Notes on Mathematics

Contents

1 Calculus

1.1 Differentation 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. $(1-q)(1+q+q^2+\cdots+q^n)=1-q+q-q^2+q^2-q^3+\cdots+q^{n+1}$ 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

$$\exp(0) = 1$$
$$\exp(-x) = \exp(x)^{-1}$$
$$\exp(nx) = \exp(x)^{n}$$

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

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

2. Symmetry

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

3. Derivatives

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

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 Ω and let $f(x^*) > 0$. Since $f \in C^1(\Omega)$ there exist $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$, so that for $|h| \le \varepsilon$

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

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.

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 ?? can be applied.

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 ?? to

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

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

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

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 $\xi \in (x, x + h)$.

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

$$\int_{\varphi(a)}^{\varphi(b)} f(x) dx = F(\varphi(b)) - F(\varphi(a))$$

$$= F \circ \varphi(b) - F \circ \varphi(a)$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} (F \circ \varphi)'(t) dt$$

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

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

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

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 feasable 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

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

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

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

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 aganist x^* .

Proof. Since
$$||x_{n+1} - x_n|| = ||f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})|| \le q||x_n - x_{n-1}||$$
 it follows, that $||x_{n+1} - x_n|| \le q^n ||x_1 - x_0||$

Furthermore

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

for all $x, y \in M$.

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

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

and

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

For d = x - y and $\lambda \to 0$ 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 $0 \le \lambda \le 1$. For $z = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in M$ it follows that

$$\lambda f(x) \ge \lambda f(z) + \lambda \nabla f(z)^{T} (x - z)$$
$$(1 - \lambda) f(y) \ge (1 - \lambda) f(z) + (1 - \lambda) \nabla f(z)^{T} (y - z)$$

Adding the two inequalities gives

$$\lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y) \ge f(z) + \nabla f(z)^{T} (\lambda x - \lambda z + (1 - \lambda)y - (1 - \lambda)z)$$
$$= f(z) + \nabla f(z)^{T} (\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y - z)$$
$$= f(z)$$

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

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

Proof. Let

$$f(x) = (x-3)^2 + y^2 + x^2 + (y+3)^2 + (x-1)^2 + (y-4)^2$$

= $x^2 - 6x + 9 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 + 6y + 9 + x^2 - 2x + 1 + y^2 - 8y + 16$
= $3x^2 + 3y^2 - 8x - 2y + 35$

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 gobal 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

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

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

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

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

Thus $\nabla^2 f(x) = 2A > 0$ and f is convex. Hence the level set Γ_{-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 ??. Let $\nabla f(x + \lambda^* d)^T d = 0$. Then Lemma ?? gives

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

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 $\lambda = \mu^{-1}$ for all $0 \le i \le m$.

2.2 One Dimensional Minimization and Direct Search

Definition 2.7 (Unimodal Function). A function $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ 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 ξ is the unique minimum of f in [a,b]. According to the definition, for $a \leq x < y \leq b$ we have

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

Thus

$$\xi \in [a, y]$$
 if $f(x) < f(y)$ and $\xi \in [x, b]$ if $f(x) \ge f(y)$

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

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

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

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

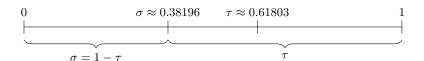


Figure 1: Golden Section

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

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

where

$$x_k = b_k - \tau(b_k - a_k)$$
$$y_k = a_k + \tau(b_k - a_k)$$

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 ξ . 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 $0 < \alpha \le \beta < 1$ 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

$$B = \frac{b^2}{a^2}A$$
 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

$$(R-r)^2(R+r') = (R+r)^2(R-r')$$
 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

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

4. For

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

it follows

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$e^{it} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} (it)^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2k!} (it)^{2k} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2k+1)!} (it)^{2k+1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2k!} t^{2k} + i \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k+1)!} t^{2k+1}$$

$$= \cos t + i \sin t$$

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

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

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

$$\cos(s+t) + i\sin(s+t) = (\cos s + i\sin s)(\cos t + i\sin t)$$
$$= \cos s\cos t - \sin s\sin t + i(\cos s\sin t + \sin s\cos t)$$

Hence

$$\cos(s+t) = \cos s \cos t - \sin s \sin t$$

$$\sin(s+t) = \cos s \sin t + \sin s \cos t$$

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

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

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

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

3.4 Complex Analysis

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

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

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

Remarks 3.9.

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

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

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

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

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

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

and

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

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

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x,y) = x^3 - 3y^2 \quad and \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(x,y) = -6xy$$
$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x,y) = 6xy \quad and \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(x,y) = x^3 - 3y^2$$

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

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

Proof. It is

$$\int_{\gamma \circ \psi} f(z) dz = \int_{c}^{d} f(\gamma \circ \psi(t))(\gamma \circ \psi)'(t) dt$$
$$= \int_{\psi(a)}^{\psi(b)} f(\gamma(\psi(t))\gamma'(\psi(t))\psi'(t) dt$$
$$= \int_{a}^{b} f(\gamma(s))\gamma'(s) ds = \int_{\gamma} f(z) dz$$

Lemma 3.14. For a smooth path $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$ 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 $z = |z|e^{\mathrm{i}t}$ and hence $|z| = ze^{-\mathrm{i}t}$.

