynomial that coincides with  $f$  at  $x_0, \dots, x_n$ . Define

$$R_n(f; x) = f(x) - p_n(x),$$

as the **Cauchy remainder** of the polynomial interpolation.

If  $a \leq x_0 < \dots < x_n \leq b$ , then there exists some  $\xi \in (a, b)$  satisfies

$$R_n(f; x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^n (x - x_i)$$

where the value of  $\xi$  depends on  $x, x_0, \dots, x_n$  and  $f$ .

**Theorem 10.12.** For the Hermite interpolation problem, denote  $N = k + \sum_{i=0}^k m_i$ . Denote by  $p_N(x) \in \mathbb{P}_N$  the unique solution of the problem. Suppose  $f^{(N+1)}(x)$  exists in  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists some  $\xi \in (a, b)$  satisfies

$$R_N(f; x) = \frac{f^{(N+1)}(\xi)}{(N+1)!} \prod_{i=0}^k (x - x_i)^{m_i+1}.$$

## 10.2 Spline

**Definition 10.13.** Given nonnegative integers  $n, k$ , and a strictly increasing sequence  $a = x_1 < \dots < x_N = b$ , the set of **spline** functions of degree  $n$  and smoothness class  $k$  relative to the partition  $\{x_i\}$  is

$$\mathbb{S}_n^k = \left\{ s : s \in C^k[a, b]; \forall i \in \{1, \dots, N-1\}, s|_{[x_i, x_{i+1}]} \in \mathbb{P}_n \right\},$$

where  $x_i$  is the **knot** of the spline.

### 10.2.1 Cubic spline

**Definition 10.14. (Boundary conditions of splines)** The followings are common boundary conditions of cubic splines.

- The **complete cubic spline**  $s$  satisfies  $s'(a) = f'(a), s'(b) = f'(b)$ ;
- The **cubic spline with specified second derivatives**  $s$  satisfies  $s''(a) = f''(a), s''(b) = f''(b)$ ;
- The **natural cubic spline**  $s$  satisfies  $s''(a) = s''(b) = 0$ ;
- The **not-a-knot cubic spline**  $s$  satisfies  $s'''(x)$  exists at  $x = x_2$  and  $x = x_{N-1}$ .
- The **periodic cubic spline**  $s$  satisfies  $s(a) = s(b), s'(a) = s'(b), s''(a) = s''(b)$ .

**Theorem 10.15.** Denote  $m_i = s'(x_i), M_i = s''(x_i)$  for  $s \in \mathbb{S}_3^2$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \forall i = 2, 3, \dots, N-1, \quad \lambda_i m_{i-1} + 2m_i + \mu_i m_{i+1} + 1 &= 3\mu_i f[x_i, x_{i+1}] + 3\lambda_i f[x_{i-1}, x_i], \\ \forall i = 2, 3, \dots, N-1, \quad \mu_i M_{i-1} + 2M_i + \lambda_i m_{i+1} &= 6f[x_{i-1}, x_i, x_{i+1}], \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\mu_i = \frac{x_i - x_{i-1}}{x_{i+1} - x_{i-1}}, \quad \lambda_i = \frac{x_{i+1} - x_i}{x_{i+1} - x_{i-1}}.$$

In particular,  $m_i$  and  $M_i$  should be replaced to the derivatives given at the boundary.

**Theorem 10.16.** Cubic spline  $s \in \mathbb{S}_3^2$  from the linear system of  $\lambda_i, \mu_i, m_i, M_i$  and the boundary conditions.

## 10.2.2 B-spline

**Definition 10.17. B-splines** are defined recursively by

$$B_i^{n+1}(x) = (x - x_{i-1})(x_{i+n} - x_{i-1})B_i^n(x) + \frac{x_{i+n+1} - x}{x_{i+n+1} - x_{i-1}}B_{i+1}^n(x),$$

where recursion base is the B-spline of degree zero

$$B_i^0(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in (x_{i-1}, x_i], \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 10.18.** The  $\{B_i^n(x)\}$  forms a basis of  $\mathbb{S}_n^{n-1}$ .

