

## Notes on Mathematics

### Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Calculus</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1	Differentiation and Integration . . . . .	1
1.2	Directional Derivative and Gradients . . . . .	5
<b>2</b>	<b>Nonlinear Optimization</b>	<b>7</b>
2.1	Minimization without Constraints . . . . .	7
2.2	One Dimensional Minimization and Direct Search . . . . .	9
<b>3</b>	<b>The Road to Reality</b>	<b>11</b>
3.1	Hyperbolic Geometry . . . . .	11
3.2	Complex Numbers . . . . .	12
3.3	Exponential Function and Logarithms . . . . .	13
3.4	Complex Analysis . . . . .	14
<b>4</b>	<b>Neural Networks</b>	<b>20</b>
4.1	The Perceptron . . . . .	20
4.2	The Backtracking Algorithm . . . . .	23

# 1 Calculus

## 1.1 Differentiation and Integration

**Lemma 1.1** (Simple Calculations).

1. For  $1 = xx^{-1}$  the product rule yields  $0 = x^{-1} + x(x^{-1})'$ . Hence

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{-1} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

2. Similarly  $x = \sqrt{x^2}$  and  $1 = 2\sqrt{x}\sqrt{x}'$  and so

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

3. It is

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^n = nx^{n-1}$$

since via induction the product rule yields

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^n = \frac{d}{dx}xx^{n-1} = x^{n-1} + \frac{d}{dx}x^{n-1} = x^{n-1} + (n-1)x^{n-1} = nx^{n-1}$$

4. Again, applying the product rule gives

$$\left(\frac{1}{g}\right)' = \left(\frac{1}{x} \circ g\right)' = -\frac{g'}{g^2}$$

and the quotient rule

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'}{g} + f\left(\frac{1}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'}{g} - \frac{fg'}{g^2} = \frac{gf' - fg'}{g^2}$$

5. Also  $x = f \circ f^{-1}$  and  $1 = (f^{-1})'f' \circ f^{-1}$ . Thus

$$(f^{-1})' = \frac{1}{f' \circ f^{-1}}$$

where defined. Especially for  $x \neq 0$

$$\log'(x) = \frac{1}{\exp'(\log(x))} = \frac{1}{x}$$

6.  $(1-q)(1+q+q^2+\dots+q^n) = 1-q+q-q^2+q^2-q^3+\dots+q^{n+1}$  gives

$$\sum_{k=0}^n q^k = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \text{ and } \sum_{k=m}^n q^k = \frac{q^m - q^{n+1}}{1-q}$$

**Lemma 1.2** (Exponential Function).

1. It is

$$\exp(x + y) = \exp(x) \exp(y)$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(0) &= 1 \\ \exp(-x) &= \exp(x)^{-1} \\ \exp(nx) &= \exp(x)^n\end{aligned}$$

2. For the derivative

$$\exp'(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} (x^k)' = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} k x^{k-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k-1)!} x^{k-1} = \exp(x)$$

**Lemma 1.3** (Sinus and Cosinus).

1. Sinus and Cosinus power series

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2k!} x^{2k} \\ \sin(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k+1)!} x^{2k+1}\end{aligned}$$

2. Symmetry

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(-x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2k!} (-x)^{2k} = \cos(x) \\ \sin(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k+1)!} (-x)^{2k+1} = -\sin(x)\end{aligned}$$

3. Derivatives

$$\begin{aligned}\cos'(x) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k-1)!} x^{2k-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(2k+1)!} x^{2k+1} = -\sin(x) \\ \sin'(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2k!} x^{2k} = \cos(x)\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 1.4** (Fermat Stationary Point). Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be open and  $f \in C^1(\Omega)$ . If  $x^* \in \Omega$  is local extremum then  $f'(x^*) = 0$ .

*Proof.* Assume  $x^*$  is the minimum of  $f$  in  $\Omega$  and let  $f(x^*) > 0$ . Since  $f \in C^1(\Omega)$  there exist  $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$ , so that for  $|h| \leq \varepsilon$

$$\frac{f(x^* + h) - f(x^*)}{h} > \delta$$

Pick a negative  $h \in [-\varepsilon, 0)$ . Then

$$f(x^* + h) < f(x^*) + \delta h < f(x^*)$$

and  $x^*$  cannot be the minimum. Analog for maximum with a positive  $h$ , then apply to  $-f$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 1.5** (Rolle). *Let  $f \in C[a, b]$  with  $f(a) = f(b)$ . If  $f$  is differentiable in  $(a, b)$  then there exists a  $\xi \in (a, b)$  with  $f'(\xi) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* Assume  $f$  is not constant. Since  $[a, b]$  is compact there exists either a global minimum or maximum  $\xi \in (a, b)$  and Theorem 1.4 can be applied.  $\square$

**Theorem 1.6** (Mean Value). *Let  $f \in C[a, b]$  be differentiable in  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists a  $\xi \in (a, b)$  with*

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

*Proof.* Apply Theorem 1.5 to

$$g(x) = f(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$$

$\square$

**Remark 1.7.**

1. More generally choose any  $\varphi \in C^1[a, b]$  with  $\varphi(a) = 0$  and  $\varphi(b) = f(b) - f(a)$ . Set  $g(x) = f(x) - \varphi(x)$  to see there is a  $\xi \in (a, b)$  with  $f'(\xi) = \varphi'(\xi)$ .
2. Let  $f$  be differentiable in  $(a, b)$  with  $f' = 0$ . For  $x, y \in (a, b)$

$$0 = f'(\xi) = \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x}$$

and  $f$  is a constant.

