

Introduction to Numerical Analysis

HW3

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1 CANTOR'S SET

1. *Proof.* As C_i is closed and C is the intersection of these closed sets, C is closed.
It's clear that C is bounded. Thus, by Heine-Borel theorem, C is compact. \square
2. *Proof.* Suppose $x \in C_m$, $y \in C_n$ and $x < y$. There are 2^m subsets in C_m and the length of each subset is $\frac{1}{3^m}$. Also, there are 2^n subsets in C_n and the length of each subset is $\frac{1}{3^n}$. As $C \subset C_m \cap C_n$, suppose $m \leq n$, there must exist a subset in C_n s.t. $x \in C_n$.
If x and y lie in the same subset of C_n , with further division of the subset, there will be a gap between x and y , thus, there exists an element z lies in the gap and satisfies $x < z < y$.
If x and y lie in different subsets of C_n , denoted as $C_{n,i}$ and $C_{n,j}$, it's obvious that such a z exists in the gap between $C_{n,i}$ and $C_{n,j}$ and satisfies $x < z < y$. \square
3. a) 0
b) *Proof.* As there are 2^n subsets in C_n and the length of each subset is $\frac{1}{3^n}$, thus the Lebesgue measure of C_n is the sum of the Lebesgue measure of each closed subset. Thus $\lambda(C_n) = (\frac{2}{3})^n$.
As $C = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$, then $\lambda(C) \leq \lambda(C_n) = (\frac{2}{3})^n$, thus $\lambda(C) = 0$. \square
4. a) *Proof.* As the end points of each subset in C_n is not removed in any subdivision, thus C is not empty. \square

b)

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_i}{3^i}, \text{ with } a_i \in \{0, 2\} \quad (1.1)$$

c) Consider the $i - th$ digit in element s_i , it will be possible to construct such an element that the $i - th$ digit is different from that in s_i , thus s is not included in the original list.

d) *Proof.* Suppose C is countable, express each $x \in C$ in ternary form, then each digit in x is either 0 or 2. Thus, the choice of each digit appears to be binary. Consider the $i - th$ digit in element x_i , it will be possible to construct such an element t , whose $i - th$ digit is different from that in x_i (complementary). Thus t is not included in the original list, which implies the assumption fails. \square

5. Although C is uncountable, but the measure of its complement is 1, which is illustrated below, thus the measure of C is 0.

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(C^c) &= \frac{1}{3} + 2 * \frac{1}{9} + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^i \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - (2/3)^{n+1}}{1 - (2/3)} = 1 \end{aligned} \quad (1.2)$$

2 CANTOR'S FUNCTION

1. *Proof.* It's easy to verify that f_0, f_1 are monotonically increasing continuous functions. Suppose f_n are still monotonically increasing continuous functions for $n = k$. For $n = k + 1$, as f_{k+1} is only different from f_k on each closed subset of C_k , whose length is $\frac{1}{3^n}$ and is denoted as $I_{k,p}$ ($1 \leq p \leq 2^k$) here, it is left to prove that f_{k+1} remains monotonically increasing continuous on each $I_{k,p}$ after the construction process. Since f_k is linear on each $I_{k,p}$, and the recursive construction process doesn't change the values on each ending points, on which the values of f_k is denoted as a, b recursively, the subset of $I_{k,p}$ is valid and the value of f_{k+1} on the central part, whose length is $\frac{1}{3^{k+1}}$, is $\frac{a+b}{2}$. As the measure of the remaining parts of $I_{k,p}$ is not 0, the linear function connecting each ending points is obviously valid. Thus, the new function f_{k+1} is still monotonically increasing continuous. \square
2. *Proof.* Let $g_n(x) = |f_n(x) - f(x)|$, then $g_n(x)$ is positive on C_n and 0 on other places. Further, $g_n(x)$ holds the same value on each closed subset of C_n . Given any $\xi > 0$, it is left to find N s.t. $g_n(x) < \xi$ when $n > N$. As $g_n(x)$ reaches its extremum $\frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{3^n}$ at the $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ of each compact subset of C_n , thus, given any ξ

$$\frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{3^n} < \xi \quad (2.1)$$

which is equivalent to

$$n > \frac{\ln(\frac{1}{6\xi})}{\ln(3)} \triangleq N \quad (2.2)$$

and the target N is given as above. \square

3. a) *Proof.* As $f_c(x)$ is continuous over $[0, 1]$, it is left to prove that a continuous function on a compact is uniformly continuous, which can be proved by contradiction. (the proof haven't figured out yet...) \square

- b) *Proof.* For any $x \in (0, 1] \cap C$, $f_c(x)$ can be expressed as below

$$f_c(x) = \sup\{f_c(y) | y < x, y \in [0, 1] \setminus C\} \quad (2.3)$$

Thus $f_c(x)$ is monotonically increasing. \square

- c) *Proof.* As $f_c(x)$ is constant on each segment dropped by C , thus $f'_c(x)$ is almost 0 everywhere. \square