**Definition 10.19.** For  $N \in \mathbb{N}^*$ , the **support** of a  $B_i^n(x)$  is

$$\text{supp } \{B_i^n(x)\} = \overline{\{x \in \mathbb{R} : B_i^n(x) \neq 0\}} = [x_{i-1}, x_{i+n}].$$

**Theorem 10.20. (Integrals of B-splines)** The average of a B-spline over its support only depends on its degree,

$$\frac{1}{t_{i+n} - t_{i-1}} \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_{i+n}} B_i^n(x) dx = \frac{1}{n+1}.$$

**Theorem 10.21. (Derivatives of B-splines)** For  $n \geq 2$ , we have

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \frac{d}{dx} B_i^n(x) = \frac{n B_i^{n-1}(x)}{x_{i+n-1} - x_{i-1}} - \frac{n B_{i+1}^{n-1}(x)}{x_{i+n} - x_i}.$$

For  $n = 1$ , it holds for all  $x$  except  $x_{i-1}, t_i, t_{i+1}$ , where the derivative of  $B_i^1(x)$  is not defined.

### 10.2.3 Error analysis

**Theorem 10.22.** Suppose a function  $f \in C^4[a, b]$ , is interpolated by a complete cubic spline or a cubic spline with specified second derivatives at its end points. Then

$$\forall m = 0, 1, 2, |f^{(m)}(x) - s^{(m)}(x)| \leq c_m h^{4-m} \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f^{(4)}(x)|,$$

where  $c_0 = \frac{1}{16}, c_1 = c_2 = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $h = \max_{i=1, \dots, N-1} |x_{i+1} - x_i|$ .



# Chapter 11

## Integration

**Definition 11.** A **weighted quadrature formula**  $I_n(f)$  is a linear function

$$I_n(f) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(x_i),$$

which approximates the integral of a function  $f \in C[a, b]$ ,

$$I(f) = \int_a^b \rho(x) f(x) dx,$$

where the weight function  $\rho \in [a, b]$  satisfies  $\forall x \in (a, b), \rho(x) > 0$ . The points  $\{x_i\}$  at which the integrand  $f$  is evaluated are called nodes or abscissas, and the multipliers  $\{w_i\}$  are called weights or coefficients.

**Definition 11.1.** A weighted quadrature formula has (polynomial) **degree of exactness**  $d_E$  iff

$$\begin{aligned} \forall f \in \mathbb{P}_{d_E}, \quad E_n(f) &= 0, \\ \exists g \in \mathbb{P}_{d_E+1}, \text{ s.t. } E_n(g) &\neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbb{P}_d$  denotes the set of polynomials with degree no more than  $d$ .

**Theorem 11.2.** A weighted quadrature formula  $I_n(f)$  satisfies  $d_E \leq 2n - 1$ .

**Definition 11.3.** The **error** or **remainder** of  $I_n(f)$  is

$$E_n(f) = I(f) - I_n(f),$$

where  $I_n(f)$  is said to be convergent for  $C[a, b]$  iff

$$\forall f \in C[a, b], \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} E_n(f) = 0.$$

**Theorem 11.4.** Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be given as distinct nodes of  $I_n(f)$ . If  $d_E \geq n - 1$ , then its weights can be deduced as

$$\forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}, w_k = \int_a^b \rho(x) l_k(x) dx,$$

where  $l_k(x)$  is the elementary Lagrange interpolation polynomial for pointwise interpolation applied to the given nodes.

### 11.1 Newton-Cotes Formulas

**Definition 11.5.** A **Newton-Cotes formula** is a formula based on approximating  $f(x)$  by interpolating it on uniformly spaced nodes  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in [a, b]$ .

#### 11.1.1 Midpoint rule

**Definition 11.6.** The **midpoint rule** is a formula based on approximating  $f(x)$  by the constant  $f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)$ .

For  $\rho(x) \equiv 1$ , it is simply

$$I_M(f) = (b-a)f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right).$$

**Theorem 11.7.** For  $f \in C^2[a, b]$ , with weight function  $\rho \equiv 1$ , the error (remainder) of midpoint rule satisfies

$$\exists \xi \in [a, b], \text{ s.t. } E_M(f) = \frac{(b-a)^3}{24} f''(\xi).$$

**Corollary 11.8.** The midpoint rule has  $d_E = 1$ .

### 11.1.2 Trapezoidal rule

**Definition 11.9.** The **trapezoidal rule** is a formula based on approximating  $f(x)$  by the straight line that connects  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$ .

For  $\rho(x) \equiv 1$ , it is simply

$$I_T(f) = \frac{b-a}{2}(f(a) + f(b)).$$

**Theorem 11.10.** For  $f \in C^2[a, b]$ , with weight function  $\rho \equiv 1$ , the error (remainder) of trapezoidal rule satisfies

$$\exists \xi \in [a, b], \text{ s.t. } E_T(f) = -\frac{(b-a)^3}{12} f''(\xi).$$

**Corollary 11.11.** The trapezoidal rule has  $d_E = 1$ .

### 11.1.3 Simpson's rule

**Definition 11.12.** The **Simpson's rule** is a formula based on approximating  $f(x)$  by the quadratic polynomial that goes through the points  $(a, f(a))$ ,  $\left(\frac{a+b}{2}, f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)\right)$  and  $(b, f(b))$ .