3. Another useful generalization: let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f \in C^1(\Omega)$ . For  $x, y \in \Omega$  define  $\varphi(t) = f(tx + (1 - t)y)$  and apply the chain rule for differentiation

$$\varphi'(\xi) = \nabla f(\xi x + (1 - \xi)y)^T(x - y) = f(x) - f(y)$$

4. The Cauchy Schwarz inequality then yields

$$\|f(x) - f(y)\| \leq \|\nabla f(\xi x + (1 - \xi)y)\| \|x - y\|$$

**Theorem 1.8** (Differentiation Theorem). *Let  $f \in C[a, b]$  and define*

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

*Then  $F \in C^1[a, b]$  with  $F'(x) = f(x)$  for  $x \in [a, b]$ .*

*Proof.* Applying the Mean Value Theorem of Integration gives

$$F(x + h) - F(x) = \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = f(\xi)h$$

for some  $\xi \in (x, x + h)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 1.9** (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus). *Let  $F \in C^1[a, b]$  with  $F' = f$ . Then*

$$F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

**Lemma 1.10** (Integration by Substitution). *Let  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be an interval and  $f \in C(I)$ . For  $\varphi \in C([a, b], I)$  it follows*

$$\int_{\varphi(a)}^{\varphi(b)} f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(\varphi(t))\varphi'(t) dt$$

*Proof.* Let  $F \in C^1(I)$  with  $F' = f$ . Then the chain rule for differentiation yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\varphi(a)}^{\varphi(b)} f(x) dx &= F(\varphi(b)) - F(\varphi(a)) \\ &= F \circ \varphi(b) - F \circ \varphi(a) \\ &= \int_a^b (F \circ \varphi)'(t) dt \\ &= \int_a^b f(\varphi(t))\varphi'(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

□

**Examples 1.11.**

1. For  $\varphi(x) = x^2 + 1$  it is  $\varphi(0) = 1$  and  $\varphi(2) = 5$ . Thus

$$\int_0^2 x \cos(x^2 + 1) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 2x \cos(x^2 + 1) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_1^5 \cos(t) dt = \frac{1}{2}(\sin(5) - \sin(1))$$

2. Consider  $\varphi(x) = \sin(x)$  where  $\varphi(0) = 0$  and  $\varphi(\pi/2) = 1$ . Since  $\cos(t) = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2(t)}$  it follows

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - x^2} dx = \int_{\cos(0)}^{\cos(\pi/2)} \sqrt{1 - x^2} dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - \sin^2(t)} \cos(t) dt = \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2(t) dt$$

3. Let  $f \in C[a, b]$  and  $\varphi(x) = a + t(b - a)$ . Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = (b - a) \int_0^1 f(a + t(b - a)) dt$$

4. Let  $f(x) = x^n$  and  $\varphi(x) = t^m$ . As expected

$$\int_0^1 x^n dx = \int_0^1 t^{nm} m t^{m-1} dt = m \int_0^1 t^{m(n+1)-1} dt = \left[ \frac{m}{m(n+1)} t^{m(n+1)} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

## 1.2 Directional Derivative and Gradients

**Lemma 1.12** (Directional Derivative). *Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f \in C^1(\Omega)$ . Then*

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial d}(x) = \nabla f(x)^T d$$

for any  $d \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi(t) = f(x + td)$ . Then  $\varphi \in C^1[-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$  and the chain rule yields

$$\varphi'(t) = \nabla f(x + td)^T d$$

Hence

$$\varphi'(0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(x + td) - \varphi(0)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + td) - f(x)}{t} = \nabla f(x)^T d$$

□

**Remarks 1.13.**

1. Note that by definition the directional derivative is invariant under multiplication with any  $\lambda \neq 0$ .
2. A similar proposition holds under the weaker assumption that  $d$  is a only feasible direction for  $f$  in  $x$
3. For  $d = \nabla f(x) / \|\nabla f(x)\|$  it follows that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial d}(x) = \|\nabla f(x)\| > 0$$

and for any other  $d \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\|d\| = 1$  the Cauchy Schwarz inequality yields

$$|\frac{\partial f}{\partial d}(x)| = |\nabla f(x)^T d| \leq \|\nabla f(x)\| \|d\| = \|\nabla f(x)\|$$

Hence  $\nabla f(x)$  is the direction of the greatest ascent and respectively,  $-\nabla f(x)$  is the direction of the greatest descent.

**Theorem 1.14** (First Order Necessary Condition). *Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f \in C^1(\Omega)$ . If  $x^* \in \Omega$  is a local minimizer then  $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\delta > 0$  so that  $x^* + th \in \Omega$  for all  $t \in (-\delta, \delta)$ . Then 0 is local minimizer for  $\varphi(t) = f(x^* + th)$  and

$$\varphi'(0) = \nabla f(x^*)^T h = 0$$

Now let  $h = \nabla f(x^*)$ .

□

**Theorem 1.15** (Banach Fixed-Point Theorem). *Let  $X$  be a Banach space and  $f \in C(X, X)$  a contraction*

$$\|f(x) - f(y)\| \leq q\|x - y\| \text{ for all } x, y \in X$$

for some  $0 < q < 1$ . Then there exists a unique fix point  $x^* \in X$  with

$$f(x^*) = x^*$$

Furthermore for any  $x_0 \in X$  the sequence defined by

$$x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$$

converges against  $x^*$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\|x_{n+1} - x_n\| = \|f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})\| \leq q\|x_n - x_{n-1}\|$  it follows, that

$$\|x_{n+1} - x_n\| \leq q^n \|x_1 - x_0\|$$

Furthermore

$$\|x_n - x_m\| \leq \sum_{k=m}^n q^k \|x_1 - x_0\| = \frac{q^m - q^{n+1}}{1 - q} \|x_1 - x_0\|$$

and  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence. For its limit  $x^*$  we have

$$x^* = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x^*)$$

For any other  $y^* \in X$  with  $f(y^*) = y^*$  it follows, that

$$\|x^* - y^*\| = \|f(x^*) - f(y^*)\| \leq q\|x^* - y^*\|$$

and therefore  $x^* = y^*$ .

