Homework #1

MATH4710J — Numerical Methods

Instructor: Manuel CHARLEMAGNE Student: Turingw1 (ID: 000000)

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Problem 1.

1. Prove that \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , and \mathbb{Q} have the same number of elements.

- 2. Prove that [0, 1] has as many elements as \mathbb{R} .
- 3. Prove that [0, 1] has more elements than \mathbb{N} . Hint: understand Cantor's diagonal argument.

Solution.

1. \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , and \mathbb{Q} have the same number of elements

We want to show that the sets of natural numbers \mathbb{N} , integers \mathbb{Z} , and rational numbers \mathbb{Q} are all countably infinite, i.e., there exists a bijection between each pair.

Step 1: \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} have the same cardinality.

Define a function $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$ by

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ -\frac{n-1}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

This function lists the integers in the order $0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \ldots$ as n increases. It is a bijection, so $|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}|$. Step 2: \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Q} have the same cardinality.

Every rational number can be written as p/q with $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, $q \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\gcd(p,q) = 1$. Arrange all such pairs (p,q) in a grid and enumerate them diagonally (Cantor's diagonal argument), skipping duplicates and zero denominators. This process lists all rationals in a sequence, showing that \mathbb{Q} is countable.

Therefore, there exist bijections $\mathbb{N} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$, so all three sets have the same number of elements.

2. [0, 1] has as many elements as \mathbb{R}

To show that the interval [0, 1] has the same cardinality as \mathbb{R} , we can construct a bijection between these two sets. Consider the function $f:(0,1)\to\mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$f(x) = \tan\left(\pi x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

This function maps the open interval (0, 1) onto the entire real line \mathbb{R} . To include the endpoints 0 and 1, we can extend this function by defining:

$$f(0) = -\infty, \quad f(1) = +\infty$$

This shows that there is a bijection between [0, 1] and \mathbb{R} , hence they have the same cardinality.

3. [0, 1] has more elements than \mathbb{N}

To show that the interval [0, 1] has more elements than \mathbb{N} , we can use Cantor's diagonal argument. Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that there is a bijection between \mathbb{N} and [0, 1]. This means we can list all numbers in [0, 1] as a sequence:

$$x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$$

where each x_i is represented in its decimal expansion. Now, we construct a new number y in [0, 1] by changing the i-th digit of x_i to a different digit (for example, if the i-th digit is 5, change it to 6; if it's 9, change it to 0, etc.). This new number y differs from each x_i in at least one decimal place, meaning y cannot be in the list. This contradiction shows that there is no bijection between \mathbb{N} and [0, 1], hence [0, 1] has more elements than \mathbb{N} .

Problem 2.

- 1. Prove the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality (1.20|1.39) over the complex numbers.
- 2. Show that a distance is always positive.

Solution.

1. Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| \, ||y||, \qquad x, y \in V,$$

Proof:

$$0 \le \langle x - \lambda y, \ x - \lambda y \rangle \tag{1}$$

$$= \langle x, x \rangle - \overline{\lambda} \langle y, x \rangle - \lambda \langle x, y \rangle + |\lambda|^2 \langle y, y \rangle. \tag{2}$$

Take $\lambda = \frac{\langle y, x \rangle}{\langle y, y \rangle}$ (when $y \neq 0$), we have

$$0 \le \langle x, x \rangle - \frac{|\langle x, y \rangle|^2}{\langle y, y \rangle},$$

from which it follows that

$$|\langle x, y \rangle|^2 \le \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle,$$

and hence

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| \, ||y||.$$

which is the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

2. Distance is Always Positive:

A distance function $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ on a set X must satisfy the following properties for all $x, y, z \in X$:

- 1. d(x,y) = 0 if and only if x = y.
- 2. Symmetry: d(x,y) = d(y,x).
- 3. Triangle inequality: $d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, z)$.

Proof

$$\forall x, y \in X, d(x, y) + d(y, x) = 2d(x, y) \ge d(x, x) = 0$$

Student: Turingw1 2 October 1st, 2025

Problem 3.

- 1. Let f be a linear map from a vector space V_1 into a vector space V_2 . Show that the dimension of V_1 is the sum of the dimensions of the kernel and of the image of f. This result is called the **rank-nullity theorem**.
- 2. Prove that the composition of two linear maps is a linear map.
- 3. Prove that the inverse of a linear map is a linear map.

Solution.