For  $\rho(x) \equiv 1$ , it is simply

$$I_S(f) = \frac{b-a}{6} \left( f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b) \right).$$

**Theorem 11.13.** For  $f \in C^4[a, b]$ , with weight function  $\rho \equiv 1$ , the error (remainder) of Simpson's rule satisfies

$$\exists \xi \in [a, b], \text{ s.t. } E_T(f) = -\frac{(b-a)^5}{2880} f^{(4)}(\xi).$$

**Corollary 11.14.** The Simpson's rule has  $d_E = 3$ .

## 11.2 Gauss Formulas

**Theorem 11.15.** For an interval  $[a, b]$  and a weight function  $\rho : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the nodes for gauss formula  $I_n(f)$  is the root of the  $n$ th order orthogonal polynomial on  $[a, b]$  with the weight function  $\rho(x)$ .

**Theorem 11.16.** A Gauss formula  $I_n(f)$  has  $d_E = 2n - 1$ .

# Chapter 12

## Optimization

### 12.1 One-dimensional Line Search

**Definition 12.** Given a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , a initial point  $\mathbf{x}$  and a direction  $\mathbf{d}$ , denoted by  $\varphi(\alpha) = f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha\mathbf{d})$ , a **one-dimensional line search** method solves the problem

$$\varphi(\alpha) = \min_{t \in \mathbb{R}^+} \varphi(t).$$

**Method 12.1. (Success-failure method)** For a one-dimensional line search problem, the **success-failure method** is an inexact one-dimensional line search method to solve the interval  $[a, b] \in [0, +\infty)$  that exact solution  $\alpha^* \in [a, b]$ , where we

- (1) Choose initial value  $\alpha_0 \in [0, +\infty)$ ,  $h_0 > 0$ ,  $t > 0$  (commonly choose  $t = 2$ ), calculate  $\varphi(\alpha_0)$  and let  $k = 0$ ;
- (2) Let  $\alpha_{k+1} = \alpha_k + h_k$  and calculate  $\varphi(\alpha_{k+1})$ , if  $\varphi(\alpha_{k+1}) < \varphi(\alpha_k)$ , then go to (3), otherwise go to (4);
- (3) Let  $h_{k+1} = th_k$ ,  $\alpha = \alpha_k$ ,  $k = k + 1$ , and go to (2);
- (4) If  $k = 0$ , then let  $h_k = -h_k$  and go to (2), otherwise stop and the solution  $[a, b]$  satisfies

$$a = \min\{\alpha, \alpha_k\}, \quad b = \max\{\alpha, \alpha_k\}.$$

**Definition 12.2.** A general form of one-dimensional line search method is the following three steps:

- (1) **Initialization:** given initial point  $\mathbf{x}$  and acceptable error  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\delta > 0$ ;
- (2) **Iteration:** calculate the direction  $\mathbf{d}$  and step size  $\alpha$  that  $f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha\mathbf{d}) = \min_{t \in \mathbb{R}^+} f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{d})$  and let  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \alpha\mathbf{d}$ ;
- (3) **Stop condition:** if  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\| \leq \varepsilon$  or  $U_{\mathbb{R}^n}(\mathbf{x}, \delta)$  includes the exact solution, then the current  $\mathbf{x}$  is the solution.

where the iteration step are repeated until  $\mathbf{x}$  satisfies the stop condition.

**Definition 12.3.** Given a method, denoted by  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  the sequence of the iteration and  $\mathbf{x}^*$  the exact solution, the method is **(Q-)linear convergence** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^*\|} \in (0, 1),$$

the method is **(Q-)sublinear convergence** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^*\|} = 1,$$

the method is **(Q-)superlinear convergence** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^*\|} = 0.$$

For a superlinear convergence method, the method is  $r$ -order linear convergence if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^*\|^r} \in [0, +\infty),$$

where when  $r = 2$  is called **(Q-)quadratic convergence**.

**Remark 12.4.** There is another **R-convergence** for judging a sequence which use another Q-convergence sequence as the boundary of  $\{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^*\|\}$ , but is not needed here.