□

## 2 Nonlinear Optimization

### 2.1 Minimization without Constraints

**Lemma 2.1** (Gradient Inequality). *Let  $M \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a convex set and  $f \in C^1(M)$ . Then  $f$  is convex if and only if*

$$f(x) \geq f(y) + \nabla f(y)^T(x - y)$$

for all  $x, y \in M$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f$  be convex and  $x, y \in M$ . For  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$  we have

$$f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \leq \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y) = \lambda f(x) - \lambda f(y) + f(y)$$

and

$$f(x) - f(y) \geq \frac{f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) - f(y)}{\lambda} = \frac{f(y + \lambda(x - y)) - f(y)}{\lambda}$$

For  $d = x - y$  and  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$  the term on the right converges to the direction derivative of  $f$  in  $d$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial d}(y) = \nabla f(y)^T d = \nabla f(y)^T(x - y)$$

Now let  $x, y \in M$  and  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ . For  $z = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in M$  it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda f(x) &\geq \lambda f(z) + \lambda \nabla f(z)^T(x - z) \\ (1 - \lambda)f(y) &\geq (1 - \lambda)f(z) + (1 - \lambda)\nabla f(z)^T(y - z) \end{aligned}$$

Adding the two inequalities gives

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y) &\geq f(z) + \nabla f(z)^T(\lambda x - \lambda z + (1 - \lambda)y - (1 - \lambda)z) \\ &= f(z) + \nabla f(z)^T(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y - z) \\ &= f(z) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Exercise 2.2** (Facility Locations). *The facilities are located at:*

$$(3, 0), (0, -3), (1, 4)$$

*Proof.* Let

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (x - 3)^2 + y^2 + x^2 + (y + 3)^2 + (x - 1)^2 + (y - 4)^2 \\ &= x^2 - 6x + 9 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 + 6y + 9 + x^2 - 2x + 1 + y^2 - 8y + 16 \\ &= 3x^2 + 3y^2 - 8x - 2y + 35 \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\nabla f(x, y) = (6x - 8, 6y - 2) \text{ and } \nabla^2 f(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix} > 0$$

Hence  $(4/3, 1/3)$  is the global minimum.

□

**Exercise 2.3** (Convex Functions). *The sum of convex functions is convex.*



*Proof.* Let  $x, y \in M$ . Since  $\alpha_i > 0$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i f_i(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \lambda f_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i (1 - \lambda) f_i(y) = \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda) f(y) \end{aligned}$$

Let  $f(x) = x^2$ . Then  $-f$  is not convex, e.g.  $x = 1, y = -1$  and  $\lambda = 0.5$ .

**Exercise 2.4** (Solution of Quadratic Inequality). *Let*

$$f(x) = x^T A x + b^T x + c$$

*Proof.* The product rule gives

$$\nabla f(x) = x^T A + A x + b = (A^T + A)x + b = 2Ax + b$$

Thus  $\nabla^2 f(x) = 2A > 0$  and  $f$  is convex. Hence the level set  $\Gamma_{-c}$  is convex. Since the intersection of convex sets is convex  $\Gamma_{-c} \cap \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g^T x + h = 0\}$  is convex, too.

**Exercise 2.5** (Line Search on Compact Convex Sets). *Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be compact and convex. Furthermore let  $f \in C^1(S)$  be convex,  $x \in S$  and  $d \in \mathbb{R}^n$  a descent direction of  $f$  in  $x$  with  $\nabla f(x)^T d < 0$ .*

*Proof.* If  $x + \lambda^* d$  is an optimal solution then  $\nabla f(x + \lambda^* d)^T d = 0$  according to Theorem 1.14. Let  $\nabla f(x + \lambda^* d)^T d = 0$ . Then Lemma 2.1 gives

$$f(x + \lambda d) \geq f(x + \lambda^* d) + (\lambda - \lambda^*) \nabla f(x + \lambda^* d)^T d = f(x + \lambda^* d)$$

and  $x + \lambda^* d$  is an optimal solution.

**Exercise 2.6** (Steepest Descent). *Let*

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x + b^T x + c$$

where  $A$  is symmetrical and positive definite.

*Proof.* Since  $\nabla f(x) = Ax + b$  and  $\nabla^2 f(x) = A > 0$  it follows  $x^* = -A^{-1}b$ . Let  $v$  be eigenvector with  $Av = \mu v$ . For  $x_0 = x^* + \theta v$  we have

$$\nabla f(x_0) = Ax^* + \mu \theta v + b = \mu \theta v$$

and for  $\lambda \geq 0$

$$\arg \min \{f(x_0 - \lambda \nabla f(x_0))\} = \arg \min \{f(x^* + \theta v - \lambda \mu \theta v)\} = \mu^{-1}$$

Thus

$$x_1 = x_0 - \mu^{-1} \nabla f(x_0) = x^* + \theta v - \mu^{-1} \mu \theta v = x^*$$

and  $\nabla f(x_1) = 0$ . Hence the algorithm stops after the first iteration. Now let

$$x_0 = x^* + \sum_{i=0}^m \theta_i v_i$$

for orthogonal eigenvectors with  $Av_i = \mu_i$  and  $m \leq n$ . Then

$$\nabla f(x_0) = Ax^* + \sum_{i=0}^m \mu_i \theta_i v_i + b = \sum_{i=0}^m \mu_i \theta_i v_i$$

and

$$x_1 = x_0 - \lambda \sum_{i=0}^m \mu_i \theta_i v_i = x^* + \sum_{i=0}^m \theta_i v_i - \lambda \sum_{i=0}^m \mu_i \theta_i v_i = x^* + \sum_{i=0}^m (1 - \lambda \mu_i) \theta_i v_i$$