1. Let $f: V_1 \to V_2$ be a linear map. We want to show that

$$\dim(V_1) = \dim(\ker(f)) + \dim(\operatorname{im}(f)).$$

Let $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ be a basis for $\ker(f)$. We can extend this basis to a basis for V_1 by adding vectors $\{v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}, \ldots, v_n\}$ such that $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis for V_1 . The images of the added vectors under f, $\{f(v_{k+1}), f(v_{k+2}), \ldots, f(v_n)\}$, form a basis for $\inf(f)$ (Since $\{f(v_{k+1}), f(v_{k+2}), \ldots, f(v_n)\}$ can't be 0 unless $v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}, \ldots, v_n$ are $\inf(f)$). Therefore, we have

$$\dim(V_1) = n = k + (n - k) = \dim(\ker(f)) + \dim(\operatorname{im}(f)).$$

2. Let $f: V_1 \to V_2$ and $g: V_2 \to V_3$ be linear maps. We want to show that the composition $g \circ f: V_1 \to V_3$ is linear. For any $u, v \in V_1$ and scalar c, we have

$$(g \circ f)(u+v) = g(f(u+v)) = g(f(u)+f(v)) = g(f(u)) + g(f(v)) = (g \circ f)(u) + (g \circ f)(v),$$

and

$$(g \circ f)(cu) = g(f(cu)) = g(cf(u)) = cg(f(u)) = c(g \circ f)(u).$$

Thus, $q \circ f$ is linear.

3. Let $f: V_1 \to V_2$ be a bijective linear map. We want to show that the inverse map $f^{-1}: V_2 \to V_1$ is linear. For any $f(u), f(v) \in V_2$ and scalar c, we have

$$f^{-1}(f(u) + f(v)) = f^{-1}(f(u+v)) = u + v = f^{-1}(f(u)) + f^{-1}(f(v)),$$

and

$$f^{-1}(c(f(u))) = f^{-1}(f(cu)) = cu = cf^{-1}(f(u)).$$

And since f is bijective, every element in V_2 can be written as f(u) for some $u \in V_1$. Thus, f^{-1} is linear.

Problem 4.

Intuitively a complete space has "no point missing" anywhere. In particular it means that any Cauchy sequence converges inside the space. In this exercise we show that e is not rational while we can find a Cauchy sequence of rationals converging to e.

- 1. Show that e is irrational.
- 2. Show that the sequence $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ defined by $u_n = (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ is a Cauchy sequence converging to e.

Student: Turingw1

3. Is \mathbb{Q} complete? Explain.

Solution.

1. To show that e is irrational, we can use a proof by contradiction. Assume that e is rational, i.e., $e = \frac{p}{q}$ for some integers p and q. Consider the series expansion of e:

$$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots$$

Multiplying both sides by q!, we get

$$q!e = q!\left(1+1+\frac{1}{2!}+\frac{1}{3!}+\cdots\right) = q!+q!+\frac{q!}{2!}+\frac{q!}{3!}+\cdots$$

The left side is an integer since $e = \frac{p}{q}$ and q!e = p(q-1)!. However, the right side is not an integer because the terms $\frac{q!}{n!}$ for n > q are not integers. This leads to a contradiction, hence e is irrational.

2. Let

$$a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n, \qquad n \ge 1,$$

and define the function

$$f(x) = x \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right), \qquad x \ge 1.$$

Notice that for integer n we have $f(n) = \ln a_n$. To show that $\{a_n\}$ is increasing, it suffices to prove that f is increasing on $[1, \infty)$.

Let u = 1/x > 0. Then

$$f'(x) = \ln(1+u) + x \cdot \frac{1}{1+u} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$

Since u = 1/x, we have $du/dx = -1/x^2 = -u^2$. Substitution yields

$$f'(x) = \ln(1+u) - \frac{u}{1+u}.$$

Define $g(u) = \ln(1+u) - \frac{u}{1+u}$. Then

$$g'(u) = \frac{1}{1+u} - \frac{1}{(1+u)^2} = \frac{u}{(1+u)^2} > 0$$
 $(u > 0),$

and g(0) = 0. Hence g(u) > 0 for all u > 0, so f'(x) > 0 for x > 0. Therefore f is increasing, and thus $\ln a_n = f(n)$ is increasing in n, i.e. $\{a_n\}$ is monotone increasing.

Next, we provide an upper bound. Using the inequality $\ln(1+t) \le t$ valid for t > -1, we obtain for t = 1/n:

$$\ln a_n = n \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \le n \cdot \frac{1}{n} = 1.$$

Therefore $a_n \leq e^1 = e$ for all n. Consequently, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is monotone increasing and bounded above by e. By the monotone convergence theorem for real numbers, $\{a_n\}$ converges in \mathbb{R} .