**Method 12.5. (Golden section method)** Given the initial point  $\mathbf{x}$ , an interval  $[a, b]$  and  $\delta > 0$ ,

- The iteration step is:
  - (1) Calculate the two testing points  $\lambda = a + (1 - k)(b - a)$  and  $\mu = a + k(b - a)$  where  $k = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$  is the golden ratio;
  - (2) If  $\varphi(\lambda) > \varphi(\mu)$ , let  $a = \lambda$ , otherwise let  $b = \mu$ .
- The stop condition is  $b - a \leq \delta$ ;
- The solution is  $\mathbf{x} + \frac{a+b}{2}\mathbf{d}$ .

**Theorem 12.6.** The golden section method is a **linear convergent** method.

**Method 12.7. (Fibonacci method)** Given the initial point  $\mathbf{x}$ , an interval  $[a, b]$  and  $\delta > 0$ ,

- The  $k$ -th iteration step is:
  - (1) Calculate the two testing points  $\lambda = a + \frac{F_k}{F_{k+2}}(b - a)$  and  $\mu = a + \frac{F_{k+1}}{F_{k+2}}(b - a)$  where  $F_k$  is the  $k$ -th fibonacci number and  $k$ ;
  - (2) If  $\varphi(\lambda) > \varphi(\mu)$ , let  $a = \lambda$ , otherwise let  $b = \mu$ .
- The stop condition is  $b - a \leq \delta$ ;
- The solution is  $\mathbf{x} + \frac{a+b}{2}\mathbf{d}$ .

**Theorem 12.8.** The Fibonacci method is a **linear convergent** method.

**Method 12.9. (Bisection method)** Given the initial point  $\mathbf{x}$ , an interval  $[a, b]$  and  $\delta > 0$ ,

- The iteration step is:
  - (1) Calculate the midpoint  $m = \frac{a+b}{2}$  and  $\varphi(m)$ ;
  - (2) If  $\nabla f(m) \cdot d < 0$ , let  $a = m$ , otherwise let  $b = m$ .
- The stop condition is  $b - a \leq \delta$ ;
- The solution is  $\mathbf{x} + \frac{a+b}{2}\mathbf{d}$ .

**Theorem 12.10.** The bisection method is a **linear convergent** method.

**Method 12.11. (Newton's method)** Given the initial point  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

- The iteration step is:
  - (1) Calculate  $(\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}))^T \cdot \mathbf{d}$  and  $(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}))^T \cdot \mathbf{d}$ ;
  - (2) Let  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \frac{(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}))^T \cdot \mathbf{d}}{(\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}))^T \cdot \mathbf{d}}$ ;
- The stop condition is  $(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}))^T \cdot \mathbf{d} \leq \varepsilon$ ;
- The solution is  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Theorem 12.12.** The Newton's method is a **quadratic convergent** method.

## 12.2 Unconstrained Optimization

**Definition 12.13.** Given a convex function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , a **unconstrained optimization** method solves the problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})$$

by

- (1) **Initialization:** given initial point  $\mathbf{x}$  and acceptable error  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\delta > 0$ ;
- (2) **Iteration:** calculate the direction  $\mathbf{d}$  and step size  $\alpha$ , then let  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \alpha\mathbf{d}$ ;
- (3) **Stop condition:** if  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\| \leq \varepsilon$  or  $U_{\mathbb{R}^n}(\mathbf{x}, \delta)$  includes the exact solution, then the current  $\mathbf{x}$  is the solution.

**Method 12.14. (Gradient descent method)** Given the initial point  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

- The iteration step is:
  - (1) Calculate  $\mathbf{d} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$  and step size  $\alpha$  by a line search method;
  - (2) Let  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \alpha\mathbf{d}$ ;
- The stop condition is  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\| \leq \varepsilon$ ;
- The solution is  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Theorem 12.15.** The gradient descent method is a **linear convergent** method.

**Method 12.16. (Quasi-Newton method)** Given the initial point  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$  and a matrix  $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  (usually the identity matrix),

- The  $k$ -th iteration step is:
  - (1) Calculate  $\mathbf{d}_k = -H_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$  and step size  $\alpha_k$  by a line search method;
  - (2) Let  $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_k$  and  $H_{k+1} = r_k(H_k)$  where the function  $r_k$  is a **update** depends on  $\mathbf{x}_k$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$ ,  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$  and  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})$ ;
- The stop condition is  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\| \leq \varepsilon$ ;
- The solution is  $\mathbf{x}_k$  that satisfies the stop condition.