Since  $x^*$  is the minimum we have  $\nabla f(x_1) = 0$  iff  $\lambda = \mu_i^{-1}$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq m$ .  $\square$

## 2.2 One Dimensional Minimization and Direct Search

**Definition 2.7** (Unimodal Function). *A function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called unimodal if there exists a  $\xi \in [a, b]$ , so that  $f$  is strictly decreasing in  $[a, \xi]$  and strictly increasing in  $[\xi, b]$ .*

In fact  $\xi$  is the unique minimum of  $f$  in  $[a, b]$ . According to the definition, for  $a \leq x < y \leq b$  we have

$$f(x) > f(y) \text{ for } x, y \in [a, \xi] \text{ and } f(x) < f(y) \text{ for } x, y \in (\xi, b]$$

Thus

$$\xi \in [a, y] \text{ if } f(x) < f(y) \text{ and } \xi \in [x, b] \text{ if } f(x) \geq f(y)$$

Consider now a symmetrical partitioning of the interval  $[0, 1]$  where two consecutive partitionings hold the same ratio respectively:

$$\sigma = 1 - \tau \text{ and } \frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{\tau}{\sigma}$$

Then  $1 - \tau = \tau^2$  and solving the quadratic equation  $\tau^2 + \tau = 1$  yields

$$\tau = \frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2} \approx 0.61803$$



Figure 1: Golden Section

Let now  $[a_0, b_0] = [a, b]$  and define

$$[a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}] = \begin{cases} [a_k, y_k] & \text{if } f(x_k) < f(y_k) \\ [x_k, b_k] & \text{if } f(x_k) \geq f(y_k) \end{cases}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}x_k &= b_k - \tau(b_k - a_k) \\ y_k &= a_k + \tau(b_k - a_k)\end{aligned}$$

It follows that  $[a_k, b_k] \supset [a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}]$  is a decreasing series of intervals with

$$(b_{k+1} - a_{k+1}) = \tau(b_k - a_k)$$

where the interval converges to  $\xi$ . This leads to the following algorithm:

**Algorithm 2.8** (Golden Section Search).

---

```

"""Basic implementation of the golden section search, this easily can be
improved by storing and resuing the results of the previous iteration
"""

import math

def golden_section_search(f, I, eps=0.00001):
    t = 0.5 * (math.sqrt(5) - 1)
    a, b = I
    while abs(b - a) > eps:
        x, y = b - t * (b - a), a + t * (b - a)
        if f(x) > f(y):
            a = x
        else:
            b = y
    return (a + b) / 2

if __name__ == '__main__':
    p, q, I = 0, 0, (-10, 10)
    p, q, I = -4, 1, (-10, 10)
    f = lambda x: (x + p) ** 2 + q
    x0 = golden_section_search(f, I)
    print(f'arg min f on {I}: {x0}')

```

---

**Algorithm 2.9** (Steepest Descent).

Let  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . For  $0 < \alpha \leq \beta < 1$  and  $\gamma < 1$  let

**Exercise 2.10** (Surprising Convergence). *Example for  $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R})$  with a sequence of strict local minima converging to a strict local maximum.*

*Proof.* Let  $f \in C[a, b]$  and  $\xi \in (a, b)$  so that  $f$  is strictly increasing in  $(a, \xi]$  and strictly decreasing in  $[\xi, b)$ . Define

$$g(x) = \int_{\xi-x}^{\xi+x} f(t) dt$$

□

### 3 The Road to Reality

#### 3.1 Hyperbolic Geometry

The ratio between the area  $A$  and  $A'$  of two similar shapes is given by

$$A' = k^2 A$$

**Theorem 3.1** (Pythagoras).

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

*Proof.* Let  $A, B$  and  $C$  be the areas of the three triangles respectively. All triangles are similar, hence

$$B = \frac{b^2}{a^2} A \text{ and } C = \frac{c^2}{b^2} B$$

Since  $A + B = C$  it follows that

$$a^2 + b^2 = \frac{b^2 A}{B} + b^2 = \frac{b^2(A + B)}{B} = \frac{b^2 C}{B} = c^2$$

□

**Lemma 3.2** (label and Projective Representation). *The mapping from conformal and projective representation of any point is given by the radial expansion of the following factor*

$$\frac{2R}{R^2 + r^2}$$

*Proof.* For any point the distance from the origin with regard to the two representations is given by

$$\log \frac{R+r}{R-r} = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{R+r'}{R-r'} = \log \frac{(R+r')^2}{(R-r')^2}$$

This gives

$$(R-r)^2(R+r') = (R+r)^2(R-r') \text{ and } -4R^2r + 2R^2r' + 2r^2r' = 0$$

Hence

$$r' = \frac{2R^2}{R^2 + r^2} r$$

□

### 3.2 Complex Numbers

**Lemma 3.3** (Basic Formulas).

1. It is

$$(a + ib)(c + id) = (ac - bd) + i(ad + bc)$$

2. Thus

$$(a + ib)^2 = (a^2 - b^2) + i2ab$$

and

$$(a + ib)(a - ib) = a^2 + iab - iab - i^2b^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

3. Hence

$$\frac{a + ib}{c + id} = \frac{(a + ib)(c - id)}{c^2 + d^2} = \frac{ac + bd}{c^2 + d^2} + i \frac{bc - ad}{c^2 + d^2}$$

4. For

$$z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(a + \sqrt{a^2 + b^2})} + i\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(-a + \sqrt{a^2 + b^2})}$$

it follows

$$z^2 = \frac{1}{2}(a + \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}) - \frac{1}{2}(-a + \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}) + i2\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}(\sqrt{a^2 + b^2})^2} - a^2 = a + ib$$