4. *Proof.* Assume $f_c(x)$ is absolutely continuous, then its Riemann integral exists, which can be expressed as

$$\int_0^1 f'_c(x) dx = f_c(1) - f_c(0) \quad (2.4)$$

However, the *LHS* of (2.4) is 0 as $f'_c(x)$ is 0 almost everywhere, while the *RHS* of (2.4) is 1. Thus its Riemann integral doesn't exist, and therefore the assumption fails. \square

3 TAYLOR'S THEOREM

1. *Proof.* For $n = 0$, apply the fundamental theorem of calculus to $f(x)$ and its derivatives, $f(x)$ can be written as below. It's clear that the theorem is valid in such case.

$$f(x) = f(a) + \int_a^x f'(t) dt \quad (3.1)$$

Suppose the theorem is still valid for $n = k$, then $f(x)$ can be written as

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{f^i(a)}{i!} (x-a)^i + \frac{1}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^k f^{(k+1)}(t) dt \quad (3.2)$$

For $n = k + 1$, as $f^{(k+1)}$ is absolutely continuous, apply the fundamental theorem of calculus to $f^{(k+1)}$, the second part of RHS of $f(x)$ can be written as below

$$\begin{aligned} RHS_2 &= \frac{1}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^k [f^{(k+1)}(a) + \int_a^t f^{(k+2)}(u) du] dt \\ &= \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^k dt + \frac{1}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^k \int_a^t f^{(k+2)}(u) du dt \\ &= \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!} (x-a)^{k+1} + \frac{1}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^k \int_a^t f^{(k+2)}(u) du dt \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

Let

$$g(t) = \int_a^t f^{(k+2)}(u) du \quad (3.4)$$

RHS_2 can be further expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} RHS_2 &= \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!} (x-a)^{k+1} + \frac{1}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^k g(t) dt \\ &= \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!} (x-a)^{k+1} - \frac{1}{(k+1)!} \int_a^x g(t) d(x-t)^{k+1} \\ &= \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!} (x-a)^{k+1} - \frac{1}{(k+1)!} [(x-t)^{k+1} g(t)]_a^x - \int_a^x (x-t)^{k+1} g'(t) dt \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

As $g(a) = 0$ and $g'(t) = f^{(k+2)}(t)$, RHS_2 can be simplified as

$$RHS_2 = \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!} (x-a)^{k+1} + \frac{1}{(k+1)!} \int_a^x (x-t)^{k+1} f^{(k+2)}(t) dt \quad (3.6)$$

Substitute (3.6) into (3.2), $f(x)$ can be expressed as below when $n = k + 1$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (x-a)^i + \frac{1}{(k+1)!} \int_a^x (x-t)^{k+1} f^{(k+2)}(t) dt \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (x-a)^i + \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

Thus the theorem is still valid when n is extended to $k + 1$. □

2. *Proof.* It is left to prove that there exists $c \in [a, x]$ s.t.

$$\frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1} \quad (3.8)$$

which is equal to

$$(n+1) \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt = f^{(n+1)}(c) (x-a)^{n+1} \quad (3.9)$$

As the LHS of (3.9) can be expanded as below

$$\begin{aligned} LHS &= - \int_a^x f^{(n+1)}(t) d(x-t)^{n+1} \\ &= -[(x-t)^{n+1} f^{(n+1)}(t)]_a^x - \int_a^x (x-t)^{n+1} d f^{(n+1)}(t) \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

Apply the medium value theorem ...(haven't figured out yet...)

□

4 CONVERGENCE OF RATIONALS TO IRRATIONALS

1. *Proof.* As e can be written as

$$e = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} \quad (4.1)$$

Suppose it is rational, then it can be written as below, where p, q are prime to each other.

$$e = \frac{p}{q} \quad (4.2)$$

Thus

$$p(q-1)! = q! \sum_{i=0}^q \frac{1}{i!} + q! \sum_{i=q+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} \quad (4.3)$$

Since both LHS and the first part of RHS are integers, the second part of RHS (denoted as RHS_2) should be an integer as well. // RHS_2 can be further expanded as below

$$\begin{aligned} RHS_2 &= \frac{1}{q+1} + \frac{1}{(q+1)(q+2)} + \frac{1}{(q+1)(q+2)(q+3)} + \dots \\ &< \frac{1}{q+1} + \frac{1}{(q+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(q+1)^3} + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{q} < 1 \end{aligned} \quad (4.4)$$

Therefore RHS_2 is not an integer as $RHS_2 > 0$. Thus the assumption fails, and e is irrational. □

2. *Proof.* It's clear that u_n is increasing, and the limit is e , so the maximum distance between 2 element can be denoted as

$$d_{max} < e - (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n \quad (4.5)$$

For any $\xi > 0$, let $d_{max} < \xi$, it is satisfied when $n > N$, where N is the index of the first element s.t. $u_N > e - \xi$.

Thus u_n is a cauchy sequence converging to e . □

3. No, as the limit of a rational sequence may not converging to a rational.