Finally, in the metric space $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$, every convergent sequence is Cauchy. Hence $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

3. The set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} is not complete. A metric space is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence in that space converges to a limit that is also within the same space. However, there exist Cauchy sequences of rational numbers that converge to irrational numbers, which are not in \mathbb{Q} . For example, the sequence defined by $a_n = (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ converges to e, which is irrational. Since $e \notin \mathbb{Q}$, this shows that \mathbb{Q} is not complete. For simpler example, consider the sequence defined by $b_n = 3.1, 3.14, 3.141, 3.1415, \ldots$, which converges to π . Since π is irrational and not in \mathbb{Q} , this is another example of a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{Q} that does not converge to a limit in \mathbb{Q} . Thus, \mathbb{Q} is not a complete metric space.

Problem 5.

- 1. Write the pseudocode for at least one the following strategy to approximate π .
 - (a) The polygons method;
 - (b) Machin's formula $\frac{\pi}{4} = 4 \arctan \frac{1}{5} \arctan \frac{1}{239}$ and Taylor series;
- 2. Implement at least one of the previous algorithms in MATLAB.

Solution.

1. a) For the unit circle (radius 1), the side length of an inscribed regular n-gon is

$$c_n = 2\sin\frac{\pi}{n}$$
, so $p_n = nc_n = 2n\sin\frac{\pi}{n}$

is the inscribed polygon perimeter. The perimeter of the circumscribed regular n-gon is

$$P_n = 2n \tan \frac{\pi}{n}.$$

Thus

$$n\sin\frac{\pi}{n} \le \pi \le n\tan\frac{\pi}{n}.$$

If we double the number of sides, the inscribed side lengths satisfy

$$c_{2n} = 2\sin\frac{\pi}{2n} = \sqrt{2 - 2\sqrt{1 - \frac{c_n^2}{4}}}.$$

Consequently

$$p_{2n} = 2n c_{2n}.$$

Repeating the doubling step yields arbitrarily tight bounds for π .

Algorithm 1: Polygon method to approximate π

Input : number of sides n (initially 6), number of iterations k Output: approximation of π

1 Function AlgoHw(n, k):

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\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{2} & c_n \leftarrow 2\sin(\pi/n); \\ \mathbf{3} & p_n \leftarrow n \cdot c_n; \\ \mathbf{4} & \mathbf{for} \ i \leftarrow 1 \ \mathbf{to} \ k \ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{5} & c_n \leftarrow \sqrt{2 - 2\sqrt{1 - c_n^2/4}}; \\ \mathbf{6} & p_n \leftarrow 2n \cdot c_n; \\ \mathbf{7} & n \leftarrow 2n; \\ \mathbf{8} & \mathbf{end} \ \mathbf{for} \\ \mathbf{9} & \mathbf{return} \ p_n \\ \mathbf{10} \ \mathbf{end} \end{array}
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b) Using Machin's formula and Taylor series to approximate π :

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 4\arctan\frac{1}{5} - \arctan\frac{1}{239}$$

The Taylor series expansion for arctan(x) is given by:

$$\arctan(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$$

To approximate π , we can truncate the series after a finite number of terms. Here is the pseudocode for the algorithm:

Algorithm 2: Machin's formula to approximate π

Input: number of terms NOutput: approximation of π

1 Function AlgoHw(N):

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2 | \arctan(\frac{1}{5}) \leftarrow 0;

3 | \arctan(\frac{1}{239}) \leftarrow 0;

4 | \mathbf{for} \ n \leftarrow 0 \ \mathbf{to} \ N - 1 \ \mathbf{do}

5 | \arctan(\frac{1}{5}) \leftarrow \arctan(\frac{1}{5}) + \frac{(-1)^n (1/5)^{2n+1}}{2n+1};

6 | \arctan(\frac{1}{239}) \leftarrow \arctan(\frac{1}{239}) + \frac{(-1)^n (1/239)^{2n+1}}{2n+1};

7 | \mathbf{end} \ \mathbf{for}

8 | \pi \leftarrow 4 \cdot (4 \cdot \arctan(\frac{1}{5}) - \arctan(\frac{1}{239}));

9 | \mathbf{return} \ \pi

10 | \mathbf{end}
```

2. Here is a MATLAB implementation of the polygon method to approximate π :

Listing 1: Polygon Method to Approximate Pi

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & n \,=\, 2 \,\, * \,\, n\,;\\ & \textbf{end}\\ & \text{pi_approx} \,=\, \text{p_n};\\ \textbf{end} \end{array}$$

Compiled with \LaTeX .