**Lemma 3.4** (Binomial Theorem).

1. For the binomial coefficient Pascal's identity holds

$$\binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} = \binom{n+1}{k}$$

2. The following equation states the binomial identity

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k b^{n-k} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

3. For  $a = 1$  follows

$$(1 + x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$$

*Proof.* It is

$$\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k+1)!} = \frac{n!(n+1-k) + n!k!}{k!(n+1-k)!} = \binom{n+1}{k}$$

Furthermore by using induction

$$\begin{aligned}
(a+b)^{n+1} &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{k+1} b^{n-k} + \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k b^{n+1-k} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \binom{n}{k-1} a^k b^{n+1-k} + \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k b^{n+1-k} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{k} a^k b^{n+1-k}
\end{aligned}$$

□

### 3.3 Exponential Function and Logarithms

**Exercise 3.5** (Exponential Function). *The Cauchy product yields*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}$$

*if at least one of the series is absolutely convergent. Hence*

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} z^n \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} w^n &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} z^k \frac{1}{(n-k)!} w^{n-k} \\
&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^k w^{n-k} \\
&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (z+w)^n
\end{aligned}$$

Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
e^{it} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} (it)^k \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2k!} (it)^{2k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2k+1)!} (it)^{2k+1} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2k!} t^{2k} + i \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k+1)!} t^{2k+1} \\
&= \cos t + i \sin t
\end{aligned}$$

More generally for  $z = \log r + it$

$$e^z = e^{\log r + it} = r e^{it} = r(\cos t + i \sin t)$$

For  $r = 1$  and  $t = 2\pi$  this yields

$$e^{2\pi i} = \cos 2\pi + i \sin 2\pi = 1$$

and for  $t = 2\pi$  we get

**Lemma 3.6** (Euler Equation).

$$e^{\pi i} + 1 = 0$$

**Exercise 3.7.**

1. If  $e^z = w$  then  $z + \pi i$  is a logarithm to  $-w$ :  $e^{z+\pi i} = e^z e^{\pi i} = -e^z = -w$ .
2. Since  $e^{i(s+t)} = e^{is} e^{it}$  it follows

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(s+t) + i \sin(s+t) &= (\cos s + i \sin s)(\cos t + i \sin t) \\ &= \cos s \cos t - \sin s \sin t + i(\cos s \sin t + \sin s \cos t) \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(s+t) &= \cos s \cos t - \sin s \sin t \\ \sin(s+t) &= \cos s \sin t + \sin s \cos t \end{aligned}$$

3. It is  $e^{3it} = (e^{it})^3$  and thus

$$\cos 3t + i \sin 3t = (\cos t + i \sin t)^3 = \cos^3 t - 3 \cos t \sin^2 t + i(\cos^2 t \sin t - \sin^3 t)$$

4. Fun facts

$$e^{1-4\pi^2} = e^{1+(2i\pi)^2} = e e^{2\pi i} e^{2\pi i} = e$$

and  $i = e^{i\pi/2}$  gives

$$i = e^{i \log i} = e^{i i \pi/2} = e^{-\pi/2} \in \mathbb{R}$$

### 3.4 Complex Analysis

**Definition 3.8** (holomorphic Function). Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be open. A function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called differentiable at  $z \in \Omega$  if the limit

$$f'(z) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h}$$

exists.  $f$  is called holomorphic on  $\Omega$  if  $f$  is complex differentiable at all points of  $\Omega$  and  $f' : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is called the derivative of  $f$ .

**Remarks 3.9.**

1.  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0 \in \Omega$  iff the limit

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

exists

2. If  $f$  is differentiable at  $z_0 \in \Omega$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  then there exists a small enough environment of  $z_0$ , so that

$$|f(z) - f(z_0) - f'(z_0)(z - z_0)| < \varepsilon |z - z_0|$$

**Theorem 3.10** (Cauchy Riemann Equations). *Let  $f = u + iv$  be holomorphic. Then  $f$  satisfies the Cauchy Riemann equations*

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* For  $h \in \mathbb{R}$  follows

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z+h) - f(z)}{h} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(z) + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(z)$$

and

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(z+ih) - f(z)}{ih} = \frac{\partial u}{i\partial y}(z) + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(z) = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(z) - i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(z)$$

□

**Examples 3.11.**

1. Let  $f(z) = z^3$ . Then  $u(x, y) + iv(x, y) = x^3 - 3xy^2 + i(3x^2y - y^3)$  and as expected

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x, y) &= x^3 - 3y^2 & \text{and} & & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(x, y) &= -6xy \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x, y) &= 6xy & \text{and} & & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(x, y) &= x^3 - 3y^2\end{aligned}$$

**Lemma 3.12.** *Let  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be connected. For arbitrary  $z, w \in D$  there exists a polygonal path from  $z$  to  $w$ .*

*Proof.* For any path from  $z$  to  $w$  the image is compact, which can be used to define a finite subcover of disks. Use the center points to define the polygonal path. □

**Lemma 3.13.** *Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  a smooth path,  $\psi : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$  a smooth and increasing bijection and  $f$  continuous.*

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_{\gamma \circ \psi} f(z) dz$$

*Proof.* It is

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\gamma \circ \psi} f(z) dz &= \int_c^d f(\gamma \circ \psi(t))(\gamma \circ \psi)'(t) dt \\ &= \int_{\psi(a)}^{\psi(b)} f(\gamma(\psi(t)))\gamma'(\psi(t))\psi'(t) dt \\ &= \int_a^b f(\gamma(s))\gamma'(s) ds = \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz\end{aligned}$$

□



**Lemma 3.14.** For a smooth path  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  define  $-\gamma(t) = a + b - t$ . Then

$$\int_{-\gamma} f(z) dz = - \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$$

*Proof.* Using integration by substitution

$$\int_{-\gamma} f(z) dz = - \int_a^b f(\gamma(a + b - t)) \gamma'(a + b - t) dt = \int_b^a f(\gamma(s)) \gamma'(s) ds = - \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$$

□

In order to use the results from real calculus recall the fact, that for every  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  there exists a  $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ , so that  $z = |z|e^{it}$  and hence  $|z| = ze^{-it}$ .

