

#3 (a)

$$E_n := \int_0^1 x^n e^{x-1} dx$$

want to show that $E_n = 1 - nE_{n-1}$ for $n \geq 1$, n an integer

$$\text{and } E_0 = \int_0^1 e^{x-1} dx = 1 - 1/e$$

Proof:

using integration by parts, we show that

$$\int_0^1 x^n e^{x-1} dx = x^n e^{x-1} \Big|_0^1 - n \int_0^1 x^{n-1} e^{x-1} dx$$

$$\begin{aligned} \uparrow \\ \text{let } u = x^n \\ dv = e^{x-1} \Rightarrow du = nx^{n-1} dx \\ v = e^{x-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$= (1 - 0) - n \int_0^1 x^{n-1} e^{x-1} dx$$

$$= 1 - nE_{n-1}$$

//

(c) Let E_n 's be the resulting values from iterating

$$E_n = 1 - nE_{n-1}, \text{ with } E_0 \text{ given.}$$

and let $\tilde{E}_n$'s be the resulting values from iteration of

$$\tilde{E}_n = 1 - n\tilde{E}_{n-1}, \text{ where } \tilde{E}_0 = E_0 + \varepsilon_0 \text{ is a small perturbation of } E_0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{E}_1 = 1 - \tilde{E}_0 = 1 - E_0 - \varepsilon_0 = E_1 - \varepsilon_0$$

$$\tilde{E}_2 = 1 - 2\tilde{E}_1 = 1 - 2(E_1 - \varepsilon_0) = 1 - 2E_1 + 2\varepsilon_0 = E_2 + 2\varepsilon_0$$

$$\tilde{E}_3 = 1 - 3\tilde{E}_2 = 1 - 3(E_2 + 2\varepsilon_0) = E_3 - 3 \cdot 2\varepsilon_0 \quad \dots \quad \tilde{E}_n = E_n + (-1)^n n! \varepsilon_0$$

So, in other words, if $\tilde{E}_n = E_n + \varepsilon_n$, this implies $\varepsilon_n = (-1)^n n! \varepsilon_0$

What this says is that if we begin with some $\tilde{E}_0$ which is even slightly different from E_0 , let's say

$$\epsilon_0 = (\tilde{E}_0 - E_0) = \text{error in initial value of } E$$

then after n iterations,

$$\tilde{E}_n = E_n + (-1)^n n! \epsilon_0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\tilde{E}_n - E_n) = (-1)^n n! \epsilon_0 = \text{error in the } n^{\text{th}} \text{ approximation due to the error in the } \text{initial value.}$$

$n!$ grows quite quickly - in fact $50! = \mathcal{O}(10^{64})$.

So in our computation for (b), since e is an irrational number and so cannot be ~~expt~~ exactly represented

by the computer, our initial value $E_0 = 1 - 1/e$ has (inherently) some small error in it due to roundoff error and possibly more. The above analysis says that even if this error is $\mathcal{O}(10^{-16})$ the resulting error by the n^{th} iteration is

$$\mathcal{O}(\epsilon_n) = n! \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$$

$$\text{so for } n=50 \Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(10^{64}) \times \mathcal{O}(10^{-16}) = \mathcal{O}(10^{48})$$

huge!

#3 part (b) - comments:

notice that

$$E_n := \int_0^1 x^n e^{x+1} dx < \int_0^1 e^{x+1} dx = 1 - 1/e$$

for all values of n , because $x \in [0, 1] \Rightarrow x^n \leq 1$.

This says that for every n , the values of E_n should never be larger than $1 - 1/e$! Thus our numerical approximation must be far from reasonable for large values of n .

#4 (a) Analyze $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\sin(x)}{1} \right|$.

First, notice that this limit does not converge

because $\sin(x)$ oscillates between -1 and 1 for all x . However, we do know that $\left| \frac{\sin(x)}{1} \right| \leq 1 \quad \forall x$

regardless of how large x is $\Rightarrow$ "lim" $\left| \frac{\sin(x)}{1} \right| \leq c$

and so $\sin(x) = O(1)$.