**Definition 12.17.** Let  $\mathbf{s}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k$  and  $\mathbf{y}_k = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ , the **Symmetric Rank-1 update (SR1)** is

$$H_{k+1} = H_k + \frac{(\mathbf{s}_k - H_k \mathbf{y}_k)(\mathbf{s}_k - H_k \mathbf{y}_k)^T}{(\mathbf{s}_k - H_k \mathbf{y}_k)^T \mathbf{y}_k}.$$

The **DFP update** is a rank-2 update defined as

$$H_{k+1} = H_k + \frac{\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k} - \frac{H_k \mathbf{y}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T H_k}{\mathbf{y}_k^T H_k \mathbf{y}_k}.$$

The **BFGS update** is a rank-2 update defined as

$$H_{k+1} = H_k + \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{y}_k^T H_k \mathbf{y}_k}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k}\right) \frac{\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k} - \frac{\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T H_k + H_k \mathbf{y}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k}.$$

**Theorem 12.18.** The Quasi-Newton method is a **superlinear convergent** method.

**Method 12.19. (Newton's method)** Given the initial point  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

- The iteration step is:
  - (1) Calculate  $\mathbf{d} = -(\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}))^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$  and step size  $\alpha$  by a line search method;
  - (2) Let  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d}$ ;
- The stop condition is  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\| \leq \varepsilon$ ;
- The solution is  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Theorem 12.20.** The Newton's method is a **quadratic convergent** method.

## Chapter 13

### Initial Value Problem

**Notation 13.** To numerically solve the IVP, we are given initial condition  $\mathbf{u}_0 = \mathbf{u}(t_0)$ , and want to compute approximations  $\{\mathbf{u}_k, k = 1, 2, \dots\}$  such that

$$\mathbf{u}_k \approx \mathbf{u}(t_k),$$

where  $k$  is the uniform time step size and  $t_n = nk$ .

#### 13.1 Linear Multistep Method

**Definition 13.1.** For solving the IVP, an  $s$ -step **linear multistep method** (LMM) has the form

$$\sum_{j=0}^s \alpha_j \mathbf{u}_{n+j} = k \sum_{j=0}^s \beta_j \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_{n+j}, t_{n+j}),$$

where  $\alpha_s = 1$  is assumed WLOG.

**Definition 13.2.** An LMM is **explicit** if  $\beta_s = 0$ , otherwise it is **implicit**.

#### 13.2 Runge-Kutta Method

**Definition 13.3.** An  $s$ -stage **Runge-Kutta method** (RK) is a one-step method of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y}_i &= \mathbf{f} \left( \mathbf{u}_n + k \sum_{j=1}^s a_{ij} \mathbf{y}_j, t_n + c_i k \right), \\ \mathbf{u}_{i+1} &= \mathbf{u}_i + k \sum_{j=1}^s b_j \mathbf{y}_j, \end{aligned}$$

where  $i = 1, \dots, s$  and  $a_{ij}, b_j, c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 13.4.** The textsf{Butcher tableau} is one way to organize the coefficients of an RK method as follows

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} c_1 & a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1s} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_s & a_{s1} & \cdots & a_{ss} \\ \hline & b_1 & \cdots & b_s \end{array}$$

The matrix  $A = (a_{ij})_{s \times s}$  is called the RK matrix and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_s)^T$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_s)^T$  are called the RK weights and the RK nodes.



**Definition 13.5.** An  $s$ -stage **collocation method** is a numerical method for solving the IVP, where we

- (1) choose  $s$  distinct collocation parameters  $c_1, \dots, c_s$ ,
- (2) seek  $s$ -degree polynomial  $p$  satisfying
 
$$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, s, \quad \mathbf{p}(t_n) = \mathbf{u}_n \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{p}'(t_n + c_i k) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p}(t_n + c_i k), t_n + c_i k),$$
- (3) set  $\mathbf{u}_{n+1} = \mathbf{p}(t_{n+1})$ .

**Theorem 13.6.** The  $s$ -stage collocation method is an  $s$ -stage IRK method with

$$a_{ij} = \int_0^{c_i} l_j(\tau) d\tau, \quad b_j = \int_0^1 l_j(\tau) d\tau,$$

where  $i, j = 1, \dots, s$  and  $l_k(\tau)$  is the elementary Lagrange interpolation polynomial.

## 13.3 Theoretical analysis

**Definition 13.7.** A function  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \times [0, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is **Lipschitz continuous** in its first variable over some domain

$$\Omega = \{(\mathbf{u}, t) : \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u}_0\| \leq a, t \in [0, T]\}$$

iff

$$\exists L \geq 0, \text{ s.t. } \forall (\mathbf{u}, t) \in \Omega, \quad \|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}, t) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{v}, t)\| \leq L \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|.$$

### 13.3.1 Error analysis

**Definition 13.8.** The **local truncation error**  $\tau$  is the error caused by replacing continuous derivatives with numerical formulas.

**Definition 13.9.** A numerical formulas is **consistent** if  $\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \tau = 0$ .