**Lemma 3.15.** Let  $f \in C[a, b]$ . Then

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

*Proof.* Using the estimation for integrals from real calculus

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| = e^{-it} \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b |e^{-it} f(x)| dx = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

□

Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a smooth path and  $a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b$  a partitioning of  $[a, b]$ . Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^n |\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})| = \sum_{k=1}^n \left| \frac{\gamma(t_k) - \gamma(t_{k-1})}{t_k - t_{k-1}} \right| (t_k - t_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^n |\gamma'(\xi_k)| (t_k - t_{k-1})$$

yields a reasonable approximation of the length of the path. Hence

**Definition 3.16.** For a smooth path  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

$$L(\gamma) = \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

is called the length of  $\gamma$ .

**Lemma 3.17** (Estimation Lemma). Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a smooth path. Then

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| \leq L(\gamma) \max_{\gamma[a, b]} |f|$$

*Proof.* Using the definition above

$$\left| \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz \right| = \left| \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t) dt \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t)| dt \leq \max_{\gamma[a,b]} |f| \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

□

**Examples 3.18.**

1. Let  $\gamma(t) = t + it$ . Then

$$\int_{\gamma} z^2 dz = \int_0^1 (t + it)^2 (1 + i) dt = (1 + i) \int_0^1 2it^2 dt = [(-2 + 2i)t^3]_0^1 = -\frac{2}{3} + i\frac{2}{3}$$

2. For  $\gamma(t) = t^2 + it$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} z^2 dz &= \int_0^1 (t^2 + it)^2 (2t + i) dt = \int_0^1 (2t^5 - 4t^3) + i(5t^4 - t^2) dt \\ &= \left[ \frac{1}{3}t^6 - t^4 \right]_0^1 + i \left[ t^5 - \frac{1}{3}t^3 \right]_0^1 = -\frac{2}{3} + i\frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

3. And  $\gamma(t) = i + e^{it}$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} z^2 dz &= \int_{3/2\pi}^{2\pi} (i + e^{it})^2 i e^{it} dt = \int_{3/2\pi}^{2\pi} (-1 + 2ie^{it} + e^{2it}) i e^{it} dt \\ &= \int_{3/2\pi}^{2\pi} -ie^{it} - 2e^{2it} + ie^{3it} dt = \left[ -e^{it} + ie^{2it} + \frac{1}{3}e^{3it} \right]_{3/2\pi}^{2\pi} \\ &= \left( -1 + i + \frac{1}{3} \right) - \left( i - i + \frac{1}{3}i \right) = -\frac{2}{3} + i\frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

4. Let  $\gamma(t) = e^{it}$  and  $k \neq -1$ . Then

$$\int_{\gamma} z^k dz = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{ikt} i e^{it} dt = \int_0^{2\pi} i e^{i(k+1)t} dt = 0$$

**Theorem 3.19.** Let  $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be a connected domain and  $f \in C(D)$ . Then the following assertions are equivalent

1.  $f$  has an antiderivative
2. For every closed path  $\gamma$

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$$

*Proof.* Let  $F' = f$ . Since  $\gamma$  is closed

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t))\gamma'(t) dt = \int_a^b (F \circ \gamma)'(t) dt = F(\gamma(b)) - F(\gamma(a)) = 0$$

Now fix some arbitrary  $a \in D$ . For  $z \in D$  let  $\gamma_z$  be a path from  $a$  to  $z$  and define

$$F(z) = \int_{\gamma_z} f(\zeta) d\zeta$$

This is well defined since the integral of  $f$  vanishes over each closed path. Moreover, since  $\gamma_{z+h} + [z+h, z] - \gamma_z$  defines a closed path

$$F(z+h) - F(z) = \int_{\gamma_{z+h}} f(z) dz - \int_{\gamma_z} f(z) dz = \int_{[z, z+h]} f(z) dz = h \int_0^1 f(z+th) dt$$

Here the latter integral is continuous at 0 with respect to  $h$

$$\left| \int_0^1 f(z+th) - f(z) dt \right| \leq \int_0^1 |f(z+th) - f(z)| dt \leq \max_{t \in [0,1]} |f(z+th) - f(z)|$$

□

**Corollary 3.20.** *The second assertion can be weakened to*

$$\int_{\partial \Delta} f(z) dz = 0$$

for every triangle  $\Delta \subset D$ , where e.g.  $D$  is convex or star shaped. Here the antiderivative can directly be defined as

$$F(z) = \int_{[a,z]} f(\zeta) d\zeta$$

similar to the real calculus approach. Note, that under this conditions  $f$  always has a local antiderivative.

**Examples 3.21.**

1. Let  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $\gamma(t) = z_0 + e^{it}$  for  $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ . Then

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{1}{z - z_0} dz = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{ie^{it}}{z_0 + e^{it} - z_0} dt = \int_0^{2\pi} i dt = 2\pi i$$

and thus  $1/(z - z_0)$  has no antiderivative on  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z_0\}$

2. Let  $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $z \in D = D_r(z_0)$ . Applying [Theorem 3.19](#). to  $\partial D$  and a small enough circle around  $z$  gives

$$\int_{\partial D} \frac{1}{\zeta - z} d\zeta = \int_{\partial D} \frac{1}{\zeta - z_0} d\zeta = 2\pi i$$

**Theorem 3.22** (Goursat). *Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be open and  $f$  holomorphic on  $\Omega$ . Then*

$$\int_{\partial \Delta} f(z) dz = 0$$

for every triangle  $\Delta \subset \Omega$ .