It is clearly not the case that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin(x)}{1} = 1, \text{ so } \sin(x) \not\sim 1 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

($\sin(x)$ is not asymptotic to 1 as $x \rightarrow \infty$)

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x^m} = ?$ for $m > 0$, m an integer.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln(x) = +\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^m = \infty$$

So we can apply L'Hopital's rule:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x^m} \stackrel{L'H}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/x}{m x^{m-1}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{m x^m} = 0 \quad \text{for all positive integers } m!$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln(x) = o(x^m).$$

(c) First (show)

$$\sinh(x) \sim e^x/2 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sinh(x)}{e^x/2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 - e^{-2x}) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \sinh(x) \sim e^x/2$$

$$\text{Also: } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cosh(x)}{e^x/2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + e^{-2x}) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \cosh(x) \sim e^x/2$$

* In general, if $f \sim g$ and $h \sim g$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$
then $f \sim h$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ as well:

$$\text{proof: } f \sim g \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1$$

$$h \sim g \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{h(x)}{g(x)} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{h(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)/g(x)}{h(x)/g(x)} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow f \sim h. //$$

So as a result $\sinh(x) \sim \cosh(x)$ automatically!

(d) Analyze asymptotics of $e^{1/x}$ for $x \rightarrow 0$.

First: Notice that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} e^{1/x} = \lim_{\hat{x} \rightarrow \infty} e^{\hat{x}} = \infty \quad (\text{consider a change of variables } \hat{x} = 1/x)$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} e^{1/x} = \lim_{\hat{x} \rightarrow -\infty} e^{\hat{x}} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow$ So $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} e^{1/x}$ does not exist!

Look at one-sided limits: Since $\frac{e^{\hat{x}}}{2} \sim \sinh(\hat{x}) \sim \cosh(\hat{x})$ as $\hat{x} \rightarrow \infty$ by part (c)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{e^{1/x}}{2} \sim \sinh(1/x) \sim \cosh(1/x) \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0^+$$

$$\text{looking at } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} e^{1/x} = \lim_{\hat{x} \rightarrow -\infty} e^{\hat{x}} = 0$$

and since:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\sinh(1/x)}{2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{e^{1/x} - e^{-1/x}}{2e^{1/x}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} 1 - e^{-2/x} = +\infty$$

$$\sinh(1/x) \not\sim e^{1/x}/2 \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0^-$$

Moral: Even though it may look as though you can just do a "change of variables"

$$\text{from } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{1/x} - e^{-1/x}}{e^{1/x}}$$

doesn't always work! Be very careful!

#6: First $p(x)$ is a degree 2 polynomial,
so the Taylor series for $p(x)$ only has 3
terms ($p^{(n)}(x) = 0$ for $n \geq 3$), and

$$p(x+h) = p(x) + hp'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2}p''(x)$$
$$p(x-h) = p(x) - hp'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2}p''(x)$$

↑
exactly equal!

Subtracting $\Rightarrow \frac{p(x+h) - p(x-h)}{2h} = p'(x)$ (again this is an exact equality)

now since p is defined so that $p(x) = f(x)$, $p(x+h) = f(x+h)$
and $p(x-h) = f(x-h)$

$$\Rightarrow p'(x) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h} \cong f'(x)$$

Similarly, adding $\Rightarrow p(x+h) + p(x-h) - 2p(x) = p''(x)h^2$

$$\Rightarrow p''(x) = \frac{p(x+h) - 2p(x) + p(x-h)}{h^2}$$
$$= \frac{f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)}{h^2} \cong f''(x)$$

Thus, there is no difference between using the central diff. approx to
 f' and f'' or approximating f first by p and then computing
 $p'(x) \cong f'$ and $p'' \cong f''$ directly!

Moreover, the central difference approximation is exact
if $f(x)$ is a polynomial of degree ≤ 2 .