### 13.3.2 Stability

**Definition 13.10.** The **region of absolute stability** (RAS) of a numerical method, applied to

$$\mathbf{u}' = \lambda \mathbf{u}, \quad \mathbf{u}_0 = \mathbf{u}(t_0),$$

is the region  $\Omega$  that

$$\forall \mathbf{u}_0, \quad \forall \lambda k \in \Omega, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \mathbf{u}_n = 0.$$

**Definition 13.11.** The **stability function** of a one-step method is a function  $R : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  that satisfies

$$\mathbf{u}_{n+1} = R(z) \mathbf{u}_n$$

for the  $\mathbf{u}' = \lambda \mathbf{u}$  where  $\text{Re}(E(\lambda)) \leq 0$  and  $z = k\lambda$ .

**Definition 13.12.** A numerical method is **stable** or **zero stable** iff its application to any IVP with  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}, t)$  Lipschitz continuous in  $\mathbf{u}$  and continuous in  $t$  yields

$$\forall T > 0, \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow 0, Nk=t} \|\mathbf{u}_n\| < \infty.$$

**Definition 13.13.** A numerical method is **A( $\alpha$ )-stable** if the region of absolute stability  $\Omega$  satisfies

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \pi - \alpha \leq \arg(z) \leq \pi + \alpha\} \subseteq \Omega.$$

**Definition 13.14.** A numerical method is **A-stable** if the region of absolute stability  $\Omega$  satisfies

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \operatorname{Re}(z) \leq 0\} \subseteq \Omega.$$

**Definition 13.15.** A one-step method is **L-stable** if it is A-stable, and its stability function satisfies

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} |R(z)| = 0.$$

**Definition 13.16.** An one-step method is **I-stable** iff its stability function satisfies

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{R}, |R(yi)| \leq 1.$$

**Definition 13.17.** An one-step method is **B-stable** (or **contractive**) if for any contractive ODE system, every pair of its numerical solutions  $\mathbf{u}_n$  and  $\mathbf{v}_n$  satisfy

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \|u_{n+1} - v_{n+1}\| \leq \|u_n - v_n\|.$$

**Definition 13.18.** An RK method is **algebraically stable** iff the RK weights  $b_1, \dots, b_s$  are nonnegative, the **algebraic stability matrix**  $M = (b_i a_{ij} + b_i a_{ji} - b_i b_j)_{s \times s}$  is positive semidefinite.

**Theorem 13.19.** The order of accuracy of an implicit A-stable LMM satisfies  $p \leq 2$ . An explicit LMM cannot be A-stable.

**Theorem 13.20.** No ERK method is A-stable.

**Theorem 13.21.** An RK method is A-stable if and only if it is I-stable and all poles of its stability function  $R(z)$  have positive real parts.

**Theorem 13.22.** If an A-stable RK method with a nonsingular RK matrix  $A$  is stiffly accurate, then it is L-stable.

**Theorem 13.23.** If an A-stable RK method with a nonsingular RK matrix  $A$  satisfies

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, s\}, \quad a_{i1} = b_i,$$

then it is L-stable.

**Theorem 13.24.** B-stable one-step methods are A-stable.

**Theorem 13.25.** An algebraically stable RK method is B-stable and A-stable.

### 13.3.3 Convergence

**Definition 13.26.** A numerical method is convergent iff its application to any IVP with  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}, t)$  Lipschitz continuous in  $\mathbf{u}$  and continuous in  $t$  yields

$$\forall T > 0, \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow 0, nk=T} \mathbf{u}_n = \mathbf{u}(T).$$

**Theorem 13.27.** A numerical method is convergent iff it is consistent and stable.

## 13.4 Important Methods

### 13.4.1 Forward Euler's method

**Definition 13.28.** The **forward Euler's method** solves the IVP by

$$\mathbf{u}_{n+1} = \mathbf{u}_n + k\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n).$$

**Theorem 13.29.** The region of absolute stability for forward Euler's method is

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |1 + z| \leq 1\}.$$

### 13.4.2 Backward Euler's method

**Definition 13.30.** The **backward Euler's method** solves the IVP by

$$\mathbf{u}_{n+1} = \mathbf{u}_n + k\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_{n+1}, t_{n+1}).$$

**Theorem 13.31.** The region of absolute stability for backward Euler's method is

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |1 - z| \geq 1\}.$$

### 13.4.3 Trapezoidal method

**Definition 13.32.** The **trapezoidal method** solves the IVP by

$$\mathbf{u}_{n+1} = \mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{2}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n) + \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_{n+1}, t_{n+1})).$$