*Proof.* Choose a sequence of triangles  $\Delta \supset \Delta_0 \supset \Delta_1 \cdots \supset \Delta_k$  as depicted. Since all the triangles are compact with a vanishing diameter there exists a unique  $z_0 \in \Omega$  with  $\bigcap \Delta_k = \{z_0\}$ . Thus

$$\left| \int_{\partial \Delta} f(z) dz \right| \leq 4^k \left| \int_{\partial \Delta_k} f(z) dz \right| = 4^k \left| \int_{\partial \Delta_k} f(z) - f(z_0) - f'(z_0)(z - z_0) dz \right|$$

Furthermore  $L(\partial \Delta) = 2^{-k} L(\partial \Delta_k)$  and

$$|z - z_0| < L(\partial \Delta_k) = 2^{-k} L(\partial \Delta)$$

for any  $z \in \Delta_k$ . Since  $f$  is holomorphic at  $z_0$  for any given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a sufficiently large enough  $k$ , so that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\partial \Delta} f(z) dz \right| &\leq 4^k L(\partial \Delta_k) \max_{z \in \Delta_k} |f(z) - f(z_0) - f'(z_0)(z - z_0)| \\ &\leq 4^k L(\partial \Delta_k) \varepsilon \max_{z \in \Delta_k} |z - z_0| \\ &\leq L(\partial \Delta)^2 \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

□

**Corollary 3.23.**

1. A holomorphic function always has a local antiderivative
2. A holomorphic function on a star shaped domain has a global antiderivative and

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$$

for any closed path

3. The prerequisites of Goursat theorem can be weakened to continuous and holomorphic with the exception of a finite number of points: adequate partitioning of the original triangle

**Theorem 3.24** (Cauchy's Integral Formula). Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  be open and  $f$  holomorphic on  $\Omega$ . Further let  $D \subset \Omega$  be a disc. Then

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial D} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} dz$$

for  $z \in D$ .

*Proof.* For  $z \in D$  define

$$h(\zeta) = \frac{f(\zeta) - f(z)}{\zeta - z}$$

for  $\zeta \neq z$  and  $f'(z)$  for  $\zeta = z$ . Then  $h$  is holomorphic on  $D \setminus \{z\}$  and continuous at  $z$

$$0 = \int_{\partial D} h(\zeta) d\zeta = \int_{\partial D} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} d\zeta - f(z) \int_{\partial D} \frac{1}{\zeta - z} d\zeta = \int_{\partial D} \frac{f(\zeta)}{\zeta - z} d\zeta - 2\pi i f(z)$$

□

## 4 Neural Networks

### 4.1 The Perceptron

**Definition 4.1** (Binary Classifiers). *Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be the union of two disjoint finite sets  $X = M \cup N$ .*

1. *A binary classification problem is the task to find a mapping  $f : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  with*

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x \in M \\ 0 & \text{for } x \in N \end{cases}$$

*$f$  then is called a binary classifier for  $X$*

2.  *$X$  is called separable if there exists a weight vector  $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and a bias  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  so that*

$$wx + b > 0 \text{ for } x \in M$$

$$wx + b < 0 \text{ for } x \in N$$

3. *The weight  $w$  and the bias  $b$  are called solution to the classification problem. They implicitly define a binary classifier via*

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } wx + b > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } wx + b < 0 \end{cases}$$

#### Examples 4.2.

1. *Let  $X = \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\}$  and consider the and operator  $f(1, 1) = 1$  and  $f(x, y) = 0$  elsewhere. Then  $w = (3, 3)$  and  $b = -5$  yield a solution to the classification problem  $M = f^{-1}(1)$  and  $N = f^{-1}(0)$*
2. *Again let  $X = \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\}$  and  $f(1, 0) = f(0, 1) = 1$  and  $f(0, 0) = f(1, 1) = 0$ , the xor operator. Thus for any weight  $(w_1, w_2)$  and any bias  $b$*

$$w_1 + b > 0$$

$$w_2 + b > 0$$

$$w_1 + w_2 + b \leq 0$$

$$b \leq 0$$

*Adding two equations respectively shows that there is no solution*

3. *The bias can be integrated into the weight vector via  $w' = (w, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  and  $x' = (x, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . Separability then reduces to*

$$w'x' > 0$$

## Geometrical Interpretation

The idea for the perceptron most likely has its origin in a simple geometrical observation. Recall that for  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  the dot product can be expressed as

$$xy = \|x\|\|y\| \cos \alpha$$

where  $\alpha$  is the angle between the two vectors. Hence the product is positive if the angle is less than  $90^\circ$  degrees and negative if the angle is between  $90^\circ$  and  $180^\circ$  degrees

$$xy > 0 \text{ for } 0 \leq \alpha < \pi/2 \text{ and } xy < 0 \text{ for } \pi/2 < \alpha \leq \pi$$

Note, that the sign does not depend on lengths of the vectors, but solely on the angle.

For any two vectors it is easy enough to find a weight that satisfies  $wx > 0$  and  $wy > 0$ . Generally  $w = x + y$  is a good guess, but not always correct as shown below in Figure 2.