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

$$\left| \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx \right| \le \int_{a}^{b} |f(x)| \, dx$$

Proof. Using the estimation for integrals from real calculus

$$\left| \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx \right| = e^{-it} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx \le \int_{a}^{b} \left| e^{-it} f(x) \right| dx = \int_{a}^{b} \left| f(x) \right| dx$$

Let $\gamma : [a, b] \to \mathbb{C}$ be a smooth path and $a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b$ a parting 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 $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{C}$

$$L(\gamma) = \int_{-\infty}^{b} |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

is called the length of γ .

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

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

Proof. Using the definition above

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

Examples 3.18.

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

$$\int_{\mathcal{I}} z^2 dz = \int_{0}^{1} (t + it)^2 (1 + i) dt = (1 + i) \int_{0}^{1} 2it^2 dt = \left[(-2 + 2i)t^2 \right]_{0}^{1} = -\frac{2}{3} + i\frac{2}{3}$$

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

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

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

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

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 closd path γ

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

Proof. Let F' = f. Since γ 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 γ_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 continous at 0 with respect to h

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

Corollary 3.20. The second assertion can be weakend 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

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

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 ??. to ∂D and a small enough circle around z gives

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

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

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

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

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 vainishing diameter there exists a unique $z_0 \in \Omega$ with $\bigcap \Delta_k = \{z_0\}$. Thus

$$\left| \int_{\partial \triangle} f(z) \, dz \right| \le 4^k \left| \int_{\partial \triangle_k} f(z) \, dz \right| = 4^k \left| \int_{\partial \triangle_k} f(z) - f(z_0) - f'(z_0)(z - z_0) \, dz \right|$$

Furthermore $L(\partial \triangle) = 2^{-k} L(\partial \triangle_k)$ and

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

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

$$\left| \int_{\partial \triangle} f(z) \, dz \right| \le 4^k L(\partial \triangle_k) \max_{z \in \triangle_k} |f(z) - f(z_0) - f'(z_0)(z - z_0)|$$

$$\le 4^k L(\partial \triangle_k) \varepsilon \max_{z \in \triangle_k} |z - z_0|$$

$$\le L(\partial \triangle)^2 \varepsilon$$

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 prerequites of Goursat theorem can be weakened to continous and holomorphic with the exception of a finite number of points: adequate partioning of the original triangle

Theorem 3.24 (Cauchy's Intergral Formula). Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be open and f holomorphic on Ω . 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 continous 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 finite disjoint sets $X = M \cup N$.

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

$$wx + b > 0$$
 for $x \in M$
 $wx + b < 0$ 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

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

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

$$w_1 + b > 0$$

$$w_2 + b > 0$$

$$w_1 + w_2 + b \le 0$$
$$b < 0$$

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

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 α is the angle between the two vectors. Hence the product is positive if the angle is less than 90° degrees and negative if the angle is between 90° and 180° degrees

$$xy > 0$$
 for $0 \le \alpha < \pi/2$
 $xy < 0$ for $\pi/2 < \alpha \le \pi$

Note, that the sign does not depend on the vector lengths, 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 ??.

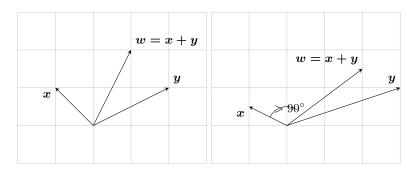


Figure 2: Dot Product and Angle

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° degrees.

$$w_{n+1} = \begin{cases} w_n + x & \text{if } w_n x < 0 \\ w_n + y & \text{if } w_n y < 0 \end{cases}$$

Examples 4.3.

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

$$w_0 = (5,2)$$
 $w_0 x = -3$ $w_0 y = 32$
 $w_1 = (4,3)$ $w_1 x = -1$ $w_1 y = 27$
 $w_2 = (3,4)$ $w_2 x = 1$ $w_2 y = 22$

Algorithm 4.4 (Weight).

```
from random import randint
def add(v, w):
    return tuple(x + y for x, y in zip(v, w))
def dotproduct(v, w):
    return sum(x * y for x, y in zip(v, w))
def weight(x, y):
    w = add(x, y)
    while True:
       if dotproduct(w, x) < 0:</pre>
           w = add(w, x)
        elif dotproduct(w, y) < 0:</pre>
           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 = dotproduct(w, x), dotproduct(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 dotproduct(v, w):
    return sum(x * y for x, y in zip(v, w))
def perceptron(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:
             if dotproduct(w, x) + b >= 0:
             else:
                 z = 0
             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:
    return lambda x: heaviside(dotproduct(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)) \text{ for } x \text{ in } X]
    p = perceptron(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 $H: \mathbb{R} \to \{0,1\}$ is defined as

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

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

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

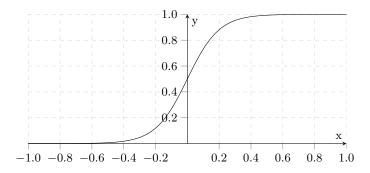


Figure 3: The sigmoid function $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$

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 $\sigma(x) \to 0$ for $x \to -\infty$ and $\sigma(x) \to 1$ for $x \to \infty$
- 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 σ is monotonically increasing over its domain