**Theorem 13.33.** The region of absolute stability for trapezoidal method is

$$\left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} : \left| \frac{2+z}{2-z} \right| \geq 1 \right\}.$$

### 13.4.4 Midpoint method (Leapfrog method)

**Definition 13.34.** The **midpoint method (Leapfrog method)** solves the IVP by

$$\mathbf{u}_{n+1} = \mathbf{u}_{n-1} + 2k\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n).$$

**Theorem 13.35.** The region of absolute stability for midpoint method is

$$\left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} : \left| z \pm \sqrt{1 + z^2} \right| \leq 1 \right\} \stackrel{?}{=} \{0\}.$$

### 13.4.5 Heun's third-order RK method

**Definition 13.36.** The **Heun's third-order formula** is an ERK method of the form

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{y}_1 &= \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n), \\ \mathbf{y}_2 &= \mathbf{f}\left(\mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{3}\mathbf{y}_1, t_n + \frac{k}{3}\right), \\ \mathbf{y}_3 &= \mathbf{f}\left(\mathbf{u}_n + \frac{2k}{3}\mathbf{y}_2, t_n + \frac{2k}{3}\right), \\ \mathbf{u}_{n+1} &= \mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{4}(\mathbf{y}_1 + 3\mathbf{y}_3). \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{c|ccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{2}{3} & 0 & \frac{2}{3} & 0 \\ \hline \frac{1}{4} & 0 & \frac{3}{4} & \end{array}$$

### 13.4.6 Classical fourth-order RK method

**Definition 13.37.** The **classical fourth-order RK method** is an ERK method of the form

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{y}_1 &= \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n), \\ \mathbf{y}_2 &= \mathbf{f}\left(\mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{2}\mathbf{y}_1, t_n + \frac{k}{2}\right), \\ \mathbf{y}_3 &= \mathbf{f}\left(\mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{2}\mathbf{y}_2, t_n + \frac{k}{2}\right), \\ \mathbf{y}_4 &= \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n + k\mathbf{y}_3, t_n + k), \\ \mathbf{u}_{n+1} &= \mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{6}(\mathbf{y}_1 + 2\mathbf{y}_2 + 2\mathbf{y}_3 + \mathbf{y}_4). \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{c|cccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{6} & \end{array}$$

### 13.4.7 Third-order strong-stability preserving RK method

**Definition 13.38.** The **third-order strong-stability preserving RK method** is an ERK method of the form

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{y}_1 &= \mathbf{u}_n + k\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n), \\ \mathbf{y}_2 &= \frac{3}{4}\mathbf{u}_n + \frac{1}{4}\mathbf{y}_1 + \frac{1}{4}k\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}_1, t_n + k), \\ \mathbf{u}_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{u}_n + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{y}_2 + \frac{2}{3}k\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}_2, t_n + \frac{k}{2}). \end{cases}$$

which can also be written as

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{y}_1 &= \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n), \\ \mathbf{y}_2 &= \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n + k\mathbf{y}_1, t_n + k), \\ \mathbf{y}_3 &= \mathbf{f}\left(\mathbf{u}_n + \frac{1}{4}k\mathbf{y}_1 + \frac{1}{4}k\mathbf{y}_2, t_n + \frac{1}{2}\right), \\ \mathbf{u}_{n+1} &= \mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{6}(\mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2 + 4\mathbf{y}_3). \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{c|ccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ \hline \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{2}{3} \end{array}$$

### 13.4.8 TR-BDF2 method

**Definition 13.39.** The **TR-BDF2 method** is an one-step method of the form

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{u}_* &= \mathbf{u}_n + \frac{k}{4}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_n, t_n) + \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_*, t_n + \frac{k}{2})), \\ \mathbf{u}_{n+1} &= \frac{1}{3}(4\mathbf{u}_* - \mathbf{u}_n + k\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u}_{n+1}, t_{n+1})). \end{cases}$$

# Chapter 14

## Number Theory

### 14.1 Prime Number

**Definition 14.** A **prime number** (or a **prime**) is a natural number greater than 1 that is not a product of two smaller natural numbers.

**Definition 14.1.** A **composite number** (or a **composite**) is a natural number greater than 1 that is a product of two smaller natural numbers.

#### 14.1.1 Primality testing

**Theorem 14.2.** For a integer  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , if it is a product of two natural number  $a$  and  $b$  thar  $a \leq b$ , then

$$1 \leq a \leq \sqrt{n} \leq b \leq n.$$

**Method 14.3. (Trial division)** Given a integer  $n$ , the **trial division method** divides  $n$  by each integer from 2 up to  $\sqrt{n}$ . Any such integer dividing  $n$  evenly establishes  $n$  as composite, otherwise it is prime.