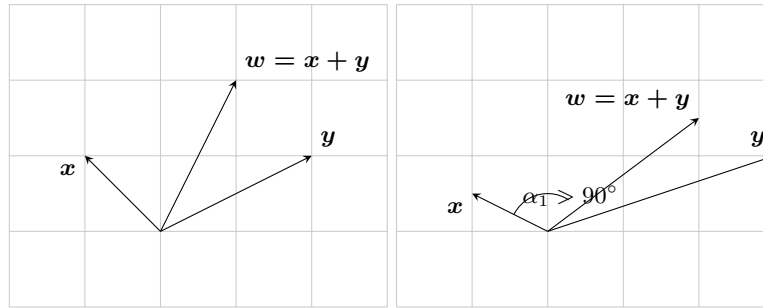


Figure 2: Dot Product and Angle

But, the more similar the lengths of the two vectors are the more likely  $x + y$  works. Actually the threshold is tbd. An iterative approach is to increase  $w = x + y$  in the direction of vector with the angle greater than  $90^\circ$  degrees.

### Examples 4.3.

1. Let  $x = (-1, 1)$  and  $y = (6, 1)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} w_0 &= (5, 2) & w_0x &= -3 < 0 & w_0y &= 32 > 0 \\ w_1 &= (4, 3) & w_1x &= -1 < 0 & w_1y &= 27 > 0 \\ w_2 &= (3, 4) & w_2x &= 1 > 0 & w_2y &= 22 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

2. Let  $x = (4, -6)$  and  $y = (-10, 5)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} w_0 &= (-6, -1) & w_0x &= -18 < 0 & w_0y &= 55 > 0 \\ w_1 &= (-2, -7) & w_1x &= 34 > 0 & w_1y &= -15 < 0 \\ w_2 &= (-12, -2) & w_2x &= -36 < 0 & w_2y &= 110 > 0 \\ w_3 &= (-8, -8) & w_3x &= 16 > 0 & w_3y &= 40 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

**Algorithm 4.4** (Weight).

---

```

import math
from random import randint

def add(v, w):
    return tuple(x + y for x, y in zip(v, w))

def crossprod(v, w):
    return sum(x * y for x, y in zip(v, w))

def norm(v):
    return math.sqrt(crossprod(v, v))

def angle(v, w):
    return math.degrees(math.acos(crossprod(v, w) / (norm(v) * norm(w))))

def weight(x, y):
    w = add(x, y)
    while True:
        if crossprod(w, x) < 0:
            w = add(w, x)
        elif crossprod(w, y) < 0:
            w = add(w, y)
        else:
            return w

def test_weight(x, y):
    print(f'x = {x}, y = {y}')
    i, w = 0, add(x, y)
    while True:
        a, b = crossprod(w, x), crossprod(w, y)
        print(f'    w{i} = {w}, w{i} * x = {a}, w{i} * y = {b}')
        if a < 0:
            w = add(w, x)
        elif b < 0:
            w = add(w, y)
        else:
            break
        i = i + 1

if __name__ == '__main__':
    n = 10
    for _ in range(3):
        x, y = (randint(-n, n), randint(-n, n)), (randint(-n, n), randint(-n, n))
        test_weight(x, y)

```

---

#### Algorithm 4.5 (Perceptron).

---

```

def heaviside(x):
    return 0 if x < 0.0 else 1

```

```

def crossprod(v, w):
    return sum(x * y for x, y in zip(v, w))

def perceptron(f, M, t=0.1, max_iterations=50):
    n = len(M[0])
    w, b = n * [0.0], 0.0
    for _ in range(max_iterations):
        done = True
        for x, y in M:
            z = heaviside(crossprod(w, x) + b)
            w = [w[i] - t * (z - y) * x[i] for i in range(n)]
            b = b - t * (z - y)
            if not y == z:
                done = False
        if done:
            break
    return lambda x: heaviside(crossprod(w, x) + b)

def and_(x, y):
    return int(x and y)

def or_(x, y):
    return int(x or y)

def xor(x, y):
    return int(x and not y or not x and y)

def nand(x, y):
    return int(not x and not y)

def test_perceptron(f, X):
    M = [(x, f(*x)) for x in X]
    p = perceptron(f, M)
    for x, y in M:
        print(f'{x} -> {p(x)}: {y}')
    print(f'{f.__name__}: {all(p(x) == y for x, y in M)}')

if __name__ == '__main__':
    X = [(0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0), (1, 1)]
    test_perceptron(or_, X)
    test_perceptron(and_, X)
    test_perceptron(nand, X)
    test_perceptron(xor, X)

```

---

## 4.2 The Backtracking Algorithm

**Definition 4.6** (Activation Functions).



1. The Heaviside function  $H : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is defined as

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

2. The sigmoid function  $\sigma \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$  is defined as

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

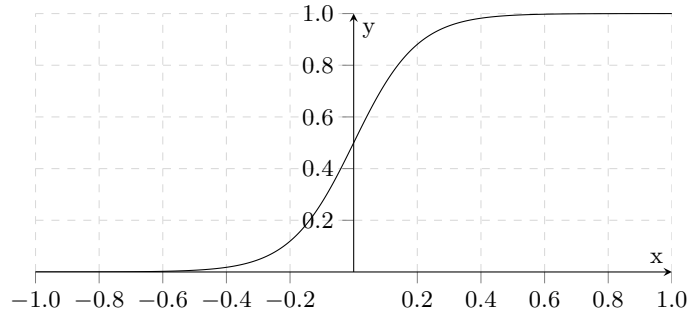


Figure 3: The sigmoid function  $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$

**Remarks 4.7.**

1. Since the heaviside function is not continuous and therefore not differentiable at 0 the sigmoid function is often considered its smooth counterpart
2. The definition of the sigmoid function yields  $0 < \sigma(x) < 1$  as well as  $\sigma(x) \rightarrow 0$  for  $x \rightarrow -\infty$  and  $\sigma(x) \rightarrow 1$  for  $x \rightarrow \infty$
3. The quotient rule yields

$$\sigma'(x) = -\frac{-e^{-x}}{(1 + e^{-x})^2} = \sigma(x) \frac{1 + e^{-x} - 1}{1 + e^{-x}} = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$

and  $\sigma$  is monotonically increasing over its domain