**Theorem 14.4. (Fermat's little theorem)** For a prime number  $p$  and a number  $a$  that  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

**Method 14.5.** The **Miller-Rabin** algorithm is a method of primality testing, where given a number  $n$ , where we

- (1) determine directly for small numbers such as  $p = 2$ .
- (2) factorize the number  $p = u \times 2^t$ ;
- (3) choose a number  $a$  that  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , and calculate  $a^u, a^{u \times 2}, a^{u \times 2^2}, \dots, a^{u \times 2^{t-1}}$ ;
- (4) if  $a^u \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , or  $\exists a^{u \times k}, k < t$  that  $a^{u \times k} \equiv p - 1 \pmod{p}$  then  $p$  passes the test, otherwise,  $p$  is a composite number;
- (5) repeat above steps to eliminate error.

For numbers less than  $2^{32}$ , choose  $a \in \{2, 7, 61\}$  is enough, for numbers less than  $2^{64}$ , choose  $a \in \{2, 325, 9375, 28178, 450775, 9780504, 1795265022\}$  is enough.

#### 14.1.2 Sieves

**Method 14.6. (Sieve of Eratosthenes)** Given an upper limit  $n$ , the **sieve of Eratosthenes** solves all the prime numbers up to  $n$  by marking composite numbers, where we

- (1) create a list of consecutive integers from 2 to  $n$ :  $\{2, 3, 4, \dots, n\}$ ;
- (2) initially, let  $p = 2$ , the smallest prime number;
- (3) enumerate the multiples of  $p$  by counting in increments of  $p$  from  $2p$  to  $n$ , and mark them in the list;
- (4) find the smallest number in the list greater than  $p$  that is not marked;
- (5) if there was no such number, the method is terminated and the numbers remaining not marked in the list are all the primes below  $n$ , otherwise let  $p$  now equal the new number which is the next prime, and repeat from step (3).

# **Part 3**

# **Machine Learning**



# Chapter 15

## Regression

### 15.1 Linear Regression

**Definition 15.** Given a data set  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i \in \{1, \dots, m\}\}$  where  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the linear regression seeks  $\tilde{\mathbf{w}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\tilde{b} \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \tilde{b} \approx y_i.$$

In general, we choose mean square error to estimate the error between  $f(\mathbf{x}_i)$  and  $y_i$ , which implies

$$(\tilde{\mathbf{w}}, \tilde{b}) = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^m (f(\mathbf{x}_i) - y_i)^2 = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b - y_i)^2.$$

**Theorem 15.1.** Given a data set  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i \in \{1, \dots, m\}\}$  where  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , let

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^T & 1 \\ \vdots & 1 \\ \mathbf{x}_m^T & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix},$$

if  $X^T X$  is invertible, the solution of linear regression can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{w} \\ b \end{pmatrix} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y}.$$

## **Chapter 16**

### **Decision Tree**

## **Chapter 17**

# **Support Vector Machine**

# Chapter 18

## Cluster

### 18.1 K-means

**Definition 18.** Given points  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , **k-means clustering** aims to partition the points into  $k \leq n$  sets  $S = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$  satisfies

$$S = \arg \min_S \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in S_i} \|\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|^2 \right\},$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i$  is the mean (centroid) of points in  $S_i$ , i.e. denoted by  $|S_i|$  the size of  $S_i$ ,

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_i = \frac{1}{|S_i|} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in S_i} \mathbf{x}.$$

**Theorem 18.1.** Denoted by  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  the points and  $S = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$  sets given by K-means,

$$S = \arg \min_S \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{|S_i|} \sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S_i} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 \right\}.$$

**Method 18.2. (K-means clustering)** Denoted by  $S^{(t)} = \{S_1^{(t)}, \dots, S_k^{(t)}\}$  the sets given by k-means at  $t$ -th step and  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i^{(t)}$  the mean of  $S_i^{(t)}$ , the algorithm proceeds by

- (1) **Assignment:** Assign each point to the cluster with the nearest mean,

$$S_i^{(t)} = \left\{ \mathbf{x}_p : \forall j \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \|\mathbf{x}_p - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i^{(t)}\|^2 \leq \|\mathbf{x}_p - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(t)}\|^2 \right\};$$

- (2) **Update:** Recalculate means (centroids) of each cluster,

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_i^{(t)} = \frac{1}{|S_i^{(t)}|} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in S_i^{(t)}} \mathbf{x}.$$

## **Chapter 19**

# **Neural Networks**